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**A PUBLICATION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
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IMPLICATIONS OF GLOBALISATION AND CASUALISATION ON MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT IN OIL AND GAS SECTOR IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Globalization has become a dominant issue in work organisations all over the world. It has the potential to enrich not only the nation's economy but also the workplace as it can increase productivity, profitability and ease the performance of tasks. However, certain changes such as privatisation, deregulation, liberalisation, subsidies removal, casualisation, downsizing, rightsizing, rationalisation, recapitalisation, merger and acquisition amongst others, have made globalisation very unpopular among workers in the developing economies. Understandably in the recent times the anti-globalisation protests have increased all over the world as a form of resistance against the obnoxious changes that accompany globalisation. Against this backdrop this paper examines the

Nigerian situation by focusing critically on the implications of casualisation on developing a committed and motivated manpower in the oil and sector in Nigeria. The paper argued that the phenomena surrounding the status of casual/contract workers do not allow these workers to be trained and developed in such a way to tap their vast potentials for effective management of organisations. On this note, the paper recommended the need to address the vex issue of casualisation in the oil and sector in Nigeria to give these workers sense of belonging and in order to encourage effective manpower development for the achievement of higher productivity.

Introduction

The term "globalisation" has acquired considerable emotive force over the years. Some view it as a process that is beneficial—a key to future world economic development—and also inevitable and irreversible. However some regard it with apprehension and fear, believing that it increases inequality within and between nations, threatens employment and living standards and thwarts social progress (Adeboye, 2002; World Bank, 2003; Van Der Bly, 2005).

With globalisation in some countries, privatisation, liberalisation, deregulation and removal of subsidies have taken place, thereby making most workers apprehensive about their jobs. Moreover, both jobs and incomes have become more precarious as global mergers and intense competitions pressurize government to privatize companies and parastatals and hence streamline their operations. Consequently hiring and firing workers as well as casualisation of labour according to the needs of the markets make sense for an organisation concerned with increasing its profits, but it plays havoc with people's lives (Afonja, 2003; Levin, 2003).

The implications of economic globalisation on labour are tremendous. Trade liberalisation results in flooding of the domestic markets with imported goods and services at relatively cheaper rates (Castella, 1998; Ajayi, 2001; World Bank, 2003; Kiely, 2005). The massive devaluation of national currencies means the cost of raw materials become very exorbitant and beyond the reach of local manufacturers, who subsequently source for local materials that are expensive due to removal of subsidies. Hence producing at higher costs than cheap imported goods would result in low patronage. This has led to closures of a lot of manufacturing firms and also low capacity utilization (Adewumi, 2001; Ajayi, 2001; MAN 2003). High interest rates have also made obtaining loans for manufacturing unattractive. Privatization of public enterprises leads to loss of jobs, while removal of subsidies leads to poverty and high cost of living (Adewumi, 2001; MAN 2003). The continuous trade and capital liberalisation lead to growth of informal sector, which engage workers under unfair labour practices like casual/contract employment and deplorable working conditions and environment (Went, 2000; Khor, 2001; ILO, 2003). The inability of labour to flow/migrate to another work organisation or part of the world for improved standard of living as part of components of globalisation has further worsened the labour situation (Ajayi, 2001; Oshiomole, 2001; Okafor, 2005).

The oil and gas sector in Nigeria represents one major area where unfair labour practices have been perpetuated for a long time under globalisation thereby giving rise to marginalisation of casual/ contract especially as regards development of manpower in the sector. Against this background this paper intends to examine this issues critically and offer suggestion on how to reduce this practice in the sector.

The Concepts of Globalisation and Casualisation

The International Monetary Fund, IMF, (1997:15) defined globalisation as "the growing economic interdependence of countries worldwide through the increasing volume and variety of 'cross border' transactions in goods and services and of international capital flow and also through the more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology"

Moreover, Kwanashie (1998:3) defined globalisation as "a process of integrating economic decision-making such as the consumption, investment and saving process all across the world. It is a process of creating a global market in which increasingly all nations are forced to participate". Furthermore, Ojo and Obaseki (1998: 6) contended that globalisation is "the integration of national economies through trade and financial transactions, a process that has tended to reduce the ability of domestic economic policy to achieve its objectives without due consideration of the countervailing effects of competing policies adopted by other nations".

