

The Changing Nature of Work and the State of Labour Standards in Ghana

By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the PhD (Human Resource Management) and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgment has been made in the next.

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ABSTRACT

The state of employment within countries and the world at large is of considerable importance to both governments and international organisations. In recent years, the nature of work has become more flexible and insecure. The juxtaposition of the two apparently contrary targets, flexibility and security, raises concern for the prevention of 'destructive destruction' and the assurance of security for employees. To achieve this, labour market regulations are thus needed to circumvent the weak positions of employees and to provide decent work standards for workers. This study uses interviews and questionnaires in a mixed method to address the workplace changes and the labour standards in 104 Ghanaian organisations. The main objective of the study was to investigate into these changes at work and the state of labour standards in Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to analyse how labour standards and nature of work mediate the HRM - organisational productivity relationship. The study also sought to assess the extent to which Ghanaian employment laws comply with the ILO core standards. The interviews were analysed using grounded theory while the questionnaires provided data for analysing six hypotheses on mediation. Data was aggregated from the individual level to the organisational level. Within group agreements and Intra Class Correlations (ICCs) were calculated to provide empirical justification for aggregating the data. From the results of the hierarchical multiple regression, security mediated the HPWS-organisational relationship however, flexibility did not provide a statistically significant result for mediation. It was further revealed that collective bargaining as a labour standard was a mediator in the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship. Discrimination was also found to mediate the relationship but had a negative relationship with organisational productivity. Freedom of association was not one of the means through which HPWS impacted on organisational productivity. From the interviews, it was revealed that the level of workers' security and labour standards depended on how typical or atypical ones work was. It was also revealed that employers deliberately prevented the formation of unions in the private sectors. It is thus recommended that in the Ghanaian workplace, the law and labour market institutions must be seen as biting. The 'stick and carrot' approach can be used to punish and reward organisations on labour standards. Lastly, it is recommended that organisations pursue the implementation of the labour standards as they contributed to enhancement in productivity.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wonderful family especially my parents, Mr. George Osei-Kwame and Madam Christiana Gyebi.

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ABBREVIATIONS

Ability, Motivation and Opportunity	-	AMO
Association of Ghana Industries	-	AGI
Association of Labour Unions	-	ALU
Business and Financial Times	-	B&FT
Cadbury Cocoa Partnership	-	CCP
Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development	-	CIPD
Civil Servants Association	-	CSA
Civil Servants Association	-	CSA
Communications Workers' Union	-	CWU
Construction and Building Workers' Union	-	CBWU
Department of Co-operatives	-	DOC
Department of Factories Inspectorate	-	DFI
Employee Involvement and Practices	-	EIP
European Social Survey	-	ESS
Fair Labour Association	-	FLA
Fair Wages and Salaries Commission	-	FWSC
Federation of Universities Senior Staff Association of Ghana	-	FUSSAG
General Agricultural Workers' Union	-	GAWU
General Transport, Petroleum and Chemical Workers' Union	-	GTPCWU
Ghana Co-operative College (GCC) and Organization of All African Trades Union - OAATU		
Ghana Co-operative Council	-	GCC
Ghana Employers' Association	-	GEA
Ghana Federation of Labour	-	GFL
Ghana Mine Workers' Union	-	GMWU
Ghana National Association of Teachers	-	GNAT
Ghana Private Road Transport Union	-	GPRTU
Ghana Registered Nurses Association	-	GRNA
Ghana Social Opportunities Project	-	GSOP
Global Reporting Initiative	-	GRI

Graduate Entrepreneurship Business Support Scheme	-	GEBSS
Gross Domestic Product	-	GDP
Health Services Workers' Union	-	HSWU
High involvement work practices	-	HIWP
High Performance Human Resource Practices	-	HPHRP
High performance working practices	-	HPWP
High performance working systems	-	HPWS
High Performance Working Systems	-	HPWS
Higher National Diploma	-	HND
Human Resource	-	HR
Human Resource Management	-	HRM
Inter Correlation Efficient	-	ICC
Inter Rater Relationship	-	IRR
Institute of Human resource Management	-	IHRM
Integrated Community Centres for Employable Skills	-	ICCES
International Labour Organization's	-	ILO
International Standard Organization	-	ISO
Judicial Service Association of Ghana	-	JUSAG
Judicial Services Staff Association of Ghana	-	JUSSAG
Knowledge, Skills and Abilities	-	KSAs
Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty	-	LEAP
Local Government Workers' Union	-	LGWU
Management Development and Productivity Institute	-	MDPI
Maritime and Dock-workers' Union	-	MDU
Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations	-	MELR
National Board of Small Scales Industries	-	NBSSI
National Consultative Forum of Ghana Labour	-	NFGL
National Labour Commission	-	NLC
National Redemption Council	-	NRC
National Tripartite Committee	-	NTC
National Union of Seamen	-	NUS

National Vocational Training Institute	-	NVTI
Occupational Safety and Health	-	OSH
Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development	-	OECD
Opportunities Industrialization Centre	-	OIC
Organisational citizenship behaviours	-	OCB
Organizational Productivity	-	ORGPDT
People's/Workers' Defence Committees	-	PWDC
Principal component analysis	-	PCA
Provisional National Defence Council	-	PNDC
Public Services Joint Standing Negotiating Committee	-	PSJSNC
Public Services Workers' Union	-	PSWU
Public Utilities and Regulatory Commission	-	PURC
Public Utility Workers' Union	-	PUWU
Railway Engine-men's Union	-	REU
Railway Workers' Union	-	RWU
Resource Based Value	-	RBV
Senior Secondary Certificate Education	-	SSCE
Standard Deviation	-	SD
Statistical Package for Social Sciences	-	SPSS
Strategic Human Resource Management	-	SHRM
Teachers and Educational Workers' Union	-	TEWU
Textiles, Garments and Leather Employees Union	-	TGLEU
Timber and Wood-workers' Union	-	TWU
Trades Union Congress	-	TUC
United Association for Labour Education	-	UALE
Union of Industry, Commerce & Finance Workers'	-	UNICOF
United Kingdom	-	UK
United Nations	-	UN
United States	-	US
West Africa Senior Secondary Certificate Education	-	WASSCE

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The 21st century dawns on the global community with so much dynamism and significant changes in several areas of the economy. One of such areas that cannot be understated is the nature of work which has drastically taken a new phase in recent times. These dramatic natures of the changes in the world of work are illustrated by the phrases used to describe those changes: the *transformation* of industrial relations; *re-engineering* the workplace; *reinventing* government. To the extent that these are accurate descriptors, then these would imply the need for transformation, re-engineering and re-inventing the labour policies that govern the changing nature of work (Gunderson and Riddell, 1999).

In the view of Gunderson and Riddell, (1995:1), "the changing nature of the labour market means that new strategies and directions must be entertained. What was appropriate for a workforce dominated by males working "9 to 5" in a tariff-protected job in a fixed work site with a reasonable degree of job continuity may be less appropriate for today's workforce. Rapid change gives rise to obsolescence not only of plant, equipment and skills, but also of policies". 'Employment structures are changing, as are working conditions. Detecting a pattern of change in key elements of the terms and conditions for work is however, particularly difficult. Underlying the observed changes are the twin pressures for flexibility and security and the search for new ways of balancing them" (ILO, 2006:33).

Various sectors have seen significant changes since the 1990s when economic liberalisation policies began to gain roots, for example, the banking sector, traditionally has been seen as the bastion of formality and long-term employment but are now changing with the introduction of employment/recruitment agencies into the sector. These changes are taking place in a general context of labour market liberation and the informalisation of work in almost every sector of the economy of Ghana. The changes in the world of work include: job insecurity perceptions and organisational transience, new career patterns concern with employability and the transactional psychological contract, the war for talent, globalisation and internationalisation of goods and services, ICT exploitation and diffusion and continuing corporate restructuring, takeovers and mergers (Pilbeams and Corbridge, 2006).

Currently the nature of work has been transformed by globalisation with the introduction of work practices which seek to distinguish between core and peripheral staff like the practice of numerical, functional, distancing and pay flexibility as introduced by the Atkinson's model. Human resource practices have introduced temporal working, part-time, job sharing, and agency work in place of permanent lifelong job which provided for job security. In the UK, changes in work are seen in the areas of increases in non-manual jobs and increases in part time jobs by women (Bryson and Gomez, 2005). The pressure for flexibility is focused on both the ease of hiring and firing and on working time, with many employers seeking ways to lengthen the time in which capital is fully utilized. This can involve shift or on call work and other flexible-time arrangements. In many industrialized countries more people are working longer hours than the standard 35 to 40-hour week, while an increasing number work shorter hours. In consequence, the middle group, whose hours are grouped around the standard week, is shrinking

(Rosenberg, 2008). Temporal contract workers are more likely to work at unconventional times. In a number of developing countries the average work week, although declining, remains longer than in developed countries, ranging from 40 to 50 hours per week (ILO, 2006).

Changes in the nature of work like the use of outsourcing, part time and temporal workers may be contributing to the level of labour standards enjoyed by a worker. For example the use of outsourcing, temporal and part time workers may be a factor in the decline of trade unionism in Ghana. Questions that have been raised include the status of employment and the membership in trade unions. Another question that arises is do all types of employees in different forms of employment attract the same right to join or form trade unions in Ghana? As a trade union remains the main basis for collective bargaining, the form of employment and the right to join or form trade unions becomes a central issue as this can be a 'disenfranchisement' for some kinds of employment status.

Collective bargaining has traditionally been viewed as the 'voice' for employees as it provides employees ideas and opinions for constructive and participative ways of managing work and organisations productively. With the current changes in the nature of work, it is worthwhile to study how 'voice' at the workplace is being compromised or upheld in the name of 'leanness'. Is it now a case of 'silence is golden'? Is this silence based on fear (Quiescence) or resignation (acquiescence)? What are the implications of voice or silence at the workplace on organisational productivity? Closely tied to the issue of trade unionism and collective bargaining is the issue of discrimination at the workplace. The presence or absence of unions or collective bargaining can be determined by the employment status of the workers. An aspect of the nature of changing work that can directly or indirectly increase discrimination at the workplace is job security.

Understanding discrimination helps explain workers attitude which affects productivity. In the light of the above, it is imperative and appropriate to investigate into the existing labour standards taking into account the changing nature of work.

For the purposes of this study, discussion of labour issues was restricted to three core ILO labour standards – freedom of association (trade union), collective bargaining, and non-discrimination (equality) at the workplace. The general Core Labour Standards (CLS) covered in the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (1998) constitute fundamental human rights and selected standards which are commonly recognised as being of special importance, because they address serious problems, or because they concern problems that many workers encounter. These include: the right to a healthy and safe workplace; the payment of a living wage; the elimination of excessive hours; the provision of regular employment where possible; and the elimination of harsh or inhumane treatment. These form the basis of most codes of labour practice. Labour organizations and governments of the developed countries are the key promoters of labour standards. Developing countries (like Ghana), on the other hand, generally want to remain free to determine for themselves the standards that best meet their needs in the progress of development.

This study investigated three of the core labour standards by ILO and their implementation in various sectors of the Ghanaian economy. The study also analysed the relationship between labour legislation, policies and conventions and current nature of work, and explored the extent to which the changing nature of work affected the application of labour standards in organisations. Although many kinds of labour standards exist, the ones that are referred to as the three core labour standards are those that the international community has agreed are applicable to all countries because they

protect basic human rights. Enforcement of these standards benefits countries and organisations as a whole, not only its workers, because the core labour standards are central to the healthy functioning of market economies (OECD, 2012:9).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

International Labour Standards have been issues of concern for the ILO's tripartite constituency of governments and representatives of employers and workers from member states. There have been instances where ILO has raised questions about the state and compliance of the ILO standards in member countries that have ratified these standards. An examination of available labour standards from the ILO on Ghana's compliance to the core labour standards leaves much to be desired. In 2008, the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) reported that the government of Ghana has been faulted for breaching the core conventions of the ILO that the country had ratified (Chronicle, Ghana, 13th July 2011).

The report cited Ghana as breaching one of core conventions of the ILO which deals with workers freedom of association and stated that "many workers and professionals are excluded from the right to organise and join a freely chosen trade union. Likewise, the right to strike is limited and restricted in practice." Baah (2005) also reports that workers' rights are violated by some employers in the Ghanaian Labour market. However, few studies have examined the state of the labour standards in Ghana (Akorsu, 2010). Akorsu's study on labour standards in Ghana rather focused mainly on local and Multinational manufacturing companies in Ghana. There have not been any studies that have considered labour standards in other sectors in the country such as the Service sector.

Another area of concern in achieving decent work in Ghana is the effectiveness of laws in complying with the International Labour Standards. Despite the strong legal and institutional backing in Ghana, there have been gross violations of workers right of freedom of association at the enterprise levels. Statistics indicate that the core labour standards are enforced in the formal sector which employs only 10% of the Ghanaian workforce (Baah and Akorsu, 2007). Thus majority of the jobs found in the informal sector do not comply with the standards.

However, there have not been any known studies that have examined the effectiveness of the major laws in complying with the ILO labour standards in Ghana. This study therefore fills this gap by focusing on labour standards across sectors of the Ghanaian labour Market. The study also examines the effectiveness of the major laws in complying with the ILO labour standards in Ghana.

Though the main concern of the ILO labour standards is the provision of decent work at the organisational level, a lot of changes in the nature of work may also affect the decency of these jobs. Research carried out in the developed countries points out that there have been several changes in the nature of work including work flexibility and security (Ebbinghaus and Kittel, 2005; Madsen, 2007a, 2007b; Lind and Rasmussen, 2008). These changes have been an area of interest for European countries especially Denmark which has proposed a flexicurity concept to examine the changes in the nature of work. (Wilthagen and Tros, 2004; Garcia, 2009). Despite the fact that the nature of work in Ghana is constantly changing in response to increasing pressure on organisations to be more competitive, agile and customer focused to be a “lean enterprise”, few empirical research examining these changes have been conducted in developing

countries. The study therefore seeks to examine the changes that have taken place in the nature of work and how they affect work flexibility and security in Ghana.

The extant literature provides empirical evidence to support the relationship between HRM practices and organisational productivity (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995; Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Toh, Morgeson, and Campion, 2008). However, this relationship has been referred to as a black box and researchers have called for processes through which this relationship exists (Boselie, Dietz and Boon, 2005). Similarly there are few studies that have examined how HRM practices affect nature of work such as flexibility and security. There are also studies that examine how HRM practices affect labour standards. However there is not known studies that have examined how nature of work or labour standards can mediate the relationship between HRM practices and organisational productivity. This study therefore contributes to the literature and closes the gap by examining the mediation effect of nature of work on HRM practices and organisational performance. Therefore the problem the researcher intends to investigate into is the state of labour standards and the nature of work and how these mediate the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship in Ghana.

1.3 Research Objectives

The research objectives for this study were presented in two sub-sections. The first sections covered the general objectives while the subsequent section covered on the specific objectives to guide this study.

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study was to to analyse the changing nature of work and state of labour standards within organizations across sectors of the Ghanaian economy.

1.3.2 Specific Objective:

To achieve the general objectives, the following specific objectives were set to:

- i. identify the key changes in the nature of work by sectors of the Ghanaian economy
- ii. investigate the state of labour standards in organisations in Ghana
- iii. assess the effectiveness of the major laws in complying with the ILO labour standards in Ghana.
- iv. analyse the mediation effect of the nature of work on HRM practices and organizational productivity in Ghana.
- v. examine the mediation effect of labour standards on the HRM practices and organizational productivity in Ghana.

1.4 Research Questions

Based on the above objectives, the following research questions guided the study:

- i. What are the key changes in the nature of work in the various sectors of the Ghanaian economy?
- ii. What is the state of labour standards in organisations in Ghana?
- iii. How effective are the major national laws in complying with the ILO core labour standards in Ghana?

- iv. How does the nature of work mediate the relationship between HRM practices and organisational productivity in Ghana?
- v. How do labour standards mediate the relationship between HRM practices and organisational productivity in Ghana?

1.5 Hypotheses for the study

The following hypotheses were raised based on the theoretical and conceptual framework provided in chapter three. These were:

H1: Organisational productivity is the direct result of the HPWS in place in an organisation.

H2: Collective flexibility will mediate the positive relationship between HPWS and Organisational productivity.

H3: Collective Security will mediate the positive relationship between HPWS and Organisational productivity.

H4: Union (freedom to form or join union) will mediate the direct and positive relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity.

H5: collective bargaining as voice will mediate the direct and positive relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity.

H6: discrimination will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study fills a gap in that it focuses on all the major sectors of the economy of Ghana. Previous researchers like Akorsu (2010) have focused labour standards in the manufacturing sector alone. This study however, provided an extensive empirical data on all major sectors of the Ghanaian economy. The study extends Akorsu's (2010) study on

labour standards to seek information on how work has changed over the years and to analyse how established labour standards give recognition to the changing nature of work in Ghana.

The study provides a conceptual perspective on labour standards and the nature of work that will go a long way in helping:

1. social partners and enforcement agencies perform their oversight responsibilities and enforce compliance on labour standards across sectors of the economy.
2. the government to keep track of the changing nature of work and the need to have the labour standards extended to cover the areas of change.

The study enhances the economic development of Ghana as its findings will assist the government of Ghana and the ministry of employment and labour relations in reviewing the national policy on labour standards. The gap between the law and the practice will be appreciated better in this research as it brings to light some areas of concern.

As part of the ILO supervisory system, in article 22 of the ILO constitution, member states are to annually report on *‘the position of its law and practice in regard to the matters dealt with in the Convention, showing the extent to which effect has been given, or is proposed to be given, to any of the provisions of the Convention by legislation, administrative action, collective agreement or otherwise and stating the difficulties which prevent or delay the ratification of such Convention’*. This study can be an empirical source for the government on the state of the labour labours and the challenges faced in the implementation of the labours. This is important especially as Ghana has no information on its labour standards on the ILO website.

The industries involved will benefit from this study as its findings will assist employers within the industries especially human resource managers in drafting and implementing labour standards policies. This will go a long way to reduce cost in the form of compensation, strikes, lockouts, lost working hours resulting from injuries and also to reduce employee turnover.

Finally, this research is an addition to knowledge on labour standards in the academia especially in Ghana (due to its wide coverage and research method) by providing guidance for:

- I. Industrial relations as it affects the working conditions of employees which normally triggers strikes and lockouts causing valuable man-days to be lost which impacts on the gross domestic product of Ghana.
- II. Leadership in corporate governance as poor labour standards borders on ethical issues which when made public can affect the dealings of the organisation with its stakeholders. Leaders have the ethical and legal duty to protect their employees.
- III. Employees to know and exercise their rights at the workplace.
- IV. Government agencies especially the Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare in some salient issues to address on labour standards in the country.

The benefit of this study extends to all employees, employers, the state and the general public as this study has uncovered the state of our workplace, and how it affects organisational productivity which consequently affects the national productivity.

1.7 Delimitations of the study

The geographical scope of the study was limited to the Ghana. The study was a cross-sectorial analysis of the established labour standards and the changing nature of work in Ghana. Industries understudied were drawn from all sectors of the Ghanaian economy so as to make the findings of this study relevant to all sectors of the economy.

The organisations sampled in this study constituted a greater proportion of the Ghanaian industry in totality and as such the findings of this study are representative reflections of what happens in the Ghanaian industry. The recommendations thereof are applicable to every sector of the Ghanaian economy.

The conceptual scope of the study was limited to three labour standards – freedom of association, collective bargaining and discrimination, and two aspects of work – flexibility and security. These variables were assessed in the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship.

1.8 Overview of research methodology

This was a mixed method research strategy that involved studying the current situation as it is quantitatively and then undertaking a qualitative study to understand the research well and to define labour problems and find the most suitable way of solving these problems. This resulted in large descriptive study of the case studies. In this study, data from archives, responses from questionnaires, interviews and observations were weaved together.

The case study research design was chosen because it focuses on typical sectors and the prevailing labour standards and also allow for comparative analysis of sectors in the Ghanaian economy. This allowed for generalisation of findings and appropriate

recommendations made to the Ghanaian economy. The population covered the main sectors of the Ghanaian economy that defined the activity sectors of the country. According to the Ghana Chamber of Commerce, Ghana has three main economic sectors: the Primary, Secondary and the Tertiary sectors. The primary sector extracts or harvests products from the earth. The secondary sector concentrates on manufacturing, processing and construction. The tertiary sector is normally referred to as the service sector. This sector provides services to people and industries. A fourth sector was added which is a branch from the tertiary sector called the Quaternary sector. This sector engages in intellectual activities. Blue collar workers from these sectors were the main focus.

The population was exposed to stratified sampling method. The stratified random sampling technique was used because it helps to achieve greater statistical significance and helped to reduce standard error. The research sample comprised of organisations across four main sectors of the Ghanaian economy. The sampling frame was firstly divided into the four sectors (strata). These were the primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary sectors. These strata were of non-overlapping sectors as shown. The stratum was further divided into 23 purposively non-overlapping sub-sectors. Organisations under each sector were conveniently selected. All junior workers were targeted and at least two managers were purposively selected within each organisation in a sub sector.

Data was collected from both primary and secondary sources based on the objectives of this study. The primary data was collected using structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. This was supplemented by the Researcher observation of work atmosphere, artefacts, processes and procedures in the sampled organizations. Questionnaires were also distributed with the help of a team of trained Teaching

Assistants (TAs). These TAs were trained to translate the questionnaires into Twi and administer the questionnaires in all organisations. The TAs also helped in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires in areas where workers could read and understand English. Secondary data on portions of the major laws in Ghana in the 1992 constitution and the labour Act 2003(Act 651) were analysed.

Quantitative data from the structured questionnaire was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) while grounded theory was used for qualitative data collected through one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews. The study was a cross-sectional mixed method study combining a survey using questionnaires and interviews. Quantitative data was collected from a sample size of 2400 and 100 workers for the qualitative data across the selected sectors. The study used Barron and Kenny's mediation to test for labour standards and nature of work at the workplace using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). With the qualitative study, the grounded theory was used with axial coding to generate the themes.

1.9 Limitations of the study

The first limitation of the study is the scope of the work which is limited to three core labour standards – Trade Union, Collective Bargaining and Discrimination. Though these are relevant to Ghana, they limited the research from investigating into other standards that are equally important- Child Labour, Health and Safety.

The vast distribution of the organisations in the selected sectors across the country made it difficult for collecting data from all regions in Ghana. As such, the research was limited to the southern part of Ghana, mainly, Ashanti Region, Greater Accra, Western Region and Brong Ahafo Region.

Another limitation was the sampling frame used in the study. It would have been appropriate to use an already existing sampling frame recognised in Ghana by bodies like Association of Ghana Industries or Ghana National Chamber of Commerce and Industry. However, upon many contacts and formal requests for organisations under each sector of the economy, no favourable response was received. Thus, the study had to rely on a self-generated sampling frame to categorise organisations for the purpose of sampling.

The criterion used for the sampling of the organisations also posed another limitation. This was because it alienated some organisations not known by the researcher. There was a further limitation which required an organisation to have at least ten workers. Thus a number of self-employed and small scale organisations who did not meet this criterion were automatically disqualified by the criteria.

A prominent limitation to this research was that the government and trade unions representatives were excluded from the research. Considering the nature of the research, it would have been prudent to involve these representatives in the research to have a fair view of the labour standards from all the parties in the employment relations. The research involved management and employees and sought their views on the research domain.

1.10 Organisation of the study

This study is made up of nine chapters:

Chapter one covered the background of the study, the Problem Statement, Objective of the Study, Research Question, Significance of the Study, Scope of the Study, Limitations of the Study as well as the Organisation of the Study.

Chapter two covered the literature review to support the study. Literature focused on the ILO core standards and the changing nature of work.

Chapter three covered the theoretical and conceptual framework to support the study. The chapter begins with the discussion of the theory and models underpinning this study. A framework is presented based on the theory and the models proposed on how labour standards and nature of work are affected and in turn affect other organisational level variables. Base on the framework, six hypotheses were proposed to test the proposed model.

Chapter four was on country profile of the study area. Issues concerning labour standards and labour institutions in Ghana are covered to give background knowledge of the area under study.

Chapter five presented the research methodology and include the Sources of Data, Sampling Techniques, Data Collection Instruments and Data Analysis Techniques. This chapter also covers the philosophical underpinnings and justifications.

Chapter six was the first chapter on the presentation of findings of the study. This chapter was the descriptive chapter. All the questions in the questionnaires are described using means and standard deviations as well as cross tabulations, bar charts and pie charts. Brief descriptive for the qualitative study are also presented.

Chapter seven was the analytical chapter which presented the analysis of the findings from the questionnaire. This chapter began with the testing of the assumptions for the use

of parametric analysis. This was followed by sections presenting the aggregation of the data in order to analysis the study at the organisational level. The various hypotheses were then tested using multiple regression analysis.

Chapter eight presented the discussions on chapters six and seven and relates them to literature. The discussion was supported with the findings from the interviews. Apart from the primary findings, the discussion also centered on the documentary analysis of the 1992 Constitution and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651). The discussion focused on the findings on the various research objectives set for this study.

Chapter nine presents the summary of findings, conclusion and recommendation. These findings are organized around the research objectives for the study. The chapter also provides some areas for further studies.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is the first of two main chapters on literature review. The chapter covers general literature review on the variables in the study – labour standards, nature of work and organisational productivity. The chapter presents reviews of literature and history on provides summary of research on the objectives of the study as well as lays the foundation for the next chapter on theoretical and conceptual framework for this study. The chapter begins with a definition of the concepts and then covers the main ILO conventions on labour standards. Gaps in the implementation of these labour standards are identified and various research works are reviewed. The chapter ends with a review on two aspects of the nature of work – flexibility and security. The various dimensions of flexibility and security were reviewed and their impacts on individual workers and organisations were covered.

2.1 Definitions of concepts

Core labour standards are a framework of internationally agreed conventions which determine minimum expectations of rights at work (Ladbury and Gibbons, 2000). International labour standards are the norms or rules that regulate or govern working conditions and labour relations (Akorsu and Cooke, 2011).

Advocates of all stripes argue that workers' freedom of association and collective bargaining are human rights, and over the past twenty years, the International Labour Organization's (ILO) International Labour Standards have been cited increasingly as the authoritative, worldwide body of jurisprudence on workers' rights as human rights (Hilgert, 2009).

2.2 Labour Standards as Human Rights

Various authors have brought to light (Cappelli, 1997; Green, 2001, 2006; Lowe, 2000) and extensively debated a number of new trends in the world of work (Godard, 2004; Nolan and Wood, 2003; Taylor, 2002), including a decline in union representation, an increasingly insecure, unsafe and stressful work environment adoption of alternative forms of work and employment and human resource management (HRM) practices. Putnam (2000) and Godard (2007) extend this debate to into its effects on political participation and democracy in countries.

In the context of low-income countries, the effects of basic rights and freedoms for employees can be identified in relation to 'freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining. This is especially relevant in the informal labour market, which makes up the vast majority of waged labour in developing countries, because such workers have no voice' to end discrimination in ensuring that skills and capabilities are not wasted (Cotton, Sohail and Scott, 2005:619).

Core labour standards refer to the four categories of rights which, in international law, are considered to be fundamental or 'irreducible' human rights (Ladbury and Gibbon, 2000). 'Although the ILO was founded before the modern human rights era and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948), the notion of human

rights over time became linked to international labour standards. Many ILO conventions, as they are called, elaborate rights articulated in the Universal Declaration. The ILO (1998) formally recognized a group of fundamental rights when it boiled down eighty years of international jurisprudence into the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. A pronouncement that four sets of rights identified in eight labour conventions were considered by the ILO to be fundamental rights at work. These rights were named “core labour standards,” (Hilgert, 2009).

These core labour standards include:

1. *Workers’ freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining,*
2. *Abolition of forced labour,*
3. *Elimination of child labour, and*
4. *Elimination of discrimination in employment and occupation.*

The four categories of rights are sub divided into eight ILO conventions. These conventions seek to promote core labour standards by advocating that ILO member nations adopt the conventions, with the belief that adopting a convention will result in the enactment of national legislation and its enforcement in member countries (Kuruvilla and Verma, 2006). The eight ILO Conventions are fundamental to the rights of people at work, irrespective of levels of development of individual member states (ILO, 1996-2001). These conventions are discussed in the subsequent sub headings.

2.2.1 Freedom of Association

Freedom of association as a labour standard consist of two conventions - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise, 1948 C87 and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 C98.

The freedom of association and protection of the right to organise convention was adopted on the 9th of July, 1948 at San Francisco by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office. It however, came into force on the 4th of July 1950. Under this convention, workers and employers shall have the right to establish and join federations and confederations without any impairment from the laws of the land.

The right to organise and collective bargaining convention was adopted at Geneva on the 1st of July 1949. It came into force on the 18th of July 1951. The convention calls for adequate protection from anti-union discrimination in terms of employment for workers. Workers cannot be dismissed or prejudiced on account of union membership.

2.2.2 The Abolition of Forced Labour

The abolition of forced labour has two conventions. These are the Forced Labour Convention 1930 C29 and the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 C105. The convention on forced labour stipulates that member states of the ILO, should suppress the use of forced labour in all forms. This convention was adopted on the 28th day of June, 1930 at Geneva but came into force on the 1st of May 1932. A transition period of five years, after the coming into force of the convention, was given member states to complete this suppression.

Member states of the ILO ratified the abolition of forced labour convention, which was adopted on the 25th of June 1957 at Geneva and came into force on the 17th of January 1958 that they will suppress and abolish all forms of forced labour as a means of political coercion, discrimination, labour discipline, or for economic development.

2.2.3 Equality

The two conventions making up the labour standard on equality are the Remuneration Convention, 1951 C100 and the Discrimination (employment and occupation) Convention, 1958 C111.

The governing body of the ILO at its 34th session adopted the C100 convention on the 29th of June 1951 at Geneva, to ensure equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value. For the purpose of the above, article 1 of the convention states that:

- a. the term [remuneration] includes the ordinary, basic or minimum wage or salary and any additional emoluments whatsoever payable directly or indirectly, whether in cash or in kind, by the employer to the worker and arising out of the worker's employment;*
- b. the term [equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value] refers to rates of remuneration established without discrimination based on sex.(ILO, 1996-2001)*

The above convention came into force on the 23rd of May 1953.

The discrimination convention postulates that all human beings, irrespective of race, creed or sex, have the right to pursue both their material well-being and their spiritual development in conditions of freedom and dignity, of economic security and equal opportunity. This convention was adopted on the 25th of June 1958 at Geneva and came into force on the 15th of June 1960.

2.2.4 The Elimination of Child Labour

Labour standards on the elimination of child labour covers the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 C138 and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 C182. Noting the terms of the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919, the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention, 1920, the Minimum Age (Agriculture) Convention, 1921, the Minimum Age (Trimmers and Stokers) Convention, 1921, the Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention, 1932, the Minimum Age (Sea) Convention (Revised), 1936, the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention (Revised), 1937, the Minimum Age (Non-Industrial Employment) Convention (Revised), 1937, the Minimum Age (Fishermen) Convention, 1959, and the Minimum Age (Underground Work) Convention, 1965, and considering that the time had come to establish a general instrument on the subject, which would gradually replace the existing ones applicable to limited economic sectors, with a view to achieving the total abolition of child labour, the Minimum Age Convention 1973 was adopted on the 26th of June 1973 at Geneva and came into force on the 19th of June 1976 (ILO, 1996-2001).

The ILO convention C182 recognises that child labour to a great extent is caused by poverty and that the long-term solution lies in sustained economic growth leading to social progress, in particular poverty alleviation and universal education (ILO, 1996-2001), adopted the above convention at its 87th session of the Conference at Geneva on the 17th of June 1999. The term child, according to the convention, applies to all persons under the age of 18.

All areas of basic labour statistics as set out in the ILO convention (No. 160) are required to be reported to the ILO each year by the 48 ratified countries for follow up on problems

and queries in countries concerned. Authors like Hilgert, 2009 argues that the ILO core labour standards alone as human rights cannot achieve much. ‘The idea of human rights is a powerful one that must not be abandoned. Human rights struggles, however, must be fought on two fronts. The first is a struggle against the daily affronts to dignity and respect that workers are forced to endure. The second is the struggle against the narrowing of the realm of the possible, in essence conceptual control of the boundaries of workers’ rights as human rights, constructions that ensure that the working classes of the world will never gain the conceptual footing necessary to directly challenge managerial and corporate authority in any meaningful, socially transformative way. The challenge for workers and labour advocates is to expand how people understand human rights at work to encompass all that is needed for a dignified human existence. Without addressing the content question within the human rights question, advocacy of international labour standards as the ultimate policy objective for labour is short-sighted’ (Hilgert, 2009).

2.2.5 Taxonomy of Labour Rights

For the purposes of this study, labour standards will be limited to three of the ILO conventions:

Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise, 1948 C87

Right to organise and collective bargaining convention and

Elimination of discrimination of employment and occupation convention

Earlier research works according to Juravich and Bronfenbrenner (2005), sought to qualitatively describe dispute resolution, unfair labour practices and strikes. Methodological strengths and weaknesses in the field of labour standards and employment relations and practices ‘differ across groups, times, or settings.

Methodological reviews, combined with outcome reviews, may also identify ways in which the methods inform the outcomes' (Randolph, 2009:3). Various studies conducted in labour standards and trade unions use the descriptive and explanatory in describing the different phenomena and their effects on specific contexts usually within a state.

2.3 Trade Unions

Historically trade unions have emphasized the human aspect of the labour commodity through the imposition of checks on the exercise of power (Turner and D'Art, 2012) of both employers and governments and also adherence to rules that benefit workers (Thompson and Mchugh, 2002) and other services at the enterprise and national level (Freeman and Medoff, 1984). The traditional role and primary purpose of the union has been in ensuring safe working conditions and fair treatment through the establishment of conditions of employment, what has been termed union instrumentality. (Kochan, Katz, & McKersie, 1986; Cregan, 2005). In a study of 501 low paid, non-unionised workers in UK, it was found that a large proportion of low paid, unrepresented workers are at risk of being denied their employment rights (Pollert and Charlwood, 2009).

Employment relations in many countries are now characterized by the diminishing role of trade unions (Carley, 2002). In both the United States (US) and United Kingdom (UK), from the 1940s through to the 1980s, there was an anti-Communist current inside the union movement, with the Communist 'penetrators' frequently being accused of orchestrating industrial unrest (Kirton and Healy, 2013). During the 1940s/50s in the USA, leftist unionists faced charges of 'criminal conspiracy' and 'anti-Americanism', and the unions often attempted to establish their patriotism by rejecting any hint of radicalism (Kirton and Healy, 2013). An ex-prime minister of Malaysia was noted as

saying that the trade unions in Malaysia were superfluous, meek and conservative and lacked strong involvement in national development policy (Mahathir, 1982:108; Rasiah and von Hofmann, 1998; Ramasamy in Murugasu, 2000:2).

Various authors agree that trade union density is declining at a rate proportional to the increase in workforce and a sustained shift in the work environment, that is, more skilled workers, more female workers, greater flexibility in job design and use of information and communication technology (Ramasamy, 2008). These in a way have had a negative impact on collective identity and union participation in these countries.

Collective identity is 'an individual's cognitive, moral and emotional connection with a broader community, category, practice or institution' (Polletta and Jasper, 2001: 285). Collective identity is critical because collective action cannot occur without identification of a 'we' characterized by shared traits and a specific solidarity, and a 'they' responsible for 'our' negative condition (Della Porta and Diani, 1999: 87; Kelly, 1998). Decline in trade unions cut across countries and continents with different causes being attributed to this. Between 1993 and 2003, trade union membership has in some countries declined by over 80% (Carley, 2004). Precarious employment (Boruta, 2005; Davis-Blake and Uzzi, 1993; Düll, 2003; Kalleberg, 2000; Uzzi and Barsness, 1998), and flexibility in the use of labour (Atkinson and Meager, 1986) are in large measure a consequence of this massive outflow of workers from trade unions.

'If a union is to be a perfect agent, it cannot seek to increase membership while at the same time supporting flexibility in pay and in work rules' (Chajewski, 2007:37). It is the firm's duty to ensure performance in the long run and most firms achieve this through flexibility and thus a labour union that supports flexibility at the workplace in essence is

serving the interest of the firm and transferring rights to control back to the firm. Chajewski, (2007) argues that national economies must join in to fight flexibility at the workplace by protecting itself from ‘social dumping’, i.e. from the inflow of goods and services from more flexible labour markets.

Neoliberal ideologies and policies which includes low social spending, low taxation, deregulation of financial and labour markets and the privatisation of state companies (Pullin 2003; Harvey 2005) have often been cited as the reasons for the decline in membership and density levels of trade unions in Europe. In Poland, Gardawski et al. (1999) argue that engaging in rationalization of work practices (i.e. the tendency of workers to negotiate their employment contracts directly instead of economic traditionalism, characterized by dominance of trade unions and stable employment relations) and endorsing privatization is detrimental to unions’ survival. However, Michels, (1962) argues that workers’ willingness to negotiate employment conditions through a union depends on the degree to which the union leaders represent the interests of the rank-and-file. These ideologies and policies create a union-hostile environment and give a negative public perception and attitude towards unions.

Another reason for the declining rates in unionisation is the informal sectors of economies. Employees in the informal sector are prevented from joining unions by the nature of the labour market and the enterprises in which they work. Jomo and Todd (1994) and Maimunah (2003) state that tactics used by employers to control the workforce have included indefinitely delaying union recognition applications, victimizing or promoting activists to remove them from the shop floor and forming company-sponsored in-house unions. Large enterprises in the formal sector are poorly organised and right to strike can be seriously attenuated by government actions (OECD,

1996). Trade unions increase the life of citizens, particularly the well-being of citizen with lower income (D'Art and Turner, 2007; Flavin, Pacek and Radcliff, 2010).

In Australia, between 1920 and 1980, trade union membership density was greater than 50% for most of the years (Svensen, Small and Griffins, 2003). The decline in the Trade Union has been attributed to the increased government and employer opposition to unions and structural changes in the economy (Peetz, 1998; Drago and Wooden, 1998). In the UK, structural changes such as the increase in non-manual jobs, the growth of the service and private sectors, and an increasing number of part time jobs performed by women may have unfavourably affected trade unions (Bryson and Gomez, 2005). This brings another dimension of demographics into the issue of the decline in trade unionism.

Tuner and D'Art (2012) agree that 'indeed women are significantly more likely to agree with the need for strong unions' than men. Age has been found to be positively related to trade union membership. According to the European Social Survey (2002/2003), younger respondents have a positive attitude towards the need for unions (with under 18years – 81%, 18 to 24 year – 73%). The figure decreases with age increase with 69% of respondents between 55 –over 65years agreeing to the need for unions. Other factors that follow similar trends in the European Social Survey (ESS) is the level of education as respondent with less education (less than 10 years of education) agreed more to the need for unions as against those who were highly educated (more than 18 years of education). Occupational level and income levels also responded to this trend with manual workers viewing unions more positively (76%) than managers (53%) and respondents with low income satisfaction and having difficulty coping responding more

favourably (77%) to the need for unions than respondents with high income level and were living well (66%). The survey also found that the need for trade unions in small organisations with 10 employees was less than that of bigger organisations with more than 100 employees (Turner and D'Art, 2012: 42).

The 'decline in demand' thesis has a different view and postulates that the functions that trade unions provide are no longer significant in modern economies. This view has however been refuted by Turner and D'Art (2012) in their European survey of 15 European Union countries where 72% of the respondents agreed that workers need trade unions to protect their pay and working condition. This survey confirms the Eurobarometer findings in 1984 and 1994 where respondents who answered a similar question on their perception of the relevance of unions viewed unions as still significant. According to Levi (2003:45), even in the face of trade union decline, organised labour is arguably still 'the most effective vehicle for achieving a democratic and equitable society'. Other works have examined labour unions role in the determination of cross-national variation in life satisfaction across advanced national polities and come up with findings that suggests that unions increase the life satisfaction of citizens (Flavin, Pacek and Radcliff, 2010).

Another area of decline has been in the aspect of membership. Membership attendance and participation in local unions are common complains in the UK. In the study of Lund and Taylor (2010), 64% of the respondents have not attended a union meeting in the past twelve months but agreed that they were satisfied with what the union was doing while 46.5 % gave reasons as getting the information they need through other means like the

bulleting. This decline, according to Bryson and Gomez (2005) is attributable to a rise in the percentage of employees who have never become members ('never-members').

Other works have looked at participation and commitment Tetrick (1995) and perceived union support (Shore et al, 1994). Shore et al (1994) concludes that perceived union support is related to union loyalty. This has also been confirmed by Fuller and Hester, 2001. In a study by Tetrick et al. (2007) union support and union instrumentality have been shown to uniquely predict union loyalty. This study was the first to explicitly examine the relation between perceived union support and union instrumentality basing it on organisational support theories and union participation theories. Instrumentality was used to reflect members cognitive responses on the cost and benefits of associated with union representation (Tetrick et al., 2007).

Samuel Gompers, founder of the American Federation of Labour, was once asked what unions wanted? His reply was simple and memorable: "More." Freeman and Medoff (1984), Borjas (1979) are of the view that unionised workers tend to have a lower job satisfaction. This can be attributed to the reasons for its formation in the first place because unions are formed basically to help improve upon employee working conditions. As such any delays in achieving the goals of establishing the union tend to demoralise members. Survey among union members reviews a lower job satisfaction compared to non- union workers. This is explained by Freeman and Medoff (1984) and Borjas (1984) (1979) that members 'voice' their dissatisfaction to improve the bargaining power of the trade union. Bender and Sloane (1995) on the other hand emphasise that unions are organised in non-favourable working conditions as such the members of the union are intuitively dissatisfied.

2.3.1 Unions and the Organising Model

The emergence of *organizing model* can be attributed to the massive teleconference on “internal organizing” by American Federation of Labour- Congress of Industrial Organization (AFI-CIO) in 1980’s. The labour educators and organizers planning the conference decided to contrast the typical union workplace with an activist one using the terms servicing model and organizing model. Diamond (1988), defines servicing model as “trying to help people by solving problems for them,” while the organizing model as “involving members in solutions.”

The AFL-CIO’s most influential recruitment initiative during this period was the formation in 1989 of the Organizing Institute (OI) to train union organizers. The institute selected potential union organisers from various places for training. Although the OI did not advocate this terminology, by 1995 the organizing model concept was indiscriminately used to refer to both internal organizing to mobilize members, and external organizing that promotes grassroots activism as a way to build support for union representation. The internal and external conceptualisation of the model has spread from the U.S. to other labour movements (Carter and Cooper, 2002; Gall, 2003; Heery, 2001). Currently, the concept has seen refinement in the area of academic research that lends credence to the effectiveness of recruitment strategies based on grassroots activism (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, Kate, Friedman, Hurd, Oswald and Seeber, 1998).

As summarized by Heery et al. (2000:996):

...The ‘organizing model’ ... tends to be used in two overlapping senses. First, it can refer to a model of good practice which contributes to membership growth ... Elements of this good practice include: reliance on targeted and planned organizing campaigns; ... identification of issues around which workers can be mobilized and the use of mobilizing tactics in the workplace ...; the use of rank-

and file 'organizing committee's to plan and conduct campaigns... Second, it represents an attempt to rediscover the 'social movement' origins of labour, essentially by redefining the union as a mobilizing structure which seeks to stimulate activism among its members.

Throughout the late 1980's the organizing model was used almost exclusively to apply to internal organizing. Internal organizing as emphasized by Banks and Metzgar (1989) is the key component of the organizing model which emphasizes on mobilization of the rank and file to do the work of the union [this] gives members a sense of power as a group. However, implementation of the organizing model proved to be difficult except during the period immediately preceding the expiration of collective bargaining agreements (a time when member interest in local union affairs typically is at a peak no matter what model of unionism is practiced) (Hurd, 2004) .

This reality led labour leaders who embraced the organizing priority to refocus their efforts towards mobilization designed to support external organizing. The reality is that individual national unions determine their own resource allocations and develop their own organizing programs. However, the individual unions jealously guard their authority over organizing strategy, staffing, target selection and all decisions related to coordination with other unions.

2.3.2 History of Trade Unionism in Ghana

This sub section briefly covers the history of trade unionism Ghana and covers some major ordinances that have shaped unionism in the country.

2.3.2.1 The Colonial Period

It is on record that as early as 1920 there were in existence, workers bodies such as “the Gold and Silver Smith's Association”. However, these bodies remained basically dormant and weak (in terms of present –day assessment) for many years. The search for

manganese, diamond, and bauxite coupled with the increasing rate of gold mining led to a concentration of workers – mainly manual labourers in places like Bibiani, Tarkwa, Obuasi, Nsuta, Awaso and Akwatia. Other workers were also engaged on railroad construction at Koforidua, Sekondi and Kumasi. The pace of monetization of the economy increased gradually in the 1930s.

The above activities, as expected, generated many economic linkage effects – leading to the establishment of small-scale urban industries. This meant more labour had to be sought, recruited and trained. As a necessary step, the Gold Coast Labour Department was established in 1938 with Captain Dickenson as the first Commissioner for Labour together with a skeleton staff (Obeng- Fosu, 2007).

2.3.1.2 The 1941 Ordinance

The establishment of the Labour Department was followed by the enactment of the Trade Union Ordinance of 1941. In the following year, the Colonial office drafted to the Gold Coast Civil Service – a former official of the British Miners’ Union – Mr I. G. Jones. He was made the head of the Trade Union Section of the new Labour Department in the country. His first assignment was to tour the various towns where wage earners were concentrated and to explain to the workers the basic principles of trade unionism as well as the main features of the Trade Union Ordinance of 1941. Opposition from the workers and “Unions” to the activities of Mr Jones was high in the beginning. Cooperation however eventually came, with the Gold Coast Railway African Employees’ Union showing the way.

Cooperating with Mr I. G. Jones meant registration of the then “Trade Unions” in line with the demands of the 1941 Ordinance. The early unions to comply with the law in this

respect were: “the Gold Coast Railway African Employees Union”, Two years later, with the coming of yet another Briton – Mr. Oswald Kiching, the number of such registered trade unions rose to fourteen. The trade union movement in the country at this time however was basically based on the structure of the British T.U.C. – for the latter was the only handy workers’ institution at that time to guide the local colonial authorities.

2.3.1.3 The Gold Coast Trade Union Congress (TUC)

The enactment of the 1941 Trade Union Ordinance and the subsequent registration of Workers Organisations under it led to the formation in 1945 of the first Gold Coast Trades Union Congress at Sekondi in the Western Province – as that area was then called. About fourteen registered unions were present and the inauguration took place at the offices of the Railway African Employees Union.

Mr. Manfred Gaisia was the first elected Secretary General of the Gold Coast TUC in 1945. His appointment was on part-time basis because he remained a full time employee of the Gold Coast Railway Administration. The tenure of office of Mr Manfred Gaisia was rather short because he died in the early part of 1947. The congress however continued to exist. Its problems however were mainly a proliferation of mushroom unions, lack of trade union education, and inadequate funds to operate effectively.

2.4 Labour Management Practices in Non-Union Organisations

‘In recent years, in the context of declining union density, contemporary scholars have engaged in debates about both the nature and consequence of labour management strategies in non-unionised firms. In response to these debates, a proliferation of

literature has emerged. Traditionally, employer attempts to remain union free have been categorised around a simple dichotomy of either 'substitution' or 'suppression' Kerr (2012). This simple dichotomy has been criticised for its failure to recognize the dynamic nature of the employment relationship and the fact that management can adopt both approaches which has been proved through research (Roy, Gall 2001; Peetz, 2002). , Labour historians have generally neglected labour management practices in non-union firms (Kerr, 2012) however, a range of factors shape management's approach to labour in non-union firms (Jacoby 1997; Sangster 1996).

Findings on management practices are inconsistent. In the United States, large non-union workplaces are characterised by highly sophisticated human resource management practices (Foulkes, 1980) while in contrast, human resource management practices in Britain have been distinctively less visible (Sisson, 1993) but with clear HR strategies (Guest and Hoque 1994) in large non-union workplaces than in unionised sites. In Australian, non-union workplaces are distinctively less innovative in their employee relations practices than unionised workplaces, being neither 'human resource innovators' nor 'bleak houses' Deery, Walsh and Knox, 2001).

The 'black-hole' literature challenges the traditional assumption that small non-union firms represent one of two polarised positions: 'small is beautiful' or 'small isn't beautiful' (Rainnie 1989; Ram, 1994).The 'black-hole' instead argues that the interpersonal relations between managers and employees rather shape the maintenance of either union or non-union status of a firm. Peetz (2002) uses the 'Model of Decollectivist Employer Behaviour' to explain that an employer's decollectivist strategy may be inclusivity, exclusivist or both. However, while these typologies/models expand our understanding

of management practice they fail to identify the factors that have shaped management practice (Kerr, 2012).

2.4.1 Non –union representative voice

With the decline of unions and its potent across the world, employees having a voice in organisations have been of concern. It has been long argued that representative voice is much dependent on trade unions. However, some authors and researchers are of the view that representative voice could be found from other sources in a non-unionised workplace. Indeed, it can be noted that indirect voice exists in other situations that do not involve unions, for instance in European Works Councils (EWCs) and non-union company committees. Marchington et al. (1992) are of the view that non- union consultative committees are more common than there were a decade earlier.

In making the comparison of representative voice in unionized and non-unionised firms, careful analysis should go into the scope, level and depth of such representative voice. There is the tendency to reject outrightly or dismiss a form of voice as ineffective without carefully evaluating it (Dundon et al., 2005). It is increasingly common for non-union employers to develop deeper forms of voice than many union-centred channels. Then and again, questions could be raised as to how deep and extensive these channels are as most employers would not want to relinquish control of some decision making to employees.

2.5 Collective Bargaining

Much of the literature on collective bargaining is anchored on two reference points. The first is the work by Beatrice and Sydney Webb (1897), who first coined the term ‘collective bargaining’ describing the process as a ‘trial of strength’ between the parties (1897: 173). The second work is attributed to the Donovan Commission report of 1968

on the conduct of relations between trade unions and employers and their associations. These two contributions have highly influenced much of the knowledge on collective bargaining.

2.5.1 Defining collective bargaining

With most employment relationships power is usually tipped in favour of the employer. This phenomenon has been in existence since the industrial revolution, as noted by the Webbs (1987). It is therefore only logical for employees to come together on united front to offset this power imbalance. In view of this and in order to maintain a convivial relationship, rules and regulations would have to be in place to regulate the employment relations.

Accordingly, collective bargaining is defined as a relationship in which the representatives of employees and employers negotiate, consult and communicate in order to agree the procedural and substantive terms of employment.

The substantive rules indicate the main terms and conditions of employment. It primarily hovers around two key items; these are effort put in by employees and employees' benefit from the effort put in. The substantive terms of the collectively agreement would typically govern compensation and performance issues, for example pay and hours of work. It must be noted that the substantive rules governs what is cherished most by each party, and as such is the building block of every collective bargaining agreement.

The procedural terms seeks to state the arrangements to be used in order to make amendments to the substantive terms. It details how and when the negotiations are conducted, and by whom. It provides the framework for the application and

interpretation of the substantive rules. As noted in the introductory section, collective bargaining represents a relationship that is based on collectively agreed rules. What this means is that there must be some sort of unionized employees or representatives from both sides of the table. This gives credence to the fact that collective bargaining strives only when there are unions or when employees have one voice. Members on both sides of the relationships use representatives as proxy to structure out the terms of the relationship, which also becomes binding on both parties.

The above clearly distinguishes negotiations from collectively bargaining in the sense that, collective bargaining spells out collectively agreed rules and regulations governing the employment relationship. Negotiation is used to settle the specific terms within the relationship. Negotiations can exist in non –union firms between individuals.

2.5.2 Functions and purposes of collective bargaining

The classic view on the functions of collective bargaining is that its primary function is an economic one, in which trade unions influence the price and supply of labour. The price and supply of labour here alludes to the wage/compensation and work hours respectively. Even though most collective bargaining agreements (CBAs) ultimately hover around the monetary side of the relationship, in the last two decades there has been an important shift. This shift is seen in the attitudes of many trade unions favouring other employment issues apart from the monetary aspect (Dundon and Eva, 1998). Issues such as employee skills and training and development, retrenchment/downsizing, and health and safety as well as retirement issues are now of concern in collective bargaining. This shift is more in line with Flanders' (1968) view of collective bargaining as political process which has ramifications on the social and economic aspects of workplace relations. He

described the process as a joint regulation since both parties collectively agree on governing rules.

Flanders (1968) introduction of the social aspect of CBA tries to downplay the economic preoccupations of CBA as seen by most classical theorists. Fox (1975) strongly affirms that issues of financial reward, whether for material or symbolic reasons, are still among major preoccupations of most CBAs. The social and economic purposes of CBAs are expressed more clearly in Chamberlain and Kuhn's (1965) statement of the three different functions of collective bargaining. According to Chamberlain and Kuhn (1965), the first purpose is the market or economic function. This looks at the wage rate or price at which labour will be bought and sold. The second purpose is the government function which is likened to the role of a referee in a football game. The government function looks at the establishment of rules of the game and rules of engagement to be observed by both parties (employers and employees). The final function is the decision function. CBA indirectly allows every employee to take part in issues affecting their interests. Employees through the representatives they select can virtually have a say in the affairs of the enterprise. This also allows for convivial relationships to exist as workers and managers become bound together in a pattern of mutual accommodation.

These functions could be seen as developmental stages of CBAs. This implies that CBA typically starts from reward-work hours negotiations (as seen by the classical theorists), it then moves streamlining the rules and regulations to govern such negotiations. The final stage looks at a situation where both parties move from a mere pay and work hours exchange negotiations to broader employment issues. This is indicative of Dundon and Eva's (1998) assertion discussed previously. The developmental nature of CBA raises

questions of what can and cannot be negotiated during those meetings. Typically issues relating to external conditions of the organization would usually result in a more cooperative mode from both parties. For example, where the existence of an organisation is threatened by external market conditions, then both sides may find it prudent to collaborate in making changes that are necessary for survival. However, internal issues such as pay rate, a more conflictual approach can surface. The reason why such internal issues result in conflictual attitude is due to both parties wanting a say in what used to be the preserve role and decision of the other party. This is evident in the pay rate where decisions on them used to be the preserve of management.

2.5.3 Collective Bargaining As a Voice

Collective bargaining as a voice has been constituted as a human right and not simply managerialist collective bargaining. If human rights are those rights that are of “the highest order” and are rights one simply has by nature of being human (Donnelly 2003:7, 11), then it is difficult to believe that workers as human beings are deserving of any less protection of their voice than others (Hilgert, 2009). The employment contract cannot be comprehensive enough thus voice mechanisms can help problems and issues to be identified and resolved. Voice is a term that has been more widely used in the practitioner and academic literature on HRM and industrial relations in recent years (Beardwell, 1998; Sako, 1998; Benson, 2000; Roche, 2000). The best known use of the word voice goes back to Hirschman's classic study (1970) of African Railways. Freeman and Medoff (1984) posit that it makes good sense for both employer and employee to have a voice mechanism as it has impact on quality and productivity. Independent trade unions are the best agents to provide employee voice as they add a degree of voice

legitimacy(Freeman et al., 1984), and are a source of ‘genuine voice’ (Benson, 2000: 453).

Millward et al. (2000) however, see voice as comprising of three different channels: via trade union membership, recognition and representation; via indirect or representative participation mechanisms such as joint consultation; and via direct employee involvement. Collective voice through the trade union depends on the level of union membership, the type of unions and managerial attitudes towards collective representation. Dunlop et al., 2004 argues that Joint consultation and collective bargaining have declined extensively over the last twenty years with direct employee involvement growing in terms of coverage. Direct employee involvement is however, susceptible to potential managerial influence and control.

Dundon et al. (2004) developed a framework of employee voice with four strands of meaning - articulation of individual dissatisfaction, expression of collective organization, contribution to management decision making, and demonstration of mutuality and co-operative relations - together with their associated purposes, practices and outcomes are identified. According to the authors, employees’ voice as expression of collective organisation is used to provide countervailing source of power to management through union recognition, collective bargaining and industrial action to achieve partnership – derecognition. Several organisations utilised non-union voice channels through suggestions, briefing sessions and grievance filing alongside the union’s framework or include non-union representatives at the same meeting as shop stewards (Dunlop et al., 2004).

Voice gives greater fairness and impacts on efficiency and equity at the workplace (Adams, 2005), gives workers a real say in corporate governance and lays an essential foundation of a democratic society (Martens, 1992; Budd, 2004). The main types of voice at the workplace are individual and collective voice. Collective voice includes all mechanisms based on employee collectives and, therefore encompasses trade unions and Joint Consultative Committees or Work Councils (Brewster et al., 2007). Individual voice may be expressed through briefing groups, problem-solving teams, regular meetings between management and the workforce, written and electronic forms of communication (Bryson, 2004). At the most modest level, involvement entails consultation, or soliciting for opinions that may or may not be acted on, rather than bargaining (Wood, 1998) however consultation can assume a collective dimension (Brewster et al., 2007). These arrangements are most likely to be effective in favourable contexts; participation may lack credibility if security of tenure is low, and/or wage costs minimized (Kochan and Osterman, 2000).

Brewster et al., (2007) using longitudinal survey data from Britain, Germany and Sweden, examined whether there has been a convergence internationally towards individual forms of employee voice mechanism and, to measure the extent and trajectory of change. Their hypotheses show that there has been a general trend away from collective and towards individual voice mechanisms; reflecting a predominant trajectory of managerial (HR) practices towards convergence with the liberal market model is not supported. They conclude that Collective voice remains significant in larger organizations, taking a wide range of forms like unions and work councils. Bryson, Forth and Laroche (2011) have a different picture to show. The authors use national representative workplace surveys to examine the relationship between unionization and

workplace financial performance in Britain and France. They conclude that union bargaining is detrimental to workplace performance in both countries. However, in Britain the effect is confined to the declining proportion of unionized workplaces where there is active collective bargaining. In the French case, the effect is confined to the minority of cases where unions have high density and to unions with a reputation for militancy. This study will pick organisations based on sectors and not on whether there is a union or not to find the relationship between collective bargaining and productivity and do a comparative analysis.

Greater depth of collective voice at the workplace may enhance productivity directly (Brewster et al., 2006) by reducing turnover as employees have less needs to express concerns by quitting (Kaufman, 2004) and maximising efficiencies. Collective voice also provides an essential mechanism for resolution of collective and individual problems arising from flexible working (Singe and Croucher, 2003). These arrangements are most likely to be effective in favourable contexts; participation may lack credibility if security of tenure is low, and/or wage cost minimized (Kochan and Osterman, 2000).

The end product of collective bargaining – collective agreement – is a source of regulation of the terms of conditions of employment. Collective agreement is used to cover not only agreements between trade unions and employers, but also any agreement made between a group of workers or their representatives and employers, groups of employers or government. Such agreements may relate to terms and conditions of employment and wider issues such as entitlement to social security benefits. One of the major advantages of collective agreement is that they contain the terms and conditions specific to the place of work in question. They are freely negotiated and are flexible in the sense that they may be renegotiated, (Ladbury et al., 2000).

2.6 Collective Voice

Voice has become of central importance in understanding psychological development (Schor et al. 1994). Specifically, women represent a different voice than men, one which is generated from different experiences and alternative ways of thinking (Gilligan, 1982; Belenky *et al.*, 1986). Finding and speaking from one's own voice empowers people in organizations (Boje and Dennehy, 1993; Helgesen, 1990). Feminine principles in organizations promote democracy and participation and honour the right to express all voices, including dissenting ones (Martin, 1993).

Some authors insist that participation must be a group process, involving groups of employees and their bosses; others stress delegation, the process by which the *individual* employee is given greater freedom to make decisions on his or her own. Some restrict the term 'participation' to formal institutions, such as work councils; other definitions embrace 'informal participation', the day-to-day relations between supervisors and subordinates in which subordinates are allowed substantial input into work decisions (Budd, Gollan and Wilkinson, 2010). Finally, there are those who stress participation as a *process* and those who are concerned with participation as a *result*.

According to Marchington and Wilkinson (2005) participation can be differentiated into direct communication, upward problem-solving or representative participation. The first two of these are essentially direct and individually-focused, often operating through face-to-face interactions between supervisors/first line managers and their staff. Some take the form of informal oral or verbal participation, whilst others are more formalized in the form of written information or suggestions. The third form centres on the role that employees or trade union representatives play in discussions between managers and the

workforce, via mechanisms such as joint consultation, worker directors or collective bargaining. Importantly, these arrangements raise major issues to do with the distribution of power and influence within organisations, and the legislative framework of the country in which the employing organisation is located.

In a research conducted by Peel and Wilson (2007), they indicated that Hirschman provided a theoretical model of Exit, Voice and Loyalty (EVL) which suggested that disgruntled employees, in response to undesirable employment conditions, could "exit" permanently (quit) or temporarily (absenteeism) from an organisation or, alternatively, vent their dissatisfaction to management through "voice" mechanisms. Freeman hypothesised that where a collective voice mechanism is available to employees (e.g. a trade union) workers are initially more likely to exercise this option in preference to exit. In relation to temporary exit, via absenteeism, Allen tested the EVL hypothesis empirically by assessing the impact of trade union membership on absenteeism. He noted, however, that *a priori* effect of union membership was ambiguous; since, irrespective of voice, union members may exhibit a higher propensity to be absent because — through union "protection" — they may face smaller penalties from management, and/or because managers in union plants may have less flexibility to tailor work schedules to satisfy individual preferences.