In his bid to convey what is new about globalisation, Woods (2000) distinguished two aspects of change related to the subject: quantitative dimension and qualitative one. Quantitatively, globalisation refers to an increase in trade, capital movements and people across borders. Some refer to these new forces as 'transnationalism' and 'interdependence'. Critics have argued that there is little that is new in the instance (Onyeonoru, 2004). Meanwhile, indication of what is new in globalisation lies in qualitative changes in international politics – changes in the ways people and groups think and identify themselves, changes in the way states, firms, and other actors perceive and pursue their interest in contemporary times. From this viewpoint, core aspects of globalisation can be identified as comprising three inter-connected elements: the expansion of markets; challenges to the states and institutions; and the rise of new social and political movements.

From the foregoing it may be deduced that globalisation is the term used to describe the growing worldwide interdependence of people and countries. The key feature that underlies the concept of globalisation is the erosion and irrelevance of national boundaries in markets that can truly be described as global. Capital flows are being denationalized as a result and national boundaries are becoming increasingly de-emphasise (Owolabi, 1998; UNDP, 1999; Kiely, 2005). The main thrusts for the ever growing irrelevance of national boundaries in the financial markets are technological and economic development (Adewuyi, 2003).

There is no doubt that progress has been made in the world as a result of globalisation and this of course is the evidence of the benefits of the system. There has been a constant growth of the globalisation of business world over the years as the world advances in the age of Information Technology (IT). These improvements are leading to increases in the trade of goods and services worldwide. This in turn is accounted for increased investments and competitions (Jones, 1994; Mazrui, 2001; Adeboye, 2002; Kiely, 2005).

Globalisation (both economic and cultural) thrives on the basis of global interdependence. The current situation is that countries are now more interdependent than ever in the history of man. The present structure of the world economy is such that resource movement around the world has become critical for its growth and sustained global welfare. Therefore, the location and integration of an organisation's operations across several international boundaries are essential ingredients of globalisation (Akande, 2000; ILO 2000; Ajayi, 2001; Ritzer, 2004).

Globalisation has affected jobs in many fundamental ways. In some cases it has created jobs, while in some the condition of job has been so precarious. Furthermore, there are also some grounds for believing that globalisation has

unleashed forces that have had an adverse effect on the basic rights of workers and work standards. In this context, countries competing for foreign investment could be involved in a competitive devaluation of work/labour standards in seeking to outbid one another in offering inducement of a cheap, docile and non-unionised labour force. This in essence impinges negatively on the prospect for workers participation and social dialogue. Competitive pressures to restrict basic labour rights such as freedom of association and the right to bargain collectively weaken the enabling conditions for the growth of free and independent trade unions and employer organisation. At the same time, the weakening of the bargaining position of labour diminishes the prospect of a successful resistance to unfair labour practices. The failure to apply adequate labour standards or to develop sound labour-management relations has been associated with problems such as high labour turnover, absenteeism, stress, fatigue and low rate of productivity and high level of waste (Otobo, 2000; Onyeonoru, 2004).

With globalisation, there has been high incidence of international labour mobility. The flow of labour from developing countries, especially technical and professional workers has intensified during the last two decades inspite of the growth of trade and relocation of labour intensive manufacturing to developing countries. The long-term effect of this, for developing countries is likely to be negative (Mittelman, 1996; Mazrui, 2001; Kiely, 2005).

While globalisation has resulted in some workers losing their jobs, it has at the same time led to substantial job creation. The activities of Multi-national Enterprises (MNEs) have brought about mixed blessings in recent times in the developing countries.

The World Investment Report (2000: 154) indicates that:

"While estimates suggest that MNEs directly employed 40.5 million workers in developing countries in 1999, they also generated 1.6 additional jobs for every job created directly through backward and forward linkages. On the other hand, there are adverse employment effects due to plant relocation, again (both direct and indirect). This perceived job losses in industrialized countries constitute a major source of opposition to the globalisation process as a whole, even in countries such as the United States (US) where net job creation has been high".

Also summarising the conditions of work under globalisation, Levin (2003:5) posits:

"...more than a billion women and men are unemployed, underemployed or what we term the working poor. Some 120 million migrant workers and their families have left homes in search of finding a job elsewhere. The informal economy absorbed six out of every 10 jobs created globally, mostly in unprotected, low-income, self employed service sector occupations. Everywhere, the cost of occupational injuries and illnesses is heavy. Blatant violation of trade union rights is a sad reality in many countries and more than 120 million children aged 5-14

years are working full time in developing economies".

Casualisation³ on the other hand is quite manifest in industry whether in transnational, multi-national, public or private industry and in the informal sector. Casualisation has been on for a long time even in the period of industrial revolution and has also been an exported phenomenon in industries over the years, but with globalisation it has become more pervasive in the developing economy.

Casual labour according to Okougbo (2004:67) means "work occupations in which the demand for employment is highly variable such as port work, farm work, farm migratory work and other jobs of unskilled intermittent nature" He further states that "contract labour is a form of involuntary servitude for a period of time" the type of employment that existed in the United States of America till the end of the 19th century with draconian laws to enforce its existence before its abolition. In fact, casual workers are supposed to work occasionally and intermittently with any company, usually unskilled and always moving with seasonal fluctuating demands of the labour market.

Labour and service contracts are terms used by management to describe contract labour. Management sometimes refers to it as "body shop" or "direct hire" while others refer to contract labour as service providers. Once employed, the casual/contract staff in some companies are made to sign the *yellow dog contract*. The yellow dog contract is a compulsive undertaking not to join the union while in employment. These nomenclatures are being used to describe casual/contract labour to inject into it internal contradictions. In

³ Casualisation is used here in a generic sense to refer to both casual and contract workers since they have more or less the same conditions of service. However, whereas in most cases the former is paid on daily or weekly and on piece rate basis, the latter is paid on monthly and on fixed rated basis.

seasonal employment it also exists with a lot of colourations (Adenugba, 2004; Okougbo, 2004).

The Problems of Casualisation in the Oil and Gas Sector

The problem of casualisation has been a long standing issue in the oil/gas industry and multinational corporations. In some companies in Nigeria it is possible for one to get workers as many as two thousand in an industry out of which about one thousand five hundred may be contract workers. In some local industries in the informal sector, it is possible to get situation whereby virtually all the employees are casual/contract staff (Okougbo, 2004). The casual/contract workers have either profession or administrative skills. No matter how important their services may be they are paid wages that cannot sustain a good standard of living.

As already stated, in the oil and gas industry, where the practice of casualisation is common, many casual/contract workers are higher institution graduates or skilled technicians, experienced drivers with long years of service, clerical and auxiliary staff with administrative skills, etc. Most of these employees have spent several years in their organisations. Yet they are referred to and treated as casual/contract workers. In most cases, it is contract labour without a human face. In manufacturing companies owned by Asians, contract workers are locked up like prisoners in their factories so that no external body can gain access to them. In some oil and gas companies especially those owned by indigenous entrepreneurs, inspite of the fact that their contract staff are qualified to be made permanent staff, they are made to remain casual/contract workers on a slave wage with a view to keep on maximizing super normal profits at the barest minimum labour cost (Adenugba, 2004; Okafor, 2005).

Some of the losses of casual/contract workers incurred as enumerated by Okougbo (2004:156) include;

- Abysmal low wages
- Absence of medical care or allowances
- No job security or promotion at work
- No gratuity and other severance benefits
- No leave or leave allowance
- Freedom of association is often jeopardized
- No death benefit or accident insurance at work
- No negotiation or collective bargaining agreement.

Available data on casual/ contract workers is quite instructive. In oil and gas companies there are not less than a thousand contract workers who are unionised against the wishes of management and also being discriminated against by management (see Table 1).