2.7 Discrimination at work

‘People experience discrimination in the labour market differently. The intensity or severity of the disadvantages they may confront depends on the number and interplay of the personal characteristics that generate discrimination against them. For example, a person may be different in race/colour, e.g., black; a black person may be a woman; a

woman may have a physical disability; a person with a disability may be old; and one person can have all these characteristics, e.g., be an older, disabled, black woman, and therefore experience very complex forms of discrimination.

Furthermore, discrimination has clear life-cycle dimensions. If no remedial action is taken, disadvantages tend to accumulate and intensify over time, with negative repercussions on life after work and on society more generally. For example, gender inequalities in social protection reveal the perverse consequences of direct and indirect forms of discrimination against women throughout working life. Women's interrupted careers, lower pay and fewer contributions, as well as earlier retirement records, mean that social protection benefits are, on average, lower for women than they are for men' (ILO, 2006).

Research in Central and Southern America reported that women working in maquiladoras (factories which import materials on a duty-free basis and then export the finished product back to the originating country) are subjected to gender discrimination, being required to undergo pregnancy testing when applying for work and forced to endure further pregnancy discrimination after they have been hired. Employers discriminate in order to avoid paying maternity benefits (Goergen, 2008). Pregnant women are dismissed or mistreated in an effort to bring about their resignation (Pohl, 2007), reassigned to strenuous physical activities or exposed to hazardous conditions to make them leave (CEREAL, 2007). Other employers used short-term contracts of thirty to ninety days so as not to be obligated to offer permanent positions to pregnant workers (Williams, 2005).

In Mexico, pregnancy-related discrimination in factories is common. Women often being asked about their pregnancy status or being asked to take a pregnancy test when applying for a job. Women returning from maternity leave are also often given lower-paid jobs (Verité, 2009). In China, similar problems have been reported in factories: low wages; dangerous working environment; verbal, physical and sexual abuse/harassment, and forced overtime are endemic in the toy industries (sweatshops, 2008). Gender stereotypes are common. Several studies have shown that in the workplace, male subordinates tend to devalue female leaders (Ayman et al., 2009; Okhakhume, 2008). A study by Deloitte and Touche showed that men explained women's lack of advancement by invoking three myths: (a) Women are less technically competent than men; (b) Women are not tough enough to compete; and (c) Women will not work long hours when needed ("A Woman's Place," 1995). Swope (2012) posits men's underlying fear of women as a source of this devaluation.

McConnell, Brue and Macpherson (2010), put discrimination into two main types- the post market or direct form of discrimination encountered after entering into the labour market and the pre-market or indirect form of discrimination that occurs before the individual seeks employment. The post market forms of discrimination are the wage discrimination (when wage differentials are based on consideration other than productivity), employment discrimination (disproportionate share of burden of unemployment between certain groups), and occupational or job discrimination (where there is arbitrarily restriction or prohibition from entering certain occupations). The pre-market discrimination is what they call Human capital discrimination. This is evident where a group of individuals have less access to productivity-increasing opportunities like on-the-job training. Borjas (2002:354) distinguish between employer discrimination (what

McConnell et al., 2010 refers to as post market discrimination) and employee discrimination (e.g. incivility). Employer discrimination affects the profitability of a firm through paying different price for labour while employee discrimination is not profitable (Chiswick, 1973).

Goldman, Gutek, Stein and Lewis (2006), conducted a study in the United States using qualitative research techniques in gathering data on age, disability, race and ethnicity to explain the concept of discrimination at the individual, group and organisational level. The study, using six different theories - legal theories (disparate treatment and disparate impact), management/psychological theories, discrepancy theories (prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination), structural theories, social theories and organizational justice - revealed that at the individual level, discrimination affects psychological and physical health of its targets and leads to social rejection and interpersonal problems.

At the group level, discrimination negatively affects income and job opportunities, reduce support and lower quality mentorship which lessen chances to advance within the organization. These are translated at the organisational level in the form of decreased job performance, lower morale, absenteeism and job dissatisfaction and results in negative organizational reputation. EIRIS (2009) lists the breaches of core labour standards to include reputational risk to the company (impact on brand value), poorer quality products being produced, management time and resources taken up and companies being less likely to have an efficient approach to sourcing. Stereotyping and social categorization are key forces underlying modern discrimination (Dovidio et al., 2001; Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000).

However, Noon (2008) in his qualitative study argues a case for reconsidering positive discrimination as a viable and necessary intervention to speed up the progression to equality in the workplace. The study using evocative image of a shackled runner and reverse discrimination concludes that positive discrimination is necessary for transformative change.

Goldman, Slaughter, Schmit, Wiley and Brooks (2008), using multiple needs model of Justice and an uncertainty management theory to underpin a quantitative research explains why economic needs are important to justice-related outcomes. The results of the study provide overall support for the multiple needs model of Justice which indicates that perceptions of discrimination are negatively related to three need fulfilments (control, interpersonal and deontic factors) as proposed by the multiple needs model and they are important in predicting organisational attitudes.

Recent studies have focused on general incivility, rude or discourteous behaviour and selective incivility, (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta and Magley 2011; Pearson, Andersson, & Wegner, 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2009) as a measure of discrimination at the workplace. Workplace incivility is defined as “low-intensity deviant behaviour with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect. Uncivil behaviours are characteristically rude and discourteous, displaying a lack of regard for others” (Andersson and Pearson, 1999: 457). Incivility may sometimes represent a *covert* manifestation of gender and racial bias when women and people of colour are selectively targeted, a situation that Cortina et al 2011 refer to as selective incivility.

Literature on incivility at the workplace distinguishes it from psychological aggression using harmful intent. Behaviour is uncivil if the harmful intent is ambiguous to at least one of the parties involved (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Pearson et al., 2001) but the effects are not. The behaviour becomes a psychological aggression when the instigator aims to injure the targeted employee (Baron, 2004; Neuman, 2004). Cortina et al., (2011) argues that “general” incivility, in some forms, is anything but general, instead it represents a modern manifestation of bias that alienates women and people of colour from work life. Outcomes of incivility at work are loss of commitment to organizations, report of greater job-related stress, distraction, and dissatisfaction; lower creativity and cooperation; and greater psychological distress and a prediction of intent to leave that job (Cortina et al., 2002; Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2011; Lim et al., 2008; Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000; Pearson et al., 2001; Pearson & Porath, 2004).

Research has identified longitudinal relationships between hostile work experiences and subsequent turnover cognitions (Glomb, Munson, Hulin, Bergman, & Drasgow, 1999) and turnover behaviours (Sims, Drasgow, & Fitzgerald, 2005). Cortina et al., (2011), conclude that employees’ thoughts and intentions of quitting follow, rather than precede, their incivility exposure. Organisations have to absorb these outcomes in the form of financial cost through employee distraction and discontentment, workplace accidents, sick leave, team conflicts, productivity decline and cost of turnover. (Cortina, 2008: 57).

Cortina (2008), identified both person and situation factors that can fuel this behaviour, suggests that interventions need not be limited to the organizational context, as intra-individual change also is possible. As Pearson and colleagues (e.g., Pearson et al., 2000; Pearson & Porath, 2004, 2009) have argued, using organisational sciences lenses, that

senior management should model appropriate, respectful workplace behaviour and clearly state expectations of civility in mission statements and policy manuals to address situation-level factors of discrimination. All new employees should receive education about civility expectations, and employees at all levels could undergo interpersonal skills training to person-level intervention with instigators being swiftly, justly, and consistently sanctioned.

Table 2:0:1Sources and Types of Discrimination at the workplace

Source of discrimination	Type of discrimination generated
Gender / sex	Sexual harassment, wage discrimination, occupational / job discrimination,
Employer / Organisation	Wage discrimination, age discrimination, religious discrimination, handicap discrimination, colour discrimination
Group / Team / Work Unit	Age, discrimination, race / ethnic discrimination, religious discrimination, stereotyping, colour discrimination
Employee	Incivility, stereotyping, colour discrimination
Race / Ethnicity	Racial discrimination, ethnic discrimination
Religion	Religious discrimination
Physical Characteristics	Handicap discrimination
Age	Age discrimination
Labour Market	Human capital discrimination, occupational / job discrimination

Source: Researcher's own construct (2013)

2.7.1 Gender Discrimination

The demographics of the worldwide workplace have changed, most notably with workers spending more time at work and with the increasing participation of women in the workforce. Despite these demographic shifts, the current model of work is still based in part on an out dated 1950s view, when middle-class families had a single breadwinner and women stayed at home to care for children (Shoemaker, 2011). The workplace

environment around the world has changed significantly in the pace, intensity, and hours required of workers.

The increasing number of women breadwinners is a positive development for gender equality; reflecting a decline in overt discrimination. In many organizations women are entering the professional levels in numbers equal to men, even in some previously male-dominated occupations (Conaway and Shoemaker, 2008). However, pay gap between men and women has not been eliminated; women are not promoted to senior-level positions at the same rate as men, and turnover among women is high. Work-life challenges feature prominently in why women decide to leave the workforce entirely (Centre for Work Life Policy) and lack of flexibility.

Research concluded that biases and perceptions relating to advancement of women with families exist; “women are much more likely to respond to the pull of family when they feel hemmed in by a glass ceiling (Hidden Brain Drain Task Force, 2004). A study by Cornell University, shows that non mothers “were perceived to be less competent, less promotable, less likely to be recommended for management, less likely to be recommended for hire, and had lower recommended starting salaries. “Many professional women don’t cheerfully opt out, they are pushed out by workplaces that define ‘full time’ as a work schedule so time-consuming that, realistically, it requires a traditional stay-at-home wife’ (Williams and Boushey, 2010:51). Women continue to grapple with the work-life balance dilemma, which has enormous implications for health, work productivity, retention, and morale (Shoemaker et. al., 2011). A key element to solving this problem is the use of the Accountability Model where employee redesign work by allowing greater flexibility and employees must reciprocate by being

accountable for desired outcomes (Shoemaker et al., 2011). If this model is to work, flexibility must have the employee at the centre and heart of it. Management's aim is to gain value for the organisation. How do managers therefore marry the two?

2.8 Market and State Interventions

‘Basically, the current international pressure to improve labour standards stems from the fundamental failure of national governments to enforce their own labour laws. Most labour laws in developing countries are quite comprehensive and cover the core labour standards (freedom of association and collective bargaining, freedom from discrimination, abolition of child labour and abolition of forced labour). Yet, national governments in developing countries have exhibited remarkable failures in enforcement, leading to the generation of international pressures to improve labour standards. A variety of approaches exist for this purpose, each with their advantages and problems’ (Kuruvilla et al., 2006:43).

Literatures have become devoted to determining whether political —intrusions (government) into the market achieve their objectives of reducing poverty and inequality, whether they have unintended (and generally deleterious) consequences for economic growth, whether they affect rates of social deviancy (such as violent crime), and whether they are complicit in promoting a variety of social pathologies, such as a —cultures of dependency, higher divorce rates, and so on because of their presumed impacts on the quality of human life (Flavin, Pacek, and Radcliff. 2011).

At the most basic level, the issue at hand is whether to leave the generation and allocation of well-being to the invisible hand of the capitalist economy, or to make it at

least in part subject to the political decisions of voters (Flavin, Pacek, and Radcliff. 2011). Flavin, Pacek, and Radcliff (2011) argues that it is widely agreed that the most basic and persistent axis of political and ideological conflict in the industrial democracies is that of the nature and extent of public intervention into the market (but not the logic). In other words, regardless of whether respondents are rich or poor, respondents living in a country with greater state intervention into the economy tend to report, controlling for other factors, higher levels of subjective well-being (Flavin, Pacek, and Radcliff. 2011).

States can intervene in the labour market to attack the problem of discrimination through a general policy which seeks to achieve a tight labour market through the use of appropriate monetary and fiscal policies and secondly, to improve education and training opportunities of those who have been discriminated against. A third means is through direct intervention which stresses on equal employment opportunities by prohibiting certain HR practices in hiring, promotion and compensation (McConnell, Brue and Macpherson 2010:453).

2.9 Implementation of Labour Standards

The ILO seeks to promote core labour standards by advocating that its member nations adopt a series of conventions, with the belief that adopting a convention will result in the enactment of national legislation and its enforcement in member countries. The key issue for the ILO is the enforcement of such standards in member countries. The ILO procedures have been criticised as not having enough ‘teeth’ to bite (Kuruvilla et. al., 2006). This is because many of the mechanism of improving labour standards globally are classified as ‘soft regulatory methods’ rather than ‘hard’ regulation which is most commonly manifested in legislation. Kuruvilla et al., (2006) propose a more activist

rather than just regulatory role for national governments, taking into account the North–South division on labour standards.

2.10 ILO and Multilateral Implementation Mechanism

The ILO has a tri-partite structure (government, labour and business) and any member can report violations of core standards. ILO takes actions through a Commission of Inquiry and the use of its enforcement mechanisms through article 33 of the ILO constitution which states:

In the event of any Member failing to carry out within the time specified the recommendations, if any, contained in the report of the Commission of Inquiry, or in the decision of the International Court of Justice, as the case may be, the Governing Body may recommend to the Conference such action as it may deem wise and expedient to secure compliance therewith. (Americasnet, 2005).

The first time ILO used this article was in the year 2000 against Burma for continuous use of forced labour. The ILO requested a worldwide official boycott of Burma from all foreign investors, tourism companies, multilateral agencies of the United Nations and the Breton Woods institutions to refrain from program assistance to the country (Elliott and Freeman, 2003). The ILO also encourages compliance through its supervisory and technical assistance systems and also produces director general’s global reports which summarize violations in core labour standards implementation in specific nations.

One multilateral initiative to improve international labour standards can be seen in the proliferation of ‘reporting’ systems. The essential element of a reporting system is that it requires those corporations who agree to participate in the system to report on the enforcement of such standards in their own firms. The best examples of these are the GRI (Global Reporting Initiative) and the UN Global Compact (Kuruvilla et al., 2006).

2.11 Government and National Legislation

Working conditions in developing countries generally tend to be lower than those in developed countries due to lower standards in labour laws and regulations and a lack of enforcement of existing labour laws (EIRIS, 2009). ‘Basically, the current international pressure to improve labour standards stems from the fundamental failure of national governments to enforce their own labour laws. Regulations surrounding work and employment have traditionally been formed around a model of the employment relationship based on normal, standard, permanent work, which is changing in many sectors (Dickens, 2003) and placing new demands on these regulatory frameworks.

Most labour laws in developing countries are quite comprehensive and cover the core labour standards (freedom of association and collective bargaining, freedom from discrimination, abolition of child labour and abolition of forced labour). Yet, national governments in developing countries have exhibited remarkable failures in enforcement, leading to the generation of international pressures to improve labour standards. A variety of approaches exist for this purpose, each with their advantages and problems’ (Kuruvilla et al., 2006).

Wedderburn (1997:11) argues that fundamental labour rights have to be built on the ‘hard rock’ of constitutional principle or legislative provision. The legislation characterized by a clear definition, specifies some standards, and articulates penalties for failure to comply with the legislation. This is hard regulation and it is always ‘compulsory’ and binding on the populations covered by it (Kuruvilla et al., 2006). Kuruvilla et al., propose a revisit to the role of national governments in improving labour

standards despite their prior failure to implement their own legislations. Their proposal is based on the following:

1. Governments have better reach across sectors, industries and regions.
2. National governments have the capacity of significantly strengthening existing soft regulation methods or to even, in time, turn soft regulation into harder regulation.

One option, for a government wanting to be seen as more ‘activist’, is perhaps to provide a tax incentive, say, a percentage reduction of business or corporate taxes for those firms that adopt and comply with such practices. This is likely to increase adoption, as the cost of adopting core labour standards may not be as high as the reduction in taxes (Kuruvilla et al., 2006). What research is not focusing on is how governments implement these labour laws to achieve the core labour standards. Could it be a case of having the laws in black and white but having no monitoring and implementing strategies and teeth to bite? This study calls for research into the implementation and monitoring of government agencies over sectors especially emerging one to know the loop holes and recommend necessary strategies to achieve labour standards.

2.12 Organisations Implementation Mechanism

Organisations use voluntary models like corporate codes of conduct, trade association codes, union sponsored codes, multi-stakeholder codes, inter-government codes, and collective agreements focusing on the core labour standards. The success of corporate codes is premised on a robust consumer preference in high-income countries for ‘ethically-made’ goods. These codes will succeed as long as consumers are willing to pay a premium to ensure that goods they buy are not made in sweatshops (Blank and

Freeman, 1994; Freeman, 1994, 1998), or if they are unwilling to buy brands that do not follow basic labour standards. For many large corporations, codes of conduct are a matter of managing their public image (Kuruville et al., 2006).

Voluntary regulation by business takes different forms, the most common being codes of conduct with specific labour standards components, and social labelling programmes. Codes of conduct are written statements of principles which specify the labour standards which must be complied with either by suppliers or by other components of the company in question. Social labelling is the use of a label or logo to indicate that the product has been produced on the basis of certain standards. The major strength of voluntary forms of regulation is that employers adopt them voluntarily and for business reasons. This means that they are more sustainable than regulation imposed from outside.

Another voluntary approach is certification which refers to an external body certifying that the factories producing certain commodities are adhering to labour standards, or more directly certifying that certain products are produced in accordance with labour standards (e.g. ISO 14001, Fair Labour Association (FLA)). The FLA (in US) focuses on a number of issues like forced labour, child labour, harassment/abuse, non-discrimination, health and safety, freedom of association and collective bargaining, wages and benefits [minimum wage] and hours of work. In general, corporate codes of conduct have made some progress in improving labour standards but their reach is limited and it is unclear if they can make a significant impact without the help of national governments. These efforts are likely to benefit only a small segment of the target workforce (OECD, 2000a, 2000b; Scherrer and Greven, 2001).

Ratcheting Labour Standards is a systematic competition between firms based on their treatment of workers (Sabel, O'Rourke and Fung, 2000). The idea is to use monitoring and public disclosure of working conditions to create official, social, and financial incentives for firms to monitor and improve labour standards throughout their supply chain (e.g. SA8000). The problem with this mechanism has to do with getting all firms in a sector to participate. The general question still remains: *How effective are policies at the workplace level in achieving the core labour standards of ILO*'.

2.13 HRM Practices and Labour Standards

According to Lagos (1992), complying with labour regulations is a substantial fixed burden for firms. Thus it is more burdensome for lower income-earning firms to comply with labour regulations which are translated into the HR practices in the organization. This makes the case of monitoring of standards paramount. In the classical industrial relations literature, employee participation and involvement were located in equity terms, and involvement was seen as positive in promoting fairness at the workplace (Flanders, 1980; Fox, 1980; Woodall and Winstanley, 2001). HRM literature positions 'participation and involvement' in efficiency terms (Woodall and Winstanley, 2001) underpinned by neoclassical assumptions that unions distort the efficient operation of labour markets by inflating wages (Woodall and Winstanley, 2001) and jeopardizing competitiveness, and exacerbating unemployment (Freeman and Medoff, 1984). Effective voice mechanisms can make exchange relations more efficient to cut down the costs of exit (turnover) (Kaufman 2004).

Management uses individualism but may restrict the depth of individual voice for fear of assuming a collective dimension. In a unionized environment, managers are already

reconciled to this possibility, and have reformulated their standpoint accordingly (Kaufman, 2004). Human resource practices perceive unions as a distortion and rather use individualist measures to achieve participation and involvement. Measures used include participation and involvement problem-solving teams, regular meetings between management and the workforce at large, written forms of communication including newsletters and via notice boards, electronic communication including intranet and emails (including e-mail-administered employee surveys) and suggestion schemes (Bryson, 2004). Colvin, (2004), however categorizes the above mechanisms as union or management friendly practices. Brewster et al., 2007, posit that in large organisations, collective voice taking the form like unions and work councils remains significant. It can therefore be concluded that the mechanism used by an organisation to achieve the ILO convention of collective bargaining (giving voice to the people), depends on the size of the organisation.

HRM achieves functional flexibility by the use of “high performance work organizations” that empower workers to participate in decision making, enable them to work in teams, and enhance their commitment to the organization by, among other things, linking their compensation to organizational performance (Appelbaum & Batt, 1994; Gittleman, 1999; Osterman, 2000; Wood, 1999).

2.14 HRM Practices and Organisational Productivity

Human resource management (HRM) functions have long been a central focus regarding its contributions to organizational performance (Arthur, 1994; Bowen and Ostroff, 2004; Boxall and Macky, 2007; Snape and Redman, 2010; Sun et al., 2007). The functions of HRM provide support for high performance practices in organizations (Guest, 1997; Hitt

et al., 2001; Ostroff and Bowen, 2000). The last two decades have witnessed a dramatic shift in human resource management (HRM) research from a micro-analytical approach to a macro-strategic perspective, (Paul and Anantharaman, 2003).

Apart from the traditional administrative role, HRM has identified new roles in terms of employee champion, change agent and strategic partner (Ulrich, 1997). The strategic human resource management (SHRM) agenda lies in recognizing people as the strategic resource, giving people issues their relevant place in strategy formulation and implementation, affirming the role of line managers in people management and proving the connection between people management practices and organizational profitability (Hendry and Pettigrew, 1986; Schuler, 1989; Miner and Crane, 1995; Murphy and Zandvakili, 2000; Yeung and Berman, 1997).

The focus of attention in HRM research in recent years has been more on linking HRM practices with business strategy and organizational performance (Pfeffer, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Hoque, 1999; Khatri, 2000). It is worth noting that performance and productivity are used interchangeably in this paper. Widespread discussions have resulted in multiple interpretations of the concept of productivity; despite the fact that the term is commonly used by both academics and practitioners, it is often confused or used interchangeably with similar terms such as profitability and performance (Tangen, 2005). In fact, most managers do not know what productivity really means, how vital it is to success or how it can be measured, analyzed or improved (Bernolak, 1997; Stainer, 1997).

MacDuffie (1995) found that “bundles” of HR practices were related to productivity and quality in his sample of worldwide auto assembly plants. Delery and Doty (1996) found

significant relationships between HR practices and accounting profits among a sample of banks. Youndt, Snell, Dean and Lepak (1996) found that among their sample of manufacturing firms, certain combinations of HR practices were related to operational performance indicators. Guthrie (2001) surveyed corporations in New Zealand and found that their HR practices were related to turnover and profitability.

Empirical research studies have found a significant relationship between HRM practices and organizational outcomes such as employee turnover (Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Sivasubramanyam and Venkataratnam, 1998), productivity (MacDuffie and Krafcik, 1992; Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995; Youndt et al., 1996; Hoque, 1999), quality (MacDuffie and Krafcik, 1992; Hoque, 1999; Harel and Tzafrir, 1999; Khatri, 2000), sales (Lau and May, 1998; Harel and Tzafrir, 1999), profits (Huselid, 1995; Delery and Doty, 1996; Lau and May, 1998; Khatri, 2000), return on investment (Sivasubramanyam and Venkataratnam, 1998) and market value (Lau and May, 1998; Harel and Tzafrir, 1999; Becker and Huselid, 1998; Welbourne and Andrews, 1996).

In the current study, we refer to HPWS as a system of HRM practices that compliment and align to each other for the purpose of enhancing organizational capabilities, motivation, and opportunities to provide satisfying human resources services to the organization (Chan and Mak, 2012). The term *high performance work systems* refers to a human resource management approach that tries to elicit employee commitment to and involvement with the organizational goals so that people's behavior is self-regulated rather than controlled by sanctions and pressures (Walton, 1985; Wood & Albanese, 1995). This commitment-oriented model has been central in the human resource management (HRM) field, and many related terms have emerged, such as *high*

commitment management (e.g., Arthur, 1994; Gallie, Felstead, & Green, 2001; Whitener, 2001), *high involvement management* (e.g., Edwards & Wright, 2001; Guthrie, 2001), or *progressive human resource management* (e.g., Cappelli & Newmark, 2001; Ichniowski, 1990), all of which have been regarded as synonyms.

HPWS aim to increase productivity and effectiveness and rely on conditions that help employees to identify with the firm's goals and to work hard to accomplish those goals (Whitener, 2001). With this purpose, the adoption of HPWS entails the use of certain HRM practices, although no consensus has yet been reached on what these practices are (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Guest, 1997; Wright & Gardner, 2003). Beltrain et al (2008), consider that HPWS are made up of four dimensions, namely, comprehensive staffing, extensive training, developmental performance appraisal, and equitable reward systems. In line with some scholars (e.g., Snell & Dean, 1992; Wright, Garnder, & Moynihan, 2003; Wright, McCormick, Sherman, & McMahan, 1999; Youndt, Snell, Dean, & Lepak, 1996), we consider these dimensions to represent the major areas of HPWS that appear in almost all the empirical research in this field.

Researchers have classified high performance human resource practices (HPHRP) into different categories. For example, Gong et al. (2009) have regarded HPHRP as nine key HR practices in a review of strategic HRM research in the literature. They have included the elements of employment security, extensive training, reduction of status distinctions, selective hiring, participation in decision making, performance appraisal, high pay contingent on performance, career planning and advancement, and information sharing.

Tremblay (2007) has also recommended other HR practices, such as job security, teamwork, and socialization practices as part of HPHRP.

In the last decade, research on HPHRP and organizational performance has focused primarily on theorizing and empirically testing the direct impact of HPHRP (Guest, 1997; Ostroff and Bowen, 2000; Twomey and Harris, 2000). Meanwhile, empirical studies on HPHRP suffer theoretical and methodological limitations in its measurement development. For example, there is little consensus regarding what constitutes specific components in HPHRP (Collins and Smith, 2006). Indeed, “no two studies measure HRM practices in the same way” (Delaney and Huselid, 1996, p. 967). In the existing HRM literature, a number of terms have emerged referring to a similar construct, such as high performance work system (HPWS; Becker and Huselid, 1998; Beltran-Martin et al., 2012; Boxall and Macky, 2007; Zacharatos et al., 2005), high commitment work system (HCWS; Xiao and Bjorkman, 2006), and human resource management system (HRMS; Delaney and Huselid, 1996). These concepts have been regarded as synonyms (Kehoe and Wright, n.d.; Zacharatos et al., 2005).

In literature, the relationship between HPHRP and organizational performance appears to remain unclear (Tremblay, 2007). Combs et al. (2006) have conducted a meta-analysis on the relationship of HRM and organizational performance for 92 studies conducted between 1990 and 2005. While it revealed a significant growing effort in the HPHRP research, the study has suggested further investigation into the demonstration of HRM theory on organizational performance.

2.15 The nature of Work

The following sub sections cover the nature of work. This is one of the main areas of this study. The sub sections will review literature on flexibility and security as aspects of the nature of work.

2.15.1 Work and Labour Movements

Struggles around changing nature of work have been formative in building labour movement from the 1920s when employees started asking for dignity and respect and the humanisation of their work as Frederick Taylor and Henry Ford pushed the early factory system in the US to new levels of inhumanity in the 1930s(Juravich & Bronfenbrenner, 2005). Immigrant workers had their fair share of the struggle in hotels, building services, nursing homes in the US. Spontaneous strikes and job actions resulted which led to labour movements which later became a legitimate social institution. Bargaining between labour movement (trade unions) and employers, in industrial relations, became centralised and centred on wages and benefits at the expense of specific workplace issues which should have improved the quality of life of the shop floor workers such as worker control and non-alienation of work.

2.15.2 Flexibility: At Whose Expense?

Workplace flexibility is simply a way to describe how, when, and where work gets done (Shoemaker, Brown, Barbour (2011). Economic sociology, for all its successes, is yet to develop an explanation of recent growth in market-driven policies such as flexibility in the use of labour and precarious employment (Chajewski, 2007). Flexibility is about creating a core workforce and a cluster of peripheral employment relation. Flexibility as

a concept is primarily driven by changing employer preferences (Goldin and Applebaum, 1992; Burchell et al., 1999) and can be traced back to the Atkinson's model of flexibility.

Flexibility has led to decreasing job security (Cappelli, 1995:589). Flexibility has also led to a new social or psychological contract which is somewhat one-sided 'bargain' (Thompson and McHugh, 2002). Employees are being asked unconditionally to invest more of themselves and work collaboratively in the job, while any employer promises are purely conditional. The result is a 'collectivisation of efforts and decollectivisation of risk' (Burchell et al., 1999:60). Sennett's (1998, 2006) work on 'workplace reorganization' critiques the dismantlement of large bureaucratic firms in favour of more 'flexible' management structures, characterized by flatter hierarchies, malleable workplace teams, project or network-based organization and short-term profit horizons (Sennett, 1998). These management practices accompany increased numerical flexibility (Sennett, 1998: 23).

Flexibility has led to two main types of worker: the core staff who are normally permanent and the contingent workers normally referred to as temporary workers which talks about four main types of flexibilities. These are the functional, numerical, distancing and pay flexibilities.

2.15.2 .1 Functional Flexibility

According to Wright and Snell (1998), one of the main features of a flexible workforce is employees' ability to accomplish a large number of diverse tasks. This idea corresponds to the notion of *functional flexibility*, which implies that employees are able to work on different tasks and under diverse circumstances and that the costs and time needed to mobilize employees into new duties or jobs are low (van den Berg & van der Velde,

2005). Therefore, functional flexibility is similar to *workforce versatility* or *polyvalence*, which facilitates employee movements between jobs or the assumption of responsibility for multiple tasks from other jobs (Cordery, 1989; Riley & Lockwood, 1997).

Functional or internal flexibility refers to the ability of employers to redeploy workers from one task to another (Kalleberg, 2003). These are the workers that possess the skills necessary for the organisation to function well. Atkinson (1984) postulates that, they are to be made core and permanent in the organisation. Tsui et al. (1995), Wright and Snell (1998) and Bhattacharya et al. (2005) suggested that firms attain functional flexibility when their employees are able to perform a wide variety of tasks and to assume different responsibilities. Koste et al. (2004) considered functional flexibility as being composed of four different dimensions, i.e. the range-number of activities, heterogeneity, mobility and uniformity. By “range-number”, the authors mean the number of products being produced in the unit. Heterogeneity is related to the variety of products produced in the department. Mobility measures the ability of the manufacturing system to change the product mix quickly. Finally, uniformity means that the efficiency of the production process is not affected by changes in the product mix.

Lopez-Cabrales and Valle (2011) consider the characteristics associated with the mutual investment employment relationship to be positive for functional flexibility. This model is based on HRM practices such as job rotations, employee empowerment, employee responsibility for making decisions, and designing jobs to be performed by multifunctional teams (Tsui and Wu, 2005). They assert that the mutual investment model characteristics define the necessity of recruiting employees whose profiles enable their internal rotations and integration into multi-skilled teams.

Various scholars highlight the relevance of internal or functional flexibility as a potential mediator between HR practices and outcomes (Bhattacharya et al., 2005; Wright and Snell, 1998). To the extent that different dimensions of functional flexibility are associated with learning (as we have noted previously) and a specific employment mode (mutual investment) is associated with functional flexibility.

2.15.2.2 Pay / Wage Flexibility

Beltrán-Martín et al (2008), assert that HPWS may impact HR flexibility through the provision of appropriate rewards. Some authors highlight the relevance of equitable rewards to encourage employees' willingness to move and reallocate as the need arises. Wage flexibility can be defined as either a micro or macroeconomic concept; each is quite distinct, although potentially related. Flexible components of pay are fairly commonly used strategies across Europe to reduce labour costs in ways other than reducing base wages (Babecky et al., 2009). The method by which this is done is related to several firm characteristics such as the relative size or skills distribution as well as several indicators of the economic environment in which they operate.

Several authors argue that equitable rewards provide employees with the confidence to take initiative and behave flexibly at work because they are aware that the organization will recognize their efforts in proposing creative solutions to new problems (Frenkel, Korczynski, Shire, & Tam, 1999; Unsworth & Parker, 2003). In fact, authors such as Morris (1993) specify that one of the components of equitable rewards—performance-related pay—is used as a signal to express organizational intentions and create a flexible and self-motivated workforce. According to Unsworth and Parker (2003), higher initiative and flexibility at work can involve a greater workload, which may produce

stress and anxiety in employees if these efforts are not reinforced by equitable rewards. A fair, balanced exchange relationship with the organization enhances feelings of certainty about gaining fair rewards for substantial innovative efforts (Williams, Pitre, & Zainuba, 2002).

2.15.2 .3 Numerical Flexibility

This is the capacity to vary the headcount according to changes in the level of demand so that there is an exact match between the numbers needed and employment. Numerical or external flexibility refers to the organization's ability to adjust the size of its workforce to fluctuations in demand by using workers who are not their regular, full-time employees or by requiring their regular, full-time employees to work overtime. An organization's externalized workforce includes several kinds of nonstandard employment relations in the form of part time and short-term temporary workers (Kalleberg, 2003). The growth in the part-time workforce is accompanied by an increasing likelihood that part-time employees are working alongside the full-time workforce in a practice known as *workforce blending* (Davis-Blake, Broschak and George (2003). The part time workers are on the company's payroll but have relatively weak ties to the organization. They are generally hired for finite periods on an as-needed basis, and, at least in the United States, typically receive no or few benefits. One senior manager bluntly put it, 'a workforce that can be picked up and put down whenever I need them' (quoted in Burchell et al., 1999:8) - (Thompson and McHugh, 2002). George (2003) finds that organizational investment in the workforce lessens the negative effects of a workforce blending strategy on workers' organizational commitment.

2.15.2.4 Distancing

In addition, organizations can obtain distancing flexibility and often reduce costs by externalizing administrative control through the use of temporary help agency or contract workers. These workers are employees of the temporary agency not the client organization. They include both highly skilled like consultants and independent professionals, and low skilled like clericals, and food service workers. According to Garcia (2009), distancing is also referred to as external numerical flexibility. Although the prevalence of flexible arrangements varies across industries: For example, the use of agency temporaries are relatively high in manufacturing, whereas the use of short-term temporaries is higher in services (Kalleberg, 2000; Houseman, 2001) researchers disagree about the extent to which nonstandard work arrangements represent a fundamental change in the institutions underlying employment relations (Cappelli, 1999, and Jacoby, 1999).

‘Organizations have differed in their responses to pressures to become more flexible: Some have taken the “high road” and adopted high performance work organizations and functional flexibility, whereas others have taken a “low road” and sought to cut costs by treating workers as disposable. A sizeable number of organizations have adopted a mixed strategy and tried to obtain both forms of flexibility simultaneously by protecting a core of functionally flexible workers with a buffer of numerically flexible workers. These flexible employer strategies have helped to generate great diversity in employment relations, and there has been a proliferation of nonstandard work arrangements. These arrangements represent a potential source of both employment flexibility and uncertainty for employers as well as workers. Nonstandard employment relations are attractive to employers because they may often reduce employment costs in addition to enhancing

flexibility. On the other hand, in some cases the use of nonstandard workers may create conflicts with regular employees and thereby diminish cooperation and teamwork (Kalleberg, 2003:171).

‘We also know relatively little about the inequalities associated with membership in core and periphery parts of organizations. Studies are particularly needed on inequalities within as well as between firms, of patterns of mobility between core and periphery sectors, and of differences among temporary help agency workers, independent contractors, and other categories of nonstandard workers’ (Kalleberg, 2003:172). To this response, this study focuses on the inequalities within organisations, between organisations, within sectors and between sectors.

2.15.3 Contemporary Workforce and Workplace Change

Currently the nature of work has been transformed by globalisation with the introduction of work practices which seek to distinguish between core and peripheral staff like the practice of numerical, functional, distancing and pay flexibility as introduced by the Atkinson’s model. Current human resource practices have introduced temporary working, part-time, job sharing, and agency work in place of permanent lifelong jobs which provided for job security. In the UK, changes in work are seen in the areas of increases in non-manual jobs and increases in part time jobs by women ((Bryson and Gomez, 2005). A majority of the blue-collar workers in the industry, particularly women and migrants who tend to be employed on casual, temporary contracts, are not represented by unions (Ferus-Comelo, 2006).

Increasingly, workers face work reorganisations, new technology and the intensification of work. Juravich and Bronfenbrenner (2005) note that, 'it is becoming clear that holding a union card does not by itself ward off the evils of workplace change. Forced overtime, twelve-hour shifts, seven-day weeks, job combinations, two-tier benefits structures, cross training, are all, unfortunately, part and parcel of too many union contracts today'. Three important issues in terms of workplace change emerged from the UALE meeting in Chicago – 'work time, stress, and workplace control'.

Golden and Wiens-Tuers (2005) in their study on mandatory overtime work in the US, came out with their findings that the overall distribution of workers with extra mandatory hours are concentrated in professional services (24.3%), retail trade (12.6 %), transportation and communications (9.9 %), and public administration (9.9 %). Among the non-agricultural and mining sectors, the study indicated that, mandatory overtime in public administration is 27 %, in nondurable manufacturing it is 25 %, and in transportation, communications and public utilities it is 23%. 'It is extremely important to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary overtime. Especially given that many workers have used overtime hours to make up for stagnant wages and insecure employment....mandatory overtime is connected with other lack of controls in the workplace and disproportionately affects foreign born workers and workers of colour' (Juravich and Bronfenbrenner, 2005). These findings, inversely, are reporting on discrimination at the workplace against certain groups of people (foreign born and people of colour) and directly linking a positive relation between work overtime, stagnant and insecure employment.

2.16 Working to Survive or Surviving to Work?

Work is a source of dignity, self-fulfilment, identity and recognition, as well as material well-being. The world of work has undergone dramatic changes and impacting on the individual employees, organisations, industries and society at large. The process of globalization, advances in technology, increased competition, work intensification, diversification of the workforce, increased number of women in the workforce, and the blurring of boundaries between work and family are some of the changes that have impacted the work environment (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006; Poelmans et al., 2008).

Studies in this aspect has focused on work-life balance (Grawitch et al 2006), well-being and psychological health (Brough et al., 2009; Kahneman et al., 1999; Quick and Tetrick, 2010), defining well-being as an index of life evaluation, emotional health, physical health, healthy behaviours, work environment, and basic access (Rath and Harter, 2010). Tambur and Vadi (2012) studied a sample of 1,748 employees from 59 organizations across Estonia, explored how organizational culture influences occurrences of workplace bullying and concluded that workplace bullying is the result of deterioration in the organizational life, reflected in factors such as unmanageable workloads, poor flow of information, excessive monitoring, and incorrect tasks.

New work environment of “globalization, technological advancement, and market pressure have forced organizations to change the nature of human capital management” (Direnzo and Greenhaus, 2011 p. 569). Organisations are now developing short term perspectives on employment relationships (Greenhaus et al., 2008) and psychological contracts are increasingly short-term, transactional and characterised by diminished trust in employees (Smithson and Lewis, 2000).

Sociologists of work are in a conversation over the significance of work as a need and its multiple sources of fulfilment. This conversation has centred on the source of identity and social affiliation (collectivism/cohesion) needs (Doherty, 2009; Marks and Thompson, 2010: 327). Work should be a context which delivers existential meaning and opportunities to explore passions (Ekman, 2013).

We must also be clear as to what is not decent work: child labour, forced labour, bonded labour, work without voice or freedom to organize, diverse forms of exploitation and discrimination, work for subsistence and the many ways in which human dignity can be crushed by the need simply to survive (ILO, 2006). Four out of every ten of the world's working women and men are trying to make a living off the land and in some of the lowest income countries three-quarters and more of workers, especially women, are engaged in agriculture (ILO, 2006). Most of these workers are very poor and there is always migration from the villages to urban areas of developing countries in search of better paid work. Many working women and men from lower income countries also migrate to developed countries in search of 'greener pastures'. This search of greener pastures normally turns out to be a 'mirage' as highly educated people found themselves as illegal immigrant and thus cannot work or take up manual jobs which they would not do in their home countries – all in the name of survival. The home country experiences the 'brain drain' effects with its spill over effects.

The global job crisis is creating more crises at the workplace as workers are taking up indecent work and expecting to be grateful, after all there are no rights at work if there is no work. There are vast informal sectors where people work without benefits, social security or health care and stay on less than US\$ 2 a day.

2.17 Managing the Change at Work

A number of powerful drivers of change are forcing work to change. Very little can be done about how work is changing. It is therefore incumbent on all actors in the global labour market to manage these unplanned changes through planned efforts to achieve decent work and well-being at the workplace. Change is inevitable – the only constant thing is change but for many working men and women, change is threatening. Changes at the workplace are in the form of increasing flexibility and high job insecurity. Managing change in millions of workplaces and workstations, large and small, around the world – farms, factories, shops, offices and the world of services – will ultimately depend on the quality of work organization from micro businesses to the largest multinational enterprises and public services (ILO, 2006). According to Kurt Lewin's Force field analysis of change, there are two main forces that determine the status quo at any point in time – the driving force and the restraining force.

2.18 Temporal worker, Permanent Loser?

In the past decade there has been growing internationally-based evidence towards a trend in organisational staffing strategies which have placed emphasis upon the direct or brokered hiring of workers on temporary, fixed-term or “contingent” employment contracts in lieu of contracts with the implication of an on-going relationship (Connelly and Gallagher, 2004).

As organizations seek to increase flexibility and reduce costs, temporary work arrangements have increased (Boyce, Ryan, Imus, Morgeson (2007). This has led to the growth of Temporary Help Agencies, which is a source of employment alright but it is uncertain whether those employed are reluctant conscripts or enthusiastic adherence. Permanent worker may have an enhanced self-esteem by recognizing the fact that he or

she has many advantages over the temporary workers, such as job security even though both workers might toil at monotonous jobs under less-than-ideal conditions. The presence of distinction of workers into core and peripheral (Atkinson, 1984), workers and employees in and of itself can be a source of discrimination at the workplace. Boyce, Ryan, Imus, Morgeson, and Hauer (2005) established that approximately one fifth of temporary employees in light industrial positions reported some level of stigmatization.

Stigmatization involves being treated in a devalued manner because of possession of some key attribute—in this case, because one is a temporary worker (Crocker et al., 1998). Stigmatization arises from threats, both tangible and symbolic (Stangor and Crandall, 2000) and for permanent workers, temporary workers may represent a threat to job security, indicating the organization can easily get someone else to do the same job. Job security and the firm's economic performance are incompatible, and balancing them is as difficult as is balancing a score card to the executives in Jensen's theory of agency relationship (Chajewski, 2007:36).

Temporary work is characterized by uncertainty regarding continued employment, job location, job requirements, and what types of supervisors and co-workers there will be from one assignment to the next (Henson, 1996; Parker, 1994). Temporary workers are commonly employed in hazardous jobs (Kochan et al., 1994) or jobs of low complexity (Parker, 1994), but they can also be found in other professions, including law, teaching, and computing (Rogers, 2000; Smith, 1998) and could also be knowledge workers. Knowledge employees are individuals with a high degree of expertise whose primary purpose in their jobs is the creation, distribution, or application of ideas and information (Davenport 2005).

Blatt (2008) examined the organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) of temporary knowledge employees and finds that the most prominent themes in temporary knowledge employees' explanations for why they engaged in OCB are their perceived norms of professional behaviour for their occupation and an experience of positive regard with and among their co-workers. This, according to Blatt (2008), is in contrast with the themes of social exchange, organizational identification, and impression management that are currently invoked in explaining OCBs among permanent employees.

OCB is an 'individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988: 4). Examples of OCB include helping behaviours and demonstrations of courtesy (Organ, 1997). OCB facilitates organizational performance through its impact on individual productivity and organizational culture (Barr and Pawar, 1995; VanDyne et al., 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Flynn, 2003; Vegt et al., 2003; Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004).

As noted, stigmatization involves being treated in a devalued manner because of possession of some key attribute—in this case, because one is a temporary worker. Yet, just because there is a stereotype associated with an attribute does not necessarily mean one will automatically be stigmatized in a given situation (Crocker et al., 1998). For example, Boyce et al. (2005) found that approximately one fifth of temporal employees in light industrial positions reported some level of stigmatization. Stigmatizing others can serve a variety of psychological functions for the perpetrators. Stangor and Crandall (2000) proposed that stigmatization arises from threats, both tangible and symbolic. For

permanent workers, temporary workers may represent a threat to job security, indicating that the organization can easily get someone else to do the same job.

2.18.1 Driving Force of Change at Work

‘Work is at the centre of people’s lives. It determines the stability and wellbeing of families and communities. It is at the heart of local and national politics. As a result of unprecedented social and economic changes affecting all sectors of economic activity and all countries, uncertainty about the future of work is widespread. For many people, change provides welcome opportunities for more rewarding and satisfying work and a better life. For others it is worrisome, closing off rather than opening up chances for improved living and working conditions’ (ILO, 2006).

Change at work are driven by forces such as technological transformation, Intensified global competition, trade liberalization and a new international division of labour, Impact of increased investment by multinational enterprises on jobs, financial openness and employment, and Politics and policies. All of these are changing employment patterns, working conditions, social security systems and the adaptation of governance mechanisms.

In developing economies, employment in the agricultural sector has been declining while that of the service sector is rising. In the service sector, share of employment rose from 28% to 32.6% in the 1995-2005 periods (ILO, 2006). According to Majid (2005), the fastest growing in employment in the service sector is commerce, which includes the petty trading informal activities that dominate developing country towns and cities. The ILO(2006)estimates that 72% of workers in sub- Saharan Africa are in the informal sector and women make up a substantial proportion of informal workers. In Africa and

Latin America, real wages of unskilled workers have tended to decline and the wage differential between skilled and unskilled workers has increased sharply (Ghose, 2003).

2.18.2 Emotional Labour

‘It is expected that a nurse will hide aversion and show sympathy; it is the job of the waitress to hide anger and show deference; it is the responsibility of the airline attendant to promote his or her airline by hiding exasperation and showing concern – thus it is the effort to be, or seem to be, sympathetic, deferential, or concerned, that is theorized as emotional labour (Sheane, 2012). The term emotional labour and was coined by Arlie Hochschild in her 1983 classic, *The Managed Heart* to mean the emotional content of work in the service sector.

Hochschild (1983) used the term to mean ‘the management of feeling to create publicly observable facial and bodily display’. The author argues that emotional labour is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange value’ (1983:7). This sector is generally highly feminized and much of the job of workers is to make certain the customer ‘likes’ her, and has positive feelings for the company and the service. In Canada for example, 94% of therapy and assessment professionals are women; 91% of nursing aides and orderlies; and 87% of hairstylists and barbers, many of whom are poorly paid (Job Futures, 2007).

Four principal trends affecting a large and growing sector of workers are: (1) that service work often remains manual and craft-related; (2) that social skills and ‘talk’ are important in the workplace; (3) that work has become both personal and aesthetic; and (4) that despite the popular rhetoric of globalization, personal services can never be ‘out-sourced’ or ‘off-shored’ (Overell, 2006).

2.19 Summary of literature review

In this chapter, literature was reviewed in labour standards and the nature of work. Literature was reviewed on the ILO conventions, labour management practices in non-union organisations. Literature was then narrowed to trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination at the workplace. Various models for understanding the labour standards were reviewed as well as various research works in these areas. The literature then covered on how these labour standards are implemented and touched on their criticism. The second part of this chapter covered the nature of work and how it influences the level of productivity in an organisation. Two aspects of nature of work were reviewed – flexibility and security. The dimensions of each of the aspect of work were also reviewed. This chapter provided the general literature need to build chapter three and also provided support for the discussions in chapter eight.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.0 Introduction

This chapter is the second of two chapters on literature review. The chapter presents the underlying theory and models used in the study and the conceptual framework based on these theories and model. Based on the main theory – AMO- and the models proposed in this chapter, various hypotheses were developed to test the research objectives on mediation – objectives 4 and 5. These hypotheses will be tested in chapter seven of this study. The chapter is divided into two sections, the first part presents the theory and models underpinning the study and the second part present the conceptual framework and hypothesis for the study. The conceptual framework and hypotheses focuses on the organisational level and attempts to explain labour standards and the nature of work. However, while this study recognises that the labour standards and the nature of work are importance labour issues for consideration, they are also a product of the practices and policies at the workplace and also have consequences at the workplace. Being an organisational level study perched in employment relations and HRM, the study limits the antecedents and consequences to organisational level issues and consequences. In light of this, the study used one theory and two models to explain the nature of work and the kind of labour standards existing within organisations.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

This section reviews the underpinning theory used in this study to generate the conceptual framework and hypothesis for the study. The Abilities, Motivation and

Opportunities (AMO) theory was the main theory used in this study together with two models – flexicurity (flexibility and security) and ILO models – to explain the mediation effects in the High Performance Work System (HPWS) and organisational productivity model. The AMO theory was used to explain how flexicurity (flexibility and security) and ILO labour standards (trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination) can be realised at the workplace. These two models – flexicurity and ILO models act as mediating variables to explain the ‘black box’ in the HPWS and organizational productivity relationship.

The chapter proposes that the HPWS in organisations create abilities, motivation and opportunities in the form of labour standards - trade unions, collective bargaining, discrimination, and nature of work - flexibility and security. These labour standards and nature of work dimensions also impact on the level of organisational productivity. To understand the labour standards, the ILO model was adopted while the model of flexicurity was used to understand flexibility and security as aspects of the nature of work. The two models provided the various dimensions of labour standards and nature of work. The AMO theory was used to understand how these dimensions of labour standards (trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination) and nature of work (flexibility and security) are created and how they impact on organisational productivity.

‘Theory is about the connections among phenomena, a story about why acts, events, structure, and thoughts occur. Theory emphasizes the nature of causal relationships, identifying what comes first as well as the timing of such events. Strong theory delves into underlying processes so as to understand the systematic reasons for a particular occurrence or non-occurrence’ (Sutton and Staw, 1995:378). The usefulness of a theory

lies in its utility, that is, its usefulness in connection to research work by providing explanations and predictions. An explanation establishes the substantive meaning of constructs, variables, and their linkages, while a prediction tests that substantive meaning by comparing it to empirical evidence (Bacharach, 1989:501).

The main theory –the AMO theory, and the two models, ILO core standards and Flexicurity, used in this study are discussed in the subsequent sections together with the HPWS and organisational productivity constructs.

3.2 AMO Theory

The Ability, Motivation and Opportunity (AMO) model was initially proposed by Bailey (1993) and further developed by Appelbaum et al. (2000). The model proposes that HR practices contribute to improved employee performance by developing employees' abilities (A) and skills to do their job, improving an employee's motivation (M) for discretionary effort, and providing employees with the opportunity (O) to make full use of their skills and be motivated.

Three most commonly used theories for HRM-performance relationship are contingency theory, resource based view (RBV) and the AMO framework. Contingency theory and RBV are both at the organisational level whereas the AMO framework having foundations in industrial / organisational psychology focuses on the individual level (Boselie et al., 2005). Among the three theories, the AMO framework has become a commonly accepted framework to explain how HR policies will impact on performance. According to Macky and Boxall (2007), most of the studies on high-performance working practices (HR practises) use the AMO framework either explicitly or implicitly (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995; Appelbaum et al., 2000; Purcell et al., 2003).

Ability, in the AMO framework, is defined as the HRM-related competences necessary to successfully implement HRM practices at the workplace. Ability can be influenced by recruitment and selection to ensure that capable employees are recruited in the first instance, and by training, learning and development.

Motivation, in the AMO framework, refers to the employees willing to do the job because they want to and are adequately incentivised – their motivation to do so is influenced by extrinsic (e.g. financial) and intrinsic rewards (e.g. love for the work) performance reviews, feedback, career development, employment security, and work–life balance.

Opportunities, in the AMO framework, are represented by environmental or contextual mechanisms that enable action (Siemens et al., 2008), where the work environment provides the necessary support and avenues for expression (Boxall& Purcell, 2003). Opportunity is influenced by involvement initiatives, team working, autonomy, communication, and job design and rotation. In instances where workers have the ability and are motivated to perform HRM practices effectively, organizations must provide them with appropriate opportunities to use their skills (Lepak et al., 2006, p. 233). Many researchers claim that this is the distinctive feature that marks high-performance working practices out from other HR practices (Appelbaum et al, 2000; Wood and Wall, 2007; Boxall and Macky, 2009).

Implicit in the AMO model is an assumption that managing employees brings together a range of HRM policies and practices which are interrelated, mutually supportive, and can be bundled, similar to the best practice model. The AMO framework proposes that specific HRM practices – often termed high performance work practices (HPWPs) –

enhance the three main components of the model (Boselie, 2010). HPWS describes a “system of HR practices designed to enhance employees’ skills, commitment, and productivity in such a way that employees become a source of sustainable competitive advantage” (Datta et al., 2005: 136)

Appelbaum et al. (2000) researched the links between high-performance working practices and organisational performance in 44 US manufacturing sites in steel, clothing and medical electronic equipment in the mid-1990s. Unlike many other studies, their research involved surveys of worker responses to HR initiatives rather than managerial responses. Overall, the research found that the introduction of HPWSs leads to a win/win outcome for manufacturing plants and workers (2000: 115). Plant performance was higher, and there was consistent evidence of positive links between greater use of various HR practices and positive employee outcomes. In Appelbaum et al., (2000)’s model of performance, HR practices contribute to improved employee performance by encouraging employees to exhibit positive discretionary behaviours. Purcell et al., (2000)’s work took a similar approach, developing it further in their study for the CIPD (Purcell et al, 2003).

Appelbaum et al.’s research, for example found that the HR practices associated with AMO had different effects in different industries. In the clothing industry, for instance, they found that self-directed teams were highly influential (raising sewing time by 94% and leading to considerable cost savings); in medical equipment the opportunity to participate was closely associated with profits, value added and quality. In Michael West’s study (West et al, 2002), a strong associations between HR practices and patient mortality was found when AMO is practice in the health sector. It should be noted that exactly what these HR policies are will vary from sector to sector and organisation to organisation.

The bundle of HRM practices and policies used in AMO has been referred to with many names like High involvement work practices (HIWP) and High performance work practices (HPWS). In this study, the HPWS was used to predict organisational productivity through the abilities, motivations and opportunities created through labour standards and the nature of work across various sectors. AMO is at the individual level and since this study is at the organisational level, the individual variables were aggregated to the organisational level for the purposes of analysis.

3.3 High Performance Work System (HPWS)

The HRM practices and policies commonly used in the AMO framework is the HPWS. This study thus uses the HPWS to assess the bundle of HRM practices at the workplace which creates the AMO to affect productivity. Research on the HRM–firm performance relationship has often been viewed from two perspectives: systems approach and strategic approach. Research based on the systems approach (like HPWS) has moved from a focus on *separate* HRM practices and *employee* performance to a more macro focus on the overall *set* of HRM practices and *firm* performance (Arthur, 1992; Huselid, 1995; Huselid& Becker, 1996; Huselid et al., 1997). The dominant trend with this approach has been to take a systems view of HRM by considering the overall aggregation of HRM practices (Ferris, Arthuret al., 1998), rather than by examining the effects of individual HRM practices on firm performance (Delaney & Huselid,1996; Delery& Doty, 1996).

The second approach to the study of HRM-firm performance relationship is the strategic perspective, which has different meanings in the literature (Ferris et al., 1999). One meaning examines the particular “fit” between various HRM practices and the

organization's competitive strategy (Wright & Snell, 1991; Miles & Snow, 1994). This view posits that organizations must horizontally align their various HRM practices toward their strategic goal and that practices must complement each other to achieve the firm's business strategy (Schuler & Jackson, 1987a, b; Wright & Snell, 1991; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994).

A second meaning to the strategic approach is the contingency view, which is based on the assumption that the effectiveness of the HR system depends on contextual features like the industry, firm size, or policies (MacDuffie, 1995; Youndt et al., 1996). A third meaning, takes on the resource based view (Barney, 1991) of the organisation and looks at the overall set of HRM practices associated with firm performance which provides a unique source of competitive advantage that is difficult to replicate (Wright et al., 1994; Ferris et al., 1999). The resource based view proposes that HRM practises are combined with human capital, discretionary effort, and desired attitudes and behaviours (Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Lado and Wilson, 1994; Wright et al., 1994) in ways that makes it difficult for competitors to copy (Boxall, 1996), imitate and substitute (Barney, 1991; Ferris et al., 1999).

‘Taken together, these two perspectives on the HRM–firm performance relationship—the systems and strategic perspectives—help stage how HRM practices and their influence on employee attributes can lead to desired outcomes at the firm level, such as productivity, financial performance, and competitive advantage’ (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004:204). This study is based on the systems approach which takes a macro approach (by aggregating HRM practices), and raises questions concerning the mechanisms through which HRM practices as a system impacts on firms productivity.

According to Boxall and Purcell (2008), HRM refers to: ‘all those activities associated with the management of people in firms’ (p. 1). This definition stresses the inclusion of multiple management activities, in contrast to a focus on the effects of a single management activity in isolation from other management activities. It is important to combine multiple HR practices, as employee and organizational outcomes are influenced by many management activities rather than by just one (Wright and Boswell 2002). The effectiveness of any HRM practice depends on its relationship with other HRM practices and not the ‘stand alone’ HRM practice’ (Truss, 2001). MacDuffie (1995; 2000) argues for ‘bundling’ of work practices as critical in HPWS: ‘it is the combination of practices into a bundle, rather than individual practices, which shapes the pattern of interactions between and among managers and employees’.

As regards the range of activities, there is no single agreed or fixed list of HR practices (Paauwe 2009; Purcell and Kinnie, 2007), and this divergence is reflected in the different labels given to HRM (e.g. high-involvement, high-commitment or high-performance work systems) and in the different measures used to operationalize sets of HR practices in studies (Boselie et al., 2005 identified 26 HR practices). Most studies typically cover recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management, teamwork, performance-related pay, employment security, participation and communication. Other HR practices such as job design and work–life balance are less often included (Boselie et al., 2005; Wall and Wood, 2005). More recently, a stream of work has conceptualized HRM along the lines of three guiding principles based on AMO theory (Paauwe, 2009; Purcell and Kinnie, 2007). Collectively, HR practices are seen as aiming to build ability, motivation and opportunity to perform (Boxall and Purcell, 2008).

Working with a specific definition of HRM (in terms of a fixed set of commonly used HR practices) would be very restrictive. Therefore, in line with recent insights, studies that address HR practices for enhancing employee ability, employee motivation and give employees the opportunity (AMO) to perform was included in this study. Most studies group these various HR practices into a composite score which represents the overall HRM system (Wall and Wood 2005). The main argument is that HR practices enhance and support the effectiveness of each other (Delery, 1998; Truss, 2001).

Combs et al. (2006) indeed showed that high-performance work *systems* have a greater effect than individual high-performance work *practices*. However, it is possible that only a few of the HR practices included are responsible for the established relationship. In addition, individual HR practices might exhibit different relationships with different outcome variables (for present purposes: employee well-being and organizational performance). This study distinguishes between two types of HRM measures: HRM systems (indices) and single HR practices but argues in favour of the former specifically favouring High Performance Work Systems (HPWS).

3.4 Flexicurity Model

This study proposes the use of the concept of flexicurity to understand the state and nature of work. Flexicurity is a relatively new term and, consequently, the literature is still developing, thus there is no universal definition for it. Various definitions overlap within three understandings (Wilthagen and Tros, 2004; Madsen, 2006; Bredgaard and Larsen, 2007):

1. 'as a *policy strategy* that synchronically and in a coordinated way enhances the labour market flexibility, employment and social security, especially for weaker groups in the labour market;
2. as a *state of the labour market* that includes a *degree of job, employment, income and combination security*, and a *degree of numerical (both external and internal), functional and wage flexibility*; and
3. as an *analytical tool* that can be used to analyse developments in flexibility and security, and to compare national labour market systems'.

For the purpose of this study, flexicurity will be defined as the state of the labour market. 'Flexicurity' is a combination of the words 'flexibility' and 'security'. Increasing labour flexibility in a company has traditionally been viewed as resulting in a reduction in the level of security among employees. Interest in flexicurity was initially stimulated by the experiences of Denmark and the Netherlands during the 1990s. Having previously experienced persistently high unemployment, both countries subsequently appeared to enjoy among the lowest unemployment rates in Europe while maintaining relatively generous unemployment benefits. The ostensible cause was an increased emphasis on active labour market measures, combined with a moderate amount of employment protection (Heyes, 2011:643).

Flexibility is often analysed in connection with tendencies towards the deregulation and decentralization of the labour market. Through the prism of the flexicurity concept, we can observe a change in the traditional conceptualization of flexibility and security. Traditionally, flexibility and security have been seen as being in opposition to each other. If employees have more employment security, companies have less flexibility and vice

versa (Ebbinghaus and Kittel, 2005; Lind and Rasmussen, 2008; Madsen, 2007a, 2007b). The focus in the flexicurity literature instead is on those contexts in which there exists a positive correlation and a positive trade-off between flexibility and security, and for which the consequence of more flexibility is not less security, but more. Flexicurity can be seen as a condition of the labour market, where certain connections between flexibility and security can be observed.

The definition of flexicurity that frequently recurs in the debate and in research is coined by Wilthagen and Tros (2004):

Flexicurity is (1) a degree of job, employment, income and “combination” security that facilitates the labour market careers and biographies of workers with a relatively weak position and allows for enduring and high quality labour market participation and social inclusion, while at the same time providing (2) a degree of numerical (both external and internal), functional and wage flexibility that allows for labour markets (and individual companies) timely and adequate adjustment to changing conditions in order to maintain and enhance competitiveness and productivity (2004: 170).

The European Commission (2007:10) defines flexicurity as ‘an integrated strategy to enhance, at the same time, flexibility and security in the labour market’. From the flexicurity model proposed by Garcia (2009: 234), flexicurity is made up of two variables - ‘flexibility’ and ‘security’. Each variable has four dimensions that define it. In assessing the impact of flexicurity on organizational productivity, the study will look at the individual variables – flexibility and security – on organizational productivity.