Table 1: Casual/ Contract workers in Petroleum Sector

Company	Number of Workers on Permanent Job	Number of Casual/Contract Workers	Percentage of Workers on Casual/ Contract	Total
Nigerian Agip Oil Co.	211	1500	87.7	1711
Elf Petroleum	199	550	73.4	749
Elf Oil	42	132	75.9	174
Shell Petroleum Development	520	8000	93.9	8520
Mobil Producing	492	2200	81.7	2692
Mobil Oil	NIL	492	100.0	492
Nidogas	15	150	90.9	165
National Oil	51	178	77.7	229
Smithnigeria	25	80	76.2	105
Schlumberger Group	250	1000	80.0	1250
African Petroleum Plc	300	376	55.6	676
Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation	9000	3000	25.0	12000
Total Nigeria Ltd	136	534	79.7	670
Lighthouse Petroleum	58	105	64.4	163

Comex Nig. Ltd	52	150	74.3	202
Remm Oil Service	120	350	74.5	470
Devtag Drilling Co. Ltd	96	300	75.8	396
Tidex Nig. Ltd	65	120	64.9	185
Consolidation Oil	300	600	66.7	900
Chevron	450	3000	87.0	3450
Trans Pecan Sedco Forex	50	150	75.0	200

Source: NUPENG, 2003

Specifically, in 2001 there were an estimated 14,559 (38.7%) casual or contract workers as against 23,065 (61.3%) junior workers on permanent job positions in the oil industry. Most of the casual workers have various qualifications that would warrant permanent jobs - certificates, diplomas and degrees in such areas as engineering, computer science, telecommunication and accounting. Some of the permanent jobs where casual workers were being utilized in the industry include clerical jobs, plant operations, computer services, rig drilling operations, maintenance services, transportation, flow station operations, flow station guards, deck-hands, forklift operators, typists and fire service men. The scope of the problem can be gleaned from the fact that in 1980, Mobil Oil Nigeria Limited (marketing) had 195 permanent junior employees. By 1991, however, there were only 28 of them. Mobil Producing Nigeria (Producing crude oil) had over 400 permanent junior employees in 1980. This figure declined to 80 by 1991- with most of the jobs being undertaken by casual/ contract workers. In the Western Division (i.e. Warri Area) of Shell operation alone, there were 110 labour contractors in 1991 employing 1,329 casual workers (NUPENG, 2003). By 2002, there was no single junior staff who was a direct employee of Mobil Oil Plc. And the trade union, i.e. National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers(NUPENG) had no single member from the firm (NUPENG, 2003). These were

in violation of existing labour laws (Uvieghara, 2000; Adenugba, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2004).

Even among the permanent staff of such companies, there are more expatriates than indigenous managers. In manufacturing companies, contract labour is also widespread. Employers do not seem to care about the feelings and aspirations of these workers. In year 2001, this compelled a reaction from the umbrella union, the Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC) to set up a committee on casualisation. At a summit in September 2002, all employers agreed to implement the law on casualisation and to liberalize their employment policy. The Nigeria Labour Congress also sensitised the public by embarking on industry-wide picketing. With this anti-union activities had escalated (see Table 2). However other affiliate unions adopted more subtle approach based on consultations, dialogue and negotiation.

Table 2: Anti-Labour Practices in the Petroleum Sub-sector

	Nature of victimization
	als employment and non recognition of the Union
mitted	als Employment
or Contractors	and victimization of workers
Limited	and victimization of workers
a Limited	on of Union officials
mpany	and victimization of workers
	cial & members
ed	cial & workers
	cial & workers
	cial

SOURCE: NUPENG, 2003

It is important to note over that the years there had been attempts to unionise these contract workers, seek better

deal for them in order to give them a new lease of life besides making them to have a sense of belonging. In many instances efforts to decasualize them were resisted by employers. Some of these oil companies constitute themselves into cartels. Sometimes, the jobs of the contract staff are terminated under abnormal conditions without any consideration to ILO Conventions or any existing labour laws. This promotes principle of hire and fire without any norms or established conditions of service. In the recent times, some contract staff have been unionised and condition of service negotiated for them. To this category of staff this is emancipation from the tyrannical managers and exploitative capitalists (Okougbo, 2004).