Industrial relations researchers have shown specifically how organisations benefit from flexible high-performance workplaces (Eaton, 2003:146). The European Commission (2007) argues that the implementation of flexicurity enhances both flexibility and security in the labour market to bring about economic and social benefits including

productivity by providing answer to the dilemma on how to maintain and improve competitiveness. A flexible labour market enables enterprises to be more flexible when responding to the changing market conditions. While simultaneously ensuring security (in terms of stability of employment relations with well-qualified workers) enterprises can improve their productivity and market position (Laporšek and Dolenc, 2011). Thus at the organisational level, flexicurity affects the organisational productivity. This is supported by the ILO which advocates the “high Road” approach as a means of ensuring that service and product delivery is developed and improved through enhanced flexibility of people.

The state of flexicurity should be seen from what is reality to the workers who live it from day to day. Reality is socially constructed by individuals and groups or society (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003) based on people’s context. To this end, flexicurity will be measured through the perception of workers.

Table 3:0:1 below explains the four types of flexibilities and four types of securities in flexicurity proposed by Garcia (2009). The four types of flexibilities based on the Atkinson’s model of a flexible firm are **functional, external numerical, internal numerical and labour cost (pay)**. **Functional flexibility** is about workers having multiple skills to do various / different tasks. The European Commission distinguished between ‘**internal flexicurity**’, involving more flexible labour utilization within an organization (e.g. through working time adjustments), and ‘**external flexicurity**’, which involves facilitating transitions in the labour market (into and between jobs) (Heyes, 2013). The final type is the **labour cost flexibility** also known as **pay flexibility**. This

type of flexibility is about creating differences in pay based on individual productivity and other factors.

The security aspect of flexicurity is made up of four types: job security, income security, employment security / employability and combined security / work-life balance. **Job security** looks at workers being able to keep their job. **Income security** looks at how relatively stable a workers income is. In the Danish concept, this security is looked at from the benefits associated to unemployment. Since such facilities are non-existent in the conceptual environment of the study, its relations to unemployment benefits are cut off from the study. The **employability** is about the probability of being employed not necessarily with the same organisation. The last type is the **work-life** which seeks to assess how facilities in balancing job and other aspects of life.

Table 3:0:1Flexibility and security modalities in Flexicurities

	FLEXIBILITY modalities	
External numeric flexibility	Facility in sacking and hiring employees.	
Internal numeric flexibility	Facility in adapting working times to circumstantial needs of the company, related to working time regulation.	

Functional flexibility	Facility in modifying tasks allocated to employees, also related to the volume of and efficiency in spending on continuous training and active policies.	
Labour cost flexibility	Facility in adapting salaries to labour market conditions and individual productivity, related to trade union membership, collective bargaining mode and salary indexing.	
		SECURITY modalities
Security at the working place	Probability of keeping the present job, directly related to the requirements of legislation on employment protection.	
Employment security	Probability of being employed, though not necessarily in the same job.	
Income security	Ability to keep a relatively stable income level, related to the setup of	

	unemployment benefits.
Combined security	Facility in balancing job and family or studies.

Source: Garcia, 2009: 234

The four types of flexibility and four types of security were measured in this study to understand the nature of work from the perspective of workers. These individual variables were aggregated to the organisational level for analysis purposes.

3.5 International Labour Organisation (ILO) Model of Labour Standards

To understand the labour standards existing in various organisations and sectors, three of the ILO core labour standards were used as a model. These standards provided the measures for labour standard variables from individual workers perspective in this study.

The three core labour standards studied in this work were:

1. Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise, 1948 C87 (referred to in the study as Trade union)
2. Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 C98 (referred to in the study as collective bargaining)
3. *Discrimination (employment and occupation) Convention, 1958 C111* (referred to in the study as *discrimination*).

These ILO standards provide the ‘minimum rules and norms’ that regulate the conditions at the workplace and the labour relations. According to Freeman (1994:79), these minimum rules for workplace conditions and outcomes are imposed by legal mandate. Labour standards as advocated by the ILO aims to improve management – labour relations and provide decent work. Decent work means productive work conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity for workers which generates into

organisational productivity. At the organisational level, the study argues that there is a direct impact between the state of labour standards and organisations. The model for assessing the labour standards at the organisation was based on ILO prescribes core standards.

Proponents of labour standards have argued that the application of labour standards helps reduce poverty and result in increased labour market participation (Lee, 1998) while attaining a world of freedom, safety and human dignity at work (ILO 1997; Palley, 2004). It has further been argued that labour standards ensure social and industrial stability, a necessary condition for investment and economic growth for both workers and employers alike (Kucera, 2002; Budd, 2004; DFID, 2004).

‘A growing body of research indicates, however, that compliance with international labour standards often accompanies improvements in productivity and economic performance. Higher wage and working time standards and respect for equality can translate into better and more satisfied workers and lower turnover of staff. Freedom of association and collective bargaining can lead to better labour-management consultation and cooperation, thereby reducing the number of costly labour conflicts and enhancing social stability’ (World Bank, 2005).

3.6 Conceptual Framework

To guide the study based on the AMO theory and The ILO core labour standards (trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination) and flexicurity proposed, and their effect on organisational productivity, the conceptual framework below was used. These concepts are discussed below in details together with the hypothesis to test them.

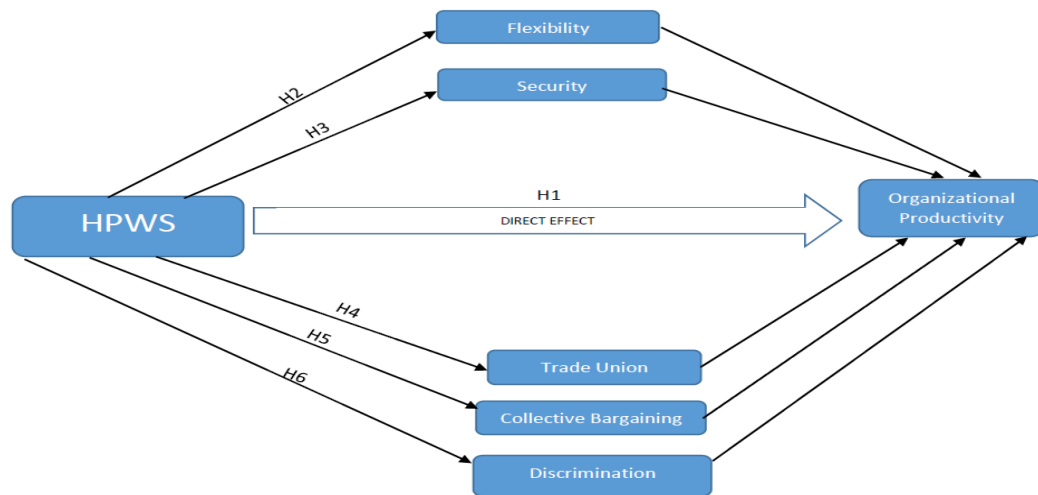


Figure 1conceptual framework for study

Source: Researchers construct, (2014)

3.6.1 HPWS, and Organisational Productivity

Advocates of collective HRM practices have tended to use HPWS and touted it as favouring employees and employers. HPWS are coordinated bundles of High Performance Work *Practices* (HPWPs) that create synergistic effects where certain practices reinforce each other to increase organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Becker and Gerhart, 1996; Dyer and Reeves, 1995; Guthrie, 2001; Horgan and Mühlau, 2006; MacDuffie, 1995; Toh et al., 2008). Thus empirical evidence exists on the positive relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. The problem with the use of HPWS, however, is that bundles within the HPWS vary as well as the levels at which they operate.

The focus of current research on HR practices and policies focusing on high employee involvement practices like HPWS creates environment where employees feel responsible for and involved in the success of the organisation. HPWS is participative management allowing self-control and self-management by individuals and groups who are considered as the ‘thinking caps’ of organisations. HPWS initially creates abilities

through the rigorous recruitment and selection which seeks to look for abilities to perform from potential workers. Workers once placed are taken through comprehensive training and development programmes to further improve abilities. These abilities form the human capital base of the organisation which is used for competitive advantage. HPWS creates opportunities for employee involvement and participation as well as team working for workers to prove their abilities through their contribution to productivity. These abilities are assessed through performance appraisals and tied to pay which further motivates workers to increase productivity.

Organisational productivity can be conceptualised as the effectiveness and efficient use of all inputs of production including labour capital, land, materials, energy, information and time, among others. Productivity is defined as 'the relationship between the quantity and quality of what is produced (output) and the amount of resources, human or material (inputs) used in the production process' (Prokopenko, 1987). Productivity thus measures the output against the input and this means when there is an improvement in productivity, the organisation must be doing something right. The study thus posits:

H1: Organisational productivity is the direct result of the HPWS in place in an organisation.

3.6.2 High Performance Work System (HPWS), Flexibility and Organisational productivity

The second hypothesis for the study sought to explore how HPWS creates AMO through flexibility to impact organisational productivity. 'Flexibility is a flexible term and its advocate often adept at shifting from one meaning to another' (Fredman, 2004).

Flexibility is one of the most highly appreciated norms of today's workplace. Amongst the push for broadening this trend in the employment relationship, an important question that arises is the effects it can have on employees' perception and how it can affect their commitment to the organisation (Vlasios Sarantinos, 2007) and eventually their productivity.

The general idea about flexibility in organisations has been seen as:

'increasingly segmenting their workers between a permanent 'core' of full-time employees, and a 'periphery' of part-time, temporary, subcontract and 'outsourced' workers. The 'core' provides 'functional flexibility' through lowered job demarcations and multi-skilling, while the 'periphery' provides 'numerical flexibility'. (Pollert 1988, 281)

The idea of flexibility has seen two schools of thought. One school praises functional flexibility as a desirable characteristic of organisations and employees (Piore and Sabel 1984; Peters 1992; Anell and Wilson, 2000), creating opportunities for workers to make use of their expertise and creativity which creates success for organisations. Another school of thought criticises flexibility and flexible organisations as linking to emergence of 'flexible capitalism' (Sennett, 1998). Sennett (1998) argued that flexibility does not only affect the structuring design of organizations but also the working human beings. Flexibility has always been presented as a positive managerial concept (Child 2005; Cook et al., 2004). If it is a positive managerial concept, then it is expected that the concept should positively affect organizational productivity.

A number of researches have been conducted at the country or sectorial level on the impact of flexibility on productivity (Buchele and Christiansen, 1999a; Nickell and Layard, 1999; Bassanini and Ernst, 2002; Naastepad and Storm, 2005) with mixed

findings. Some research have looked at the effects of the main types of flexibility – numerical and functional- on productivity (Black and Lynch, 1999, 2001, 2004) in the United States, (Michie and Sheehan, 2001) in UK and (Arvanitis, 2005) in Switzerland. Cappelli and Neumark (2004) reported of mixed findings regarding whether the two main types of flexibilities are substitutes or not. This study focuses on the organisational level and four types of flexibility as in the flexicurity model and looks at the combined impact on organisational productivity. These flexibilities are *external numeric flexibility, internal numeric flexibility, Functional flexibility, Labour cost (pay) flexibility* (Garcia, 2009: 234).

HPWS helps to achieve ability in the organisation through training, learning and development which also contributes to workers performance and in turn leads to an increase in organisational productivity. Workers with the right training serve as a source of functional flexibility to an organisation. **Functional flexibility** is ‘letting the same employees perform different kind of tasks or jobs as needed’ (van der Meer and Ringdal, 2009). The collective effect of comprehensive training within the organisation results in an increase in the human capital within an organisation. Human capital is defined as the sum of the workers’ skills, experience, capabilities, and tacit knowledge (Edvinsson and Malone, 1997:34-5). “This includes the intangible resources of abilities, effort, and time that workers bring to invest in their work” (Davenport and Prusak, 1998: 49).

Organisations rely on a variety of different modes of employment (Osterman, 1987; Matusik and Hill, 1998; Rousseau, 1995, Tsui et al., 1995) ranging from long-term relationship with core employees and short-term relationship with peripheral workers. Theorists suggest that as the value of human capital increases, the likelihood of it being employed internally as core (Barney, 1991; Quinn, 1992). Lepak and Snell (2011), posit

that different HR configurations will be used for different employment modes based on the uniqueness of the human capital characteristics possessed. Employees with high human capital uniqueness and high strategic value are most likely to be core to the organisation while those with low human capital uniqueness and low strategic value to the organisation are more likely to be peripheral workers. The security of employees is dependent on the mode of employment of that employee.

Baronet al. (1986) found that choices about employment modes practices are frequently driven by differences in employee skills (e.g., firm-specificity), occupational differentiation, technology, and organisations desire to achieve flexibility. Others have argued that differences represent, among other things, differences in their human capital (i.e., knowledge, skills, and abilities that have economic value to the firm) (Davis-Blake & Uzzi, 1993; Stewart, 1997). Whatever mode of employment that organisations choose to pursue, has consequences on flexibility and subsequently on security issues for workers.

The abilities created through training and development offer workers opportunities ('O' in AMO) for involvement and participation. The purpose of involvement and participation is to make workers feel like active participants in what is happening at the workplace (Foot and Hook, 2008) to enhance performance and work satisfaction (Pun, 2000:124). HPWS uses the direct methods through communications to workers. Participation allows for different points of view from workers during decision-making process at higher level. Participative measure includes work design like quality circles, self-directed work teams, joint management – labour task force as a strategy for increasing productivity (Scott, Bishop, Chen, 2003). Bonet (2014) finds that HPWS is

related to promotional opportunities for workers through the new skills acquired through training and learning and the use of promotion as an incentive mechanism to motivate workers.

Lawler (1986, 1996) defines employee involvement as including four key principles: increasing skills and knowledge, sharing information, redistributing power, and rewarding performance. Workers get the opportunity to use their skills, knowledge and abilities to improve the performance of the organisation through participation and involvement. As HPWS ties pay to performance, workers will be motivated (motivation) to increase productivity which will increase their pay. Research shows positive relationships between involvement and motivation (e.g. Latham et al., 1994), improved productivity and/or organizational effectiveness (e.g. Cotton, 1993; Lawler et al., 1992, 1995; Lawler, 1999; Vandenberg et al., 1999), job satisfaction (e.g. Miller & Monge, 1986).

Another type of flexibility through the flexicurity model is the **numerical flexibility**. This is the ability to change the amount of labour quickly in response to changes in the market. The numerical flexibility creates distinction between the core and non-core or peripheral workers. According to Garcia (2009:234), numeric or numerical flexibility comprises of external numerical flexibility and internal numerical flexibility. **External numerical flexibility** is the ability of an organisation to hire or fire workers. The ability is created through the HRM-related competences like rigorous selection processes in hiring workers which helps select capable employees in the first instance. HPWS further help equip workers with the necessary training to acquire right abilities through the development of a human capital pool which enhance workers motivation and provide

opportunities to contribute leading to an organisation's ability to create sustained competitive advantage (Aryeet al., 2012; Toddet al., 2011; Liaoet al., 2009; Huselid, 1995; Aryee, & Law, 2007; Wright & McMahan, 1992).

One concern about ability creation to develop a pool of human capital is the question of whether organisations should 'create' it or 'buy' it. Organisations that buy these abilities through outsourcing or the use of employment agencies, and use rigorous hiring and selection for their core workers creates abilities through **external flexibility**. Atkinson (1984) presents the ideal organization as consisting of 'core' workers with functional flexibility surrounded by layers of 'peripheral' contract workers providing numerical flexibility.

Organisations will find it relatively easy to lay off the agency workers but relatively difficult to lay off the core staff. In other words, abilities bought will be easier to dispose than abilities created internally. The culminating effect of creating or buying abilities is to have a readily available pool of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA) to increase productivity. Also the ability to easily lay off agency workers creates opportunities for organisations to save labour cost which can be factored into the production as capital to increase the level of production in the organisation. Another aspect of the organisation's ability to easily lay off workers as a strategy is that it increases efficiency, thereby increasing competitiveness with respect to other organizations' (van der Meer and Ringdal, 2009:529).

Workers in such an organization are motivated to increase their productivity to secure their positions. The support from the non-core to supplement the core abilities and

releases work pressure on the core workers could motivate the core workers as this is perceived as organizational support. For the non-core, the opportunity created to work with the core workers will motivate them to develop the core abilities needed in order to be integrated into the organization as core workers with all its associated benefits like relative job and income securities. These abilities are assessed by the organization through performance appraisals which measures the contributions made to organizational productivity as result of the abilities.

The other form of numerical flexibility is the **internal numeric flexibility**. This is the ability of organizations to use HPWS to adapt workers working times to suit the circumstantial needs of the organization. HPWS creates such abilities for organizations by creating numerical flexibilities (opportunities) for workers to work flexibly either on part time, temporary, casual or contract basis. This also creates opportunities for organizations to use flexibility as a competitive tool to increase or sustain productivity. Organizations create the opportunities to be efficient by reducing cost and using workers only when needed. The organizations thus concentrate on creating core abilities. Workers on the other hand get the opportunity to decide when and where to work. This creates motivation for participation for participants of the labour market who may not wish to work full time. The participants abilities, which otherwise would have been redundant, will be helpful in increasing productivity.

Closely tied in to the numeric flexibility is **labour cost (pay) flexibility**. Labour cost flexibility is where organizations adapt salaries to labour market conditions and individual productivity, related to trade union membership, collective bargaining mode and salary indexing (Garcia, 2009). 'Flexibility is seen as a means to improve a firm's

competitiveness, by lowering labour costs per unit produced' (W/Q) (Lazear, 1998) in order to survive increased competition (Black and Lynch, 2001). The reward associated with performance or productivity act as incentive (motivation) to increase productivity. While Permanent work is associated with relatively high earnings and depends on performance, according to researchers, temporary work is associated with low earning, limited benefits and insecurity' (Hamersma et al., 2013). The use of alternative approaches to compensation improves organisational productivity through their impact on employees' competencies and motivation (Bailey 1993; Combs et al., 2006; Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1994) and through opportunities to minimise labour cost.

'According to the principal-agent paradigm, firms (the principal) have to link employees' remuneration schemes to any verifiable indicator of performance to avoid opportunistic behaviour. Empirical evidence shows that financial incentives have the potential to exert strong effects on indicators of firm performance such as productivity and worker absenteeism, although the degree of effectiveness of such schemes varies significantly according to the institutional / economic context in which firms operate' (Battisti and Vallanti, 2013). An important aspect of HPWS is tying rewards (motivation) to performance. Workers knowing their pays are based on performance are motivated to seek abilities that create increased productivity. Workers willingness to work, in this instance, will be because they want to and that they are adequately incentivised (motivated).

Applying the AMO framework, this study posits that external numerical flexibility, and functional flexibility will provide abilities through HPWS while the internal numeric flexibility will provide opportunities and labour cost flexibility will provide the

motivation to increase performance which is defined in this study as productivity. The study therefore hypothesises the following:

H2: Collective flexibility will mediate the positive relationship between HPWS and Organisational productivity.

3.6.3 High Performance Work System (HPWS), Security and Organisational productivity

According to Garcia (2009), there are four types of securities: job security, income security, employment security / employability and combined security / work-life balance. These dimensions together, will provide workers with the security needed in face of the high level of unemployment in the country. Once security has been guaranteed for these workers, it is expected that this should translate into organizational productivity.

Whereas once job security was exchanged for commitment, currently organizations demand from their employees' flexibility and multiple skills (Claydon & Collin, 2005). 'The increasing pace of innovation is likely to destroy job package more quickly. Thus employees can have no expectation of job security. The best that can be offered by employers to employees is either employment security by the firm or enhanced employability. Employment security means that the employment relation will continue indefinitely, but the employee will have to perform different kinds of work, for which training (ability) will be required. Employability (ability) due to high levels of skills means that the redundant worker has a much better than average chance of obtaining a good job with another employer' (Collins, 2001: 29).

Proponents of HPWS often argue that employment security is an important part of the implicit contract in HPWS (Pfeffer, 1998). "Workers are unlikely to cooperate in increasing efficiency (which adds to productivity) if they fear that by so doing they jeopardize their jobs"(Levine and Tyson, 1990:210). They further noted that job insecurity is an associated 'risk' of practices like HPWS that increases efficiency and decreases the demand for labour.

The empowerment enhancing aspect of HPWS seeks to use comprehensive training, learning and development to create a pool of human capital (ability). In an era where organisations cannot provide lifelong employment, one's ability in the organisation created through the opportunities of comprehensive training can provide job security. The comprehensive training received becomes an investment lock-in that organisation seek to protect and benefit from. Losing such workers would be like a failed capital investment. The employment status of a worker, whether core or non – core is based on one's abilities that directly relates with the core business of the organisation. Core workers enjoy relative job security based on their abilities.

HPWS further creates opportunities for these abilities to be used through involvement and participation opportunities. These abilities and opportunities are tied in to the motivational aspect of AMO where pay is linked to performance. The more workers are able to prove their abilities, the more pay they get. These abilities are rewarded (motivated) which incentivise workers to increase productivity. This is particularly so with the motivation-enhancing aspect of HPWS which ties motivation to productivity.

From the flexicurity model, another type of security is Income Security. This is where workers income is relatively stable. In a country with no set-up for unemployment benefits, a workers income security is tied in with his job security. This very much means income security will also be based on one's human capital (ability) created through training and development and the opportunities given to prove one's expertise (opportunities) as well as the reward (motivation) in recognition of one's expertise. Human capital becomes obsolete over time. Thus income security is ensured through the empowerment enhancing aspect of HPWS that continuously trains and develops works (ability), appraise performance and provide accurate assessment of workers strength and weaknesses (opportunity).

Income security therefore is based on one's ability to constantly improve abilities, prove these abilities through involvement and participation practices and performance appraisals which measure one's contribution to productivity. HPWS enhances income security further through the career management and development (ability) and promotional opportunities which increases rewards (motivation) and ensures income security. The performance appraisal, career management, and promotional opportunities help achieve income security for workers and helps organisations retain valuable workers.

Garcia (2009) posits a third type of security called employment security. Thus is also known as employability. This is the probability of being employed though not necessarily in the same job' (Garcia 2009:234).The paradigm of lifetime employment seems to have been replaced by a new paradigm of lifetime employability marked by a high degree of flexibility' (Sanders and de Grip, 2004).This raises the question, to what extent workers can maintain or increase their employability in the labour market. In the

literature on employability, two instruments are frequently mentioned: training participation and task flexibility (i.e. doing tasks that belong to other jobs). These “employability instruments” may contribute to workers’ ability to remain attractive in the labour market and also signal a worker’s willingness to be employable (de Grip et al., 2004).

HPWS secures employability of workers through comprehensive training and development (abilities) which equips workers with skills that makes them easily employable elsewhere. These KSAs provide a level of assurance for workers though organisations may not be able to provide job securities. Workers will still have the opportunity to prove their abilities through involvement and participation which builds on their experiences for future work and also contributes to current productivity levels. With the knowledge that current jobs are not for life, workers are motivated to increase productivity as pay is tied in to the level of productivity. Thus relatively, workers get a period of job and income securities though it cannot be promised for life.

Researchers advocate that ‘employability’ might succeed job security as a basis for workers commitment (Fagiano, 1993; Galunic and Anderson, 2000; Craig et al., 2002). This is because employability is an organisation’s investment into workers to guarantee that workers skills are up to date and marketable. This increases the perceived organisational support (POS) for workers which translate into affective commitment to the organisation. Studies have supported a positive relationship between POS and affective commitment (Hutchison, 1997; Wayne et al., 1997; Hutchinson and Garstka, 1996; Shore and Tetrick, 1991; Eisenberger et al., 1990). Studies have shown commitment is a useful measure of organisational performance (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Workers with a strong level of POS due to the opportunity to acquire marketable skills will feel a need to reciprocate favourably by being productive.

The last type of security, according to Garcia, is combined security or work life which allows workers to balance jobs and other aspects of life. According to Gallie et al. (1998:77-80), 'a composite variable reflecting appraisals, target setting and merit pay was associated with greater work pressure for non-manual employees, while a second composite variable partly based on performance related pay was associated with higher work pressure (from HPWS) for both manual and non-manual employees'. This position has been support by a number of researchers (White, Hill, McGovern, Mills and Smeaton, 2003; Gallie et al., 1998).

However, Osterman (1995) argues that organisations that use HPWS adopts flexible working practices like career breaks and job sharing giving workers enough scope to adapt to work and life. In other words, HPWS creates motivation (work-life) for increased productivity. The flexible working practices motivate workers to work more because workers have time for other aspects of their lives and this prevents work life conflict and negative spillover of stress (Skinner, Dijk, Elton and Auer, 2011). This creates the motivation to work to increase productivity as workers would want to secure their work in organisations that allow for work life balance.

Studies have shown that there is a significant relationship between employment security and organizational performance (Delery and Doty, 1996; Bjookman and Fey, 2000). Organizations that are able to provide workers with employment security get the commitment of these workers who tie their congruence to the organizational goal (Ezane and Dai, 2009). In light of the above arguments, the study hypothesises that:

H3: Collective Security will mediate the positive relationship between HPWS and Organisational productivity.

3.6.4 High Performance Work System (HPWS), Freedom of Association (Trade Union) and Organisational productivity

The next hypothesis focuses on how HPWS creates AMO through freedom of association (henceforth referred to as trade union) to impact the level of organizational productivity. ‘Research on the association between unionisation and the adaptation of HPWS has yielded inconsistent results’ (Liu et al., 2009). Research reports on the limited and sporadic use of HPWS (Godard, 2004; Roche, 1999) and cites unions as one inhibiting factor arguing that HPWS and unions are incompatible. Using data from a 2004 multi-industry survey of firms operating in the Ireland, Liu et al., examined the relationship between union membership rates and the relative use of HPWS and found there was a negative relationship between union representation and the use of HPWS. This implies that as union representation increased, the use of HPWS was a significant decreased.

Other studies have found that unions can help create the trust, cooperation and security needed for HPWS to be implemented successfully (Freeman and Medoff, 1984; Miller and Mulvey, 1993; Bryson, 2001; Delery et al., 2000; Deery et al., 1994 ;). All the cited works above sought the effects of union on HPWS. This study however, sought the reverse of this relationship, that is, the effect of HPWS on unionisation in the organization. Some researches argued that the aim of HRM is to seek high commitment of workers to the organisation. ‘If this is done effectively, then there may be no room for competing commitment to an independent trade union’ (Pfeffer, 1998).

This study supports findings that HPWS provision of direct individual voice is not a substitute for collective and indirect voice (McLoughlin and Gourlay, 1992; Rubinstein, 2001). This is because HPWS sought to create opportunities for involvement and participation and is compatible with the interest of unions due to the promise of mutual gains for involved parties. HPWS allows for unions as an avenue (opportunity) to increase workers involvements and participation. This has been supported in the work of Godard (2004:349) that HPWS “creates opportunities for union renewal, enabling unions to discard their traditional, adversarial role in favour of a new, partnership one. Thus, the high-performance paradigm is best practice not only for employers, but also for workers and potentially for unions”.

Though direct involvement and participation is implicit in HPWS, one way for involvement and participation of workers is through the indirect medium of freedom of association where workers are allowed to form unions to represent them. Unions, especially in large organisations are opportunity for workers to participate in management indirectly. HPWS are most effective when direct and indirect (unions) forums of worker involvement and participation are combined (Wallace et.al, 2004).

The creation of opportunities for involvement and participation through unions causes workplace partnership. This is a modern approach to managing employment relations referred to as strategic partnerships (McKersie, 1996), collaborative production (Sabel, 1996). This creates a harmonious industrial environment devoid of disruptions like strikes which negatively affect productivity. The partnership motivates workers who are able to participate in the involvement and participation practises of HPWS. It reduces conflicts and tensions, increases trust and openness which positively affect the working relations. Such relations generate extra-role behaviours (motivation) outside workers

legal and contractual obligations (Sharkic, 2009) which increase productivity. In view of the above, the studies hypothesize:

H4: Union (freedom to form or join union) will mediate the direct and positive relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity

3.6.5 High Performance Work System (HPWS), Freedom to Collectively Bargain (Collective Bargaining) and Organisational productivity

Another area of interest in the study was the freedom to collectively bargain which was measured as collective voice. ‘Collective bargaining is generally thought of as a central, if not the most central, activity of trade unions (and employers’ associations). This is the traditional view of trade unionism: unions find their *raison d’être* through collective intervention into employers’ decisions and practices, and the ability of unions to attract members is thought to reflect their ability to do this. If unions are able to bargain collectively in an effective manner, their membership will increase, and individual members’ motivation for membership is thought to lie in the collective bargaining agreement’ (Scheuer, 1997). Traxler (1994) concludes that union density acts as a floor to collective bargaining coverage.

The term voice, historically meaning collective bargaining, can be traced to Hirschman (1970). Collective voice achieves what lone voice could never do: it humanises and civilises the workplace and represents the foundation of a partnership relationship that brings positive benefits for business (Prosser, 2001). ‘Collective voice includes all mechanisms based on employee collectives and, therefore, encompasses but is more than a synonym for trade unions and Joint Consultative Committees or Works Councils. Individual voice may be expressed through briefing groups, problem-solving teams,

regular meetings between management and the workforce at large, written forms of communication including newsletters and via notice boards, electronic communication including intranet and emails (including e-mail-administered employee surveys) and suggestion schemes' (Bryson, 2004). Collective voice is normally described as union friendly while individual voice is categorised as management friendly (Colvin, 2004).

Various authors argue that independent unions are the only source of 'genuine voice' (Benson, 2000:453). Other authors see trade unions as the 'best agent' to provide the needed voice and add a degree of legitimacy through their independence from, the employer (Freeman and Medoff, 1984). With the decline of trade unions, this has become a less prominent channel for voice of the workers with direct involvement increasing in coverage. Research on collective bargaining and HPWS has tended to focus on the influence of collective bargaining on management practices in the area of HPWS (Frick and Sadowski, 1995; Osterman 1994; Gittleman et al., 1998; Frick, 2002). The closest research that looked at the influence of management practices on unions and collective bargaining was the work of Frick and Sadowski (1995) who found that teamwork was negatively associated with works council presence.

There have been mixed findings with reports of the use of HPWS depending on variations of unionisation across firms. 'Studies based on national data showed that union presence made no difference in the adoption of high involvement practices' (Gittleman et al., 1998; Osterman 1994: 109). 'Collective bargaining provides "representative voice," giving employees the means to influence management decisions and to challenge unfair treatment. HPWS provides "direct voice," by giving employees more control over their work and a say in certain management decisions within their

workgroup or workplace' (Scheuer, 1997). HPWS thus has led to individualism at the workplace such that it is more difficult for the workforce to foster a coherent collective opposition to management initiatives (Guest, 2004).

This study argues that voice can be a means of achieving employee representation as well as higher levels of organisational productivity. Initially, managements' concern about the implementation of (collective) voice mechanism may be to eliminate dissatisfaction but a longer-term intention is also to improve organisational productivity (Dundonet al, 2004). Organizations that implements collective voice mechanisms are more likely to generate better environment for work. Workers whose grievance are heard, get involved in the organisation through communication and decision making collectively are likely to feel valued and will be willing to give their best towards the organisational productivity. For this impact to be felt, voice should not only be restricted to unionise workers and establishment as the collectivity of it directly impact the organisation.

Individual voice (achieved through HPWS) allows closer and more direct communication between managers and other members of the organization, unmediated by unions or other interposing interests (Reddish, 1980:298–301). However, collective voice (achieved through collective bargaining) allows workers greater freedom to table concerns without fear of victimization (Harcourt, Wood and Harcourt, 2004). Researchers argue that management may restrict the depth of individual voice for fear of it assuming a collective dimension. In a unionized environment, managers are already reconciled to this possibility, and have reformulated their standpoint accordingly (Kaufman, 2004).Where management is perceived by employees to oppose unions (in

unionized workplaces), the industrial relations climate is more likely to be reported as poor (Pyman et al., 2010) and this affects productivity.

Unions provide the institution for (collective) voice (Turnbull, 1991: 137) that allows workers to express their grievances at the workplace. The presence of collective voice reduces absenteeism and labour turnover and these benefit the organisations as high labour turnover reduces productivity through a direct loss of firm-specific training (ability) (Addison and Barnett, 1982) and replacement and re-training cost.

HPWS makes it easier for managers to deal on personal basis with the workforce hence limiting the felt need for independent collective representation. A research on American HRM practices revealed the absence of collective representations and the use of sets of HRM practices designed to generate high commitment to organisations (Foulkes, 1980) and not unions. These HPWS may directly or indirectly result in the decline of unions and hence collective bargaining. According to Guest, (2004), an effectively implemented HPWS should limit the need for independent representation through the union and this will automatically reduce any collective bargaining.

HPWS creates opportunities that prevent or limit the need for collective voice through collective bargaining. The participation and involvement practices embedded in the HPWS provides for direct worker involvement in decision making without mediation. In heavily unionised organisations, these practises further limit the powers of the union and the perceived need (motivation) for unions. This is because collective bargaining is the most powerful tool that unions have. Once this power is limited, workers will have no motivation to be part of the union. With this power limited, workers will engage in

individual bargaining. Individual bargaining for pay, for instance, will have to be based on individual's contribution to productivity (through their abilities). Workers will thus be motivated to seek self-development as well as the training and development offered at work to further improve abilities. The study thus posits:

H5: collective bargaining as voice will mediate the direct and positive relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity.

3.6.6 High Performance Work System (HPWS), Discrimination and Organisational productivity

The last aspect of the study looks at how discrimination results from HPWS and affects organisational productivity. 'Discrimination in employment and occupation takes many forms, and occurs in all kinds of work settings. It entails treating people differently because of certain characteristics, such as race, colour or sex, which results in the impairment of equality of opportunity and treatment. In other words, discrimination results in and reinforces inequalities' (ILO).

Lepak and Snell (2011), posit that different HR configurations will be used for different employment modes based on the uniqueness of the human capital (ability) characteristics possessed. Employees with high human capital uniqueness (ability) and high strategic value are most likely to be core to the organisation while those with low human capital uniqueness (ability) and low strategic value to the organisation are more likely to be peripheral workers. In other words, the abilities of workers create opportunities for discrimination at the workplace.

The use of HPWS creates opportunities for different deals for different groups of people depending on their status in the organisation. There are basically three types of these deals – the standard deal, the position deal and the idiosyncratic deals (Rousseau, 2001; Rousseau, Ho and Greenberg, 2003). The standard deal applies to the larger group of workers and may reflect either legislated employment rights or collective agreements. The position deals are ‘those that apply by virtue of belonging to a distinct category in the organisation; for example managers’. The position deals create distinctions (opportunities for discrimination) between workers and are more likely to lead to discrimination. The third deal is the idiosyncratic one which is those that are individually negotiated through HPWS. The idiosyncratic deals which are individualistic will also depend on the status of the worker. While permanent workers may enjoy favourable deals (opportunities), this may not be a guarantee for non-core staff that are at the disposal of organisations. The growth of idiosyncratic deals among workers increases the ‘risk of increased perception of unfairness’ (Guest, 2004) and reflects forms of favouritism (Rousseau, 2004).

No known research has covered the aspect of HPWS and discrimination. A search of empirical studies from the Journal of Management from September 1975 to June 2013, found no results. Another search on the Human Relations journal from June 1947 to June 2013 yielded no results. The result was not different on a search from the Group Processes and Intergroup Relations journals. This forms a gap in literature which this study seeks to fill.

Though the aim of HPWS may not be to create discrimination (opportunity for unequal treatment of workers) in organisations, it certainly has a by-product as discrimination.

Core staffs are more likely to be involved in the HPWS than non-core staff. HPWS are normally targeted at the core staff and thus creates an impression of ‘superior’ and ‘inferior’ groups of workers. The superior group may resort to incivility, rudeness and discourteous behaviours against the inferior group of workers. The inferior group’s opportunity to participation and involvement at the workplace is barred. This study posits that HPWS creates discrimination (unequal opportunities) for involvement and participation at the work and for prevents the full use of skills (abilities) and creates demotivation which leads to a negative impact on organisational productivity.

The inevitable differences among groups within an organization cause conflict and permeate differing objectives in modern organisations preventing the existence of industrial harmony (Sayles and Strauss, 1981). Another area of unequal opportunities is where non-core and core workers doing the same work receives less pay thus abusing the equal pay for equal work law. However, instead of being bitter, most workers discriminated against on the basis of core and non-core work, are motivated to prove themselves through acquisition of abilities to become part of the core. Thus, discrimination creates motivation to improve abilities which improves productivity. Accordingly, the study hypothesised the following:

H6: discrimination will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity.

3.7 Summary of Chapter

This chapter has presented and discussed theoretical underpinnings for the conceptual model of the study presented in figure 3.0. The theoretical perspective explaining the relationships in the conceptual model - the use of AMO theory to explain three of ILO

core labour standards and flexicurity and how they affect organisational productivity – were discussed and six (6) hypotheses were generated from the discussion. The study argues that HPWS creates abilities, motivation and opportunities at the workplace that affect organisational productivity. These will be the basis for analysis in chapter seven and discussion in chapter eight. The following chapter provides a profile on the research area for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

COUNTRY PROFILE OF RESEARCH AREA

4.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter provided the theories and models that guided the conceptual framework and the generation of hypotheses to be tested in chapter seven. This chapter provides the context of the research and covers information on the population, education level, employment levels and other information relevant for understanding the research context.

4.1 Geographical Area of Ghana

Ghana is a country that lies on the west coast of sub-Saharan Africa which is approximately 750 km north of the equator on the Gulf of Guinea. It lies between latitude 4°-11° north. Accra, which serves as the capital, lies on the Greenwich Meridian (zero line of longitude). Administratively, Ghana is divided into ten regions as exhibited in figure 4.1. The total land area of Ghana is estimated at 238,533 sq. km. with Burkina Faso as her neighbour in the north, Côte d'Ivoire on the west, Togo on the east and on the south is the Gulf of Guinea which is now a source of the country's oil wealth.



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Figure 1Administrative Map of Ghana
Source: www.mapofworld.com

Ghana has a fairly tropical climate with temperature ranging from 21-32°C (70-90°C). Unlike the temperate areas which have four (4) seasons, Ghana has two main seasons thus the rainy season and the dry season. There are two rainy periods thus March – July and September – October. There is a short dry season in August and a long dry season between October and March.

4.2 Population of Ghana

Per the 2010 population and housing census, there are approximately 24,658,823 people consisting of 12,024,845(48.8%) males and 12,633,978(51.2%) females. This gave a ratio of 95 males to 100 females. The regional analyses of these figures are shown in figure 4:0:1 below. Ashanti region recorded the highest populated region with 4,780,380 people whilst Greater Accra was the most densely populated region with 1,236 people per square

kilometres. The adult population of Ghana stood at 13,632,299 people with the dependent population (less than 15 years and above 65 years) also at 10,617,930 people.

Table 4:0:1 2010 Population and Housing Census

Region	Total	Male	Female
All Regions	24,658,823	12,024,845	12,633,978
Western	2,376,021	1,187,774	1,188,247
Central	2,201,863	1,050,112	1,151,751
Greater Accra	4,010,054	1,938,225	2,071,829
Volta	2,118,252	1,019,398	1,098,854
Eastern	2,633,154	1,290,539	1,342,615
Ashanti	4,780,380	2,316,052	2,464,328
Brong Ahafo	2,310,983	1,145,271	1,165,712
Northern	2,479,461	1,229,887	1,249,574
Upper East	1,046,545	506,405	540,140
Upper West	702,110	341,182	360,928

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2014

4.3 The Economy of Ghana

Over the years, Ghana's focus has been on agriculture and manufacturing as means of improving the economy. This can be attested to by the peculiar seriousness its first president attached to establishing factories. It can also be evidenced by the huge portions these sectors take in the country's annual budget over the years as shown in figure 3 and table 4:0:2. In 2013, however, the country recorded the service sector as the largest contributor to Ghana's gross domestic product (GDP) with 49.5% of the total GDP for the period. This was followed by the industry and agriculture sectors which contributed 28.6% and 22.0% respectively. The activities from these sectors have generated a lot of

employment in the country. A detailed overview of Ghana's economy is shown in figure 3 below. Despite Ghana's rich mineral resources, the mining of other minerals and quarrying only accounts for 1.7% of GDP with the exclusion of crude oil. However, a decline of 0.6% of GDP or a negative growth of 0.6% in manufacturing sector's contribution was realised in 2013. This could be attributed to the adverse power and utilities problems coupled with unfavourable conditions for domestic production.

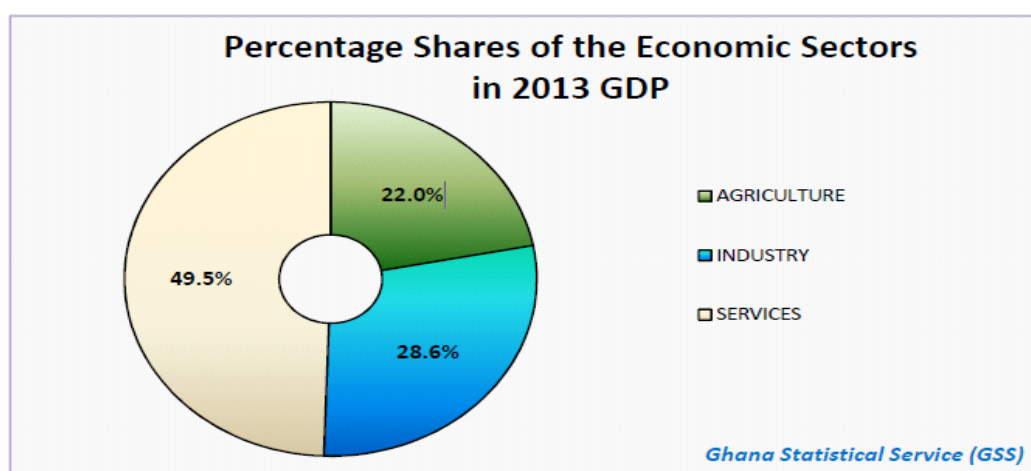


Figure 2Percentage shares of the economic sectors in 2013 GDP in Ghana:

Source:Ghana Statistical Service, 2014

Table 4:0:2 GDP contributions by sector in 2013

		2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
1	AGRICULTURE	31.8	29.8	25.3	23.0	22.0
1.01	Crops	23.6	21.7	19.1	17.3	16.9
	o.w. Cocoa	2.5	2.2	2.6	2.6	2.2
1.02	Livestock	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.6	1.5
1.03	Forestry and Logging	3.7	3.7	2.8	2.6	2.2
1.04	Fishing	2.5	2.3	1.7	1.5	1.4
2.	INDUSTRY	19.0	19.1	25.6	28.6	28.6
2.01	Mining and Quarrying	2.1	2.3	8.4	9.5	9.8
	o.w. Crude Oil	0.0	0.4	6.7	7.8	8.1
2.02	Manufacturing	6.9	6.8	6.9	6.4	5.8
2.03	Electricity	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5
2.04	Water and Sewerage	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6
2.05	Construction	8.8	8.5	8.9	11.5	11.8
3.	SERVICES	49.2	51.1	49.1	48.4	49.5
3.01	Trade: Repair of Vehicles, Household Goods	5.9	6.2	5.9	5.3	4.9
3.02	Hotels and Restaurants	6.2	6.0	5.4	4.7	4.3
3.03	Transport and Storage	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.2
3.04	Information and Communication	1.8	1.9	1.8	2.2	2.4
3.05	Financial and Insurance Activities	4.1	5.2	4.4	4.8	6.5
3.06	Real Estate, Professional, Administrative & Support Service Activities	4.1	4.5	4.6	4.6	4.4
3.07	Public Administration & Defence; Social Security	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.8	6.9
3.08	Education	4.2	4.3	4.1	4.3	4.2
3.09	Health and Social Work	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.2
3.10	Community, Social & Personal Service Activities	3.7	4.0	3.9	3.5	3.4
4.	GROSS DOMESTIC PRODUCT at basic prices	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ghana Statistical Service 2014

4.3.1 Import and Export in Ghana

According to Business and Financial Times (Mensah, 2014), the president stated in the State of the Nation's Address that Ghana expends about US\$ 1.5 billion on imports. A financial expert asserts that this expenditure is more than 10 percent of export revenue that Ghana earns.

During the 2010/11 crop-year, Ghana produced one million tonnes of cocoa. This was unprecedented in the history of Ghana. This achievement chalked was attributed to good weather conditions and improved farming techniques. However, cocoa production in Ghana dropped to 850,000 tonnes in the subsequent year. Almost all agricultural activities are characterized by fluctuations which can be widely attributed to the farming methods and some socio-economic factors.

4.4 Employment situation in Ghana

According to Business and Financial Times more than 80% of those employed on the labour market of Ghana do not have secondary level education. This comes as no surprise with Ghana spending over 6 % of GDP on education. This is slightly over world average which is pegged at 5%. This denotes that, compared to many countries, Ghana expends a substantial portion of its total income on education. It is however shocking to know that many school children in Ghana still study under trees, (Ibid). This has critical effects on the economy especially with the country's gradual shift to the service sector.

On the 25th of May, 2014, the Secretary General of the Trade union congress (TUC) issued a statement concerning Ghana's economy. He noted that 'the bulk of the workforce is trapped in low productivity employment in agriculture and services. Many

citizens including those in agriculture are finding it ever more difficult to meet their daily food needs. The social indicators whether in the realm of access to sanitation, decent housing, safe drinking water or affordable health care are nothing to write home about. These are but a few of the characteristics feature of our economy and society'. Speaking on the way forward, he noted that 'Organised Labour believes that overcoming our development challenges require a skilful interplay of both the visible hand of government and the invisible hand of the market'.

However, the recent economic crisis that has hit the country has increased the unemployment problem in the country. The inflation rate which was pegged at 14.7% in April, 2014 (Bank of Ghana) together with the 17.5% Valued Added Tax on purchases as well as the depreciating Ghana Cedi against the major trading currencies has increased the cost of doing business for many businesses in Ghana. These have triggered a drop in confidence of private businesses in the economy and declining a lot of employment applications. Inflation rate which was pegged at 14.5% as of March, 2014 and the increasing cost of production have led to the massive reduction in employment. Private businesses are reducing the level of employment which has also led to a reduction in employment especially for fresh graduates from the various tertiary institutions.

A report by Business and Financial Times (Essabra- Mensah, 2014) indicated that about 3080 mine workers have been sent home between January 2013 and March 2014. The Ghana Mine Workers Union stated that these workers made up 16.1% of its membership. This retrenchment programme adopted by various mining companies across the country was mainly due to the drop in the gold prices on the international market. International Labour Organisation report presented by Ghana News Agency indicates that Global

Youth Unemployment was 11.6% in 2007. This percentage rose to 12.9% and 13.1% in 2012 and 2013 respectively. The increase implies the global, unemployment problem facing the youth is worsening.

Table 4:0:3 Employment sectors of employed persons 15-64 years by region and district, 2010

District	All employe nt sector	Public (Governm ent)	Priv ate For mal	Privat e Infor mal	Semi- Public/ Parast atal	NGOs (Local and Internatio nal)	Other Internati onal Organisa tion
All regions	9,782,655	641,633	708,043	8,364,649	13,750	49,894	4,686
Wester n	925,826	60,015	74,287	784,978	1,647	4,685	214
Centra l	827,154	56,794	43,218	723,496	772	2,686	188
Greate r Accra	1,797,236	146,367	317,044	1,309,504	3,219	18,045	3,057
Volta	813,043	52,739	24,780	731,517	759	3,095	153
Easter n	1,042,640	73,929	52,719	910,867	2709	2,155	261
Ashant i	1,863,716	127,252	137,346	1,586,255	2,379	10,185	299
Brong Ahafo	926,598	54,212	34,789	833,644	1,178	2,605	170
Northe rn	931,998	36,055	13,409	877,904	502	3,878	250
Upper East	400,185	20,475	6,330	371,428	355	1,554	43
Upper West	254,259	13,795	4,121	235,056	230	1,006	51

Source: Ghana Statistical Service 2013

With respect to employment, the private sector employs more than the public sector with the private informal sector employing majority of the workers in Ghana as evident in table 4:0:3 above.

Table 4:0:4 Employment status of employed persons 15-64 years by region and district, 2010

Districts	Total	Employee	Self-employed without employee(s)	Self-employed with employee(s)	Casual worker	Contributing family worker	Apprentice	Domestic employee (House help)	Other
All regions	9,782,655	1,840,931	5,751,840	471,017	201,732	1,158,923	278,908	62,832	16,472
Western	925,826	183,588	538,877	38,270	27,985	107,425	22,320	5,956	1,495
Central	827,154	144,024	526,796	33,290	15,501	80,837	21,689	3,919	1,098
Greater Accra	1,797,236	634,202	859,687	129,908	42,336	48,299	63,846	15,494	3,464
Eastern	1,042,640	166,134	699,294	41,410	19,196	83,521	26,183	5,224	1,678
Ashanti	1,863,716	380,094	1,074,955	124,667	49,695	136,137	85,339	10,220	2,609
BrongAhafo	926,598	122,902	562,958	36,161	16,874	155,338	25,569	5,229	1,567
Northern	931,998	61,371	536,393	29,902	10,858	271,866	10,984	8,104	2,520
Upper East	400,185	32,086	241,434	9,296	3,935	104,076	5,951	2,829	578
Upper West	254,259	20,305	132,715	5,072	3,086	88,014	3,381	1,270	416
Volta	813,043	96,225	578,731	23,041	12,356	83,410	13,646	4,587	1,047

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, (2013)

With respect to self-employment, the self-employed workers without employees far outnumber the self-employed workers with employees as evident in table 4:0:4 above. This implies that there is the need to invest in more infrastructures so that many private businesses can employ other workers.

4.5 Industrial Relations Climate in Ghana

The waves of industrial action in the labour market in Ghana has reduced on the surface but the strong current underneath the waves continue to persist as stronger agitation of employees spread across various sectors of the labour market. Many of the agitation span

from the new oil sector with 50 workers of one of the oil companies agitating for better service and calling for pay increases which stopped in 2011 due to the fact that workers wanted to join and form a trade union. However, some civil servants are calling on the government to rescind his decision on holding on to salary increment as a measure to improving Ghana's declining economy. The agitation of the government sector workers heightened prior to the celebration of workers' day on May 1, 2014.

4.6. Labour institutions in Ghana

According to the population census conducted in Ghana in 2010, there were 24,658,823 Ghanaian citizens, out of which 9,782,655 were gainfully employed. Fundamentally, it could be easily assumed that all of these working class citizens are tax payers and as such deserve protection by the government. As such, there are various institutions that perform this function with the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relation serving as the mother body.

4.6.1. Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations

The Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations (MELR) is the Executive body responsible for the formulation and implementation of labour laws, policies, regulations and conventions of industrial relations as well as the monitoring and evaluation of such policies and programmes. It is also responsible for the implementation of labour market programmes in collaboration with other stakeholders in the sector. It convenes meetings of the NLC and the NTC (on salaries and wages) and advises Government on the decisions taken by these institutions. The Ministry used to facilitate mediation and conciliation between employees and employers in conflict situations; this role is now vested in the NLC under the new Labour Act 2003 (Act 651).

Labour institutions are established within the framework of the Constitution and the Labour Act. As such, their work is defined by the preoccupations of the legislative framework. The ministry has been coupled with a lot of changes including a change of name from Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment to Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations. The Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations is headed by a substantive Minister and assisted by a Deputy Minister. The Ministry comprises the headquarters, four departments, five agencies, two councils, two commissions and one committee. These Departments, Agencies, Councils, Commissions and Committee are responsible for the implementation of policies, programmes, projects and activities formulated by the Ministry, in line with the development agenda of Government (Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda).

The MELR formulates policies and initiates programmes to promote employment generation and enhance Labour Administration in Ghana and conduct research into topical labour issues to enhance national development. This is done to achieve their vision of leading Labour and Employment Agency desirous for the promotion of employment creation and protection of the rights of Ghanaian workers.

The mission statement of the Ministry is to formulate policies and initiate programmes to promote employment generation and enhance Labour Administration in Ghana and conduct research into topical labour issues to enhance national development. In pursuance of its mandate, MELR focused on formulating policies and programmes, coordinating all employment programmes, enhancing employability of the youth through skill training among others to promote industrial harmony. According to the 2012 annual report of MELR, the Ministry in collaboration with the Ministry of Local

Government and Rural Development under the Ghana Social Opportunities Project (GSOP) developed the Ghana Labour-intensive Public Works Policy. Also, Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP) programme was re-launched in the same year.

Other projects include:

- 1. Management Development and Productivity Institute (MDPI)** trained **880** persons in its regular and in-plant training programmes such as financial, marketing, General Administration Management and Industrial Engineering in the year 2012.
- 2. Graduate Entrepreneurship Business Support Scheme (GEBSS)** registered 2,500 unemployed graduates to benefit in all 10 Regions. 200 of the 500 beneficiaries submitted business plans of which 76 have been updated for possible funding by financial institutions.
- 3. National Vocational Training Institute (NVTI)** provided skills training and Trade Tests for Forty Six Thousand Nine Hundred and Sixty (**46,960**) trainees (MELR, 2012).

4.6.1.1 Departments, Agencies, Commissions and Committee

The Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations, acting through its departments is responsible for all issues pertaining to work and employment. The department are:

1. Labour Department,
2. Department of Co-operatives (DOC)

3. Department of Factories Inspectorate (DFI).

There are also some agencies like Management, Development Productivity Institute (MDPI), National Vocational Training Institute (NVTI), Integrated Community Centres for Employable Skills (ICCES), Opportunities Industrialization Centre - Ghana (OIC-Ghana), Ghana Co-operative College (GCC) and Organization of All African Trades Union (OAATU) playing their respective roles in achieving the mandate of the Ministry. The Departments and Agencies are the implementing organs of the Ministry. They are responsible for the implementation of the policies, programmes and projects.

There is also a Ministerial Advisory Board which advises the ministry on policy matters. It is composed of 9 members with the Hon. Minister as the chairman.

Furthermore, there are commissions, councils and a committee which perform various functions. They are:

1. National Labour Commission (NLC)
2. Fair Wages and Salaries Commission (FWSC)
3. Ghana Co-operative Council (GCC)
4. National Tripartite Committee (NTC).

4.6.1.2 Labour Department

The Labour Department was established in 1938. The Department performs a number of functions, including advising the government on labour policy issues, administering and enforcing labour laws, ensuring effective tripartism, and providing career and vocational guidance and counselling. The Labour Department aims at ensuring that basic labour

laws and conventions are adhered to, enhancing industrial relations, and promoting income distribution and industrial peace.

The Labour Department used to be the sole agency for registering and recruiting job-seekers, but currently licensed private employment agencies legalized under the new Labour Act are in operation. Currently, the Labour Department has offices in all ten regions of Ghana and is run by a chief Labour Officer, 148 labour officers and inspectors, and a staff of about 3,363 persons. Among its functions is the licensing of private employment agencies for the Ministry as well as the registration and placement of job-seekers.

Its mission is *“to proactively offer related services to ensuring adherence to basic labour laws and conventions, promote income distribution and industrial peace and thereby contribute to national development.”*

4.6.1.2.1 Functions of the Labour Department

The functions of the department are to provide advice on employment and labour policy and all matters relating to labour. These include the administration of labour laws, operation of the National Employment Service, providing Placement, Vocational Guidance and Counseling, and Labour Market Information. The department is also charged with enforcing labour standards, promoting bi-partite and tripartite social dialogue and providing advice on International Labour Standards among others.

4.6.1.4 Department of Factories Inspectorate (DFI)

Another department under the MELR is Department of Factories Inspectorate (DFI). It derives its legal support from the Labour Act. Sections 122 to 126 of the Labour Act,

which outlines the powers and duties of labour inspection, in particular to ensure the application of the Act itself (bringing violations to the notice of the Labour Department or the National Labour Commission) and providing technical assistance and advice to employers and workers in effectively complying with the Act's provisions. Under the part of the Labour Act relating to occupational safety and health, section 119 entitles workers to remove themselves from exposure to imminent hazards, without risk of termination. Section 120 requires employers to report not later than 7 days on the occurrence of occupational accidents or diseases occurring in the workplace. Section 124(6) lays down penalties on employers for non-compliance with a decision or order of the Minister for Labour or one of the inspectors, in the form of a fine and compensation to any person who proves that he or she suffered loss, damage or injury as a result of the non-compliance.

The Ministry considers a safe and healthy working environment as an essential requirement to enhance productivity at the work place. This role is performed by the Department of Factories Inspectorate within the framework of Factories, Offices and Shops Act, 1970, (Act 328). The Ministry in collaboration with the Business Sector Programme Support (BSPS) developed a National Occupational Safety and Health Policy draft. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) is assisting the Ministry in the compilation of the Occupational Safety and Health (OSH) profile for the country. It is also supporting the Ministry in developing legislation relating to OSH as an initial step towards a comprehensive review of the Factories, Offices and Shops Act, 1970 (Act, 328) to reflect the technological advancement in Factory inspection.

The vision of the Department of Factories Inspectorate is to ensure a Safe and Healthy Working Environment in both the formal and informal sectors of the economy as a prerequisite for preserving the human and material resources which are necessary for Production and National Economic Development.

4.6.1.4.3 Objectives of the Department of Factories Inspectorate

The objective of the Department is to prevent occupational accidents and diseases that arise from exposure to stress in the working environment. This is done through the promotion and enforcement of measures that would safeguard the health and safety of workers. The provisions of the Factories, Offices and Shops Act and its related regulations are used as a basis for achieving the objectives of the department.

4.6.1.5 Department of Cooperatives (DOC)

The Department of Co-operatives is a government agency charged with the administration of Co-operative Societies Decree NLCD 252 of 1968. The main statutory functions include the registration of groups into Co-operative Societies, auditing and inspection of Co-operative Societies, arbitration of disputes among Co-operative Societies and liquidation of Co-operative Societies.

The mission of the Department of Co-operatives envisions that all types of Co-operatives and Farmer-Based Organizations operate as efficient member-owned and managed business enterprises. The Ministry in fulfilling its mandate collaborated with the private sector to provide expertise and specialized training in co-operative education to form viable and sustainable co-operative enterprises such as co-operative organisations, credit unions etc.

The Department of Co-operatives exists to create a conducive environment for sustainable cooperative societies for employment generation, poverty reduction, community resource mobilization and human resource development. In 2012, the Department organized, nurtured and registered 202 Co-operative Societies into the 4 broad categories of the national economy, namely: agriculture, finance, industry and service. The Department also registered 407 groups under the Youth In-Agriculture Programme (Young Farmers League) aimed at promoting employment in the country especially among the youth and to curb the incidence of rural-urban drift. The Department also facilitated the provision of tractors, tricycles, and other farming inputs to the societies. The essence is to generate interest among young farmers, create employment and increase food production.

The DOC collaborated with the Bui Power Authority through its livelihood enhancement programme to sensitize, educate and support the communities that were affected by the construction of the dam. The Department registered the affected persons into co-operative societies to enable them benefit from the programme packages to sustain their livelihood. The period saw the registration of 15 food crops and vegetable groups as well as 5 fish farming groups in the Bui Area. The DOC registered 520 Co-operatives (Shea nut Pickers/Processors) in the Northern, Upper West and Upper East Regions. The Department under the Cadbury Cocoa Partnership (CCP) extended its activities into 109 additional communities. The aim of the partnership with Cadbury Cocoa is to help the cocoa farmers in the maintenance of cocoa farms and the production of quality cocoa. The DOC organized cocoa farmers in selected communities into viable co-operative societies. In addition, the communities received solar lanterns, hand dug wells, spraying machines, bicycles and solar panels through the registered societies.

A new Co-operative Bill was developed by the Ministry for Cabinet approval to replace the old law (N.L.C.D 252) of 1978. This new Bill will help promote initiatives taken by the Co-operatives towards their own development. The Ghana Co-operative Council on its own initiative and with support from some Co-operative Societies trained 58 personnel of various co-operative societies from various regions. Personnel were trained on topics covering the habit of savings, savings mobilization, granting of credit to needy members of the co-operative societies, Good Governance, Financial Management and Management of Co-operative Savings and Credit Societies.

4.6.2. Commissions, Councils and a Committee of Employment and Labour Relations

The various commissions, councils and the committee under the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations are discussed in the subsequent sub headings:

4.6.2.1 National Labour Commission

Under the Labour Decree of 1987, industrial relations matters and disputes were settled by the Ministry of Labour through the Labour Department headed by the Chief Labour Officer. Before the establishment of the Labour Commission, the Labour Department was responsible for the settlement of disputes between employers and employees. This task has fallen to the Labour Commission under the new Labour Act of 2003.

Sections 135 to 152 of the Labour Act establish the National Labour Commission (NLC). Comprised of a Chairperson nominated jointly by employers and organised labour and six members: two each from government, the employers' organization and organized labour, the three parties of the labour regime, it is to be an independent body with allowances paid as determined by the Minister in consultation with the Minister for

Finance (ss. 138(2) and 142), holding regular meetings (at least every two months-s. 140), with its own secretarial services and staff (s.147).

Its functions are, among others, to facilitate the settlement of industrial disputes, settle industrial disputes, investigate unfair labour practices, prevent labour disputes and promote cooperation between workers and management. Its annual reports are submitted to the Minister for Employment and Labour Relations who must table them in Parliament (s.151).

Currently, the Commission has only one office in Accra, but has plans to set up offices in other regions in the country in fulfilment of its mandate to establish regional committees.