The demand for de-casualisation got to a peak in 1992 when the leaders of National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers (NUPENG) mobilised members of their union for a showdown. Before the strike could assume uncontrolled dimension, the Federal Government intervened by setting up a tripartite body to negotiate an agreement on how to de-casualise the oil and gas industry. In the process, a tripartite agreement was endorsed between officials of the Federal Ministry of Labour, employers in the oil and gas industry and top officials of NUPENG. The agreement gave a momentary relief to the volatile pressure on the oil companies and to those that showed interest in casualisation.

The trade unions have fought to ensure that many casual/contract staff were converted to become permanent staff in those companies. However, oil multinationals like *Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC)*, *Nigeria Agip Oil Company (NAOC)*, *Chevron Nigeria. Ltd*, *Texaco Overseas*, *Elf Petroleum*, etc, have remained adamant. These companies are very buoyant in the oil and gas industry in Nigeria. They escalated the situation and heighten tension by retrenching many of their permanent staff only to replace them with

casual/contract workers. The permanent staff are well provided for by the same employer thereby creating a world of ironies and contradictions (Adenugba, 2004).

National Union of Petroleum and Natural Gas Workers (NUPENG) and Petroleum and Natural Gas Senior Staff Association of Nigeria (PENGASSAN) have been in the forefront of struggle against casualisation. When the various organs of NUPENG and PENGASSAN were dissolved by the military junta of General Sanni Abacha in 1994 and NUPENG was laid prostrate, the unfair practices of casualisation were on the crescendo. Besides massive sack of oil and gas workers, oil multinational took undue advantage of the union's misfortune by casualising their labour force. Also the period was an opportune time for them to increase their expatriate quota at the expense of indigenous staff. In spite of the clampdown on the NUPENG and PENGASSAN leadership, union officials put up opposition against high expatriate quota to no avail. The government appointed trade union administrators were not helpful to the cause of de-casualisation and increase in expatriate quota.

Casualisation is an unethical business practice found in the oil and gas sector; it has grown into a social cankerworm in enterprise in which employers tend to justify with a lot of economic assumption backed up with fake statistics primarily for profit maximization. Nevertheless, the desire of labour union has always been that a worker should be given decent jobs with good pay to enhance the dignity of human labour (Okafor, 2005).

With the inauguration of civilian administration in Nigeria in 1999, the unions regained their freedom. NUPENG leadership sought to renew the struggle for de-casualisation and the reduction in expatriate quota which mainly affected the senior staff in industry. The existence of labour decree 21 of 1974 to regulate labour contract appears not to have helped

the situation enough. The law provides that every contract worker should be confirmed after three months service. The law became ineffective either because the military government could not enforce the law or because the ministry of labour officials were indifferent to enforcing the relevant law against the multinational corporations and other violators. The effect is relevant laws which suppose sanction the erring firms or offenders are hardly enforced (Onyeonoru, 2004).

Granted that in seasonal jobs, casual/ contract labour may be justified, but in durable jobs there is no justification for this. The case of Nigeria Liquefied Natural Gas (NLNG) presents a good example. The firm has more than six thousand workers in Bonny who are mainly casual/contract workers. Contract workers were de-unionised by NLNG management on the instruction of Abacha's military government in 1996 and denied access to collective bargaining thereby throwing the whole firm into a prolong period of industrial crisis that affect the firm negatively. The administration set up workers council to address their problems with management and the matter lingered for a long time. The main issues workers contested with management was the kind of secluded life which they made to live at Finima and in which they cramped into military barracks like slaves (Okougbo, 2004).