4.6.2.1.1 Functions (Objectives) of the Commission

The Commission was inaugurated on 6th April, 2005 with the swearing in of the seven-member Commission by H.E. the President of the Republic of Ghana at the seat of Government, the Castle-Osu.

The functions (objectives) of the Commission are:

- a) To facilitate the settlement of industrial disputes
- b) To settle industrial disputes
- c) To investigate labour-related complaints, in particular unfair labour practices and take such steps as it considers necessary to prevent labour disputes
- d) To maintain a database of mediators and arbitrators
- e) To promote effective labour co-operation between labour and management and
- f) To perform any other function conferred on it under the Act.

The National Labour Commission (NLC) is primarily engaged in sustaining peaceful and harmonious industrial relations through the use of effective conflict resolution practices and promotion of cooperation among social partners in the labour front.

The Commission's main functions are to receive complaints from the three parties on industrial disagreements, facilitate the settlement of industrial disputes, settle disputes, investigate labour-related complaints such as infringements of the Labour Act and unfair labour practices, and take steps to prevent labour disputes. It has the powers, privileges and immunities of the High Court in respect of calling witnesses, examining them and compelling the production of documents.

It also has the power to require an enterprise to provide information and statistics concerning its workers and their terms and conditions, and to require a trade union to provide information it considers necessary, notify employers and their organizations and workers and trade unions of contraventions of the Act and its regulations, and direct them to rectify such violations (Section 139(1)).

The mission statement of the commission is "to develop and sustain a peaceful and harmonious industrial relations environment through the use of effective dispute resolution practices within the context of the law, promotion of co-operation among the labour market players and mutual respect for their rights and responsibilities". Their vision statement captures that "we will have a harmonious industrial relations environment borne out of the firm understanding of committed compliance with the Labour Laws by all stakeholders to make the Ghanaian economy competitive to attract investment".

4.6.2.2 National Tripartite Committee (NTC)

Ghana has enjoyed a rich history of social dialogue institutions. An initial attempt commenced in 1972, with the formation of the National Tripartite Committee (NTC) by the National Redemption Council (NRC). It was charged with responsibility for fixing the national minimum wage. However, tripartite consultations became more effective during the Third Republic under the People's National Party (PNP) Government led by Hilla Limann.

The Committee was made up of five representatives of labour, employers and Government. Government was represented by the Minister responsible for labour (who convened and chaired its meetings), the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, Ghana Statistical Service, Labour Department and Internal Revenue Service. Labour was represented by the Secretary-General and other officials of the Ghana Trades Union Congress (TUC) as well as officials from Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), Ghana Registered Nurses Association (GRNA), Civil Servants Association (CSA) and Judicial Services Staff Association of Ghana (JUSSAG) while private sector employers were represented by the Ghana Employers' Association (GEA). The Labour Act of 2003 (s.112) now gives the NTC statutory backing (16-members) and broadens its scope of responsibilities (s.113) to include advising the Minister responsible for employment on all labour market issues, and on broader "matters of social and economic importance". It also assumed responsibility for issuing bargaining certificates for unions seeking to establish collective bargaining agreements.

The NTC may set up regional and district subcommittees, which must also be tripartite (s.115). The Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) makes it clear that the main tripartite committee

and any sub-committees must have secretarial services for the effective performance of their functions. The Ministry for employment continues to work with its social partners through the National Tripartite Committee. The Committee serves as an effective platform for the Social Partners (Government, Organized Labour, and Employers) to build consensus on matters relating to Labour and Employment.

4.6.2.3 Fair Wages and Salaries Commission (FWSC)

The Fair Wages and Salaries Commission (FWSC) is to ensure fair, transparent and systematic implementation of the Government Public Service pay policy and related matters. The Single Spine Salary Structure (SSSS) was established under the FWSC Act 2007 (Act 737) to ensure equity in the public sector salary administration.

The Commission migrated 478,566 public service workers unto the Single Spine Salary Structure (SSSS) in 2012. This figure represents 99.7% of the 480,000 workers expected to be migrated. The FWSC carries out series of negotiations with the Public Services Joint Standing Negotiating Committee (PSJSNC) to determine the Base Pay and Pay Point Relativity which informed the development of the SSSS.

The FWSC also agreed with organized labour at the Public Services Joint Standing Negotiation Committee (PSJSNC) meeting to establish a Post Migration Implementation Committee. This Committee will, among others, meet with Unions, Associations and Institutions having concerns about their migration and recommend appropriate resolutions.

4.7 Labour Centres in Ghana

There are two main labour centres in Ghana. These are the Ghana Trade Union Congress (TUC) and the Ghana Federation of Labour (GFL). These two centres are discussed below:

4.7.1 Ghana Trade Union Congress

The Trade Union Ordinance was enacted in the year 1941. The enactment of the 1941 Trade Union Ordinance and the subsequent registration of Workers Organisations under it led to the formation of the first Gold Coast Trades Union Congress at Sekondi in the Western Province in 1945. The Ghana TUC was launched in 1945 as a national centre of trade unions, with the major objective of leading the rest of organized labour in protecting collective bargaining rights as well as in policy intervention concerning labour market and other national issues. It began with a total membership of 6,030 belonging to 14 affiliates. The political upheavals of the 1950s up to independence in 1957 provided the atmosphere for the growth of unions. By 1958 when the TUC completed a major round of organisational renewal, the over 80 house unions who made up its affiliates were restructured into 24 affiliates.

The Trades Union Congress (TUC) has a history with informal economy workers, which is not much in evidence in its current structure and composition. It has been noted that the beginnings of trade unionism in Ghana were found in efforts to organize informal sector workers, agricultural labourers, cooks, motor drivers, mechanics, goldsmiths and other artisans' after the First World War. However, in its evolution, urban formal sector workers came to dominate the Trade Union Congress (Adu- Amankwah, 1999).

After the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) came to power through a coup in 1981, it sought cooperation with the TUC, but failed to receive its full support. In 1982, it issued a decree for the formation of the People's/Workers' Defence Committees (PWDC) parallel to the existing union structures and in order to undermine the unions' power. The same year, several workers calling themselves the Association of Labour Unions (ALU) backed by the government attacked the TUC headquarters and set up Interim Management Committees as heads of both the TUC and the trade unions within it to democratize them. From there on, relations between the government and the TUC were poor. After Ghana's return to democratic rule in 1992, conditions for trade unions improved. Although the 1965 Industrial Relations Act requires TUC affiliation for the registration of a union, workers' association (formally not unions) in the public sector were formed. These have some negotiating power with the government, but are not allowed to call out strikes. In 1985, the TUC and several public sector workers' associations founded the National Consultative Forum of Ghana Labour (NFGL). It does negotiate on behalf of its members, but provides a means of communication for the member organizations. In 1999, the Ghana Federation of Labour (GFL) was established as an umbrella organization for several independent trade unions.

Trade unions in Ghana are organized on industrial lines. They operate almost entirely within the formal sectors of the economy. However, a few unions are trying hard to organize workers in the informal sectors of the economy. Recent survey carried on by the TUC has shown that about 70% of all unionized employment can be found in the public sector. The survey also shows that the unions are generally small and are predominant within the public sector (55.39%). The four largest unions out of the eighteen affiliated to the TUC represent 50.44% of the entire membership of the TUC. The Industrial and

Commercial Workers Union, which operates largely within the private sector commands 16.79 per cent of the membership of the TUC. Four other unions operating in the private sector are the Ghana Private Road Transport Union (10.74%), Timber and Wood workers Union (9.08%), Construction and building Materials Workers Union (4.66%), and Ghana Mine Workers Union (3.34%).

As indicated earlier, unions operating in Ghana are largely industrial unions. They have managed to secure closed/union shop agreements in establishments where they have members. By virtue of this, membership development has been tied to employment growth within the various establishments. The number of affiliates has changed as a result of amalgamations and withdrawals, and today there are 18 affiliates with varying sizes, ranging from unions with less than a total membership of 1,000 to those with membership of well over 40,000. The affiliated trade unions are as follows:

1. General Agricultural Workers' Union (GAWU)
2. Ghana Mine Workers' Union (GMWU)
3. Public Services Workers' Union (PSWU)
4. Maritime and Dock-workers' Union (MDU)
5. Construction and Building Workers' Union (CBWU)
6. Timber and Wood-workers' Union (TWU)
7. Railway Workers' Union (RWU)
8. Public Utility Workers' Union (PUWU)
9. General Transport, Petroleum and Chemical Workers' Union (GTPCWU)
10. Teachers and Educational Workers' Union (TEWU)
11. Railway Engine-men's Union (REU)
12. Communications Workers' Union (CWU)

13. Local Government Workers' Union (LGWU)
14. National Union of Seamen (NUS)
15. Health Services Workers' Union (HSWU)
16. Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU)
17. Union of Industry, Commerce & Finance Workers' (UNICOF)
18. Federation of Universities Senior Staff Association of Ghana (FUSSAG)

TUC members are independent of political parties and religious bodies. In fact, the TUC constitution forbids union leaders from publicly identifying with any of the political parties in the country. Each of the affiliates of the TUC has both financial and administrative autonomy. The TUC does not exercise control over them since they have their own governing/decision making bodies. On the other hand, the unions have much influence over the TUC as its governing/decision making bodies are composed of leaders and members of the affiliated unions. By this, the Executive Board of the TUC, which is responsible for making policy decisions in between congresses, is composed of top leadership of the national unions while the finance committee of the TUC, which is responsible for its budget and finances, are elected from among the rank and file union members at the quadrennial delegates' congress of the TUC.

4.7.2 Ghana Federation of Labour

Eight Labour Associations, not affiliated to the Ghana Trades Union Congress organised a two-day Workshop under the theme, "Re-organizing to Face the Challenges of the 21st Century", on 10th and 11th November, 1997, at the Teachers Hall, Accra with the aim of forming the Ghana Federation of Labour (GFL), the second labour centre in the country (Obeng-Fosu, 2002).

These are mostly associations of various employees of central Government. The Associations/Unions are the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT), the Ghana Registered Nurses Association (GRNA), the Judicial Service Association of Ghana (JUSAG), Civil Servants Association (CSA), the Textiles, Garments and Leather Employees Union (TGLEU), Lotto Receivers Union, Co-operative Transport Association and the Tailors and Dressmakers Association.

The first four Associations/Unions now negotiate with Government (Employer), under the Public Services (Negotiating Committees) Law, 1992 (PN DL L. 309), (Ibid). Textiles, Garment and Leather Employees Union (TGLEU) is the 18th registered Trade Union, under the Trade Unions Ordinance of 1941 (Cap.91), but not affiliated to the Trades Union Congress. It, however, has Collective Bargaining Certificate (which it applied for through the TUC) and negotiates under the Employment relations Act, 1965(Act 299). The remaining three Associations/Unions are Informal Sector Operators' Unions and do not have direct employers, since they work on their own account.

4.8 Summary of Chapter Four

The above chapter has provided background information on the research context. The general economy of Ghana was provided, as well as other important labour and employments issues which will be relevant to the understanding of the discussions in chapter eight and the recommendations in chapter nine. In the next chapter, the methodology used for the study is discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the overall approach that was adopted to conduct this study. The chapter presents the research design and methodology of the study used to obtain and analyse data on labour standards and changing nature of work. Saunders et al. (2009) defines research methodology as a general plan of how researchers go about answering research question(s)

‘All research work is based on a certain vision of the world, employs a methodology, and proposes results aimed at predicting, prescribing, understanding or explaining. By recognizing these epistemological presuppositions, researchers can control their research approach, increase the validity of their results and ensure that the knowledge they produce is cumulative’ (Girod-Seville & Perret, 2001).

The objective of the this chapter is to justify the research design and methodology employed in this study, present the philosophical basis and epistemological and ontological assumptions of the study, and to show how the research design, data collection and analysis will be deployed in this study to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses.

5.1 Research Design

Research design is similar to an “architectural blueprint”. It is a plan for assembling, organizing, and integrating information (data), and its results in a specific end product (research findings) (Merriam, 1991:6). It is considered as a model or framework which involves the intersection of philosophy, strategies of inquiry, and specific methods that guides an entire research agenda. A good research design is one that reflects the social reality being investigated and avoids methodological ambivalence and inconsistencies.

There are different types of research designs based on different philosophical assumptions (epistemology), types of strategies used and the specific methods employed. According to Creswell (2009), there are three types of research design which unquestionably are not discrete from each other. These are qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. Qualitative and quantitative designs are seen as two ends of a continuum with mixed methods residing in the middle because it incorporates elements of the two designs - qualitative and quantitative approaches.

This study used the mixed methods design which incorporated the quantitative and qualitative designs. The first part of the data analysis in this study was a quantitative one followed by another section on a qualitative analysis. The various types of designs are discussed below.

5.1.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is often called empirical, positivist, post positivist, or objectivist (Henrickson & McKelvey, 2002). Quantitative research tests objective theories by examining the relationships among the variables. The variables are measures and numerical data obtained and analysed using statistical procedures to test hypothesis.

Creswell (2009) distinguishes between qualitative and quantitative as thus: while qualitative uses words and open-ended questions, quantitative uses numbers and close ended questions.

The first part of this study used a quantitative research measuring variables like flexibility, work security, trade union, collective bargaining, discrimination and organisational productivity. These variables were quantified and analysed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to draw conclusions on six hypothesis set in the study.

5.1.2 Qualitative Research

According to Creswell (2009:4), 'qualitative research is a means of exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The processes of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's settings, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data' (Creswell, 2009:4).

Qualitative research is interpretive (Mason, 1996:4; Creswell, 1998:15; Marshall & Rossman, 1999:2), inductive (Maxwell, 2004a:36), rejects "the natural sciences as a model" (Silverman, 2000:8) and uses flexible methods and analysis. It is based on an interactive research process involving both the researcher and the social actors (Marshall & Rossman, 1999:7).

The second part of this study was a qualitative one aiming to understand the different interpretations and perceptions of workers on labour standards and the nature of work.

The qualitative aspect of this study focused mainly on the blue coloured workers in the construction, oil and gas and pharmaceuticals industries. This provided the study with the meanings that these workers attach to labour standards and how they see their work as changing.

5.1.3 Mixed Research

The mixed method research combines the qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study. 'It is more than simply collecting and analysing both kinds of data (qualitative and quantitative); it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007).

From literature, there are two main types of mixed methods: the parallel or sequential and the integrated design. The parallel or sequential design of mixed methods, which was used in this study, is mostly used (Creswell, 1994; Morse, 1991; Morgan, 1998). It focuses on the use of quantitative and qualitative elements separately within the same study. The other type of mixed method is the integrated design. The second type of mixed methods as used in Greene, Caracelli and Graham's (1989) is rarely used. This is where different methods are being fully integrated in a single analysis (Caracelli & Greene, 1997).

Parallel designs have been criticised that they are two studies which happen to be about the same study and presented in one work. Purist argues that assumptions about each paradigm are incompatible (Bryman, 1984; Collins, 1984; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) and should be mono-method as they cannot be mixed (Smith, 1983; Smith and Heshusius, 1986). However, researchers like Brannen (2005:175) contends that 'the

association of qualitative research with an inductive logic of enquiry and quantitative research with hypothetic-deduction can often be reversed in practice; both types of research may employ both forms of logic’.

The controversies surrounding mixed methods are not only in regards to the method, but also with regards to the term. Authors like Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), argue that mixed methods extend beyond the methodology and may also occur across different disciplinary traditions. They therefore argue that the right term should be ‘mixed models’. Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2005) term it as ‘mixed research’ and define it as ‘the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language in a single study or set of related studies’. Onwuegbuzie (2005:19) suggests that mixed research should be used where contingencies suggest that it is likely to provide superior answers to a research question or set of questions.

Notwithstanding the controversies of mixed methods, it allows for complete analysis of the research problem (Greene et al., 1989; Tashakhori and Teddie, 1998) by taking advantage of the representativeness and generalisability of quantitative findings and the in-depth, contextual nature of qualitative findings (Greene and Caracelli, 2003). ‘We are really like blind men led into an area and asked to identify an entity (say an elephant) by touching one part of that entity (say a leg). Certainly we might make better guesses if we could pool the information of all the blind men, each of whom has touched a different part of the elephant’ (Smith, 1975:273). In light of Smith’s (1975) insight, this study pools the strengths in both approaches. It allows for a large sample in a quantitative

research while providing the in-depth meanings in a qualitative research. ‘Combining the two affords us the best of both worlds’ (Chatterjee, 2013).

This study adopted a mixed methods research approach – qualitative and quantitative methods. The study started with a quantitative data collection and analysis followed by a qualitative data collection and analysis. On the basis of Greene et al., (1989); Tashakkori and Teddie, (1998) and Brannen (2005)’s arguments, this study adapted the parallel design. Though the study may be a two in one study, the parallel designed helped to cover the research questions and hypothesis that called for separate designs. For example to know the national laws and policies that enforce labour standards in Ghana called for an interview with a protagonist, who is a well-known labour consultant and a former deputy minister for employment and social welfare in Ghana. Other aspects of the work like the testing of hypothesis required quantitative analysis.

5.2 Ontological Foundations of Research

The ontological bases used in this study were objectivism and subjectivism. This is because there two aspects of the study, quantitative and qualitative, which called for different ontological foundations. This study therefore presents the nature of phenomenon under investigation as both objective and subjective reality. This is in support of Tashakkori and Teddli (1998:26): ‘at some points the knower and the known must be interactive, while at others, one may more easily stand apart from what one is studying’.

‘Ontology is concerned with nature of reality. This raises questions of the assumptions researchers have about the way the world operates and the commitment held to particular

views' (Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill, 2009:110). It answers the question: Is reality objective or subjective? This is the basis of objectivism-subjectivism dualism in the Social Sciences. Objectivists argue that scientific method requires 'publicly observable, replicable facts and these are available only in the area of overt behaviour' (Diesing, 1966: 124). Through connections with overt behaviour, some subjective phenomena like conceiving and repressing can be studied indirectly.

5.2.1 Objectivism

Objectivism believes in an absolute fact or reality not determined by personal opinions, societal conventions or beliefs. Thus social entities exist in reality external to social actors (Saunders, 2009:110). 'On the other side, the subjectivists have argued that the essential unique characteristic of human behaviour is its subjective meaningfulness, and any science which ignores meaning and purpose is not a social science' (Diesing, 1966:124). Science of man must understand the action from the standpoint of the actor (Diesing, 1966).

For the quantitative aspect of this study, reality was pursued as objective using natural science principles to come out with the objective reality. In pursuance of objectivism in this study, validated questionnaires were used to test hypothesis deduced from theories to either confirm or refute the theories. The findings were reported in the quantitative analysis presented in chapter five.

5.2.2 Subjectivism

'The subjectivist view is that social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors. What is more, this is a continual process in that through the process of social interaction these social phenomena are in a constant state of

revision' (Saunders et. al, 2007: 108). This paradigm is associated with constructionism, interpretativism and qualitative research methods.

The qualitative aspect of the study used subjectivism as the foundation to come out with the meanings and understanding that the social actors' perceived to be true. This is because, though the objective reality may exist, what people perceive is what is reality to them. Perception is reality.

5.3 Epistemological Foundations of Research

Epistemology questions how reality is known, the relationship between the knower and the known, the processes that guided the knowledge and the reliability of the findings. Epistemology comes from two Greek words *epistēmē* which means 'knowledge or understanding' and 'logos' meaning the 'study of'. The words come together to mean the study of knowledge.

Epistemology borders on how we know what we know, what is regarded as knowledge, how it is gained and how the knowledge is communicated. Other names used for epistemology is worldview (Creswell, 2009), paradigm (Merten, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 2000) epistemologies and ontologies (Neuman, 2000). There are three major paradigms that represent the main epistemological streams. These are the 'positivist', 'interpretativist' and 'constructivist'. Positivism aims to explain reality while interpretativism aims to seek it and constructivism aims to construct it. This study used post-positivism and interpretivism approaches for the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study respectively.

5.3.1 Positivist Paradigm Approach

The Positivist philosophy, also known as Positivism and hypothetico-deductive approach, believes in the existence of an objective reality which is not based on the perception and personal biases of the researcher. The principle of objectivity in this paradigm springs from the independence of the object under study from the subject undertaking the study. Popper (1972:109) defines this principle thus: ‘knowledge in this objective sense is totally independent of anybody's claim to know; it is also independent of anybody's belief, or disposition to assent; or to assert, or to act.

Knowledge in the objective sense is knowledge without a knowing subject’. The objective of the science is therefore to understand this reality better (Schutt, 2009:89) through empirical discovery and explanation of the reality. ‘Science must be falsifiable’ (Popper, 2005:17). That is, it should be logically possible to conclusively decide the truth or falsification of empirical science or knowledge. Falsification acknowledges theories as ‘provisional truth’ that stands for as long as they have not been disproven.

The principle of objectivity is possible in the natural sciences but has raised various questions when being applied to the social sciences. How can a ‘subject’ observe an ‘object’ without altering the nature of the object? Durkheim (1982) maintains that subjects can exteriorise social events which he refers to as ‘things’. These ‘things’ include all that which the mind can only understand if we move outside our own subjectivity by means of observation and testing.

The term was popularised by Comte (Crotty, 1998:19) when he sought to apply the scientific paradigm to the social world (Cohen et al., 2007:9). Other sociologists such as Emile Durkheim and Max Weber also attempted to put studies of society / people on a

more ‘scientific’ footing as Auguste Comte. Positivists believe that new knowledge generated from research using this paradigm is always an accurate representation of reality and not the interpretation given to the reality. Positivism was made popular in the social sciences through the Vienna Circle, a group of 21st century philosophers who argued that ‘if something was not observable then it was not verifiable and if it was not verifiable then it was metaphysical and meaningless’(Allmendinger, 2009).

This approach was not used in this study because the area was in social sciences and according to (Allmendinger, 2009) this approach is not feasible unlike the natural sciences. In social science research like this study, focus is on human beings and their interactions and perceptions about the objective truth. Based on this fact, the positive paradigm was not used.

5.3.1.1 Postpositivism

‘While logical positivism as an approach has been largely abandoned it continues to have an influence upon social sciences’ (Allmendinger, 2009:3-4) through postpositivism. Postpositivism has been labeled with many other names including empiricism, functionalism, naturalism and postpositivist naturalism. Postpositivism is a philosophy of reality that believes in the existence of an external, objective reality but our understanding of it is limited by its complexities and the limitations and biases of the researcher. As a result of concerns (like the limitations and biases of researchers), postpositivists do not think we can ever be sure that scientific methods allow us to perceive objective reality. Proponents’ believe that ‘with adaptation, methodologies of natural sciences are appropriate for the social sciences’ (Allmendinger, 2009).

Postpositivism is ‘marked by the attempt to develop a diachronic approach to knowledge and a dialogic approach to criticism. For post-positivists, knowledge of reality is held to be possible but, in place of certainty, it is held that knowledge is fallible’ (Cruickshank, 2007:268). Fallibilism (from fallible) is the ‘epistemological thesis that no belief (theory, view, thesis) can ever be rationally supported or justified in a conclusive way. Always, there remains a possible doubt as to the truth of the belief’. Postpositivism is in response to criticism of positivism on the grounds that our worldview shapes what we see and also that society’s values, meanings and actions which are studied keep on shifting. The major criticism of positivism has always been that ‘the social sciences can never fully divorce themselves from the subject that is being studied’ (Allmendinger, 2009). Proponents of postpositivists argue that if observation refutes a theory, and these are achieved through medium of instruments, then observations are subject to the accuracy of these human-made measurements then observation statements cannot be conclusively falsified.

The post positivism paradigm was used for the quantitative aspect of this study. This is because the views expressed by actors were shaped by their world views. Also the mediums of instruments used in the study were subject to the accuracy of respondents understanding and interpretations.

5.3.2 Interpretive Paradigm Approach

The second major epistemological paradigm is interpretativism approach. ‘Interpretivism is an epistemology that advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand the differences between humans in our role as social actors. This emphasizes the difference between conducting research among people rather than objects such as trucks and

computers. The heritage of this strand of interpretivism comes from two intellectual traditions: phenomenology and symbolic interactionism. Phenomenology refers to the way in which we as humans make sense of the world around us. In symbolic interactionism we are in a continual process of interpreting the social world around us in that we interpret the actions of others with whom we interact and this interpretation leads to adjustment of our own meanings and actions' (Saunders et al., 2007:106-107).

Interpretativist approach suggests that the researcher should enter the world of the subjects and understand them from their point of view. This approach is particularly welcome in complex and unique situations to capture the rich complexities of the social situation. In this paradigm, questions about generalisability have been raised. Brannen (2007:175) response to it thus: it is 'only true if generalisability is taken to refer only to statistical inference that is when the findings of a research sample are generalized to the parent population'.

David Hume in the 18th century also examined the inductive basis of science and concluded that generalisation based on inductive reason 'go beyond what is known and observable and as such can never be 'true', or even probably true and therefore much of science is based on conjecture' (Allmendinger, 2009). This is known as the 'Hume's puzzle'. This is supported by Karl Popper who concludes that 'no part of scientific reasoning is above question, particularly if based on inductivism'. This was Popper's basis for science based on fallibility arguing that there was no need for 'induction beyond the basic human search for patterns and regularities (Allmendinger, 2009). According to Couvalis, (1997: 63), Popper's logical problem with induction is 'are we

justified in believing that unexperienced instances of certain kinds of things will be like experienced instances?’

In this study the Interpretative paradigm was used for the qualitative aspect of the research. This was because the qualitative aspect sought to understand the meanings and interpretations that respondents attached to the issues raised in the study.

5.3.3 Constructivism

The third paradigm, constructivism, is also called social constructionism. Remenyi et al (1998:35) supports the use of social constructionism to get the ‘details of the situation to understand the reality or perhaps a reality working behind them’. This is often referred to as constructionism or social constructionism. ‘Social constructivists hold assumptions that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences—meanings directed toward certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The goal of the research is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of the situation being studied. The questions become broad and general so that the participants can construct the meaning of a situation, typically forged in discussions or interactions with other persons’ (Creswell, 2008:8). This was not used in the study.

5.3.4 Justification for paradigms used in the study

Naslund (2002) believes that the selection of research method should be based on the research paradigm. Paradigms are models, intellectual frameworks or frames of reference, with which researchers can affiliate themselves (Kuhn 1970). There are multiple schools of thought on the paradigm for mixed methods. One school, the

‘dialectical perspective’ (Greene and Caracelli, 2003) argues that mixed methods should be viewed strictly as a “method” and hence the researcher should be allowed to use any number of philosophical foundations for its justification and use. Based on the argument above, this study used the post-positivist approach for the quantitative and the interpretativist for the qualitative aspect of the study.

The postpositivist paradigm was adopted for the quantitative aspect of the work. Postpositivism follows the principles of positivism which has been abandoned in the social sciences. Postpositivism recognises that scientific research in social sciences cannot be completely objective as subjects being studied are not static and have different views. Like positivism, postpositivism uses empiricism and reductionism to explain reality based on empirical data to analyse cause and effects through the testing of hypothesis using the deductive approach. Postpositivism presents an idea, test it through scientific verification and reports the results. This is presented in the figure below.

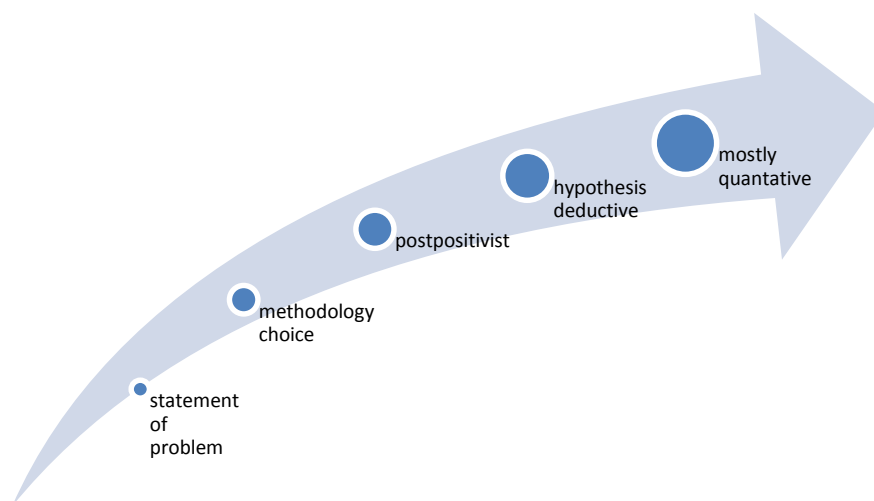


Figure 5 Research Process
Source: Researcher’s own construct

Since it uses quantitative measures and depends heavily on experiments and surveys, it allowed for a large sample for the study through the use of already existing

questionnaires, and where lacking, creating new ones. This form of empirical verification through already existing measures gives a near accurate picture of research matter and increases reliability and validity. The quantitative measures allowed for statistical analysis to identify patterns of causes and effects and to test the hypothesis in the study. One underlying assumption for this approach is that it is deductive. It infers a ‘particular’ from a general and thus allowed for generalisability of the study.

The interpretist approach also known as the idiographic approach was adopted for the qualitative part of the study. The interpretist approach is a deductive method that focuses on hypothesis or proposition generation. It is a social science method that uses qualitative methods to explore, explain and understand reality. Truth or objectivity is relative in the sense that it depends on the researcher and the instruments used and how the subjects perceive reality. This approach helped to unearth the meanings that respondents attached to the subject area from the respondents perspective. This afforded a rich and in-depth explanation on the research.

5.4 Research Strategies

There are two main categories of research strategies often employed in social science research and these are; qualitative and quantitative research strategies, or intensive and extensive research strategies respectively - terms coined by Harré (1979). Another category which is becoming popular is the mixed method strategy. With this method comes ‘definitional problems—problems which relate to paradigmatic and other issues typically associated with mixing methods.

Mixed methods research is a research in which the researcher uses the qualitative research paradigm for one phase of a research study and the quantitative research paradigm for another in order to understand a research problem more completely (Creswell, 2005). Qualitative and quantitative approaches have been distinguished (and thereby defined) on the basis of the type of data used (textual or numeric; structured or unstructured), the logic employed (inductive or deductive), the type of investigation (exploratory or confirmatory), the method of analysis (interpretive or statistical), the approach to explanation (variance theory or process theory), and for some, on the basis of the presumed underlying paradigm (positivist or interpretive/critical; rationalistic or naturalistic).

Perhaps our inability to clearly specify what all of us have a general sense of is indicative of the lack of a clear distinction—that what we are talking about is a continuum with a number of independent dimensions along which any particular research may be placed. If one uses numbers, interpretation is still involved. If one's data are texts, counting may still be appropriate. Variables do not necessarily have clear-cut meanings; processes can be revealed through numeric analysis as well as through narrative, and so on. This inability to definitively distinguish one approach from another has implications for the acceptability of mixing methods in that “lines of conflict” cannot be clearly drawn’ (Bazeley, 2002).

Based on the research design, ontological and epistemological positions taken above, this research adopted a mixed method approach. This involved the use of quantitative methods and qualitative methods sequentially in the study.

5.5 Research Methodology and Research Methods

Research methods and research methodology are used interchangeably (Saunders et al 2007:3). Kothari (2004) however has a different opinion. ““Research methods may be understood as all those methods/techniques that are used for conduction of research. Research methods or techniques, thus, refer to the methods the researchers use in performing research operations. These are the specific methods to be used in a research study’. ‘Research methodology however is a way to systematically solve the research problem. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically’” (Kothari, 2004:7-8). Other names for research methodology are ‘strategies of inquiry’ (Creswell, 2008:11) and approaches to inquiry’ (Creswell, 2007).

The common methodologies for research include the use of surveys, experiments, ethnography, action research, discourse analysis and grounded theory. Research methods that can be used in research methodologies includes questionnaires, case study, structured and unstructured content analysis, forms of interviews(face to face interviews, focus group interviews, telephone interviews, intranet and internet-mediated interviews) and observation.‘Though there is not necessarily a perfect correspondence between ontology, epistemology, and methodology, they do constrain each other’ (Chatterjee, 2013:73). The choice of the methodological foundation of this study was dependent on the research design, ontological and epistemological positions were taken in this study. In all the study used questionnaires for survey for the quantitative research and face to face interview and focus group interviews for the qualitative research.

This study made use of structured questions in a survey methodology to produce quantitative data for descriptive and analytic statistics to describe the sample and test for

associations between variables in order to draw conclusions. 'A survey is a systematic method for gathering information from (a sample of) entities for the purposes of constructing quantitative descriptors of the attributes of the larger population of which the entities are members. The word "systematic" is deliberate and meaningfully distinguishes surveys from other ways of gathering information' (Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer and Tourangeau, 2009:2). A survey collects data to measure a social phenomenon and provides descriptions of the sample as well as test theories. Structured questionnaires were used in the survey.

The qualitative data was generated through a focused group and multiple case studies through grounded theory. Grounded theory as developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) seeks to generate theories regarding social phenomena: that is, to develop higher level understanding that is "grounded" in, or derived from, a systematic analysis of data. Grounded theory is appropriate when the study of social interactions or experiences aims to explain a process, not to test or verify an existing theory, (BMJ, 2008).

'Grounded Theory' when used adheres to the strictures of Grounded-Theory-in-the-research-method which will produce a theory-which-is-grounded-in-data, (Andrews and Scott, 2013). Key features of grounded theory are its iterative study design, theoretical (purposive) sampling, and system of analysis. An iterative study design entails cycles of simultaneous data collection and analysis, where analysis informs the next cycle of data collection (BMJ, 2008).

The basic idea of the grounded theory approach is to read (and re-read) a textual database (such as a corpus of field notes) and "discover" or label variables (called categories,

concepts and properties) and their interrelationships. The ability to perceive variables and relationships is termed "**theoretical sensitivity**" and is affected by a number of things including one's reading of the literature and one's use of techniques designed to enhance sensitivity.

In this study, the grounded theory was used. There was simultaneous data gathering and analysis however, the analysis did not inform the next cycle of data collection as proposed by BMJ (2008). The data gathered was open coded by identifying, naming, categorizing and describing phenomena found in the text. Essentially, each line, sentence and paragraph was read in search of the answer to the repeated question "what is this about? What is being referenced here?" Part of the analytic process was to identify the more general categories that these things were.

The process of naming or labelling things, categories, and properties is known as **coding**. In addition, as codes were developed, memos known as **code notes** were put down against each question in the interview guide that discussed the codes. These memos became the fodder for later development of a report for the discussion chapter. The third step in the analysis of the qualitative data was **axial coding**. Axial coding is the process of relating codes to each other, via a combination of inductive and deductive thinking. To simplify this process, rather than look for any and all kind of relations, grounded theorists emphasize causal relationships, and fit things into a basic frame of generic relationships. The frame consists of the following elements as depicted in table 5:0:1.

Table 5:0:1 Elements of Axial Coding

Element	Description
Phenomenon	This is what in schema theory might be called the name of the schema or frame.

Causal conditions	These are the events or variables that lead to the occurrence or development of the phenomenon. It is a set of causes and their properties.
Context	It is the specific locations (values) of background variables. A set of conditions influencing the action/strategy.
Intervening conditions	Similar to context.
Action strategies	The purposeful, goal-oriented activities that agents perform in response to the phenomenon and intervening conditions.
Consequences	These are the consequences of the action strategies, intended and unintended.

Source: *Education, Research & Consultancy Centre (Lithuania) and Research & Consultancy Institute, (2010)*

After the axial coding, the study looked for a particular category to be the core category and related all other categories to this category. This process is called **selective coding**. Selective coding is a late phase of analysis in the grounded theory approach to qualitative data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) where explanations of phenomena (e.g. events, actions, processes) are emergent.

Grounded theory was preferred in this study over other qualitative methodologies like discourse analysis, ethnography and phenomenology. Ethnography required the researcher to ‘immerse herself or himself in the social world being researched as completely as possible’ (Kothari, 2004:124-145) while phenomenology requires that the qualitative research should start from ‘a point with no preconceptions or hypothesis’ (Husserl, 1970). The conditions of discourse analysis, ethnography and phenomenology could not be ensured as the quantitative aspect of the work was done prior to the qualitative aspect and this gave the researcher some degree of preconceptions and also the researcher did not have the time for an ethnographic study.

Also, multiple case studies were used in the qualitative study to get an in-depth understanding of the research domain in their real natural environment (Yin 2009). This is especially true where ‘the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident’ (Yin, 2009:18). Case studies have been used as a research strategy and a research method (Punch, 2005; Yin, 2009). Multiple case studies were used to understand the research domain in different context by treating each case as an independent entity (Stake, 2006). The contextual factors of each case was analysed and interpreted based on knowledge obtained from respondents. Multiple case studies contribute to greater generalisability (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2011:294). Within each case, a focused group was used to gather data.

A focus group, sometimes called a focus group interview, is a ‘group interview that focuses clearly upon a particular issue, product, service or topic and encompasses the need for interactive discussion amongst participants’ (Carson *et al.*, 2001). ‘*Focused interview* is meant to focus attention on the given experience of the respondent and its effects. Under it the interviewer has the freedom to decide the manner and sequence in which the questions would be asked and has also the freedom to explore reasons and motives. The main task of the interviewer in case of a focused interview is to confine the respondent to a discussion of issues with which he seeks conversance’ (Kothari, 2004:98).

This method is contrasted with group interviews as a method which is an efficient way to interview large numbers of interviewees that would be possible through a one on one interview. In focus group, ‘individual group members’ interactions and responses are

both encouraged and more closely controlled to maintain the focus. Participants are selected because they have certain characteristics in common that relate to the topic being discussed and they are encouraged to discuss and share their points of view without any pressure to reach a consensus' (Krueger and Casey, 2000). Focus group method helped to generate the in-depth and subjective data needed to understand the research topic from the perspectives of the subjects.

One other qualitative method used in this study was a face to face interview with an ex-Deputy Minister of State. An interview is a session or conversation between two or more people (an interviewer and an interviewee) where questions are asked by the interviewer to evoke facts, statements and desired information sought by the interviewer from the interviewee. Interviews are a standard part of researches (qualitative research) and are also employed in many other situations, including media works. Interviews may be Structured, Unstructured or Semi-structured dependent on the researcher and what he/she seeks to accomplish. Nonetheless, face-to-face interviews give other relevant and intangible information for example, facial expression and body language are not covered by qualitative research.

To help answer part of the research questions on the major laws enforcing labour standards in Ghana, a documentary analysis of the 1992 constitution and the Labour Act 2003 was carried out. The primary motive for conducting the document analysis was to reveal meaning, gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge (Rapley, 2007). Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents—both printed and electronic material (Bowen, 2009). It typically involves scrutinizing and drawing meanings from the data under study. According to Buckland (1997), a document

primarily denotes records saved in text formats. Bowen (2009) views a document as a text and image which could hover around a wide array of issues such as advertisements; agendas, attendance registers, and minutes of meetings; manuals; background papers; books and brochures; diaries and journals; event programs (i.e., printed outlines); letters and memoranda; maps and charts; newspapers (clippings/ articles); press releases; programme proposals, application forms, and summaries; radio and television program scripts; organisational or institutional reports; survey data; and various public records.

5.6 Research Purpose

In general there are three research purposes / objectives. These are exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. This study used a two in one (2:1) objective, namely the exploratory and the explanatory. The exploratory was used for the qualitative study to explore flexicurity as the concept is an European one and no known research has been conducted on it outside Europe. The exploratory was also used to study the state of labour standards in Ghana. The exploratory study helped to answer the first three objectives of this study –

1. identification of key changes in the nature of work by sector
2. investigations into the state of labour standards in Ghana
3. effectiveness of the major laws of Ghana in complying with the ILO labour standards.

The explanatory objective sought to explain Flexicurity and Labour standards in relations with HPWS and Organisational productivity in the quantitative part of the study. This covered the fourth and fifth objectives of the study which were on labour standards and nature of work as mediators in the HPWS- organisational productivity relationship.

The following sub sections discuss the three main purpose of research – exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. The chapter proceeds with the justification for the choice of research purpose used in this study and other techniques used in the study.

5.6.1 Exploratory Research

Exploratory research is conducted into a research problem or issue when there are very few or no earlier studies to which the researcher can refer for information (Collis and Hussey, 2003:10). Hence, exploratory research is essential whenever a researcher is breaking new ground and it almost always yields new insights into a topic for research (Babbie, 2004, Robson, 1993). It rarely provides conclusive answers to problems or issues, but gives guidance on what future research, if any, should be conducted (Collis and Hussey, 2003:11). This objective was used in the qualitative aspect of the study.

5.6.2 Descriptive Research

Descriptive research describes phenomena as they exist (Collis and Hussey, 2003) in order to portray an accurate profile of a situations (Robson, 1993:4) and the characteristics of the pertinent issues (Collis and Hussey, 2003:11). Descriptive research may also involve an assessment of the interaction of two or more variables (Blumberg et al., 2005). In comparison with exploratory research, descriptive research goes further in examining a problem than exploratory research however, a major deficiency is that it cannot explain why an event has occurred or why the variables interact in the way they do (Blumberg et al., 2005, Vaus de, 2002a). This method was used in this study in chapter six to describe the quantitative measures used and the demographic for the qualitative data. This is because the study sought to portray the profile of the situations and characteristics of the situations.

5.6.3 Explanatory Research

Explanatory research establishes causal relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2007). Such research answers questions of why or how something is happening. Basically, analytical or explanatory research can be regarded as a continuation of descriptive research (Collis and Hussey, 2003:11). The researcher goes beyond merely describing the characteristics, to analysing and explaining the reasons for the phenomenon that the descriptive research has only observed (Blumberg et al., 2005, Collis and Hussey, 2003). In an explanatory research, the researcher uses theories, or at least hypotheses, to account for the forces that caused a certain phenomenon to occur (Blumberg et al., 2005:10). The explanatory research was used in chapter seven of this study to test the various hypotheses set out in chapter three of this study.

5.6.4 Justification for research purpose

The following sub-sections present the justification for the research purpose used in the study.

5.6.4.1. Quantitative Research: Descriptive and Explanatory

The first aspect of the work, quantitative research used the descriptive and explanatory paradigms. The first section of the presentation of research findings sought to describe the individual responses from the questions, as well as the responses for the various sectors of the economy. The basic features of the gathered data in the study were described. This provided the summaries about the sample and the measures used in the study.

Two chapters, chapter seven and eight sought to explain the research domain and establish the interrelationships among the variables. This approach was suitable for the testing of hypothesis generated for the work. From the epistemological and ontological underpinnings adopted for the quantitative aspect of the work, the explanatory approach discovered the reality and explained what it was. This helped to explained labour standards and flexicurity and helped test the theoretical and conceptual framework.

5.6.4.2 Qualitative Research: Exploratory

The second phase of this study was a qualitative research that used exploratory to get a real, rich and deep understanding of the issues at stake in labour standards in Ghana through an interview with an ex-deputy Minister of State who is also the former president of the Institute of Human resource Management (IHRM) in Ghana and focus group interviews with employees. Exploratory research is conducted into a research problem where there are very few or no earlier studies to refer to for information (Collis and Hussey, 2003:10) and to provide information that can be used for social change. In this instance, flexicurity is a European concept called for the need to explore it in a Ghanaian context. The other variables like the existence of trade unions and collective bargaining as well as discrimination has different connotations to employees which this research sought to uncover through exploration.

The main purpose for the exploratory study was to gain new insights into the research area. Secondary, the aim was to adopt a sequential explanatory mixed strategy in such a way that qualitative results was used where relevant to explain and interpret the findings of the quantitative survey data.

5.7 Sources of Data

There are two main sources of data collection in research. These are primary and secondary sources. The main source of data for this study was primary. Secondary data was reviewed to support or deny findings from this study.

5.7.1 Primary data

Primary data are ‘those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and this happen to be original in character’ (Kothari, 2004:95). Primary source of data for this study was collected through survey with the use of structured questionnaires and also through focus groups interviews using semi-structured questionnaires. Primary data can be collected through various ways including direct personal investigation. The direct personal investigation method was used. This is where data are ‘collected personally by the investigator. There is a face-to-face contact with the persons from whom the information is to be obtained. Data are collected through by asking questions relating to the enquiry to the informants’ (Jain, Aggarwal, Trehan and Ohri, 2010:15). This ensured a greater degree of originality of data and confidentiality of the data.

5.7.2 Secondary data

Secondary data are ‘those which have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process’ (Kothari, 2004:95). Secondary data for the study were obtained from the 1992 Constitution, the Ghana Labour Act 2003 (Act 651), ILO, Ghana Statistical Services and Academic journals and books. These were used in the study to supplement primary data where necessary. A documentary

analysis was done on the relevant parts of the 1992 Constitution and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651).

5.8 Research Population

The population was undefined and thus difficult to put a figure to it. To this end the population was treated as an infinite population. This was because, there were no available records of all organisations in Ghana to be used. There are fragments of them with various institutions like the Association of Ghana Industries (AGI), the National Board of Small Scales Industries (NBSSI) among other. The Registrar General's office could have provided a good record of organisations but all efforts to get the list as a sampling frame proved futile.

5.9 Sample size and Sampling Technique

This section looks at the sample size and the procedures used in collecting data, how it was completed and the instruments used. The term sampling refers to strategies that enables a researcher to pick a subgroup from a larger group and then use this subgroup as a basis for making inferences about the larger group' (Vockell and Asher, 1995:170).

5.9.1 Sample Size

Various authors have different views concerning the sample size of a study. Some authors propose that the larger the population, the smaller the sample size while others propose that the sample size should be representative, relative homogeneity or heterogeneity of the population. A sample size should be representative of the given population (Krejcie & Morgan 1970). Inappropriate and inadequate sample size influences the quality and accuracy of research (Bartlett, Kotrlik, Higgins, 2001). To

secure a level of statistical test power in this study and to avoid an inconclusive result because of too few sample units (Habib, Magruder-Habib, Kupper, 1987) the entire workforce in each organisation was targeted. To be able to generalize, it is essential that both the sampling method used and the sample size are appropriate (Fox, Hunn and Mathers, 2009). A sample size of two thousand four hundred (2400) was used for the quantitative research but the rate of response was 85% (2046 respondents). The qualitative research used a sample of one hundred and one respondents (101).

‘For social science research, about 15 subjects per predictor are needed for a reliable equation’ (Stevens, 1996:72). Taking into account the number of independent variables, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) proposes the following formula: $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m is the number of independent variables in the study). Using the above formula to justify the size of sample in this study, the sample adequacy has been proved.

Table 5:0:2 Gender * Sector Cross tabulation for employees

		Sector				Total
		Primary	Secondary	Tertiary	Quaternary	
Gender	Male	382	327	337	277	1323
	Female	91	60	228	165	544
Total		473	387	565	442	1867

Source: researcher field work (2014)

From the cross tabulation above, more males employees (1323) forming 70% of the respondent were sampled as against females employees (544) forming 30% of the

sampled population for the quantitative research. A total of 1867 employees provided data on their gender as against 12 respondents who did not provide such information. There were more respondents from the tertiary sector, 30% with the minimum respondents coming from the secondary sector (21%). For the managers there were a hundred and thirty eight (138) males as against twenty nine (29) females making a total of 167 managers. The qualitative sample had a similar trend with only fifteen female respondents as against eighty six (86) male respondents totalling 101. This is shown in table 5:0:3 below.

Table 5:0:3 Gender and Sub-sector of respondents from the focus group Interview

		Sub- sectors					
		Fuel Filling Stations	Pharmaceutical	Banks	Telecommunication	construction	Fashion industry
gender	male	15	8	10	9	50	3
	female	10	2	0	1	0	2
total		25	10	10	10	50	5

Source: researcher field work (2014)

5.9.2 Sampling Technique

There are two main sampling techniques – the probability sampling and the non-probability sampling. Probability sampling, also known as ‘random sampling’ or ‘chance sampling’ is a sampling technique where every item or person in the population has an equal chance of inclusion. ‘Non-probability sampling is that sampling procedure which does not afford any basis for estimating the probability that each item in the population has of being included in the sample. Non-probability sampling is also known by different names such as deliberate sampling, purposive sampling and judgment sampling. In this type of sampling, items for the sample are selected deliberately by the researcher’ (Kothari, 2004:59).

This study used a ‘mixed sampling designs’ and a multi - stage sampling. A mixed sampling design incorporates probability and non-probability sampling procedures in selecting a sample while a multi-stage sampling involves the use of different stages in a sampling technique. To have a representational sample, the population for the study was stratified into 4 strata: the primary sector, the secondary sector, the tertiary sector and the quaternary sector. The primary sector covered the extraction or harvesting of products from the earth such as raw materials and basic foods. The secondary sector covered the manufacturing of finished goods while the tertiary sector provided service to the general population or businesses. The last sector, the quaternary sector, consisted of the various intellectual activities.

Ostroff and Harrison (1999) have observed that management literature in general, and the human resource management literature in particular is dominated by studies conducted within a single organisation, industry or region. Arthur and Boyles (2007)

argues that higher level variations are likely to have huge impacts on lower level variations. To this, the study covered four main industries – primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary. The four sectors were further divided into 23 sub sectors out of which hundred and eleven (111) organisations were selected. The study purposefully targeted organisations with at least ten (10) workers and conveniently selected organisations within each strata. Since the target was non-managers and to have a representative sample, the entire non-management in each organisational unit was sampled. This was to avoid sampling errors where some people are omitted from the population. For triangulation purposes, two managers were purposively targeted to answer management questionnaires in each organisation. In all one thousand eight hundred and seventy nine (1879) employees and one hundred and sixty seven (167) managers making up a total of two thousand and forty six (2046) formed the response rate. Credibility issues were considered by triangulating data collection methods, that is qualitative and quantitative data were collected on the same variables.

For the qualitative study, organisations were conveniently chosen from the four strata: primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary. The choice of the organisations was based on how receptive the respondents were with the researcher during the questionnaire distribution and the willingness of the organisations to allow for the interviews. Other convenience taken into consideration was the funds needed to cover a larger sample and the time required to do it. At least one organisation each per stratum was purposefully selected as a case study. In each case study, lower employees were targeted and a convenient sample of between six and ten were selected based on willingness of respondents to participate in the study. A focus group interview was held separately for

each case. One face to face interview was conducted with an expert in the field of labour issues in Ghana to get an in-depth understanding into the area of study.

5.10 Data Collection

The study used a survey methodology, specifically a cross-sectional survey for the quantitative aspect of the study. Structured questionnaires were translated into Twi (Ghanaian language) by an eight member team. The team made up of Teaching Assistants and the researcher, visited selected organisations with letters of introduction seeking access into the organisations to conduct the survey.

The team self-administered the questionnaires to over 80% of the respondents. This was because most of the employee respondents were not educated to the level needed to ensure that they understood the questionnaire as intended. Another reason was also to ensure that the same understanding was shared among respondents. In organisations where the educational level was high, most respondents took the questionnaires and asked for them to be picked later on. A total of two thousand four hundred (2400) questionnaires were distributed out of which 2046 were retrieved. The response rate was very high at 85.25%. There were a few missing data and the ‘exclude pairwise’ was used to treat missing data in the SPSS.

Undertaking higher research means accessing data that are multilevel, multisource, or longitudinal – ideally all three in the same study. Multilevel means that data are sourced from multiple levels (e.g., individual and group; individual and organization; or even individual, group, and organization). Multisource means that the data for different variables come from different sources (e.g., an employee might report his or her job

satisfaction, a supervisor might evaluate the employee's job performance, and the organization might provide records documenting the employee's absenteeism) (Kulik, 2011).

In this study, cross-sectional data was assessed from multilevel and multisource. Multilevel data was sourced at the individual level from employees and at the organisational level from managers and business owners. Data was multisourced with employees answering questionnaires on HPWS, collective bargaining, flexicurity, trade union and discrimination while managers answered organisational questions on organisational productivity, organisational policies and HPWS. Multisourced data helped to prevent the problem of common method variance in the study.

5.11 Research Instruments

Data was collected in a variety of ways. The researcher used standardised questionnaire, and focus group interviews as well as an interview with a protagonist. The protagonist was a deputy minister of employment and social welfare in Ghana and currently a Labour Consultant. The various research instruments are discussed below.

5.11.1 Questionnaire

Standardised questionnaire was used for the study. An eight member team of trained personnel was deployed to handle the administration of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was in English and translated into Twi by the team. This was to ensure that meanings were not lost when personnel had to use the local dialect (Twi) in interviewing uneducated participants. The questionnaire, both English and Twi versions, were pretested on ten (10) employees who fall into the category of respondents. This was because studies have shown that question formats change respondents' answers

(Schwartz, 1999). The questionnaires used in this study were both adapted and developed by the researcher. The variables used in the questionnaire are discussed in detailed under section 5.14.

5.11.1.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire used in the study had eight sections covering all the variables. The first section covered demographic data for descriptive purposes. Questions for the various variables were adapted with the exception of trade union, flexibility and security questions. The developed questionnaires were developed with some principles in mind:

1. All questions were on a likert scale
2. Questions were based on literature covered in the area.
3. Slangs, jargons and technical terms were avoided
4. Double barrelled questions were avoided by focusing on one clear answer
5. Negatively worded questions were avoided.
6. Questions with similar contents were placed together

Variables were measured using multiple item questions to capture the dimensions in each variable. All the demographic questions were single item measure with face value. Other constructs used are shown in table 5:0:4 below.

Table 5:0:4 Constructs and respondents used in the study

Constructs	Respondents
HPWS	Managers, Employees
Discrimination	Employees

Collective voice (Collective bargaining)	Employees
Flexibility	Employees
Security	Employees
Trade union	Employees
Organisational productivity	Managers

Researcher's construct, 2014

5.11.2 Focus Group

Traditionally, focus group research is “a way of collecting qualitative data, which—essentially—involves engaging a small number of people in an informal group discussion (or discussions), ‘focused’ around a particular topic or set of issues” (Wilkinson, 2004, p. 177) to collect data from multiple individuals simultaneously. Lazarsfeld and Merto, who are credited with formalizing the method of focus groups in the early 1940s, identified a two dimensional advantage of focus groups: (a) capturing people’s responses in real space and time in the context of face-to-face interactions and (b)strategically ‘focusing’ interview prompts based on themes generated in these face-to-face interactions (Kamberelis and Dimitriadis, 2005: 899). Focus group helps to create a non-threatening environment for participants (Krueger & Casey, 2000) to deliberate on issues and bring out their perceptions, ideas, opinions and thoughts. From the perceptions and ideas expressed, surveyed questions will be developed (Morgan, 1998), and the “salient dimensions” of labour standards and the changing nature of work will be used as a precursor to further quantitative tests” as in the study of Lunt, (1996: 81).

This study used focus groups and focused on workers in the construction, oil and gas, pharmaceutical and banking sectors. Interviewers were trained on how to translate the questionnaire into Twi. Two researchers interviewed a maximum of ten workers at a time. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for analysis using the open coding and the axial coding in grounded theory to come up with the categories which based the basis of the report.

5.12 Data Analysis Techniques

Data can be analysed quantitatively or qualitatively. Quantitative data analysis has to do with using statistical techniques to describe and analyse variation in quantitative measures. Statistical measure can include distribution using frequencies and graphs, measurement of central tendencies like mean, mode, and median. Quantitative analysis could also focus on causalities and relationships as in the case of regression and Pearson correlation. Alternative approaches to qualitative data analysis includes ethnography (or netnography – when used online), ethnomethodology, qualitative comparative analysis, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, case-oriented understanding and grounded theory.

This study being a mixed study used both forms of data analysis. Quantitative data for this study was coded and assigned SPSS names and entered into Microsoft excel. The data was cleaned to avoid any mistake in data entry affecting the analysis. Data was then exported from excel unto SPSS version 16. Reliabilities for the various variables were checked to know the internal consistencies of the scales used. Based on the type of

variables, objectives and hypothesis set out for the study, hierarchical multiple regressions were carried based on Barron and Kenny's (1986) mediation analysis using the SPSS.

For the qualitative part of the study, the axial coding under grounded theory was used to generate categories of themes on which a report was generated and direct quotations were provided to support reports. Another aspect of the qualitative analysis was the use of documentary analysis in this study. The study analysed the relevant aspects of the 1992 Constitution and the Ghana Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) to identify the major laws that enforced labour standards and how effective they were in addressing issues of labour standards in Ghana.

5.13 Levels of Measures

There are four levels of measurement: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio (Schutt 2009:122). Different levels of measurement require different statistical techniques. The level of measurement is not inherent in the variable itself; rather the researcher chooses the level in the process of operationalising variables. 'Many variables can be measured at different levels, with different procedures' (Schutt, 2009:129).

The nominal level of measurement is variables whose values do not have any mathematical significance or interpretation. These are also called categorical or qualitative variables. In this study, gender, age, marital status, level of education, type of industry, sector, daily hours worked and type of employment contract were measured at this level. The other three levels of measurement are quantitative. The first of the quantitative level of measurement is the ordinary level which assigns number to cases to

specify the order or direction of the case and provides nominal information. For example, once a week, once a month or once a year or low or high of a case or first, second, third or No, Maybe, Yes or levels of agreements. In this study, in the questionnaire used, trade union membership was measured at the nominal level with Yes or No options. The second quantitative measurement is the interval level of measurement. This measurement assigns fixed and equal intervals to an order in a variable, but has no zero point. This is also known as continuous variable. This was also used in the study.

The last one, Ratio, is a measurement of a variable which possesses the qualities of nominal, ordinal and interval scales and in addition has an absolute zero point, that is, a point where none of the measured qualities exists. For example, years of work experience. In social science research, the interval and ratio levels of measurement can be treated as equivalent. Both have numerical values and involve continuous measures (Schutt 2009:127-128).

In summary, this study used nominal levels of measures for the demographic question. For example, marital status was measured and coded as 'single=1', 'married=2', and 'divorced=3'. Gender was dichotomous however, according to Schutt (2009:129), gender is measured at the nominal level 'but when a statistical procedure requires that variables be quantified, a dichotomy can be perfectly acceptable. The ordinal level was used for all other questions on a scale of 1 – 5 where 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. According to Schutt (2009:127), 'there are few true interval-level measures in the social sciences, but many social scientists treat indexes created by combining responses to a series of variables measured at the ordinal level as interval-level measures'. This study created indexes for HPWS, discrimination, employee voice,

flexibility, security, trade union, collective bargaining by transforming variables through summation and averaging of responses for each variable.

5.14 Variables used in this study

This section provides details of the measures used in the study. Most of the variables were adapted while few were created. The various variables are discussed below.

5.14.1 High Performance Work Practices (HPWP)

According to Jensen (2011), HPWP can be measured at two levels, the individual level which measures HPWP perception and at the departmental or organisational level which measures HPWP utilisation. The employee-level measures consisted of fifteen (15) items adopted from Jensen (2011). ‘The scale consisted of (a) 7 HR practice items drawn from Gould-Williams and Davies (2005) and (b) 8 items from Truss (1999), consistent with content reflecting employee skills, motivation, and empowerment’ (Jensen, 2011:1707). Jensen measured his items on a 7 point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) with an $\alpha = 0.81$. This study however measured the items on a 5 point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Managers answered different set of questions on HPWP. Fourteen (14) questions were modified from Beltrán-Martín et al. (2008).

5.14.2 Discrimination

A shorter version of justice questionnaires developed and validated by Rego (2000b) and used by Rego and Pina e Cunha (2010) was adopted. According to Rego et al., (2010), Justice is either measured on a three-factor (distributive, procedural, interactional) or four-factor (the interactional dimension being divided into the interpersonal and informational ones) models. Rego et al (2010) measured justice on a 6 point scale with α

above 0.70 for all the dimensions. In this study, the four factor model was used with a five point likert scale. The justice model was reverse scored to measure discrimination. Employees answered questions on the four-factor model measured on a 5 point scale in this study. Responses were reverse-scored for discrimination. Various authors (Ferris, Spence, Brown and Heller, 2012) have tested discrimination using interpersonal injustice. On the other hand, Foley, Kidder and Powell (2002) used distributive justice as a measure of discrimination. Lind et al., (2000) measured discrimination using distributive and procedural justice. The key factor running through most discrimination literature has been the factor of justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Lind et al., 2000; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Colquitt, 2001). Thus the use of justice in this study to measure discrimination was not new in the field of discrimination.

5.14.3 Flexibility

Measures for flexibility was developed by the researcher based on the four types of flexibilities identified in the literature – functional, internal numerical, external numerical and pay flexibilities. Twelve (12) questions based on the Atkinson's model of flexibility were created and used in the study.

5.14.4 Security

Based on the four types of securities identified in the flexicurity model – job security, income security, work-life balance, employability - eight questions were developed to measure security. Some of the questions included 'I worry about the security of my job', 'I possess the skills that will make me employable for the rest of my life'.

5.14.5 Trade Union

To measure trade union, three (3) questions were included for perceived union support from Shore et al (1994) and one question was included from De Witte (2008) to measure intention to resign from trade union. According to De Witte (2008), this particular question was enough to measure intention to resign from the trade union. Other dimensions included in the trade union questionnaire were ‘recognition of unions’ at the workplace and ‘union membership’, which were developed by the researcher from the literature review in chapter two.

5.14.6 Collective Bargaining

Voice was used to measure collective bargaining. Six (6) collective voice questions were developed by the researcher through modification of Van Dyne and LePine’s (1998) questionnaire on Self-Voice Measures. Six (6) other measures were developed from literature and included in the study to cover other dimensions of voice.