Shell Petroleum Development Company provides an example of how a sustained pressure from the trade union could positively influence the employer. The company has about fifteen thousand casual/contract workers and about one thousand contractors. Through the pressure from NUPENG (workers union) the workers were unionised but denied access to collective bargaining by SPDC management. In the Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) in which their terms and conditions of service were spelt out there were no concerted efforts by management to negotiate standard condition of

service that will meet with minimum standard established by the ILO. Among the casual/contract workers are graduates, technicians, artisans, security personnel, auxiliary staff, drivers and fire servicemen. The same conditions exist in the Nigeria National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) which is the nucleus of the Nigeria economy. In NNPC, some medical doctors, nurses, pharmacists and engineers are temporary / contract staff for over several years earning barely to feed themselves. Also at Exxon- Mobil (Nigeria) there are about eight thousand contract workers with about forty-five contractors. The contract workers have been unionised and a Collective Bargaining Agreement signed by both parties. Their skills can compare favourably with that of the best graduates and technicians anywhere in the world. However the game of manipulation in form of hire and fire in contract management policy has made it more of slave labour. Evidently the policy of casualisation and non-unionization of workers are in reality a clear slide or recession to the era of scientific management in oil and gas industries in Nigeria.

Implications for Manpower Development In Oil and Gas Sector

For any work organization to achieve the goals for which it was set up it must have sufficient number of staff and also ensure that these staff are trained and re-trained from time to time in order up date their skills and knowledge. In most instances training and development are limited to permanent staff because of the predictability and stability of their employment while casual/ contract are often excluded because of the unstable nature of their employment (Okoh, 1998). Therefore, in a situation whereby a firm has more of casual/contract staff than permanent staff as the case in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria, the human resource crisis is inevitable. Granted, most of the casual/contract staff are skilled

and even have university degrees in professional courses before being employed in the firms (Adenugba, 2004), however, updating employees' skills and knowledge through training and development is a continuous exercise. This therefore brings into sharper focus the issues of training and development of organisation's manpower.

Training and development is complex combination of many sub-processes concerned with increasing the capability of individuals and groups in contributing to the attainment of organisational objectives. It also a planned, continuous effort by management to improve employee competency levels and the organisation's work environment. The overall purpose of training and development is to bring about desired change in organisation. The change may include new approaches to managing people or may involve upgrading skill level required to operate a machine. The magnitude of the change process required varies according to the organisation's needs (Lynton and Parrek, 1967; Martin and Jackson, 1997).

As said on the onset of this section, manpower represents the most important and critical aspect of any work organisation. For manpower to be well developed and to contribute meaningfully to the goals and objectives of the organisation there must be a sense of job security which neither casual nor contract labour guarantee context of Nigeria labour law (Uvieaghara, 2000). According to Otobo (1992) and Okoh (1998), in developing economy, such as that of Nigeria when unemployment is very prevalent and labour market is saturated, most workers may be concerned with their job security. For the casual/ contract workers, investment on their training and development is very poor because they are not even considered as permanent employees whose tenure are stable and predictable (Adenugba, 2004). In addition to this these workers are often engaged, disengaged and re-engaged by these oil companies thereby making it impossible to

In addition to this, casualisation does not mutuality⁴ between employees and their work organization. It is important to note the concept of mutuality is pertinent in inspiring employees. Mutuality, as explained by Armstrong (1999), requires that management takes cognizance of the contributions of the employees and hence involve them in taking decision that affect their welfare and wellbeing in order to ensure the success of the organization. On the other hand the employees will see the success of the organization as their own success too. Motivating employees through the sense of mutuality is focused primarily on the regular and permanent employees. Therefore the vast majority of casual employees who constituted the greater number of manpower is often shut of this incentive. This has made it difficult for these casual employees to appreciate all aspects of the organisation's business including its core values and culture through intensive orientation and job empowerment programme (Adenugba, 2004). More often than not the corporate values based on the mission and goals of the organization are not well defined to these casual employees because of their transitive nature. As much as possible these casual are not involved in defining values because their job status does not encourage flexibility, creativity and ability to adapt to change (Nwachukwu, 1988; Ogunbameru, 2004).