5.14.7 Organisational Productivity

Fourteen (14) items were developed from literature to measure organisational productivity. The fourteen items had an alpha of 0.845. Since it is an organisational level measure, managers were asked to answer these questions. This was pre-tested in a student’s thesis with a hundred and forty (140) rural bank employees and the reported α was 0.73 on the fourteen items (Quansah, 2013, unpublished). The fourteen questions were based on Kreitner and Kinicki’s (2004) model and covered ‘goal accomplishment, internal processes, resources acquisition and strategic constituencies’ satisfaction.

5.15 Pre – Testing / Piloting of questionnaire

HPWS and organisational productivity questionnaires were piloted in a student's thesis with a sample of one hundred and forty rural bank employees. The Cronbach Alpha reported for all cases was higher with the minimum being 508 for job security questions in the HPWS. Ambiguities in the questions were identified and re-structured and some questions were dropped to increase reliability.

5.16 Unit of Analysis

Data was collected at two levels: the individual and the organisational. The unit of analysis was however at the organisational level. The individual responses were aggregated to the organisational level for analysis purposes. Empirical support needed to justify aggregation of the data that was achieved through the use of Intra class correlation coefficients (ICC) and the calculation of r_{wg} index and the $AD_{M(J)}$ indexes. All the indexes supported the aggregation. Detail results are presented in chapter seven.

5.17 Reliability of the Measures

Joppe (2000) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable.

5.17.1 Internal Reliability

Internal reliability provides an estimate of the consistency of the responses toward the items or a subset of the items on the measure. A high internal consistency suggests a high degree of interrelatedness among the responses to items (Chen & Krauss, 2004). Miles and Huberman (1994) believe that the display of illustrations and diagrams in the data

analysis phase to assist explanation building ensures internal validity. This study maximised internal validity through the use of cross-sectoral analysis of organisations in Ghana. Internal validity was further enhanced through the use of diagrams in the form of pie charts, line charts, bar charts and other graphical representations in the description of the data in chapter six.

Using the SPSS, the cronbach alpha for all the variables were analysed. The results for the measures are shown in the table 5:0:5 below:

Table 5:0:5Reliability for measures used

Variables	Cronbach Alpha
HPWS (employees)	.834
HPWS (managers)	.925
Discrimination	.884
Collective Voice	.904
Flexibility	.670
Security	.525
Trade union	.902
Organisational Productivity	.845

Source: Researchers own construct

5.18 Validity of the Measures

Validity is the ‘degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Validity can also be thought of as utility. In other words, validity is the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflect true differences among those being

measured' (Kothari, 2004:73). Data in this research was collected using multiple-sources.

5.18.1 Measurement Validity

Measurement validity refers to the extent to which measures indicate what they are intended to measure (Schutt, 2009:130). A measure that is not valid means there is a measurement error. These errors occur when respondents do not understand a question either through attaching a particular / unique meanings / feelings to some words in a question. This was avoided through self-administration in using the local language.

5.18.2 Internal Validity

Internal validity looks at the extent to which people will be confident in a study. To increase the internal validity of this study, extraneous variables known to influence the dependent variable were included like size and type of organisation as measures (Beltrán-Martín et al., 2008). One important characteristic of a good research design is to minimise the influence or effect of extraneous variable(s). The technical term 'control' is used when we design the study minimising the effects of extraneous independent variables. This helped to improve the statistical power and conserve the grace of freedom.

5.18.3 External Validity

External validity has to do with the generalisability of findings. Generalisability was enhanced in the study through the large sample of quantitative data used. Multiple samples and a combination of methods were used in this multi-sourced, multi-level, cross-sectional study.

5.18.4 Content Validity

Content validity measures the knowledge of the content domain which was intended to be measured. All the demographic questions were single item measured with face value. All other variables used had multiple items, that is, several items to measure the characteristics of the variable. This ensured face and content validity. Content validity was further improved through piloting of the questions to test the understanding. The questionnaire used was translated into the local language (Twi) and translated back into English to assess whether the meanings differed. The questions were modified until the meaning remained the same across the Twi and English languages.

5.18.5 Construct Validity

Construct validity is the use of multiple sources of evidence in the data collection phase, such as the triangulation of interview tapes, documents, artefacts, and others, for protection against researcher bias (Flick 1992; Perakyla, 1997). This research used three sources of evidence – questionnaire, interview and document analysis.

To establish construct validity of the questionnaire used, the questions were subjected to an exploratory factor analysis using the SPSS. Factor analysis is a general term that includes a variety of techniques including principal component analysis (PCA) and ‘factor analysis’ but authors like Stevens (1996:362-3) admit a preference for (PCA). The PCA was thus used for all the variables in the study. Pallant (2007) suggests three assumptions before factor analysis. The first is that the data should be large enough. This is supported by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) who suggest at least 300 cases. In this study, the cases were 2046, which is over the recommended cases. The second condition is to assess the strength of the correlation among the items. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) again make a recommendation of correlation coefficient greater than .3 ($r > .3$). The results

for this study showed that all of the correlations coefficients were greater than .3. This is presented in details in chapter seven.

Using the SPSS, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's were used to test the factorability of the correlation matrix. The Bartlett test of sphericity should be statistically significant at $p < .05$ and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value should be .6 or above (Pallant, 2007:185). A third assumption is linearity between variables. Linearity looks at the amount of change between two variables as constant for the entire range of scores for the variables. All three conditions were tested using SPSS before conducting PCA on all variables in the study. Detailed results are presented in chapter seven. Thus all the variables had construct validity

5.19 Research Ethics

One of the basic tenets of research ethics in management is 'informed consent' –the researcher should provide participants with enough information about the study so that participants can make an informed choice about whether to participate or not (Kulik, 2011). Organisations and Industries were briefed through face to face interaction and questions were answered where necessary. Consent was sought from organisations for voluntary participation of employees. Employees had a face to face briefing of the study and also information was provided on the first page of the questionnaire to provide further basic information about the research. Confidentiality was ensured through minimising the handling of data to just the administrator of the questionnaire and also through one on one interaction in private areas.

Demographic data were collected from participants using closed ended or forced-choice questions for two reasons. Firstly this was to ensure anonymity and secondly to get a

high rate of response as people are not willing to tell their actual ages and incomes. The research design and the analysis of this study is complex involving hierarchical linear modelling and thus will be less appealing to non-academics. This has been an on-going academic concern and creates a gap between research findings and management practice (Rynes, Bartunek, & Daft, 2001; Rynes, Colbert, & Brown, 2002) even though research seeks to address research questions that are of relevance to non-academics as well. To help bridge this gap in the study, a chapter was dedicated to summarising the findings in a way that will appeal to non-academics.

5.20 Summary of Methodology:

The methodology for this study was based on a mixed method approach using quantitative and qualitative research paradigms concurrently. The quantitative research used questionnaires in a survey to generate large quantitative data while the qualitative research used one interview and a number of focus group interviews as methods for generating qualitative data. The SPSS was used to test the various hypotheses as well as provide the descriptive from the quantitative data. The qualitative data was analysed based on the grounded theory. In addition, the study used document analysis to analyse portions of the relevant laws in Ghana concerning the labour standards. The figure below summaries the research methodology used for the entire study.

Quantitative Methodology

Qualitative Methodology

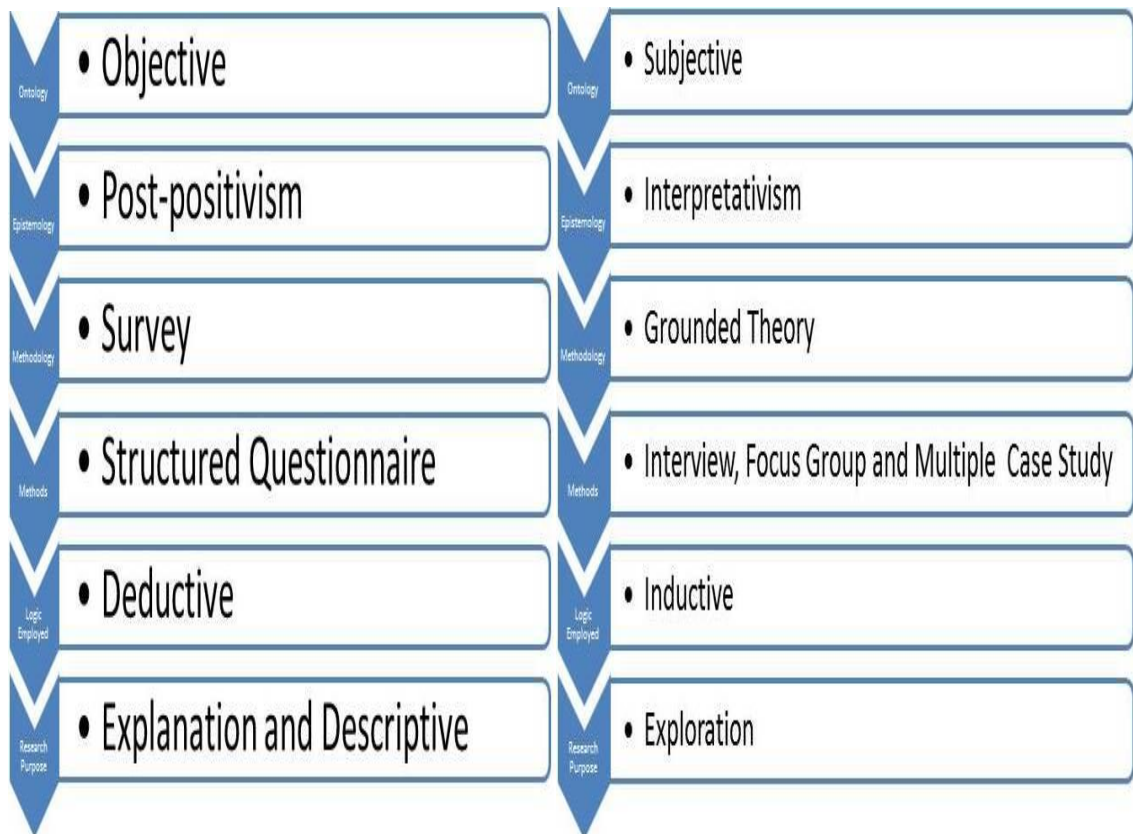


Figure 6: Summary of methodology

Source: Researchers own construct, (2014)

CHAPTER SIX

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF DATA

6.1 Introduction

This chapter entails the descriptive analysis of primary data generated from questionnaires administered to workers and managers to investigate the set research objectives of the study. The workers questionnaire consisted of seven sections: Demographics, HPWS, Discrimination, Flexibility, Security, Union, and Collective Bargaining. The managers' questionnaire consisted of five sections: Demographics, HPWS, Pay, HRM policies and Organisational Productivity. All questions in the workers and managers questionnaire were measured on a 5 point likert scale except Pay and HRM policies in the manager's workers which were measured on a 4 point and 3 point likert scales respectively. This chapter proceeds with description of the data using descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies, pie charts, mean, and standard deviations. The descriptives on the demographic are at the individual level while the descriptives for the main variables used are aggregated data at the organisational level. The data was aggregated to the organisational level because the theoretical and conceptual model was hypothesised at the organisational level. How the data was aggregated is presented in chapter seven.

6.2 Demography of Respondents

The first section of each questionnaire (workers and managers) focused on generating demographic data. The demographic data of the study included gender, age, educational level, marital status, type of organisation/ industry of respondents, type of employment contract of respondents and lastly whether respondents are members of any trade union

in the organisation. These demographics are discussed in details below. Out of the 1890 respondents for workers, 23 respondents representing 1% did not provide details on demographics.

6.2.1 Gender of Respondent

Questionnaires were administered on two groups - managers and employees. In all a total of two thousand and thirty four (2034) questionnaires were administered on both groups. Out of this total, 77% (1566 respondents) were males and 23% (468 respondents) were females. Table 6:0:1 shows gender distribution with respect to the two groups (managers and employees).

Table 6:0:1Managers and Employees Gender Distribution

	MANAGERS		EMPLOYEES	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Male	139	83	1326	71
Females	28	17	541	29
Total	167	100	1867	100

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

From Table 6:0:1, 83% and 17% of the respondents were males and females respectively for the managers and 71% and 29% male and females respectively for employees. However, in general the males and females constituted 77% and 23% respectively as shown in figure6.1.

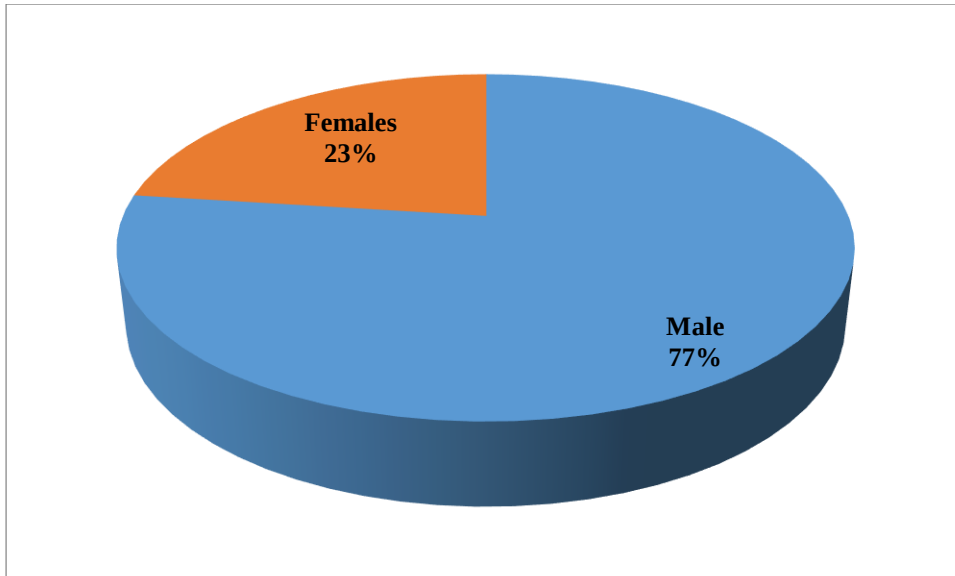


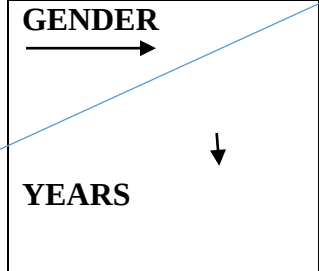
Figure 3: Gender Distributions of Respondents

Source: Field Survey, (2014).

6.2.2 Age of Respondents

Five age ranges were used for this study for easy understanding of behavioural pattern of human within a particular age range. The age ranges were from 20-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and 61 and above years. From the field data collected, more than half of the respondents were found to be within 20-30 years (51.5%) with 60 years and above recording the lowest respondents (1.3%). Table 6:0:2 shows the age distribution of respondents for workers and managers.

Table 6:0:2 Cross Tabulation of Managers and Employees' Age and Gender Distribution

GENDER 	MANAGERS		EMPLOYEES	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
YEARS				
20 – 30	14 (58%)	10 (42%)	607(63%)	353 (37%)
31 – 40	69 (81%)	16 (19%)	419(75%)	141 (25%)
41 – 50	24 (92%)	2 (8%)	205(85%)	35 (15%)
51 – 60	26 (96%)	1(4%)	77(86%)	12 (14%)
61 and above	5 (100%)	0 (0%)	16 (88%)	2 (12%)
Total(Respondents)	138	29	1324	543

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

From table 6:0:2, within all the age ranges for workers and managers, males recorded higher percentage to the females. In figure 7 the age distribution of respondents in the two groups (managers and workers) are shown without their gender. Managers recorded the highest age group for 31-40 years (51%), which was not the case of employees (20-30 years, 52%). The age range 31-40 years took the second position for employees (30%).

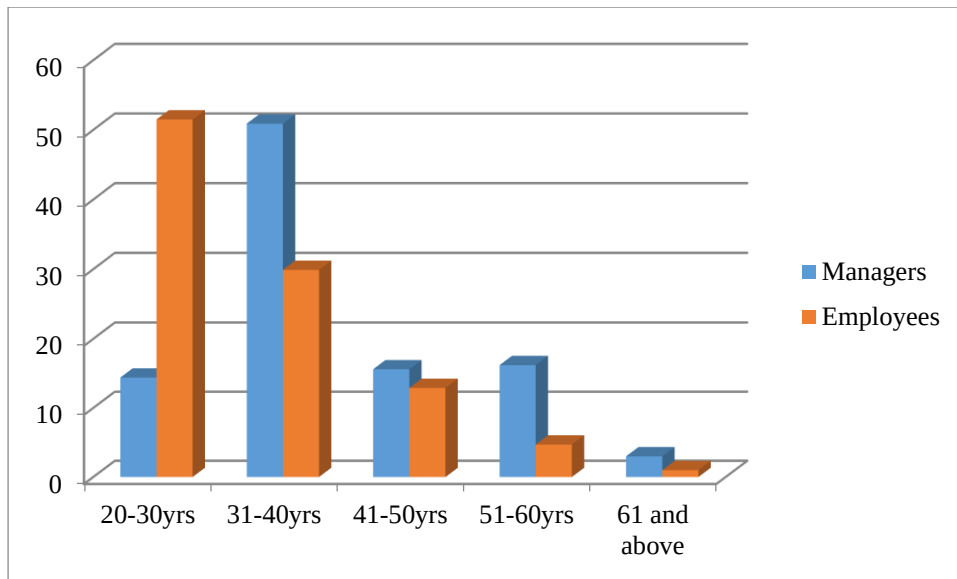


Figure 4: Age Distribution of Respondents
Source: Field Survey, (2014).

6.2.3 Marital Status

Respondents' marital status was measured on four parameters; single, married, widowed and divorced. This was necessary to know the correlation between marital status and the other variables in the study like flexibility, discrimination and unionization. In all, 37% of the total respondents were single while 60% were married and 2% and 1% were divorced and widowed respectively as shown in figure 6:0:3.

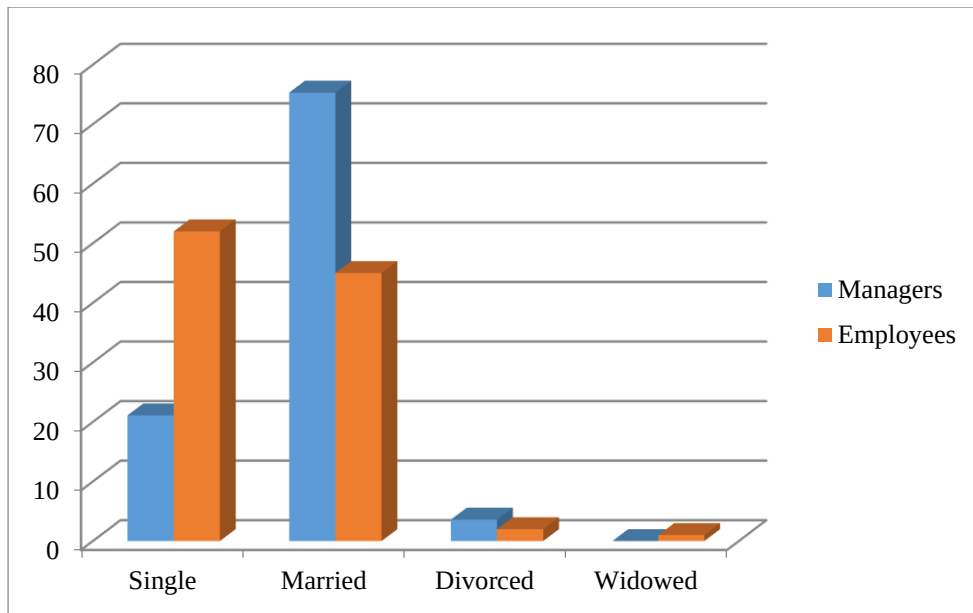


Figure 5: Marital Status of Respondents for Managers and Employees
Source: Field Survey, (2014).

From figure 6:0:33, the married managers recorded the highest percentage of 75% while that of employees was 45% as the highest married respondents. The lowest percentage was recorded for divorcee managers at 4%. Employees' marital status recorded the lowest percentage at 1% for widowed.

6.2.4 Educational Level of Respondents

Education plays major role in organisation, there was therefore the need to look at the educational level of respondents for the study. Five main identifiable educational levels were used and among them included: PhD holders, masters' degree holders, first degree holders, Higher National Diploma (HND) holders, SSCE/WASSCE holders and others representing those without education or possessing other professional courses certificates not captured. Table 6:0:3 shows the educational level of respondents in the various groups from whom data was collected.

Table 6:0:3 Educational Levels of Respondents

Educational Level	CATEGORY				MERGED
	Managers		Employees		
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage
PhD Holders	1	0.6%	14	0.07%	1.5
Master’s Degree	40	24.1%	119	3.4%	15.3
First Degree	75	45.2%	556	29.8%	37.9
HND Holders	29	17.5%	315	16.9%	17.4
SSCE/WASSCE	13	7.8%	476	25.4%	17.0
Others	8	4.8%	387	20.7%	10.9
Total	167	100	1867	100	100

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

Table 6.3 shows majority of the respondents were with first degree holders (45% Managers and approximately 30% Employees). The highest level of education for employee respondents were followed by holders of Secondary education certificate (25%) and those with Higher National Diplomas (HND) at 17%. The second highest level of education for managers was masters' degree (24%) followed by HND holders (18%). The percentage of respondents with first degree affirms the idea of first degree as the current requirement for employment in organisations in the country. However, there were an insignificant number of people with PhD in organisations (approximately 2% for managers and employees together).

6.2.5 Type of Sectors

Type of sector in this study examined the sector in which respondents worked. The economy was divided into four main sectors in this study: primary sector, secondary sector, tertiary sector and quaternary sectors. The primary sector extracts or harvest products from the earth and constitutes mining, farming, forestry, quarrying, and activities associated with the primary sector like packaging of raw materials. The secondary sector deals with the manufacture of finished products. In this study, this sector comprised of manufacturing, food processing companies, construction, energy utilities and engineering. Tertiary on the other hand is about industries that provide services to the general public and businesses. This sector includes banking and insurance, hotels and restaurants, hospitals and pharmacy, law, media and entertainments and the Quaternary sector consists of intellectual activities and comprise of government institutions, culture, Information Communication Technology, Education and scientific research. The study had 25% of respondents from the primary sector, 21% from the secondary sector, 30% from the tertiary sector and 24% from the quaternary sector. Figure 6.4 shows the sector category of respondents from the field data collected.

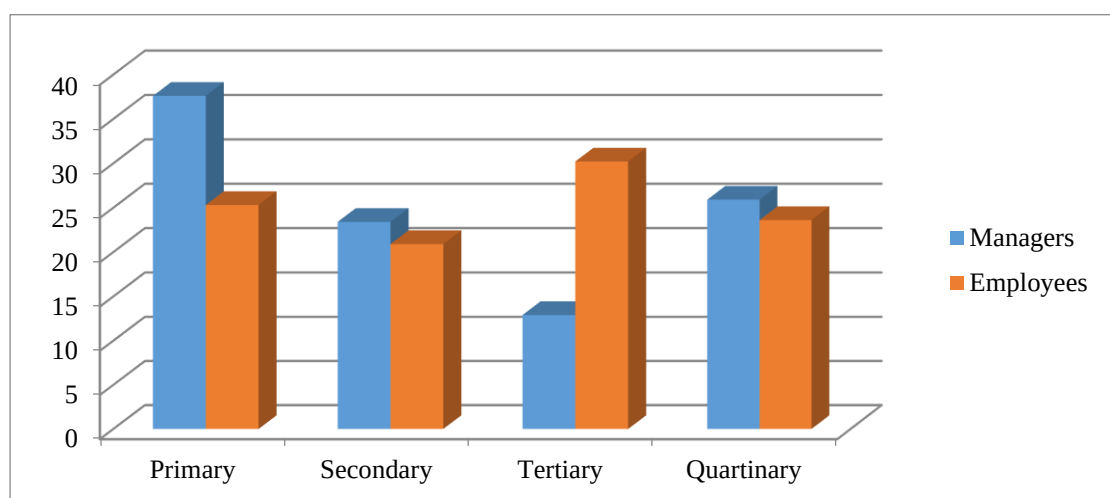


Figure 6: Sectors of Respondents
Source: Field Survey, (2014).

From figure 6:0:4, the primary sector recorded the highest in managers (37.6%, 64 respondents) while the tertiary sector recorded the highest in employees (30.2%, 62 respondents). However, a lot of respondents (639 of the total respondents) were obtained from the primary sector recording 31.4 percent followed by the quaternary sector (24.8%, 50 of the total respondents) with the tertiary sector recording the lowest for the merged categories (21.6%), (439 of the total respondents). This shows that questionnaires were fairly distributed among the sectors as there was not a highly significant difference among the sectors.

A further investigation into a cross tabulation between age and sector reveals a total of 994 employees were between the ages of 20 – 30 years. Out of this number, 346 respondents were from the tertiary sector with a minority of 177 from the quaternary sector. Employees aged above 61 years formed the minority across all sectors. The total employee respondents aged 61 years and above across all sectors were 13%.

A cross tabulation of gender and sector for employees, as shown in table 6.4 below, revealed a majority of 42% of the female respondents were from the tertiary sector (228), with the minority of 17% (91) from the primary sector. The male respondents had the majority from the primary sector forming 29% and this was closely followed by the tertiary sector (25%). All together, the majority of respondents regardless of gender were from the tertiary sector forming 30% with the least from the secondary sector forming 20%.

Table 6:0:4 Cross Tabulation of Sector and Gender

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Sector	Primary	382	91	473
	Secondary	327	60	387
	Tertiary	337	228	565
	Quaternary	277	165	442
Total		1323	544	1867

Source: researcher's field work, (2014)

6.2.6 Type of Employment Status

Respondents were asked to provide their employment status with their various organisations. The emphasis was on whether the respondent was permanently employed full time, part time worker, contract worker and temporal worker. Only employees were asked this question. Figure 6.5 shows the type of employment engaged in by employee as defined above.

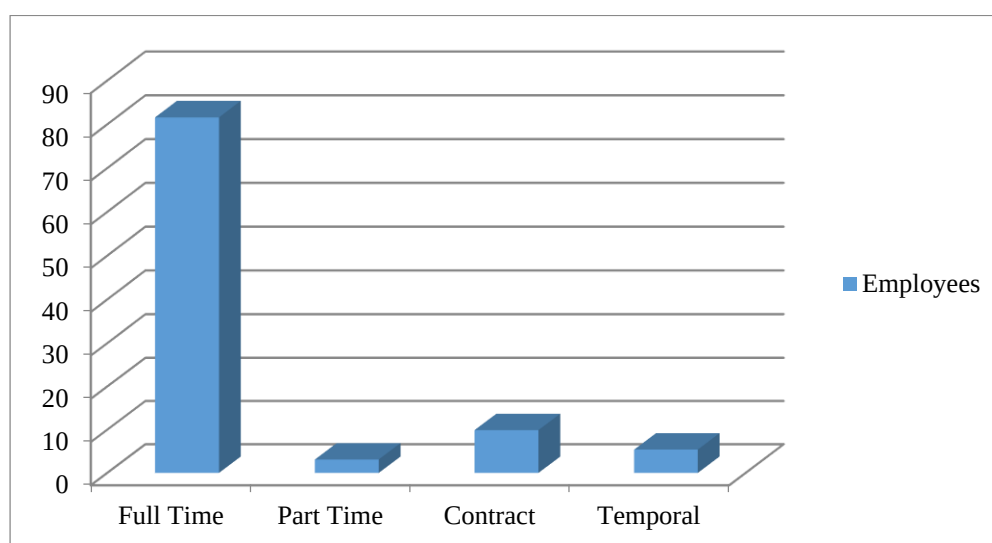


Figure 7: Employment Status of Employee

Source: Field Survey, (2014).

From the figure above, full time workers recorded the highest figure (81.6%, 1524 employees) for the type of employment status of respondents while 3.1% (58 employees), 9.9% (185 employees), 5.4% (100 employees) were employed on part time, contract and temporal basis respectively.

In a cross tabulation between education and employment status, it was revealed that majority of the first degree holders were employed full time (453) however, comparatively, across all sectors, first degree holders on contract formed the majority (55). This was followed by holders of SSCE (38) as shown in table 6.3. The range of tenure of employee respondents was between 1 year and 38 years.

6.2.7 Trade Union Membership

As acknowledge by the ILO, in ensuring that the basic human rights are protected, association in organisation is a requirement in upholding labour standards. There was therefore the need to know how many of the respondents were part of the union. This was a dichotomous question requiring a yes or no answer. Employees were therefore asked if they were members of any trade union. To this 43%of employees responded 'yes' to belonging to a trade union and 57 % responded 'no' meaning they did not belong to any trade union. Figure 6.6 shows employees who responded 'yes' and 'no 'to the question of trade union membership.

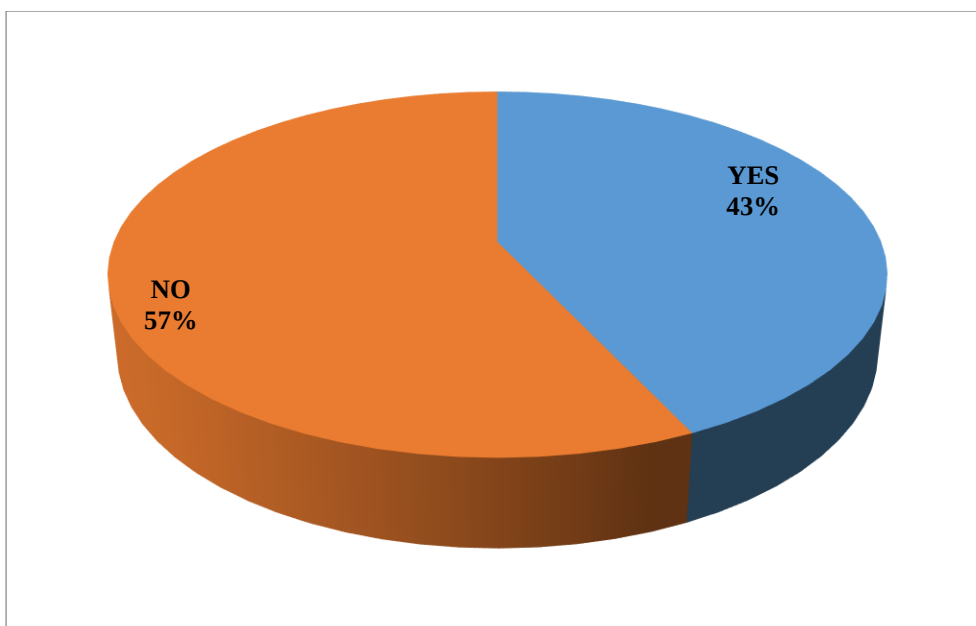


Figure 8: Trade Union Memberships
Source: Field Survey, (2014).

A cross tabulation between trade union membership and sector, shown in table 6:0:5, revealed that majority of employees who belong to a trade union (285) were from the quaternary sector while majority (339) of non-union respondents was from the tertiary sector. Comparatively, the secondary sector had the largest number of respondents as non-union members (290) as against union members in the same sector (97).

Table 6:0:5: Cross Tabulation of Sector and Trade Union Membership

		Trade Union Membership		Total
		No	Yes	
Sector	Primary	269	202	471
	Secondary	290	97	387
	Tertiary	339	215	554
	Quaternary	153	285	438
Total		1051	799	1850

Source: researcher's field work, (2014)

6.3 Managers High Performance Work System (HPWS)

This part of the questionnaire sought the views of managers on the utilisation of HR practices that make up the HPWS. In all ten HR practices were used: staffing, comprehensive training, performance appraisal, employee involvement and participation, team work, job security, information sharing and communication, employee relations, promotions and career management. These were modified from Beltrán-Martín et al. (2008) focusing on the major areas of HPWS that are used in empirical research in this field.

6.3.1 Staffing

Staffing is essential in ensuring high productivity in organisations, thus ensuring efficient and effective positioning of people in organisational positions. Three questions were asked to solicit responses on staffing in organisations: My organisation uses extensive employee selection process for a job (Q1), most managers are involved in the selection decision (Q2), few applicants are screened for each available job position (Q3). Item three (Q3) was reverse coded to read many applicants are screened for each available job position. Less than 4% of the total organisations responded that they strongly disagreed that their organisations used extensive selection process for job whereas almost 55% responded that they agree and strongly agree that their organisations used extensive employee selection process for job positions (Q1). Regarding managers involvement in selection decision (Q2), 55% of organisations agreed and strongly agreed to this statement. The last item concerned screening few applicants for each available job

position (Q3) and the descriptive showed that approximately 39% of organisations agreed to this parameter.

Table 6:0:6 shows the percentage distribution for the items using the scale of one to five (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree and 5=strongly agree). From the table, the three parameters used for staffing recorded 0.84, 0.92 and 0.95 standard deviation (SD) respectively. For all three items an above mean (M) was reported with the lowest being 3.28 for Q3.

Table 6:0:6Staffing

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	3.8	7.6	34.2	46.8	7.6	3.60	0.84
Q2	6.3	8.9	30.4	49.3	5.1	3.52	0.92
Q3	1.3	29.5	30.7	32.1	6.4	3.28	0.95

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.2 Comprehensive Training

Comprehensive training in this study refers to ensuring that required training covering a large scope of areas and workers are delivered regularly in the organisation. In measuring the comprehensive training different criteria were used: employees receiving intensive training in organisational specific skills (Q1), training on generic skills (Q2), training incorporating the interests of the organisation as well as the individual (Q3), realistic training needs identified based on the organisational strategy (Q4), every employees going through various training programmes every year (Q5) and managers

feeling training is a cost rather than an investment (Q6). The descriptives are presented in table 6:0:7 below.

From the data collected from managers, as shown in table 6:0:7, over 50% of the managers agreed and strongly agreed to Q1, Q3 and Q4. The highest agreed and strongly agreed response was from 65% of managers on Q4. Manager converged on their agreement realistic training needs are identified in their organisations which are based on the organisational strategy. Thus managers generally agreed that training needs were identified based on organisational strategy. This was followed by 61% managers who agreed and strongly agreed that training incorporates the interest of organisations as well as individual workers (Q3). Thus majority of the managers agreed that training in their organisations incorporated both organisational and individual interests and was based on the organizational strategy.

The highest mean respondents was on Q4 at 3.80 and the lowest was 2.37 (Q6). The other two parameters (Q5 and Q6) recorded approximately 42% and 24% for agree and strongly agree respectively. Q6 had the highest responses from disagree and strongly disagree, reporting a 61% response rates. The highest response rate for neutral (neither agree nor disagree) rated as 3 on the 5 point scale, was recorded for Q2 at 28% with the lowest record for Q6 at approximately 15%.

Across the various organisations 66% of managers generally disagreed and strongly disagreed that training is seen as cost (Q6). The second highest disagree and strongly disagree was reported by 33% of managers on every worker goes through various training every year (Q5). The highest response rate for neutral (neither agree nor

disagree) rated as 3 on the 5 point scale, was recorded for Q2 at 42% with the lowest record for Q6 at approximately 14%.

The standard deviations for Q5 and Q6 were above 1.0 while that of Q1, Q2, Q3 and Q4 ranged between 0.79 and 0.93 indicating that the responses were not polarized from the mean. The scatter of the response was close to the mean meaning that the individual responses were not far apart from each other.

Table 6:0:7 Comprehensive Training

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	3.8	15.3	29.2	44.3	7.6	3.51	0.93
Q2	5.1	12.7	41.9	36.8	3.8	3.41	0.86
Q3	2.3	9.0	27.9	56.9	3.8	3.70	0.80
Q4	2.6	6.4	25.4	54.4	10.1	3.80	0.79
Q5	16.6	16.6	36.7	25.4	2.5	3.00	1.06
Q6	31.8	34.2	14.0	14.0	2.5	2.37	1.11

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.3 Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is also an essential component of HPWS as it seeks to appraise employees regarding work. There were items used in gathering information about how managers viewed the examination and evaluation of employees' performance of assigned duties and responsibilities. The items to measure this variable were: Many people

provide input to the performance evaluation of each employee in the organisation (Q1), all employees in the organisation are covered by performance appraisal system (Q2), the performance standards are the same across the organisation (Q3), employees are involved in goal setting and appraisal (Q4), employees receive formal appraisal/evaluation on routine basis (Q5) and after performance appraisal satisfactory and unsatisfactory performance is conveyed to employees (Q6).

From table 6:0:8, the majority of responses for all the six item questions were rated as agree or strongly agree. A mean of 3.75, 3.61, 3.42, 3.18, 3.17 and 3.18 were reported for Q2, Q6, Q5, Q3, Q4 and Q1 respectively. Performance appraisals, from the descriptive, are used in organisations but most importantly, all employees are covered by the appraisal system. The standard deviation was approximately 1 for all items.

Table 6:0:8 Performance Appraisal

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	5.2	24.7	36.4	32.5	1.3	3.18	0.87
Q2	5.1	8.9	21.5	51.9	12.7	3.75	0.96
Q3	8.9	24.1	31.6	29.1	6.3	3.18	1.07
Q4	7.6	24.1	30.4	32.9	5.1	3.17	1.00
Q5	5.1	21.5	25.3	39.2	8.9	3.42	0.97
Q6	5.1	14.1	21.8	44.9	14.1	3.61	1.03

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.4 Employee Involvement and Participation

Employee Involvement and Practices (EIP) serve as a measuring instrument in assessing direct voice for employees. Employee involvement entails employer-initiated increase in employee engagement in work process while employee participation aims to enhance collective employee input through employee representation (Hyman and Mason, 1995). In this study, employee involvement and participation covered: encouragement of employee participation on wide range of issues (Q1), employees ability to exercise independent thought and action in executing their jobs (Q2), employees following strict job instructions (Q3), employees being allowed to take decisions through problem solving teams (Q4), employees encouraged to suggest improvements how tasks and job are done (Q5), supervisors constant communication with employees in the organisation(Q6) and if employees' suggestion schemes are used in the organisation (Q7)were the main items used in assessing managers involvement of employees.

As shown in table 6:0:9, each of the seven items had a high mean score above 3. Supervisors keep open communication with employees in the organisation recorded the highest mean of 3.93 (Q6). This item (Q6) recorded the highest response of approximately 80% for agree and strongly agree followed by employees are encourages to make suggestions (Q5) which recorded 65% for agree and strongly agree. The minimum item response score for agree and strongly agree was 32% for Q2 (employees can exercise independent thought and action in executing their jobs. The variability of the internal data (SD) was between 0.67 and 0.95 for all items.

Table 6:0:9 Employee Involvement and Participation

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	3.8	10.1	35.4	49.4	1.3	3.47	0.76

Q2	3.8	20.3	44.3	26.6	5.1	3.25	0.87
Q3	0	12.7	37.9	41.8	7.6	3.63	0.76
Q4	5.1	7.6	45.6	39.2	2.5	3.42	0.80
Q5	1.3	3.8	30.4	55.7	8.9	3.89	0.67
Q6	2.5	3.8	18.9	65.8	13.5	3.93	0.72
Q7	10.1	17.7	41.8	27.8	2.5	3.13	0.95

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.5 Team Work

The fifth variable used as part of the HPWS was team work. This variable looked at how organisations encourage team work at the work place. In assessing this variable three items were used. These were: team members are selected based on skills and knowledge of employees (1), the organisation supports team working, team members are allowed to try new ideas and methods (2) and team members aspiring to achieve greater performance (3).

From table 6:0:10, the items recorded a minimum of 50% for 'team members are allowed to try new ideas and methods (Q3). A maximum of 79% (agreed and strongly agreed) was recorded for 'the organisation supports team working' (Q2). This was closely followed by Q4 (team members aspiring to achieve greater performance) with 71%, and Q 1 (team members are selected based on skills) with 63% of organisations agreeing and strongly agreeing. These are shown in table 6.10 below.

The mean for all items were high ranging between 3.60 and 4.14. Organisations were consistent with responses to Q2, Q3 and Q4, revealing a standard deviation of less than 1 for each of the items. Q1 however, had a high variation of 4.14 in the responses from managers. This means that organisations were different when it came to selecting team members based on skills and knowledge.

Table 6:0:10 Team Work

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	3.8	8.9	24.4	57.7	5.1	4.14	3.23
Q2	0	6.4	19.2	60.3	17.9	4.07	0.62
Q3	2.6	8.9	38.5	42.3	7.7	3.60	0.77
Q4	1.3	2.6	25.6	56.4	14.1	3.95	0.70

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.6 Job Security

Job security as an HPWS variable was measured with three items. The three items were: difficulty in dismissing an employee in the organisation (1), if the organisation were facing financial problems, employees would be the last to get downsized (2) and if employees are assured of long term employment with this organisation (3).

Despite current research positing that organisations are no longer able to provide lifelong jobs, 65% of the surveyed organisations responded that their employees were assured of long term employment with the organisation (Q3). From table 6:0:11, the responses between strongly disagree and disagree on one hand and agree and strongly agree on the other hand for how difficult it was to dismiss employees (Q1), recorded 17%% and 22% respectively. Standard deviations were approximate 1 for all items.

Table 6:0:11Job Security

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	16.5	21.5	36.7	20.3	5.1	2.93	1.08
Q2	7.7	25.6	37.2	19.2	10.3	3.14	1.06
Q3	3.8	10.1	21.5	50.6	13.9	3.75	0.91

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.7 Information Sharing and Communication

Another aspect of HPWS measured in this study was Information sharing. Communication is essential for the success of employees and the organisation. It is considered as the lifeblood of every organisation, because the presence of communication gap distorts employees and managers interaction which has significant effect on productivity.

Eight items were used to measure this variable: organisation regularly informing employees about important changes (1), organisation regularly informing employees about overall policies and goals (2), regularly informing employees about organisational performance (3), regularly informing employees about their departments' plans (4), regularly informing employees about requirements of their jobs (5), employees feeling free to approach their supervisors when they have a problem (6), regular staff meeting to encourage communication in the organization (7) and employees and department exchange information regularly concerning work (8). From table 6:0:12, all the items of this variable recorded a good level of agreement of not less than 59% for strongly agree and agree with standard deviations ranging from 0.69 to 0.88.

Table 6:0:12 Information sharing and Productivity

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	2.5	6.3	18.9	59.5	12.7	3.86	0.80
Q2	2.5	7.6	25.3	50.6	13.9	3.83	0.81
Q3	1.3	8.9	30.4	48.1	11.4	3.77	0.80
Q4	5.1	11.5	25.6	55.1	2.6	3.58	0.84
Q5	1.3	5.1	22.8	63.3	7.6	3.83	0.69
Q6	1.3	3.8	16.5	54.4	24.1	4.11	0.78
Q7	1.3	11.5	28.2	41.0	17.9	3.78	0.88
Q8	2.5	8.9	29.1	51.9	7.6	3.69	0.80

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.8 Employee Relations

Six items were assessed in order to investigate into employee relations at the various workplaces. This was also examined with the 5 point likert scale as used for all the other variables of HPWS. Items used in assessing this variable on HPWS included; coordination and control are based more on shared goals, values and traditions than monitoring and sanctions (1), supervisors facilitate rather than direct the work force through their interpersonal and conceptual ability (2), workplace uses amicable planning and problem solving rather than adversarial employee relations (3), overall workplace relationship between managers and employees is excellent (4), management does not treat employees as an expense of doing business (5) and all employees in this workplace are managed in the same way (6).

Between 40 – 72% of the sampled organisations agreed and strongly agreed to all the six items used in this variable as shown in table 6:0:13. This implies that managers see their employee relations as cordial and harmonious. However, a minority of 27% believe that employees are not managed in the same way (Q6). 32% of the respondent organisations took the neutral stand on coordination and control being based on shared goals rather than monitoring and sanctions (Q1).

Table 6:0:13 Employee Relations

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	6.3	13.9	31.7	44.3	3.8	3.38	0.94
Q2	1.3	13.9	30.4	50.6	3.8	3.54	0.79
Q3	2.6	3.8	35.9	50.0	7.7	3.72	0.77
Q4	2.6	5.2	24.7	53.3	14.3	3.91	0.84
Q5	5.7	8.9	13.4	54.8	17.2	3.69	1.04
Q6	5.0	22.0	17.6	40.9	14.5	3.38	1.13

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.9 Promotions

Promotional avenues for employees were assessed as part of HPWS. This variable had five items including promotion being open to all workers irrespective of gender or employment type (1), vacancies primarily advertised internally (2), promotion procedures made known to all workers (3), workers promoted from within to occupy higher positions (4) and promotions based on long service rather than on job performance (5).

The data in table 6:0:14 revealed that promotion is made available to employees irrespective of the employment type and gender of employee (46% agreed, 17% strongly

agreed). Organisations reported that promotion to occupy higher positions are first made available to workers (34% agree, 14% strongly agreed). Moreover, item 3 (promotion procedures are made known to all workers) recorded a standard deviation of 3.48 signalling massive deviation from the mean. This shows that while some organisations may make known the promotion procedures to their workers, other organisations may not, thus workers in such organisations may not be aware of the procedures involved in promotion.

Table 6:0:14 Promotions

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	3.8	8.9	25.3	45.6	16.5	3.79	0.93
Q2	8.9	11.4	31.6	34.2	13.9	3.49	1.09
Q3	6.4	16.7	23.1	39.7	14.1	3.94	3.48
Q4	5.1	7.7	32.1	44.9	10.3	3.63	0.96
Q5	19.2	37.2	25.6	16.7	1.3	2.63	1.03

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.3.10 Career Management

Table 6.15 presents descriptives on measures of career management in organisations. Respondents answered two item questions on this variable by choosing the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statement. The two items used for this variable were: my organisation has processes and programmes in place that assist individuals in their career development (1) and my organisation consider and plans the career paths of all employees (2).

From table 6:0:15, it appears that 37% of the sampled organisations neither agreed nor disagreed to Q2 though 36% disagreed and strongly disagreed to the statement organisations plan for the career path of all employees. However, 39% agreed and strongly agreed that programmes and processes were in place to assist career development. Also, from the standard deviation, both items had approximate values of 1.

Table 6:0:15 Career Management

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	8.9	17.9	34.6	32.1	6.4	3.24	1.01
Q2	12.7	22.8	36.7	24.1	3.8	2.98	1.01

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.4 Organisational Productivity

Respondents were asked their level of agreement or disagreement with regards to the scale of one to five on organisational productivity. The scale had 1- strongly disagree, 2- disagree, 3- neutral, 4- agree and 5-strongly agree. Four main areas proposed by Kreitner and Kinicki (2004:646) were used for assessing of productivity in the organisations. These were goal accomplishment, internal processes, resources acquisition and strategic constituencies' satisfaction.

Goal accomplishment is where key the organisation achieves its stated goals and results/outputs are compared with previously stated goals or objectives. Internal processes consider how smoothly the organisation is able to function with less internal strain. The third aspect is resource acquisition. This has to do with the ability of the organisation to acquire its resources needed for production. The last aspect considered

the organisation's ability to meet its strategic constituencies' expectation, at least minimally.

From the pie chart below (figure 6.7), 36 % of organisations agreed that they were able to meet their strategic constituencies' satisfaction, 28% believed they are able to achieve organisational goals, 7% perceived the internal processes within the organisation as smooth and 29% believed that their organisations were able to acquire the need resources for productions.

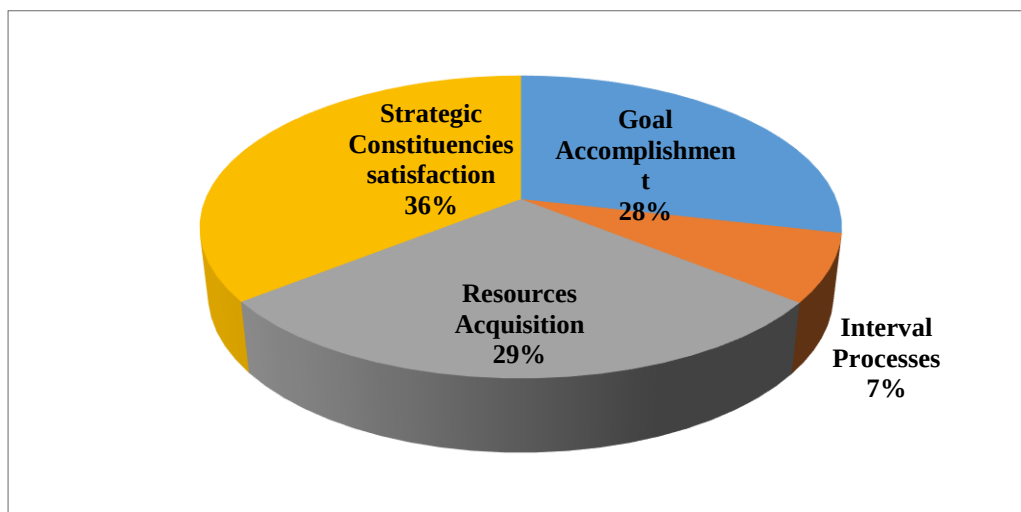


Figure 9: Organisational Productivity
Source: Field Survey, (2014).

6.5 Employees' High Performance Work System (HPWS)

Employees were asked to answer questions on their perception about the common HR practices in their organisation. These practices covered training, selection, team working, involvement and participation, communication, rewards, career management, promotion, performance appraisal and feedback. From table 6:0:16 below, the highest mean was on team working (Q5) recording 3.97 with a standard deviation of 0.41. The mean of

responses ranged between 2.86 and 3.97 while the spread of responses ranged between 0.41 and 0.69.

Comparing the responses to individual HPWS practices, employees in all the sampled organisations recorded their highest response in the neither agree nor disagree (neutral) except in the case of team working (Q5). The highest neutral response was on performance appraisal system providing accurate assessment of workers strengths and weaknesses (73%). The second highest rated response was disagreed and strongly disagreed. Career management given priority recorded the highest disagreement of 47% followed by rewards being tied to performance (37%) and opportunities for promotion at 36%. Generally employees disagreed on the HPWS practices except team working, communication within departments, communication between departments and job security.

Approximately 60% of organisations agreed that their organisations used team working practices. Team working recorded the highest mean of 3.97 and the lowest standard deviation of 0.41. 37% and 24% of organisations used within and between department communications as an HR practice. On how secured jobs were in organisations, employees believed that their organisations representing 21% offered them with a secured job.

Table 6:0:16Employees High Performance Working System

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	2.9	18.4	64.1	14.6	0	3.30	0.62
Q2	1.9	10.6	66.3	20.2	0.9	3.55	0.58

Q3	0.9	13.5	71.2	14.4	0	3.45	0.52
Q4	0	4.8	61.5	32.7	0.9	3.77	0.46
Q5	0	2.9	37.5	58.7	0.9	3.97	0.41
Q6	4.8	20.2	63.5	9.6	1.9	3.28	0.66
Q7	4.8	34.6	54.8	5.8	0	3.04	0.58
Q8	0	3.8	58.7	36.5	0.9	3.74	0.46
Q9	0	6.7	69.2	24.0	0	3.60	0.47
Q10	0	15.4	63.5	21.2	0	3.48	0.55
Q11	8.7	27.9	57.7	4.8	0.9	3.07	0.69
Q12	11.5	35.6	50.9	1.9	0	2.86	0.64
Q13	9.6	25.9	58.7	5.8	0	3.04	0.69
Q14	1.9	16.4	73.1	8.7	0	3.33	0.54
Q15	2.9	28.9	58.7	9.6	0	3.23	0.59

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.1 Work Flexibility

Work flexibility was measured with 12 items covering the four types of flexibilities: functional, internal numerical, external numerical and labour cost (pay) flexibilities. Table 6:0:17 shows the level of agreement or disagreement of organisations regarding work flexibility in organisations. From the table, for all the twelve dimensions of flexibility assessed in this study the organisations disagreeing and strongly disagreeing to the use of flexibility at the workplace were more than those who agreed and strongly agreed. The highest reported disagreement was on the use of skills as a measure of pay (Q10) recording 78%. This means that the skill factor was not a consideration in workers level of pay. The second highest response of disagreement was 70% of the sampled organisations reporting that workers did not have the option to work flexible hours. Only 2% of organisations had flexible working options for their workers.

Analysis of the dimensions of flexibilities revealed that 7% of organisations used part time workers (Q1), 14% introduced overtime when necessary (Q3), 20% applied the shift system in their organisations (Q4), 13% of organisations trained their workers to work in other positions (Q5 - functional flexibility) and 10% used job rotation as a form of functional flexibility (Q6). Only 7% of organisations used outsourcing (Q7) while 8% used temporal worker (Q11). 13% of organisations reported that workers could easily be fired while 30% of organisations reported otherwise (Q12). The range of means was between 2.53 and 3.21 while the standard deviation was between 0.53 and 1.02.

Analysis on the types of flexibilities being practiced by organisations revealed that internal flexibility practices are quite low. The most common internal flexibility practiced was the shift system (20%) followed by the use of overtime (14%), followed by the use of temporary workers (8%) and part time workers (7%). Assessment of functional flexibility revealed that less than 14% of organisations practised this form of flexibility. Again less than 14% of organisations reported the use of external flexibilities (Q7, Q12). The last form of flexibility was the labour cost flexibility (Q8, Q9, and Q10). The dominant practice in labour cost was the use of educational level to determine pay levels. This was evident in 16% of the sampled organisations.

Table 6:0:17 Flexibility

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	21.2	45.2	25.9	6.7	0.96	2.63	0.83
Q2	13.5	56.7	27.9	1.9	0	2.53	0.68

Q3	4.8	25.0	55.8	14.4	0	3.20	0.72
Q4	25.9	34.6	19.2	20.2	0	2.74	1.02
Q5	2.9	36.5	47.1	12.5	0.9	3.20	0.69
Q6	5.8	43.3	41.4	9.6	0	2.97	0.67
Q7	11.5	43.3	38.5	5.8	0.9	2.81	0.79
Q8	1.9	33.7	53.9	10.6	0	3.14	0.58
Q9	10.6	29.8	43.3	15.4	0.9	3.08	0.80
Q10	10.6	67.3	20.2	0.9	0.9	2.58	0.53
Q11	0	44.3	47.4	8.2	0	2.97	0.71
Q12	0.9	28.8	57.7	12.5	0	3.21	0.61

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.1.1 Work Flexibility per Sectors of the Economy

From the general findings of flexibility, this section breaks down the findings across each sector. This section thus covers the findings on the types of flexibility per each of the main sectors – primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary sectors. Using Garcia (2009), there are four main types of flexibility. These are functional, internal numerical, external numerical and labour cost flexibilities. Each of these types of flexibility was cross tabulated with the primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary sectors. The findings are discussed below.

6.5.1.1.2 Functional Work Flexibility per Sectors of the Economy

Functional flexibility is about workers having multiple skills to do various/different tasks. It also encompasses how the firm is able to train the employees by means possible to achieve multiple skills. From the results as shown in table 6:0:18, a high level of

functional flexibility exist in the primary sector of the economy with 53.6% of the total valid responses (41.4 % for High 12.2% very High), followed by 28.1% moderate level and the low level recorded an 18.2% (13.9% Low and 4.3% Very Low). The level of functional flexibility within the primary sector is very high.

In the secondary sector, a relatively high response of 40.2% was reported covering agreed (27.6%) and strongly agreed (12.6%). The number of respondents disagreeing and strongly disagreeing was on the low side with 27.1%. The secondary sector therefore used a high level of functional flexibility though on a lower level than the primary sector

The tertiary sector had the highest level of functional flexibility among the sectors with a 56.2% (39.5% agreed and 16.7% strongly agreed). There was a moderate response of 28.7% who did not perceive such functional flexibility in the sector. Thus majority of the respondents agreed that functional flexibility was a common feature of work in this sector.

The quaternary sector also had a high responses rate agreeing to the use of functional flexibility (33.8%). Closely following with a less than 1% rate of response (33.1%), some workers disagreed to the use of functional flexibility in their organisations. It can be concluded for this sector that almost half of the organisations sampled for the study did not use functional flexibility.

The primary sector and the quaternary sector are dominated by a moderate level of functional flexibility although the high level of functional flexibility was also found in the two sectors. On the other hand, secondary and tertiary sectors were also highly

dominated by high levels of functional flexibility followed by moderate levels of functional flexibility.

Table 6:0:18 Sectors and Functional Flexibility

			Functional Flexibility					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	2	7	3	0	0	12
		% within Sector	16.6%	58.2%	24.9%	0%	0%	100%
	Secondary	Count	1	6	8	0	0	15
		% within Sector	6.7%	40.2%	53.6%	0%	0%	100%
Tertiary	Count	3	17	23	5	0	48	
	% within Sector	6%	36%	48%	11%	0%	100%	
Quaternary	Count	1	13	12	2	0	28	
	% within Sector	3%	47%	43%	7%	0%	100%	

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.1.1.3 Internal Numerical Work Flexibility per sectors of the economy

Garcia (2009) defined internal flexibility as a more flexible labour utilization within an organization (e.g. through working time adjustments). From the cross tabulation of sector and internal numerical flexibility as presented in table 6:0:19, the primary sector had 17% of the organisations indicating that a moderate level of internal numerical flexibility exist in their organisation. However, 9% of organisations (1% very low and 8% low) believed that there exist low levels of internal numerical flexibility while no organisation rated high or very high on the use of internal numerical. A critical look at the percentage responses from the two extremes (low level and the High Level) indicate that, there was a low level of practice of the internal numerical flexibility in most organisations within the primary sector.

The secondary sector had a similar scenario like the primary sector. The sector had 40% organisations perceiving that a moderate level of internal numerical flexibility exist in this sector, 60% perceived a low internal numerical flexibility. There was no high or very high response for the sector. The overall perception in the secondary was that there was a low level of internal numerical flexibility.

The tertiary sector of the economy recorded 44% organisations using moderate internal numerical flexibility, 57% of organisations (9% very low and 48% Low) using low internal flexibility. Like the other dimensions of internal numerical flexibility, there was no high or very high usage of internal numerical flexibility. This sector recorded a generally low level of internal numerical flexibility.

Results from the quaternary sector showed 32% of organisations used a moderate level of internal numerical flexibility while 60% were on the lower side (7% very low and 54% low). Like the other dimensions of internal flexibility, there was no high or very high level reported in this sector. In all, the various sectors of the economy reported low usage of numerical flexibility in managing the labour force in the various sectors (61% of organisations).

Table 6:0:19Sectors and Internal Numerical Flexibility

			Internal Numerical Flexibility					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	1	9	2	0	0	12
		% within Sector	8.3%	66.4%	16.6%	0%	0%	11.7%

Secondary	Count	0	9	6	0	0	15
	% within Sector	0%	60.3%	40.2%	0%	0%	14.6%
Tertiary	Count	4	23	21	0	0	48
	% within Sector	8.4%	48.3%	44.1%	0%	0%	46.6%
Quaternary	Count	2	17	9	0	0	28
	% within Sector	7.2%	54%	32.4%	0%	0%	27.2%
Total	Count	7	56	40	0	0	103
	% within Sector	6.9%	54.7%	38.4%	0%	0%	100%

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.1.1.4 External Numerical Flexibility per Sectors of the Economy

Garcia (2009) explained external flexibility as facilitating transitions in the labour market (into and between jobs). The levels of external numerical flexibility as measured against the various sectors are shown in the table 6:0:20 below. In the primary sector, 8% of organisations responded that high external flexibility exist in this sector. Approximately 50% of organisations had a moderate form of external flexibility in this sector.

The secondary sector had 53% of organisations reporting a low use of external numerical flexibility while 47% of organisations reported a moderate use of it. The tertiary sector had 2% of organisations reporting a high level of external numerical flexibility in the sector. However, 61% of organisations reported a moderate use of external numerical flexibility while 37% of the organisations reported a low use of this flexibility in this sector. This gives an indication that the sector was well dominated by moderate levels of external flexibility.

The Quaternary sector recorded a moderate level of external numerical flexibility with 46% organisations. Very low and low responses were reported for 50% of the organisations. The secondary sector reported the lowest use of external flexibility followed by the quaternary sector, tertiary sector and primary sector respectively.

Table 6:0:20 Sectors and External Numerical Flexibility

			External Numerical Flexibility					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	0	2	9	1	0	12
		% within Sector	0%	16.6%	74.7%	8.3%	0%	11.7%
	Secondary	Count	0	8	7	0	0	15
		% within Sector	0%	53.6%	46.9%	0%	0%	14.6%
	Tertiary	Count	3	15	29	1	0	48
		% within Sector	6.3%	31.5%	60.9%	2.1%	0%	46.6%
	Quaternary	Count	1	13	13	1	0	28
		% within Sector	3.6%	46.8%	46.8%	3.6%	0%	27.2%
Total	Count	4	38	58	3	0	103	
	% within Sector	4%	40.2%	52.8%	3%	0%	100%	

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.1.1.5 Labour Cost Flexibility per Sectors of the Economy

Labour cost flexibility was also measured against the various sectors of the Ghanaian Economy. The primary sector on labour cost flexibility showed that moderate level exist in most organisations in this sector (41.3%). while 28.6% (24.3% High and 4.3% Very high) reported high use as shown in table 6.20 while the low side also recorded 30.2% (26.5% Low and 3.7% Very low). The results, shown in table 6:0:21, indicates that in

Primary sector of Ghana's economy, a moderate level of Labour cost Flexibility was predominant, followed by the low levels of labour cost flexibility.

In the secondary sector, the moderate level of Labour cost flexibility dominated the sector with 51.1% responses obtained. However unlike the primary sector, the secondary sector had the high side recording 30.5% (23.5% high and 7 % very high) of responses and low side recording as low as 18.5% (7.5% very low and 11% low). The sector showed an improved use of labour cost flexibility as compared to the primary sector. A further improvement in the use of labour cost flexibility was seen in the tertiary sector as 44.9% recorded a moderate use of labour cost flexibility, 37.3% responses (31.1% high and 6.2% very high) was recorded for high use and a 17.7% (14.6% low and 3.1% very Low) response recorded for low use.

Finally in the Quaternary sector, the high level of labour cost flexibility dominated with 52.1% (45.2% high and 6.9% very High responses), 37.6% moderate responses and 10.3% low responses (8.6% low and 1.7% very low) were recorded. In summary, the use of labour cost flexibility was high in the quaternary sector, followed by Tertiary, secondary and the primary sectors in descending order.

Table 6:0:21 Sectors and Labour Cost Flexibility

			Labour Cost Flexibility					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	1	4	7	0	0	12
		% within Sector	8.3%	33.2%	58.1%	0%	0%	99.6%
	Secondary	Count	1	5	9	0	0	15
		% within Sector	6.7%	33.5%	60.3%	0	0	100.5%

Tertiary	Count	8	19	21	0	0	48
	% within Sector	16.8%	39.9%	44.1%	0	0	100.8%
Quaternary	Count	1	11	16	0	0	28
	% within Sector	3.6%	39.6%	57.6%	0	0	100.8%
Total	Count	11	39	53	0	0	103
	% within Sector	11%	37.8%	51.2%	0	0	100%

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.2 Key Changes in Employees' Security

Employee security as a changing aspect of work was another variable assessed in this study. This aspect of the questionnaire sought the perception of workers about four aspects of certainty for workers: job security, income security, employability and combined security (work-life balance). From table 6:0:22, on the issue of job security (Q1), workers in 35% of organisations worried about the security of their jobs. Further investigation using a cross tabulation on Q1 and sectors revealed that the tertiary sector (42%), quaternary sector (32%) primary sector (25%) and secondary sector (20%) workers worry about the security of their jobs.

From table 6:0:22, on income security, evident in Q2, a low percentage of organisations (12%) agreed and strongly agreed that workers income have improved over the past 12 months. A high percentage of organisations (63%) did not agree that incomes of workers have improved but the organisations did not also believe that the workers were worse off. In the case of unstable and uncertain income the situation was the reverse. Workers in 12% of the organisations believed that workers income are likely to be unstable and uncertain (Q3). This was against 25% of organisations who perceive that workers

incomes are likely to be stable and certain. Worker in 60% of the sampled organisations were reported a neutral stand.

The third type of security assessed was the work-life balance which was assessed with Q5 and Q6. From table 6:0:22, 8% and 6% of organisations believed that their work design allowed workers time for their families and undertake studies respectively. However, workers in 38% of the sampled organisations disagreed that they had time for their families. It was also evident from workers response in 49% of organisations that workers could not get time for studies.

Questions 6 and 7 assessed the employability of workers in various organisations. Workers in 39% of organisations perceived that it would be difficult to get another job if they lost their current jobs (Q7). Workers in 8% of organisations however perceived getting another job to be easy. Workers in 39% of organisations however believed that they possessed the skills to make them employable for life. However, workers in 7% of the organisations sampled believed that they did not possess the skills to make them employable for the rest of their lives.

Table 6:0:22 Employee Security

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	2.9	31.7	57.7	6.7	0.9	3.15	0.63
Q2	1.9	11.5	66.3	19.2	0.9	3.48	0.59
Q3	0	25.0	62.5	11.5	0.9	3.30	0.55
Q4	12.4	33.3	48.6	5.7	0	2.85	0.74

Q5	1.9	36.5	53.8	7.7	0	3.11	0.60
Q6	5.8	43.3	45.1	5.8	0	2.95	0.67
Q7	1.9	23.1	66.4	7.7	0.9	3.38	0.56
Q8	0.9	6.7	52.9	36.5	2.9	3.75	0.61

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.2.1 Cross Tabulation of Employees' Security and Sectors of the Economy

From the general findings of security, this section breaks down the findings across each sector. This section thus covers the findings on the types of security per each of the main sectors – primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary sectors. Once again using Garcia (2009), there are four main types of security. These are job security, income security, employability and work-life balance. Each of these types of security was cross tabulated with the primary, secondary, tertiary and quaternary sectors and discussed are discussed below.

6.5.2.1.1 Cross Tabulation of Job security and Sectors

On job security, all the sectors recorded moderate levels of security ranging from 61% to 91% as evident in table 6:0:23. The secondary sector recorded 13% of organisations with high levels of job security for their workers. This was followed by the 11% of organisations in the quaternary sector and 8% in the tertiary sector. From the cross tabulation in table 6.23 below, the highest percentage of very low and low job securities were recorded for the tertiary sector (31%) while the lowest was in the primary and secondary sectors (1% each). The quaternary sector recorded 18% of organisations as providing job security for their workers. This means that the tertiary sector had the highest job insecurity followed by the quaternary sector. The results clearly reflect

moderate levels of job security for most of the workers across all sectors of the Ghanaian economy.

Table 6:0:23 Sectors and Job Security

			Job Security					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	0	1	11	0	0	12
		% within Sector	0%	9%	91%	0	0	100%
	Secondary	Count	0	1	12	2	0	15
		% within Sector	0%	7%	80%	13%	0%	100%
Tertiary	Count		4	11	29	4	0	48
	% within Sector		8%	23%	61%	8%	0%	100%
Quaternary	Count		3	2	20	3	0	28
	% within Sector		11%	7.2%	62%	11%	0%	100%
Total		Count	7	15	72	9	0	103

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.2.1.2 Cross Tabulation of Income Security and Sectors

The income security across sectors of the economy of Ghana was analysed with a cross tabulation. From the findings presented in table 6:0:24 below, moderate levels of income security was recorded across all sectors ranging from 54% to 93%. This means that more than half of the sampled organisations have moderate income security for their workers.

Relatively low percentage of organisations reported high levels of income security for the works. The primary sector recorded 9% of organisations as providing high levels of income security, 7% of organisations from the secondary sector followed the primary

sector. The quaternary and the tertiary sectors reported 3% and 1% organisations as providing high levels of income security. The lowest level of income security was in the tertiary sector (44% organisations); followed by the primary sector (33% of organisations) and the quaternary sector (12% of organisations). The secondary sector only reported of moderate and high levels of income security with no reported case of low level income security.

Table 6:0:24Sector and Income Security Cross tabulation

			Income Security Cross tabulation					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	0	4	7	1	0	12
		% within Sector	0	33%	58%	9%	0%	100%
	Secondary	Count	0	0	14	1	0	15
		% within Sector	0%	0%	93%	7%	0%	100%
	Tertiary	Count	0	21	26	1	0	48
		% within Sector	0%	44%	54%	2%	0%	100%
	Quaternary	Count	0	12	15	1	0	28
		% within Sector	0%	43%	54%	3%	0%	100%
	Total	Count	0	37	62	4	0	103
		% within Sector	0%	35%	61%	4%	0%	100%

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.2.1.3 Cross Tabulation of Work Life Balance and Sectors

Work life security of workers in organisations was tested based on the sectors of the economy, as presented in table 6:0:25 below. Few organisations reported of high level of work family balance (17% of organisations) in the primary sector and the secondary sector (6%). The primary sector reported mostly low (41%) and moderate (41%) work-life balance. This indicates an average level of work life balance for the primary sector.

The tertiary sector had the highest percentage of organisations (54%) offering low levels of work life balance to their workers. The second highest percentage of low work life balance was in the quaternary sector (43%), with the primary sector coming third (42%) and the secondary sector (40%) following. All the sectors had moderate work life balance especially in the secondary and quaternary sectors.

Table 6:0:25Sector and Work Life Balance Cross tabulation

			Work Life Cross tabulation					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	0	5	5	2	0	12
		% within Sector	0	41.5%	41.5%	17%	0	100%
	Secondary	Count	1	5	9	0	0	15
		% within Sector	7%	33%	60%	0%	0	100%
Tertiary	Count	2	22	21	3	0	48	
	% within Sector	4.2%	46.2%	44.1%	6.3%	0	100%	
Quaternary	Count	0	12	16	0	0	28	
	% within Sector	0	43%	57%	0	0	100%	

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.2.1.4 Cross Tabulation of Employment Security and Sectors

In this section, the researcher measures the employment security levels against the various sectors of the economy. The primary and tertiary sectors recorded high level of employment security for workers (25% each), 8% low level (for primary and tertiary) and 67% moderate levels of employment security for the two sectors. In the secondary sector the level of employment security reduced to 20% of organisations offering a high level of employment security. The secondary sector recorded no low levels of

employment security while 6% of organisations in the quaternary sector offered low levels of employment security.

The general level of employment security in all sectors was very moderate. The secondary sector had the highest (80%) moderate responses on employment security with the quaternary sector taking the second position (76%). The general picture for employment security was a high level of moderate employment security (70%) across sectors with a 20% level of high employment security and a 10% level of low employment security as evident in table 6:0:26 below.

Table 6:0:26 Sectors and Employment Security

			Employment Security Cross tabulation					Total
			Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High	
Sector	Primary	Count	0	1	8	3	0	12
		% within Sector	0	8%	67%	25%	0	100%
	Secondary	Count	0	0	12	3	0	15
		% within Sector	0	0	80%	20%	0	100%
Tertiary	Count		0	4	32	11	1	48
	% within Sector		0	8%	67%	23%	2%	100%
Quaternary	Count		1	2	21	4	0	28
	% within Sector		4%	6%	76%	14%	0	100%
Total	Count		1	7	73	21	1	103
	% within Sector		1%	9%	70%	19%	1%	100%

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.3 Trade Union (Freedom of Association)

As stipulated in the constitution of Ghana and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) and in line with ILO's core standard, freedom to association is a significant component of human rights which need not to be underestimated. Therefore knowing employees agreement or disagreement to whether they are allowed the freedom to associate is important.

Employees were not specific regarding the acceptance of trade unions in their organisation, making neutral stand the highest for this variable. From table 6:0:27, 13% of organisations agreed and strongly agreed to the statement that management accepts the formation of trade unions in their organisations (Q3). However, 33% of organisations admitted to not accepting the formation of trade unions in their organisations. Most organisations took the neutral stand on this issue (53% of organisations). From Q4 in table 6:0:27, it was realised that 77% of organisations do not allow temporal, casual and part time workers to join trade unions in their organisation. Only 2% of the sampled organisation allowed these groups of workers to join the trade union.

Union membership was not automatic in most organisations (39%) while 11% of organisations have automatic union membership for the workers (Q6). In 39% of the organisations sampled, union membership did not cover most of the workers (Q5). Workers in 48% of the sampled organisations would not leave their unions even if they had a better alternative while 13.4% agreed and strongly agreed that they would leave their unions if they had a better alternative (Q7). Workers in most of the sampled organisation (53%) agreed and strongly agreed that their unions did not appreciate their opinions.

The means recorded for all 12 items were above the average point with a spread ranging between 0.66 and 0.92 for all items. The highest mean was recorded for (Q11) – the union does not care about my complaint – at 3.38 with a standard deviation of 0.66.

Table 6:0:27Trade Union

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
1	14.4	27.8	43.3	13.4	1.0	2.98	0.92
2	15.5	27.8	47.4	8.3	1.0	2.89	0.85
3	13.4	19.6	53.6	12.4	1.0	3.07	0.87
4	39.2	38.1	20.6	2.1	0	2.46	0.69
5	15.5	23.7	47.4	12.4	1.0	3.00	0.91
6	16.5	22.7	49.5	10.3	1.0	2.96	0.89
7	7.2	41.2	38.1	12.4	1.0	3.02	0.80
8	12.4	36.1	45.4	5.2	1.0	2.87	0.81
9	2.1	27.8	52.6	16.5	1.0	3.28	0.67
10	15.5	37.1	44.3	3.1	0	2.76	0.72
11	2.1	16.5	64.9	15.5	1.0	3.38	0.66
12	2.1	18.6	64.9	12.4	2.1	3.30	0.69

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.4 Collective Bargaining

Collective bargaining is a process that involves the employees and the employers collectively deciding on what regulates the employment contract. Collective bargaining thus provides the collective voice for employees. In analysing this variable, six item questions were asked. From the descriptives, all the items recorded high percentages for organisation on moderate voice.

From the descriptives in table 6.28, it was observed that unions speak up and encourage members to get involved in issues that affect work (Q2) in only 4% of the sampled organisations. This item recorded a mean of 3.00 with a standard deviation of 0.55 as shown in table 6:0:28. All the items had a mean score ranging between 2.82 and 3.33 with a standard deviation ranging between 0.46 and 0.59. Unions keeping workers informed about work issues received the highest rating for low voice (Q4). Strongly

disagree and disagree was reported in 58% of the sampled organisations (Q4). This item recorded the lowest mean of 2.82 and the highest standard deviation of 0.59.

Item reporting on whether unions develop and make recommendations affecting work had workers in 55% of the organisations strongly disagreeing and disagreeing (Q1). Workers in 2% of the sampled organisations however agreed that their unions actually developed and made recommendations affecting their work. In 4% of the sampled organisations, workers agreed that their unions spoke up and encouraged workers to get involve in issues affecting their work. Unions in 2% of the sampled organisations communicated the opinion of workers to management (Q3) while in 59% of the organisations, the workers disagreed and strongly disagreed that their unions were able to play this role. Workers in 3% of the sampled organisations agreed that their unions spoke up with new ideas for change in how work was done while workers in 50% of the sampled organisations reported otherwise.

Table 6:0:28 Collective Bargaining

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
Q1	2.9	51.9	43.3	1.9	0	2.88	0.49
Q2	4.8	34.6	56.7	3.8	0	3.00	0.55
Q3	5.8	52.9	39.4	1.9	0	2.86	0.53
Q4	8.7	49.0	39.4	2.9	0	2.82	0.59
Q5	0	22.1	65.4	11.5	0.9	3.33	0.53
Q6	0.9	49.0	47.1	2.9	0	2.95	0.46

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.5.5 Discrimination

According to the ILO's core standards, workers should not be discriminated against as it is against their basic human rights. To this end, discrimination was assessed with an 18 item questionnaire covering distributive discrimination, procedural discrimination, informational discrimination, and interpersonal discrimination. These items were from justice questions and reverse coded.

Questions 1 to 4 represented distributive discrimination. From table 6:0:29, it can be deduced from the high ratings for the 4 items (Q1-Q4) for strongly disagree and disagree that distributive discrimination was relatively low. This means that discrimination in organisations was not wide and that it covered a narrow aspect of the workforce. The means for the four questions covering distributive discrimination ranged between 2.77 and 2.85 with standard deviations between 0.65 and 0.76.

The next set of questions from Q5 to Q7 assessed procedural discrimination. This set of questions recorded relatively high mean scores between 2.77 and 2.92 with standard deviations between 0.52 and 0.62. On whether employees can disagree or appeal against management's decision (Q5), workers in 54% of the sampled organisations alleged that it was not possible while 6% perceived that it was possible. Workers in 57% of the sampled organisations disagreed and strongly disagreed that their organisations had mechanisms allowing workers to appeal against decisions affecting them (Q6).

Interpersonal discrimination was measured with Q8 –Q11. From table 6:0:29, as per the mean scores this form of discrimination was the most witnessed by workers having means between 3.60 and 3.76. The standard deviation was between 0.45 and 0.53.

Workers in 20% of organisations agreed that their supervisors showed genuine concern to be fair to them (Q8). However, workers in 8% of the organisations reported that this was not the case in their organisations. The item assessing whether supervisors express concern for workers' rights, workers in 1% of the sampled organisations strongly agreed (Q10). Workers in 21% of the sampled organisations also agreed to Q10. Some workers believed otherwise with workers in 1% of organisations rating Q10 as strongly disagree and workers in 7% organisations rating it as disagree. In 32% of the sampled organisations, workers received respect and consideration from the supervisors while 5% of organisations did not give respect and consideration to workers (Q11).

The last part of the questions (Q12-Q15) represented informational discrimination. This type of discrimination was the second most occurring form of discrimination with the mean ranging between 3.53 and 3.67. In 25% of the sampled organisations, workers received feedback on their work while 9% of organisations did not give feedback to workers (Q12). Workers in 29% of the sampled organisations agreed and strongly agreed that information regarding their work was given them while workers in 7% of the organisations believed otherwise (Q13). Workers in 22% of organisations agreed and strongly agreed that expectations regarding concerning their performance was clearly communicated to them (Q14).

Table 6:0:29Discrimination

	1	2	3	4	5	M	SD
1	9.6	42.3	43.3	4.8	0	2.85	0.65
2	12.5	41.4	38.5	6.7	0.9	2.80	0.76
3	11.4	35.9	50.0	2.6	0	2.80	0.65
4	12.5	47.1	37.5	2.9	0	2.77	0.65
5	5.8	48.1	40.4	5.8	0	2.90	0.58
6	5.8	50.9	38.5	4.8	0	2.84	0.62
7	2.9	44.2	52.9	0	0	2.92	0.52
8	0	7.7	72.1	20.2	0	3.62	0.45
9	0	7.8	66.9	25.2	0	3.64	0.49
10	0.9	6.7	70.2	21.2	0.9	3.60	0.53
11	0.9	3.8	63.5	30.8	0.9	3.76	0.52
12	0.9	7.7	66.3	25.0	0	3.61	0.52
13	0	6.8	64.1	27.2	1.9	3.67	0.49
14	0	10.6	67.3	21.2	0.9	3.61	0.48
15	0.9	11.5	66.3	20.2	0.9	3.53	0.50

Source: Researcher's construct (2014).

6.6 Descriptive for Interview and Focus Group

Two interviewers were designated to interview a group of between five and ten workers at any point with one interviewing while the other records and takes notes where necessary. In all ninety five (95) workers and one protagonist respondents were interviewed.

All the respondents were males except fifteen female participants. The number of the females involved was small because the sectors targeted except the banks hired mostly males especially in the construction sub-sector. This was because the work required high amount of strength in doing the daily business activities. The respondents had been in their various organizations between one year and ten years.

There was one interview which was a one on one interview, with an ex-Deputy Minister, who was also a former president of the Institute of HRM Practitioners (Ghana). Data generated from this interview covered major the aspects of the law especially in the Labour Act and the 1992 Constitution that domesticated the ILO core standards in Ghana and how effective they were in achieving the desired impact.

6.7 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented the descriptive of the demographic and the constructs used in the study for both managers and workers. The descriptive covered each question used in the questionnaire. Results were presented using means, standard deviations, bar graphs and pie charts. The descriptive for the interview and focused group focused on the demographics and sub sectors. These descriptive are analysed in the following chapter and discussed in chapter eight.

CHAPTER SEVEN

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter is the second of three chapters on data presentation, discussions and analysis. Chapter six presented the general descriptives of the variables used in this study. This chapter presents the quantitative analysis of the study based on the questionnaires administered and using the SPSS (version 16). This chapter presents data that addresses two objectives of this study: the mediation effects of ‘labour standards’ and ‘nature of work’ on the HRM and organisational productivity. The data that addresses the remaining objectives are presented in the next chapter. This chapter begins with data aggregated to the organisational level to allow for analysis at this level. This was necessary as the data was collected at two levels: the individual and the organisational level. Having aggregated all the variables, the various assumptions for parametric analysis were tested. These include tests for normality, linearity, homoscedasticity/homogeneity, singularity, outliers and multicollinearity. The last section of this chapter tested the six hypotheses developed from the conceptual framework to support the two objectives on mediation of labour standards and nature of work on the HRM – productivity link.

7.2 Transformation of Variables

To perform statistical analysis on any data set, Pallant (2007:82) recommends the need to calculate total scores for the scales used. To prevent response bias in the total scores, negatively worded items in the scales were reverse scored. Total scores for the scales

were obtained by computing the new variables by adding all scores on the items in each scale (e.g. Flex1 to Flex12) and dividing by the number of items.

7.3 Aggregation from individual level to organisational level of analysis and its justification

After meeting the assumptions for parametric test, the data was aggregated to the organisational level in order to run analysis at one level. This was important because data was collected from multiple levels – individuals and organisations in a survey using multiple raters in order to avoid single-rater bias. It was also necessary because the conceptual model for this study was theorized at the organisational level. Thus the a priori focus on group level theory, conceptualisation and analysis instigated the need for aggregation.

The use of multiple raters in the individual variables required that a certain degree of agreement must be established for individual responses to be aggregated to the organisational level. The degree of agreement as a condition for aggregation requires that conditions for Interrater reliability (IRR) and Interrater Agreement (IRA) be met. IRR refers to the relative consistency in ratings provided by multiple respondents of multiple targets while IRA refers to the absolute consensus in scores provided by multiple respondents for one or more targets (LeBreton, Burgess, Kaiser, Atchley and James, 2003, Bliese, 2000; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1993, Kozlowski and Hattrup, 1992). The IRR is the ‘degree to which the ratings of different judges are proportional when expressed as deviations from their means’ while the IRA is the ‘extent to which the different judges tend to make exactly the same judgments about the rated subject’ (Tinsley and Weiss, 1975:359). Empirical support needed to justify aggregation with IRR

is achieved through the use of Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) while r_{wg} index is used to support the IRA $AD_{M(j)}$. The r_{wg} was used in this study because it is the most widely used index for likert scales (James, Demaree and Wolf, 1984).

Intra class correlation coefficients (ICC) and inter rater agreement (IRA) must be met. ICC_1 estimates the reliability of an individual rater and the similarity of the group members reflected by the correlation among members while the ICC_2 provides information about the stability of the aggregated data' (Cohen, Doveh and Nahum-Shani, 2009:150). As a rule of thumb, ICC_1 and ICC_2 must be more than 0.7 for lower level data to be aggregated.

ICCs are used “when one is interested in the relationship among variables of a common class, which means variables that share both their metric and variance” (McGraw & Wong, 1996:30). ICC_1 estimates the interrater reliability i.e. the amount of variance in the individual level responses that can be explained by group level properties (Bliese, 2000b; Bliese & Halverson, 1998b).

ICC_1 is calculated as: $ICC(1) = (ms_b - ms_w) / [ms_b + ((n_g - 1)ms_w)]$

Where ms_b is the between-group mean square,
 ms_w is the within-group mean square, and
 n_g is the group size (Bliese, 2000b).

ICC_2 estimates the reliability of group means (Bliese, 1998; Glick & Roberts, 1984). Since ICC_2 is depended on the group mean the size of the group affects it unlike the ICC_1 . It is calculated as: $ICC(2) = (ms_b - ms_w)/ms_b$.

R_{wg} index is the measure of interrater agreement. It determines the ‘appropriateness of aggregating data to a higher level of analysis (James, et al., 1984). The study used the index below recommended by Lindell et al., (1999:131):

$$r_{wg}^*(J) = 1 - \frac{S_X^{-2}}{S_{EU}^2}$$

S_X^{-2} is the obtained average variance of the items in the scale and

S_{EU}^2 is the variance of the uniform distribution’ (Lindell et al., 1999: 128).

Using the equations above, the ICC_1 , ICC_2 and $r_{wg(J)}$ are calculated and presented in table 7.1 below on all variables used in this study.

Table 7:0:1Aggregation Statistics across organisations for variables N=104

Variables	Alpha	$R_{WG(J)}$	ICC(1)	ICC(2)	F-Test	Variance	S^2_E
HPWS	0.81	0.99	0.67	0.81	5.20, $p < 0.01$	0.03	2
Flexibility	0.70	0.98	0.70	0.83	5.74, $p < 0.01$	0.04	2
Security	0.57	0.97	0.63	0.77	4.35, $p < 0.01$	0.06	2
Trade Union	0.90	0.98	0.87	0.93	14.37, $p < 0.01$	0.05	2
Collective Bargaining	0.75	0.97	0.71	0.83	5.83, $p < 0.01$	0.07	2
Discrimination	0.88	0.99	0.60	0.75	3.97, $p < 0.01$	0.03	2
Productivity	0.85	0.98	0.65	0.79	4.78, $p < 0.01$	0.04	2

Source: researcher’s field work, (2014)

From the table above, the $r_{wg(J)}$ values show that respondents were in agreement as the observed average variances were zero and the $r_{wg(J)}$ values were almost 1.0. From the table, the data can therefore be aggregated. The ICCs takes values between 0 and 1 such that the larger the value the more perfect the agreement between raters. From the table 7:0:1, the ranges of values for ICCs were between 0.60 and 0.93. This indicated a perfect agreement and satisfied the condition for aggregation. According to Zohar (2000), r_{wg} values between 0.70 and 0.80 are sufficient proof that judgements are sufficiently homogeneous for within group aggregation.

7.3.1 Correlation of Variables in the study

The relationship between the variables in the study was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Correlation is a measure of strength, not causality, which varies from -1 to 1 with both extremes indicating strong negative or positive relationship respectively. Correlation analysis was performed to ensure that there was no violation of the previously tested assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity after the aggregation. The table below (table 7:0:2) shows the descriptive statistics among the variables under study at the organisational level. There were strong positive correlations between all the variables except some few: for example between flexibility and Organisational productivity with $r = 0.0$, $p = 0.24$, and trade union and organisational productivity with $r = 0.04$, $p = 0.73$ as shown in the table 7:0:2 below.

Table 7:0:2Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of variables in the study (n= 104)

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Sector	2.89	0.94									
2. Size of organisation	2.90	0.93	0.04								
3. HPWS	3.41	0.27	0.07	-0.04	(0.83)						
4. Flexibility	2.93	0.27	0.07	-0.08	0.32**	(0.67)					
5. Security	3.21	0.23	0.20*	-0.06	0.48**	0.09	(0.53)				
6. Trade Union	3.03	0.39	0.17	-0.06	0.27**	0.16	0.29**	(0.90)			
7. Collective Bargaining	3.25	0.46	-0.11	0.00	0.28**	0.09	0.07	0.49**	(0.90)		
8. Discrimination	3.94	0.26	0.03	-0.01	-0.23*	-0.02	-0.09	-1.19	-0.33**	(0.88)	
9. Organisational Productivity	3.45	0.21	-0.17	-0.04	0.43**	0.08	0.23*	0.04	0.42**	-0.26**	(0.85)

Note. High Performance Work Systems (HPWS) is an aggregation of individual HPWS to the organisational level.

Reliability coefficients are shown in parentheses on the diagonal

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

7.4 Checking for Assumptions of Parametric Analysis

This study checked for the underlying assumptions of parametric test. These measures include checking for outliers, normality of the data, linearity in the data, the presence of homoscedasticity and multicollinearity. Other assumptions for parametric analysis are homogeneity of variance, interval data and independence. These assumptions are detailed below:

7.4.1 Normal Distribution and Outliers

Histograms with superimposed the normal distribution curves were used to check the distributions of the data. Further test using the Mahalanobis distance from standard multiple regression was conducted revealing a maximum value of 58.199, which was over and above the recommended critical value of 22.46 (Pearson and Hartley, 1958) for the six independent variables used in this analysis. Further checks conducted using the Cook's distance revealed that the maximum value was 0.073 suggesting no major problem. A value larger than 1.0 for Cook's distance would have meant that there were potential problems (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007:75).

7.4.2 Skewness and Kurtosis

In checking for the normality assumption for parametric analysis, the measures of shape (kurtosis and skewness) were also checked. Skewness checks for the asymmetry and deviation while kurtosis checks for the 'flatness' or 'peakness' of the distribution (Field, 2005:72). The normal probability plots (Q-Q) for the variables are shown in figure 7.1. All the variables met the measures of shapes (kurtosis and skewness). In figure 7.1 below, the points lied in a reasonably straight diagonal line from the left bottom to the top right indicating the absence of skewness and kurtosis.

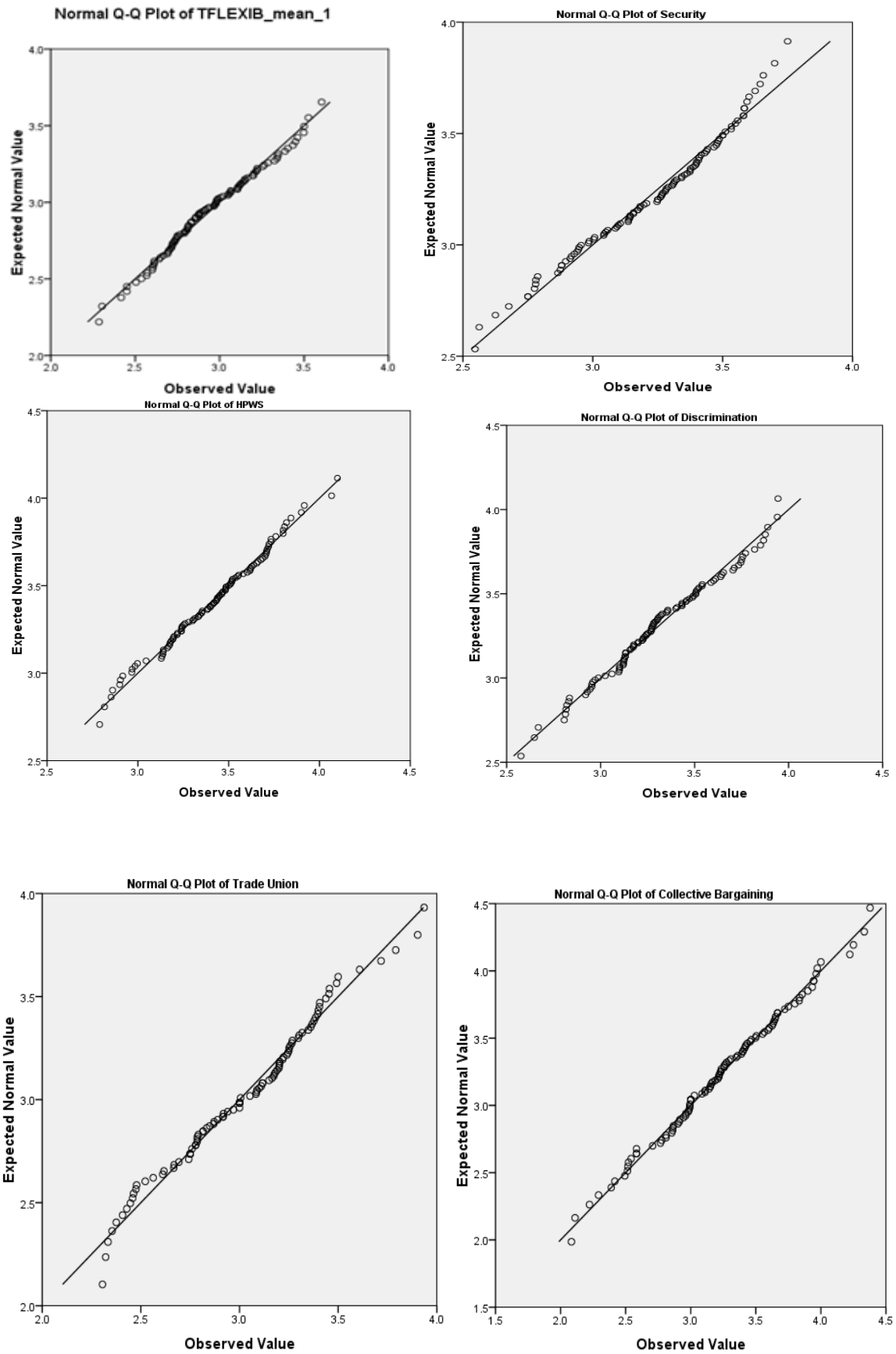


Figure 7.1 Normal Q-Q Plots for study variables
source: Researcher's field work, (2014)

7.4.3 Linearity:

Linearity is another assumption in parametric analysis. This means that the rate of change between scores on two variables remains the same throughout the entire range of scores for the variable. Examinations of the scatter plots revealed a cigar-shaped band with a trend line meaning the relationship were linear.

7.4.4 Homoscedasticity / Homogeneity of variance

Homoscedasticity is also referred to as homogeneity of variance or uniformity of variance. Homo means 'same', scedatic means to scatter thus homoscedasticity means to 'have the same scatter'. 'This assumption means that the variances should be the same throughout the data' (Field 2005:64). In other words, the dependent variable should have similar variance across the range of values for an independent variable. One of the variables – collective bargaining- is shown in figure 7.3 below. The Levene's statistics used to check this assumption revealed a significance of $p=.631$ meaning there was no homoscedasticity in the data. A graphical inspection of a scatter plot with a fitted linear line revealed a flat line in figure 7.3. This means that the data meets the assumption of homogeneity of variance.

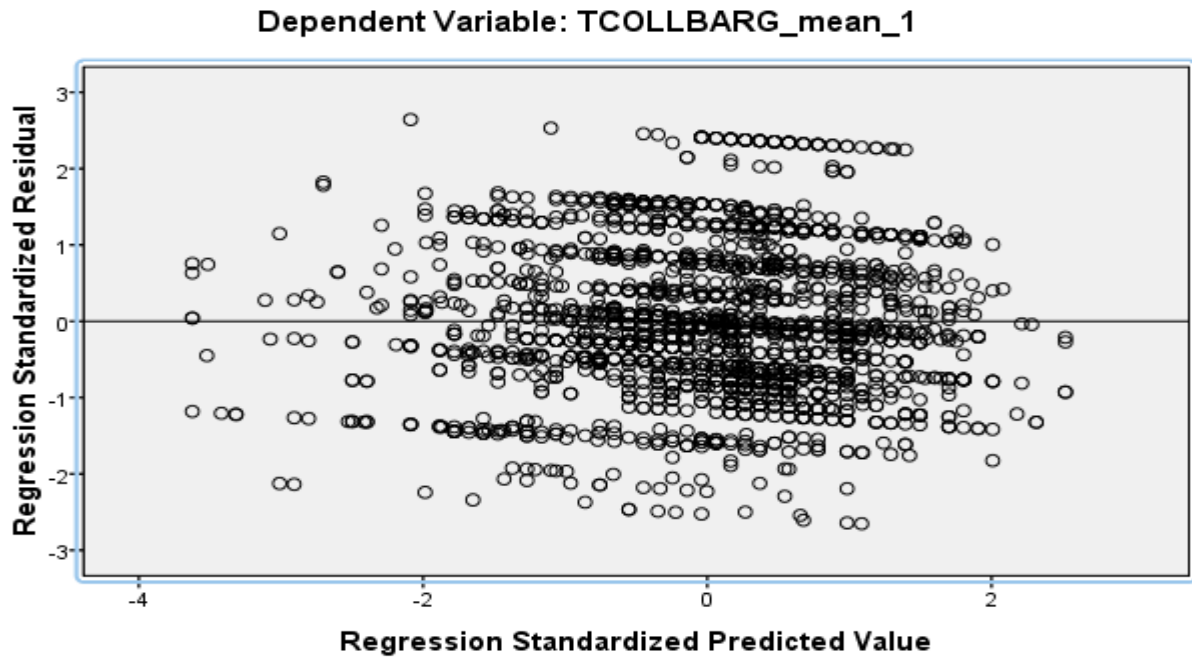


Figure 7. 2 Scatter plot showing homogeneity of variance for collective bargaining

Source: researcher's field work, (2014)

7.4.5 Multicollinearity:

One other assumption of parametric analysis is multicollinearity. Multicollinearity is the presence of highly correlated independent variables ($r=.9$ and above). In checking for multicollinearity, a standard multiple regression was used to check the tolerance values. The tolerance value explains how much of a variability of the independent is not explained by other independent variables in the model. The tolerance values in this study were between 0.76 and 0.87. These values were not less than .10 and the Variance Inflation factor (VIF) were between 1.15 and 1.32, far below the recommended cut-off of 10. Thus the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated in this study.

7.4.6 Interval data and Independence of Variance

One of the assumptions of parametric data is that the data should be measured at the interval level. That is, the distances between points of scale should be the same. In this study ordinal items were combined into interval level data for use (Garson, 2012:14). The Durbin-Watson statistic revealed approximately 2 (0.17) indicating that there is no autocorrelation in the study (thus there were independence of variance). The two assumptions of interval data and independence of variance were therefore met in this study.

7.5 Result of the Hypotheses Testing

The hypotheses in this study were on labour standards and changing nature of work as mediators of the relationship between HPWS and organizational productivity. The first hypothesis was a direct effect of HPWS on organisational productivity. The other five hypotheses were on flexibility, security, trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination as mediators in the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship. The mediation effects were tested using the Baron and Kenny's (1986) model of statistical mediation.

This model is regarded as the 'most dominant strategy to analyse statistical mediation' within social sciences (MacKinnon et al 2007; Frazier, Tix and Baron, 2004; Preacher and Hayes, 2004; Iacobucci, Saldanha and Deng, 2007). The initial analysis was a test for the inter item correlations between the variables. This is shown in table 7:0:2 above. To test for mediation, a four step regression analysis proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), Judd and Kenny (1981), and James and Brett (1984) was used. The relationships in the four step model are illustrated in figure 7.3 below. The first analysis was a test for the direct relationship between the independent variable HPWS and the dependent variable organisational productivity while controlling for sector and organisational size.

In this study, this direct path was indicated as path 'c' and tested hypothesis 1 (H1) using the equation: $Y_1 = B_1 + B_2X_1 + B_3X_2 + B_4X_3 + e_1$. B_1 is the intercept, B_2 is the coefficient of Sector, B_3 is the coefficient of organisational size, B_4 is the coefficient of HPWS and e_1 is the regression error. The second analysis was the various tests for the relationships between the independent variable, HPWS, and the mediating variables (flexibility, security, trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination) which are indicated by paths 'a' in figure 7.3. The equation used for the mediation was: $M_1 = B_1 + B_2X_1 + B_3X_2 + B_4X_3 + e_2$ where M_1 represents the various mediating variables, B_1 is the intercept, B_2 , B_3 are the coefficients of sector and organisational size and B_4 is the coefficient of HPWS.

The third analysis was various tests for the relationships between the mediators and the dependent variable which is organisational productivity. These are indicated in figure 7.3 as paths 'b'. The equation used for the analysis of path 'b' was $Y_2 = B_1 + B_2X_1 + B_3X_2 + B_4M_1 + e_3$ where Y_2 is organisational productivity, B_1 is the intercept, B_2 , B_3 are the coefficient of sector and organisational size and B_4 is the coefficient of the mediating variables. When all the three analyses showed significant relationships, then a multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the full path of mediation using the equation: $Y_3 = B_1 + B_2X_1 + B_3X_2 + B_4M_1 + B_5X_3 + e_4$. Y_3 in this equation represents organisational productivity, B_1 is the intercept, B_2 , B_3 are the coefficients of sector and organisational size, B_4 is the coefficient of the mediating variables and B_5 is the coefficient of HPWS.

The full paths tested HPWS and each of the mediating variables (flexibility, security, trade union, collective bargaining, and discrimination) as predicting organisational productivity as shown in figure 7.3. These are shown as path c^1 in figure 7.3 and covered hypotheses 2 to 6 (H2-H6). In this study, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was preferred as it allowed

for a fixed order of entry of the variables in order to control for the effects of covariates like the size of organisation and sector of organisation.

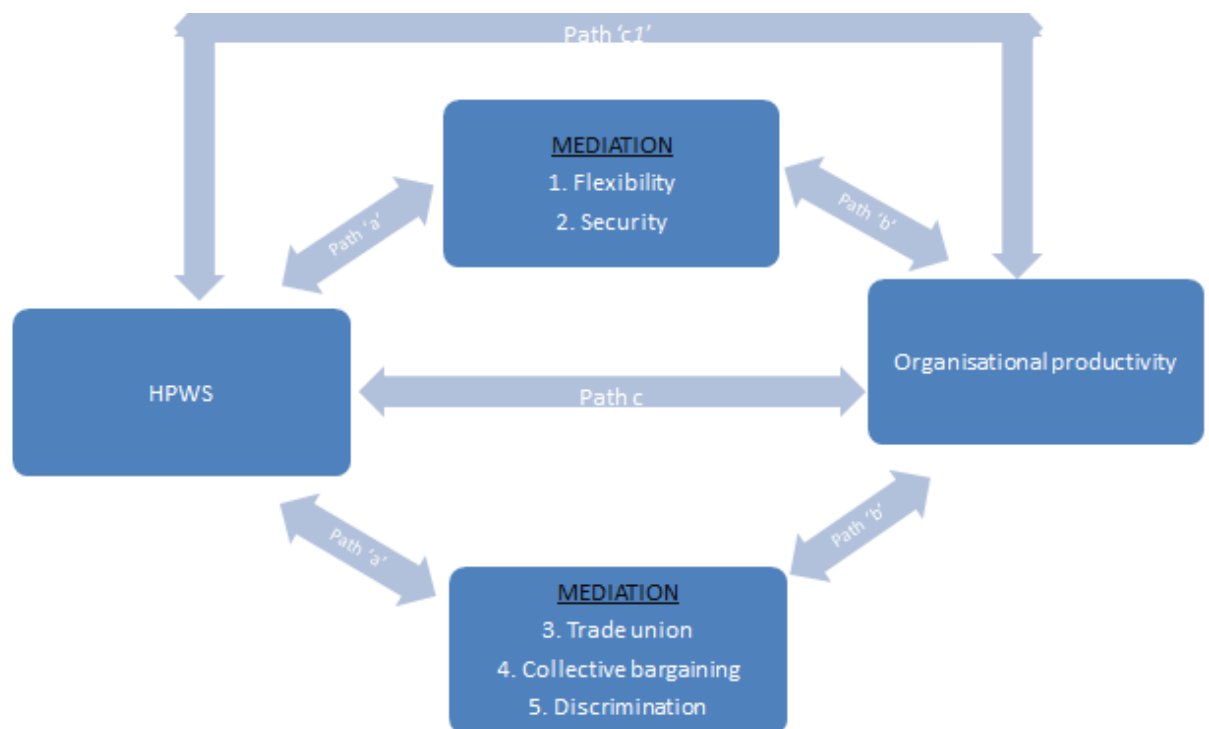


Figure 7.3 Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation paths in the hypothesised Conceptual Model of the study

Source: Researcher's construct (2014)

According to Howell (2013:547), 'Baron and Kenny's (1986) final step consists of demonstrating that when the mediator and independent variables are used simultaneously to predict the dependent variable, the previously significant path between the independent and dependent variables (path c) is now greatly reduced, if not nonsignificant'. There is perfect mediation when the independent variable 'has no effect when the mediator is controlled' (Baron and Kenny 1986:1177). When the independent variable still maintains its significance, then the Sobel (1982) test is used to further test for the mediating role. In this study, the Sobel test was used to confirm or disconfirm all the hypotheses.

Sobel (1982) test tells us whether to reject or accept the hypothesis. Using Baron and Kenny's (1986) model for mediation, the Sobel test is used to confirm the mediation after the Baron and Kenny's model fails to give a clear mediation role. This is where the independent variable maintains a significant relationship with the dependent variable after the mediator variable has been introduced in the regression. The Sobel test accepts a hypothesis when it is proven that the full path (from independent variable to mediator to dependent variable) is shown to have a significant beta (β) and a $p \leq 0.05$. Throughout this study the interactive software on quantpsy.org for computing the Sobel test was used to calculate the test statistics and the p-value.

To quantify the effect size of the indirect effects in the mediation hypotheses, and to know the practical importance of the effect size (Kirk, 1996), two effects measures were adopted – the completely standardised Indirect effect and the proportion of the total effect. This was in line with Preacher and Kelly (2011) suggestion to report multiple effect size as this yields greater understanding of the effect. The effect size was interpreted based on Cohen's guidelines. Cohen (1988:79-81) suggests the following guidelines for determining the strength of relationship (β) thus: β is small where $r=0.10$ to 0.29 , medium, where $r=0.30$ to 0.49 , and large where $r=0.50$ to 1.0 .

7.5.1 H1: Organisational Productivity Is the Direct Results of the HPWS in Place in an Organization

To test the above hypothesis, a hierarchical linear regression was conducted to predict organisational productivity from HPWS. Sector and size of organisation were controlled in the model as these can have influence on the HR practices (HPWS) and the level of organisational

productivity. The analysis revealed that HPWS predicted organisational productivity, $r^2 = 0.22$, $F(3, 97) = 9.35$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = 0.45$. The standardized and unstandardized regression equations are reported in table 7:0:3 below in model 1. The type of sector and the size of organisation as control variables accounted for 2.0% of the total variance in organisational productivity. HPWS explained the additional 20% of the variance in organisational productivity. The regression was statistically significant ($p < .01$) satisfying the first condition for mediation according to Baron and Kenny (1986). The hypothesis was therefore supported.

Table 7:0:3 Summary of Hierarchical Regression Results for path ‘a’ in hypotheses (H1-H6)

Variables	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5			Model 6		
	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	t
10. Intercept	1.16	0.55	2.12*	1.86	0.35	5.28	1.58	0.31	5.12**	1.72	0.47	3.70**	1.63	0.62	2.63**	3.67	0.47	7.80**
11. Sector	-0.10	0.05	-2.18*	0.02	0.03	0.73	0.05	0.03	1.93	0.08	0.04	2.12*	-0.06	0.05	-1.15	0.04	0.04	1.09
12. Size of organisation	-0.00	0.05	-0.06	-0.02	0.03	-0.70	-0.02	0.03	-0.62	-0.02	0.04	-0.60	0.01	0.05	0.22	0.00	0.04	0.07
13. HPWS	0.76	0.15	5.00**	0.32	0.10	3.23**	0.45	0.09	5.24**	0.33	0.13	2.55**	0.51	0.17	2.96**	-0.31	0.13	-2.43**
14. R ²		0.22			0.11			0.26			0.12			0.90			0.07	
15. R ² Δ		0.20			0.10			0.21			0.06			0.08			0.06	
16. F for change in R ²		24.95**			10.44**			27.49**			6.50**			8.74**			5.87	

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

*. Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

N=104

a. Model 1 - Dependent Variable: Organisational Productivity (df:(3,97)=9.35)

b. Model 2 – Dependent Variable: Flexibility (df(3,97)=4.05)

c. Model 3 – Dependent Variable: Security (df:3, 97)=11.31

d. Model 4 – Dependent Variable: Trade Union (df:3, 91)=4.16

e. Model 5 – Dependent Variable: Collective Bargaining (df:3, 96)=3.17

f. Model 6 – Dependent Variable: Discrimination (df= (3,98)=2.25)

Source: researcher’s field work (2014)

7.5.2 H2: Flexibility Will Mediate the Relationship between HPWS and Organizational Productivity

The study proposed mediating variables between HPWS and organisational productivity. The first of the mediating hypothesis was that flexibility as a form of change in the nature of work will mediate the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship. ‘To test for mediating variables, the commonly applied method requires three regression equations using ordinary least square (OLS) (e.g. Baron and Kenney, 1986)’ (Shaver, 2005:332). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the first step in mediation relations was to regress organisational productivity on HPWS to determine if any relationship exists. If B in the equation is statistically different from zero then the mediation can proceed. This has been satisfied in H1 above with B_1 being statistically different from zero. In this case, it was 0.22.

Having satisfied that HPWS significantly affect organisational productivity, the next step in mediation, according to Baron and Kenny (1986) was to conduct a hierarchical regression analysis with HPWS predicting flexibility to test the path ‘a’ in figure 7.3. From the hierarchical regression analysis, HPWS predicted flexibility with $r^2 = 0.11$, $F(3, 97) = 4.05$, $p < .01$ and $\beta = 0.31$ as shown in the table 7:0:3 above in model 2. The control variables (sector and size of organisation) contributed to 1% of the variance in flexibility while HPWS contributed 10% of the variance in flexibility. This was a significant contribution as indicated by the significant F change of 0.00.

The third step in mediation was a hierarchical regression analysis conducted with flexibility predicting organisational productivity to test the significance of path ‘b’ in the figure 7.3 above. From the analysis, flexibility was not a significant predictor of organisational productivity with $r^2 = 0.03$, $F(3, 98) = 1.14$, $p = 0.35$ as shown in the table 7:0:4 below (model

1). The control variables, size of organisation and sector of the organisation were also insignificant as well. The results confirm the results of the correlation presented in table 7:0:2 above. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), since flexibility was not associated with organisational productivity, flexibility cannot be a mediator in the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship. Thus the found relationship pattern between flexibility and organisational productivity is compatible with the absence of mediation. The study therefore concluded based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) model that it is not possible to conclude that flexibility is a mediating variable.

Having tested the three steps proposed by Baron and Kenny's (1989) mediation process, it was found that HPWS predicted flexibility, satisfying path 'a' of the mediation process. However, there was an insignificant relationship between flexibility and organisational. Thus path 'b' in the mediation process could not be satisfied. At this point, it seems intuitive that no further analysis should be carried out to justify mediation of flexibility on the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship.

Table 7:0:4Summary of Hierarchical Regression Results for path ‘b’ in hypotheses 2 -6 (H2-H6)

Variables	Model 1(H2)			Model 2 (H3)			Model 3(H4)			Model 4 (H5)			Model 5 (H6)		
	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	T	B	SE	T
1. Intercept	3.26	0.53	6.15**	2.24	0.57	3.96**	3.54	0.45	7.843**	2.42	0.35	6.82**	4.56	0.38	11.89**
2. Sector	-0.08	0.05	-1.63	-0.11	0.05	-2.16*	-0.09	0.05	-1.70	-0.06	0.05	-1.28	-0.07	0.05	-1.49
3. Size of organisation	-0.01	0.05	-0.18	-0.00	0.05	-0.06	-0.01	0.05	-0.25	-0.02	0.05	-0.32	-0.01	0.05	-0.26
4. Flexibility	0.15	0.17	0.95												
5. Security				0.48	0.17	2.81**									
6. Trade Union							0.10	0.14	0.69						
7. Collective Bargaining										0.39	0.09	4.39**			
8. Discrimination													-0.32	0.13	-2.56**
9. R ²		0.03			0.10			0.03			0.19			0.09	
10. R ² Δ		0.01			0.07			0.01			0.16			0.06	
11. F for change in R ²		0.90			7.88**			0.47			19.30**			6.56*	

** . Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Model 1-5 - Dependent Variable: Organisational Productivity

Values for B are unstandardized coefficients

N=104

Source: researcher's field work (2014)

Table 7:0:5 Summary of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for mediations between HPWS and Organisational Productivity for path c¹.

Variable	B	SE	T	R ²	R ² Δ	F for change in R ²
Model 1				0.03	0.03	1.24
Intercept	3.72	0.21	17.77**			
Sector	-0.08	0.05	-1.53			
Size of Organisation	-0.01	0.05	-0.26			
Model 2				0.22	0.20	24.95**
Intercept	1.16	0.55	2.12*			
Sector	-0.10	0.05	-2.18			
Size of Organisation	-0.00	0.05	-0.06			
HPWS	0.76	0.15	5.00**			
Model 3				0.23	0.20	12.52**
Intercept	1.31	0.62	2.11*			
Sector	-0.10	0.05	-2.13*			
Size of Organisation	-0.01	0.05	-0.10			
HPWS	0.79	0.16	4.89**			
Flexibility	-0.08	0.16	-0.53			
Model 4				0.23	0.20	12.70**
Intercept	0.94	0.62	1.53			
Sector	0.11	0.05	-2.28*			
Size of Organisation	0.00	0.05	-0.01			
HPWS	0.70	0.17	4.05**			
Security	0.14	0.18	0.75			
Model 5				0.23	0.20	11.73**
Intercept	1.23	0.61	2.08*			
Sector	-0.10	0.05	-1.94			
Size of Organisation	-0.00	0.05	-0.09			
HPWS	0.78	0.16	4.78**			
Trade Union	-0.06	0.13	-0.50			
Model 6				0.31	0.28	19.33**
Intercept	0.69	0.54	1.27			
Sector	-0.08	0.05	-1.87			
Size of Organisation	-0.01	0.04	-0.14			
HPWS	0.61	0.15	4.03**			
Collective Bargaining	0.29	0.09	3.36**			
Model 7				0.25	0.22	13.97**
Intercept	1.90	0.70	2.73			
Sector	-0.09	0.05	-2.04*			
Size of Organisation	-0.00	0.05	-0.11			
HPWS	0.70	0.16	4.49**			
Discrimination	0.20	0.12	-1.64			

** . Significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Model 1-5 - Dependent Variable: Organisational Productivity

Values for B are unstandardized coefficients

N=104

Source: researcher's field work (2014)

To further substantiate Baron and Kenny (1986)'s conclusion of non-mediation, the Sobel test was used. An interactive software on quantpsy.org for computing the Sobel test was employed.

‘To do this we need to know the regression coefficients and their standard errors for the two

paths (path ‘a’ and ‘b’) in the mediating chain’. For the Sobel test, the standard errors for paths HPWS to flexibility (a) and flexibility to Organisational Productivity (b) and beta (β) for the full path were calculated. The Sobel test revealed an insignificant indirect effect between HPWS and organisational productivity through flexibility. A test statistic of 0.85, standard error of 0.06 and $p=0.39$ was obtained confirming that H2 should be rejected.

Table 7:6 Sobel test results on test statistic, standard error and p-values for H2 –H3

Hypothesis	Test statistics	Standard error	p-value
H2	0.85	0.06	0.39
H3	2.46	0.09	0.01
H4	0.69	0.05	0.49
H5	2.47	0.08	0.01
H6	2.46	4.03	0.01

Source: researcher’s field work (2014)

7.5.3 H3: Security will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

Having satisfied the condition that a direct relationship exist between HPWS and organisational productivity, paths ‘a’ and ‘b’ in Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation were tested. A hierarchical regression for HPWS predicting security while controlling for size of organisation and sector, revealed that HPWS predicted security with $r^2 = 0.26$, $F(3, 97) = 11.31$, $p < 0.01$. It was found that HPWS significantly predicted security ($\beta = .46$, $p < 0.01$) as seen in table 7:0:3 (model 3).

A third regression for security predicting organisational productivity revealed $r^2 = 0.10$, $F(3, 98) = 3.52$, $p < 0.01$. It was found that security does predict organisational productivity ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = 0.00$) as in tables 7.31 (model 2). However, it was found that the control variables (sector and size of organisation) were not significant predictors of security in an organisation. Having established that relationships among the variables exist; a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted with HPWS and security predicting organisational productivity. From the analysis, the standardized coefficient (Beta) was reduced from 0.45 to 0.41 indicating a partial mediation (0.04) of security in the relationship between HPWS and organizational productivity. From the ANOVA the relationship still remained significant at $p < .001$ with $r^2 = 0.23$, $F(4, 96) = 7.12$ as shown in table 7:0:5above. This suggested a partial mediation. The hypothesis was therefore supported.

To further substantiate Baron and Kenny (1986)'s conclusion of mediation, the Sobel test was used. For the Sobel test like in H2, the standard errors for paths HPWS to Security (a) and Security to organisational productivity (b) and B for the full path were calculated as shown in table 7.33 above. From the Sobel test, a test statistic of 2.46 was obtained, and standard error of 0.09, $p = 0.01$ was obtained confirming that H3 should be accepted. Hence the hypothesis that employee security mediates the relationship between HPWS and organisation productivity was accepted.

To quantify the effect size of the mediation, the completely standardised indirect effect (CSIE) and the proportion of the total effect (PTE) were calculated. CSIE is calculated as $CSIE = \beta_a * \beta_b$, where β_a is the beta coefficient for path 'a' and β_b is the beta coefficient for path 'b'. From the regression analysis, $\beta_a = 0.46$ while $\beta_b = 0.28$ therefore the CSIE was 0.13. Per Cohen's guidelines, the size of the indirect effect of HPWS through security to organisational

productivity is small. The PTE is one of the most commonly used measures of effect size (MacKinnon and Dwyer, 1993). The PTE is calculated as: % mediated = indirect effect / total effect (ab/c). In this hypothesis, $ab = 0.13$, $c = 0.45$ thus the PTE is 29%. This means that 29% of the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity is mediated by security.

7.5.4 H4: Trade Union (TU) will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

Trade union (freedom of association) was the third mediating factor proposed in the study. Trade union was used as one of the factors to measure the labour standards in organisations in Ghana. To test the trade union as a mediator in the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship, a hierarchical regression analysis was employed. The first step in mediation has been established in H1 above. The second step in the mediation analysis was to predict trade union as a result of HPWS in the organisation to test path 'a' in Baron and Kenny's (1986) model. From the analysis, it was revealed that $r^2 = 0.12$, $F(3, 91) = 4.16$, $p = 0.01$. These are shown in table 7:0:3 (model 4). From the results of the analysis, conditions for path 'a' were established in H4 with HPWS as a predictor of trade unions.

From the above results, the third regression of trade union predicting organisational productivity for path 'b' was undertaken. The results are shown in table 7:0:4 (model 3) above. The third regression revealed that $r^2 = 0.12$, $F(3, 91) = 0.93$, $p = 0.43$. Thus trade union did not statistically predict organisational productivity and hence conditions for path 'b' could not be satisfied for mediation to progress (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

To further establish that trade union cannot be a mediator in the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship, a hierarchical regression was carried out which revealed in table 7:0:5 (model 5) that the model was statistically significant at $p = 0.00$ with $r^2 = 0.23$, $F(4, 90) = 6.58$ and a beta = 0.46. The mediation suggested in the hierarchical regression above was

further tested for significance using the Sobel test. From the Sobel test, trade union as a mediator in the HPWS-organisational productivity was statistically insignificant. The test statistics were 0.69, SE=0.05 and p-value=0.50. From this found relationship pattern, it was not possible to conclude that trade union is a mediator in the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship. H4 was therefore not supported.

7.5.5 H5: Collective Bargaining will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

Similar to the other hypothesis in H2, H3, and H4, the first condition for mediation has been satisfied in H1. The second condition was therefore tested using a hierarchical regression with HPWS as the predictor and collective bargaining as the dependent, holding sector and size of the organisation as constant. The results of the analysis are shown in table 7:0:3 (model 5). The analysis revealed $r^2=0.09$, $F(3, 96) = 3.17$, $\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$. The model as a whole explained 9% of the variance in organisational productivity.

The third condition was a regression of organisational productivity on collective bargaining, still holding sector and size of organisation constant. Results, shown in table 7:0:4 (model 4) of the regression revealed that $r^2=0.19$, $F(3, 96) = 7.41$, $\beta = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$. With mediation conditions satisfied, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted (see table 7:0:5 model 6) with collective bargaining and HPWS predicting Organisational productivity. The results revealed $r^2=0.31$, $F(4, 95) = 10.51$, $p < 0.01$ as presented in table 7:0:5 above (model 6). The results showed a change in the β from 0.45 to 0.36 indicating a decrease of 9% (0.09) in the variance in organizational productivity when collective bargaining is mediating the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship.

Since HPWS still maintained its significance in the hierarchical multiple regression, the Sobel test was calculated to test the significance of the mediation. Results of the Sobel test, presented in table 7.33 above, revealed t statistics of 2.47, standard error of 0.08 and a p -value of 0.00. Based on the figures obtained, it was concluded that empirical evidence are compatible with the mediation hypothesis that collective bargaining mediate the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship. H5 was therefore supported.

To analyse the effect size, the CSIE and the PTE were calculated. The β_a was 0.29, β_b was 0.41, CSIE was 0.12 which per Cohen's guidelines is a small size. This means that the indirect effect of collective bargaining on the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship is small. The PTE was 27% implying that collective bargaining as a voice explained 27% of the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity.

7.5.6 H6: Discrimination will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

The last hypothesis for the study was discrimination as an anti ILO core standard mediating in the HPWS - organisational productivity relationship. Following Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure, the direct relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity has already been established in H1. To test for path 'a', a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted on HPWS as a predictor and discrimination as the dependent, while controlling for the economy sectors and size of organisation. The results of the analysis are shown in table 7.0:3 (model 6). The results revealed that $r^2=0.07$, $F(3, 98) = 2.25$, $p=0.02$ with a $\beta = -0.24$ satisfying the conditions for path 'a' in figure 7.3. There was a negative relationship between discrimination and HPWS (-0.24).

With the second condition satisfied, the third regression was run to determine whether a significant relationship exist between discrimination and organisational productivity (path 'b' in figure 7.3). The results of the analysis are presented in table 7:0:4 (model 5). It was revealed that $r^2=0.09$, $F(3, 99) = 3.23$, $p=0.01$, $\beta = -0.25$, implying that discrimination in organisations explained 25% of the decrease in organisational productivity. From the results, as contrary to what was argued for the hypothesis, discrimination was inversely related to organisational productivity.

With all conditions from Baron and Kenny (1986) satisfied, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was undertaken on all three variables revealing a change in β from 0.45 to 0.41 (table 7:0:5 model 7) indicating a decrease of 4% in the variance of organisational productivity as a result of discrimination partially mediating the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. There was a good model fit with $r^2 = 0.25$, $F(4, 97) = 7.91$, $p < 0.01$. The p-value for the hierarchical regression was significant and thus required the use of the Sobel test to confirm the mediation from the hierarchical regression. From the results presented in table 7.33, the test statistic was 2.41 with a standard error of 4.03 and a p-value of 0.01. With a significant p-value obtained, H6 was thus accepted.

Since the mediation was significant, the size of the indirect effect of discrimination on the HPWS – organisational productivity was calculated. The β_a was -0.24, and β_b was -0.25 therefore the CSIE was 0.06 which is less than the range (0.10 – 0.29) classified by Cohen as small. The PTE was 14% implying that discrimination accounted for 13% of the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship.