When the organization's entire manpower is assured of tenure of office or job, it inspires them to take on the responsibility of running the organisation through teamwork. Such teamwork can set monthly or quarterly goals as the case may be, and if the goals are not met, members may gather to discuss the means of improving performance. Usually, problems and challenges hindering performance are

⁴ Mutuality in this sense refers to the extent to which employees consider their contributions to be valued by their work organization and hence reward them appropriately.

addressed without delays as team members come up with various ideas that are given serious consideration. In such a setup, even the chief executive officer is viewed not more a team member who joins in the work. Consequently, employees are not afraid to speak up and offer suggestions. This privilege, usually, is limited to regular and permanent employees, while casual employees who may have useful and bright ideas and suggestions usually are shut (Ogunbameru and Oribabor, 1997; Pomeroy, 2004).

Casualisation in the oil and gas sector in Nigeria does not allow for tapping of collective insight of entire manpower into the organization's problem through effective teamwork which is very crucial to business success (Onyeonoru, 2005). In addition to this, it does not promote atmosphere favourable to creative thinking and team brainstorming which in turn produce and foster entrepreneurial spirit in the organisation. In a recent study of casual workers, most respondents (60.3%) signified that their status as casual workers did not allow them to be included in the working team to air their views and share experiences which otherwise would have resulted in great improvement on the organisation's processes and overall performance (Adenugba, 2004).

Finally, casualisation does not allow management to fully engage employees who are intelligent and committed enough to come up with ideas and innovations that can be easily implemented. Their status of these employees does not allow management to include them in effective systems of job rotation in order to promote cross pollination of knowledge. It should be recalled that profitable innovations are not that cheap and easy to come by. Therefore, casualisation limits employees with profitable ideas from being identified and spurred for commitment which could benefit the organization.

Conclusion

Nigeria is the sixth largest producer of crude oil and its export accounts for more than 80 per cent of the country's foreign revenue. This shows that oil and gas sector in Nigeria is the engine base of the economy. As result the sector employs a relatively sizable workforce. Therefore the development of a committed, dedicated and highly motivated manpower should have been the paramount interest of government, employers and investors in the sector. However, the discussion in the preceding section showed that this had not been the case. The inability of government, employers and investors in the oil and gas sector to invest in development of manpower is part of the general capitalist orientation to exploit workers, maximize profit by keeping the labour cost as low as possible and be absolved any obligation to workers as dictated by the spirit of globalization.

The situation whereby majority of the workforce are casual/contract workers suggests a very investment in the area of manpower training and development since most these workers are often *engaged, disengaged and re-engaged*. Several studies have shown that the productivity of most Nigeria workers both in the private and public sectors, is low and this is related to non-chalant and non-committal attitude of most employees on one hand, and on the other management low investment in the training and development of employees in all sectors (Ejiofor and Anagolu, 1984; Mohr, 1987; Okoh, 1998). With globalization and the prevalence of casual/contract workers the manpower training and development in public and private sectors, especially in the oil sub-sector has worsened (Adenugba, 2004; Okafor, 2005).

Tackling of the problem of casualisation in oil and gas sector in Nigeria requires a multidimensional approach. There should be a concerted effort on the part of government to invoke relevant laws to sanction the work organisations that

violate the basic labour laws guiding the casual/contract workers in Nigeria. It is on record the central labour movement in Nigeria, i.e. the Nigeria Labour Congress through various activities negotiations, strikes, protests and picketing; over the years has done a lot to get some of these oil and companies to regularize the appointments of these casual/contract workers. However, a lot still needs to be done by government agencies, workers unions and Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in sensitizing the relevant work organisations on what they stand to loose their continuous engagement of causal/contract workers in the oil and gas sector. In addition, government must take the bold step to enforce the relevance laws on casualisation.

Casualisation is a major handicap to employees' contributions and sharing of the ideas, culture and mission of organizations anywhere is exists. On the long run, it will not only result in poor training and development of manpower, but also low productivity that will continue to keep these work organisations backward and vulnerable to workers protests and strikes.

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