7.8 Summary of Analysis

Data collected through structured questionnaires were tested for parametric analysis. Having met all the conditions for parametric test, the data was aggregated from the individual level to the organisational level in order to test the organisational model proposed for this study. In all, six hypotheses were tested using the Baron and Kenny's (1986) steps for mediation. According to Baron et al., (1986), in testing for mediations as in the case of the six hypotheses in this study, the p-value should be insignificant. In other words when the independent and the mediator variables are used to simultaneously predict the dependent value, the previously significant independent variable should be insignificant. In cases where the independent variable is still significant, the Sobel (1982) test should be used to confirm the mediation. In all the six hypotheses tested, two did not meet the recommended criteria for mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986). These were further proved with the Sobel test which reported an insignificant p-value. The other hypothesis which met the criteria for mediation reported significant p-values for the independent variables in the mediation except hypothesis six. Thus the Sobel test was used to confirm the proposed mediations. From the Sobel test, these three other hypotheses on mediation (hypothesis 3, hypothesis 5 and hypothesis 6) were supported. In conclusion, the data helped to address the objectives on: mediation of labour standards on HRM and organisational productivity and the mediation of nature of work on HRM and organisational productivity.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings from the questionnaires and interview data presented in Chapters Six and Seven as well as secondary data from documented sources like the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) and the 1992 Constitution of Ghana. The study undertook an investigation into the labour standards and work patterns using the AMO as a theoretical basis. In all five objectives were raised. These were to:

1. identify the key changes in the nature of work by sectors of the Ghanaian economy
2. examine the state of labour standards in organisations in Ghana
3. assess the effectiveness of the nature of work on HRM practices and organisational productivity in Ghana
4. analyse the mediation effect of labour standards on the HRM practices and organisational productivity in Ghana.

Investigation into the labour standards was based on three core ILO labour standards - freedom of association, collective bargaining and prevention of discrimination at the organisational level. The nature of work, on the other hand, was based on four dimensions of flexibility and four dimensions of security of work using the flexicurity model. From the AMO theory, High Performance Work Practices (HPWS) was identified as creating abilities, motivation and opportunities through labour standards and the pattern of work to impact on organisational productivity.

This chapter discusses the research findings beginning with a general discussion on the key changes in the nature of work followed by a discussion on the state of the three labour standards. The effectiveness of major laws in Ghana with regards to the labour standard is discussed. The effectiveness of the law is largely based on documentary analysis of the relevant parts of the 1992 Constitution and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) and the findings of this research. The chapter ends with a discussion on flexibility, security, freedom of association, collective bargaining and discrimination as mediators of the HPWS and Organisational productivity relationship.

8.2 Discussion of the Key changes in the nature of work

This study as part of its objectives sought to investigate the nature of work from the key changes happening at the workplace. To this end, two dynamic aspects of work were examined. These were flexibility and security at the workplace. These were assessed in the questionnaire as well as through the interviews conducted. The two dynamic aspects of work are discussed below.

8.2.1 Key Changes in Flexibility in Organisations

Organisations in the 21st century in their bid to remain competitive and agile to changes within its environment have introduced flexible work practices. These flexible practices according to literature are functional, internal numerical, external numerical and Labour cost flexibilities. Functional flexibility is about training and developing workers to equip them with multiple skills for various jobs. Numerical flexibility has two sub dimensions – internal and external numerical flexibilities. While internal numerical is about adapting the working time to suit the circumstantial needs of the organisation, external numerical is about facilities in hiring and

sacking workers. The last type of flexibility is the labour cost or pay flexibility which is about adapting salaries to market conditions and individual productivity.

From the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire, practices of flexibility were generally high having a mean range between 2.53 and 3.40. The primary and quaternary sectors, from the questionnaire, recorded 88% of the respondents as permanent full time workers with only 12% of the respondents as part time, temporary and casual workers. The secondary and tertiary sectors recorded 25% of the respondents as part time, temporary and casual workers. These part time, temporary and casual workers formed the non-core workers and provided the organisations with numerical flexibility. This finding reveals that though internal numerical flexibility is practiced, the use of full time permanent worker is still popular across sectors.

The interviews supported the questionnaires' findings where interviewees emphasised that majority of the workers were full time but the use of contract and outsourced workers was on the increase. For instance, in the tertiary sector, from the banking industry, interviewees confirmed that banks normally use agency (outsourced workers) and temporary workers alongside the full time permanent workers. Functions that were outsourced in the banks were mostly direct sale work, cashiering, cleaning and security.

The use of outsourcing, also referred to as external employment (Leak, Takeuchi and Snell, 2003) enhances flexibility to assess and utilise human capital (Pearce, 1998; Tzu et al., 1995) and thus enhances organisational performance. However, one banker noted in an interview that the turnover rates among the non-core workers especially the outsourced workers were high. This was because the non-core workers stayed with the organisations temporary till they had permanent employment elsewhere. This suggests that the non-core workers do not actually

wish to be non-core but due to circumstances like the high rate of unemployment in the country, they are forced to take such status. In a review of literature, it was found that this is a common occurrence. In Spain, Gull (2003) revealed that ‘during the period 1987-1994 the use of temporary contracts was involuntary for around 89% of workers. Temporary workers reported that they took on temporary jobs because they could not find a permanent one.

The findings from the interviews and descriptive analysis of the questionnaires suggested that organisations used permanent and non-permanent workers simultaneously (Davis-Blake and Uzzi, 1993; Matusik and Hill, 1998; Guest, 2003). This is consistent with research works that found multiple employment sub-system existing within organisations (Baron, Davis-Blake and Bielby, 1986; Pinfield and Berner, 1994). Researchers distinguish between employment on the basis of being standard or full-time employment or non-standard employment (e.g. part time, temporary, contract, casual) (Kalleberg et al., 2000).

It was also noted in the questionnaire that permanent workers could not easily be fired unless on the basis of gross misconduct. In assessing the use of external flexibility, the quaternary sector reported a low use of this type of flexibility while majority of the respondents in the other sectors reported a high use of external flexibility. This was confirmed in the interviews as well. However, interviewees were quick to point out that part time, temporary and outsourced workers did not have this protection as they were easily laid off. Commenting on how an outsourced worker could be laid off, one interviewee from the banking sub-sector noted that the inability of an outsourced worker to meet targets for three consecutive months led to termination of the workers contract.

Other non-permanent workers equally did not have the employment protection enjoyed by permanent workers. Thus organisation's external flexibility was very high for non-permanent workers than for permanent workers. Organisations have different approaches with these sub-systems emphasising either a long-term, relational approach or a short-term, task-oriented approach for their internal and external workers. Lepak et al., (1999, 2002, and 2003) conclude that organisations are more likely to train and develop knowledge base worker than the other types of employment arrangement.

It was also noted from the quantitative data from the questionnaire that workers recorded high means on the use of functional flexibility by their organisations. Workers agreed that organisations undertake constant training and development activities for workers which allowed the organisations the flexibility of easily moving workers across positions. This was confirmed across all sectors of the economy. There were however mixed findings from the interviews. For instance, a similar scenario was found in the farming and mining sub-sectors, where trained workers moved often from section to section doing various jobs.

The case in the sachet water companies was quite different. The workers, mostly packers reported that they depended on their experiences from working for other sachet water companies to meet production targets. However, the supervisors in the sachet water producing companies reported that they were given frequent training on the functioning of various aspects of the company. A similar case was reported in the filling stations where fuel attendants reported limited training and asserted that they only took up other jobs within their department and not across department. This practice is in line with von Hippel et al., (1997) suggestion that organisations should cut costs through the increasing use of flexibility and minimum investment in training and development of temporary workers.

In organisations where training were frequently offered to workers, and workers on that basis could be used in other job within the organisation, provides resource flexibility (Lepak, Takeuchi and Snell, 2003). According to Lepak et al., (2003) such organisations are able to apply the human resources to a large range of alternative uses. In addition, the switching cost (labour cost) as well as time required to switch from one use to the other is greatly reduced hence cutting down on cost which saves capital for production.

From the questionnaire, limited labour cost flexibility was revealed except in the quaternary sector where a high respondent perceived labour cost usage in the sector. This was not surprising as majority of the respondents were full time permanent workers whose pay was not variable. In the interviews however, labour cost flexibility for organisations was noted where workers revealed that permanent workers were paid more than the non-permanent workers. In one bank, a permanent respondent reported that the salaries of permanent workers were fixed for the month while that of outsourced workers on the other hand were paid based on their ability to meet targets.

One interviewee from a private bank revealed that there was no base pay for outsourced Direct Sales workers. Thus a Direct Sales' worker's inability to meet monthly targets in this particular bank meant no salary for the worker for that month. This was quite similar to another private bank where interviewees reported that the Direct Sales workers had a base pay and rather high targets to meet monthly.

The above finding on variable pay for outsourced workers and the use of payment by results (PBR) to save on labour cost is consistent with suggestions that organisations that buy abilities (agency workers) through external flexibility find it relatively easy to lay off these workers.

This creates opportunities for organisations to further save cost on labour, thus, increasing efficiency and competitive advantage (van der Meer and Ringdal, 2009).

In the sachet producing companies, the packers, who referred to themselves as baggers, were paid per the number of bags packed during a shift. One bagger reported that *'they (management) pay us GhC3.50 for every 100 bags of sachet water that we bag. I am able to bag 500 bags of sachet water per a 12 hour shift which give me GhC17.50 per shift'*. This finding of tying pay to productivity was evident across all the sachet water organisations sampled. Thus, these organisations did not have a fixed pay for every workers. The wages of workers varied, depending on individual's level of productivity.

In general, the questionnaire and the interviews provided support for the use of all four dimensions of flexibilities. Organisations made use of internal numerical flexibility through maintaining a permanent workforce supported by a peripheral workforce mainly, outsourced, part time and contract workers. Functional flexibility was practised for the permanent workforce while external numerical flexibility was high for the peripheral (non-core) workers. Lastly, labour cost flexibility was achieved through saving cost on labour through the use of payment by results.

8.2.2 Key Changes in Workers Security

The other aspect of nature of work assessed in this study was workers' security. According to literature, there are four security modalities. These are job security, income security, employability and combined (work-life balance) security. Job security is the probability of keeping one's present job. Income security is the ability to keep a relatively stable income. Employability on the other hand is the probability of being employed though not necessarily in

the same job. The last modality is combined security which is about balancing one's job and other aspects of life like family and studies.

From the questionnaire, 29%, 45%, 16%, 70% and 73% of the respondents from the farming, manufacturing, retailing, government agencies and education sub sectors respectively, perceived they had work security. The highest perceptions of security were from the educational sub-sector and the government agencies while the lowest perception was from the retailing sub-sector recording 84% low security. From the interviews, it was found that generally, permanent workers enjoyed relatively high levels of work security than non-permanent workers.

The findings for the dimensions of work security showed a similar pattern. From the survey, most workers who reported being permanent also reported having high job security. Workers with atypical forms of work perceived that they could easily lose their jobs. From the various sectors, the tertiary sector recorded the highest level of job insecurity followed by the quaternary, primary and secondary sectors respectively. In all 51% of the total respondents in the survey reported that they could easily be made redundant depending on the organisational needs. This is consistent with Levine and Tyson, (1990) who noted that job insecurity is an associated 'risk' of practices like HPWS that increases efficiency and decreases the demand for labour.

However, from the interviews, permanent workers across various sectors were confident about their job security. This category of workers perceived job security unless in the instance of gross misconduct which varied across sectors. This was consistent with the findings of (Cornelißen, 2007) using countries in Western Europe and Central and Eastern Europe. It was

suggested that employees from some Western Europe in particular Austria and Denmark, report very high satisfaction with job security (subjective security) while rating the actual security of their jobs not particularly high (objective security).

This was however, not the case for non-permanent worker. For example, one interviewee from the bank reported that the security of non-permanent workers in the banking sector depended on their ability to consistently achieve targets. He revealed that the inability of an outsourced worker to meet targets for three consecutive months led to the termination of the workers contract. In one construction firm, over three hundred non-permanent workers had been made redundant the previous week. This was relatively easy for the firm because these workers were non-permanent. Notwithstanding this, Vlandas (2013) suggests replaceability of permanent workers will be higher where permanent workers' skills are general.

The job security / insecurity of these workers directly related to their employment status which also determined their income security. From the survey, it was found that the primary sector had the highest income security followed by the quaternary, tertiary, and secondary sectors. In all 47% of the workers believed that their income is likely to be unstable and uncertain as against 28% of respondents who believe their income will be stable and certain. On the other hand, from the interviews, it came out that income security was assured for monthly salaried (permanent) workers who were confident of receiving their monthly pay and possibly increment depending on the financial performance of their organisations.

Non-permanent workers' income security depended on their ability to meet targets and on the organisation's willingness to keep them. It was found that the income security of workers depended on their job security. This is because, with no set up unemployment benefits, work is

the main source of livelihood for these workers. This finding corroborates findings that the concept of flexibility (use of non-permanent workers) is primarily driven by employer preferences (Goldin and Applebaum, 1992; Burchell et al., 1999) and leads to decreasing job security (Cappelli, 1995) and a sense of marginalisation (Beck, 2000).

Having assessed job and income security, the employability dimension of security for workers was assessed. It was revealed from the questionnaire that workers were confident of their skills and ability to be re-employed in instances of losing their jobs. From the interviews, it was found that employability was assured more for permanent than for non-permanent workers. This was largely because permanent workers had frequent training and development programmes. Thus permanent workers were relatively more employable and could ‘achieve higher quality reemployment’ (Fugate et al., 2004) than non-permanent workers.

Manual non-permanent workers however, had confidence that they had the skills to be employable elsewhere should they lose their current jobs. They were nonetheless sceptical, though, of finding other opportunities in face of the high unemployment situation in the country. This has been acknowledged in the International Labour Conference (ILC) report which quoted that the limited security that non-permanent workers enjoy is very ‘fragile and losing a job poses a high risk of not being able to find anything comparable’ (ILC, 2006).

Another aspect of employability was found in the interviews where it was realised that workers in offices rather than manual jobs, took on self-development. This was in the form of acquiring professional and other university education on part time basis in order to remain employable. The last dimension of security – work-life balance – was assessed to know whether workers had enough time for other aspects of life like family. The notion of “balance” has been defined

as harmony or equilibrium between work and family domains (Clarke, Koch and Hill 2004; Comer and Stites-Doe 2006). Other researches argue that the family role is only one of the many life roles of an individual (Carlson et al, 2006). Researchers use the term work 'family' balance to describe the relationship between work and non-work life roles (Yuile, Chang, Gudmundsson and Sukanlaya, 2012).

From the questionnaire, less than half of the respondents (47% and 41%) believed their work allowed them time to have time for their families and undertake studies respectively. This means that majority of workers did not have work life balance. From the interviews, work-life balance was an issue for both permanent and non-permanent workers. Workers are currently having to spend more time at work or on work related activities than any other aspect of their life. From the interviews, fuel attendants reported working a 24 hour shift before getting 24 hours off. In an interview with a 'vulcaniser' at a filling station, he reported that he worked six days each week with one day off without overtime payment. He asserted that it was the requirement of his job and that he either takes it or leave the job. The workers thus did not have any control over working time. In the construction sector, workers did not mind working more hours as they were paid by the day and this meant a little top up for their daily pay.

Workers at the bank complained of having to work long hours even after the close of business to balance transactions and prepare reports daily. One informant from a bank noted that

'my workload has increased.... Sometimes I sit in the office till about 11 pm. There are certain queries I have to answer before 12 am every day. My work takes up my life'.

From literature, prolonged exposure to demands such as long work hours leads to emotional exhaustion and burnout (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993). Burnout is increasingly considered as an erosion of a positive psychological state (Leiter and Maslach, 2009). Prolonged work hour

coupled with the increased workload schedules reported by interviewees can lead to work-life imbalanced. Workers not having work life balance has been associated with negative consequences for both individuals and organisations. At the individual level, lack of balance between work and other aspects of life have been associated with stress(Kahn and Byosiene, 1992), work-family conflict (Byron, 2005), divorce (Svarer, 2006) and poor physical health (Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, 2006). At the organisational level this leads to decrease lack of commitment and output.

A number of studies have recommended the use of employee centred flexible work practices such as job sharing, part-time work, flexible work hours and compressed weeks in supporting work-life balance (Bambra et al. 2008; Harris et al. 2010; Maher, Lindsay and Bardoel 2010).These employee centred-flexible practices give workers control over working time. Berg et al. (2004) linked control over working time to organisational performance through employee wellbeing. Dockery (2005) supports this, suggesting that employee discretion over work scheduling promotes personal control which is one of the nine primary features required in a job to promote happiness (Warr, 2007).This is because these employee-centred work flexibilities have been known to reduce the negative spill over between work and non-work life. A positive effect has been found on employee productivity, job satisfaction and satisfaction with work schedule, and reduced employee absenteeism (Baltes et. al., 1999; Burud and Tumolo, 2004).

In summary this study found limited job security, income security and work-life balance. From literature two dimensions for subjective job insecurity - (1) the probability of a job loss, and (2) the consequences or costs of a job loss are proposed. ‘This implies that even if the probability of a job loss is high, workers can be satisfied with their job security if the consequences of a

job loss are not so severe (Klandermans and Van Vuuren, 1999; Clark and Postel-Vinay 2005, OECD 1997). This implies that satisfaction with job security is not only influenced by actual provisions that prevent people from losing their jobs (e.g. employment protection legislation), but also by arrangements that support workers after a job loss by giving income support and assistance in finding a new job (e.g. passive and active labour market policies) (Cornelißen, 2007). This is the basis of the flexicurity model assuming that there is a positive trade-off between flexibility and security in places like Denmark. The reverse is true in developing countries like Ghana, with less employment protection and no supporting arrangements for workers after job loss. In such instance, job and income security or insecurity are positively related. That is when subjective job insecurity increases, subjective income insecurity increases, *ceteris parabus*.

8.3 Discussion of the state of labour standards in organisations

This study as part of its objectives sought to uncover the state of labour standards in organisations across various sectors. There were three main labour standards as focus in this study. These were freedom of association (trade union), collective bargaining and prevention of discrimination at the workplace. These variables were measured through structured questionnaire and interviews. The findings to this objective of the study will be discussed per each labour standard used in the study.

8.3.1 State of Freedom of Association in Organisations

The fundamental premise of a sound employment relations system is the recognition and existence of the freedom of association accorded to both employers and workers. This freedom should include recognition of organisations of workers and employers as autonomous,

independent bodies, subject neither to their domination by each other or by the government. This study looked at the organisations of workers.

From the questionnaires distributed to 1890 workers across four main sectors and one hundred and four organisations, a reasonably number of respondents (47%) agreed that management accepted and recognised the freedom of association in their various organisations. Over 50% of the respondents also indicated that most workers were part of the union in their organisations. This freedom of association questions had above average responses for all the questions raised except one. This one question was about temporary and part time workers enjoying this freedom of association. Majority of the respondents forming 52% disagreed that this group of workers are allowed the freedom of association. This was further confirmed through findings from the focus group interviews conducted across six sectors.

From the interviews gathered, non-permanent workers, part time and other employment contracts, apart from permanent core workers, were not allowed to form or join unions. The above finding is inconsistent with findings in advanced countries where the union membership of standard full-time workers was falling and that of atypical (such as part-time jobs, fixed-term contracts or temporary agency jobs) has been on the rise (Ebbinghaus, 2006; Visser, 2006). This prevention of casual and temporary workers from joining or forming unions is a sheer management tactic to reduce labour cost since unionisation has been associated with higher wages (Adu-Amankwah and Tutu, 1997; Baah and Akorsu, 2007).

The finding is however consistent with conclusions by Bronfenbrenner et al (1998:5) who observed that ‘unions themselves bear significant responsibility for their own decline.’ Unions, put few resources into organising at the workplace (Bronfenbrenner et al 1998;

Bronfrenbrenner 2003; Fletcher and Hurd 1998; Danford, Richardson and Upchurch 2003; Schenk 2003; Peetz 2006) such that unions left ‘whole sectors of the economy... untouched by union activity’ (Bronfrenbrenner et al 1998). Unions are thus culpable for the non-inclusion of part time and temporary workers as well as other non-permanent workers. From the interviews conducted, one construction worker called the union ‘a toothless bull dog’ – they have no teeth to bit.

Another finding in organisations where unions were recognised was that union membership was automatic for permanent workers. The permanent workers did not have the right to decide whether to join or not as the decision to join is taken away from them. Union dues are automatically deducted at source and that makes one an automatic member of the union in that organisation. This is a contradiction to the ILO freedom of association convention and the provisions of article 79 (1) the Ghana Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) which grants workers the right to form or join unions. This means that workers can also opt out of the union as part of the exercise of their freedom.

It was also revealed that freedom of association, while allowed in the public sector, is much restricted in the private sector. Workers in the private sector were not able to enforce this right because of fear of being fired. From the workers that were interviewed it was realised the most private organisations did not have unions or any employee association of any kind. The best case scenario was normally the presence of a person that collected monies for welfare purposes. In a pharmaceutical company, a worker remarked that any worker that served as a leader to the employees was deemed by the management as a troublesome person. One worker interviewed at a private bank responded to a question on whether workers in the bank are allowed to form union thus:

‘We don’t have unions in our banks. It is not allowed. Per the bank’s policies, it’s not allowed. Even welfare for the branch level has been cancelled. They learnt from (another bank)’.

The respondent referred to another bank which has a union and claimed that unions agitate a lot and so his bank has made it a policy not to allow the formation of unions or any form of associations. The consequences of any attempt at an association of workers results in workers being ‘kicked out’.

“Management will find a way to kick you out should you try to form a front” – a male banker.

This corroborates the conclusion that trade union has generally been perceived as a power response to managerial authority’ (Miller and Form 1969: 368). In essence, the prevention of associations is a clear breach of the ILO convention No. 87 (1948) which postulates that workers and employees, without distinction whatsoever, have the right to establish and to join organisations of their own choosing with a view to defending their respective interests. Ghana has ratified this convention.

The Ghana Labour Act 2003, Act 651 article 79(1) also notes that every worker has the right to form or join a trade union of his or her choice for the promotion and protection of the workers economic and social gains. According to article 63 (1)(2) of the Ghana Labour Act 2003 (Act 651), employment of a worker shall not be unfairly terminated by the employer on grounds of taking part in activities of a union or acting in a capacity of a workers’ representative. Knowing this article in the Labour Act, employers outwit the act by using any other excuse to terminate the employment contracts of workers who try to engage in unionisation. This undermines the

regulatory function of the law as one of providing a set of rules governing the terms and conditions of employment.

The notion that unions are created to cause disruption at the workplace as revealed through the focus group interview has been viewed differently by Tannenbaum (1951). He attributes the emergence of trade unions to the drive on the part of the workers to create a collectivity similar to the medieval guilds. He believes industrialisation has alienated the worker from his job and from society. Workers thus, attempt to create a community (labour unions) in the work place in an attempt to minimise loss of security. It has been established through the 'exit-voice' hypothesis that unions provide the platform for workers to voice out their discontent instead of quitting the organisation (Hirschman, 1970).

It was also realised, through the focus group interviews that, management deliberately used some HR practices like involvement and participation, open door policies, open forums and good communication to indirectly prevent workers from forming or joining unions. The practice of open forums seemed to be most common among the interviewed organisations. Those in the blue-collar jobs however did not see the need for this practice because no efforts were made to rectify the problems raised. These HR practices which indirectly or directly prevents the formation of unions are unitarist forms of management which sees the workforce as 'one big happy family' and thus does not see the need for unions, in such unitarist views, unions are seen as unnecessary and a distraction at the workplace.

The former Minister for Employment noted that there may be some human resources practices that undermine labour standards mostly due to lack of knowledge and the attitude of the trade

unions. Some of the unions use attacking, intimidating, threatening and aggressive approaches at the work place and this put off the Human Resources people. He remarked thus:

“With that nobody would want to have trade union in their organization and the workers are afraid to form a union”.

However, he noted that the law empowers everybody to form or join a union no matter the form of employment. *“...anybody and everybody can form a union...”*

Advocates of a union free environment argue that unions are more of organisational watchdog groups whose principal aim is to collect dues and hold back progress in the workplace by injecting bureaucratic values (Persaud, 2011). Other critics assert that unions are irrelevant today and destructive to the economy (CAPAF, 2011). For example, available data indicate that between 1980 and 2003, Ghana registered a total of 479 unions (Ghana Trade Union Congress Policy Bulletin, 2006). However, unions have also been associated with positive relationships at the workplace. For example Brown and Medoff (1978) argue that ‘unions can raise productivity by inducing managers to adopt more efficient production methods and policies, and providing better communication channels between workers and management’.

8.3.2 State of Collective Bargaining in Organisations

Collective bargaining involves negotiations between two or three parties to determine substantive rules (compensation and benefits) and procedural rules e.g. grievance and disciplinary procedures within the framework of the employment relations. Flaunders (1970) defined collective bargaining as a social process that ‘continually turns disagreements into agreements in an orderly fashion’. Historically, trade unions have been thought of as “employees’ voice” that is always on the negotiating table with Management. The ILO convention number 98 guarantees the right to bargain collectively. This convention has been

ratified by Ghana and incorporated into the Labour Act which governs the employment relations in Ghana. The Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) provides a trade union with the right to enter into a collective bargaining with the workers employers. However, employers are under no obligation to collectively bargain with unions that do not have collective bargaining certificates.

This study sought to find the perception of workers on the state of collective bargaining in various organisations, whether workers are allowed this freedom or it is denied. From the questionnaires distributed to workers, only 38% of the respondents agreed that there was collective bargaining in their organisation. Out of this percentage, majority of the workers believed that their representatives could not speak up for change in how work is done. This was confirmed in an interview with workers. In other organisations where unions are in existence, like the construction sector, workers confirmed that management accepted and recognised the unions during collective bargaining.

From the focus group interviews with workers, there were mixed findings on collective bargaining. In some organisations where union formation was barred, the organisations had boards of representative comprising of workers, management and the board of directors. This board decided on issues like increment in remuneration and others issues that bordered on labour management. Commenting on such collective bargaining arrangement, a worker was quoted as saying:

'even though they (representatives) are formal within the bank, I don't even know my representative for me to approach him/her with my concerns....I do not have an idea who appoints the representative or when they meet... The organisation sends a communiqué that due to the performance of last year, the board has decided to blablablabla.....'

This form of voice from the banker quoted above was an ineffective way of communication. Management decided and made known to employees the decisions taken. This formal representation, though is supposed to grant the workers voice, rather silence workers. The above case of non-union representative of management and employees to consider labour issues of mutual interest is normally referred to in the European Countries as works councils or 'employer-sponsored structures' (Gollan, 2002). These work councils are supposed to provide voice at the organisational level for workers. With the kind of 'work council' being practiced in the above case, the workers are rather silenced.

Researchers have generally assumed that employees need to be able to exert measurable influence over high-level decisions if non-union voice is to be at all effective. Otherwise, it is considered to be of limited or no value to employees. However, as Hammer (2000:183) points out that its value may be derived from its "ability to satisfy basic psychological needs including the freedom of the individuals to make decisions about how, and sometimes when, his or her work should be organized and carried out".

Freeman and Medoff (1984) argue that in order for employee voice to be effective in influencing management behaviour it must be union voice. According to this perspective, unions are independent of management unlike non-union forms of employee representation. Other researchers support the view that non-union employee representation achieves little and is commonly viewed by managers and employees with cynicism (Terry, 1999; Gollan, 2001, 2003; Dundon and Rollinson, 2004).

A twist to the recognition of unions was revealed in a pharmaceutical company, where the management acknowledged the need for employee voice and but dictated who represented the workers. These representatives or leaders were called "Gang Leaders". In an interview with the

“gang leader” of the production unit, it was revealed that the position was more of a figurehead to give employees the sense of having a voice should they want to communicate to management. In his opinion:

“They (management) only listen to us when the concern has a direct bearing on production”.

The informant added that in rare situations the gang leader can report a situation in the interest of employees to his superior but this normally follows a long chain of bureaucracy before being resolved.

The limited use of collective voice in organisations found in this study corroborates with Dunlop et al., (2004) who argues that the use of collective bargaining has declined extensiveness over the last twenty years with direct employee involvement growing in terms of coverage. This is consistent with findings of a consistently high mean for all seven items measuring direct employee involvement and participation in this study. Collective voice has been preferred over direct employee voice as the latter is susceptible to potential managerial influence and control unlike indirect involvement through collective bargaining. Collective voice through union recognition and collective bargaining provides countervailing source of power to management and achieves partnership (Dunlop et al., 2004).

At the organisation level, Freeman and Medoff (1984) assert that unions do not only provide employee voice, but that this collective voice is economically superior to ‘exit’ and individual voice. This is because of the collective and majority-based nature of decision-making. Based on the ‘exit-voice’ hypothesis (Hirschman, 1970) dissatisfied union workers tend to leave organisations. This is cost to the organisation as the workers leave with the organisations investment in the form of training and development.

The finding that temporary, part time and contract workers are not allowed to form or join union has implications on collective bargaining. Per the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) organisations are mandated to collectively bargain with certified unions. Per this Act, non-members of the union cannot force management to the negotiation table. This means that this group of workers may not be covered in the collective bargaining processing.

The permanent workers may have strong influence on the collective bargaining process at the expense of the non-permanent. Thus temporary workers by virtue of their employment status will not have the voice to articulate their concerns in their various organisations. Notwithstanding this, in situations of mutual concern, the permanent unionised workers may 'act in an agency function' in dealings with management (Taras and Kaufman 2006; Gollan 2006a; Greenfield and Pleasure 1993; Kaufman and Taras2000). This suggestion has been supported by other researchers who argue that there is a spill over to non-unionised workers.

One finding from the interviews revealed that workers perceived the unions as ineffective in the exercise of collective bargaining at the workplace. One worker retorted about how effective the union can be when for over seven years the union has never called for a formal meeting with workers to deliberate on issues affecting work. Workers commented that their unions' ineffectiveness in voicing out concerns of workers to management was out of fear of losing their jobs. According to a worker in the construction sector, the unions were only interested in deducting dues from workers' pay but acted like toothless bull dogs during collective bargaining. The worker further stressed that the monthly union dues were more than his monthly social security contribution yet he doesn't benefit from the union.

The workers view of the ineffectiveness of the union is supported by Boxall and Haynes (1997). Unions are effective when they meet the expectations of their members. Meeting such needs depends on knowing about the expectations of union members as well as well as the effectiveness management of engagement with management. 'A union that understands workers' needs but can't shift employer behaviour is ineffective' (Boxall and Haynes, 1997:571).

In all, it was found that the employees' voice was limited. This was due to two reasons: either the union is not voicing out or management limits such voice through management initiated 'work councils' for employees. This could be because of the perceived negative effects of unionisation and collective bargaining. Bryson, Forth and Laroche (2011) examined the relationship between unionization and workplace financial performance in Britain and France and concluded that union bargaining is detrimental to workplace performance in both countries.

8.3.3 State of Discrimination in Organisations

Discrimination at the workplace was the third labour standard assessed in this study. According to the ILO core standards, employment should be devoid of discrimination. In other words, this ILO labour standard prescribes equal treatment for all workers at the workplace. This study sought to know whether discrimination was prevalent in organisations contrary to the ratified core standard on prevention of discrimination in employment.

Discrimination was measured on procedural, distributive, informational and interpersonal dimensions. Kidder and Powell (2002) used distributive justice as a measure of discrimination. In their measure of discrimination which was in line with the fair distribution of resources and outcomes. Lind et al., (2000) measured discrimination using distributive and procedural justice.

The key factor running through most discrimination literature has been the factor of justice (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997; Lind et al., 2000; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Colquitt, 2001). Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, (2003) introduced a new perspective to the justice variable known as Deontic justice which was used to predict employee attitude and productivity.

From the questionnaires, the data revealed that 66% of workers perceived all four types of discrimination at their workplaces. In the interview however, it was discovered that the majority of discrimination at the workplace, was not based on procedural, distributive and informational discrimination but rather on the distinctions between permanent and non-permanent workers. Flexibility creates distinction between the core and the non-core and breeds discrimination in employment. *‘Non-core employees are not involved in meetings’* one worker noted. This was evident in most organisations sampled especially in the banking, construction, mining and oil and gas sectors.

There are lots of discriminations between permanent and non-permanent staff. Since the non-permanent workers do not have any direct dealings with the organisations there is a wide difference between the permanent and non-permanent workers in terms of employment conditions. In most of the organisations interviewed, non-permanent workers did not enjoy social security and were paid less for the same workload and efforts. *‘There are different rules and policies for casual and for permanent’* in the construction industries. The banking sector reported similar incidence in an interview:

‘Discrimination cannot be avoided. It’s everywhere even among siblings of the same mother’.

It has been established that approximately one fifth of temporary employees (peripheral works) report some level of stigmatization (Boyce, Ryan, Imus, Morgeson, and Hauer, 2005) like being treated in a devalued manner (Crocker et al., 1998). According to Stangor and Crandall (2000), the stigmatisation arises from threats, both tangible and symbolic and for permanent workers, who perceive temporary workers as representing a threat to their job security.

Some worker may not like the discrimination going on in their workplace but do accept it as natural part of life. A permanent worker who was once a non-permanent worker noted that:

'I experienced it when I was a non-permanent staff. I was seen differently. Even during morning devotions gatherings, when something comes up and you raise your hand, they ignore you. Now my manager calls me and asks for my opinion about decisions to be taken'.

This finding gives support to Appelbaum (2012), that the emergence of temporary work has implications for inequality; temporary workers earn comparatively less and have lower job satisfaction. Temporary workers are twice more likely to be in poverty than their permanent counterparts (ETUI, 1997). According to finding of Kahn (2007) temporary work exacerbate pre-existing inequalities between workers of different gender, age, and educational levels. It increases gender inequalities as women are more likely to be temporal workers than men, (Rani, 2008).

This type of discrimination against non-permanent staff can be understood from the point of incivility. Cortina et al., (2011) calls it selective incivility. This is a case where cognitive, affective and situational factors motivate instigators to minorities (like temporary staff) with disproportionate respect (Cortina, 2008). Another type of discrimination noted in the banking sector was that branch managers (mostly male) preferred male managers to female managers using pregnancy as an excuse. The branch managers perceived male managers as having the

ability to absorb the pressures in the banking hall. Clearly this is not an example of difference in qualification or skills which is regarded as 'rational-legal' (Jewson and Mason, 1986). This is an example of glass ceiling that women experience the workplace. The glass ceiling is defined as "a barrier so subtle that it is transparent, yet so strong that it prevents women and minorities from moving up in the management hierarchy" (Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990: 200).

This barrier is put into place by those in the advantaged majority (Foley, Kidder and Powell, 2002). Perceptions of glass ceiling may inhibit women from seeking and obtaining promotions (Powell & Butterfield, 1994). Such subtle discrimination against women denies them the chance of ever finding out whether they can succeed at higher-level positions. These women are likely to perceive women's attributes as inconsistent with their organization's requirements for success (Ely, 1995). Women internalize these discriminations to the point where they limit themselves and turn down opportunities for advancement in their social setting due to the fear that they will not succeed (Ilgen and Youtz, 1986). This type of discrimination has been an age old battle even in the face of organisations and countries proclaiming boldly their belief in equal opportunities. 'Equity of sexes does not mean equity of occupations...Nature has created sexes as complements of each other. Their functions are defined as are their forms' (Ghandi, 1947:188).

This has been the case in other parts of the world. Women representation on boards and inclusion in top management positions has been the subject of many studies for years. 'By the 1980s, a wide variety of feminist scholars and activists were pointing out that in fact the bureaucratic career was essentially reserved for men' (Wickham, Collins, Greco and Browne, 2008:213). The implications of discrimination at the workplace have been identified to include

intention to leave (Cortina et al., 2011) workplace deviance (Spence, Brown and Heller, 2012) and lower perceived organisational support (Miceli, Near, Rehg and Scotter, 2012).

8.4 Discussions on the effectiveness of the major national laws in complying with the ILO core standards in Ghana

As part of the objectives for this study, the effectiveness of the various laws and institutions in Ghana in complying with the ILO core standards was analysed. This section focused mainly on secondary data from the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) and the Constitution of Ghana and primary data through an interview with the Ex-Deputy Minister for Employment who was part of the drafting of the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651). For the purposes of this study, the ILO core standards were limited to freedom of association, freedom to collectively bargain and convention on discrimination.

8.4.1 Effectiveness of National Laws on Trade Union Association

Ghana as a country has had a strong sense of freedom for its people. This is enshrined in the motto of the country ‘freedom and justice’. This section focuses on the freedom of association as enshrined in the 1992 constitution and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651). On the aspect of national laws promoting the exercise of the freedom of association and how relevant it is in Ghana, the ex-Deputy Minister for Employment and Labour Relations (formerly Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare), Mr Austin Gamey, put it this way:

“Freedom of association is still relevant as far as the Constitution is concerned article 21e, 24(1, 2, 3) and the Labour Act which domesticates the ILO labour standard is very relevant to this matter. Freedom of association is compulsory in Ghana albeit, some employers do not like unions because the unions can be very destructive sometimes”.

The 1992 Constitution of Ghana in article 12 (1) and (2) provides every person in Ghana, irrespective of race, place of origin, political opinion, colour, religion, creed or gender with fundamental human rights and freedom including freedom of association in section 21 (e). The Labour Act of Ghana provides the freedom of association as a right for a worker. In section 10 (d), the Act states that the right of a worker include the right to form or join trade unions. The Act in article 79 and 80 also focus on freedom of association and formation of unions. Article 79(1) provides every worker with the right to form or join trade unions. In article 79(2) of the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) provides a list of restricted worker who cannot form or join unions as worker whose function is normally considered as:

- 'a. policy making;*
- b. decision making;*
- c. managerial;*
- d. holding a position of trust;*
- e. performing duties that are of highly confidential nature; or*
- f. an agent of a shareholder of an undertaking'*

According to the ex-Deputy Minister, in forming a union, there is a process to be followed. This process requires drafting a constitution and registering the union with the Registrar General's Department. The rights conferred on trade unions can be exercised only if the union is duly registered (section 88 of the Labour Act 2003). The union is then expected to apply for a collective bargaining certificate (CBC) of registration from the Chief Labour Officer to participate in a collectively bargain. The Act provides that any two workers from the same establishment can form a trade union. Once the union is able to go through the formalities and register, it becomes a recognised union and the employer has to recognise it as such. The union is supposed to be independent from management and other parties to employment relations.

These laws provided on trade unions are measures to domesticate the ILO core standards on freedom of association ratified by Ghana.

The Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) under the interpretation in section 175 defines a “worker” as ‘a person employed under a contract of employment whether on a continuous, part-time, temporary or casual basis’. This is in contradiction to what is being practiced as part time, temporal and casual workers are not allowed to form or join unions.

From the questionnaire and the interview with the ex-Deputy Minister, there is a wide gap between what is in the law and what is practiced in various organisations. While the law allows everyone the freedom to associate, in practice this freedom is limited. *“Albeit the reality is that some of the employers don’t like unions because the unions can be disruptive sometimes”*. This confirms findings from interviews especially in the private banks and the pharmaceutical company who confirmed that management would prevent the formation of any union.

In conclusion, two case scenarios were found. The first scenario is where organisations will not allow for the formation of workers unions. In effect these organisations are taking away workers right to freedom of associate. The second scenario observed that even organisations that had unions in place, discriminated against the joining of unions by certain groups of workers (part time, temporary and casual). The third scenario was about workers not knowing about the law that all workers are allowed to join unions. This was inferred from workers in that category accepting that they cannot form a union.

8.4.2 Effectiveness of National Laws on Collective Bargaining in Complying With ILO Convention 98 (1949)

The ILO Convention No. 98 (1949) relating to the Right to Organise and to Bargain Collectively describes collective bargaining as:

"voluntary negotiation between employers or employers' organizations and workers' organizations with a view to the regulation of terms and conditions of employment by collective agreements."

The relevant part and sections of the Labour Act 2003 concerning collective bargaining is contained in Part XII sections 96 to 111. The Labour Act requires any union seeking to enter into negotiations on behalf of any class of people to acquire a Collective Bargaining Certificate (CBC) from the Chief Labour Officer who is also the Head of the Labour Department .In cases where there is more than one union, the union with the highest number of workers is given the collective bargaining certificate.

'A typical example is the case of Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) and the National Association of Graduate Teachers (NAGRAT). GNAT being the majority were given the certificate to bargain but this should be in consultation with NAGRAT' – Ex-Deputy Minister of State.

In Ghana, unions with a collective bargaining certificate have the power to negotiate with management on employee related issues. Every agreement made (collective agreement) during these meetings are binding on both parties. Agreement reached between the employer and the union that holds the bargaining certificates covers the class of workers named in the certificates whether or not they are members of the union that negotiated for those conditions. Section 105 of the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) makes the collective agreement powerful as it can amend any existing employment contract.

Collective bargaining can take place at the organisational or enterprise level, industrial level or the national level. Collective bargaining is bipartite at the organisational and industrial level. That is it involves two groups of people – the employer(s) and the workers normally represented by their unions. At the national level, collective bargaining is tripartite involving the third party which is the government. As noted in an interview with the ex-Deputy Minister of State, Ghana is by far the only country with a national tripartite system. At the international level, the ILO is the only tripartite UN Agency with government, employers and employee representatives.

Collective bargaining also must be voluntarily done. During an interview with the ex-Minister of State, he noted that *'If workers put you under duress to sign an agreement, that is not voluntary agreement'* - ex-Deputy Minister of state. 'A worker or group of workers who by any kind of threat seeks to intimidate the employer during negotiations of a collective agreement is guilty of unfair labour practice' – Labour Act section 127 (3). This is in line with the ILO convention number 98 (1949). However, in recent times within the Ghanaian employment relations terrain, the use of threats is gradually becoming a norm for resolving industrial disputes. The use of threats in collective bargaining can create antagonism although there are other potential advantages. Threats by parties in employment relations do not permit the establishment of goodwill and trust: necessary ingredients for industrial peace and economic growth in Ghana.

The hostilities and antagonisms are not only between employers and employees. At the national front there have been numerous strikes against the other bodies. At a point in October 2013, the two main labour centres, the Trade Union Congress (TUC) and the Ghana Federation

of Labour (GFL), were at loggerheads with each other. This was due to ‘dissenting views among the various Trade Unions, on the way to go concerning the recent hikes in utility tariffs by the Public Utilities and Regulatory Commission (PURC)’(Chronicles, 2013). The TUC was opting for a strike against the government to protest their displeasure with the 78.9% and 52% increment on electricity and water respectively. GFL on the other hand opposed it. The Ghana Federation of Labour criticised the TUC’s threatened action as being hypocritical.

The ex-Deputy Minister noted that workers are resorting to illegal strikes in the middle of negotiations to force employers to succumb to workers wishes. The Labour Act regards this period of collective bargaining as a cooling off period (section 161 (1)). During this period, no action can be taken by either party. Section 153 of the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) makes it an obligation for the parties to negotiate in good faith. Section 97 of the Act explains negotiating in good faith to mean making available all relevant information to each other, treating this information as confidential (in cases where the information is not made public) and not making fraudulent misrepresentations.

The effect of breaching the good faith is as follows:

s161 (2): ‘any party who contravenes subsection 1 (good faith) is liable for any damage, loss or injury suffered by any other party to the dispute’.

Though the provisions of the law are clearly stated, yet the industrial climate in Ghana has been fraught with periods of strikes, hostility, and antagonism instead of peaceful negotiations.

“Between 1983 and 1988, the government paid scant regard to the existence of the Tripartite Committee; ... the government fixed the minimum wage without consultation with trade unions or employers. These measures received written and verbal protests from trade unions” (Adu-Amankwah and Tutu, 1997: 220).

Regarding the reaction of the Ghana Trades Union Congress (GTUC), they write: *“The TUC filed a complaint against the government at the International Labour Organisation for interference in collective bargaining in 1993 (Adu-Amankwah and Tutu, 1997: 223).*

In a nut shell, the ILO convention number 98 states that employees or employees’ organisation and employer can collectively bargain. However, in Ghana, collective bargaining is limited to unions. This is further limited to unions with a collective bargaining certificate (section 99 of the Labour Act). To worsen the situation, worker’s employment status defines one’s ability to join the union and ultimately bargain.

8.4.3 Effectiveness of the National Laws on Discrimination in complying with the ILO Core Standard on Discrimination (Convention 111)

The 1992 constitution defines discrimination as giving “different treatment to different persons attributable only or mainly to their respective descriptions by race, place of origin, political opinion, colour, gender, occupation, religion or creed, whereby persons of one description are subjected to disabilities or restrictions to which persons of another description are not made subject or are granted privileges or advantages which are not granted to persons of another description” (Article 17 (3)). This section therefore focuses on the national laws on discrimination and how effective they are in complying with the ILO standards.

According to the 1992 constitution, all persons are equal before the law and cannot be discriminated against on the basis of gender, race, place of origin, creed, social or economic status. This reiterates section 81 of the Labour Act on the prohibition of discrimination on the grounds of place of origin, circumstance of birth, ethnic origin, creed or others beliefs (article 5). Discrimination in the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) is centred on union discrimination at the workplace, equal pay and discrimination on the basis of gender, sex or religion. According to

Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) s87 (1):‘A trade union or employers' organization shall not discriminate in its constitution or rules against any person on grounds of race, place of origin, political opinion, colour, religion, creed, gender or disability’.

From the laws cited above, all workers are to be treated equally within the union without any form of discrimination. The other section of the Labour Act on discrimination is categorised under unfair labour practices. According to section 127, a person or employer cannot discriminate against any worker on the basis of being in a union or purporting to become a union member. Any discrimination within a union is regarded by the Labour Act as unfair labour practices. The section also notes that workers cannot engage in unfair labour practices against their employer.

On discrimination the ex-Deputy Minister drew the researcher’s attention to section 68 of the Labour Act saying, “we are supposed to have equal pay for equal work clearly that is a departure of the old norm where women in particular were paid less. Job evaluation also helps eliminate discriminations”. The HR people can also prevent discrimination through the institution of job evaluation. Some HR practices may promote discrimination out of lack of knowledge. *‘They may not be deliberate. It’s lack of knowledge. Many HR people are not expanding their knowledge base’* - ex-Deputy Minister.

According to the Ex-Minister, the laws of Ghana have covered the prevention of discrimination at the workplace but the organisation has more to do. For example he noted that *‘though the law has provided measures against discrimination, the Human resource management policies must also have them’*.

According to the ex- Deputy Minister, who also is the past president of the Institute of HRM (Ghana), the laws of Ghana have covered the prevention of discrimination at the workplace but the organisation has more to do. For example he noted that

‘though the law has provided measures against discrimination, the Human resource management policies must also have them’.

The HR people can prevent discrimination through the institution of performance management and job evaluation which has the merit of being systematic and appearing objective. Some HR practices may promote discrimination out of lack of knowledge. The ex-Deputy Minister asserts that *‘they may not be deliberate. It’s lack of knowledge. Many HR people are not expanding their knowledge base’.*

8.5 Labour Standards and the nature of work as mediators of the relationship between HRM practices and organisational productivity

An important aspect of this study was to find out the influences and consequences of the nature of work and labour standards. The research question to determine the mediating role of labour standards and nature of work will be discussed separating the labour standards and the nature of work. These mediating roles were assessed with the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire. Each labour standard and nature of work assessed in the work was used in a multiple regression based on Baron and Kenny’s (1986) steps in mediation. Thus in all six hypothesis were raised based on the AMO theory to assess these mediations. The first regression was to find a significant relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. The other five hypotheses tested the mediation of each of the two aspects of work and the three labour standards as mediators between HPWS and organisational productivity.

The subsequent sub sections of this section discuss findings of nature of work as mediator and then labour standards as mediators.

8.5.1 The Relationship Between High Performance Work Systems (HPWS) and Organisational Productivity (H1)

Before the nature of work and the labour standards could act as mediating factors, there should be a significant relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. HPWS reflects a new interest in people as a source of competitive advantage, rather than a cost to be minimized (Becker and Huselid, 1998:54). One important aspect of HPWS is that collective HR practices instead of individual practices create this competitive advantage which gives organisations edge over their competitors. The collective HR practices create inimitability which provides this long-lived source of competitive advantage (Becker et al., 1998).

One way that HPWS creates inimitability is through behavioural competitive strategies (Hamel and Prahalad, 1994; Stalk, Evans and Shulman, 1992) where organisations rely on the human capital (ability) created (Jackson, Schuler and Rivero, 1989). The resource-based view of organisation supports the above that if HRM is to create sustained competitive advantage, they must be difficult to imitate (Barney, 1991). Other research work suggests that HPWS among other things develops the human capital pool (abilities) and enhance employees' motivation which leads to organisational ability to create sustained competitive advantage (opportunity) (Aryee, Walumbwa, Seidu and Otaye, 2012). This has been supported by Delery and Shaw (2001:175) who observed 'a high KSA workforce might not necessary be a high productive workforce, if that work force is not highly motivated'.

From the simple linear regression to test the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity, it was found that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. This finding is consistent with a large proportion of research on HPWS that have predicted a positive relationship between HPWS and organisational performance across a wide range of context and performance indicators (MacDuffie, 1995; Delery and Shaw 2001; Wright, Dunford and Snell, 2001; Bat, 2002; Wright and Gardner, 2002; Bartle, 2004; Becker and Huselid, 2006). This means that the HR practices in organisations contribute towards the level of productivity when the combined effects of the HR practices are assessed.

According to the AMO theory, HPWS creates abilities through the use of comprehensive staffing practices focusing on the getting the right candidate for the job (Hustled, 1995; Delery and Dotty, 1996; Delaney and Hustled, 1996; Yond et al., 1996; Whitener, 2001). These human capital enhancing practices include the provision of developmental activities after selection which emphasizes comprehensive training and development of workers (MacDuffie, 1995; Delaney & Huselid, 1996). This contributes to the stock of human capital need to transform inputs into outputs in effective and efficient ways. These abilities through HPWS are tied to the performance and the pay of workers and act as motivation for workers to seek these abilities and also increase their productivity and therefore their pay. HPWS further creates opportunities for workers to use their abilities through the employee involvement and participation practices. Workers also go through performance appraisals which assess abilities and contributions to productivity in order to determine pay and promotion for workers. The conglomeration of HR practices in the HPWS creates synergies which positively affect productivity (MacDuffie & Kochan, 1995; Park et al., 2003).

Based on the fact that within different contexts, the assertion that HPWS contributes to the organisational productivity and other indicators of performance, the assertion that HPWS contributes to organisational productivity can be generalised. However this relationship has been referred to as a black box (Bosielie, Dietz and Boon, 2005) and researchers have called for processes through which the relationship exists. A study of 241 organisations in Russia, USA and Finland revealed that motivation and abilities are important mediating variables in the HRM – performance relationship (Fey, Morgoulis-Jakoushev, Park and Bjorkman, 2007). This study used the theory of AMO to argue that the HRM – productivity relationship is mediated by abilities, motivation and opportunities. These are discussed in the mediation analyses below.

8.5.2 Flexibility as a Mediator between HPWS and Organisational Productivity (H2)

Flexibility is one of the dimensions of the changing nature of work that was assessed as mediator in the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship. Flexibility was measured along four types of flexibilities known in literature (Garcia, 2009). The four types of flexibility – functional, internal numerical, external numerical and labour cost flexibilities were combined to assess its power to mediate the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship. From the regression analysis conducted to analyse path ‘b’ in the Baron and Kenny’s (1986) model of mediation, it was found that flexibility did not statistically predict organisational productivity. Thus flexibility was not a mediator in the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship. In other words, flexibility is not one of the means through which HPWS leads to increased organisational productivity. This finding contradicts a number of research findings that assets that due to increasing competition, flexibility is a potential mediator in the HPWS – organisational output (Bhattacharya, Gibson and Doty, 2005; Cappelli and Newmark, 2004). Studies on HPWS have focused on organisational performance as an outcome and limited use

of flexibility as a mediating variable. Beltrán-Martín et al., (2008) studied three HR flexibility: functional flexibility, skill malleability, and behaviour flexibility as mediators of HPWS and performance in 226 Spanish firms. The study confirmed that HPWS influences performance through its impact on the firm's human resource (HR) flexibility (Beltrán-Martín et al., 2008).

Flexibilities in place in organisations are as a result of the internal orientations created through the HR practices in those organisations. One of the key features of flexibility is functional flexibility which is about the notion of workers' ability to accomplish a number of diverse task (Wright and Snell, 1998) under diverse circumstances cutting down the cost and time needed to mobilise workers into new tasks or roles (van den Berge and van der Velde, 2005). This invariably improves organisational productivity as organisations are able to achieve much with the same hands. The cost incurred in the hiring of new skills, cost of adaptation of new workers to the organisational environment are saved thus helping organisations to function with minimal internal conflicts and allowing organisations to focus on satisfying their stakeholders and achieving competitive advantage in the labour market.

Closely linked to the functional flexibility is the idea of skill malleability (Maurer, Wrenn, Pierce, Tross and Collins, 2003). Skill malleability is demonstrated through training and retraining and acquisition of future skill requirement and demonstration of enthusiasm by workers to learn more (Dyer and Ericksen, 2005). Flexibility and malleability also have impact on behaviour flexibility as workers are willing to show how adaptable they can be in diverse circumstances through a variety of behavioural repertoires (Bhattacharya, Gibson and Doty, 2005). This becomes a dynamic capability of the firm (Eisenhardt and Martin, 2000) as organisations are able to focus these adaptive behaviours to changing competitive conditions (Wright, Dunford and Snell, 2001).

Organisations are constantly assessing these through developmental performance appraisals and tying the results to rewards (pay flexibility) especially in the private sector. To cut down on the cost of training and retraining workers, organisations have resorted to the outsourcing of non-core activities. This in a way also provide organisations with the numerical flexibility required at any point in time since these agency workers can be laid off relatively easy. In the banking sector of Ghana, most banks are now outsourcing some core activities of the bank like tellering work, putting pressure on other permanent workers to prove why their positions should be permanent. These culminate in increased individual striving to achieve high targets and increase productivity amounting to increased organisational productivity.

In a labour market characterised by high unemployment and regular redundancies, workers are eager to salvage their employment through versatility, malleability and behaviour flexibility to impact on the organisational productivity. Unavailability of works seems to act as motivation at the workplace. However, Vroom's (1964:203) theory of performance posits that 'effects of motivation on performance are dependent on the level of ability of the worker, and the relationship of ability to performance is dependent on the motivation of the worker'. This could be the result of the increase in the acquisition of professional and tertiary education with individuals embarking on self-development. This develops a pool of human capital that organisations can rely on to create competitive advantage (Aryee et al., 2012) which translates into increase in productivity.

From the descriptive analysis based on the questionnaires, the most practiced type of flexibility was the external numerical flexibility which has to do with organisations' ability to fire employees depending on the needs of the organisations. This probably is possible as a result of the internal flexibilities practiced by organisations. The internal numerical flexibility creates

opportunities for the use of part time, temporary, outsourced and contract workers. This group of workers forms the peripheral or non-core workers of an organisation.

The financial consequences in terms of labour cost such as wages and compensation are greatly reduced as these part time and temporary workers normally receive less than their permanent colleagues. Also organisations get to save on the payment of social benefits like Social Security and National Insurance (SSNIT) payments of 13.5% of workers' pay and other work benefit allowance. In times of redundancies too the financial consequences of making peripheral workers redundant as compared to full time permanent workers are minimal. Notwithstanding this, it was found that organisations practice functional flexibility through equipping workers with skills to work in other positions as well as using job rotation for workers to learn on the job.

However, the use of external numerical flexibility creates insecurities for employees. This is because there is no clarity about the 'future' in terms of security. According to Herzberg (1959), the absence of security creates a demotivation which will not lead to productivity. Closely tied to the sense of insecurity generated from the practice of external numerical is reduced commitment of workers. This will be experienced mostly by the part-time, temporary, contract and outsourced workers and permanent workers who feel insecure with their positions. These workers may not identify themselves with the organisation and may not be willing to do the extra-role to increase their performance. This is consistent with Marique et al., (2012) who reported that being affectively committed to an organisation mediates the relationship between workers identification with that organisation and their willingness to perform extra-role performance.

The atypical workers like the outsourced workers, temporal workers and part time workers have their own challenges which prevent them from giving their best to an organisation. These groups of workers apart from the insecurity, may lack career paths and have access to fewer career developmental opportunities created through training and development. In terms of pay, from the findings of the interview, atypical workers receive less than typical (standard) workers for the same work done.

The results from the hierarchical regression presented in chapter seven on flexibility mediating the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship revealed that flexibility as a result of HPWS does not lead to organisational productivity.

8.5.3 Employee Security as a Mediator in the HPWS- Organisational Productivity Relationship (H3)

Security of employees was assessed in four areas: job security, income security, employability and work-life balance. This was the third hypothesis raised to test the mediation in the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship which was established in H1. From the regression analysis, HPWS predicted security with $r^2=0.26$, $p<0.01$ and $\beta=0.46$. Employees' security positively predicted organisational productivity ($r^2=0.10$, $p=0.01$ and $\beta=0.28$) and mediated the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship ($r^2=0.23$, $p<0.01$ and $\beta=0.41$). This means that providing employees with security is one of the means through which HPWS affect the level of productivity in an organisation.

HPWS creates employability (security) through the comprehensive training and development that it offers to employees (Collins, 2001). Other researchers have reiterated that security is implicit in HPWS (Pfeffer, 1998). The empowerment enhancing aspect of HPWS through the comprehensive training and development creates abilities. These abilities then become

investment lock-ins. Organisations protect these investments through securing the employees in the organisation. This security fosters long term employment and further motivates employees to seek high levels of training (Levine and Tyson, 1990:210-211). These investment lock-ins, from the results of this study, pay off in terms of increase productivity. Security has been found to significantly predict organisational outcomes (Delery et al., 1996; Bjorkman et al., 2000 and Ezane et al., 2009).

In a labour market characterised by high unemployment and regular redundancies, workers in Ghana may be eager to salvage their employment security and not job security as they do not have much control over the security of their jobs. Workers will be willing to commit to an organisation and help the organisation to be productive in instances where the organisation offers employability. Researchers believe that the employability inherent in the empowerment enhancing aspect of HPWS is exchanged for the commitment of employees (Fiagiano, 1993; Craig et al 2002). Studies further point to commitment as a useful measure of organisational outcomes (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Studies on insecurity have been associated with negative outcomes like stress, increased levels of burnout and decreased levels of employees' commitment to the organisation (Bossman, Buitendach, Laba, 2005). HPWS apart from the abilities, create motivation for increased productivity through the flexible employee working practices (Osterman, 1996) which prevents negative spill-overs of work pressures (Skinner et al., 2011).

The dimensions of the security assessed in this study may be contributing factors in its ability to positively predict productivity. This is because it included aspects of work-life balance which is known to positively predict individual and organisational outcomes (Allis and O'Driscoll, 2008; Casper and Harris, 2008; Giardini and Kabst, 2008; Lapierre *et al.*, 2008;

Muse *et al.*, 2008; Parker and Allen, 2001; Pratt and Rosa, 2003; Rijswijk *et al.*, 2004; Glover and Crooker, 1995). Research in employee security have tended to focus on one dimension of security, which is job security, but the security model in the flexicurity model used in this study focuses on four dimensions – job security, income security, employment security and work-life balance.

One of the dimensions of employees' security assessed in this study was job security. Job security has been found to influence other work-related outcomes like psychological well-being of employees (Burke, 1991; Jacobson, 1991; Kuhnert and Palmer, 1991), employee health (Kuhnert *et al.*, 1989), retention (Iverson and Roy, 1994; Bhuian and Islam, 1996) and job satisfaction (Burke 1991, Davy *et al.*, 1991; Lim, 1996). Job satisfaction has also been linked with organisational commitment (Baugh and Robert, 1994; Elliot and Hall, 1994; Wong *et al.*, 1995; Fletcher and Willams, 1996) and job performance (Birnbaum and Somers, 1993).

From the various dimensions in the security model used in this study context, it was realised that each dimension feeds into the other and are not distinct. In Ghana, one's income security is greatly depended on one's job and employment securities. The income securities, in Ghana, depends on the pensions contributions during a worker's employment lifetime. The other option of depending on family members is not sustainable. Ghana does not also have any long-term income support for the unemployed unlike countries in the Industrialised world. There are however few of short term income supports like the Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty (LEAP). This is 'a social cash transfer programme which provides cash and health insurance to extremely poor households across Ghana to alleviate short-term poverty and encourage long-term human capital development' (Handa, Park, Darko, Osei-Akoto, Davis, and Diadone, 2013:1). Eligibility for LEAP is based on 'poverty and having a household member in at least

one of three demographic categories: households with orphan or vulnerable child (OVC), elderly poor, or person with extreme disability unable to work (PWD)’ (Handa et al, 2013:1). As of 2012, the range of household beneficiaries of LEAP, ranged from GhC8 – GhC15 per month. This has moved some poor households from ‘surviving to coping’ (Food and Agriculture Organisation, United Nations, 2013).

The rate of unemployment and vulnerable jobs coupled with the level of redundancies in Ghana may be an explanatory factor in security positively contributing to organisational productivity. The rate of unemployment in Ghana was pegged at 3.6% by the World Bank as at the year 2012. Though the figure may be low, the level of vulnerable jobs is always high. According to the World Bank statistics, Ghana had a population of 24,262,901 as at 2010 (the current rate is 25,904,598) with a labour force of 10,204,903. Out of the employment rate, 77% of the total employment was regarded as vulnerable employment.

‘Vulnerable worker is a category of workers who are less likely to have formal work arrangements, and are therefore more likely to lack decent working conditions, adequate social security and “voice” through effective representation by trade unions and similar organizations. Vulnerable employment is often characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and difficult conditions of work that undermine workers’ fundamental rights, and do not allow workers to live a life of human dignity in the security of employment that is often absent in the informal sector’ (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013:9).

Ghana’s level of vulnerable employment in 2010 was second to India which recorded 81%. Other countries like Cameroon recorded 76%, United Kingdom, 11%, Sweden 7% and Bahrain 2%.

According to the International Classification of Status of Employment (ICSE), vulnerable employment includes self-employment jobs (also referred to as own account workers) and contributing family jobs are more likely to lack decent work (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013).

The ILO defines decent work to include 'security and social protection' for people among other factors like opportunities for development, freedom to express concerns, opportunities to participate in decision making. HPWS includes the dimensions of decent work where it seeks to provide workers with comprehensive training and development, opportunities for employee involvement and participation, as well as acknowledging the efforts of workers and rewarding them appropriately. These factors in HPWS, from the analysis, are able to provide employees with the level of security that translates into increase organisational productivity. Thus in Ghana, with the high level of vulnerable employment, any form of employee security will be a motivator to contribute positively to the level of productivity.

Researchers like Levine and Tyson's (1990) found otherwise saying that "workers are unlikely to cooperate in increasing efficiency (which adds to productivity) if they fear that by so doing they jeopardize their jobs (security)". Other findings from researches also contradict the findings of this study. One of such findings is from Chajewski (2007) who suggests that employment security and firm's economic performance are incompatible. This is consistent with Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory that job security will not motivate workers to contribute to the organisational productivity but the absence of which can create a demotivation.

In a research by Leung (2009) on the productivity of professors before and after tenure, it was found that job security (tenure) caused a decrease in productivity. An organisation whose HPWS are able to achieve security of job, incomes, employment and work life balance can no longer use job security as a motivator to increase organisational productivity. This is because, once a need is satisfied, it no longer becomes a motivator (Maslow, 1954). 'Workers may take advantage of their job security and do as little work as possible. Job security can also be costly

to the firm since dismissal of employees requires more time, effort, and compensation' (Leung, 2009:2). The threat of job insecurity however, may lead to organisational productivity.

Security for employees may cause complacency among workers such that they may take their work for granted. This is a popular scenario in the public sector where workers security promotes the popular notion of 'aban adwuma' meaning 'government work'. The government for fear of losing confidence of the electorate and losing power to opposition secure jobs that otherwise should have been redundant. Once employed, government jobs are for life. Payment is not based on contribution to productivity but rather on your ability to occupy a 'seat and a table' and your union's ability to demand for wage increment without showing forth any productivity. Maybe a level of insecurity might bring competition which will help in increasing the level of productivity at the workplace. The threat of loss of income, and its associated effect on workers wellbeing might be just what organisations need to get their worth from workers. However extensive research report decreases in the health and well-being of employees associated with insecurity and its attended negative influences on various organisational attitudes and behaviours (De Witte, 2005a) and reduced organizational commitment (Ashford et al., 1989).

8.5.4 Freedom of Association as a Mediator in the HRM – Productivity Relationship (H4)

As depicted in the conceptual framework for this study in chapter 3, this study posited that freedom of association (trade union) would mediate the HRM – organisational productivity relationship, from the findings from the multiple regression analysis, HPWS leads to trade unionisation however, trade unionisation did not statistically affect the organisational productivity. This means that the level of organisational productivity is not statistically affected in any way when workers are allowed the freedom of association especially in freely joining or

forming trade unions at the workplace. This finding is consistent with other research works that found a non-significant association between unionisation and productivity growth (Kaufman, 1992; Kruse, 1993; Bartel, 1994; Wilson, 1995; Blanchflower and Machin, 1995; Zagler, 2000). Other recent studies in UK have also found statistically insignificant relationship between unions and productivity (Addison and Belfield, 2001; Metcalf, 2003a; 2003b; Pencavel, 2003). Bryson et al., (2005) also found a non-significant relationship between productivity and unionisation but asserted that the relationship though insignificant is a negative relationship.

Findings on the relationship between trade unions and productivity vary (Doucouliagos and Laroche 2003), while some researches have reported a negative relationship, other researchers have reported otherwise. From a research finding, Machin and Stewart's (1996) assert that unions are associated with lower profitability or financial performance of organisations in Britain. In US, Doucouliagos and Laroche (2003), found a similar pattern of negative relationship between union and productivity growth. Hirsch (1991) found that union organisations had slower productivity growth than nonunionised organisations. This situation however can be offset by productivity enhancement at the workplace or higher prices of products (Hirsch, 1991). Other researchers have attributed the presence of trade unions to a positive impact on organisational outcomes. From the economic point of view, unions seek to maximize the welfare of their members through the representation of workers interest. Unions offer 'greater protection of workers' rights (and workers' positions or claims against the firm in general) when workers are able to organise themselves' (García-Serrano, 2004).

When workers' rights are upheld in an organisation, the workers are more likely to contribute to the productivity of the organisation. Unions also influence many aspects of the employment

relation including the workers' productivity. They provide stability of employment to members, all things being equal. Workers with secured employment are less likely to leave their firms. The low turnover rate could partly be as a result of higher wage demanded for workers through unions. The unionized organisation saves expenditure that would have been incurred in the event of disrupting the production process in the event of labour turnover and can channel it into other productive areas.

In the event where unions demand higher wages, the union wage increase may 'shock' organisations into more diligent hiring practices. A better screened workforce will typically be more productive (Borjas, 2013). 'Trade unions, apart from generating negative effects on firms' economic performance by rising wages above the competitive level, also have positive effects by improving productivity through lowering worker turnover and increasing employers' as well as employees' willingness to invest in firm specific human capital'(García-Serrano, 2004:2).

Research supports suggestions that unions increase the productivity of unionized organisation (Allen, 1983; Clark, 1980a; 198b; Freeman and Medoff (1984), claiming that the estimated increase in productivity commonly offsets, or nearly offsets, the increase in wages due to unionization so that the net cost of unionization is small' (Freeman and Medoff, 1979).Wessels (1985:108) conclude that unions mainly enhance the productivity of capital and not of labour. Whether there is an increase in labour productivity or capital productivity as a result of unionization should be a basis for further research but at least there is a contribution to productivity.

From the findings of this study trade unions had no impact on the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship. This means that trade union is not one of the means through which HPWS impacts on productivity. From the descriptives in chapter six, 57% of the respondents did not belong to a trade union. Majority of the non-union respondents were from the tertiary sector. From the focus group interview conducted, one interviewee from a private bank was noted as saying that unions were not allowed in the organisation. He further stated that management always find means to kick out workers who tried to initiate the formation of unions. This supports Jomo and Todd (1994) and Maimunah (2003) who reported that employers use tactics like victimisation and the formation of company-sponsored in-house unions to prevent workers from forming unions. This is further supported by other researchers who believe that employers deliberately oppose the formation of unions (Peetz, 1998; Drago and Wooden, 1998).

Employers' opposition to the formation of unions through whatever tactics affects the union density. Employers use 'decollectivist' strategies which may be inclusive or exclusive or both to limit unionisation at the workplace. This is what is called the 'model of decollectivist employer behaviour' (Peetz, 2002). The decline in union density affects the union's power to make any impact in organisations. This affects union's financial position, voice, and their ability to bargain. This decline is in face of retrenchments in unionised organisations which further affect union density. For example, between 2013 and 2014, the Ghana Mine Workers Union lost 16% of its membership through retrenchment (Essabra-Mensah, 2014). This position of declining unionisation in organisations affects the union's traditional role of ensuring safe working conditions and fair treatment through the establishment of conditions of employment, what has been termed union instrumentality (Kochan, Katz, & McKersie, 1986; Cregan, 2005). This may affect the union members who are likely to exit the unions, further

decreasing the union density. From the 'exit-hypothesis' non-union members tend to leave the organisation. This should have been a negative consequence on organisational productivity. This may however not be so in Ghana with the rate of vulnerable work (77%). These workers tend to rather stay and complain because there are few other options available to them.

Trade unions are being substituted at the workplace (Kerr, 2012) with management initiated joint consultative committees. As evident from the focus group interview, management deliberately used HR practices like open door policies, open forum and good communication which served the same purpose for unions. These practices are also evident in the United States where Foulkes, 1980 reports of highly sophisticated HRM practices in non-union workplaces. These employer-decollectivist strategies (Peetz, 2002) may still allow for the formation of unions (Roy, Gall 2001; Peetz, 2002). With the unions' purpose being achieved through other means, unions' presence in organisations may not contribute significantly to organisational outcomes like productivity. In such instance, the line managers become more powerful while the unions become less powerful (Foot and Hook, 2008).

The insignificance of the trade union in the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship may also be due to the fact that 76% of the organisations included in this study were from the private sector while 24% were from the public sector. Majority of the respondents (285) for this study who reported being members of the trade union were from the quaternary sector where the public organisations are dominating. The tertiary sector, predominantly private organisations, recorded the highest non-union respondents (290). In all, 57% of the respondents in this study did not belong to a trade while 43% belonged to a trade union. This confirms findings that unions have been known to have a much stronger presence in the public sector than the private sector (Guest and Conway, 2004). The private sector has been well noted for

kicking against unions and is cited as one of the reason for the decline in union density. In Ghana, as at year 2010, the private sector employed majority of workers (708,043 for private formal and 8,364,649 for private informal) while the public sector employed 641,633. Union density has been positively associated with worker output (Asterious and Monastiriotis, 2003). Other studies have confirmed that the presence of unions can affect organisational outcomes like productivity (Metcalf, 1988; Booth and Chatterji, 1998; Machin and Wadhwani, 1999a). The almost non-existence of the unions in the private sectors sampled undoubtedly will make the unions to have no significance on organisational outcomes.

8.5.5 Collective Bargaining as a Mediator in the HRM – Organisational Productivity Relationship (H5)

Collective voice was used as a proxy for collective bargaining and hypothesized to mediate the HRM – productivity relationship in this study. This mediation was hypothesized to be a negative relationship between HPWS and collective voice as HPWS allowed for individual voice. It was however revealed that a positive and significant relationship exists between HPWS and collective voice ($r^2=0.90$, $p<0.01$). In the multiple regression analysis, it was found that collective voice partially mediates the HPWS and organisational productivity relationship ($r^2=0.31$, $p<0.01$). This finding supports other findings that voice impacts on productivity and organizational efficiencies (Bryson et al., 2006; Dundon and Gollan, 2007; Wilkinson and Fay, 2011). This also corroborates with findings from Freeman et al., (2007) that the individual voice created through HPWS complements collective voice. Organisations supplement union-voice (collective voice) with non-union voice like joint consultative committees (Charlwood, 2006). These two forms of voice provide different outcomes for workers (Pyman et al., 2006). When the two forms of voice exist together, voice is amplified and reinforced from these dual entities (Pohler and Luchak, 2014). Union voice however is more effective than non-union

voice (James and Walters, 2002; Walters and Frick, 2000). The two forms of voice, individual voice and collective voice achieve a balance between three fundamental objectives in the employment relations: equity, efficiency and voice (Budd, 2004). HPWS seeks to achieve efficiency for the organisation while the collective voice achieves equity for workers (Freeman and Medoff 1984). Bryson et al (2005) found that unions led to productivity only when the workforce was covered by collective bargaining (voice).

From the exit-voice hypothesis established by Freeman and Medoff (1979) and Freeman (1980), voice is embodied in unionism and the collective bargaining system to negotiate with management. Thus when workers have a voice institution to express discontent, they should quit less frequently. When worker quit less organisations are able to retain their human capital which impacts positively on organisational productivity. In the absence of such voice mechanisms, individuals may face victimisation or dismissal when they complain. The only way non-union workers can register their grievance is through “exit”: where they vote with their feet by leaving the firm. Thus while unions provide workers with formal channel for voicing out their grievances, non-union workers can only register grievance through exiting the organization (Borjas, 2013). Freeman and Medoff (1984) believe that unions are able to enhance productivity of organisations through the voice mechanism that they provide workers. This is because the cost of the voice is far lower than the cost of dissatisfied workers quitting with the human capital invested in them by the organisation.

Employee involvement and participation is multidimensional (Wilkinson, Townsend and Burgess, 2013). Historically, much of the research on employee involvement and participation has focused on the role of unions in ensuring workers had the opportunity to play a role in decision-making at the workplace. Workers collectively make recommendations concerning

issues that affect their work through collective voice and are kept informed about work issues that affect workers through the same medium. When workers 'voice' are heard, they feel part of the organisation and will positively contribute to the organisational productivity.

Consistent with this findings, Sablok et al.,(2013) posit that strategic human resource management approach (HPWS) is associated with employee voice. HPWS positively predicted the existence of collective bargaining as one of the means to achieving employee voice at the workplace. This ensures greater employee engagement (Budd 2004) which also impacts positively on the level of organisational productivity. In organisations where the strategic HR practices promote collective voice, the workers are more likely to contribute their efforts to increasing the organisational productivity. Workers get a say in the management of the organisations through decision. Decisions collectively taken by management and workers will most likely see the implementation by the workers. This is because, workers will willingly implement decisions they are part of than implement decisions imposed on them. Other forms of voice like communication between management and workers serve as a good platform for trust and industrial democracy and prevent unnecessary strikes which distract effort from productivity and destroy the employment relations in the organisation.

Organisations ability to provide collective voice not only impacts the organisation but the workers at the individual level as well. Voice is associated with enhanced productivity (Morrison, 2011) and fair treatment of employees (Freeman and Medoff 1984; Wilkinson and Fay 2011).A good organisational environment is created and this enhances the wellbeing of workers. Workers are likely to experience high levels of satisfaction and commitment which should translate into increase productivity. Evidence from developed economies suggest an increase in strategic HRM practices, a decline in indirect voice through the union and an

increase in direct employee voice (Dundon et al., 2004; Marchington and Wilkinson, 2005; Marginson et al., 2010). The various forms of voice – collective and individual – can coexist at the workplace and help complement each other to create a force for productivity.

The use of HPWS in organisation encourages direct individual employee voice (Wilkinson and Dundson, 2010; Wood 2010) while collective voice is provided through unions (Kaufman, 2008) and other staff associations. Union voice (collective voice) are regarded as ‘yesterday’s voice mechanism’ (Charlwood, 2004) which are no longer relevant especially in face of the declining union density and recognition. In the face of union challenges, unions may not be effective in providing the necessary voice mechanism for workers that will lead to productivity. Bryson et al., (2006) concludes their research that voice leading to productivity is depended on managerial responsiveness to voice. From this conclusion it can be deduced that where managerial responsiveness to unions is negative, union voice may either negatively relate to productivity or that there will be an insignificant relationship with productivity.

8.5.6 Discrimination and the HPWS – Organisational Productivity Relationship (H6)

The last mediation in the HPWS – productivity relations was discrimination as depicted in the conceptual framework in chapter three. From the analysis, discrimination was negatively related with HPWS ($r^2=0.07$, $p= 0.02$, $beta= -0.24$) and organisational productivity ($r^2=0.09$, $p=0.01$, $beta= -0.25$). This means that the collective HR practices at the workplace is inversely related to discrimination at the work while discrimination is inversely related to organisational productivity. This means when workers perceive discrimination at the workplace, it reduces their level of individual productivity which reduces the level of organisational productivity.

The different HR configurations used for different modes (Lepak and Snell, 2011) created opportunities for discrimination between the core and the non-core works in an organisation. Core workers are likely to have a standard deal reflecting legislative rights or collective agreements. Non-core workers are likely to have idiosyncratic deals (Rousseau, 2001; Rousseau, Ho and Greenberg, 2003) which are individually negotiated employment deals based on a workers status. The later form of employment deal, mostly for the non-core workers, increases the 'risk of perception of unfairness' (Guest, 2004).

This form of discrimination causes conflicts and prevents industrial harmony (Sayles and Strauss, 1981). From the interviews conducted, it was revealed that discrimination was normally on the basis of type of employment or a workers status. Non-core workers were discriminated while core staff enjoyed most of the legislative rights of collective agreements. This supports findings that temporary work (non-core) has implications for inequalities (Appelbaum, 2012) and may worsen pre-existing inequalities (Kahn, 2007).

Discrimination on the basis of a workers status is an example of selective incivility (Cortina et al., 2011). This may generate feelings of inferiority and exclusion which subsequently lowers a worker's perceived self-worth (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995 and sense of belongingness (Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2010). This is because individuals are sensitive to variations in how they are treated (Williams, 2007). Diminished self-esteem is linked with deviant behaviours (Miller, 2001; Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Leary et al., 2006; Thau et al., 2007; Bobocel & Zdaniuk, 2010) like taking longer breaks, engaging in non-work task during work periods. These may have a spiraling effect on other workers who may decide to engage in these deviant behaviours (Anderson and Pearson, 1999) with its associated effect on productivity.

From the analysis, discrimination was negatively related to HPWS and organisational productivity. This means that the collective HR practices at the workplace is inversely related to discrimination at the work. If more of the HPWS were to be implemented, there will be a reduction in the level of procedural, distributed and informational discrimination at the workplace. The analysis as expected also revealed a negative relationship between discrimination and organisational productivity. This finding confirms the view that when workers perceive discrimination at the workplace, it reduces their level of productivity and thus the level of organisational productivity is reduced. This view supports Snell and Dean's (1992) view that employees' perceptions of equity affect their decisions to join, remain, and produce for a firm.

Fairness and Justice or equality means the absence of discrimination. It has its roots in philosophy, political science and religion. In business organisations, fairness appeals to all stakeholders (employers, employees, shareholders) 'who see it as a unifying value providing fundamental principles that bind together conflicting parties and create stable social structures'(Konovsky, 2000: 489). Miceli, Near, Rehg and Scotter (2012) found that 'observation of wrongdoing generally was associated with lower perceived justice of reporting channels (both procedural justice and distributive justice), suggesting that tolerating wrongdoing has negative effects for the organisation itself, but there was also evidence that correcting wrongdoing may be nearly as positive as preventing it'. In this case, organisations stand to benefit by actively preventing discrimination at the workplace. Non-discriminatory treatments have been found to affect workers positively by impacting on their self-esteem (De Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, Mullenders, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Miller, 2001; Smith, Tyler, Huo, Ortiz, & Lind, 1998; Tyler et al., 1996).

8.6 Summary of Chapter

This chapter discussed the findings of the research and triangulated between the literature, questionnaire and interview results. The discussions were based on the research objectives raised for the study. Key changes of work and some areas of labour standards were discussed. This chapter initially discussed how flexible and unsecured work has become and also the kind of labour standards existing in this changing nature of work. The effectiveness of the various laws on the labour standards was assessed using secondary and primary data to answer the research objectives one, two and three. The chapter also discussed how HPWS predicted organisational productivity through the nature of work and labour standards. This covered the research objectives of labour standards and nature of work as mediators in the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship raised in chapter one. Flexibility as an aspect of the changing nature of work was found to mediate the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity but Security did not mediated the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. In all security, collective bargaining and discrimination mediated the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship. It was also found that a workers employment status determined the worker's state of labour standards. In conclusion, this chapter has presented a discussion on all the objectives raised for the study through primary and secondary data collected.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the summary of research findings, conclusion, and contributions to knowledge as well as recommendations on the research topic. The focus of the study was to investigate into labour standards and the nature of work across sectors of the Ghanaian economy. This chapter is the concluding chapter and recaps the whole work. The work assessed the role of HR practices and how these practices cause the kind of labour standards and the kind of changes at work which reflects in the level of productivity.

9.2 Summary of findings

The summaries of findings cover the findings of the quantitative and qualitative research. Here the researcher provides a brief account on the outcome of field work. The first part presents the summary of the qualitative study followed by another section on the quantitative study.

9.2.1 Key Changes in the Nature of Work.

The main findings of the study are discussed below. The findings were drawn on interviews conducted on workers as well as an interview with the Ex-Deputy minister of state.

9.2.1.1 Flexibility in Organisations.

In their attempt to remain competitive and agile to changes within the work environment, organisations have introduced flexible work practices. These flexible practices according to literature were functional, internal numerical, external numerical and Labour cost flexibilities (Garcia 2009). The practice of flexibility in organisations supports the separation of labour into

core and non-core worker groups. The non-core group consisting part time, temporary and casual workers were the source of numerical flexibility. The research revealed that, though internal numerical flexibility is practiced, the use of full time permanent workers was still popular across the various sectors.

Interviews conducted reinforced the findings of the questionnaire where respondents emphasised that majority of the workers were full time but the use of contract and outsourced workers was on the increase. The study further revealed that non-core workers did not actually wish to be non-core but are compelled to take such status due to circumstances such as high rate of unemployment in the country.

It was also established through the study that permanent workers could not easily be fired unless on the basis of gross misconduct. Non-core workers on the other hand did not have this protection as they were easily laid off. In addition non – core workers did not have the employment protection enjoyed by permanent workers in most circumstances. This suggested that external flexibility was very high for non-permanent workers than for permanent workers. Workers also recorded high means on the use of functional flexibility by their organisations as was noted by the study. This allowed for the organisations to easily move workers across positions. Labour cost flexibility was revealed to be limited. This was noted where workers revealed that permanent workers were paid more than the non-permanent workers.

On flexibility, the study concluded that organisations made use of internal numerical flexibility by maintaining a permanent workforce supported by peripheral workforce. Functional flexibility was practised for the permanent workforce while external numerical flexibility was

high for non-core workers. Lastly, labour cost flexibility was achieved through saving cost on labour through the use of payment by results.

9.2.1.2 Security in Organisations

Literature revealed four security modalities namely; job security, income security, and employability and combined (work-life balance) security. Job security emphasises on keeping one's present job; income security is the ability to keep a relatively stable income; employability is the probability of being employed though not necessarily in the same job and; combined security is about balancing one's job and other aspects of life like family and studies.

It was deduced by the study through questionnaires that the highest opinions of security were from the educational sub-sector and the government agencies while the lowest perception was from the retailing sub-sector. Although most workers reported being permanent and having the necessary training and development for their work, they recorded high job insecurity. Interviews conducted revealed that though insecurity was a general perception, permanent workers generally enjoyed relatively higher levels of job security than non-core workers. Workers perceived that they could easily lose their jobs and/or made redundant depending on the organizational needs.

Interviews conducted on permanent workers across various sectors revealed that permanent worker had confidence about their job security. The exception was in the instance of gross misconduct which varied across sectors. In the banking sector the security of non-permanent workers was dependent on their ability to consistently achieve targets. Thus these non-core workers had conditional security while permanent works enjoyed relative security.

The study also established a direct relation of job security / insecurity of workers to their employment status which also determined their income security. Conversely, the study showed income security was assured for monthly salaried (permanent) workers who were confident of receiving their monthly pay and possibly increment depending on the financial performance of their organisations. Non-permanent workers' income security depended on their ability to meet targets and on the organisation's willingness to keep them.

In assessing employability dimension of security for workers, it was revealed through the questionnaire that workers were confident of their skills and ability to be reemployed in instances of losing their jobs. From the interviews, it was found that employability was assured more for permanent than for non-permanent workers. This was largely because permanent workers had frequent training and development programmes. Manual non-permanent workers however, had confidence that they had the skills to be employable elsewhere. They were however sceptical about finding another job. Another aspect of employability was realised from the interviews that, workers in offices (white colour workers) took on self-development initiatives in order to remain employable rather than manual jobs workers.

On work-life balance, interviews conducted in the course of the study revealed that it was an issue for both permanent and non-permanent workers. Workers were having to spend more time at work or on work related activities than any other aspect of their life and in most cases had no control over working time. The literature suggests at the individual level, lack of balance between work and other aspects of life have been associated with stress (Kahn and Byosiore, 1992), work-family conflict (Byron, 2005), divorce (Svarer, 2006) and poor physical health (Greenhaus, Allen, & Spector, 2006), whereas at the organisational level this leads to decrease in commitment and output (Ashford et al., 1989).

In summary this study found low levels of job security, income security and work-life balance. From literature two dimensions for subjective job insecurity - (1) the probability of a job loss, and (2) the consequences or costs of a job loss are proposed. The basis of the flexicurity model assumes that there is a positive trade-off between flexibility and security in places like Denmark. The reverse is true in developing countries like Ghana, with less employment protection and no supporting arrangements for workers after job loss. In such instance, job and income security or insecurity are positively related. That is when subjective job insecurity increases, subjective income insecurity increases, all other things being equal.

9.2.2 Labour Standards in Organisations

This study sought to uncover the state of labour standards in organisations across various sectors focusing on three main labour standards namely freedom of association (trade union), collective bargaining and prevention of discrimination at the workplace.

9.2.2.1 Freedom of Association in Organisations

The recognition and existence of the freedom of association accorded to both employers and workers is central to comprehensive employment relations. The study however focused on the organisation of workers (trade unions). From the interviews gathered, non-permanent workers, part time and other employment contracts, apart from permanent core workers, were allowed to form or join unions.

Another finding in organisations where unions were recognised was that, union membership was automatic for permanent workers. This is a contradiction to the ILO freedom of association convention and the provisions of section 79 (1) the Ghana Labour Act 2003 (Act

651) which grants workers the right to form or join unions. This means that workers can also opt out of the union as part of the exercise of their freedom.

It was also revealed that freedom of association, while allowed in the public sector is much restricted in the private sector. From the workers that were interviewed, it was realised the most private organisations did not have unions or any employee association of any kind. In essence, the prevention of associations is a clear breach of the ILO convention No. 87 (1948). It was also realised through the focus group interviews that, management deliberately used some HR practices like involvement and participation, open door policies, open forums and good communication to indirectly prevent workers from forming or joining unions.

The former ex- Deputy Minister for Employment noted that there may be some human resources practices that undermine labour standards mostly due to lack of knowledge and the attitude of the trade unions. He remarked that some of the unions use attacking, intimidating, threatening and aggressive approaches at the work place and this put off the Human Resources people.

9.2.2.2 Collective Bargaining in Organisations

Flaunders (1970) defined collective bargaining as a social process that ‘continually turns disagreements into agreements in an orderly fashion’. The Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) provides a trade union with the right to enter into a collective bargaining with the workers employers. However, employers are under no obligation to collectively bargain with unions that do not have collective bargaining certificates.

This study sought to find the perception of workers on the state of collective bargaining in various organisations, focusing on the availability or none thereof. The study found out that, collective bargaining was present where unions were recognized and accepted and, to some

extent, non-existent where unions were not recognised. In organisations where unions were in existence, for example the construction sector, workers confirmed that management accepted and recognised the unions during collective bargaining. In other organisations where union formation was barred, the organisations had boards of representatives comprising workers, management and the board of directors. This board decided on issues that bordered on labour management. A variation to the recognition of unions was revealed in a pharmaceutical company, where the management acknowledged the need for employee voice but dictated who represented the workers.

The finding that, temporary, part time and contract workers are not allowed to form or join union has implications on collective bargaining. Per the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) organisations are mandated to collectively bargain with certified unions. Per this Act, non-members of the union cannot force management to the negotiation table. This means that this group of workers may not be covered in the collective bargaining processing.

One finding from the interviews revealed that workers perceived the unions as ineffective in the exercise of collective bargaining at the workplace. Workers commented that their unions' ineffectiveness in voicing out concerns of workers to management was out of fear of losing their jobs.

The study revealed that employees' voice was limited. This was due to two reasons: the union's failure to voice employee concerns and/or management limits on voice through management initiated 'work councils' for employees.

9.2.2.3 Discrimination in Organisations.

According to the ILO core standards, employment should be devoid of discrimination by prescribing equal treatment for all workers at the workplace. This study sought to know prevalence of discrimination in organisations contrary to the ratified core standard on prevention of discrimination in employment.

In the interview however, it was discovered that the majority of discrimination at the workplace, was not based on procedural, distributive and informational discrimination but rather on the distinctions between permanent and non-permanent workers. Flexibility creates distinction between the core and the non-core and breeds discrimination in employment. Another type of discrimination was that branch managers (mostly male) preferred male managers to female managers using pregnancy as an excuse; this was noted in the banking sectors. Thus, branch managers perceived male managers as having the ability to absorb the pressures in the banking hall. This type of discrimination has been an age old battle even in the face of organisations and countries proclaiming boldly their belief in equal opportunities.

9.2.3 Labour Standards and the National Laws

An objective of this study was to identify the national laws in Ghana that cover the ILO standards. It was revealed in an interview with a protagonist that the ILO core standards are clearly incorporated into the national laws of Ghana in the constitution as well as Labour Act 2003 (Act 651). The study focused on freedom of association, collective bargaining and discrimination.

9.2.3.1 Freedom of Association

Through the documentary analysis, it was found that the constitution of Ghana and the Ghana Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) provide every person in Ghana with the freedom to join trade unions for protection of their interest. Although these laws exist on freedom of association, the study found out that in reality, workers are either prevented from forming or joining unions in some organisations. In such organisations, the consequences of any attempt at an association of workers results in workers being ‘kicked out’.

Interviews further revealed that management prevented the formation of associations directly and indirectly. The direct prevention of associations at the workplace is in the form of management preventing workers from these associations through verbal communications. The indirect prevention stems from the human resource practices that indirectly break the workers front and bridge the gap between management and workers through involvement and participation measures and implementation of flexibility.

9.2.3.2 The Freedom to Collectively Bargaining

The laws in Ghana provides for collective bargaining rights for unions. However, there was a mixture of findings on collective bargaining at the workplace. In some organisations where union formation was barred, the organisation had a board representative for workers, management and the board of directors. This board decides on the issues like increment in remuneration and others that border on labour issues.

Other places where unions are in existence, like the construction sector, workers confirmed that management accepts and recognises the unions but on some issues, the unions are rendered toothless bull dogs for fear of losing their jobs.

Membership in the unions in the mining, education and other sectors, are not voluntary as per the law. Once a worker is employed, the union starts deducting dues. This is contradictory to the freedom of association enshrined in the constitution and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651).

9.2.3.3 Freedom Against Discrimination

Discrimination at the workplace is not based on procedural, distributive and informational discrimination. The main discrimination borders on the distinctions in employment between the core and non-core workers.

The discrimination at the workplace was mainly between the employment conditions for permanent and non-permanent workers. Flexibility creates distinction between the core and the non-core and breeds discrimination.

9.3 Summary of findings from the hypotheses

The following section presents a brief summary of the hypothesis tested in this study using SPSS. In all there were six hypothesis tested in this study. The summaries are centred on the hypothesis tested.

9.3.1 H1: Organisational Productivity is the Direct Result of the HPWS in Place in an Organization

The HPWS factor in organisations has come about as a result of positive trends in managing employees as opposed to seeing them as a cost (Becker and Huselid, 1998:54). Per the results, obtained in the linear regression, HPWS was seen as having a direct positive significant relationship with organisational productivity.

The work of Becker et al., (1998) postulates that there are HR practices that lead to a long term competitive advantage. Other researchers such as Hamel and Prahalad, (1994) and Stalk, Evans & Shulman, (1992) have all agreed with this assertion in sectors where human capital is essential.

In line with MacDuffie, (1995), Delery and Shaw (2001), Wright, Dunford, and Snell, (2001), Batt, (2002), Wright and Gardner (2002), Bartel, (2004) and Becker & Huselid, (2006) who have tested HPWS on various forms of performance indicators, this research also arrived at a positive significant relationship between HPWS and organisational performance.

9.3.2 H2: Flexibility will mediate the relationship between HPWS and organizational productivity

It is believed that flexibility - through functional flexibility - develops a pool of human capital that organisations can rely on to create competitive advantage (Aryee et al., 2012) which translates into increase in productivity. This means that HPWS influences performance through its impact on the firm's human resource (HR) flexibility (Beltrán-Martín et al., 2008). This study tested flexibility as mediating in the HPWS – organisational productivity relationship.

The most commonly applied procedure for testing for mediation is the procedure prescribed by Baron and Kenney (1986). In testing for the mediation, the equation satisfied the first step of testing HPWS on organisational productivity (thus a significant positive relationship was obtained), the next step was to test the link between HPWS and flexibility which also met the criteria with $\beta=0.31$, $p<0.01$. However, flexibility failed to predict organisational productivity ($\beta=0.10$, $p=0.35$) which is a mandatory precursor for testing mediation according to Baron and Kenny (1986). Hence this hypothesis was rejected.

9.3.3 H3: Security will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

In testing for the mediation, the equation satisfied the first step of testing HPWS on organisational productivity. A significant and positive relationship was obtained as evidence in H1 above. The next step was to test the prediction between HPWS and security which also met the criteria with $\beta=0.46$, $p<0.01$. The third regression analysis reported a Beta of 0.28 and a p-value of 0.01 satisfying Baron and Kenny's requirement for mediation.

The last regression analysis was the testing of security as a mediating variable in the HPWS – organisational productivity. The Sobel test was used to confirm this mediated reporting a t-test of 2.46, $SE=0.09$, $p\text{-value}=0.01$. The proportion of the total effect that was mediated was 29%. The findings support other reported findings of there being a significant relationship between security and organisational outcomes (Delery et al., 1996; Bjookman et al, 2000; Ezane et al., 2009). Thus the hypothesis that security is one of the mediating variables through which HPWS impacts on organisational productivity (H3) was accepted.

9.3.4 H4: Trade Union will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

Trade Union (Freedom to form or join unions) was tested as a mediator between HPWS and organisational productivity using Baron and Kenny (1986). A multiple regression was conducted to test this hypothesis. Findings of the analysis revealed that HPWS positively predicted freedom of association (trade union) but freedom of association did not predict organisational productivity. Thus freedom of association is not one of the means through which HPWS impacts on organisational productivity.

The findings contradict other research findings that unions are associated with lower profitability and financial performance (Machin and Stewart, 1996) or higher productivity (García-Serrano, 2004). Other findings conclude that unions' lower employee turnover and improve human capital investment (Allen, 1983; Clark, 1980a; 198b; Freeman and Medoff, 1979 & Wessels, 1985). The finding was however consistent with other findings that union has a statistically insignificant relationship with organisational outcomes (Kaufman, 1992; Kruse, 1993; Bartel, 1994; Wilson, 1995; Blanchflower and Machin, 1995; Zagler, 2000).

9.3.5 H5: Collective Bargaining will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

In testing this hypothesis, the multiple regression met Baron and Kenny (1986)'s rules for mediation. It was concluded that collective bargaining actually mediates the HPWS-organisational productivity relationship. Collective bargaining explained 29% of the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. Union member, having the opportunity to voice out their grievances and a chance to have a say in the management at the workplace, are most likely to stay and contribute their quota to the success of the organisation. Per Borjas, (2013), non-union workers can only register their grievance through exiting the organization which does not create a better room for improving productivity.

9.3.6 H6: Discrimination will mediate the relationship between HPWS and Organisational Productivity

On hypothesis 6, the same process as used in the previous hypothesis was adopted for computing the mediation. The criterion for computing mediation was satisfied. From the analysis, discrimination was negatively related with HPWS and organisational productive which suggests that the collective HR practices at the workplace is inversely related to

discrimination at the work and discrimination also having a negative relationship with productivity. Most researchers (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Lind et al., 2000; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Colquitt, 2001) have found their various measure of discrimination to be negatively related to their respective organisational outputs. Hence the use of various HR practices (HPWS) which are geared towards the reduction in discrimination will result in a positive impact on productivity as depicted in the analysis. Hence H6 was accepted.

9.4 Conclusion

The study concludes that work has changed in the aspect of flexibility and its associated security. Workers are divided into core and non-core at the workplace and these statuses have implications on labour standards enjoyed by the workers. While core workers were more likely to enjoy some level of labour standards, except in the case of freedom of association, non-core workers do not have freedom of association, collective bargaining and are discriminated against on other grounds like involvement and participation.

The ILO core labour standards except trade unions were found to mediate the relationship between HPWS and organisational productivity. Thus organisations that ensure labour standards are more likely to be productive organisations than those that do not. The major problem being faced in achieving an appreciable level of labour standards despite the changing nature of work is the enforcement of the labour laws and ILO labour standards in Ghana. Although this problem is mostly faced by those in the private sector the only way to ensure that the core standards are adhered to will require reporting non-compliance to the appropriate bodies. The institutions set up to manage the labour standards - the labour department, factories and offices inspection, national labour commission and national tripartite committee must

oversee labour standards and report such organisations. It must be acknowledged that Ghana has one of the best labour laws and it is also the only country that has a national tripartite committee.

Based on the theory of AMO, it was concluded that combined HR practices create abilities in organisations through comprehensive training, functional flexibilities which impact job security, income security and employability. This skill enhancement aspect of combined HR practices ensures that workers have the right skills needed to achieve competitive advantage. Workers who are able to exhibit these abilities needed add to the pool of human capital that organisations find indispensable. Workers with such skills are more likely to be part of the core staff and enjoy relative job security over those who do not possess these abilities. This also affects the income security as there are no social benefits in Ghana for the unemployed. Thus in Ghana, unlike in Denmark where the flexicurity model proposed income security as the availability of social benefits from the state, income security is depended on one's abilities, the availability of work and the security of one's job.

Ghana's social benefits for the unemployed stem from the social support from friends and families which are not constant and cannot be sustained for a long period of time. Thus labour abilities, skills and knowledge are important determining factors in assessing one's job and income security at the workplace or one's employability in the labour market. The abilities that workers possess creates opportunities for involvement and participation at the workplace and more likely reduce if not prevent discrimination against them. Workers with the right abilities are able to contribute to decisions and are valuable members of teams.

9.5 Empirical Contributions

From literature, changes in work as well as the state of labour standards in Ghana have not been thoroughly studied. A few studies include the work of Baah (2005) and Arkosu (2010) have been undertaken in the area of labour standards. This study makes a significant academic contribution through the investigations into the labour standards using a statistical approach and providing in-depth knowledge through a qualitative approach. Baah's (2005) work was focused on poor working conditions in Ghana while Arkosu's (2010) work was focused on labour standards in the manufacturing sector. This study focused on labour standards across twenty three sub-sectors in four main sectors of the economy of Ghana. Clearly, this study constitutes the first attempt to undertake an extensive coverage across all sectors in the economy of Ghana on labour standards.

Another empirical contribution to academia is the linkage between the nature of work and the state of labour standards. This is the first work in Ghana covering how work is changing across sectors and the associated labour standards. This work clearly fills a as the study provides an explanation into the relationship between how work is changing for individuals employees and the implications of these changes on the state of labour standards enjoyed. This study has proved that the flexibilities being practiced in organisations across various sectors impacts on the labour standards in the organisation. This has offered a different perspective of the understanding of labour issues in Ghana.

Lastly, this research provides empirical resource for the labour market and labour institutions in Ghana and internationally. Information on Ghana on labour standards is very limited. The absence of information on Ghana in ILO reports is evident. This study contributes to

knowledge in labour standards and nature of work and serves as a source of reference for researchers, social partners and policy makers.

9.6 Practical Implications of the study

The study makes some practical contributions to management and workers and their unions. These contributions are discussed below:

9.6.1 Implications for Management

Due to the changes that are taking place in the business world, it is prudent for appropriate steps to be taken in order to make the best of these changes. One area of change in work is the practice of the various forms of flexibility to sustain organisations in a competitive environment. This means both the Human Resource professionals and individuals workers are expected to play their contributing roles. While workers are expected to possess the right skills and be up to task as well as be available as and when organisations need them, managers also have a role to play.

These changes at the workplace calls for human resource people to be able to have the capacity to acquire natural talents, adaptive talents and then accordingly know how to do their selection and placement on the job so that the people can really do what they have the capacity to do. This is a call for HR practitioners to acquire the right talents for the right positions in order for flexibility to have the desired impact on the level of productivity at the workplace. Unless this is achieved, HR practitioners will be putting square pegs in round holes and hoping for miracles.

Another implication for management is to understand a new system of management where the good or the positive things being done are emphasis upon by the management. In this system, organisations should seek 'positive organisational scholarship' which focuses on positive

dynamics in organisations that give rise to extraordinary outcomes. This can be a great source of motivation. The old management practice of focusing on the weaknesses of the organisation will be damaging to workers ego and kill their edge to use their abilities to create new things in the organisation. This is an area that is not so pronounced in Ghana because the knowledge base is not there.

9.6.1.2 Implication for workers

Changes being witnessed at the workplace in the form of flexibility and security are associated with both “positive” and “negative” effects. Whilst this change brings about an increase in the profitability of organisations leading to a higher demand for labour, the changes also render some workers redundant thus increasing unemployment. Workers now have to prove their skills and adaptation to learning new things in order to be able to fit into the organisation.

The positive consequence for individual workers is that their knowledge based enhances through the functional flexibility in organisations there by making workers employable and assuring them of a good level of job and income security. When these are assured, workers can contribute more to the gross domestic product through their efforts a work and their tax contributions.

However, these changes in the nature of work also mean that the initial entry into jobs now require a level of knowledge and skills higher than previously. Organisations in order to cut down cost, and also in face of many people acquiring skills in the country, would prefer hiring people who already have the skills or people who can easily adapt their skills to the organisation. Workers will have to embark on self-development to make themselves employable.

9.7 Recommendations

The following are recommendations from the study. They have been targeted at specific groups of people and institutions.

9.7.1 Recommendation to the Government

Ghana has enshrined the ILO core standards in its constitution and the Labour Act 2003 (Act 651) which are the major documents so far as work is concerned. This is a good measure as worker can have a fall back on the law to ensure that they enjoy a decent work with a good level of labour standard. However, these remain in prints. There is a wide gap between the principle and the practice. The law must be seen as biting. If organisations can always get away with non-compliance of the core labour standards, they will always avoid compliance. This may call for the ministry of employment to educate organisations on the applicability of the laws.

Measures should be put in place to check the adherence. Institutions like the Factory Inspections should be equipped to monitor the standards. Once organisations believe the government is serious about these standards, they will adhere to them. As the saying goes, what gets measured gets done. The new trend of atypical employment relationships calls for a level of employment protection for such workers through the laws of the countries. Workers right and protections must be extended to these atypical employments like part-time and temporary employment contracts. Workers' rights and protection seems to have been built around standard employment relationships – such as union participation and collective bargaining.

In reality, these atypical forms of employment seem to be the line of discrimination in organisation. It would help, if the government could make these explicit in the Labour Act that

these atypical employees have the same rights as the typical employees when it comes to the labour standards. This can further be ensured through monitoring of workplace and the inclusion of atypical employees in assessing the state of labour standards at the workplace. These will help reduce the risk of polarisation of labour standards around the forms of employments and also reduce the likelihood of short term employment through easy firing of such workers.

9.7.2 Recommendation to Organisations

Employers must educate themselves to adhere to the standards set. From the findings in this study, the relationship between the collective HR practices and the level of organisational productivity hinges on labour standards. If such is the case then through ensuring the right labour standards at the workplace, organisations can indirectly improve their productivity.

It is recommended that organisations extend the same practices to non-core workers in terms of labour standards. This will be one way of winning their commitment and achieving competitive advantage over their competitors. This may incur an initial cost but the long term benefit will far out way the cost. Workers with high commitment will translate these into increase productivity.

The HR practitioners should be able to formulate policies as under s 8(b) of the Labour Act, set targets for workers and make sure that rules and regulations that govern the relationship between them are followed. This will also call for the investment in workers to appreciable level. As organisations invest into their workers, though they may not be able to assure the workers of job and income security, the organisations will be providing employability as an indirect effect of the investment.

As part of avoiding disruptions associated with the presence of a union, the HR should train workers on self-mediation to mediate matters bordered on discrimination and other related matters. There should also be managerial capability to mediate and executive mediation at the board level. With these measures, differences can be resolved quickly and will not get out of hand resulting in lengthy strikes with its associated economic and social problems.

9.7.3 Recommendation to Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations and other National Institutions for Labour Issues

The institutions established to look at labour issues in Ghana should go beyond the setting of minimum wages to overseeing labour standards at the workplace. This will mean that the secretariats should be strengthened in knowledge of the Labour Act and equipped with the training necessary as well as the budgetary requirements necessary to help carry out their work.

Effective enforcement of the labour laws regarding the core labour standards requires awareness-raising, monitoring, and other types of participation from all concerned especially the Labour Institutions in the country. The Ministry for Employment and Labour Relations has a responsibility to educate workers and employers on the existing laws. This may not be enough as workers and employers may decide to flout the laws. To ensure enforcement, periodic labour inspection by the established labour institutions should be undertaken and reports published in the daily newspapers. Organisations in order to prevent the damaging of their corporate reputation will ensure compliances to the core labour conventions.

The Ministry and its Agents' commitment to the enforcement of these core standards should be more than skin deep. The enforcement of the laws relies on three basic tools: sunshine, carrots and sticks (Institute of International Economics, 2000). The sunshine tools cover the

mechanism of ILO for supervising the application of conventions. These include routine reporting, review process and adhoc procedures for handling complaints. Per article 22 of the ILO constitutions, member states are required to report on ratified conventions. The Ministry, from submitted reports of the National Institutions concerned, will have reports to submit to the ILO. These reports can be cross checked with the Trade Union Congress, Ghana Federation of Labour and the Ghana Employers Association to assess the authenticity of the report. This will also help to increase transparency and ensure that all parties to the employment relations agree to the report. Agreed areas of challenges should be submitted to the ILO in the annual report.

The use of carrots is the identification of priorities or areas of challenges for technical and financial assistance from ILO. This has been proven to be the most effective and sustainable means of improving implementation of core labour standards (Institute of International Economics, 2000).

9.7.4 Recommendation for Unions

The only time evil prevails is when righteous people fail to act. A knowledgeable worker defends his rights and prevents wrong acts. Workers unions should take up the education of their members in labour issues so that collectively the knowledge base on labour issues will increase in organisations. Once this is achieved, it will lessen the burden of the union executives having to intervene in every issue at the workplace. These issues will be avoided when workers demonstrate their knowledge about the labour standards expected at the workplace. Together with management the union and workers can uphold the level of labour standards in our organisations.

One means of educating the union members as well as the potential union members will be through the establishment of an institute for training and developing union leaders, members and other non-union targets like student. The non-union targets like students would be indoctrinated with the ideas of unionisation and how to organise at the grassroots. Thus before they become workers, they already understand the concept of unionisation and have developed the potential to be leaders in their organisations. This will also help in preventing the forced union membership currently being practiced in organisation.

The unions in Ghana have to adopt the 'organising model' whereby union revival strategies should be focused on increasing worker activism and workplace organising. Though there are no anti-union legislations in Ghana, the changing pattern of work demands a new strategy to be used to capture all those workers outside the union net and also to work on the negative perception associated with unionisation at the grassroots. In organisations where unions are present, workers did not feel the presence of the unions except in deducting dues from workers' wages and salaries.

The focus of unions should be on 'internal organisation' where the local union representatives are equipped as leaders to meet periodically with union members and serve as the bridge between these union members and the management of organisations. The gap between the union leadership and the union members would be closed if the union leadership reflects the composition of the workforce. In such instance, union members will feel inclusive and be able to call upon their representatives with questions and problems. This would also be a means to ensure that issues that are of concern to all union members are taken on board and feedback given to concerned workers.

Another aspect of the organising model is the ‘external organisation’. This is about unions in Ghana launching into the organisation of part time, temporary and other non-permanent workers in organisations and private organisations that do not allow union formation. This will widen the membership base and provide the needed financial resources to embark on organisation of the members to understand what the union stands for and also provide members with a voice within the union.

Unions in Ghana are perceived as ‘destructive’ of the harmonious employment relations using antagonistic approaches like threats and unlawful strikes to demand wage increases. For unions to be accepted into these private organisations, though the law allows it, it will require a new attitude towards employers. Thus the use of the ‘organising model’ will not be enough. Another model the ‘service model’ may have to be adopted to work on this negative perception. The service model seeks to create good relationship with management through negotiations and arbitrations. This model also focuses on union representatives undertaking these negotiations without using members to bring pressure on employers. The union representatives should as much as possible avoid the use of strike as a punitive measure.

The union as a last resort to ensure the implementation of the core labour standards at the workplace can resort to the use of ‘sticks’. This is where the union should make use of the multiple avenues created by the ILO in article 26 of the ILO constitution. This article of the ILO constitution creates avenue for the union to file a complaint with the International Labour Office on any alleged non-compliance by member states of ratified conventions.

9.8 Direction for future research

The study recommends the following for future empirical studies:

1. The two main variables in the work, labour standards and nature of work were not tested quantitatively to know which is driving which. From the qualitative work presented on their linkage, the nature of determined the kind of labour standards enjoyed by workers. This can be tested quantitatively to confirm this finding.
2. Research can be conducted to know how organisational level variables affect the individual level variables like workplace labour standards.
3. It would be insightful to replicate this work using a sample of only non-core employees to better understand their labour standards and to recommend policies for organisations and government to ensure non-marginalisation of these groups of workers in terms of the ILO standards.
4. Other ILO core standards can be research into to provide better understanding into the labour standard issues in Ghana. This will also provide enough information on Ghana to the outside world on how ILO standards are being upheld in the country.

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APPENDIX 1

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE PROTAGONIST (EX-MINISTER OF STATE)

1. What are the major national laws / policies that enforce Trade Unions formation, recognition and enforcement in Ghana?
2. What are the major national laws / policies that Enforce collective bargaining at the workplace?
3. What are the major national laws / policies that Prevents discrimination at the workplace?
4. How well is Ghana doing on complying with the core labour standards (Trade union, collective bargaining, discrimination)?
5. How different has work become now as compared to then in terms of flexibility at the workplace?
6. What does this (the above) mean for workers' security?
7. How well are the national laws on trade unions handling the current nature of worker like part time, temporary, agency workers, and contract workers?
8. What laws / policies are in place to ensure workers security?
9. What institutions have been put in place to ensure labour standards (in terms of trade union formation and recognition, collective bargaining and discrimination)
10. How effective are these institutions?
11. What are some of the gaps in the national laws that need to be filled in order to achieve the ILO standards in trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination in Ghana?
12. What recommendations would you make to employers, unions and the nation to achieve ILO standards in trade union, collective bargaining and discrimination?

APPENDIX 2

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR EMPLOYEES

RESEARCH QUESTION	TARGET	QUESTIONS
RQ1: What are the key changes in the nature of work by sectors?	Employees	1. What is the nature of your work? 2. How long have you been employed in this work 3. Describe your work now as compared to when you were initially employed. --Work flexibility, technology, time, outsourcing, and agency 4. Have there been any laws that have affected your work process. If yes explain 5. Do you know of any law concerning trade unions or collective bargaining? Explain 6. How does this law reconcile with management practices in the organization?

RQ3: What HRM practices are in place in organisations to manage labour standards and how work changing?	Employees	7. Does your organization allow the formation of trade union or workers association? Yes/no (Explain) 8. Is there any group that represents workers if you have something to relay to management in terms of ideas, grievances etc. 9. Have there been any other incidents at work where workers had to meet management on any issues? 10. How did you go about it? 11. How effective were they? 12. Do you have a union or workers association? If yes: 12a. Does your union offer you belongingness? 12b. How does your union help secure your job? 12e. How are employee concerns addressed without trade unions?

		If no: 12c. Would you want to form one? 12d. If yes: Why haven't you formed one yet? 13. What do you do among yourself to help each other? 14. Does management consult you when formulating or reviewing a policy? 14a.How is it done? 15. Are there any policies or management practices in our organization concerning trade unions or collective bargaining? 16. What are the management practices concerning when, where and how work is done? 17. How flexible is your work? (Concerning when, where and how you work) 18. How secured is your job. -- Income; employment, job 19. Are there any management practices/policies/measures that gives the assurance/confidence that your jobs are secured? 20. What are they?

		21. Do you think there is discrimination or unfairness in your workplace? Explain your answer 22a. If yes- In what ways are people discriminated against. 22. Does discrimination permeate (cut across) throughout the organization? (Distributive) 23. Do all workers follow the same procedure at work without enjoying undue advantages? (Procedural) 24. Are there situations where people wouldn't want to work with others? Explain 25. Explain measures the organisation use to address discrimination if these are measures in place?

APPENDIX 3 - QUESTIONNAIRES (MANAGERS)

KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGERIAL SCIENCE

QUESTIONNAIRE - MANAGERS

I am a researcher from the KNUST School of Business undertaking a research on ‘Labour Standards and the changing nature of work’. I would be grateful if you could provide answers to the following questions. All information provided by respondents will be treated confidentially.

1. Gender: (a) Male ☐ (b) Female ☐

2. Age (in years). Please tick (✓)

20 – 30 ☐ 31 – 40 ☐ 41 – 50 ☐ 51 – 60 ☐
61 and above ☐

3. Marital status: Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐

4. Highest level of education. Please tick (✓)

PhD ☐ Master’s Degree ☐ First Degree ☐ HND ☐
SSCE/ WASSCE ☐ Others (specify)

5. How many employees are in your organisation?

0-5 ☐ 6-29 ☐ 30-99 ☐ 100 and above ☐

6. What type of organisation /industry are you in? Please tick (✓)

Banking ☐ Health ☐ Education ☐ Manufacturing ☐
Trading ☐ Others ☐ Specify:

.....

7. Job title

Please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the following HR Practices in your organisation.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3= Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5
Staffing					
My organisation uses extensive employee selection process for a job					
Most managers are involved in the selection decision					
Few applicants are screened for each available job position					
Comprehensive Training					
Employees receive intensive training in organisation specific skills					
Employees receive training on generic skills (problem solving, communication skills)					
Training incorporates the interests of the organisation as well as the individual					
Training needs identified are realistic, useful and based on the organisational strategy					
Every employee goes through various training programmes every year					
Managers feel training is a cost rather than an investment					
Performance Appraisal					
Many people provide input to the performance evaluation of each employee in the organisation					
All employees in the organisation are covered by performance appraisal system					
The performance standards are the same across the organisation					
Employees are involved in goal setting and appraisal					
Employees receive formal appraisal/evaluation on routine basis					
After performance appraisal satisfactory and unsatisfactory performance is conveyed to employees					
Employee Involvement and participation (Voice)					
Employee participation is encouraged on a wide range of issues					
Employees can exercise independent thought and action in executing their jobs					

Employees follow strict job instructions					
Employees are allowed to make decisions through problem solving teams					
Employees are encouraged to suggest improvements how tasks and jobs are done					
Supervisors keep open communication with employees in the organisation					
Employees' suggestion schemes are used in the organisation					
Team work					
Team member are selected based on their skills and knowledge					
The organisation support team working					
Team members are allowed to try new ideas and methods					
Team members aspire to achieving greater performance					
Job security					
It is very difficult to dismiss an employee in this organisation					
If the organisation were facing financial problems, employees would be the last to get downsized					
Employees are assured of long term employment with this organisation					
Information Sharing and Communication					
My organisation regularly informs employees about important changes.					
My organisation regularly informs employees about overall policies and goals					
My organisation regularly informs employees about organisational performance					
My organisation regularly informs employees about their departments' plans					
My organisation regularly informs employees about the requirements of their jobs.					
Employees feel free to approach their supervisors when they have a problem.					
There is regular staff meeting to encourage communication in the organisation					
Employees and or department exchange information regularly concerning work					
Employee Relations					
In this work place coordination and control are based more on shared goals, values and traditions than monitoring and sanctions					

Supervisors facilitate rather than direct the workforce through their interpersonal and conceptual ability					
This work place uses amicable planning and problem solving rather than adversarial employee relations					
The overall workplace relationship between managers and employees is excellent					
Management does not treat employees as an expense of doing business					
All employees in this workplace are managed in the same way					
Promotions					
Promotions are open to all workers irrespective of gender or employment type					
Vacancies are first advertised internally					
Promotion procedures are made known to all workers					
Workers are promoted from within to occupy higher positions					
Promotions is based on long service rather than on job performance					
Career Management					
My organisation has processes and programs in place that will assist me assist career development.					
My organisation considers and plans the career paths of all employees.					

Using the scale below, how would you rate the following statements in your organisation
1=Low 2=Slightly low 3=Same 4=Slightly high 5=Higher

Pay	1	2	3	4	5
How would you rate pay levels in your organisation relative to other organisations?					
How would you rate the pay levels in your organisation relative to past years?					
How closely is pay tied to individual performance?					
How wide is the range in pay across members in this organisation?					

From the statements below indicate your level of agreement or disagreement.

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3= Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

	1	2	3	4	5

The organisation is not able to meet the goals it sets					
The organisation achieves its stated goals.					
Work in this organisation is easier because of laid down procedures					
Each section understands the role it plays in achieving organisational goals.					
The organisation functions smoothly with a minimum of internal conflict					
Resources needed for proper functioning of the organisation are always available.					
The organisation is normally understaffed					
Financial supports needed are available for use.					
The organisation has enough human capital to accomplish its goals					
The organisation is able to satisfy the owner(s) /shareholders.					
Customers/clients' expectations are met					
We do not have problems in dealing with state and local government.					
Most suppliers are happy to work with my organisation.					
Employees are motivated to stay with this organisation.					

Thank you for participating

APPENDIX 4 – QUESTIONNAIRE (EMPLOYEES)

KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGERIAL SCIENCE

I am a researcher from the KNUST School of Business undertaking a research on ‘Labour Standards and the changing nature of work’. I would be grateful if you could provide answers to the following questions. All information provided by respondents will be treated confidentially.

1. Gender: (a) Male ☐ (b) Female ☐

2. Age (in years). Please tick (✓)

20 – 30 ☐ 31 – 40 ☐ 41 – 50 ☐ 51 – 60 ☐

61 and above ☐

3. Marital status: Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐

4. Highest level of education. Please tick (✓)

PhD ☐ Master’s Degree ☐ First Degree ☐ HND ☐

SSCE/ WASSCE ☐ Others (specify)

5. How long have you been working in this organisation? years

6. What type of organisation /industry are you in? Please tick (✓)

Banking ☐ Health ☐ Education ☐ Manufacturing ☐

Trading ☐ Others ☐ Specify:

.....

7. How many hours on average do you work per day? Hours

8. Job title / position

9. What type of employment contract do you have? Please tick (✓)

Permanent Full Time ☐ Part-time ☐ Contract ☐ Temporal ☐

10. Are you a member of a trade union? No [] Yes []

From the statements below indicate your level of agreement or disagreement. There are no correct and wrong answers. Please use the scale provided below:

1=Strongly Disagree 2=Disagree 3= Neutral 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

HR practices	1	2	3	4	5
I am provided with sufficient opportunities for training and development					
I receive the training I need to do my job.					
This department keeps me informed about business issues and about how well it's doing.					
There is a clear status difference between management and staff in this department.					
Team working is strongly encouraged in our department / organisation.					
A rigorous selection process is used to select new recruits.					
Management involves workers when they make decisions that affect them.					
Communication within this department is good.					
Communication between departments is good.					
I feel my job is secure.					
The rewards I receive are directly related to my performance at work.					
Career management is given a high priority in this department					
I have the opportunities I want to be promoted.					
The performance appraisal system provides me with an accurate assessment of my strengths and weaknesses.					
I am given meaningful feedback regarding my performance at least once a year.					
Justice					
In general, the rewards that I receive are fair.					
Taking into account the other salaries paid in this organisation, I feel that					

my salary is fair.					
Taking into account my work experience, I feel that I am fairly rewarded.					
Taking into account my efforts that I put into this organisation, I feel that I am fairly rewarded.					
Employees can disagree or appeal against the decisions made by their superiors.					
My organisation has a mechanism allowing the employees to appeal against the decisions that affect them.					
In several ways, my organisation attempts to understand the employees' opinions about the decisions and policies concerning rewards.					
My supervisor shows genuine concern to be fair with me.					
My supervisor is completely sincere and frank with me.					
My supervisor expresses concerns for my rights at work.					
My supervisor treats me with respect and consideration.					
My supervisor gives me feedback about my work, allowing me to improve my job.					
When my supervisor decides about my work, he/she gives explanations that make sense to me.					
My supervisor discusses with me the expectation concerning my performance.					
My supervisor clearly explains all decisions concerning my work.					
Flexibility					
Some employees work on part-time basis					
Employees have the option to work at flexible working hours					
The organisation introduces overtime when the need arises					
Shift system is applied in this organisation					
Employees have been trained to work at other positions when the person is not around					

We move to different jobs within the organisation to gain experience					
Some of the non-core activities (cleaning, security and recruitment) are done by other organisations					
The wages in my organisation are not decided collectively					
Educational level is considered in determining pay					
Shortage of the skills that an employee has increases his pay level					
My organisation uses temporal workers when the need arises					
Employees can be fired depending on the needs of the institution					
Security					
I worry about the security of my job					
My position is likely to be made redundant					
My income is likely to be unstable and uncertain					
My income has improved over the past 12 months					
My work gives me time to care for my family					
My work provides me time to undergo training or study.					
I can easily get a new job should I leave my current employment					
I possess the skills that will make me employable for the rest of my life					
Trade union / Staff / Workers Association					
During collective bargaining, my union is recognized and invited					
My union's negotiations cover more than half of the workforce in my organization					
Management accepts the formation of unions in the organisation					
Temporary, casual and part time workers are allowed to join trade unions					
Most employees are members of trade unions in my organization					
Once an individual is employed by my organization, he or she automatically becomes a member of the trade union					
I would leave my union if I had a good alternative					

I can always call upon my union with questions or problems					
My union hardly takes into account the things that are important to me					
My union appreciates my opinion					
When I have a complaint my union doesn't really care					
My union hardly has any concerns about my well-being					

Collective Voice	1	2	3	4	5
In your organization, is there an employee group (e.g. Union, staff association etc) that					
Develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect your work					
Speak up and encourages others to get involved in issues that affect work					
Communicates the opinions of workers about work issues to management					
Keeps workers well informed about work issues that affect workers					
Speaks for workers concerning issues that affect the quality of work-life					
Speaks up with ideas for changes in how work is done (procedure in work)					

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING