COPYRIGHT AND CITATION CONSIDERATIONS FOR THIS THESIS/ DISSERTATION

- Attribution — You must give appropriate credit, provide a link to the license, and indicate if changes were made. You may do so in any reasonable manner, but not in any way that suggests the licensor endorses you or your use.

- NonCommercial — You may not use the material for commercial purposes.

- ShareAlike — If you remix, transform, or build upon the material, you must distribute your contributions under the same license as the original.

How to cite this thesis

THE IMPACT OF GLOBALISATION ON EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS IN KENYA

Kennedy Ochieng Olungo

Thesis
Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
PhD
in
EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS

Department of Industrial Psychology and People Management
Faculty of Management

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG
SOUTH AFRICA

Supervisor: Professor Wilfred I. Ukpere

April 2017
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I thank almighty God for how far he has brought me

The journey was made possible because of a number of people who selflessly contributed to its success, hence my sincere appreciation to the following:

- Professor Wilfred Ukpere, my mentor and supervisor, who tirelessly guided, supported and encouraged me throughout the study.
- Professor Anita Bosch and Doctor Cookie Govender, for their encouragement and advice.
- University of Johannesburg, for their generous financial support.
- My parents, for their selfless sacrifice and encouragement.
- My late sister, Betty Olungo, whom I will always miss.
- Amanda Ferreira, for being there to assist with administrative issues.
- My IPPM colleagues, for being pillars throughout the journey.
- Henri Benedict and Corrie Uys, for their support, statistical expertise and direction.
- Shamila Sulayman, for her advice, proofreading and editing.
- Joab Mbakaya, for assisting me in every way possible with empirical data gathering.
- My friends, for their prayers and words of inspiration.

Thank you all for making my dreams a reality
DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my wife Doctor Violet Ochieng, and my son Andrew Ochieng, who have offered so much support and encouragement during my studies.
ABSTRACT

Globalisation has been perceived differently by different people. Some people perceive it as the internationalisation of local economies in terms of trade, foreign direct investments, agriculture, technology transfer and dominant culture, amongst others. It has also been perceived as the borrowing of advancements in other regions into the local environment. It tends to mirror dominant international behaviours, which are translated into local environments or workplaces, and these have tendencies to impact relationships among people in workplaces, including those in Kenya.

The researcher explored previous studies, which have been undertaken in the area of employment relations and globalisation, considering the effects of globalisation on employment relations, the impact of technology on employment relations, workplace structures, organisational culture and labour regulations. The researcher conducted a literature review of past studies, in the Kenyan context, where it studied Kenya’s employment framework, issues of collective bargaining and dispute resolutions by trade unions on behalf of members. The literature review was further narrowed to consider labour legislation and labour market reforms in Kenya, whilst focusing on the issue of unemployment and retrenchments in Kenya.

The study relied on a mixed methodology approach, which combined both quantitative and qualitative methods. A total of 500 respondents were targeted for quantitative research, using a questionnaire, while interviews were used to gather qualitative information. The findings are presented by using triangulation of data from the quantitative and qualitative results. Prior to collection of data, the research instruments were subjected to validity and reliability test. Charts and tables were used in the quantitative phase to present the research findings, while narratives were utilised in the qualitative phase.

The study established that globalisation has had mixed effects on employment relations in Kenya. On the positive side, employees are given a free hand to make decisions. While management freely allows workers to exercise their fundamental right of association, members of the union are still given opportunities to attend union meetings.
The results further indicate that employees make independent decisions concerning their routine work activities, which positively affect the industrial democracy component of employment relations. On the contrary, within the era of globalisation, unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards, and this affects the relationship between employee and employer. The results show that outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management’s decision, and that there has been rising trends in retrenchments in recent times owing to globalisation, which also negatively affect employment relations, thus globalisation can be said to have contributed to the high rate of unemployment in Kenya in recent times. It has been established that due process of fairness is not followed by management where retrenchment occurs, and data reveals that employee representatives are not involved in the retrenchment exercise, which widens the rift between employers and employees.

Hence, globalisation has had a mixed impact in terms of employment relations in Kenya. It is, therefore, imperative to initiate policies and structures that could help to reduce the negative impacts, while maximising the positive aspects of globalisation. The study has proposed a number of recommendations in this regard.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS** ........................................................................................................... i
**DEDICATION** ........................................................................................................................... ii
**ABSTRACT** .............................................................................................................................. iii
**TABLE OF CONTENTS** ............................................................................................................. v
**LIST OF FIGURES** .................................................................................................................. xv
**LIST OF APPENDICES** ........................................................................................................... xvi

**CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION** ................................................................................................. 1
1.1 Introduction .......................................................................................................................... 1
1.2 Background of the study .................................................................................................... 2
1.3 Statement of the problem .................................................................................................. 4
1.3.1 Research questions ....................................................................................................... 5
1.3.2 The main objectives of the research ........................................................................... 5
1.4 Delineation of the research ............................................................................................. 6
1.6 Significance of the study .................................................................................................. 7
1.6.1 Theoretical contribution of the study ......................................................................... 7
1.6.2 Practical contribution of the study .............................................................................. 8
1.7 Current level of knowledge about the problem .............................................................. 9
1.7.1 Kenya’s labour market ............................................................................................... 11
1.7.2 Globalisation and employment .................................................................................. 11
1.7.3 Employment in the manufacturing industry .............................................................. 14
1.7.4 Increasing prevalence of casual employment ......................................................... 15
1.7.5 Globalisation and policy ......................................................................................... 15
1.7.6 Globalisation-inequality-poverty links ...................................................................... 16
1.7.7 Modes of globalisation ............................................................................................. 16
1.7.8 Wage inequality ....................................................................................................... 17
1.7.9 Globalisation and governance .................................................................................. 17
1.8 Research design and methodology ................................................................................. 18
1.8.1 Population and sample of the study ......................................................................... 19
1.8.2 Sampling size ........................................................................................................... 20
1.8.3 Measuring instrument ............................................................................................. 20
1.8.4 Data analysis ........................................................................................................ 20
1.9 Summary ................................................................................................................. 21

CHAPTER 2: GLOBALISATION AND EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS .......................... 22
2.1 Introduction.............................................................................................................. 22
2.2 Globalisation and employment relations in the developing world .................... 28
2.2.1 Globalisation and employment earnings ............................................................... 30
2.2.2 The impact of information technology on employment relations .................... 32
2.2.3 Globalisation and outsourcing ........................................................................... 35
2.2.4 Globalisation, organisational design and reward management system ............ 38
2.2.5 Globalisation and labour migration ..................................................................... 41
2.2.6 Effects of globalisation on work structures ......................................................... 42
2.2.7 Labour regulations within a globalised economy ................................................. 47
2.2.8 Globalisation and flexible work practices ............................................................. 49
2.2.9 Organisation commitment in the era of globalisation ........................................ 50
2.3 Impact of globalisation on employment generation .............................................. 51
2.4 Globalisation and pertinent employment relations issues .................................... 52
2.5 Organisational culture in the era of globalisation .................................................. 55
2.6 Summary ................................................................................................................. 56

CHAPTER 3: EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS IN KENYA ............................................... 58
3.1 Introduction .............................................................................................................. 58
3.2 Employment relations framework in Kenya ............................................................ 60
3.3 Collective bargaining system ................................................................................. 60
3.4 Employee grievances and disputes ....................................................................... 62
3.5 National labour legislation in Kenya ...................................................................... 63
3.6 Employee participation ........................................................................................... 65
3.7 Labour market reforms in Kenya .......................................................................... 66
3.8 Trade unions and unionism in Kenya ..................................................................... 67
3.9 The state of labour unions in Kenya in the era of globalisation ............................ 69
3.10 Industrial disputes, strikes and protest action within the era of globalisation ....... 71
3.11 Wage employment inequality in Kenya ................................................................. 71
3.12 Labour migration in Kenya ................................................................................ 73
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

3.13 Rate of unemployment in Kenya ................................................................. 74
3.14 Globalisation and downsizing in Kenya ..................................................... 77
3.15 Temporary employment in Kenya .............................................................. 78
3.16 Globalisation and Kenya’s employment status .......................................... 79
3.17 Critical analysis of the impact of globalisation on Kenya’s employment relations... 80
3.18 Summary ..................................................................................................... 81

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN ........................................ 83
4.1 Introduction .................................................................................................. 83
4.2 Theoretical grounding of the research approaches ........................................ 83
4.3 Research design ............................................................................................ 86
4.3.1 Sequential explanatory mixed method design ........................................... 88
4.3.2 Sequential exploratory mixed method design .......................................... 88
4.3.3 Sequential transformative mixed method design ........................................ 88
4.3.4 Concurrent mixed method design ............................................................ 89
4.4 Research paradigms ...................................................................................... 89
4.5 Quantitative research methodology ............................................................. 91
4.5.1 Research methods in quantitative research .............................................. 92
4.6 Population of the study ............................................................................... 93
4.7 Sampling ....................................................................................................... 93
4.7.1 Sampling size ............................................................................................ 94
4.7.2 Data gathering ........................................................................................... 94
4.7.3 Questionnaire ............................................................................................ 94
4.7.4 Development of the questionnaires ......................................................... 95
4.7.4.1 Section 1: Demographic questions ...................................................... 96
4.7.4.2 Section 2: Employment relations ......................................................... 96
4.7.5 Distribution and feedback from questionnaires ........................................ 97
4.7.6 Validity and reliability of research instrument ........................................ 97
4.7.7 Pilot study ................................................................................................ 98
4.7.8 Advantages and disadvantages of a quantitative study ............................... 99
4.7.9 Quality assurance in a quantitative study ................................................ 100
4.7.10 Statistical analysis .................................................................................. 100
4.8 Qualitative research methodology ............................................................... 100
4.8.1 Research methods in qualitative research .......................................................... 102
4.8.2 Entrée and establishing researcher roles ............................................................ 102
4.8.3 Selection of participants ...................................................................................... 102
4.8.4 Data collection methods in qualitative phase ...................................................... 103
4.8.4.1 Interviews......................................................................................................... 103
4.8.5 Recording of data ................................................................................................ 104
4.8.6 Advantages and disadvantages of a qualitative study ........................................ 104
4.8.7 Paradigms in qualitative research ....................................................................... 105
4.8.8 Data analysis....................................................................................................... 106
4.9 Mixed method research approaches ...................................................................... 107
4.9.1 Merits and demerits of a mixed method study ..................................................... 107
4.9.2 Paradigms in mixed method research ................................................................ 108
4.9.3 Research design in mixed method research ....................................................... 109
4.10 Ethical considerations .......................................................................................... 111
4.11 Summary ............................................................................................................. 112

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS ........................................................................ 114
5.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................ 114
5.2 Quantitative research data processing .................................................................. 114
5.3 Research questions ............................................................................................... 114
5.4 Descriptive statistics .............................................................................................. 115
5.4.1 Frequency distribution ........................................................................................ 115
5.5 Quantitative research results ................................................................................. 115
5.5.1 Section 1: Demographic data .............................................................................. 115
5.5.1.1 Gender representation of respondents ............................................................ 115
5.5.1.2 Employees’ age range ..................................................................................... 116
5.5.1.3 Work experience of employees ...................................................................... 117
5.5.1.4 Terms of service .............................................................................................. 118
5.5.1.5 Level of education ............................................................................................ 118
5.5.2 Globalisation and employment relations ............................................................. 119
5.5.2.1 Participation in decision making ....................................................................... 119
5.5.2.2 Level of employee representation on management boards ............................. 120
5.5.2.3 Opinions of employees .................................................................................... 121
5.5.2.4 Joint consultative meetings of employers and employees ........................................122
5.5.2.5 Trade unions and working conditions ......................................................................123
5.5.2.6 Freedom of workers .................................................................................................123
5.5.2.7 Attendance at union meetings ..................................................................................124
5.5.2.8 Union membership compared to the past .................................................................125
5.5.2.9 Independent employee decisions .............................................................................126
5.5.2.10 Reward systems ........................................................................................................127
5.5.2.11 Decisions on outsourcing .......................................................................................127
5.5.2.12 Decision making of unions .......................................................................................128
5.5.2.13 Globalisation and downsizing/retrenchments ............................................................129
5.5.2.14 Procedural fairness in retrenchments since the advent of globalisation ..................130
5.5.2.15 Representation of employees in the retrenchment process ....................................131
5.5.2.16 Payment of terminal dues during retrenchments ..................................................131
5.5.3 Influence of recent trends and developments in the global workplace ....................132
5.5.3.1 Rising trends in outsourcing in recent times .............................................................132
5.5.3.2 Modern technology and work allocation .................................................................133
5.5.3.3 Modern technology and redundancy .......................................................................134
5.5.3.4 Technology and new developments in labour relations ...........................................135
5.5.3.5 Technology and trade unions’ power ........................................................................136
5.5.3.6 Globalisation and social security of workers ............................................................136
5.5.3.7 Current work schedule of low wage employees .........................................................137
5.5.3.8 Globalisation and working conditions in terms of health .......................................138
5.5.3.9 Globalisation and working conditions in terms of safety .......................................139
5.5.3.10 Globalisation and working hours ............................................................................140
5.5.3.11 Globalisation and work pressure ............................................................................141
5.5.3.12 Use of child labour as an unskilled workforce ........................................................141
5.5.3.13 Globalisation and the use of child labour ...............................................................142
5.5.3.14 Globalisation and legislation on child labour ..........................................................143
5.5.3.15 Globalisation and increasing patronage of cheap labour .....................................144
5.5.3.16 Equal employment opportunities for casual workers .............................................145
5.5.3.17 Skills development and casual employment ............................................................146
5.5.3.18 Casual employees and profit sharing schemes .......................................................146
5.5.3.19 Possibility of change in employment status of casual employees ..........................147
5.5.3.20 Labour brokering and employment creation...................................................148
5.5.3.21 Employees’ recruitment and labour brokers...................................................149
5.5.3.22 Trends in labour brokering.............................................................................150
5.5.4 Influence of globalisation on employment regulations ........................................151
5.5.4.1 Legislation on casual employment.................................................................151
5.5.4.2 Corporations and community projects .............................................................152
5.5.4.3 Involvement in social projects ..........................................................................153
5.5.4.4 Identification of social projects by employees..................................................154
5.5.4.5 Welfare support of employees by employers..................................................155
5.5.4.6 Payment to foreign expatriates........................................................................156
5.5.4.7 Difference in wage gap between senior management and workers...............157
5.5.4.8 Employee agreement contract........................................................................158
5.5.4.9 Unions and wage negotiation...........................................................................159
5.5.4.10 Free labour movement and competition .......................................................160
5.5.4.11 Labour movement restriction and competitive wages ..................................161
5.5.4.12 Trends in labour movement...........................................................................162
5.5.4.13 Contribution of employers to labour movement ..........................................163
5.5.4.14 Globalisation and industrial disputes .............................................................163
5.5.5 Challenges triggered by globalisation.................................................................164
5.5.5.1 Dispute resolution channels.............................................................................164
5.5.5.2 Resolution of disputes through reconciliation...............................................165
5.5.5.3 Resolution of disputes through mediation.......................................................166
5.5.5.4 Resolution of disputes through arbitration.....................................................167
5.5.5.5 Strike action and dispute handling procedures ..............................................168
5.5.5.6 Trends in strike action in Kenyan workplaces................................................168
5.5.5.7 Poor communication and strike action...........................................................169
5.5.5.8 Remuneration of employees and strike action.................................................170
5.5.5.9 Strike action and dismissal...............................................................................171
5.5.5.10 Globalisation and unemployment................................................................172
5.5.5.11 Mergers, acquisitions and unemployment...................................................173
5.5.5.12 Organisational restructuring and job destruction........................................173
5.5.5.13 Unemployment and trade union power base...............................................174
5.6 Qualitative research results ..................................................................................175
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.6.1 Senior management</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.2 Globalisation and employment relations</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.2.1 Participation in decision making</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.2.2 Globalisation and downsizing/retrenchments</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.2.3 Globalisation and strike action</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.3 Developments in the global workplace</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.3.1 Globalisation, technological changes and employment relations</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.4 Globalisation and insurance policies</td>
<td>181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5 Dispute resolution channels</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5.1 Executive pay</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5.2 Globalisation and unemployment</td>
<td>183</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5.3 Globalisation and employers’ recruiting strategies</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5.4 Relationship between management and trade unions since globalisation</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.5.5 Globalisation and trade unions</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.6 Effect of globalisation on casual workers</td>
<td>186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6.6.1 Globalisation and workplace concerns</td>
<td>187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7 Summary</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.1 Introduction</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Demographic data related issues</td>
<td>190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Establishing the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3.1 Globalisation and industrial democracy in Kenya</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3.2 Globalisation and labour unionism in Kenya</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3.3 Globalisation and employee remunerations/rewards in Kenya</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3.4 Globalisation and working conditions in Kenya</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3.5 Globalisation, labour disputes, strike action and resolution of employment disputes/conflict in Kenya</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 Recent trends and developments in the workplace since globalisation and their impact on employment relations in Kenya</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4.1 Globalisation and increasing mergers and acquisitions in Kenya</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4.2 Globalisation, downsizing, rightsizing, and accelerated retrenchments in Kenya</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4.3 Globalisation and modern technology in the workplace in Kenya ....................... 204
6.4.4 Globalisation and outsourcing in Kenya .............................................................. 206
6.4.5 Globalisation, labour brokering, contract, casual and temporary employment in Kenya ....................................................................................................................... 207
6.4.6 Globalisation, part-time and flexi-time work in Kenya ........................................ 208
6.4.7 Globalisation and unemployment in Kenya ....................................................... 208
6.5 Globalisation and employment regulations in Kenya ............................................. 209
6.5.1 Globalisation, child labour and cheap labour in Kenya ....................................... 209
6.5.2 Globalisation and working hours in Kenya ....................................................... 210
6.5.3 Globalisation, health and safety of workers in Kenya ....................................... 211
6.5.4 Globalisation and migrant workers in Kenya .................................................... 212
6.5.5 Globalisation and collective bargaining mechanisms in Kenya .......................... 212
6.6 General impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya ....................... 213
6.7 Future research areas ........................................................................................... 215
6.8 Implications of the findings .................................................................................. 215
6.9 Limitations of the study ...................................................................................... 216
6.10 Contribution of the study .................................................................................. 217
6.10.1 Theoretical contribution .................................................................................. 217
6.10.2 Methodological contribution .......................................................................... 218
6.10.3 Practical contribution ...................................................................................... 218
6.11 Summary .......................................................................................................... 219

CHAPTER 7: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION ........................................... 221
7.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................ 221
7.2 Overview of findings .......................................................................................... 221
7.3 Recommendations .............................................................................................. 224
7.4 Conclusion ......................................................................................................... 232

REFERENCES .......................................................................................................... 236
LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Variances between study plan and study procedure ........................................... 87
Table 4.2: Paradigm and philosophical assumptions.......................................................... 90
Table 4.3: Quantitative research vs qualitative research ...................................................... 92
Table 4.4: Cronbach’s alpha ............................................................................................... 98
Table 4.5: Sample size ....................................................................................................... 103
Table 5.1: Work experience of employees ......................................................................... 117
Table 5.2: Terms of service ............................................................................................... 118
Table 5.3: Level of education ............................................................................................ 119
Table 5.4: Industrial democracy ....................................................................................... 120
Table 5.5: Representation on management boards ............................................................ 121
Table 5.6: Consideration of opinions of employees ........................................................... 121
Table 5.7: Joint consultative meetings .............................................................................. 122
Table 5.8: Trade unions and improvements in working conditions .................................... 123
Table 5.9: Freedom to exercise fundamental rights ............................................................ 124
Table 5.10: Permission to attend union meetings ............................................................... 125
Table 5.11: Increase in trade union membership ............................................................... 125
Table 5.12: Routine work activities .................................................................................. 126
Table 5.13: Determination of rewards ............................................................................. 127
Table 5.14: Management prerogatives on outsourcing decisions ....................................... 128
Table 5.15: Independent union decisions ......................................................................... 129
Table 5.16: Rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation .......................................... 129
Table 5.17: Due process of fairness during retrenchments ................................................ 130
Table 5.18: Involvement of employee representatives in retrenchment process ................ 131
Table 5.19: Payment of terminal dues to retrenched employees ........................................ 132
Table 5.20: Increased outsourcing of work to external organisations ................................ 133
Table 5.21: Reduction of workloads because of modern technology ................................. 134
Table 5.22: Redundancy of workers as a result of increased use of technology ................. 134
Table 5.23: New development in labour relations as a result of modern technology .......... 135
Table 5.24: Erosion of trade unions’ power by modern technology .................................... 135
Table 5.25: Unpredictability of the work schedule for low wage employees ...................... 138
Table 5.26: Improvements in working conditions in terms of health ................................ 139
Table 5.27: Improvements in working conditions in terms of safety ....................... 139
Table 5.28: Increase in work pressures owing to globalisation ........................... 141
Table 5.29: Increasing use of cheap labour since globalisation ........................... 144
Table 5.30: Lack of skills development opportunities for casual employees ........... 146
Table 5.31: Labour brokers’ assistance in earning a living ..................................... 149
Table 5.32: Rising trends in labour brokering .......................................................... 151
Table 5.33: Community projects ............................................................................. 153
Table 5.34: Identification of social projects .............................................................. 155
Table 5.35: High wage gap between senior management and workers .................... 158
Table 5.36: Influence of unions on wage negotiation ............................................... 160
Table 5.37: Restrictions on labour movement and competitive wage ...................... 161
Table 5.38: Support of employers towards labour movement ................................ 163
Table 5.39: Existence of proper dispute resolution channels .................................. 165
Table 5.40: Referral of disputes for mediation ......................................................... 166
Table 5.41: Reduction of strike action through dispute handling procedures .......... 168
Table 5.42: Strike action owing to poor communication ........................................ 170
Table 5.43: Rising trends in the dismissal and replacement of striking workers ......... 171
Table 5.44: Rising unemployment owing to mergers and acquisitions .................. 173
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 5.1: Distribution by gender ................................................................. 116  
Figure 5.2: Age range of employees ............................................................. 117  
Figure 5.3: Improvements in workers’ social security ................................. 137  
Figure 5.4: Improvements in working conditions in terms of working hours .. 140  
Figure 5.5: High prevalence of child labour owing to the low wages they charge . 142  
Figure 5.6: Increase in the use of child labour in the recent times ................. 143  
Figure 5.7: Legislation to curb child labour in the era of globalisation .......... 144  
Figure 5.8: Equal employment opportunities .............................................. 145  
Figure 5.9: Exclusion of casual employees in profit sharing ......................... 147  
Figure 5.10: Hiring of casual employees on a permanent basis ...................... 148  
Figure 5.11: Recruitment of employees through bureaus ............................ 150  
Figure 5.12: Weakness of legislation on casual employment ....................... 152  
Figure 5.13: Organisations’ involvement in social projects ......................... 154  
Figure 5.14: Provision of welfare support for employees ............................. 156  
Figure 5.15: More payment to foreign expatriates than local workers .......... 157  
Figure 5.16: Payment to employees based on the employment contract ......... 159  
Figure 5.17: Labour movement and resource allocation ............................. 161  
Figure 5.18: Labour movement, skills and education levels ....................... 162  
Figure 5.19: Frequency of industrial disputes ............................................ 164  
Figure 5.20: Referral of disputes for reconciliation ...................................... 165  
Figure 5.21: Referral of disputes for arbitration .......................................... 167  
Figure 5.22: Rising trends in strike action in recent times in Kenyan workplaces 169  
Figure 5.23: Poor wages/earnings and strike action .................................. 171  
Figure 5.24: Rising unemployment owing to globalisation ......................... 172  
Figure 5.25: Growing trend in employee layoffs owing to organisational  
restructuring ............................................................................................... 174  
Figure 5.26: Trade unions power base weakened owing to unemployment ...... 175  
Figure 7.1: Framework for achievement of harmonious employment relations 231
LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER .....................................................260
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE..............................................................................261
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE.........................................................................266
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction
Globalisation has certainly contributed to the growing integration of national economies (Martens, Dreher & Gaston, 2008). This is confirmed by the liberalisation of the markets and non-public organisations, which are key contributors to the economies (Drecher, Graston et al., 2008). Hence, globalisation plays a vital role in integrating players within the economic spheres, such as international trade, foreign investment and portfolio flows (Carr, 2007). The impacts of globalisation are reflected in increased trade activities, inflow of foreign investment, advancement in technology, influx of multinationals and improvement in communication technology. According to Greenaway (1999), globalisation is the transfer into local markets, events that occur in other areas in the world, particularly in developing economies. The local market copies what happens in the developed market and infers them into their daily operations.

Globalisation comprises the behaviours, customs, eating habits and general lifestyles of people who live in the developed world. The earlier impact of globalisation was not strongly felt owing to less integration of the global economies (Castells, 2012). However, the late 1980s and early 1990s experienced global economy changes in the form of breaking down of trading barriers. Furthermore, the reduction of policies around protectionism has accelerated the pace of globalisation (Betcherman, 2015). In recent times, therefore, globalisation has contributed to reductions in the costs of production, as well as reduced trade restrictions, and has also contributed to improvements in trade, enhanced competition and to technological advancements (United Nations, 2000).

In Kenya, for instance, globalisation has aided the alignment of the local business towards the global economy, which has resulted in faster movement of economic activities. There has also been an increase in the movement of capital and people, in general (Bamber, Greg, Jody, Thomas, Kochan & Von Nordenflycht, 2009). Various factors have contributed to accelerating globalisation; amongst them are advanced technological innovations, increases in trade and investment, undertakings by businesses at an international level and the movement of people (Sen, 2009). The interaction of Kenya’s economy with the global economy through foreign direct investment (FDI) is among the features of globalisation. Kenya has since liberalised its
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

The economy through the structural adjustment of policies, which were fronted by the IMF/World Bank since 2002, when the opposition, through the umbrella of the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC), seized power from the ruling party. Since then, the government has continued to undertake various reforms, including trade liberalization and the privatization of public entities that have accelerated foreign cash inflow, which has helped to reduce unemployment in Kenya to an extent.

1.2 Background of the study

Globalisation has brought about a new way of rewarding employees based on the value that they add in terms of performance in the production process rather than on the rate of inflation, as it was initially conceived (Dolan & White, 2007). The labour market has previously experienced the tendency to increase employee rewards without any basis owing to weak labour policies, leading to non-sustainable wage bills (Hertog & Steffen, 2012).

The industrial courts in Kenya were quick to award wage increases even though there were allowances for appeal in a situation where the survival of the organisation is at risk owing to high wage bills (Hertog & Steffen, 2012). Cases in point include Koki Muia vs Samsung Electronics East Africa Limited [2015] eKL, where the court awarded the claimant, among others, 12 months’ salary compensation on account of sexual and racial discrimination as well as the sum of Ksh 7,152,000 on account of unlawful termination; VMK vs Catholic University of Eastern Africa [2013] eKLR, where the claimant was awarded damages of Ksh 5 Million on account of discrimination.

Nevertheless, following the liberalisation of trade, local firms in almost all sectors have faced stiff competition from foreign firms that ventured into the country. One of the main challenges was the high cost of wages, which required adjustment in order for the firms to survive (David & William, 2006). This led to the retrenchments of many workers as means to ease the burden on local firms. The decision to retrench workers was supported by virtue of the fact that it was the only viable option to enable local firms to effectively compete with foreign firms (Dolan & White, 2007). The employment act was revised in the early 1990s to enable firms to retrench at will without facing much legal constraints (Guthrie & Datta, 2008). They only needed to inform the Kenyan
government’s labour representatives in their region before undertaking the retrenchment exercise. However, in spite of the Employment Act legislation, which allowed the firms to retrench, workers have, through their union representatives, always sought redress in Kenyan industrial courts, which in most cases have ruled in favour of employees.

The informal sector seems to have become so rampant in Kenya and control a good share of Kenyan’s economy in spite of the government’s failure to innovate ways of including it into national economic planning. By extension, this failure to incorporate the informal sector into the economic planning of Kenya has disenabled the protection of the rights of people who work in this economy in spite of the fact that they are required to do so under the International Labour Organisation (ILO) provisions by virtue of being a signatory to the ILO. The ILO has established a safe workplace right, the Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 (OSH Act) that should be adhered to by all member countries, which are aimed at protecting the rights of the employees; however, Kenya seems to have performed poorly in this regard (ILO, 1998).

Progressive employment relations seems to have been demoted in Kenya, as most able-bodied employees find themselves in the informal sector, either absorbed directly or independently employed because of a lack of formal employment (Boudarbat & Montmarquette, 2009). Most of the informal sectors were supposed to adhere to Kenya’s Employment Act 2007 or the ILO labour conventions. However, in Kenya, as mentioned earlier, the informal sector has not been fully integrated into the Kenyan economy, and is thus not incorporated into the national economic development plan, which retards their progress with regards to advancing industrial opulence and amity.

A study, which was conducted in Kenya by Mitullah and Wachira (2003) established that 88% of the workforce had no formal contract of employment with employers, but have only been contracted verbally. From the sample, 11% had written agreements that could not meet the standard of an employment contract. With the advent of globalisation, employments both in the formal sectors seem to have been demoted to temporary employment, as opposed to permanent employment (Fashoyin, 2008). In the informal sector, which seems to accommodate more workers nowadays, to get a contract is a bonus, while it is also limited to weekly, monthly, six monthly and on rare occasions,
one year (Kanyenze, 2004). Nevertheless, the contract does not guarantee one to be on employment throughout the period, as a person’s employment can be terminated at will without observing any labour rights.

In Kenya the main organ that determines wages is the government, which sets the minimum wage. The trade unions in most cases negotiate with employers on behalf of their members. Empirical evidence from Card (1992) claims that wage increases can contribute to an increase in job creation, a prediction that is totally in disagreement with most theoretical models. The findings confirm the situation in the Kenyan labour market, where collective bargaining mainly centres on wage and other monetary issues with little focus, if any, on other conditions of employment that would add to the improved welfare of workers and their general productivity.

Consequently, collective bargaining agreements impose greater labour costs on employers, and this has a tendency to curtail employment creation. In addition, since the dawn of globalisation, Kenya seems to have experienced work disruptions, as measured by the number of strikes, lock-outs and go-slows, which affect production in terms of reduced outputs, and damages to layouts and productivity, which increase the cost of production, leading to losses, and also impact employment relations.

1.3 Statement of the problem
At the dawn of globalisation, it was postulated that a rising tide will lift all boats. This postulation triggered renewed expectations from both business and the working class that the new economic reality of openness will bring general prosperity to nations, businesses and of course, the working class. However, few years down the line, the new economic reality seems to have created additional turmoil and polarising effects in the workplace in developing countries, such as Kenya. In recent times, Kenya seems to have witnessed increasing work interruptions, due to rising strike actions, go-slows and lock-outs, which are all signs of workers discontentment as a result of low wages, perceived redundancy, rightsizing and retrenchment, which have been linked to employment practices of labour brokering, outsourcing, re-engineering, automation and, in fact, the use of children as labourers. There have been efforts by researchers (Mandan, 2004; Scholte, 2005; Goldin & Reinert, 2007) to investigate how globalisation
has affected the workplace in various regions and nations. However, no concrete effort has been made to investigate the impact of the globalisation phenomenon on employment relations in Kenya.

1.3.1 Research questions

The problem statement above elicited the research questions, which are highlighted below.

Main research question

- Is there any impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya?

Subsidiary research questions

- What are the recent trends and developments in the global workplace, and how have these impacted employment relations in Kenya?
- How has globalisation influenced employment regulations/deregulations in Kenya?
- What policy insights can be framed to address the ER challenges that are triggered by globalisation in Kenya?

1.3.2 The main objectives of the research

The research study’s objectives are presented below.

Main objectives

- To find out how globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya.

The subsidiary objectives

- To examine recent trends and developments in global workplaces, in order to establish their impact on employment relations in Kenya;
- To study how globalisation has influenced employment regulations/ deregulations in Kenya; and
- To provide insight towards framing a policy to address the employment relations challenges that have been triggered by globalisation in Kenya.
1.4 Delineation of the research
The research focuses on employees who are currently employed in selected organisations including the public and private sectors in Kenya, while targeting Nairobi and Mombasa counties. In addition to employees, the researcher interviewed participants from five key labour organisations in Kenya.

1.5 Motivation of the study
Previous studies among them Nsibambi (2001) and Tsai (2006), touched on globalisation and economies as a whole and not specifically on employment relations in Kenya. Fashoyin (2008) undertook a study only on employment relations in Zambia, without relating it to globalisation. Ikiara and Ndung’u (1997) touched on employment incomes and equality and employment and labour markets respectively without connecting it strongly to globalisation. While a study by Manda (2004) touched on globalisation and the labour market in Kenya, it did not expand to touch on the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Hence, the current researcher being an employment relations practitioner felt that this ignored domain of how globalisation impact employment relations warrants an investigation.

Moreover, the recent outbursts of the working class in Kenya, the rising protests by the unions, and the perceive downgrading of the working conditions in the workplace motivate a research in this areas of concern, which have prompted the research to venture into this research focus area. More than that, being a banking staff (a sector that has been effected by globalisation) in the employment relations wing, the current researcher felt that embarking on a study such as this will assist in helping the banking industry to articulate ways of managing employment relation issues in the face of the new economic realities. Moreover, the Kenya government has been facing some dilemma in terms of formulating proper policy to address some of the critical issues that affect the working class and businesses since the advent of globalisation. Therefore, a research in this area will help to shed light in that direction, and this was a key motivation of the current study.
1.6 Significance of the study

Every economy, Kenya included has been affected by the economic realities of globalisation. These effects also extend to the workplace, which is the production and service hub of any nation. A study of the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya will enable the country to get a clearer picture of how globalisation has affected these key segments of the Kenyan economy, which will assist policy makers to articulate possible ways to address most of challenges that affect both business and the working class in Kenya since the advent of globalisation. A study of this nature will also be of benefit to employers as they will become more aware of areas of workers’ challenges and discontentment as a result of the current economic logics of globalisation, and thus articulate necessary measure to address the perceive challenges, thereby boosting harmony in employment relations, while achieving industrial growth, productivity and opulence.

It is anticipated that the findings of the study will add an array of new knowledge in the area of globalisation and employment relations. Hence, current and prospective scholars in the field of human resource management and employment relations will benefit from a study such as this. In other words, the study is expected to the fill some knowledge gaps within the domain of globalisation and its impact on employment relations, particularly in Kenya. The study will also be of great value to labour unions as they will be more exposed to some of the realities of the new economic system, which will guide them to articulate counteracting mechanisms to address some of the challenges that confront their members as a direct result of the current economic logics of globalisation.

1.6.1 Theoretical contribution of the study

The interaction and relationship between employees and their employers is known as employment relations. It is the duty of the employer to reward the employee for services they rendered. Other than the monetary reward, it is the employer’s duty to ensure a conducive working environment for the employee to perform his/her duties. There are legislations that give both the employer and the employee certain exercisable rights and responsibilities within employment relations (Betcherman, 2015).
With globalisation, the relationship between employees and their employers has taken a new dimension. The new employment relationship seems to have been greatly affected by working hours, which vary from what was previously obtainable. Currently, employees are not expected to stay on duty for eight hours, starting from eight in the morning as they can now choose to work at their convenience, including staying away from their work station, since what is important for most employers is meeting their targets (International Labour Office, 2006). This implies that most workers are no longer engaged on a permanent basis, but on a temporary basis in order to achieve a specific target. The labour market keeps on changing and these calls on the government to enact policies that will guarantee continuity when the changes occur (International Labour Office, 2006). To enrich the extant theories of globalisation and employment relations within the Kenyan context, this study became necessary in order to provide a theoretical base from which Kenyan employment relations practitioners can draw inferences from within the current era of globalisation.

1.6.2 Practical contribution of the study
Despite the advancement in the education system the high rate of unemployment in Kenya, has enabled employers to recurrently exploit desperate workers, particularly in the private sector. They fall into unfavourable employment situations, whereby they are engaged on a temporary basis as opposed to a permanent basis. This has been occasioned by weak employment legislation in the country. Engaging employees on a casual basis denies them some of the benefits that accrue to permanent employees. The casual employees are not covered by the trade unions that agitate for the welfare of their members. The firms do not contribute towards statutory deductions for casual employees, as they take advantage of the fact that casual employees lack the power to negotiate for better pay.

Under the above circumstances the Kenya government needs to introduce stiffer legislation, which will see the protection of casual employees on equal basis with permanent employees. Nevertheless, things seem to be changing in the recent past, as the Kenya government has enacted a raft of employment legislations to address some of the issues that border around employment relations. The period before 2007, Kenya attempted to legislate accordingly, but implementation has been slow and thus there is
a need to fast track the latest legislation in order for the country to achieve meaningful results. Kenya should allocate enough resources to implement policies; the legislation makes no sense if they are not supported with the required resources in terms of operationalisation. The Ministry of Labour in whose docket the issue of employment relations is domiciled lacks adequate funding to implement the labour policies. This affects the ministry’s operations and, by extension, other stakeholders that are involved in employment relations shy away from offering their assistance to Kenya.

Kenya has introduced a variety of employment related policies, via the Employment Act of 2007 to boost harmonious employment relations. However, problem lies in the poor execution of these policies. Currently, the Ministry of Labour, that is the locus or major driver of employment creation initiatives contained in the policy documents, is inadequately staffed, with limited resources for operations and maintenance. The same could be said of other social partners and labour market institutions in the country. A project such as this study will help to formulate better policies and practical implementation mechanisms.

1.7 Current level of knowledge about the problem

The surest way to improve a nation’s economy is the effective monitoring of a country’s trade balance. There should be an increase in exports, which will bring in dollars and a decrease in imports, which ideally drains cash in the economy. Mostly, a country should be able to export what it has produced in surplus, which means that the production is more than the local consumption, and thus the excess should be exported to bring in cash that will improve the economy. Conversely, a country cannot be able to produce everything in surplus, since there are those that cannot meet the local demand and are thus forced to import from other countries. However, in order for the economy to grow, imports should be minimized in order to realise a positive balance of trade.

Betcherman (2015) observes that it is not automatic that a country, which has increased exports and reduced imports will have a sound economy, as there are other underlying factors that should be improved, among them trade policies. These policies, when employed, may not realise immediate benefits, but the impact will be felt over time. Planning how the amount that is received through exports will be channelled through the economy to spear up economic growth, is key to the success of a nation. High
exports and increased unemployment cannot stimulate economic growth, thus all factors of the economy should be considered and taken care of if the country wants to realise economic growth in the era of globalisation.

In some cases, globalisation seems to have favoured the less educated as opposed to professionals in developing countries (Betcherman, 2015). In developing countries there is a boom in the informal sector as a result of the high unemployment level, and in spite of an improvement in the educational sector; most of the jobs are found in non-formal setting, and is unskilled. Generally, globalisation has contributed to a decrease in trade barriers and transportation costs (Aitken, Yeaman, Holliday, Wang & Curtis-McLane, 2008), which has made unskilled labour become more favourable in the eyes of industrialists in developing countries, thereby increasing the amount that is paid for unskilled labour.

Globalisation has also increased capital flow and transfer of modern technologies to developing countries (Rama, 2008), and this has fuelled economic growth in the affected countries. FDI helps to boost growth in some developing countries, where foreign investments help to create jobs and thereby alleviate poverty (Betcherman, 2015). Furthermore, Betcherman (2015) maintains that FDI has supported the delivery of technology, which is one of the most powerful pillars of development.

Despite numerous benefits, which are brought about by FDI, there are some setbacks that accompany it, among them is the dumping of technology by developed countries, since when they introduce modern technology in their market, they export the old ones to developing countries. In addition, foreign companies capitalise on cost effective labour in the host countries, thus exploiting them. The end effect of FDI is, therefore, of great concern (Betcherman, 2015). Betcherman (2015) posits that the developing country, therefore, should establish mechanisms that will ensure that they minimise the negative effects of FDI, while maximising the benefits.

In developed countries there has been pressure on employment relations owing to increasing technological innovations (Carl, 2004). Most of the works that were previously performed by a number of employees can now be easily handled by
machines that can be operated by a few individuals. In sum, the amount that is paid to the few people who operate the machine is less than what was initially paid to the bloated workforce. This has a tendency to force skilled labour to shift to other countries in search of employment opportunities (Aitken, Yeaman, Holliday, Wang & Curtis-McLane, 2008). Increased use of technology has also disadvantaged some small enterprises compared to the large corporations owing to the fact that smaller enterprises may not be able to afford to invest in expensive technology, which may affect their competitive strengths in business and within the labour market.

1.7.1 Kenya’s labour market
One of the major areas that by globalisation have hugely impacted in the developing countries seems to be the labour market (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). Improvement in trade and the inflow of cash greatly affects employment in developing countries (Rama, 2008). For poor countries to remain competitive in the world they have to revise their trade restrictions in order to remain attractive to foreign investors and to encourage exports. Removing restrictions may lead to unemployment owing to job cuts brought about by stiff competition from foreign firms (Aitken et al., 2008). Conversely, the incoming firms may create employment for the locals in the developing country, even though they may not enjoy the job security that they used to have when there were trade barriers.

1.7.2 Globalisation and employment
Most Kenyans live in rural areas, where subsistence farming is the main source of livelihood (Manda, 2004). Despite the fact that most workers are employed in the recent past, both in the informal and formal sectors, the poverty level has been increasing as a result of inflation (Irungu, 2011). The majority of Kenyans have ventured into the informal sector owing to limited space in white collar jobs in the upcountry, where agriculture is the main source of employment generation (Chen, Martha, Renana & Lund, 2002). In the urban areas a majority of people there have been forced to join the informal sector after being retrenched, while others have done so because of closure of the companies they used to work at owing to stiff competition, and others have done so owing to mismanagement. Still others found themselves in the informal sector because they lack school fees to support their education and other needs (Chen et al., 2002).
Even though the informal sector has been a good haven for a majority, their employment is erratic and the earnings are meagre, while most of the firms do not last long and in most cases the employees find themselves jobless, which greatly increases poverty levels owing to lost earnings (Desjonqueres, Machin & van Reenan, 1999).

While globalisation has contributed to job creation, it has also resulted to some form of job destruction. With the advent of globalisation, transnational organisations have set up businesses in developing countries, thereby boosting employment creation. However, at the same time, some existing firms have liquidated owing to stiff competition, which in turn leads to job losses. As mentioned earlier, other firms have resorted to engaging employees on a temporary basis as opposed to a permanent basis in order to reduce employment costs (Rama, 2008). In Kenya, many employees have been sacked both in the government and corporate sectors, with the latest being the closure of Uchumi Supermarket branches as a result of mismanagement, which has led to huge job losses (Rama, 2008).

Workers retrenched in both the public as well as private sectors have been experiencing similar challenges owing to lost earnings (Manda, 2004). The workers undergo a lot of suffering in their general welfare, especially those who have larger families who depend on their earnings. In most cases, the affected persons who are retrenched are men who are the bread winners of their families, which exerts pressure on the whole family (Guthrie & Datta, 2008). In situations where the woman is retrenched and the husband is still working, the end effect is normally small. In other words, women are less affected by retrenchments (Manda, 2004). Despite their being discrepancies in earnings for women, they tend to have more benefits in terms of flexible working hours and time off; however, when they are retrenched and land up in the private or informal sector, they do not enjoy the same benefits. Thus, women prefer to stay at home than join the informal sector after retrenchment (Manda, 2004). Liberalisation of trade has also largely contributed to job losses owing to stiff competition from importers; most women are engaged in the textile industry that was hard hit when the government allowed textile importation. The agricultural sector was not spared either, as the local sugar industry was affected by the importation of cheap commodity from common market for
Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA); this did not only affect employees in the local sugar firms, but also farmers who depended on earnings from the supply of sugar cane.

Organisations in Kenya do not insure the life of their employees, compared to those in the developed world where employees are insured against possible job losses and thus compensated in case it occurs (Rama, 2008). Insurance will assure the continuity of earnings after job loss and thus spare employees’ poverty. Developing countries should safeguard the export processing zones, as they are major creations of employment in addition to foreign direct income, which aids economic growth, even though employees in the export processing zones are subjected to poor working conditions, where they work for long hours and earn less. Government seems to have failed to legislate laws that protect the welfare of employees in the export processing zones, as they tend to protect investors who are mostly foreigners at the expense of local citizens, who are mostly employees. Management of most of these global companies ensure that the employees do not join the trade unions to agitate for their welfare, and in a situation where they do, they are victimised for participating in union activities (Guthrie & Datta, 2008). The government grants investors tax holidays of ten years and above, which erodes the benefits of the firms to the economy.

It is indeed true that globalisation has contributed to employment creation in some developing countries. However, the specific sector where employment has occurred has become a matter of concern (Rama, 2008). The era of globalisation has witnessed the movement of more prospective workers into the informal sector, where earnings are meagre, with no job security (Kimalu, 2001). In the rural areas most employees earn a living through the agricultural sector, and the amount that is earned through the sale of agricultural products is quite meagre as a means to alleviate poverty in the countryside. Given the high number of dependants per family, the amount that is earned is merely enough to put some food on the table that will keep the family going for a while (Stiglitz, 2008).

Due to declining employment and rising poverty levels in Kenya, most children have dropped out of school in search of employment, where they are preferred by most firms because of less costs involved in engaging them, simply because they work for long
hours and are paid less compared to the other employees (Mitullah & Wachira, 2008). The children are mostly engaged in sectors where there is less supervision by the government in terms of protection of child welfare. For instance, in Kenya they are mostly engaged in the tea sector. The children are exposed to inhumane working conditions. In other bad scenarios, particularly in the tourism industry, they are exploited sexually by tourists in order to earn a living (Stiglitz, 2008). Hence, the Kenyan government should instil stringent policies that can be enforceable to protect the welfare of children in both the tourism and manufacturing industries.

1.7.3 Employment in the manufacturing industry

In the recent past Kenya declared total war on poverty under its Vision 2030. In order to achieve this, Kenya embarked on a free primary education programme and subsidized secondary level education (Republic of Kenya, 2007). The initiative resulted in high expansion of the educational sector with the universities following suit by initiating parallel degree programmes, which saw an increase in the uptake of degree courses by Kenyans. As a result, Kenya has channelled out a skilled workforce that has been absorbed in all sectors of its economy (Republic of Kenya, 2007).

Globalisation has thus enabled Kenya to shift from the use of an unskilled workforce to more skilled labour. Employers now-a-days look for the most qualified persons to engage, given that a majority of skilled workers are now in the market. Due to stiff competition, most firms prefer the most qualified personnel in their professional sectors, where they will be able to give their best. For a long time the manufacturing sector has been characterised by an unskilled workforce, as most of the work was initially done manually. However, since the advent of globalisation, most of the processes have undergone changes as a result of advanced technology, which requires skilled personnel to handle the process. This led to some of the staff who were engaged in the manufacturing sector being declared redundant because of a lack of skills to handle the modern technology brought about by globalisation and global competition. Any firm that did not embrace changes in terms of technology were forced out of business, which then leads to further job losses (FKE, 1995).
1.7.4 Increasing prevalence of casual employment

Rapid competition has been one of the major outcomes of globalisation. Most firms have been forced to embrace the changes that come along with globalisation in order for them to remain in business. Cutting costs and increasing revenue have become the driving force in order to remain competitive. One of the major costs of any firm is the wage bill, which, if not handled with care, can lead to a loss in profits. Some businesses have resorted to retrenchments to reduce the wage bills, while others have resorted to changing the employment patterns of their workforce. Due to the changing pattern of employment, most organisations now prefer to engage workers on a casual basis as opposed to a permanent basis, which attracts benefits that is a cost to the firm (Republic of Kenya, 2007). Despite firms benefiting from cost cutting as a result of engaging workers on a casual basis, it has some negative effects on the employment relationship. The next section addresses globalisation and policy.

1.7.5 Globalisation and policy

There have been some policy issues around how Kenya could benefit from globalisation, given the high presence of multinationals that in most cases repatriate their earnings to home countries. Some arguments have emerged that remuneration to the local workforce is higher for multinationals compared to local firms, but they look for highly skilled workers, which implies that Kenya should place more emphasis on education by investing more to ensure that the nation has more qualified personnel. Failure to develop the Kenya’s workforce may lead firms to start searching for qualified workers in other countries. Kenya has advanced in terms of trade unionism, which champions the welfare of their workers. Multinationals that invest in the country may have policies, which may not be in tandem with local policies and, therefore, end up exploiting the local workforce, but with unions in place, they are able to safeguard their members against any policies that may be exploitative of them as employees. This in itself calls for Kenya to ensure that they should establish policies, which will empower trade unions to protect their members.

Conversely, multinationals seem to have created more employment when compared to employment that is created by local firms (Rama, 2008). They have absorbed most of the workforce, which has helped the local population to reduce the levels of poverty.
Thus, the Kenya government needs to introduce policies that will encourage multinationals to invest more in the country. The business environment should be favourable in order to attract more foreign firms, which will help to address the issue of unemployment (Rama, 2008). To create more employment, Kenya should not only rely on foreign firms, but should also create a local environment that will encourage more entrepreneurs to venture into business that will guarantee employment for the local people.

1.7.6 Globalisation-inequality-poverty links
Kenya has initiated mechanisms to ensure positive growth in trade and industry, which are considered among the major factors of improving the livelihood (Mitullah & Wachira, 2008). However, in most cases the positive economic growth seems to have benefitted few individuals, while a majority of people are left behind. A case in point is the current economic growth of 5.6, which government boasts to have achieved in 2015. But the reality on the ground is that the cost of living has really increased compared to previous years. Hence, for a common person, life has become more difficult recently (Mitullah & Wachira, 2008). Thus, globalisation and the economic growth that accompanies it, seems to have created a widening gap between haves and have nots (Barrett, 2006). The wealthy people in Kenya owns assets such as large parcels of land and other capital assets, which they use for making additional income, while a majority of people live in abject poverty (Mitullah & Wachira, 2008).

The wide gap between the rich and the poor, since the dawn of globalisation, has the potency to negate the effect of economic growth, as the poor masses continue to mount additional pressure on economic growth (Barrett, 2006). In order to address the issue of inequality, Kenya should undertake to reform the land sector; address the issue of education, which seems to mostly favour the rich; and formulate more regional policies that will render the nation more competitive (Mitullah & Wachira, 2008). The next section focuses on modes of globalisation.

1.7.7 Technologies adoption in the era globalisation
Globalisation can be viewed differently, depending on its impact and the angle from which it is judged. One of the major benefits of globalisation has been in the area of
technology transfer, which has positively contributed towards the growth of the communication sector (Rama, 2008). In Kenya, technology has contributed to advancements in communication, whereby a number of firms have established mobile communication and mobile money transfers. Banks have followed suit and thus most bank transactions are done online compared to before, when a person had to physically visit the banking hall for a transaction to take place (Sen, 2009). There is a need for countries to establish policies that could enable them to fully obtain the benefits of globalisation, both economically and socially.

1.7.8 Wage inequality
There have been several studies, which have investigated the relationship between globalisation and wage disparity. Globalisation has had an impact on education levels, which increase the number of skilled individuals. However, in spite of the high number of qualified persons, more people have not been able to access employment, which affects their social status in terms of income earnings (Sen, 2009). With advancements in trade, some highly skilled persons seem to be negatively affected, as more of their services are now being performed by less skilled individuals, since they have become less technical in nature. Thus, to an extent, advancements in trade have little impact on the absorption of a skilled workforce. At times, the services of some skilled workers are outsourced to agents as opposed to recruiting them on a permanent basis (Sen, 2009).

Developing countries have begun to utilise more advanced technology and thus do not need many of the services that low skilled employees offer. Although, in some cases developed countries export their production process that requires unskilled labour to developing countries and then import the products back to their countries after production. This trend also negatively impacts on employment relations in developed countries.

1.7.9 Globalisation and governance
A policy to minimise the adverse effects of globalisation is imperative. Currently, the policies that are in place have not tackled some of the challenges of globalisation. Sen (2009) explains that governance is needed to control some of the negative effects of globalisation. The legislative arm of the government should come up with bills that will
Globalisation has aided structural changes, as there are reductions in the cost of undertaking businesses, especially in the transportation sphere, thus increasing returns on investment. Advancement in technology has reduced the cost of doing business for most organisations. Initially, most firms relied on outdated machines for production, particularly in the manufacturing sector, which has had an adverse effect on profitability because of high costs. Appleton et al. (2008) examines the benefits of globalisation, which are not related to technological innovations and are in line with Sen (2009). He observes that globalisation has widened the gap between those who have and those who do not have. Appleton et al. (2008) observes that the effect of globalisation should be considered with an open mind, because the effect is judged from the angle that one looks at it, which is why there are polarised and mixed opinions about it.

1.8 Research design and methodology

To address the study’s objectives, relevant literatures were consulted to lend credence to the research constructs and variables that form part of the quantitative study. The literature review evaluated international models, where there were similar challenges that Kenya experienced. The research design and methodology focused on research steps that include the population of the study, sampling method and size, measuring instrument, data gathering methods, research procedure and data analysis technique that was utilised. Atkinson, Coffey and Delamont (2003, p.5) claim that while conventional distinctions amid “what people say” and “what people do” are overdrawn, there should be a balance in research between these two distinctions. According to Creswell (2009), the quantitative paradigm investigates a human-based problem (the social world) by testing a theory with variables and then testing it again with numbers. This is analysed statistically to establish whether the predictive generalization (the hypothesis) of the theory holds true. Creswell (2009) describes a quantitative study as
the computation of the collected data from a sample population into numeric format. This data is then used to make generalizations about the population.

Quantitative researchers use deductive reasoning (Creswell, 2009). The quantitative researcher believes in objective reality that can be controlled, measured and explained under cause-effect laws. According to Kerlinger and Lee (1999), experimental study is where the researcher lacks an influence to decide the outcome of a research, in the sense of manipulating the results because the manifestations have already occurred. The survey consisted of employees in organisations, which operate in different parts of the Nairobi and Mombasa counties in Kenya in order to understand their perceptions of the impact of globalisation on employment relations.

1.8.1 Population and sample of the study
The population includes workers who are currently employed in selected organisations both within the government and corporate sectors in the two major counties of Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya. The population comprised of both genders and age categories. An accurate sample should give a true picture of the final results that are derived from the population. The alternative to sampling is referred to as enumeration, where the entire population is included in a study. Sampling technique was utilised in this study (Denscombe, 2007). In essence, two types of sample techniques exist, that is probability and non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is typically applied in a situation where the researcher has insufficient information about the population, or when it is too difficult to obtain information through probability sampling methods (Denscombe, 2007). The researcher utilised the non-probability sampling technique since information about the population was not known to the researcher. The technique was adopted because the researcher had no prior information about the employees from the selected companies that operate in Kenya.

The size of representation is sometimes determined by the researcher’s budget and the degree of confidence in the data that is collected, but should be large enough to minimize sampling errors. The absolute sample size is predicated by the complexity of the population and the research questions that are investigated. Denscombe (2007) regards a sample of one hundred as the minimum sample size for large populations.
1.8.2 Sampling size
In most research the population of the study is so wide, thereby hindering the researcher not to gather the facts from the entire population owing to time and the cost constraints. In other areas the population is widely dispersed, making it cumbersome for the researcher to reach all of them. Therefore, in a quantitative study, the researcher normally samples or utilises a small portion of the population, which represents behavioural pattern of the whole population. The sample must be a representative of the population and as such can be inferred to the whole population, where it was derived from. A well-tailored technique is applied when choosing the sample to reduce any bias. In a qualitative research, information is obtained from affected or interested participants in the research topic. Hence, the study carefully selected research participants within a labour relationship that have been affected by the forces of globalisation. Due to practical constraints, careful consideration was taken to select reasonable representative participants. Ten participants from five key organisations in Kenya that are major players in employment relations were targeted. Two per organisation were representative of the organisation’s structures, and would be a reasonable sample for the in-depth interviews, while 500 participants were selected to respond to the questionnaire.

1.8.3 Measuring instrument
According to Denscombe (2007), questionnaires are a popular means to collect data. They are cost effective, easy to analyse, familiar to most people and less intrusive than personal interviews. The major disadvantage is the potentially low response rate and the researcher’s inability to probe responses. Questionnaires are typically used to collect two types of information, namely facts and opinions. They, therefore, tend to include questions that deal with both these types of issues (Denscombe, 2007). Data analysis is briefly discussed next.

1.8.4 Data analysis
The analysis was carried out through the use of a scientific research instrument, where frequency distributions in tables were utilised to make the data more intelligible. Information that was obtained from the survey was analysed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical reports were analysed for
relevance and appropriateness, using descriptive statistics, whilst relying on tables, graphs and charts. For qualitative analysis, the researcher obtained data through a semi structured interview, where the responses were captured and later transcribed into meaningful analysis. The information was interpreted and then summarized to bring out the true meaning of what respondents were saying.

1.9 Summary
The chapter introduces the research focus of the study, namely the impact of globalisation on employment relations. The background of the study was illuminated in this chapter and sequentially interwoven with the problem statement. The research questions and objectives were also clearly outlined, as were the motivation, significance and contributions of the study. Current knowledge related to the research topic was also reviewed. Issues that relate to current labour market challenges in Kenya were considered such as globalisation and unemployment, employment challenges in the manufacturing sector, the rising trend in the use of child labour, issues of working poverty in the era of globalisation, policy measures and governance structure to curtail the negative impacts of globalisation such as rising poverty and automation, retrenchments, and wage inequalities and unemployment, and the link between them. Technology adoption in the era globalisation was also discussed. A brief discussion of the research methodology and design was presented, which includes the population of the study, sampling size, measuring instrument and data analysis. At this point the study will progress to the next chapter, which focuses on globalisation and employment relations.
CHAPTER 2: GLOBALISATION AND EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS

2.1 Introduction

Globalisation has brought about a number of changes, which range from technological and communication advancement to economic changes. It can, therefore, be said that globalisation has influenced the way that things are done. However, the influence is different from location to location depending on a number of factors (Weiss, 2007). The changes can be perceived from a global, as well as local perspective. Organisations make efforts to reduce costs and maximise profits within a global context (Weiss, 2007). Hence, globalisation has affected the way that people relate to each other, and has thus completely affected the social spheres of individuals across the globe. Kaburu (2007) asserts that the impact of globalisation is different on both economic and individual levels. It has changed the way of life for many, especially in terms of job performance (Weiss, 2007).

Greenaway (1999) perceives globalisation, as a process where local communities borrow ideas that are happening in the global spaces. In other words, local communities tend to copy what is happening in this putative global space, and emulate and transfer them into their domestic space. In some instances, the global world also borrows from the local community and replicates these into their way of life. This clearly reflects the interdependence between people around the world (Ohmae, 2005). The relationship of dependence is key, as it enables countries to borrow what is beneficial to them, which allows their economies to grow in the process. The closer the countries are to one another in terms of connectedness, the more they can borrow from one another as opposed to having disconnected country-to-country relationships. Nevertheless, globalisation has been aided owing to advancements in communication technology in spite of the distance in time between nations (Carmody, 2009). Globalisation has brought about some level of equity in terms of information sharing to most communities; this is because of the global reaches of information to all people, almost on equal measure, which has reduced the advantage that was accrued previously by a few individuals who have had access to information that was not available to others (Carmody, 2009).
The behaviours of people across the globe have fast tracked globalisation, which has had a great influence on the economies, partly because of the outlook conjured by multinationals, which comes with a set of cultures that is different to local ones and, which, with time, swallows the local cultures (Carmody, 2009). Due to globalisation, the world has become one unique global village with all economies networking to borrow from one another (Neikirk, 2008). Thus, globalisation has been perceived by some as a vehicle that promotes happiness, and where complex issues are now handled with ease owing to stress-free solutions from elsewhere. However, others seem to have perceived it as a way to impose foreign cultures on the local culture, which can be harmful, especially if what is being borrowed is harmful to the local culture, and given that much is borrowed from developed countries by developing ones. There are also allegations that economic globalisation has widened the gap between the poor and the rich (Ukpere, 2013).

Globalisation has enabled the smooth movement of economic activities, including people, culture, capital and technology across the interconnected world (Budros, 2002). Advancements in technology have enabled easier exchange of information around the world (Bartelsman, Gautier & De Wind, 2010). Technology has revolutionised ways of doing business. Currently, there is an easier flow of economic activities as a result of sophisticated transportation mechanisms, which have generally improved the market system for both goods and services (Golan, Lane & McEntarfer, 2006). The global economy has been facilitated by advancements in internet technology, which allows people to transact across the world without necessarily meeting physically (Bartelsman et al., 2010). Globalisation has altered ways of engaging employees, unlike in the past. Organisations now engage workers based on their core activities, while other activities are outsourced to agents who deliver the work cheaply, as opposed to engaging more permanent employees to do the work internally (Bartelsman et al., 2010). Outsourcing has led to a loss of employment, and by extension, revenue of local workers, as the firms engage cheap labour from low wage countries. The logic of globalisation seems to have given additional power to capitalists to dictate the operations of business in terms of maximising profits and minimising losses in the face of profound deregulations (Griffith-Jones, Stephany & Ocampo, 2009).
There is a continuing debate that globalisation has indeed worsened the ways of life by favouring the wealthy and harming the poor, who are mostly workers, thus increasing the numbers of working poor people (Kossek, Lewis & Hammer, 2010). It is perceived that globalisation has enabled the rich to earn more income through the liberalised markets that are inaccessible to the poor for lack of resources, which is a key determinant of wealth (Das & Mohapatra, 2002). The few who are able to access the markets simply gain more resources at the expense of those who cannot, which extends the poverty gap. Nonetheless, there are multiple aspects of globalisation, which are sometimes contradictory (Sen, 2009).

Conversely, globalisation has increased the interconnectivity of the world, resulting in faster interrelation for most countries within a global network (World Bank, 2008). The globalised network is anticipated to make things even better in future in terms of economic growth; it was presupposed to address the issue of unemployment; manners of conducting business; and patterns of earning income (Ukpere, 2008). It was also presumed that as levels of communication assume a higher notch, education levels have improved, as institutions of higher learning become connected, resulting in a greater speed of exchanging ideas and innovations (World Bank, 2008). Globalisation was predicted to ease individuals’ ways of life by making the interaction between people across the globe easier. However, this has not been the case, as globalisation seems to have favoured the capitalist at the expense of workers (Rama, 2008). However, countries are free to introduce mechanisms that ensure that globalisation’s benefits are well distributed to all citizens as a way of minimising the economic disparity between the wealthy capitalists and the miserable workers (World Bank, 2008). Another aspect, which can address globalisation challenges, is that nations should improve on their exports and reduce their imports. This is particularly true for the developing countries so that people can work hard to produce goods and services for export, and thereby earn income that will improve their quality of work life (Wignaraja, 2010). However, this has not been the case amongst most developing nations, which is why only a few from these nations have benefited from the dividends of globalisation.

In some instances, globalisation seems to have impacted more on the developing countries, as most factors including direct foreign investment and advanced
technological innovations are transferred from developed to developing countries. However, from various angles it seems that developing countries have always been cheated by the developed nations when it comes to the real benefits of trade and investment within the era of globalisation (Fashoyin, 2007), which has reflected in current disharmonious labour relationships in most global corporations that operate in the developing countries (Wignaraja, 2010). Although, this can prompt one to argue that the effect of globalisation on employment relations in first world nations is largely positive (Carmody, 2009), which is not always the case. The idea may be provoked by the perception that industrialised countries in most cases are the exporters of products and services (Warr, 2006). However, recent trends have shown that there are a myriad of challenges to employment relations across the board (Carmody, 2009).

The difference is that developing countries rely highly on labour intensive production, which requires low skilled labour, while developed countries use more sophisticated technologies for production, which require highly skilled labour (Fichter, Helfen & Sydow, 2011). However, globalisation has greatly impacted current employment structures (Bair, 2008). The liberalisation of trade in the United States has not reflected any major changes in their employment relations (Hennebert & Bourque, 2011), since the American economic system has always been based on capitalist orientation, which did not diverge much from the current economic system (Fichter, Helfen & Sydow, 2011). In the trade liberalisation area, there are instances where unskilled labour in the developing countries seems to have been in demand more than skilled labour, which is why most multinationals have moved into the low skilled/low wage country to tap into the abundant low skilled and cheap labour of those countries. This trend has reduced the differences in wages for employees in countries like South Korea, Taiwan and Singapore (Wickramasekara, 2008). However, on the contrary, the demand for professionals increased in Costa Rica when the nation embraced economic liberalisation.

With regard to Mexico, Hanson and Harrison (1999) note that there were no significant changes in labour structures following globalisation, but the pay for educated employees seems to have improved. Rama (2008) contend that globalisation in Brazil brought about improvements in college education levels, though this did not affect the
demand for skilled labour, and neither were there any significant differences in pay for skilled and unskilled labourers in Brazil (Roberts, 2006). Rama (2008) postulate that trade liberalisation in Latin American countries has adversely affected the employment growth.

Developing countries place their woes in the era of globalisation on developed countries, and contend that developed countries have contributed to wage discrepancies and the high rate of unemployment within developing countries (Egels-Zanden, 2009). Employment policies of deregulations that have been fronted by the rich countries in terms of trade liberalisation have only fuelled the suffering of developing countries (Kaplinsky, 2008). The developing countries seem to have been left far behind following the liberalisation of trade, as their economies continue to perform dismally, which is reflected in rising unemployment, inequality and poverty (Rama, 2008).

Like many other developing countries, Kenya signed free trade treaties to liberalise its economy; however, it has continually faced a number of hurdles in terms of quantity and quality of products for export; unfamiliarity with markets regarding the products and poor knowledge of the policies that guide the markets; the high cost of production, which makes the products uncompetitive within the global market; and weak representation to facilitate effective negotiation within the global market (Lewis & Den, 2008). With the advent of globalisation, every nation should remain alert in order to gain from the global economic system. Nevertheless, as aforementioned, the globalised economy seems to have so far favoured developed nations more at the detriment of developing nations like Kenya, where the workforce seems to have suffered disproportionately since globalisation (Sen, 2009).

Few studies have underlined the impact of globalisation on employment relations in third world countries. In 1848 Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels had predicted that globalisation will lead workers across the globe to unite, as well as create free movement of employees who can freely secure employment in any part of the world with minimum restrictions, thus leading to a global workforce that is not associated to any country (Thomas, 2010). However, this prediction has not come to pass, as many countries still protect their territories, which make it difficult for free movement of the
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

workforce (Colflesh & Conway, 2007). Thomas (2010) seem to have poured cold water on the possibility of the future free movement of workers across the world. Due to stiff competition as a result of liberalisation, every country is working hard to protect its economy and its internal workforce as a way of guaranteeing employment to its citizens, as opposed to foreign employees (Balsiger & Philip, 2010). Most countries seem to have started to protect their workforce through national labour policies, which seems to override international arrangements (Thomas, 2010).

This is similar to previous arrangements when countries used to adopt some kind of protectionist policies to protect their citizens from stiff competition from the developed world’s workers, who were more skilled and highly paid. In those days, civil societies and trade unions helped to protect the local workforce for the sake of national interest (Thomas, 2010). However, in the twentieth century the controls have become weakened owing to the dynamism in the global world. There have been new developments that have enabled employees to move from one country to another without being restricted in spite of the existence of various immigration laws. Apart from movement, workers can still perform their international duties/work while still being based in their local country owing to advanced technological innovations (Hann & Keith, 2009). Webster, Creed, Bourbonnie`re and Beall (2008) analysed the problem of labour insecurity around the world, and suggest that the cure would be to adopt free movement of labour across the globe, as suggested by Karl Polanyi in the 1940s. Pries and Dehnen (2009) observed that globalisation is impacted by a number of players that affect production, imports and exports. Thus it can be taken as a means of changing the way in which things operate locally, and basing it on the international way of doing things. Hence, globalisation simply increases the competition both at a local and an international level (Webster et al., 2008), and this competition can hardly be controlled by national legislation.

According to Pries and Dehnen (2009), globalisation has contributed to a situation where local regulations are not adhered to because the local business and trade has been submerged by international regulations. The liberalisation of trade has fuelled activities in the economy, which by extension has affected the labour market, which has a great impact on employment relations (Pries, 2010). The increasing movement of people across the globe has facilitated some common economic tendencies, and has
also forced nations to chart out some unique local regulations (Thomas, 2010). This leads to the next section, namely globalisation and employment relations in the developing world.

2.2 Globalisation and employment relations in the developing world
This section unpacks the factors of globalisation that impact on employment relations. There has been renewed attention on the impact of globalisation in the developing countries, as they are the importers of behaviours from the global market (Ukpere, 2010). In this context, more efforts have been placed on establishing exactly how globalisation has impacted on different countries that trade with each other with regard to employment relations. Of much interest is whether economic globalisation has affected trade and industry, or whether it has reduced or increased poverty levels (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2009). Considering this is vital in terms of unravelling the relationship between globalisation and employment relations in different countries, particularly the developing ones. The local population mainly derives its source of income from the labour market (Agénor & Pierre-Richard, 2006). The rate of employment that guarantees a source of income is a key factor in employment relations in a country (Kaplinsky & Morris, 2008). As a result, the exact impact of globalisation on different actors within the economy is necessary because of how globalisation has affected the different components, determines the overall impact on employment relations.

Agénor and Pierre-Richard (2006) note that the employee/employer interactions are guided by employment policies that are established by the country and the organisations involved. There are different players in the labour framework that shape employment relations. Some of the frameworks are internal, while others are external, including government legislative framework on employment relations and the labour unions (Kaplinsky & Morris, 2008). Despite local legislation on labour relations, the ILO remains an important organ, which guides employment relations globally. However, Agénor, Pierre-Richard (2006) remarked that ILO should take cognisance of local regulations when drafting policies in order to guarantee smooth implementation of its provisions. The local actors, including the unions, should fully adhere to the international labour standards for the smooth coordination of activities (Bertola, Dabusinskas,
Hoeberichts, Izquierdo, Kwapil, Montornès & Radowksi, 2008). Global players such as multinationals have tried to influence the labour relations of their host countries. However, this tendency has been rebuffed through strong opposition from trade unions, which has increased tensions in employment relations in most countries where multinationals operate (Hennebert & Bourque, 2011).

Trade unions are perceived as the main champions that agitate for the welfare of workers, who are their members, but they cannot dictate formulations and operationalisations of the Human Resource (HR) policy of respective organisations (International Trade Union Confederation, 2012). As much as they champion for their members’ interest, they must do this within the HRM framework of the respective firms. Neither do the firms require as precondition to consult the trade unions before formulation and implementation of the Human Resource Management (HRM) (International Trade Union Confederation, 2012). But according to Ramsay, Troth and Branch (2011), it is good practice to involve the unions when implementing policies that affect their members, since such a stance has a positive effect on employment relations.

Globalisation has also brought about strict adherence to corporate governance, both the private and public entities (Egels-Zanden, 2009). Government supervisory machinery has also been initiated to protect the interests of shareholders, while risk management and auditing have been made part and parcel of corporate operations (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). The Kenyan government introduced performance contracting, where different segments of the organisation are given performance targets every year, which are adjusted upward in the proceeding period (Omolo, 2007). The performance agreements are signed by all employees, and each employee signs the contract targets with his/her supervisor, which is cascaded down to those who are supervised (Ramsay, Troth & Branch, 2011). Performance contracting has since improved the services of public entities (Ohmae, 2005). However, this has increased the burden of employees as a result of an increase in monitoring and control.

Performance contracting has been replicated at every level of the public entities; as a result, most entities have improved in customer services, which are well articulated in
customer service charters (Hennebert & Bourque, 2011). All these were brought about by globalisation with the aim of ensuring that public entities remain competitive in the ever changing environment (Omolo, 2007). It is a system that the government uses to monitor employee outputs in meeting the expectations of the citizens who demand quality service. The Kenyan government has also adopted a mechanism that ensures that services are delivered within the shortest time possible (Omolo, 2007). Each process has been given a target in terms of time, which should be adhered to and failure to which an explanation should be given. This seems to have resulted in improved performance of the public sector, leading to public confidence

Engaging trade unions in the development of HR policies helps to foster harmonious employment relations. According to Ramsay, Troth and Branch (2011), employment relations covers a wide spectrum that encompasses all the players in the labour relationship. Employment relations recognises the fact that differences between employers and employees are anticipated to arise, given the competing expectations of the two parties in the labour relationship (Conway & Briner, 2009), and this underscores the difference between HRM and employment relations, of which the former concentrates on ensuring the smooth operations of the organisations, while the latter focuses on improving the relationships in the workplace between employers and employees, as well as other parties in the labour relationship such as labour unions, employer associations and the state (International Trade Union Confederation, 2012). However, the economic logic of globalisation seems to have altered this relationship in some strange ways (Ramsay, Troth and Branch, 2011), particularly within the domain of employment earnings.

2.2.1 Globalisation and employment earnings
The big difference between nations in terms of employment relations is the different advancements in educational levels among the developed and developing nations. Whereas the former has many skilled workforces, the latter has a low skilled workforce (Autor & Handel, 2013). Globalisation has indeed brought about a need for a more educated workforce as opposed to a less educated one (Barrett, Marenya, McPeak, Minten & Murithi, 2006). According to Betcherman (2015), the demand for high sophisticated goods and services have increased the demand for a skilled workforce
and vice versa. In line with the above, it can be inferred that the developed countries’ production of quality goods for export requires a skilled workforce, while the developing countries’ production of inferior goods may likely rely on a low skilled workforce (Barret et al., 2006). Advancements in technology is a typical example of the need for a skilled labour force, as low skilled labour may not fit in well with the era of advanced technology (Vallanti, 2004).

That said, and as mentioned earlier, the liberalisation of trade in the developing countries have impacted on the employment relations in several ways (Betcherman, 2015). According to Ikiara and Ndung’u (1997), in the short run, trade liberalisation has had a strong effect on remunerations in addition to the favourable foreign inflows of employment. For developing countries, including Kenya, there is a big difference between the pay for workers in multinationals and those who work in the local firms (Kimalu, Nafula, Manda, Bedi, Mwabu & Kimenyi, 2004). Multinationals tend to influence the pay for local firms that follow suit to increase their wages owing to competition (Lipsey & Sjoholm, 2001). But in Latin America, especially Mexico and Venezuela, the studies could not link the increase in local firms’ pay to the high rate that multinationals pay. However, the findings revealed that multinationals do indeed pay better salaries compared to the local industries (Aitken, Yeaman, Holliday, Wang & Curtis-McLane, 2008).

With regard to the developing countries, particularly in Africa, it has been often mentioned that they have failed to create a more conducive environment that could attract foreign investments. This state of affairs has negatively affected wage levels in those countries (Ukpere, 2010). For other countries like Uruguay, foreign investments have not had any effect on wages. However, the effect of foreign investments on salaries diminishes over time, as the local firms follow suit to adjust their wages (Rama, 2008). Earlier in Kenya, wage levels had diminished until in the mid-1990s when it started to increase, which has continued to date as a result of trade reforms that were initiated by the government (Davies, 2008). However, the rising wages is not purely as a consequence of trade reforms, but also as a result of other initiatives by government such as allowing employees to be paid based on their outputs, while taking inflation into consideration (Lipsey & Sjoholm, 2001).
Remunerating employees based on academic qualifications has not really changed as professionals are paid better than those without any formal education. Highly qualified employees tend to attract good paying jobs as opposed to less qualified employees (Davies, 2008). On average, the total amount taken home by employees seems to be diminishing over time owing to rising inflation. However, it differs depending on the qualifications of an individual. The highly qualified ones tend to get increased earnings in spite of the rising inflation. However, the low skilled workers suffer the most, which leads to a gain/loss situation for the different categories of employees (Burchell & Cook, 2008), resulting in wage inequalities amongst different levels of skilled workers in a given country.

For developing countries, according to the trade theory, the difference between the wages base of skills should reduce as a result of high labour intensive production in developing countries, which attracts the low skilled workforce. This then implies that more low skilled workers will be needed in the production line as opposed to the skilled ones, thus increasing earnings for the low skilled workers (Janssen & Ahn, 2006). However, there is a possibility of oversupply of low skilled labour, leading to the demand grudge as compared to a few available skilled labourers, which explained the wage differential. Even though this is short lived for Kenya as the country continues with advancements in the educational sector, with time, there will be enough supply of skilled employees. Due to the high paying jobs for professionals, many Kenyans have plunged into the universities to upgrade their qualifications (Kimalu et al., 2004). Currently, literature review will proceed to the impact of information technology on employment relations.

### 2.2.2 The impact of information technology on employment relations

Advancements in technology have contributed to a paradigm shift in work structures. The fact remains that rapid technological innovations have been fuelled by globalisation (Roberts, 2006). New technologies have altered the mode of production from a manual system to one of technology, where most works are no longer undertaken manually, but through sophisticated production systems with better results (Roberts, 2006). Technologies have also led to changes in work patterns for local workers as initial work that was previously performed by an unskilled workforce now requires a skilled person
with knowledge of new technologies such as information technology (IT) to perform
(Roberts, 2006). Hence, towards the end of the twentieth century, sophisticated
machines have virtually replaced the manual system of operations in the workplace
(Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010).

Astronomic developments in technology introduced computers in the early 1980s, which
totally changed the way that work is performed (Roberts, 2006). Currently, almost all
work in the globalised world is performed by and with the use of computers (Clott,
2004). Universities have not been left out either in the current trends, as teaching and
learning is now being transmitted through the internet, which is a computerised system
(Clott, 2004). Students can now undertake exchange programmes without physically
travelling to other countries. Scholars now undertake their research by using computers,
which enables them to access a lot of information across the globe through the
worldwide web (www.com). The work of secretaries seem to have been elevated to
office administrators, as the manual way of typing documents by using typewriters is no
longer viable since advent of computers (Roberts, 2006). Thus, advancements in
technology as a result of globalisation have enabled faster movement of information
owing to advancements in communication systems (Zuber, 2011). Technology has
indeed assisted employees to easily achieve their targets without necessarily spending
eight hours in the office, as dictated by the traditional way of doing work (Anthony &
Walshaw, 2008). Neither do employees compulsorily require a physical office setup to
perform their duties (Anthony & Walshaw, 2008). Changes in working patterns may
have an impact on authority relations within the workplace, where an employee does
not need to be supervised in order to perform his/her duties (Kaplinsky, 2008).

According to Ukpere and Slabbert (2007), globalisation has indeed contributed to
advancements in technology, while technology has also greatly aided globalisation.
Technology has brought about increases in competition and the war for talent at a
global level (Roberts, 2006). Technology has affected the major spheres of economy
activities such as transportation and communication. The transport sector has
undergone transformation, as the sector has become more cost effective and efficient
than before (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). According to Zuber, (2011), within the era of
globalisation, countries cannot afford to ignore technology in its policy formulation, particularly in the transportation and communications sectors.

To keep up with this pace, most organisations have resorted to restructuring (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). For instance, in Kenya, Telkom Kenya failed to satisfy the expectations of their customers, resulting in numerous complaints (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). The customer service desk of Telkom was found wanting, leading to an exit of customers in favour of competitors, who have capitalised on Telkom’s weaknesses by offering excellent customer service (Zuber, 2011). Telkom Kenya only realised the reality of their failure when customers had already left and efforts to redeem their image could not help. Hence, there was no choice other than to seek the assistance of a strategic investor to bail them out. A foreign firm then bought a controlling stake in the firm, leading to the retrenchment of many employees as the first strategy to remain afloat (Roberts, 2006). Currently, the firm is slowly regaining its former position, but the ex-employees are unhappy about losing their source of livelihood (Zuber, 2011).

In order to maintain the standard of services and products, a firm requires a strong quality control department, and the right quality should be delivered to customers on time, which does not reflect on the number of employees, but rather on maximising the few staff members and minimising wastage (Manda, 2004). Recently, in Kenya, several organisations have reduced their workforce as a means of cutting costs in order to remain competitive. However, they do this at the expense of workers who lose their source of livelihood (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). In order to survive, some of the retrenched staff venture into the informal sector, but end up operating within the same line of business as their former employers, which eventually becomes unsustainable. According to Zuber (2011), the sustainability of businesses in the informal sector is low, because of a lack of product differentiation.

Technology was introduced to reduce over reliance on human labour in the production process (Roberts, 2006). Human beings are prone to mistakes in the production process, or simply decide to go slow, and this affects the production process. However, machines have been created to cure such anomalies (Anthony & Walshaw, 2008).
Despite diminishing human labour from the process, there is still a need to have highly skilled individuals who can operate the machinery. This highly skilled workforce now becomes the only ones who are guaranteed to remain in employment at the adoption of new technologies, as they will always try to upgrade their skills in order to avoid being declared redundant (Roberts, 2006). The unions may lose their usefulness to champion the rights of employees, should the employees not match the skills that are required to remain employed (Anthony & Walshaw, 2008). Due to these challenges, many organisations have resorted to changing employment relationships by outsourcing some of the services that do not form part of their core business.

2.2.3 Globalisation and outsourcing
Globalisation has contributed to changes in employment patterns, as employees are no longer engaged on a permanent basis, as was the case in the past (Neikirk, 2008). According to Clott (2004), most organisations initially resorted to outsourcing most of their peripheral activities, while they concentrated on their core activities. This had an impact on the work structures of most organisations globally. In the past, outsourcing was used at initial production levels, which were perceived as noncore activities. However, recently, outsourcing is even utilised for core functions during the production of final products and services (Neikirk, 2008). Outsourcing has been one of the ways of ensuring that firms remain viable and competitive in the global market, particularly in industrialised countries (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). However, outsourcing also seems to have contributed to unemployment owing to redundancies in the workforce as a result of certain functions that have been outsourced (Clott, 2004). Some organisations have been forced to change their scope of operations and employment patterns in order to remain competitive (Neikirk, 2008).

In Kenya a number of services are being performed on behalf of other firms by call centres. Some firms have developed software for their clients and transact with them through this software (Wahome, 2008). This has led to more redundancy and of course retrenchments. For example, Telkom Kenya had to lay off some of its workers owing to the introduction of new technologies in order to withstand stiff competition (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). The excuse is always that workers are laid-off in order to cut costs. However, some of the skilled employees formed firms, which in turn offered the
specialised services to Telkom through outsourcing, which is cheaper compared to when they were permanently attached to the company (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). Safaricom, which is the biggest mobile provider in Kenya, have outsourced their noncore functions to call centres, and have concentrated on their main function of mobile transmission in order to cope with emerging competition from other telecommunication providers. Held, Ragwitz, Huber, Resch, Faber and Verti (2007) observe that globalisation has enabled the worldwide free interaction of people, and the spread of information owing to advancements in transportation and communication technologies. The increased interactions have led to free borrowing of new ideas, both locally and globally, in the sense that what is happening globally, is replicated at a local level within a short time (Held et al., 2007). As a result, global events dictate the way that business is conducted at a local level, and in this instance, in Kenya.

Globalisation has greatly accelerated the adoption of electronic communication systems (Scholte, 2005). In some countries sophisticated fibre cables have been laid to set up the infrastructure of electronic communication, which has eased its accessibility through the computer system (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010). With advanced telecommunication, the call centres that mainly rely on it have spread. The call centres reduce wage costs for organisations owing to reduction in the number of permanent employees. Ohmae (2005) observes that with call centres, the work is done within 24 hours instead of the 8 hour period that was case in the normal office setup. In Kenya the inroad of call centres has faced some setbacks as a result of expensive internet connectivity and poor speed. However, the country is working on this speed to install the fibre cable that will ease the current challenges. The fibre optic cable is anticipated to enhance connectivity with the rest of the world (Vallanti, 2004). It was also anticipated that it will lead to reduction in the internet costs, and to improve the speed, thus increasing the efficiency of companies in Kenya (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010). It has been projected that amongst African countries, Kenya will grow faster in terms of the number of call centres, once the fibre optic cable is completed. Advancements in Kenya’s educational sector will further aid the call centres. Currently, Kenya has Kencall as its main call centre, among over 50 call centres, with a workforce of over 500 employees (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). The call centres in Kenya mainly work for global firms, which points to the fact that
globalisation has, to an extent, spread employment to Kenyans, which has positively contributed to the nation’s economic growth (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006).

That said, Kenya normally exports its textiles to the western countries, while its garments are produced in the Export Processing Zones (EPZs) that are situated along the outskirts of Nairobi. The EPZs firms in Kenya are specifically licensed to manufacture garments for export purposes and the government normally offers incentives to them to invest in Kenya (Ikiara & Ndungu, 1997). The companies normally export the finished products, while some of the production processes are outsourced to some unskilled workforces in Kenya for the finalisation process before exporting the final product, mostly to the United States (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010). Products in the global market are sometimes relatively cheaper, since the cost of production in terms of labour is cheaper in Kenya, thus within a competitive market, the products have a niche owing to low prices (Manda, 2004).

The EPZs in Kenya capitalise on mass production using low costs and low skilled employees. According to Ikiara and Ndungu (1997), as early as 1995, EPZ organisations had recruited about 5,000 workers for the five years that they were in existence. EPZs was one of the projects of trade liberalisation, whose main interest is to increase their exports as a way of boosting the economic growth of a nation (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010). Manda (2004) asserts that the government has been lenient towards EPZs in terms of applying the labour laws. The firms normally do not adhere to the provisions of minimum wages, which are proclaimed by the government; and they debar their workers from joining and participating in union activities. This situation has a tendency to lead to increase agitation by workers and their representatives, which may sometimes result in strike actions or lockouts (Sen, 2009).

Banking industries are not excluded from the current trend, as they also benefit from outsourced services from back-end processing. Some multinational banks process customers’ data abroad; this is done with the utmost secrecy to protect clients’ data (Clott, 2004). To this end, banks normally employ the services of these offshore workers for timely delivery of the processed data. The banks rely on the fact that in the current setup the needs of customers are of the utmost importance (Manda, 2004).
Furthermore, most employees are currently engaged on a temporary basis because of jobs’ demands (Ansberry, 2003). Many companies in Kenya mostly engage employees on a temporary as opposed to a permanent basis. Most employees now work as part-timers (Conway & Briner, 2009). These employees are only compensated based on production and the duration that they have worked, which reduces employment costs (Held, Ragwitz et al., 2007). It is argued that this practice enables organisations to achieve low costs of production, which leads to competitive pricing that is capable of edging out competitors (Held, Ragwitz et al., 2007). Thus, owing to globalisation, companies have been forced to start thinking more strategically, which is why currently in Kenya, there has been a paradigm shift in the work structure as a result of the nature of engagement of employees on a temporary basis.

In terms of current global manufacturing and service trends, developed countries design a product or conceive a service, but components of those products or services are outsourced to firms that are located in developing countries (Clott, 2004). Even people who deliver the products are sometimes also outsourced. This in turn gives developed countries’ firms a competitive advantage, as they only concentrate on their core activities in the production cycle (Conway & Briner, 2009). However, this state of affairs also leaves developed countries with a lean workforce to concentrate only on the innovative part, while the bulk of the work in the production process, which requires a great number of employees, is outsourced to developing countries. This has a negative consequence for creating jobs, retention and employment of workers in developed nations (Clott, 2004). This practice is among the major causes of the current global economic crises, when retrenched and unemployed workers defaulted in their borrowing or sub-prime mortgages (Conway & Briner, 2009). The current dynamics have seriously impacted employment relations, which have prompted many organisations to start rationalising their organisational design and, of course, the reward management system.

2.2.4 Globalisation, organisational design and reward management system
Management takes centre stage in fostering harmonious employment relations for their respective organisations by ensuring that employees are fully supported in terms of resources. They also ensure a working environment that supports employees to
execute their job in order for the organisation to achieve its objectives (Lewis, 2001). Management tries to borrow techniques from other companies or countries in order to use them to improve on their operations (Eaton, 2003). Hence, organisations are now being operated on a global dimension instead of a national perspective (Streeck, 2009).

Due to global competition, firms have now been forced to make adjustments to the way in which they operate. However, the degree of adjustment depends on the market control of the organisations (Roberts, 2006). The greatest challenge for managers in big companies nowadays is learning and knowing how to withstand global competition. The cross borderer firms now take advantage of less costly labour in other countries in order to remain competitive (Eaton, 2003). Currently, organisations have been forced to undergo major restructuring by changing the way in which they operate by introducing more unique and cost effective approaches within the era of globalisation (Lewis, 2001). This is evidenced by scholars who have placed more emphasis on their research regarding ways in which managers should deploy their resources in order to remain competitive (Roberts, 2006). From an HRM perspective, managers must have relevant knowledge of how to engage non-local employees. They must also establish, which type of jobs should be given to locals and, which ones require advanced skills from outside the country in order to maximise their outputs (Streeck, 2009).

Globalisation has indeed helped to boost the decision making capability of managers, especially with regard to labour relations issues. In the current setup, no company or country can operate in isolation, particularly when it concerns employment relations matters, as all activities have now been affected by the renewed global competition, which has prompted firms to adopt less rigid approach in order to remain afloat within the competitive global economy (Kmec & Gorman, 2010). In addition, the changing labour patterns are direct responses to dynamics within the global economy, which resonates with the dictum: “change or perish” (Kaburu, 2007, p.25). Hence, organisations are no longer expected to be rigid in their short and long term operational decision making in order to remain competitive (Porter, 2008).

Hence, organisations are now expected to change their reporting structures and the way they handle employees in order to effectively compete in the global war for talent.
The production process should be split and best practices should be adopted for each segment. Production is now expected to be demand driven and not merely production without focusing on customers’ needs (Kaburu, 2007). In the United States firms have shifted their operations to developing countries owing to the quest for low costs of production, particularly in terms of labour costs. In this way they are assured of less expensive production costs, which they claim enhance their global competitiveness (Clott, 2004). In these developing countries transnational corporations are even able to obtain skilled workforces that they pay far less in relation to their peers in developed countries (Reich & Oleksyn, 2008). In Kenya many companies have established businesses, which outsource their services. Amongst them is Kencall, which engages local employees at relatively low wages when compared to what they pay their employees in their home countries (Kaburu, 2007). The owners of the business are based in the West, but their employees are local whom they pay far less than what they pay in the west (Reich & Oleksyn, 2008). However, when compared to their counterparts who work in other Kenyan firms, the salaries are higher and more reasonable (Kaburu, 2007). As mentioned earlier, globalisation has indeed enabled developed countries to access cost effective labour from developing countries, particularly for jobs that require low wages and semi-skilled jobs, while directing more of their efforts on innovation by using their highly skilled personnel (Rugman & Oh, 2010). Hence, developed countries’ organisations focus more on professional activities, while relegating labour intensive production to the developing countries (Reich & Oleksyn, 2008).

Since the advent of globalisation, production lines have been broken into segments, with some outsourced, thus allowing organisations to maintain a minimum number of employees. Brewster (2008) argues that organisations that compete in the global market have common characteristics. They have flexible and lean organisational structures, while decisions are made accurately and faster, and more effort is placed on most of the productive segments. To succeed, organisations must develop their internal workforce, and if they decide to outsource, they should have a sense of control to maintain the quality of their services and products (Rugman & Oh, 2010).
If the organisation boasts about having experts in a specific area, which provides them a competitive advantage, then they need to maintain the grip on that advantage by ensuring that whoever is enlisted is fully under their control (Wignaraja, 2010). Also, some of those activities that require specialist work, which the organisation does not possess, are outsourced under strict care (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). To maintain a competitive advantage in the global market depends on customer satisfaction. In other words, customers should be able to appreciate the value that is added from the organisation in terms of quality, costs and timely service, and customer service should be a notch higher than the competitors (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). However, some organisations in Kenya seem to have been affected by labour migration since globalisation, which is the focus of the next section.

2.2.5 Globalisation and labour migration
The migration of people occurs when people leave their native country in search of greener pastures in other countries, where they can either move to acquire education or to seek employment, and in some instances they return to their countries or settle in the foreign country. Most of them move because of the hostile political climate back at home (Goldin & Reinert, 2007). Through migration, the native country loses its professionals to other countries; these professionals could otherwise have contributed to increasing their respective countries’ GDP. In Kenya in recent times, most of the educated citizens, especially in the health sector, migrated to other countries as a result of the easier movement of professionals (Schultz, Paul & John, 2008). The developed countries offer attractive remuneration and good working environments compared to Kenya, and thus attract most Kenyan professionals (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). The mass exodus of health professionals to developed countries has left Kenya with fewer doctors to people ratios, as recommended by the World Health Organisation (WHO) (Schultz, Paul & John, 2008). Thus, public hospitals are always in dire need of staff. Higher learning institutions have not been left behind either, as they lack qualified personnel in the health departments, since most of their staff have also left the country to advance their education, though many do not return once they complete their studies (Republic of Kenya, 2008).
The United Nation’s Population Division (2005) revealed migration statistics, which showed an increase from 16,351,076 in 1990 to 17,068,882 in 2005. Rich countries take advantage by admitting skilled migrants in technical areas, where they could otherwise have spent more on training (The United Nations Population Division, 2005). Globalisation has enabled the free movement of not only people, but also trade (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007), which has forced countries to develop legislation to protect the local sectors (Schultz, Paul & John, 2008). Some countries, especially in Africa, that are experiencing political turmoil face challenges to retain their labour (UNPD, 2005). Developed countries are crying foul owing to the free movement of developing countries’ workforces. Despite this, most migrants, especially from Africa, move to the west in search of a better life (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). For instance, many Kenyans have followed suit, thus the loss of vibrant citizens who could have contributed towards their country’s economic growth (Schultz, Paul & John, 2008).

The most affected in terms of labour migration are developing countries, as the migration of workers, especially professionals such as doctors and engineers, have greatly affected their economic development and growth (UNCTAD, 2007). When professional workers leave a country they deny their own country of revenues in the form of lost taxes. The country incurs a lot of resources to train their workers who leave after following the training without contributing to the economy in terms of innovation and taxation for the country. According to UNCTAD (2007), the poor performance in trade and industry development for non-industrialised nations is affected by the migration of educated citizens. The migrants mostly leave their countries because of political turmoil, which makes the work environment unconducive with low remuneration compared to what they are promised in the developed countries. At this juncture, there is a need to consider the changes in work structures since the dawn of globalisation.

2.2.6 Effects of globalisation on work structures
Advancements in technology as a result of accelerated globalisation has affected work structures and the way in which things are done. In all spheres of the workplace, the way in which duties are performed has changed from what it used to be. As a result, people move from one profession to another; these days one person can have skills
that are suited to more than one profession, thus eroding the old concept of specialisation (Hirst, Thompson & Bromley, 2009).

The current categorisation of professionals differs from the earlier ones that were strictly based on education or training. Currently, most employees gain expertise purely based on the work as opposed to formal education (Appleton, Christenson & Furlong, 2008). Many western countries are currently challenged by unemployment in spite of being ahead in terms of industrialisation. The productivity of employees in these countries has really increased in recent times because employees are able to put in the same timeframe, and achieve more and better results (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010). The desire to be the best within a global perspective with sophisticated production process can be attributed as the main causes of the recent rise in unemployment (Hirst & Thompson, 2009). According to the pareto rule, 80% of the population controls 20% of the economy, while 20% of the population controls 80% of the economy; this is the reality of the injustices that affect societies today (Warr, 2006). Hence, in spite of the trend in economic growth, the inequality will still exist for a while. One of the contributing factors regarding the status quo is the change in employment structures, where permanent employees are being replaced with temporary employees and casual employment (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010).

Changes in employment structures, affect job security of employees, who were previously on permanent employment. The benefits are also withdrawn, yet the countries claim to be growing economically at the same time when employees continue to suffer despite their contributions to the proclaimed economic growth (Anthony & Walshaw, 2008). Since the 1930s, research has shown that a lack of jobs contributes to an unhealthy population (Warr, 2006). The truth remains that employees who are not taken care of may not concentrate at work, thus resulting in unpleasantness and resentments, which may lead to strikes and boycotts.

Unemployment has become a major labour problem in developed countries; the less industrialised countries, conversely, are facing a number of labour issues. The developing countries spend most of their money on importing industrial machines and technologies to foster economic development (Kaplinsky, 2008). Most of these countries
face an influx of citizens to urban centres in search of employment, thus straining resources in the cities. The majority of people who migrate have no skills to get formal employment, and this contributes to slums in the cities. However, those who have acquired skills through education system secure employment for themselves, thus widening the income disparity in communities (Warr, 2006).

Indeed, to a great extent global competition has affected employment relations in most countries. The local legal system of managing workplace relationships seems to have been threatened, as organisations apply international regulatory mechanisms, which tend to supersede local ones (Thomas, 2010). The application of the regulations becomes voluntary, which in turn are exploited by the employers as the owners of capital. Normally, organisations formulate their own policies, which they apply in determining the employment conditions and relations (Streeck, 2009). Labour unions have become weaker as they have been side-lined in major decision making, as it was previously conceived owing to weak regulatory frameworks (Reich & Oleksyn, 2008).

In addition, companies that operate in more than one country seem to be the major beneficiaries of globalisation (Thomas, 2010). These companies are able to control labour and work structures, which entirely mean that they can influence the employment relations in the countries in which they operate (Reich & Oleksyn, 2008). Most host countries where multinationals operate have little say in the way in which they conduct their business, as almost everything is controlled from the multinationals' head offices, which are located in their home country. They may form alliances and merge with other organisations, but their identity remains intact as their headquarters still maintain the status quo (Streeck, 2009). With regard to globalisation, economic growth cannot be controlled by any individual country or company, but by the global activities of countries and companies across the global. Reich and Oleksyn (2008) states that transnationals are firms that can affect the way that things are done in a country, whilst influencing the political perspective of that nation. Transnationals can even impose their dominant capitalist employment relations instead of applying the host country’s employment relations’ standards in their operations (Streeck, 2009).
In fact, since the early 1980s, international organisations began to apply global mechanisms in their operations (Streeck, 2009). Global competition has introduced sophisticated ways for international organisations to operate in order to remain in business. Burchell and Cook (2008) argue that Japanese multinational companies have established themselves in Europe, where they have formed joint ventures with local organisations, which they then use as a means to export their products to Europe and other countries. Another case in point is Mexico, where Yazaki has set up a firm that exports products to the United States (Streeck, 2009).

Work activities seem to have increased in some sectors, as employees are now expected to exceed employers’ expectations in terms of production outputs (Burchell & Cook, 2008). Hence, employees are expected to put in more effort and, in some cases, time to ensure that there is increased productivity. This seems to apply to all employees, irrespective of the rank and nature of the job (Burchell & Cook, 2008). As already emphasised earlier, accelerated global competition has forced firms to decrease their costs, which is mostly done through retrenchments (Balsiger & Philip, 2010). In other words, more output is required from fewer workers, implying they have to put in an extra effort. With advancements in technology, the extra work can be achieved with ease, as employees can work from any location and are not necessarily required to be physically present at the workplace (Corwin, Lawrence & Frost, 2001). Thus, the technological advancements have enabled employees to perform more work at the workplace and at home. The employers receive additional benefits, as the employees can still work outside of the official working hours and surpass their targets (Higgins, Duxbury & Johnson, 2000).

The ease of doing work at home in spite of the actual time put in by employees may not make them realise the full amount of time that goes into the work activities (Roberts, 2006). Some may work for a shorter duration, but because of the flexibility in their working hours, they still achieve their targets (Balsiger & Philip, 2010). Thus, reduced working time may not affect the overall achievement of targets, as some people who prefer to work for longer hours compared to those who prefer to work for fewer hours, breaking it down into flexi-work time at home, may end up achieving the same target. Kelliher and Anderson (2009) suggest ways in which work flexibility can operate
within a company. In their view, it can be applied to an employee, where they are required to achieve more within the same timeframe. Lewis and Den (2008) postulate that employees will always support a reduction in working time if the target remains the same, as management cannot allow for any reduction in productivity, neither can they allow permanent employees to share their work with temporary and part-time employees, as they all have their own workloads (Higgins et al., 2000). This has become the trend both in global and local organisations. Those who are unable to meet their targets after reductions in time are shown the way out, and no excuse for increases in workload is entertained (Anderson, 2009). Hence, organisations are not responsible for their failure to meet their work targets, which contributes to high levels of work stress and employee agitations (Lewis & Den, 2008).

When employees are given a free hand to be flexible with working hours, they tend to be more productive during working hours because those who choose flexible working hours do more work at home, since the home environment is sometimes more conducive than the office environment. Moreover, those who have fewer hours at work strive to achieve their best within the timeframe in order to give them ample time to attend to other non-work related commitments. Kelliher and Anderson (2009) have posited that owing to technology, employees achieve more when they work outside the office using telecommunication gadgets. Employees tend to concentrate more on doing their work through technology than when they are given instructions manually, and are expected to work in the office setup (Corwin, Lawrence & Frost, 2001). This is because they seem to concentrate more while working at home, as there are fewer disturbances compared to the office. While in the office, walk-in inquiries and unplanned meetings interfere with one’s work, compared to when one works from home (Higgins et al., 2000). However, Zuber (2011) argues that working at home does not translate to quality performance, because work quality is not supervised and may not be achieved on time. Kelliher and Anderson (2009) found that those workers who work on a part-time basis are normally encouraged to give their best and thus achieve better results, compared to those who are permanently employed. However, the pressure to achieve their targets within a limited timeframe may lead to job stress, which affects employment relations.
Workers are also available to achieve more, depending on the working environment. Where the employer offers offering the best in terms of remuneration and working conditions, employees will always put in more effort as a show of appreciation to their employer (Christen, Rosenberg & Jayadeva, 2006). In other words, they will put in extra time without necessarily asking for compensation (Egels-Zanden, 2009). Studies have shown that those who work on flexible hours are able to plan their work in such a way that they achieve the same output or even more than their counterparts who work on a full time basis (Zuber, 2011). Employees who put in more effort to achieve a high level of productivity for their organisations can also negatively affect them as a result of work stress that results when trying to achieve strenuous targets (Lewis & Den, 2008). There is also a contention that if temporary workers are able to do the same work as fulltime employees, but are paid less than their full time counterparts, then the organisation may be wasting unnecessary costs on full time employees (Lewis, 2001).

The psychological contract is used to reflect the relationship, behaviour and character of workers, as workers will produce more if the working environment is made conducive, with assurance of job security (Lewis & Den, 2008). If employees are assured that there is equity in the way that they are treated in terms of compensation and reward, then they will certainly perform beyond their limits (Conway & Briner, 2002). Employees are psychologically at peace when the employer takes good care of them. Zuber (2011) elaborate how this is achieved. Firstly, workers will have a sense of belonging when they are allowed flexible working hours. Employees perceive that they have control over their lives, as they can operate hours that are suitable to their circumstances. The second aspect is that the employees will become confident in their employer, which leads to job satisfaction because of the good treatment (Christen, Rosenberg & Jayadeva, 2006). Nevertheless, labour regulations seem to have undergone major changes since the advent of globalisation.

2.2.7 Labour regulations within a globalised economy
According to Seidmann (2007), national policies on labour have been influenced by global competition, which seems to have weakened national regulations. Egels-Zanden (2009) indicates that past labour relations were locally legislated through consultation with the labour players. However, owing to globalisation, workers have been forced to
shift their expectations, as organisations now prefer temporary labour to permanent employees. This has also led to increasing outsourcing, which has become the order of the day. With globalisation, the power of workers in the production process has been eroded by employers who have a greater say on what to do and how to do it (Fichter, Helfen & Sydow, 2011).

The local way of dealing with labour seems not to be in conformity with the global demand for deregulation and liberalisation (Thomas, 2010). This has made trade unions and other labour organisations rationalise new ways of counteracting the employers (Hennebert & Bourque, 2011). However, management has been coming up with measures to ensure that trade unions are weakened. In addition, the strategies that unions adopt may not hold water across the borders (Koch-Baumgarten, 2006). Trade unions always endeavour to protect their members, especially from employers' punitive policies such as outsourcing and retrenchments. In this regard, trade unions work in the best interest of their members. Owing to globalisation, which has culminated in the free transfer of labour and the use of cheaper labour to reduce costs for multinationals, most trade unions have initiated ways to address these new challenges (Telljohan, 2009).

According to the World Bank Report (2008), Kenya ranks 68 out of 181 countries in terms of employment rigidity. The report notes that Kenya has a constraint in recruitment index of 22, a rigidity of employment index of 301 and a firing cost of 47 weeks of salary. This means that any organisational restructuring that would lead to a loss of employment, including the use of firing as workers' disciplining device, including workers who are caught shirking. This is greatly restricted because a high firing rate leads to wastage of times and costs. According to Winfried and Prat (2007), less skilled individuals bear most of the adverse consequences of labour market rigidity in the form of employment protection legislation. Egels-Zanden (2009) also argue that high employment protection legislation seems to drive small or less efficient firms out of the market.

Studies on relationships between the official and private lives of employees have been widely undertaken in the last few years (Den Dulk & Peper, 2007). Most of the studies have concentrated on the interrelationship between these two variables in terms of how
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya 2017

one affects the other, which points to the fact that the two variables are not related. The two seem to equally strive for time and commitment, thus adversely affecting each other, as success in one may lead to failure in the other (Guest, 2007). In terms of this perspective, there is always conflict between family and work, particularly in the era of globalisation, where work demands are high (Trindade & Zhu, 2007). Employees are now expected to balance the conflict between the two, namely work and life, as both of them are important to the employee (Dex & Scheibel, 2001). Mickel and Dallimore (2009) explains that this balancing scheme between work and family enables employees to be socially fit in the society in which they work (Burchell, 2002). A balance between family and work life leads to certain levels of job satisfaction (Trindade & Zhu, 2007). A level at which a person feels comfortable with work and family life, creates a balance. This is of course dependent on other aspects including type of work and the distinct connection to his/her family (Higgins et al., 2000).

Mickel & Dallimore (2009) introduced ways of easing the conflict between work and family life. They state that an individual should be able to prioritise between the two, namely family and work. The second one is that the employee should be in a position to schedule his/her work, and come up with a specific timeframe for task and household (Dex & Scheibel, 2001). The third one is that the employee should be flexible, since when there is a need to undertake a certain activity, which is either work or family related, and is urgent, the employee can be flexible to trade-off between work and family responsibilities. The fourth factor concerns focusing on the future while undertaking the current activity. In other words, what one does currently should be able to have a replica effect on the future (Den Dulk & Peper, 2007). And, lastly, when one undertakes a current activity, one can also anticipate in the future. In other words, a person can forgo certain activities now for the future. The next section deals with globalisation and flexible work practices.

2.2.8 Globalisation and flexible work practices
The tendency to overwork workers has made work flexibility an appealing economic choice in the globalised world of work (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). As aforementioned, human resources have now been dichotomised into main groups of multi-tasked permanent workers and a part-time workforce who are engaged on a temporary basis.
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya (Adams, Hean, Sturgis & McLeod, 2006). The method that is employed above brings benefits to the organisations, but is the cause of renewed problems for casual workers. Indeed, the working environments have changed owing to the current liberalised market (Ohmae, 2005). While employers have emphasized changes in work structures to guarantee higher returns, employees, conversely, prefer higher wages and good conditions of service, which in most cases have prompted employers to threaten that jobs may be moved elsewhere such as to China and Bangladesh, where the cost of labour is cheap and the conditions of service deplorable (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2009).

Any workforce component has an effect on a company’s productivity. Konrad and Mangel (2000) state that companies increase their performance when employees are given a free hand to work. However, the output is more where professionals are involved as opposed to unskilled labour (Lee, Walker & Christensen, 2006). One of the ways of encouraging workers to perform better is to allow them a free hand to be innovative by coming up with new ways of doing things. Such opportunities give them a sense of involvement in the production process and they feel part and parcel of the organisation, and hence celebrate their achievement in the firm, and will always want to be associated with it (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). Employees should be given a free hand to perform their duties so that they can initiate their ideals. Employers should always encourage employees to go beyond the laid down procedures in order to achieve results, and they should be ready to reward such efforts, without pressure being placed on employees (Lee, Walker & Christensen, 2006). Employment relationships are improved when employees are appreciated, as they will then give their best for the sake of the organisation’s success (Macky & Boxall, 2008). The expectation of each employer is that the employees will be able to sacrifice and exceed their targets; conversely, employers should do their best to ensure that the work environment is good so that employee confidence is elevated to add value to the production process (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). This could be achieved by allowing employees flexible working time. The next section addresses organisational commitment in the era of globalisation.

2.2.9 Organisation commitment in the era of globalisation
Ukpere and Slabbert (2007) observe that a business within a cutthroat competitive environment requires well trained and qualified human resources who can fully support
the organisation’s objectives. Many employers do not find it reasonable to invest in training workers, who they have no doubt will soon quit for other opportunities owing to poor working conditions. It is also unreasonable to pretend that employees will commit to the organisation’s objectives if they know that the same will lead to their jobs being lost in a short span. Ultimately, the state of affairs reduces labour’s level of commitment and loyalty towards business. The non-commitment of workers towards their organisation since globalisation is an indication of a disharmonious employment relationship. The impact of globalisation on employment generation is discussed next.

2.3 Impact of globalisation on employment generation

Globalisation has contributed to job creation in Kenyan context. It has increased foreign investment by multinationals who in turn export their products back to their home countries (Edmonds & Kiran, 2006). With trade liberalisation, comes foreign investment. The multinationals set up base and thus increase the demand for host country workers that are paid better than their colleagues in local firms. On the contrary, some of the foreign companies do sometimes engage the services of child labour in their bid for cheaper labour costs (Lipsey & Sjoholm, 2001). Indeed, trade liberalisation increases the demand for local products, in addition to more labour to meet production levels. Investment liberalisation enables a country to acquire advanced technology and skills (Janssen & Ahn, 2006).

In situations where there are a few professionals, they attract high pay owing to the demand for their services, hence the well qualified will be able to move from one job to another, as they are highly on demand, and thus settle for the highest bidder (Edmonds & Kiran, 2006). Kenya has a huge number of qualified unemployed workers, which makes labour easily accessible to multinationals. This state of affairs can result in weak negotiation for employees when they engage with employers. However, a number of Kenyan firms pay their workforce better, and above the minimum wage, which is set by the government (International Labour Office, 2004). Most big organisations have a good working environment compared to the smaller firms. As a result, employees in smaller firms feel de-motivated by their working conditions (Davies, 2008). Naturally, well paid employees normally perform better and are more committed to the organisations in which they work (International Labour Office, 2004).
There has been a rise in unemployment in the recent past. This has been occasioned by advancements in the education sector that does not commemorate with the number of job opportunities that are created. Economic Survey (2010) indicates that unemployment in Kenya stood at 12.6% of the total employment, and of this, 40% were youth. For the same duration, the unemployment rate in the urban areas was 25.1%, while the rural unemployment rate was 9.4% (Economic Survey, 2010). In 2009 the employment sector in Kenya showed a positive growth as a result of good business environments, easy accessibility to loan facilities, and an increase in investors’ confidence (Janssen & Ahn, 2006).

Bamber and Ross (2000) established that there is a disconnect between remuneration and employment over time. They state that if employees are given higher remuneration, it will reach a point where they will become jobless, as the firms will be forced to retrench owing to unsustainable practices (Davies, 2008). However, unemployment is not a permanent phenomenon. It can be revised depending on the policies that are proposed or established (Friberg, 2007). It is important to consider employment relations strategies in the era of globalisation, which are outlined in the next section.

### 2.4 Globalisation and pertinent employment relations issues

Galbraith (2009) argues that all organisations are structures whose elements must be coordinated. Successful organisations are those that have been able to coordinate activities and align their overall objectives (Papadakis, 2011). To survive, all organisations need different patterns of strategic changes, organisational structures, management systems, and the company’s culture. Strategic management for organisational competitiveness is indeed complex but necessary for organisational survival (Egels-Zanden, 2009). Strategic management can only succeed if it recognizes and places great importance on using the innovativeness of human resources in making good and well-conceived decisions (Omolo, 2002).

Contingency theories make it essential for organisations to consider their different structural characteristics before adopting different actions, which are appropriate for different tasks and goals (Papadakis, 2011). They identified the impact of environmental constraints on organisational structure. Environmental contingencies such as demand
for organisational output, technological change, products, product mix and the likes, set limits on how the organisation should be structured in order to survive and operate effectively (Lambert & Rob, 2010). Human resources occupies an important position in determining whether organisations should be structured bureaucratically or with self-defined routines to produce large, qualitative identical goods or services (Davies, 2008). Most organisations today are organically structured with few routines to be performed by highly skilled professionals who produce highly qualitative and relatively unique goods and services (Clott, 2004). Hence, human resource inputs at an individual and group level are important in terms of formulating and implementing strategies for organisational competitiveness and survival (Davies, 2008).

An effective employment relations system encourages individual and group commitments to excellence and helps to create a favourable environment for innovations to take place (Clott, 2004). The fact that organisations are subjected to constant change makes it imperative for management, individual employees and trade unions to constantly evaluate the relevance and achievement of the organisation’s vision at all times (Bipp, 2010). They can jointly determine the creation, recreation and communication of ideas that can inspire them to translate, evaluate and implement innovative ideas. Trade unions are established to mostly satisfy human resources’ group needs (Hennebert & Bourque, 2011). It provides members with improved pay and conditions of employment, and protects them from losing their jobs easily (International Trade Union Confederation, 2012). Unions are constituted to solve problems and protect their members from intimidation and harassment. Unions are fully aware of their rights and execute their mandates without fear. In Kenya they clearly use the judiciary system to voice their grievances in cases of victimisation, and may resort to strike action if management failed to yield to their demands.

The presence of the union may also ensure due-process in the performance of management and consistency regarding the treatment of different employees (Lambert & Rob, 2010). This helps to create good working conditions for workers. Empirical research, which was conducted by Becker (2007) shows that unionized workplaces promote integration and co-operation between workers and management, which helps them to adapt to innovations that are supportive towards productivity increase. Industrial
relations can be used to promote organisational competitiveness when the decision to achieve objectives is based on performance-efficiency versus innovation, quantity versus quality of services or products, and morals versus productivity (Thomas, 2010). To achieve this, appropriate structures need to be jointly specified by management and trade unions in order to support organisational change strategy, technological innovations and organisational development. There is also a need to focus on tools and techniques to introduce and improve change (Kraut, 1996). Industrial relations tasks workers to be change agents whose performance can be improved through system design, career opportunities, clarity of goals, team work and group processes, which increase motivation and improve their morale to be innovative and productive (Becker, 2007). Collective bargaining frees workers from arbitrary punitive atmospheres, as it guarantees protection of workers privileges (Khan, 2001). Trade unions bargain to improve the working conditions of their members. Participative decision making, job enhancement and optimum autonomous team works cannot be achieved accurately in the absence of trade unions through collective bargaining (Lambert & Rob, 2010). Kenya, like most African countries’ organisations/governments, does not bode well with a strong labour movement, which includes diverse membership (International Trade Union Confederation, 2012). Further, trade unionists for a long time have faced the wrath of some of their key stakeholders in search of better working environment for their members, namely governments (Adewumi, 2007). Even to date, the struggle continues without intervention from the government (Kmec, 2010).

All elements that affect, support, help and hinder employees’ performance can form part of the bargaining between management and the union for improved performance (Lambert & Rob, 2010). Different performance interventions may be selected and agreed upon by management and union officials. Trade union officials, when they are motivated, can rally their members to offer suggestions or better means that can lead to their highest performance level (Guest, 2007).

Changing the way of doing business in response to the global environment leads to improvements in productivity. One way of doing this, is by altering the work structure to introduce flexibility for both systems and employees (Kochan, Ichniowski, Levine, Olson & Strauss, 1996). When employees are given the freedom to undertake their duties,
they seem to become innovative and also improve relationships that guarantee improved productivity. The employees feel part of the organisation and they will do their best to ensure that the organisation succeeds. Through team work spirit, each employee will have no choice but to do their best to achieve the organisation’s common objectives (Ollo, Bayo & Larraza, 2010).

Globalisation has significant impact on industrial relations practices like most other economic phenomena. For instance, rapid technological change in the era of globalisation has impacted employment relations in various ways. Employees and human resource managers now need to have the capability to read balance sheets in order to understand the organisation’s financial position and marketing drives to enable them to perform effectively. Human resource managers and trade union executives play a formidable part in creation, formulation and communication of visions that are necessary to integrate and improve employees’ performance, and hence guarantee organisational success and stability (Kelliher & Anderson, 2009). Recognition, assessment and integration of employee and organisational needs are prerequisites for the management of any new system and technological change. They are always the first step in the problem solving process, and help to strengthen the organisational culture of organisations, particularly within the era of globalisation.

2.5 Organisational culture in the era of globalisation

The culture of a firm determines how employees could deliver in the context of the employer’s requirements (Lewis, 2008). Culture should be in such a way that it supports the satisfaction of employees. It should also accommodate the culture of employees (Thompson, Cynthia & David, 2006). For instance, when rewarding employees, organisations should employ mechanisms that are acceptable to most of the employees. Where they are not in agreement, it will then affect productivity, which will impact negatively on the organisation’s goals (Allen, 2001). According to Warren (2004), people will behave in accordance with the environment in which they work. The essence is that if an organisation ensures that the working environment is good, then the employees will adopt the same and give their best and vice versa. Organisations that have rigid policies work against employees who then become unsatisfied as a result (Atkinsson & Hall, 2009).
An organisation that has a supportive culture, which is flexible, leads to success, as employees will achieve more, which will positively impact on employment relations (Den & Peper, 2007). Thompson, Cynthia & David (2006) state that, a lack of relationship and supportive culture affects performance of employees. On a similar disposition, McNall, Masuda and Nicklin (2010) indicate that employers have an opportunity to determine employee outputs through instilling positive attitudes. Employees perform better if they are supported. Den and Peper (2007) observe that employees who are allowed flexible time tend to have a positive attitude and are more productive.

2.6 Summary
Globalisation has a strong effect on employment relations in developing nations, of which Kenya is not an exception. The chapter began by introducing employment relations in the era of globalisation. The study critically analysed how globalisation has affected employees’ earnings and working conditions, with specific emphasis on the differences between temporary employees and permanent employees. Information technology has been a major factor in fuelling globalisation. Globalisation and technological innovations have changed the ways employees relate to each other and the employers. It has also changed the work structure by altering the working hours. Employees are no longer compulsorily required to spend eight hours per day in the office to achieve results. They can achieve the same targets by working at home, where the work environment is a little bit more relaxed than the office. In the office there is usually interference from colleagues and unplanned meetings.

Globalisation has changed the approach of doing business, including employment relationships with employees. Most companies have resorted to outsourcing production activities to employees in poor countries, where wages are low as a way of cutting the costs of production. Globalisation has affected organisational design and employees’ reward management. With globalisation, employees can migrate in search of jobs; however, developing countries lose their talented workers after investing a lot of resources to train them. Most developing countries’ talented employees migrate to developed countries where they are assured of better pay and working conditions.
The chapter also covered the effect of globalisation on work structures within multinational companies in the era of globalisation. Some countries have introduced regulation to control labour activities, but these policies are normally overshadowed by global regulatory policies such as the ILO conventions. Globalisation has also impacted organisational cultures. Hence, organisations cannot continue to do business without taking into consideration the global perspectives so that they are able to remain globally competitive. Things have changed and organisations must also change in order to compete globally. However, organisations that embrace change must consider the impact of these changes on people in the workplace. The research study’s focus will now move towards employment relations in Kenya, which is discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 3: EMPLOYMENT RELATIONS IN KENYA

3.1 Introduction

Industrialisation took root in Kenya in 1965 through the sessional paper No. 10 of 1965 on “African Socialism” which lead to Africanization of Kenyan economy and eradication of poverty, after a long period of suppression by the colonialists, which had restrictions on workers’ movements and engagement (Bigsten, Kimuyu & Lundvall, 2004). Black workers were restricted to certain jobs, which also limited the growth of industries. This situation contributed to the emergence of unionism and the strengthening of their demands through several strike and protest actions (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). The colonialists could not entertain any dispute and they resorted to intimidation by arresting and imprisoning most of those who participated in strikes, including their leaders. Nevertheless, the unions forged ahead with their push for workers’ rights by intensifying their activism (Hagglund, 2008). The trade unions sent a shockwave to the colonialists, as their agitation fuelled the country’s quest for independence (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010).

Labour relations has transformed over the years to its current form, which has been weakened owing to the erosion of the culture and behaviour occasioned by globalisation (DiNardo & Lemieux, 1997). Employment relations in Kenya underwent changes from the time that it was controlled by local legislation to the current situation where it is being dictated to by global forces (Fashoyin, 2010). Due to the numerous challenges posed to labour relations, employers and government stuck a deal to ensure that the challenges are controlled (Waweru, 2007).

To achieve this, the labour relations players agreed to implement the Industrial Relations Charter in October 1962 (ILO, 2009). The charter recognises employees’ privileges and required the parties to negotiate and engage employees in the course of making decisions on issues that affect them, in addition to the fact that they should also listen to and resolve employment related grievances amicably (Singh & Singh, 2011). To implement the provisions of the charter, Kenya constituted a court to decide on labour disputes (Waweru, 2007). Even though the charter was not compulsory, it helped to steer positive employment relations (Waweru, 2007). This was confirmed by dispute data for the following years following adoption of the charter, and a reduction in strike
was recorded. According to the Ministry of Labour, data shows that there has been a reduction in the number of strikes each year between 2013 and 2015 at 15%. In the end, public policy and organisational commitments for industrial and employment relations point towards labour unity (Hagglund, 2008). The high growth of Kenyan’s economy led to the increase in incomes and employment, which also resulted in increased production (Ng’eno, Korir, Nyangweso, Kipsat & Lagat, 2010). A high growth path has also enabled smooth sharing of information through advanced communication technology. Indeed, economic liberalisation seems to have opened up some new trade, advancements in technology and capital inflows (Fashoyin, 2007).

The rich countries conceived trade to having contributed to the differences between them and the developing countries. However, current international trade liberalisation seems to contribute less towards employment generations, both in the developed and developing countries (DiNardo & Lemieux, 1997). According to Fashoyin (2007), globalisation has contributed to poor labour relations, as indicated by declining employment levels and low pay for those in employment. The Kenyan economy has experienced dismal growth owing to poor trade policies that favour the foreign countries, thereby affecting the local economy (Betcherman, 2015). It is not certainly clear whether liberalisation of trade in Kenya has positively lead to economic growth, a reduction in unemployment and poverty levels in Kenya (GoK Report, 2009). It is crucial to point out that Kenya’s efforts to liberalise its trade, like industrialised countries, face major challenges such as poor quality products that cannot meet the international standards, low markets for the supply, and increased production costs, among others (Edmonds, 2002).

Globalisation has placed pressure on countries to endeavour towards achieving competitive advantage within the global village (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011). But there exist some aspects that work against developing countries in terms of them achieving the full benefits of globalisation, which could improve employment conditions and of course employment relations (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011). Fewer studies have been undertaken around this topic in poor countries, specifically in Kenya. Thus, evidence of the impact of globalisation on employment relations from developed countries cannot be generalised for the developing countries (Desjonqueres, Machin & Reenen, 1999).
Several issues have arisen with regard to employment relations in Kenya, which is why it is necessary to review the employment relations framework in Kenya.

3.2 Employment relations framework in Kenya

Kenya should revise its labour laws and policies, revamp the labour sector in order to compete competitively with other countries across the globe, while its working environment should also be checked to increase performance of employees’ (ILO, 2009). Kenya has gone a notch higher by establishing a salary and remuneration commission to be in charge of setting and reviewing salaries for public servants. However, Ikiara and Ndung’u (1997) argue that globalisation has an adverse impact on remunerations in the short term. Authors on foreign investment show a positive effect of globalisation on remuneration (DiNardo & Lemieux, 1997). A case in point, as alluded to earlier, is the multinationals that operate in Kenya, who reward their employees better than local organisations do (Irungu, 2011). Similar cases were also reported in Indonesia (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011). Consequently, local firms seem to have also adjusted their pay to remain competitive (Irungu, 2011). The proceeding section elaborates on Kenya’s collective bargaining system.

3.3 Collective bargaining system

Naturally, trade unions function to support their members by engaging employers in negotiating for better pay and good working environments for their members (Fashoyin, 2010). The Kenyan Labour Relations Act No.14 of 2007 provides guidance on how trade unions are supposed to engage with employers, and also highlights the rights of workers to associate (GoK Report, 2007). The same is enshrined by Article 41 of Kenya’s laws that all people are entitled to fair labour practices and specifically that the employees are free to join, form and be involved in trade union activities. The Kenyan Labour Relations Act (2007) also stipulates some of the rights that are afforded to trade unions, including the right to engage in lawful union activities. Ikiara and Ndung’u (1997), point out that the trade union movement began with much enthusiasm, while a highly militant trade union movement had overshadowed the power of political parties during the pre-independence period with great trade unionists such as the late Tom Mboya (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). In a similar vein, Hayte and Stoevska (2010) notes that unions emerged from the pre-independence period as a strong and popular mass
movement, which was sustained by their leading role during the independence struggle. However, recently, Kenyans have begun to realise that trade unions in the country have lost much of their ballast, and represent a shadow of what they used to be (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010).

An important part of the struggle by trade unionists in the past has been for freedom to associate with trade unions and not to be discriminated against by governments or employers as a result of doing so (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). The right to associate forms part of law, which is concerned with the collective forces of employees at the workplace. Labour law represents a rule for employees who belong to trade unions that have bargaining power; their law consists of a modern statutory scheme, comprehensive in scope and replete with new institutions and advanced concepts (such as 'bargaining in good faith' and 'duty of fair representation') (Fashoyin, 2010). In fact, the normative content of employees' freedom and rights should not be constituted in a narrow perspective. Rather, it should be an absolute right to engage in all lawful activities that are organised by the union (Brewster, 2008).

Trade unions in Kenya have been weakened by low membership numbers, occasioned by the formation of numerous unions and rapid retrenchments that have taken place since the period of openness, thus weakening union activities and powers to negotiate effectively for their members (Alby, Azam & Rospabe, 2005). Hence, unions in Kenya currently lack innovative strategies to deal with declining membership numbers. Another issue that affects unions in Kenya is leadership wrangles in most unions, which has led to the formation of splinter unions, thereby making the fragmented unions ineffective in agitating for their workers’ rights (Brewster, 2008).

The labour inspection system in Kenya has the capacity to protect employees in all sectors of employment by instilling compliance by employers in respect of provisions of the labour laws. However, labour inspection is neglected by many employees and flouted by unscrupulous employers (Bor, 2007). Sometimes this reaches a point where even those whom labour inspection is supposed to protect begin to doubt its effectiveness. But there has been great progress made by labour inspection since it was incorporated into the labour laws in 2007 and in the Labour Institutions Act, 2007, which
spells out the establishment of labour inspectors within the Ministry of Labour. Trade unions also negotiate for better and improved labour inspection systems (Omolo, 2007). The ILO has assisted trade unions in Kenya through education and training of labour administrators and inspectors in various areas of inspection (Siringi & Manaseh, 2010). However, some of them easily fall prey to corruption, thus making workers and members of their trade unions not to fully trust them.

In Kenya trade unions are formed based on the sectors, with few that cut across several sectors (Brewster, 2008). The Central Organisation Trade Union (COTU) is the umbrella union, whose membership is an affiliation of sector unions. It is one of most vibrant trade union federations in Africa because of the number of members and its taste of time for being the oldest affiliation union. COTU has a political influence on labour issues in Kenya (GoK Report, 2009). COTU was instrumental in the passage of the 2010 constitution. It has always had an influence on legislative issues, which affect labour and it is well represented in sectors that address labour issues (Brewster, 2008). Employees normally use the collective bargaining system, where unions and employers negotiate to relay their grievances and disputes.

### 3.4 Employee grievances and disputes

Kenya has a fairly elaborate structure for the resolution of labour disputes. The dispute resolution mechanism is anchored on the Industrial Relations Charter and provisions of the Labour Institutions Act, 2007 (GoK Report, 2007). The dispute settlement machinery is largely based on the spirit of voluntarism. Regulation of the employment market in Kenya is largely guided by the government’s desire to promote private sector led-growth, harmonious industrial relations, health and safety in workplaces, and fair wages (Ng’eno, Korir, Nyangweso, Kipsat & Lagat, 2010). The key components of the regulatory framework include health and safety surveillance in workplaces; inspection of work environments; a decentralized collective bargaining system that provides for flexible life of Collective Bargaining Agreements (CBAs); moderation of wage awards through wage guidelines; minimum wage settings based on wage boards and councils; and the dispute of resolutions through tripartite arrangements and the Industrial Court of Kenya (Bor, 2007).
The Kenyan labour market has changed considerably with advancements in technology, preference for outsourcing as opposed to internal productive resources such as human resource and the engagement of child and temporary labour (Brewster, 2008) that has accelerated retrenchments, hence an increase in the number of grievances and disputes. These developments should be considered through negotiations during collective bargaining (Hayter & Stoevska, 2010). All employees’ grievances and disputes are governed by legal frameworks and employees should exercise their rights within the legal frameworks, and this is discussed in the next section below.

3.5 National labour legislation in Kenya
In 1998 a global conference adopted the International Labour Organisation Declaration on policies of employees’ rights (Waweru, 2007). This declaration identified four minimum core labour standards, namely to desist from forcing people to work, the disengagement of child labour, non-discrimination of employees in line with their race, gender, religion, age, sexual orientation, and so on, and the right of employees to negotiate for better pay and working environments (Waweru, 2007). These standards are fundamental ordinances at work and they may be understood to reflect a minimalist, immutable core which is prioritized at the current historical moment and is positioned as a response to a particular vision of economic globalisation (ILO, 2008).

Kenya promulgated the new constitution in August, and it was passed through a referendum. This is a milestone document that has been predicted to bring monumental legal reforms, one of them being the introduction of socio-economic rights (GoK Report, 2011). The provision in the new Constitution of 2010 under article 36 provides for the freedom of association, which gives some of the core concepts that all citizens have the right to associate and join any organisation or affiliate of his/her choice, and that they should not be forced to join an association unwillingly (GoK Report, 2010). There is also the establishment of a concept of the right that has not been discussed in most instruments, which is that freedom of association includes the fact that registration of an association should not be impaired maliciously, and they should be given an opportunity to be heard (Betcherman, 2015).
Kenya’s Constitution (2010) also stipulates that every employee is allowed to join and form an association of his/her choice and freely engage in the activities of the association whose cause is legal (Fashoyin, 2010). The government should ratify the international provisions through legislation to ensure that human rights are part and parcel of the local laws (GoK Report, 2011). Though most of the legislation that deals with the right to organise was enacted before the promulgation of this Constitution, this provision is relevant in terms of implementation of the right to organise through legislative measures (Fashoyin, 2010). The government, in consultation with stakeholders in the labour sector, overhauled the labour laws in 2007 and introduced new laws that were more practical in respect of the modern workplace (Fashoyin, 2010). In this process the Trade Unions Act Cap 233 and the Trade Disputes Act Cap 234 were repealed and replaced by the Labour Relations Act of 2007. Part Two of the Labour Relations Act is labelled freedom of association and section 4 thereunder provides a detailed explanation of employees’ right to freedom of association (Singh & Singh, 2011).

The Labour Institutions Act of 2007 under section 11 establishes the Industrial Court, which is responsible for resolving trade disputes. Any trade dispute must be referred to this court because it is the only court that has jurisdiction over these matters (Fashoyin, 2010). This means that the right to organise can be asserted through the court. Hence, Article 23 of the new Constitution of Kenya postulates that the High Court and other subordinate courts can hear an application for redress of an infringement or violation of a right (Nzuve, 2007). Therefore, a worker can go to court as a matter of right if their right has been infringed upon. The Industrial Relations Charter of Kenya also provides for the recognition of the right to organise, including the fact that there are agreed and detailed responsibilities of the government, employers and workers with regard to the right to organise (Singh & Singh, 2011).

Kenya has strived to embrace international labour standards (Fashoyin, 2010). The new constitution clearly stipulates that any law that applies at an international level will also apply to Kenya, and any law that has been adopted by Kenya will effectively become part of Kenya’s laws (Irungu, 2011). Any resolution that is passed by international organisations does not become binding on Kenya unless it is legislated (Siringi &
Manaseh, 2010). For the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) some of its resolutions were legislated and, therefore, these became binding on Kenya, as one of them was adopted in the new constitution under article 20, which gives rise to freedom and rights of employees (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011).

The ILO Convention on the rights of employees to engage in collective bargaining was adopted by Kenya following its independence (Fashoyin, 2010). This is covered in article 1, which dictates that workers shall be protected in terms of their right to join a trade union. This was owing to the fact that some organisations issued discriminatory contracts that prohibited employees from joining trade unions or to relinquish membership of such unions, if any, before being absorbed into employment (Alby, Azam & Rospabe, 2005). Kenya is an affiliate of the African Charter, which protects human rights. The same was entrenched in article ten of the Kenyan constitution. The article states that nobody should be forced to join any association (Brewster, 2008). As mentioned earlier, employees’ grievances are conveyed by their unions to management, but employees can also play a crucial role in expressing their grievances through employee participation.

3.6 Employee participation

Any discussion about the relevance or rationale behind workers’ right to organise will include an analysis of relationship inequalities between employer and employee (Irungu, 2011). The law of contract stipulates that the parties in a contract are equal and entered into the contractual relationship willingly. However, for an employment contract it is only a privileged few that negotiate around the terms and conditions of engagement (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011).

Collective bargaining is a device of procedural justice and it addresses the issue of securing economic justice through the employment relationship. Collective bargaining also promotes concern and respect for employees within the employment relationship (Singh & Singh, 2011). Another rationale for the right to organise, as suggested by Irungu (2011), is that the collective bargaining law is essentially meant to enable employees to effectively channel their remuneration and working environment concerns to employers, which, conversely prompts employers to engage with them in a structured
manner to resolve any stalemate. When negotiating, both players are supposed to agree on terms that should be followed in the workplace (Ishikawa, 2003). There is also an economic rationale to protect workers’ rights when engaging with the employer owing to the fact that labour is a factor of production, hence an essential tool in economic development (Nzuve, 2007). If workers are allowed an opportunity to assert their right to organise, then they are all the more empowered to secure their economic and social freedom (Rama, 2008). Collective bargaining addresses the issue of securing economic justice through proper negotiation. This is not the only goal. Collective bargaining also promotes concern and respect for employees within the employment relationship (Irungu, 2011). Nzuve (2007) points out that employers who encourage free engagement with their staff over issues that affect them are held in high esteem. This is seen as allowing employees to democratically exercise their right to engage with employers. Labour market reforms in the era of globalisation contribute a key part in defining employment relations and it is, therefore, reviewed in the following section.

3.7 Labour market reforms in Kenya
Kenya has undertaken reforms in the labour market with the aim of eliminating cartels to allow for free labour movement (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). The employment market is crucial for the growth of trade and industry. Hence, the labour market acts as an avenue to engage with external policies. For instance, freedom in the labour market reduces unemployment endured in the adjustment process. It further dictates the distribution of income among the different categories of workers (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011). In the early 90s Kenya directed that workers should be compensated as a result of inflation without experiencing formal negotiation (GoK Report, 2010). However, in recent times an opportunity was created for employees and employers to review the remuneration based on productivity and performance as opposed to inflation (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). Hagglund (2008) believe that as a result of these changes, the amount that is paid to workers seems to have increased.

Trade liberalisation brought firm competition to the local firms who were forced to compete in the war for talent with multinationals (Hagglund, 2008). Labour costs has been one of the highest costs that confront the local firms, which require some
adjustment. This prompted the government to introduce retrenchment policies that could favour the local organisations (Omolo, 2007). This became the only viable way for organisations to restructure their operations in order to remain afloat (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). Hence, organisations could carry out retrenchments without seeking permission from the government, other than notification.

The government has not revised minimum wage, but several factors are considered when deciding minimum wage increases. The first factor is to base the pay on productivity and the capacity of the organisations to increase pay. Further, the amount being taxed on wages that are paid is another factor, which is considered when making adjustments (Irungu, 2011). In this regard, the government has also reduced the tax bracket by increasing the amount, which is taxable for the minimum pay (GoK Report, 2010). The Kenyan public and private sectors have undergone various restructuring, which resulted in the layoffs of public servants and private employees (Irungu, 2011). As mentioned earlier, this has led to an influx of employees into the informal sector having been laid off by the formal sector. According to the GoK Report (2012), the informal sector now accounts for most of the workforce compared to the formal sector. Despite this, the manufacturing sector has been facing challenges owing to low demand for their products as a result of workers weak purchasing power (Brewster, 2008). Having considered at the labour reforms in Kenya, a review on how globalisation has impacted trade unions and unionism in Kenya is necessary and, which is discussed in the next section.

3.8 Trade unions and unionism in Kenya

Kenya trade unions undertake lawful activities. Hence, anything that is not legally binding is highly discouraged among them, hence anything that threatens the nation’s peace is not allowed. In this case, employees should not abscond from duties or interfere with the employer’s properties, or behave rudely (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). In fact, unions function as a link between employers and employees (GoK Report, 2007). Nzuve (2007) explains that there is a clear mandate of trade unions in representing workers. Furthermore, Waweru (2007) indicates that trade unions are supposed to deal with employers in order to champion the interest of the employees. According to Alby, Azam and Rospabe (2005), employers have control over their employees, and this has
necessitated the government to introduce policies that allow trade unions to engage with employers in support of the employees. The Labour Relations Act of 2011 clearly states this representation. The Act empowers unions to engage with employers. Therefore, organisations are supposed to be objective when dealing with the union representatives to allow them to bargain from an informed perspective (Riffau & Dundon, 2010). However, some organisations, especially those in the public sector have not always been open to the unions in terms of sharing information with them for the purpose of bargaining, thereby leaving them to argue from a weaker point of view (Sen, 2009).

Despite numerous strikes in Kenya, trade unions have not been able to achieve a wage level that is favourable towards employees in the face of rising costs of living (Nzuve, 2007). However Irungu (2011) established that in spite of the Kenyan wages being low, they have been reviewed upward significantly, but the inflation rate has surpassed the rising wages, leaving employees unable to meet their costs of living (GoK Report, 2011). The unions have indeed done much to agitate for better pay for their members; however, the rising rate of inflation seems to have eroded some of the gains that have been achieved by unions (Irungu, 2011). It seems that the trade unions have not succeeded to improve their members working conditions, especially in the manufacturing sector. The Employment Act (2007) provides for eight working hours per day for employees, and anything above this, is regarded as overtime.

Trade unions have opposed the retrenchment exercises in Kenya. However, the Kenyan Employment Act (2007) gives organisations the power to lay off staff in spite of the unions’ resistance and filing of cases in labour courts. According to the ITUC (2012), employees who participate in strikes were summarily dismissed from the workforce to discourage others from partaking in strike actions or becoming members of trade unions. Workers (truck drivers) were dismissed in the transport sector; workers were also dismissed in the textile sector and in the oil industry (Irungu, 2011). The state of affairs is contrary to labour law provisions, which empower workers to be part of a union in order to engage freely with the employers in negotiation.
Kenya’s new constitution gives trade unions the right to engage in their activities without interference from other parties within the labour relationship. In fact, the government has also expressed support for union rights (Hagglund, 2008). Trade unions are not part of the government, nor are political parties and public official members of trade union movements. However, the uniformed staff, that is the police and the military, are not allowed to join or form a union, but for the 2010 constitution the law is not clear regarding whether they should not join a trade union. COTU has endeavoured to champion for the rights of the police and military staff in spite of them not having a union to represent them (Fashoyin, 2010). The health sector has sworn an oath to protect human life, which places them at a crossroads from participating in union activities in spite of being members of unions (Hagglund, 2008). Legally, a union is supposed to give a seven day strike notice period before proceeding with their strike action. The government sometimes advises that matters, which prompt strikes should first be referred to arbitration or allowed to be determined by the labour court. Over the years the government has declared strikes to be illegal (Fashoyin, 2010). According to the ITUC (2012), COTU has lost confidence in employers who wait until the union has followed the legal means of seven days’ notice before declaring the strike to be illegal. The next section deals with the state of trade unions in Kenya.

3.9 The state of labour unions in Kenya in the era of globalisation

Currently, trade unions in Kenya have been facing various challenges, which have weakened their activeness (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). Trade unions have indeed been affected by the wave of globalisation. Advancements in technology and changes in job structures, and advancements in production processes and management styles, have caused several challenges for the unions, both in the social and political sphere, in addition to government interference (Thomas, 2010). Following independence, the trade union movement distanced themselves from being part of government and was perceived to be at loggerhead with the government. For its part, the government has usually crushed strike actions in a hostile manner; arrested union leaders and detained them without trials (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). In recent times employers are allowed to break the law in their quest to suppress industrial dissent. Non-formal workers seem to have borne the highest level of discrimination at the hands of employers (Lambert & Rob, 2010).
The decision by employees to join unions is not affected by virtue of being engaged in talks with employers. In addition, the collective bargaining agreement in Kenya is such that the union and employers engage over better employment conditions, and the employer retains the discretion to determine the optimal level of employment at the negotiated wage (Hayter & Stoevska, 2010). In recent times, the membership of trade union has dwindled owing to privatization of public enterprises. For example, former telecommunication employees who joined mobile telephone companies are barred to continue with their membership in the Communications Workers Union (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). The same applies to other sectors (Aronowitz & DiFazio, 2010). The Kenya Local Government Workers Union (KLGWU) is the only organisation with membership across all cadres without industrial conflict. (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010).

The new Constitution of Kenya (2010), appreciates the privileges of unions, where the activities of the union are reduced by legal instruments. It is difficult to form a union in Kenya owing to so many legal requirements. For instance, a union has to obtain a certificate before admitting members (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). Furthermore, a union can be denied registration if the registrar believes that their activities can be well covered by another existing union. Through the registrar of unions, the government controls the use of union funds (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). Before the union resorts to strike action, they must have exhausted all other avenues of negotiation. A strike should strictly agitate for the welfare of employees, and any other reason that does not concern employees is not acceptable (Hennebert & Bourque, 2011).

Trade unions normally engage the media and other social forums to pressurise the government to introduce laws that are favourable to the unions (Hayte & Stoevska, 2010). More pressure should be directed to organisations to recognise the need for, and activities of trade unions. Globalisation has resulted in the absorption of children into the workforce without much agitation from unions owing to government complacency. The players, in most cases the multinationals, have taken advantage of the situation to exploit cheap labour in the form of child labour (Fichter, Helfen & Sydow, 2011). Having discussed the trade unions in Kenya, there is a need to consider their role in the domain of industrial disputes, strikes and protest action within the era of globalisation.
3.10 Industrial disputes, strikes and protest action within the era of globalisation

Trade unions have agitated for a significant increase of the minimum wage over the years. For instance, in 2012 when the government increased the minimum wage by 12.5% instead of the 60%, which the unions expected, there was uproar and discontent that resulted in strikes by workers in key sectors (ITUC, 2012). In July 2013 the Kenya National Union of Teachers went on a strike, which lasted for three weeks. In the wake of the strike, the government remained adamant and obtained a court order to stop the strike, which the unions disobeyed (ITUC, 2012). This prompted the government to close all public primary schools, which apparently weakened the union’s collective activities and eroded their bargaining power, and forced them to call off the strike without achieving their intention to effect the 1997 agreement on salary increment (Koch-Baumgarten, 2006).

Generally, dissatisfaction among employees in terms of their pay since globalisation is seen from the increasing number of labour disputes that have occurred in most parts of the world (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). In an era of globalisation, protests at workplaces may be the result of poor industrial relations. For instances, South Africa experienced at least ten strike actions in 2006. The security responses owing to workers’ strikes resulted in several killings and assassinations (Ukpere & Slabbert, 2007). In the midst of the challenges of strike actions, industrial disputes and protests by trade unionists, is related to wage employment inequality in Kenya, which is explored in the next section.

3.11 Wage employment inequality in Kenya

The overall goal of Vision 2030 is to transform Kenya from a Third World country to a highly industrialised country (GoK Report, 2011). In pursuit of this goal, the medium term plan aims at establishing an enabling environment for business growth and to facilitate conditions that would enable workers to earn decent wages (Fashoyin, 2007). Over a period of time, the government has remained committed towards the realization of workers living standards that resonates with human dignity (Fashoyin, 2007). To effectively achieve this, while also taking into account the interests of investors, as well as the country’s desire to create quality jobs, the government has, in consultation with their social partners and industry players, developed a wage and incomes policy (Siringi & Manaseh, 2010). The policy also addresses the persistent gender disparities in
Key on the government’s agenda is the differences that exist in terms of rewards and benefits for civil servants. To address this, the new constitution that was promulgated in August 2010 developed a salaries and remuneration commission for the Public Service (SRC) (GoK Report, 2011). The commission developed a pay policy, which seeks to regularise the rewards for all civil servants. The essence is to make public jobs lucrative with the aim of attracting the best talent in the labour market (Waweru, 2007). However, the commission lacks representation from workers’ organisations, which is against the principle of tripartite consultations in wage negotiations, as enshrined in ILO convention numbers 131,144 and 154; and the need for wage setting institutions that comprise the three parties involved in employment relations, as provided for under the Labour Institutions Act, 2007 (Waweru, 2007).

The government recognizes the inconsistencies in the provisions of various labour related laws. For example, Section 61 of the Labour Relations Act, 2007, mandates the Minister for Labour to establish regulations and to institute mechanisms, which regulate the conditions for all categories of employees in the public sector (Fashoyin, 2010). However, various bodies had already been undertaking regulations regarding employment conditions in the public sector prior to the establishment of the salaries and remuneration commission (GoK Report, 2007). Labour regulations affect all employees. However, owing to pressure from the trade unions, in addition to several events in the developed world, the government succumbed to union demands for increased pay (GoK Report, 2012).

According to the ITUC (2012), the job structure has changed to an extent that permanent positions are being replaced by temporary positions, especially in the export processing zones, and the agricultural and manufacturing sectors. In the agricultural sector there is no limit to the total hours that one has to work and this leads to working for more hours with little pay (Irungu, 2011). In a similar vein, employees are always
subjected to working for more hours in disregard to the provisions, especially in the export and construction sectors, where employees are subjected to extra working hours without necessarily being paid for over time (Waweru, 2007).

HIV/AIDS is a great concern in relation to the performance of employees, and support for the affected should be encouraged through the provision of a good working environment, which supports them access medical aid (Ishikawa, 2003). Also, most of the youth who are unemployed are vulnerable to HIV/AIDS, as they undertake risky sexual activities, including prostitution to earn a living (Fashoyin, 2010). The children of affected or infected parents may engage in child labour to fend for their families and themselves (Irungu, 2011). The flower industry has also disregarded labour provisions with regard to the deplorable working conditions in that sector. For instance, workers are subjected to dangerous chemicals, while they are sometimes sexually exploited by their supervisors and managers, and receive to poor remuneration (Irungu, 2011). As a result, according to Hayte and Stoevska (2010), workers in the flower industry are now unionised and some of their deplorable conditions of work are being addressed through union agitations. Globalisation has brought about a shift in workers’ mobility. Hence, it is also necessary to review labour migration in Kenya.

### 3.12 Labour migration in Kenya

In Kenya the capital city hosts some of the best paying companies, as most of the multinationals and global NGOs are situated in the capital city, Nairobi (Azam & Rospabe, 2005). Public institutions have offices in Nairobi, as well as liaison offices for foreign companies and embassies, hence the number of organisations that can remunerate their employees with good pay in the city centres (Aitken, Yeaman, Holliday, Wang & Curtis-McLane, 2008). Kenya is central in terms of connecting Africa to Asia. Thus, Nairobi hosts many transnational companies. In addition, it hosts the headquarters of the United Nations. To this effect, there are a number of foreign staff who work in these institutions (Ikeanyibe & Onyishi, 2011). Due to the number of well-paid employees that reside in Nairobi, Kenya, life has become expensive, as international and national companies have set up businesses to tap into the available resources, hence shopping malls and other social amenities have emerged (Irungu, 2011). This atmosphere has attracted the middle class from foreign countries to
temporarily visit Kenya, either for work related visits or for leisure purposes (Brewster, 2008). The highest population, just like other African countries, resides in Kenya’s rural areas. However, better life in the city has led to rural-urban migration (Irungu, 2011). This has always been the trend, even before independence. Even though there is no restriction on movement and factors that contributed to migration have since changed, the main one being availability of job opportunities, migration continues, irrespective (Waweru, 2007).

Migration has enabled the cities to expand at a high rate to cater for the increasing population. Nevertheless, the growth did not match the level of industrialisation, which has resulted in many prospective employees failing to secure jobs. In fact, government policies have not assisted the situation either (Hagglund, 2008). The scarcity of job opportunities and the lack of skills for available jobs have led women to resort to seeking work in the informal sector in the cities. Waweru (2007) opines that young people have been moving to the cities with high hopes of securing employment, only to find life so hard that they resort to embrace the informal sector for survival. Other than the locals who shift from the rural areas to the cities, there is another group of people, namely the refugees who move from their war-torn countries to Kenya, and also expect to secure employment. This has also contributed to the rate of unemployment being at a record high in Kenya.

3.13 Rate of unemployment in Kenya

Global unemployment is on the rise and there are growing signs that this trend will continue unabated (Zulkiply & Burt, 2013). According to Ukpere (2007), one repugnant aspect of globalisation is the increasing rate of unemployment in societies around the globe. In Kenya, challenges in the labour market include the slow growth in employment creation, the non-productive and less sustainable nature of most jobs, and the perceptions of some jobs seekers regarding their preferred jobs since 2002 (Waweru, 2007). Unemployed youth is a risk factor in Kenya (DiNardo & Lemieux, 1997). However, it should be kept in mind that a majority of the youth has not attained the right skills to enable them to secure formal employment, while others have chosen not to work, voluntarily (Zulkiply & Burt, 2013). This comes as a result of selectiveness by the youth in respect of available jobs owing to negative attitudes towards a particular job.
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya (Brewster, 2008). The government has been developing policies that will attract the youth into available jobs (GoK Report, 2009). But the strategies may not work as long as the youth continues to show negative attitudes towards some jobs that have been created. In addition, increased casualization of labour, contract employment and unregulated outsourcing of jobs have made workers more vulnerable, especially within the context of social protection and workers’ rights (Brewster, 2008).

The government has introduced strategies that will reduce the unemployment rate by striving to create job opportunities (Aitken et al., 2008). Kenya’s case is quite unique, since it has unemployment and underemployment, and at the same time some youths have negative attitudes towards available labour intensive jobs (GoK Report, 2008). The major factors that contribute to unemployment in Kenya was first raised through a study that was conducted in the 1970s (GoK Report, 2008). Here, three main factors were highlighted; the first was experienced in the urban centres, the second in the rural areas, and another related to shortage of skills. Some of the reasons for some forms of unemployment are advancements in technology, which has caused a shift from the labour intensive production to sophisticated processes that require few staff (Zulkiply & Burt, 2013). The current high wage bills have resulted in the introduction of advanced technology, which has resulted in the redundancy of many workers and led to rapid retrenchments in some organisations in order to withstand global competition. This has also exacerbated the level of unemployment in Kenya (Aitken et al., 2008). A study revealed that there is a skills gap for the unemployed workforce in Kenya. Another issue is skills mismatch as a result of non-targeted training (Brewster, 2008).

Kenya is experiencing low economic growth compared to the growth of the population, and by extension the workforce (Irungu, 2011). Over a period of time the labour force has grown rapidly, while economic growth has been stagnated and in some years grown negatively (GoK Report, 2011). Some of the causes of stagnation have included political turmoil in Kenya (GoK Report, 2009). This implies that the high tread in population growth could not match the creation of jobs owing to poor economic growth. Job creation has been a major headache for the government since the 1980s, thus making it a priority for the government each year (GoK Report, 2011).
The Kenyan government has strived to establish policies that will create employment in the private sector. However, even when the country experienced positive economic growth, the rate of unemployment remained high, especially in the formal sector (Fashoyin, 2010). This has given the think tanks sleepless nights, sending them back to the drawing board to come up with effective policies to address the menace of unemployment (Irungu, 2011). Thus, for the last few years, the government’s core priority has been to address unemployment problem for the growing population (Fashoyin, 2010).

The main reason why Kenya has not been able to deal effectively with unemployment problem is because of weaker policies. The policy makers are unable to adequately grasp the problem at hand. It seems that the policy makers do not clearly understand the problem. They do not seem to know the types and categories of unemployment (Fashoyin, 2007). They seem to concentrate on capital intensive production processes as a way to create employment, ignoring the fact that in a globalised economy, the process may not be sustainable (GoK Report, 2011). Low economic growth has been cited as the main cause of unemployment. However, this is not the main contributor to job creation. The economic structure should be designed in a way that will create employment. The economy should not merely be left to grow, but the structures that can create employment should be worked on to grow side by side (Waweru, 2007).

The main types of unemployment in Kenya include structural, frictional, seasonal, cyclical, and wage rigidity unemployment (Betcherman, 2015). Structural unemployment is a result of advancements in technology and labour migration. Frictional or search unemployment is caused by poor training programmes, where the training is not targeted, thus producing qualified personnel who have no place to practice their skills (Waweru, 2007). Due to labour mobility, employees are always changing jobs in Kenya, as some leave while others join (Irungu, 2011). Due to poor information sharing, it takes time for employers to get the right employees, while some employees do not clearly know where their skills are rightfully needed (Nzuve, 2007). In some cases Kenya experienced seasonal employment owing to the seasonal creation of jobs, especially the agricultural and tourism sectors that operate in terms of seasons (Waweru, 2007). Cyclical unemployment is created by turbulence in trade, because sometimes trade is at
a peak and sometimes it is at a low. This explains why there has been a rise in unemployment (Sen, 2009). Due to the unemployment problem that is experienced currently in Kenya, many organisations have resorted to engaging workers on a temporary basis with aim of evading the legal implications of engaging workers on a permanent basis. This globalisation trend has contributed to increase in downsizing of the labour force by most organisations in Kenya.

3.14 Globalisation and downsizing in Kenya

Global competition has made organisations look for ways of cutting costs if they have to effectively compete, and one of the strategies is downsizing (Irungu, 2011). From time to time managers determine how employees should be utilised to ensure maximum return on investments (Flingstein, 1996). Several developments have occurred since globalisation and economic liberalisation (Brewster, 2008). For instance, organisations are working hard to ensure that they have a lean work force in production lines. Irungu (2011) states that restructuring in the public sector is not merely as a result of globalisation, though one cannot rule out completely that it has no effect. Currently, everything is done with a global mind-set. Thus, globalisation has an effect on almost everything that takes place at a local level (Brewster, 2008). Ukpere and Slabbert (2009) posit that new organisational behaviours in respect of downsizing, reengineering and an organisational combinations as a direct consequence of global competition, has accelerated the pace of unemployment. They further indicated that “business combinations have highly burgeoned as a response to competition globally”.

The multinationals that establish themselves at a local level have the capital and infrastructural advantage over local firms, and they have well managed structures (Holbeche, 2001), which is not usually the case in most African organisations. Roberts, (2006) indicates that African organisations face corruption and misuse of resources by those who are assigned to protect them. Recruitment and promotions are not done on merit, based rather on who one knows. Brewster (2008) points out that successful organisations are the ones that are well effectively operated with focused management in the global market.
Global competition has prompted local firms to change their strategies, and the most affected in Kenya is the telecommunication sector. The sector underwent privatisation with the aim of making it more competitive (Budros, 2002). Brewster (2008) pointed to management to change ways of doing things, and amongst these is reducing the workforce. Omolo (2007), state that managers should concentrate on reduction costs, while maximizing strategies that will make them competitive. It was also advocated that to reduce the length of the management decision process, the structures should be simple and have a lean workforce (Omolo, 2007).

In Kenya, the government has been struggling with a bloated workforce, implying that staff are many, but what they are paid is small in relation to the rate of inflation (Brewster, 2008). Professionals who are engaged in the public sector are remunerated poorly in relation to the private sector. Over a period of years in the past, the country has endeavoured to restructure the civil service, in order to improve the performance of government entities (Omolo, 2007). The government further aimed to achieve efficiency, in order to reduce the wage burden on tax payers (ILO, 2009). Telkom Kenya (a state corporation) undertook retrenchment exercises and there was outcry that the remaining staff could not meet the work demands as a result of being overworked (Brewster, 2008). The employees who remained were required to serve the entire country in spite of the growing population and high need for service delivery (Telkom Kenya Records, 2006). Most recently, Kenya Airways undertook a retrenchment exercise, which ended up in courts. In the process, the workers were ordered back to their jobs; however, Kenya Airways had already restructured the position and could not absorb them, hence they were sent on compulsory leave (Omolo, 2007). To date, the issue has not been resolved, but both retrenched workers and workers who survived retrenchments have been adversely affected in terms of employment relations. As downsizing took place and permanent employment froze, qualified Kenyan employees resolved to opt for temporary employment.

3.15 Temporary employment in Kenya
There have been changes in Kenya’s employment structures. Permanent jobs have been replaced by casual and temporary jobs. In addition to this, more work has been outsourced as opposed to doing those productive activities internally. In the recent past,
there has been a steady rise in the number of casual employees (GoK Report, 2006). The situation accelerated during 2008 after Kenya experienced political instability, but reduced again in 2010 (GoK Report, 2011). The high rate of casual workers contributed to a rise in formal sector employment, as it was seen that many people had been absorbed in the sector (Fashoyin, 2007). For the period 2009 and 2010, the number increased even more compared to those who were absorbed on a permanent basis (Waweru, 2007).

In most cases, casual employees are denied rights that are enjoyed by their permanent counterparts (Omolo, 2010). They are denied to freely associate and to join trade unions that can champion their cause. Casuals are not allowed time off or to leave, and when they are granted leave it is not paid. Moreover, they do not contribute towards statutory deductions such as the Pension and the Health Insurance Schemes. The Pension and Health Insurance Schemes have encouraged casual workers to join the schemes, but only a few have taken advantage of the opportunity (Fashoyin, 2007). If casual employment is not controlled by the government it may lead to negative employment relations. This form of employment denies employees the right to be protected by trade unions, which may lead to them being disadvantaged when it comes to salary negotiations and other forms of job protection, including working environment. As a result, productivity might decrease as the employees may not give their best, which may work negatively against organisations in the face of global competition (Fashoyin, 2007). Globalisation and Kenya’s employment status is addressed next.

3.16 Globalisation and Kenya’s employment status

Kenya’s development policies have always underscored the significance of employment creation as a way of promoting income generation, poverty reduction and general improvement in the socio-economic state of the society (Kmec & Gorman, 2010). Employment creation has, therefore, consistently remained the goal of the country’s labour market and other national development policies. Employment creation interventions have incorporated short, medium and long-term strategies (Ikiara, & Ndung’u, 1997). One of the measures that have permeated through the country’s employment creation regimes is the public works programme. Currently, the government is implementing numerous public works programmes (Davies, 2008). One
such programme is the Kazi Kwa Vijana (KKV) programme, which was unveiled in March, 2009. The programme encompasses many projects, which each operate between 3–6 months (Davies, 2008).

Recently, several developing countries, Kenya included, have established public programmes to create employment as a medium term employment solution (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). Wells (2009), however, notes that India has one of the best such programmes. The programme targets to employ at least two people per family by offering them casual work. Egypt has also registered its Social Fund for Development; they have introduced programmes into the agricultural, transportation, construction, health and education sectors (Balsiger & Philip, 2010). All labour players, including NGOs and the private sector have joined hands to implement the programmes (Ikiara & Ndung’u, 1997). The programme specifies that minimum amount should be spent on labour, whose workforce should strictly comprise local staff. Remuneration for these activities is relatively lower compared to other forms of employment (Davies, 2008). For Kenya, the programmes are anchored within the existing labour laws so as not to contravene their provisions, especially regarding minimum wages (Kmec & Gorman, 2010). A critical analysis of the impact of globalisation on Kenya’s employment relations is also necessary, and this is covered in the next section.

3.17 Critical analysis of the impact of globalisation on Kenya’s employment relations

Based on the above literature review, it can be argued that globalisation has had a mixed impact in terms of employment relations (Fashoyin, 2010). It has impacted the different sectors of the economy in different ways (Fashoyin, 2007). If the dividend of globalisation is properly harnessed it can help to reduce the poverty level of nations (Fashoyin, 2007). Globalisation has contributed to employment opportunities, but mostly in the informal sector, and these are not as lucrative as the formal ones (Brewster, 2008). The informal sector faces a lot of competition, making their survival slim when compared to the formal sector (Brewster, 2008). The remuneration in this sector is also low, making workers unable to meet their daily needs and thus increasing the level of working poverty (Manda, 2004). Sanga (2008) reports that export companies in the textile industry were relocating from Kenya owing to competition, especially from China.
The export industry has been paying their workers low wages, which also results in working poverty (Sanga, 2008). Poor working conditions and low salaries have seen employees in the export sector striking. Most employers normally dismiss workers who embark on strikes to demand better pay, and workers in most organisations have resisted joining trade unions. Manda (2004) argues that workers in the export sector have not improved their economic situation owing to meagre salaries. The firms that undertake outsourcing services remunerate their employees poorly, as they do not require skilled staff (Roberts, 2006). These services are provided by developing countries that provide entry level services, while only a few have advanced to provide professional services (UNTCAD Report, 2003). Thus, since the advent of globalisation, foreign corporations seem to have created more low skilled jobs for developing countries (Sanga, 2008).

According to the UNDP Report (1999), globalisation can change the lives of people by giving them choices and opportunities to grow. However, there have been instances where globalisation seems to have rendered many people handicapped (UNDP Report, 1999). Presently, globalisation is being driven by trade liberalisation where markets are opened beyond borders (Ohmae, 2005). It has been assumed that when markets are opened across borders, the benefits will spread to all players and people across the globe (UNTCAD Report, 2003). However, this has not been the case, as globalisation seems to have negatively affected people across the globe, particularly within the current global economic meltdown (Brewster, 2008). However, there is a need for countries to always introduce new policies and strategies that can enable them to gain from the changing faces of globalisation, because globalisation is here to stay (Bor, 2007).

3.18 Summary
The chapter explored a literature review, which covered employment relations in Kenya, notably in the era of globalisation. First and foremost, the employment relations framework in Kenya was explored. The union is instrumental in collective bargaining, and this was explicated within the context of globalisation. The grievances of employees, including dispute resolution structures, were reviewed. Literature on legislation that has been drafted by Kenya to address the issue of employment relations
were also reviewed and this was compared to other international labour laws and conventions. The labour market reforms were also explored, where reforms since the pre-independence period, were reviewed. Trade unions and unionism have been instrumental in Kenya’s independence, and their roles post-independence, including in the era of globalisation, cannot be ignored and were hence also reviewed.

Changes in job structures, as well as wage employment inequality in Kenya, were reviewed. The literature also revealed that multinational organisations that have setup businesses in Kenya pay lucrative salaries to their staff compared to the local organisations. Furthermore, the literature review shows that owing to outsourcing, most organisations tend to use low skilled workers whom they pay meagre wages. This has contributed to labour migration, both rural and urban migration, while others leave the country completely. The rate of unemployment was also reviewed. Retrenchment has been recognised as one of the causes of rising unemployment in the era of globalisation. This has in fact forced many retrenched workers into the informal sector. In addition, most organisations seem to have avoided employment costs and commitments by engaging employees on a temporary basis as opposed to a permanent basis, presently. Literature on the employment status in Kenya was also reviewed. Finally, a critically analysis of the impact of globalisation on Kenya’s employment relations was undertaken in this chapter.

In fact, employment relations in Kenya has evolved since independence; as a result, trade unions express their frustrations through strike action, however, the protests are met by brutalities from the authorities. Over time, the Kenyan government has established national labour legislation, including its new Constitution (2010) that gives employees the freedom to express their views through trade unions. As a result, several charters and ILO interventions have been adopted, which has resulted in Kenya having a fairly elaborate structure for the resolution of trade disputes. However, not everybody has benefited from globalisation. Nonetheless, countries can come up with innovative policies and strategies to manage the changing faces of globalisation, since globalisation has come to stay and nations and organisations cannot do without it. The following chapter outlines the research methodology and design of the study.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction
This chapter outlines the various methods and approaches that the research study adopted. The research design that was used was explained, which supported an understanding of the adopted research methodology. The target population, as well as representatives of the population were explicated, while the research ethics and the mechanisms that were applied in the data analysis, were also illuminated. Babbie and Mouton (2010) explain two approaches that are used in research. The research design considers the results that are expected, and guides the researcher on the approach necessary to respond to the research questions. Research methodology covers the process or roadmap followed, and means that were used. The study utilised two common approaches to obtain the necessary data from the targeted respondents.

A research design helps to shape the data analysis of a study (Lemos & Sara, 2007). The design provides clear details on the origin and kind of data that was important to the research problem (Ooghe, Erwin, Schokkaert & Flechet, 2003). It is a strategy that elaborates on the process that was applied for information gathering (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). It is the backbone of the research, as it provides an outline for the data that is collected, measured and analysed (Yamada, Phillips, Patel, Goldfien & Calestagne-Morelli, 2010). It shows, at a glance, what the study will look like. In the next section the researcher provides a theoretical grounding of the research approaches.

4.2 Theoretical grounding of the research approaches
As alluded to earlier, research methodology is an outline of the process, which is employed when undertaking research (Creswell, 2010). Different research applies different approaches in a given study. A study can employ a quantitative research approach or a qualitative research approach (Morse, 2006). However, in recent times, in spite of being costly and time consuming when applied together, certain authorities emphasise that a good study should apply both quantitative and qualitative approaches together (Willis, 2007).

Atkinson, Coffey and Delamont (2003), however, claim that while conventional distinctions between what is proclaimed and what is actually done by people are
overdrawn, there has to be a balance in the research between these two distinctions. Hence, the current researcher employed a blend of methodology.

At first, the research concentrated on measuring variables that were observable and measurable. This approach is quite objective, and can be done several times (Hesse-Biber, 2010). This is referred to as the quantitative research approach (Lyons & Coyle, 2007). It is sometimes a tricky exercise, because measuring behaviour in quantitative terms is sometimes difficult (Lyons & Coyle, 2007). The quantitative research approach could, therefore, measure the number of times that human beings change their behaviour, but may not be able to figure out the reasons why they behaved in such a way. Hence, supporting quantitative research with the qualitative research approach helps a study to clearly and deeply establish the reasons behind certain behaviours amongst people or phenomena (Rama & Martin, 2008).

Both methodological approaches require the use of different proportions of samples, as researchers may not have access to the entire population (Hesse-Biber, 2010). Different sampling procedures, which comply with each research strategy, are applied. In terms of quantitative research, random sampling is most often used to obtain a proportion of the sample for a study. Then the findings that emanate from the sample can be assumed as a representative to the total population. Random sampling is effective, since it gives an overview of the entire population more adequately, and that any individual has an equal chance of being selected (Hesse-Biber, 2010). However, the approach in most cases is time consuming (Rama & Martin, 2008). Moreover, the inference that is drawn could negatively be affected where sample size is small. Conversely, qualitative research deals with in-depth analysis that requires a small number of participants. The shortcomings of a qualitative enquiry are that it can lead to a researcher making incorrect generalisations since qualitative research has some level of subjectivity (Hesse-Biber, 2010). But when a participant is objectively constituted, the inference that is drawn from a qualitative enquiry could be credible and dependable (Teal, 2008).

When quantitative and qualitative techniques are used consecutively, they are applied in sequential order. Questionnaires and interviews are tools, which are used to collect
information under the mixed approach. Using these two approaches enhances the quality of a study (Wu, 2004). In other words, the qualitative technique can be used alongside the quantitative technique in order to add more value to a given study. In addition, a study’s validity, reliability, credibility, dependability and transferability can be well achieved through a combination of methods and data triangulation (Bassanini & Duval, 2006).

Triangulation, as a concept, originated from land surveyors who used different measures to establish the accuracy of a map (Hussein, 2009). In other words, their perception was that different and diverse judgements enhance the accuracy of a finding (Perone & Tucker, 2003). The reason for a combination is to simplify the complex phenomena (Maloney & William, 1999). Qualitative information can in fact be quantified, but it should be done with a lot of caution (Bassanini & Duval, 2006). However, in a situation where uniform questions were not posed to the respondents, a statistical analysis based on information that is obtained may not yield accurate results (Sparreboom & Shahnaz, 2007).

Similarly, the concept of overall analysis should be reconsidered when a combined analysis is applied. An accurate combination may not also be easily achieved. From the study’s perspective, a combination of approaches means taking the two different methods on an equal basis and discussing the findings of the different analysis together (Hussein, 2009). A combined analysis is a method of triangulating the results of the different approaches (Kahn, 2010). Results from combined studies can be placed together and supported through a secondary analysis, which enhances the study’s reliability. The combined analysis can be used when dealing with conflicting results, without ignoring any one of them (Strobl & Walsh, 2003).

Despite the fact that the quantitative and qualitative approaches are not the same, they in fact complement each other and, therefore, none of them can be regarded as being superior to the other, as they all have their advantages and disadvantages. Hence, their respective strengths can be combined for more positive outcomes (Kahn, 2010). In other words, in a mixed method enquiry, no particular method can be chosen at the expense of the other. Both methods should be regarded as being important when
undertaking a study and, therefore, could be applied in combination with each other (Hussein, 2009). The difficulty, which researchers face when applying more than one method have led to conflicting interests amongst different researchers. Nevertheless, it should unite rather than divide researchers (Freeman, 2005). In terms of employment relations research, the qualitative technique seems to be more plausible than the quantitative research approach. With social science study, there is at times a necessity to combine the different approaches when conducting research, as it helps to boost the skills that are required to develop social science enquiries (Kahn, 2010).

This research study’s approach comprised of mixed methods. The emphasis of the current study was to establish the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Utilizing a mixed method research approach has certainly strengthened the credibility, reliability and dependability of the research results (Hussein, 2009). The mixed method was employed in the current study to offset the shortcomings of each approach, and thereby take advantage of their benefits. The method of triangulation was applied in the study to harmonise the information that emanated from the respective approaches (Hussein, 2009). This is also referred to as complementary findings (Berg, 1998). It shows how different data was collected and sequentially analysed. The ensuing section elaborates on the research design.

4.3 Research design
This is described as the means through which the study is undertaken in stages (Collis & Hussey, 2009). It comprises the process of collecting data, how it was analysed, and the way of presenting the research outcomes. In fact, the design outlines the structure of the research (Creswell, 2012). Kothari (2004, p.48) defines the research design as “an alignment of events for gathering and analysing information in a way that focuses on bringing out the importance of the study”. It is an approach that the researcher uses to project what is expected from the research (Collis & Hussey, 2009).

In research there are normally three study methodologies, namely qualitative, quantitative and combined or mixed methods or triangulation (Creswell, 2012). Quantitative research is used mostly in applied sciences, as the data is usually measurable in nature, which is preferred by scholars (Collis & Hussey, 2009).
Conversely, a qualitative approach is applied more in sociological and behavioural studies, and usually concerns perceptions and behaviours.

The study design, as clarified by Collis and Hussey (2009), is a strategy that trails from the venture’s study plan. The investigator selected a study method on the strength of the study approach. The investigator’s method comprised a model, which contracts with how a study query should be evaluated. This study method is trailed by the study approach, which is a process for gathering, arranging and evaluating facts (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009). The variances between the study approach and the methodology are presented in the table below. The investigator elected to comprise the table below as a way to emphasise that a study design underpins the ending invention, while the study procedure emphasises the study procedure and the kinds of outfits that are applied in order to attain the end artefact (Babbie & Mouton, 2010).

**Table 4.1: Variances between study plan and study procedure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study plan</th>
<th>Study procedure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emphasises the results: the type of study that is deliberated and the type of findings that should be achieved.</td>
<td>Emphasises the study procedure and the type of outfits and measures that should be applied.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parting short = study delinquent or query.</td>
<td>Parting short = precise chores (fact gathering or selection) as indicator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasises the reason for the study and the kind of proof that is obligatory to discourse the study query sufficiently.</td>
<td>Emphasises the discrete stages in the study procedure, and the best actions that should be used.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Babbie & Mouton (2010)

The study process derives from the agreed study plan in the research proposal. Thus, the style of a study expresses the procedure that was followed in a study. As mentioned earlier, the current research adopted the mixed method research design, where both research methods, namely quantitative and qualitative, were combined to obtain the study’s findings. This approach was necessary, as the researcher collected data from a specific source through the use of a questionnaire, which was followed up with face to
4.3.1 Sequential explanatory mixed method design
This approach involves gathering and analysing quantitative information at the onset before being supplement by gathering and analysing qualitative information. Here none of the methods is given priority over the other, but is treated equally. The collected data is integrated at the interpretation stage. The main focus is placed on the quantitative analysis, where results are analysed objectively and followed-up with interviews to support the quantitative results (Creswell, 2011). The method is a bit straightforward because it is clearer and the different stages can be easily explained as opposed to when the methods are undertaken concurrently. Conversely, the method consumes a lot of time, especially when the two methods are given an equal priority.

4.3.2 Sequential exploratory mixed method design
The sequential exploratory mixed method design uses a systematic timeframe. In comparison to the explanatory design, the exploratory design commences with and assigns importance to the gathering and analysing of qualitative information at the beginning of the inquiry, which is then followed by quantitative analysis of the data so as to support and explain the first results (Creswell, 2011).

4.3.3 Sequential transformative mixed method design
This involves the two methods of quantitative and qualitative research being treated distinctively, while any of the methods can be used first to collect the data. In this case, the researcher can accord either of the methods priority, or both of them. Still, data from both the methods are integrated during the interpretation stage. The strategy employs a theoretical perspective to guide the study. The intention in this strategy is to adopt the best method that fits the researcher. The researcher may adopt a diverse perspective to clearly comprehend the topic under study (Creswell, 2011). The method is straightforward in terms of implementation and reporting. On the contrary, it is time consuming and has less reference owing to inadequate literature on how to transform from one phase to another.
4.3.4 Concurrent mixed method design

In this strategy the two methods are undertaken concurrently. Any of the methods can be given first priority. Data is normally integrated at the analysis stage, but can also be done at the interpretation stage. The main aim is to ensure that there is confirmation, corroboration or cross-validation within a single study. The method is well known to many researchers and the data is normally collected within a shorter period compared to sequential methods. The weaknesses that are predominant in one method can be cured by the use of both methods. However, a high level of expertise is essential to employ the simultaneous mixed method design (Creswell, 2011). However, for the current study, the sequential explanatory mixed method research design seemed palatable and was hence adopted. Quantitative information gathering and analysis was done first and supplemented with qualitative data gathering and analysis. Research paradigms are elaborated upon in the following section.

4.4 Research paradigms

According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), paradigm refers to the theoretical framework, which guides how the information is gathered and interpreted. Before the researcher can define the problem statement and how he/she intends to undertake the research, he/she should choose a research paradigm (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Without the choice of a paradigm, one may not be sure of the kind of research that he/she is doing. Research methodology, which entails the way in which a study is carried out, also falls within specific paradigms (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Indeed, in most cases research is undertaken from a specific paradigm (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005). Research paradigm has been articulated from four assumptions. According to Mertens and Wilson (2012), the four paradigm assumptions include axiology, which refers to the nature of ethics; ontology, which the true representation when conducting inquiries; and epistemology, which refers to knowledge that is gained about what is known and the correlation between the person looking for the information and the data that is sought (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). The other conjecture is the methodological assumption, which refers to the coordinated way of collecting data on a familiar topic (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). There are also four additional common paradigms that are adopted under divergent research assumptions,
namely post positivist, constructivist, transformative/participatory and pragmatic (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). The four different paradigms are delineated and explained below.

### Table 4.2: Paradigm and philosophical assumptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Post positivism</th>
<th>Constructivism</th>
<th>Participatory</th>
<th>Pragmatism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ontology (Meaning of the actual)</td>
<td>Notable actualities (for example, rejection of hypothesis by researchers or failure to reject)</td>
<td>Numerous actualities (for example, provision of recites by researchers to mean divergent views)</td>
<td>Legislative actualities reality (for example, discovery are brokered with players)</td>
<td>Notable and numerous actualities (for example, researchers trial of theorem and furnish numerous options)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemology (What is the connection linking the researcher and the topic?)</td>
<td>Span and unbiasness (for example, researchers being nonpartisan on means of information collection)</td>
<td>Familiarity (for example, researchers go to see respondents at their location to gather information)</td>
<td>Participation (for example, researchers engage with respondents as team players)</td>
<td>Virtually (for example, researchers gather information by ‘what works’ to in script study question)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Axiology (What is the duty of worthiness?)</td>
<td>Impartial (for example, scrutiny by researchers to eradicate partiality)</td>
<td>Influence (for example, researchers engage participants on prejudice and expositions)</td>
<td>Consult (for example, researchers talk with their respondents about impartiality)</td>
<td>Numerous point of view (for example, researchers collaborating partiality and impartiality opinion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Techniques (The process of research)</td>
<td>Inferential (for example, researchers being provable by reasoning)</td>
<td>Precursory (for example, researchers begin with respondents’ opinion and construct a meaningful finding)</td>
<td>Attendance (for example, engagement of respondents by researchers in all aspects of the study)</td>
<td>Amalgamating (for example, collection of mixed data by the researcher and triangle them)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oratory (command of language by the researcher)</td>
<td>Conventional formality (for example, researchers use neoclassicism of factors)</td>
<td>Nonconventional formality (for example, researchers irrational style in writing)</td>
<td>Champion and amend (for example, researchers use means that will change the way of thinking of the respondents)</td>
<td>Official or unofficial (for example, researchers can use both conventional and non-conventional means of writing)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Creswell (2011)

The above table presents an overview of the components of scientific beliefs and consequences for application (Creswell, 2011). The table compares the different scientific beliefs. According to Mertens and Wilson (2012); Teddlie and Tashkkori (2009), the research paradigm that is most suitable for a multiple research approach is
the pragmatic paradigm, in which the current research is anchored, and discussed in detail. The quantitative research methodology is discussed next.

4.5 Quantitative research methodology
Quantitative research methodology is mostly used by physical scientists and functions within the positivist paradigm. Quantitative research is an open and uniform approach, where numerical data is utilised during data analysis. It considers the cause and effect relationships by applying a deductive approach to an enquiry (Singh, 2007). Quantitative approach tests theory from existing knowledge by using numbers and figures to ascertain the possible outcome of an investigation. In the quantitative approach the researcher applies a distant, open view in order to comprehend the facts (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). A quantitative approach to an enquiry does not necessarily require physical contact with respondents, as the questionnaire can be posted or emailed, while feedback is obtained (Singh, 2007). This approach eliminates biases by not unnecessarily influencing respondents’ thought processes. This approach is mostly used within the pure sciences (Creswell, 2011). However, Singh (2007) opines that accurate results may not be obtained when there is no contact between the subjects of enquiry, namely the respondents and the researchers. In other words, a lack of direct contact eliminates respondents’ confidence, as they may feel less involved. Babbie and Mouton (2010) further points out the setback of such a method by arguing that the respondents are not treated as part and parcel of the research, as if they are not important to the researcher. From this perspective, the quantitative approach does not recognise the importance of the respondents as they are merely treated as providers of information (Singh, 2007). However, the current researcher tends to differ with the criticism, and feels that the quantitative approach provides structured responses that assist the researcher in terms of analysis. Secondly, the quantitative approach increases the response rate, as respondents are left with the questionnaires to respond to on their own terms, which reduces the chances of bias, since the contact between the researcher and the respondents are kept to a minimal (Creswell, 2011).

The merit of the quantitative method is that survey questionnaires provide comprehensive feedback on the variables under study and also provide more reliable results for a study. However, this is possible if the researcher is able to develop the
questionnaire in a way so that it adequately captures the purpose of the study. The contrast for the computable and inquiry procedures is expressed in their openness (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). The quantitative approach is open, as compared to the qualitative approach.

**Table 4.3: Quantitative research vs qualitative research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantitative</th>
<th>Qualitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mainly revolves around numbers</td>
<td>Revolves around words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collects standardized information</td>
<td>Collects non-standardized information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The findings are presented in form of diagrams and statistics</td>
<td>The findings are presented through narration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis is faster but may not be accurate</td>
<td>Information is elaborate and takes a lot of time to be interpreted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various tools and instruments are employed</td>
<td>Only the researcher acts as the instrument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalizable</td>
<td>Is not generalized</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Babbie & Mouton (2010)*

In terms of the quantitative research approach, there are different research methods, which are expanded on below.

### 4.5.1 Research methods in quantitative research

According to Creswell (2011), the quantitative approach is used to investigate a human-based problem (the social world). This is analysed statistically to establish whether the generalization of the theory is correct. Creswell (2011) describes a quantitative study as being a numerical presentation of data. Findings from the selected sample in quantitative enquiry are then generalized to the entire population from which the sample was obtained. For instance, in this study the researcher sampled 500 respondents in the two counties of Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya, and the study’s findings were generalized to represent the entire country.

Quantitative researchers use deductive reasoning in their analysis (Creswell, 2011). As a matter of fact, the quantitative researcher believes in objective reality that can be
controlled, measured and explained under the cause and effect relationship (Singh, 2007), which is why quantitative research falls within the positivist traditional domain. Experimental research is a kind of quantitative enquiry. According to Kerlinger and Lee (1999), experimental research is a coordinated enquiry, in the sense that the researcher is able to manipulate the data. However, the current study is not based on experimental research. The empirical study made an effort to obtain information from employees in selected organisations that operate within the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa, which comprise a subset of the entire population.

4.6 Population of the study
The research population encompassed all employees who are currently employed in Kenya. The study population included all employees, irrespective of their gender and age. In most research works, it is not always easy to study an entire population (Denscombe, 2007) and, therefore, it is necessary to choose a sample out of the universal population.

4.7 Sampling
A sample is taken as a representative or a subset of a bigger set (Hesse-Biber, 2010). A perfectly established sample should mirror the results that are obtained from the wider population. The alternative to sampling is referred to as enumeration, where the entire population is included in a study. The current research utilised the purposive sampling technique. There are in essence two kinds of techniques, which are used in sampling, namely probability and non-probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is typically used in situations where there is insufficient information about the population, or when it is too difficult to obtain information by means of probability sampling methods (Denscombe, 2007). The purposive sampling technique that was adopted falls within non-probability sampling. The researcher used purposive sampling to select stakeholders within the employment relations domain in Kenya, as they were better placed to provide the required information for the study. The next sub-section presents the sample size that the researcher adopted.
4.7.1 Sampling size
The size of the sample is often aligned to the researcher’s budget and the degree of confidence in the data that is collected, but should be large enough to prevent sampling errors (Singh, 2007). The absolute sample size relies on the population structure and the research questions that are investigated. Denscombe (2007) regards a sample of a hundred as being the minimum sample size for large populations. The current study sampled a total of 500 employees in two counties in Kenya, namely Nairobi and Mombasa, where most organisations are concentrated. Before conducting the study, the study tested the effectiveness of the research instruments, as explained below.

4.7.2 Data gathering
In terms of the quantitative phase of the study, a questionnaire was utilised to gather information. The data was obtained from 500 participants comprising employees and supervisors in the sampled organisations. As stated before, the data was gathered from the counties of Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya. Respondents were informed that the data collected would only be used for academics purposes, and all information obtained will remain confidential. The instrument of data collection, namely the questionnaire, is discussed next.

4.7.3 Questionnaire
The researcher was interested in certain characteristics (variables) with the aim of establishing the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Thus, a questionnaire was generated and disseminated to respondents for the quantitative phase of the research. Questionnaires are a popular means to collect data because they are cost effective, easy to analyse, familiar to most people, and less intrusive than personal interviews (Singh, 2007). A major disadvantage is the potential low response rate and the researcher’s inability to probe responses. Questionnaires are typically used to collect two types of information, namely facts and opinions. Therefore, they tend to include questions that deal with both these types of issues (Denscombe, 2007).

The questionnaire comprised of questions that the researcher considered as being important. It was compiled in two perspectives. First, data was obtained from past studies, which comprised environmental, organisational and individual factors as a
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

The researcher utilised a five point likert scale to evaluate respondents’ perceptions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The five point Likert scale ranged from “Strongly Agree”, “Agree”, “Neutral”, “Disagree”, and “Strongly Disagree”, while 500 questionnaires were administered to the targeted respondents within the Nairobi and Mombasa Counties.

The researcher obtained permission from the organisations through their respective management representatives to distribute the questionnaires. The requests were approved by the managements before commencement of the exercise, while the aim of the research was clearly articulated to the respective managements. Questionnaires were hand-delivered to the management representatives for distribution. Reasonable time was afforded to the respondents, which include managers answering the questionnaire questions. Questionnaires are beneficial in research, since the researcher does not have to be physically present to obtain feedback. The questionnaires were distributed and later collected upon completion, which enabled the respondents to concentrate and thereby give accurate information. Respondents were offered adequate time to respond in terms of their perceptions with regard to the impact of globalisation on employment relations in their workplaces. Questionnaires tend to be more accurate and, therefore, can be relied upon. The responses from questionnaires can be easily compared and correlated with other feedback (Perone & Tucker, 2003). This is unlike where data is obtained through secondary information, or where an occurrence is inferred to, which may test the accuracy of the information (Denscombe, 2007).

The main setback of using a questionnaire is that the responses are restricted to the questions, which may limit the respondent from expanding on the topic under investigation (Johnson & Harris, 2002). In a situation where the respondents misinterpret the questions, they can end up giving the wrong responses, since the researcher may not be there to explain the question. The next section outlines how the questionnaire was developed and validated.

4.7.4 Development of the questionnaires

The researcher developed a semi structured questionnaire that was applied as means to measure the study variables. The questionnaire was spread into sections, each
representing a thematic function. This was utilised to gather quantitative data from 500 employees at organisations from two counties in Kenya, namely Nairobi and Mombasa.

4.7.4.1 Section 1: Demographic questions
This section detailed respondents’ demographic information. It covered their gender, age bracket, number of years that they worked in the current organisation, terms of service and highest level of education.

4.7.4.2 Section 2: Employment relations
This section posed a total of 65 questions, which were divided into 15 sub-sections. The questions were ranked on a five point likert scale, which ranged from: “1-Strongly Disagree”, “2-Disagree”, “3-Neutral”, “4-Agree”, and “5-Strongly Agree”, where respondents were requested to select appropriate option.

According to dimensional ration gage by Denscombe (2007), the researcher integrated four questions under Industrial Democracy. Cronbach’s alpha for the four items measure was 0.73. The researcher further presented four questions under Labour Unionism with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.73. Under the Decision Making section, four questions were presented with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.73; and a similar Cronbach’s alpha was witnessed under the Impact of Technology section, where four questions were presented. For the Retrenchments section, a total of five questions were presented with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.76. It was interesting as the sections of Child Labour, Casual Employment, Labour Brokers, Social Responsibility, Wage Inequality and Labour Mobility gave a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.73, respectively, and in each of the sections four items were discussed. For the Work Conditions and Industrial Disputes sections, a total of six items were put forward with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.78 for each of them, while for Strike Action and Unemployment a total of four items in each section were discussed with a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.73 for each of them. In the next section the researcher explains in detail how the questionnaires were administered to the respondents.
4.7.5 Distribution and feedback from questionnaires

The researcher enlisted an assistant to help distribute a total of 500 questionnaires to the target respondents. Of these, a total of 483 questionnaires were returned and confirmed satisfactorily filled, which formed a 97% response rate and this was considered adequate for analysis. Of the 483 respondents, 37 were returned via Survey Monkey, while 446 were collected manually.

Chapter Five, which follows, presents tables that represent respondents’ actual data. The data is presented with the research problem in mind. The chapter presents the analysed questionnaire in two sections, as shown in Appendix B. The analysis begins with the bio-data, and the subsequent section presents questions, which deal with factors that reveal the impact of globalisation within the Kenyan context. The preceding heading elaborates on the validity and reliability of the research instrument.

4.7.6 Validity and reliability of research instrument

According to Singh, (2007), validity is the level to which a tool measures what it purports to measure. The researcher considered content related validity. This was done via consultations with the researcher’s supervisor and colleagues. The test of content validity was established through inter judge consultants.

The reliability analysis scale (alpha co-efficient) was established to measure the level of internal consistency among the study’s variables. The reliability was also evaluated by performing Cronbach’s alpha co-efficient for all the items in the questionnaire (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Reliability co-efficient ranges from values of 0 and 1, with 1 signifying perfect reliability and 0 showing no reliability. The nearer the reliability coefficient is to the value of 1, the more the test is free of error and variance. The acceptable value of Cronbach’s is between the values of 0.60 to 0.90. The reliability scores of below 0.60 is considered to be unsatisfactory. Scores in the 0.70 series are acceptable, and figures above 0.80 are taken to be suitable. The related Cronbach’s alpha is shown in Table 4.4 below.
Table 4.4: Cronbach’s alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Industrial democracy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour unionism</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision making</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrenchments</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of technology</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work conditions</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child labour</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual employment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour brokers</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social responsibility</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage inequality</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour mobility</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour/Industrial disputes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strike action</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total Cronbach’s alpha value that was obtained for the questionnaire was 0.74. This result proved that the instrument was valid and reliable, since it was above 0.6. Thus, it was considered to be good and acceptable for this study. The next section explains how the pilot study was conducted.

4.7.7 Pilot study

A pilot study is a pre-test of the research question to evaluate the accuracy and clarity of the questions in the questionnaire (Singh, 2007). Maxwell (2009) states that individuals with characteristics and backgrounds that are similar to those of the desired respondents should be used for a pilot study. A pilot survey, which used the drafted questionnaire, was conducted with 50 participants who were selected for their technical ability to enhance the content of the questionnaire before final distribution to the wider audience. The purpose of the pilot study was to correct errors upfront that can deter answering questions in the questionnaire such as misunderstood terms and also to check the duration that it takes to complete the questionnaire, which was handled by rephrasing and reducing the number of questions, whilst still retaining the main purpose of the research.
It is projected that a pilot test provides a researcher with a signal of the dependability and rationality of the questionnaire in the study (Denscombe, 2010). Additionally, the pilot test increased the realization of the present research (De Vos et al., 2005). Pilot tests are, therefore, modest enquiries that are adopted by researchers to examine the efficiency of their studies, and to find any conceivable hitches before the actual study commences (De Vos et al., 2005; Denscombe, 2010). A pilot test is a data gathering period, where a number of persons cautiously peruse the study questionnaire to detect any uncertainties and hitches that might emerge during the actual research period (Maxwell, 2009). A pilot test was used to ascertain whether the questions in the questionnaire reflects the true meaning that the researcher intended to ask, as study experts were engaged in probing the questions’ depth. The next section outlines the advantages and disadvantages of a quantitative study.

4.7.8 Advantages and disadvantages of a quantitative study
Quantitative studies express the data in number form, which makes it easy to interpret. The data can include descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The data can be interpreted over a period of time or compared between different factors. Quantitative studies use sophisticated ways of gathering information, which include surveys. Further other means can be applied such as observation and comparison of different sources and benchmarking. The study provides data that is descriptive in nature, which allows for better interpretation of data from a sampled population. The presentation of the quantitative data is simple to understand, and the meaning can be interpreted easily even by non-experts. The results can easily be compared with either a different study or previous studies.

On the contrary, quantitative studies may not be able to capture all the information, because information that is not well articulated in the questionnaire, may not be answered, which will render the study incomplete. Some of the questions in the questionnaire may be misinterpreted during data collection, which could mislead the findings.

The findings of the quantitative study can easily be misinterpreted as they when presented in tables and figures. Hence, there is a need for somebody who is
knowledgeable enough to be able to read the results. Furthermore, the findings can be manipulated, as numerical values can easily be replaced. In the face of such challenges, quality assurance is critical in a quantitative study. Quality assurance in a quantitative study is discussed next.

4.7.9 Quality assurance in a quantitative study
Precision implies accuracy in the data collection instrument and reflects how certain estimates were defined; conversely, accuracy implies the truth in the values (Singh, 2007). Singh (2007) indicates that accuracy stipulates the fineness of the data collection approach. This study concentrated on workers who have been in employment in the sampled private and public sector organisations for at least six months. Reliability occurs when the information that is obtained in a study can give the same results if repeatedly done at a later date. Reliability has to do with internal consistency/uniformity. In other words, the questionnaire should be uniform to give the same results. The researcher used inclusion validity that pertained to the level at which the tool fully assessed or measured the construct of interest. The researcher was interested in establishing the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. The researcher endeavoured to ensure that the questionnaire focused completely on the construct under study, namely globalisation and employment relations in Kenya. Construct validity is the level at which the instrument achieved accuracy in data gathering (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2007). The next section focuses on data analysis.

4.7.10 Statistical analysis
The study has utilised the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme to analyse the data. The information was analysed for relevance and appropriateness using descriptive statistics, tables, charts, graphs and percentages (Hayden, 2006). Having examined the quantitative methodology, the researcher proceeds to discuss the qualitative research methodology in the following section.

4.8 Qualitative research methodology
The qualitative research approach is utilised in situations where the information cannot be easily obtained in a numerical format (Hayden, 2006). The aim of qualitative
research is to give a written description of peoples’ behaviour or perceptions of a given phenomenon. The qualitative approach normally utilises interviews for data gathering. The strength of the approaches that are used depends on the purpose of the research. One of the advantages of a qualitative enquiry is that participants who are selected have full knowledge of the topic under study and can provide a tick and an in-depth perspective of their knowledge of the phenomenon under investigation (Hussein, 2009).

As mentioned earlier, one of the drawbacks of the qualitative enquiry is the fact that the researcher has to be physically present to collect the information. However, despite the difficulty in determining reliability in a qualitative enquiry as opposed to a quantitative one, the results from a qualitative enquiry are sometimes more trustworthy as opposed to a quantitative one. Hayden (2006) indicates that when research is more original, it can be trustworthy.

Qualitative study is normally undertaken in a normal environment and entails bringing out the true perspective of the phenomenon under study (Hussein, 2009). The method makes assumption of the existence of various certainties when undertaking a study (Hayden, 2006). The researcher conducted the current study by using different approaches, and the results of the second phase were used support to the initial findings in phase one. The researcher dealt directly with the respondents through free interaction to elaborate on the phenomenon of globalisation and employment relations in Kenya. This helped to minimise the chances of error or misinterpretation (Hussein, 2009). Qualitative research is rich in content as it is not limited to the gaps in the interview guide, which is utilised in a semi structured interview. Hence, the researcher goes beyond what is contained in the interview guide to probe further and obtain more reliable information. In other words, the interview responses from participants triggered more compelling questions that were probed further (Hesse-Biber, 2004). To enhance the reliability of the study, data from the qualitative findings were triangulated with the quantitative results during discussion of the findings (Creswell, 2011).

According to Hesse-Biber (2004), methods are mechanisms that are applied by the researcher when gathering and analysing information, while they assume various forms such as observation, interaction, and interviews. The researcher utilised face to face interviews to gather information from the target research participants. The interview
phase used semi structured question types, which gave participants a chance to elaborate more on the questions that were posed. In other words, the researcher was not constrained to only the questions in the interview guide, but probed deeper into some of the responses during the interviews. Qualitative research methods are discussed next.

4.8.1 Research methods in qualitative research
Research methods include entrée and determining researcher roles, choice of respondents, data collection methods, data recording, and data analysis. These are elaborated on below.

4.8.2 Entrée and establishing researcher roles
The researcher approached the Human Resource managers in the selected organisations and outlined the aim of the research. While the researcher expected a good reception from most of these organisations, a few challenges were encountered in terms of obtaining access. However, the researcher was able to overcome some of the challenges by illuminating the values of the outcomes of the study, which led to the managers granting permission to access the selected organisations. The researcher undertook the study by using participants who were employed at the five labour organisations and government agencies, and the selection process is discussed in the next section.

4.8.3 Selection of participants
The study was conducted in Nairobi, targeting two senior employees in the employment relations field from five key stakeholders of the Central Organisation of Trade Union (COTU), the Federation of Kenyan Employers (FKE), the Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM), the Kenya Private Sector Alliance (KEPSA) and the Ministry of Labour (ML). This group was utilised because it was imperative for the researcher to collect data from participants who are familiar with the topic under study. Due consideration was taken in the selection of participants. Ten participants from five labour related organisations, including the government, were selected. Two participants were selected from each organisation.
Table 4.5: Sample size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANISATION</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Organisation of Trade Unions top officials</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federation of Kenyan Employers senior managers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya Association of Manufacturers senior managers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya Private Sector Alliance top officials</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Labour directors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8.4 Data collection methods in qualitative phase

Information can be gathered by using various approaches in qualitative research. Among them are interviews, observation and reviewing past archival records and documents (Babbie & Mouton, 2010). In this part of the study, as mentioned earlier, the interview was the main instrument of information gathering, which is elaborated on below.

4.8.4.1 Interviews

An interview entails meeting a participant face-to-face to ask questions, while one expects immediate responses (Macky & Boxall, 2008). The questions for this study were structured in a semi-structured format, which allowed the researcher to probe or change questions depending on responses that were obtained (Schurink & Schurink, 2009). The questions are open-ended to accord the target population a free opportunity to expand and elaborate on the questions that were posed (Macky & Boxall, 2008). Instead of structured or unstructured interview questions, interview guided questions were used for proper manoeuvring during the interview.

As mentioned earlier, interviews were conducted to get information about participants’ opinions of the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. In terms of qualitative enquiry, the prime consideration is to understand how social reality can be perceived. Two assumptions are applicable here. One of them is that peoples’ behaviour can be observed through people, whereby the findings from one individual may be different from others’ (Schurink & Schurink, 2009). This explains the reason why the researcher targeted different groups of participants, namely employers, unions and
the Kenyan government in order to obtain a wider perspective of how globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya. In-depth face to face interviews with informants yielded information on the topic under research.

How insight into a respondent’s world is gained depends on the researcher’s views and the way in which the interview questions are answered on the topic under study (Schurink & Schurink, 2009). In view of this, the position assumed for this study was that social reality should be regarded in an open manner, whilst the researcher should maintain an objective position. The next section discusses how data was recorded during the qualitative phase of the study.

4.8.5 Recording of data
The researcher was able to capture participants’ views by recording their responses. The researcher took notes, enabling him to capture participants’ responses. Recording the responses enables the researcher to replay the responses again and again to ascertain clearly what was said. In addition to recording, detailed notes were labelled and filed for reference, while recordings were backed up on a portable hard drive for future reference. The advantages and disadvantages of the qualitative study are presented in the next section.

4.8.6 Advantages and disadvantages of a qualitative study
A qualitative study provides a detailed analysis of the subject matter, which cannot be provided by quantitative study. The findings of qualitative study cannot be reduced to numbers. It is easy to illustrate the findings as it is presented in a narrative format, which can easily be read by any person without him/her necessarily having the requisite skills (Denscombe, 2007). It is much easier to collect qualitative data. Furthermore, accurate information can be captured as the respondents are given a free hand to describe the subject matter under study. With a qualitative study one would be able to combine different means of collecting information (Hesse-Biber, 2010). Thus, other than using the interview guide, the researcher can capture data through observation, which supplements the main method, giving more detailed results (Hayden, 2006).
However, data gathering in a qualitative enquiry may take a lot of time as it is tedious to collect qualitative data. Some of the data that is collected from interviews should be coded before they are analysed, which requires an expert lens to decode it; the process can become costly (Hussein, 2009). It is difficult to gather qualitative data from a wider population, as it requires a few samples of participants owing to the in-depth nature of interviews that is required as opposed to quantitative data collection, which uses questionnaires to gather information from large samples (Mayring, 2002). Paradigms in qualitative research are discussed in the next section.

4.8.7 Paradigms in qualitative research
Mertens and Wilson (2012) listed four paradigms in qualitative enquiry, namely pragmatic, post-positivism, transformative and interpretivism. Pragmatism is discussed in more detail under the mixed method section.

Post-positivism mainly evolved from the positivist tradition, and has transformed over the years (Erickson, Prakash, Voss, Chaddock, Morris & Kramer, 2008). The attitude of post-positivists is established as the belief that reality is constructed intuitively and emotionally by people (Maree, 2011). Flick (2009) states that this method embraces the view that information is expressed only through distinct practices and interpretations. Consequently, truth is swayed by settings such as values and gender characteristics, and so on and, as a matter of fact, is not permanently constructed. Babbie and Mouton (2010) established that post-positivist researcher place much more emphasis on establishing “truth” and, therefore, strive to gather data that is valid, reliable and relative to existing phenomena instead of relying on wider generalisations.

A transformative study, according to Maree (2007), is a kind of enquiry that can radically change our perceptions of significant parts of existing knowledge. A transformative study comprises studies that are inclined towards the improvement of an original philosophy or body of knowledge (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

Finally, the interpretive paradigm embraces the theory that states that “accessibility to the truth can only be achieved through social constructions, among them language, consciousness and shared meaning” (Maree, 2011). This method additionally attempts
to enhance a considerate of realism through the implication that persons hold on to
them and discernments that they hold of actions of their own (Maree, 2011). The aim is
to investigate a condition and to gather insight into the created meaning of the
circumstances that individuals face. According to Henning, Van Rensburg and Smith
(2004), the interpretive method strives for legitimacy through encouragement of the use
of different sources and investigation approaches. The creation of information is
consequently realized through an account of different aims, principles, ethics and
motives, generating importance and logic of self-understanding (Denscombe, 2010). All
the above mentioned paradigms are propounded by individuals and how they formulate
their own reality. Though, in practice, all four paradigms do not seem to have distinct
difference, as all the paradigms can be used in any single study (Maree, 2011).

The research collected rich and in-depth information during the qualitative phase. Thus,
the qualitative phase aligned well with the interpretive paradigm owing to the fact that
various realities emanated from participants, in relation to the phenomenon under study.
Thus, the researcher provided quotes for different perspectives to demonstrate the
original views of participants, the relationship between what was studied and closeness
between the researcher and those that are researched, namely employees of
organisations that operate in Kenya. Another point, which places the qualitative phase
within the realm of the interpretivist paradigm is that it relies on the inductive approach
by starting with participants’ perceptions of the phenomenon under study, and shapes
‘up’ to designs, concepts, and overviews, and lastly, the rhetoric that is founded on a
script in a casual flair (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). Individuals have diverse outlooks,
opinions, principles, feelings, attitudes and supposed practices that affect their
understanding and interpretation of sequences and events. Data analysis is elaborated
in the subsequent section.

4.8.8 Data analysis
According to Creswell (2011), there are different ways of analysing a qualitative data
analysis. Using the field notes and recorded responses, and considering that the study
is a mixed method, the researcher applied content analysis to analyse the data.
The information was prepared by typing up field notes and transcribing the interviews immediately. The data was analysed after each interview to ensure that accurate information was obtained (Creswell, 2009). The notes were first read to obtain a sense of the overall meaning. Data analysis was provided and interpreted in narrative formats. However, since the utilization of the different research approaches presented the limitations of each, it was conceived that mixing the methods will strengthen and enhance the reliability and trustworthiness of the study findings. Therefore, a mixed method research approach is discussed next.

4.9 Mixed method research approaches
A mixed method approach is where a blend of research approaches is used consecutively in a study (Singh, 2007). As mentioned earlier, the research used a mixed research approach to investigate the topic under study, namely the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. The main reason for a mixing method is to ensure proper triangulation of information to minimise errors. It also helps to complement or at times contrast the findings of the different methods that are applied (Willis, 2007). A mixed method approach eliminates biases in research. A mixed method approach also helps to check the consistency from the two different research approaches, and thus produces effective findings for the study. In the process, it reduces the level of error that comes with the use of one method, which could alter the results. Through a mixed method approach, the researcher gains a deep understanding of the study, thereby reducing possible bias. In a mixed method approach, the results of a study can be considered from more than one area. The next section discusses the merits and demerits of a mixed method study.

4.9.1 Merits and demerits of a mixed method study
The mixed method of collecting data comes with certain advantages, and amongst them is that the triangulation of data is enriching. In other words, data that is collected from different methods complement each other, which then makes the data richer in content (Singh, 2007). Some data that could not be adequately collected by one method could be adequately handled by another method and, if put together, they can produce synergy. In a mixed method, the findings of one research approach could be disapproved by the findings of another approach, thus relying on the latter, which could
be more accurate than the former. Thus, had it been that only one method was used, it could have resulted in a wrong outcome (Willis, 2007). Mixed method helps to verify; in this case, whether the data that was collected by one method can be confirmed by the second method, which makes the result more reliable and hence enhances confidence in the research outcome. In addition, under a mixed method research approach, the finding of one approach can be explained by another approach. In other words, when conducting data analysis of the two methods, one can apply the outcomes from one method to explain the other. Mixed method, as mentioned earlier, reduces bias, which creeps up when only one method is adopted. Biases can arise in the sampling through omission or inclusion of some samples purposely. This can be eliminated when a mixed method is applied.

A disadvantage of a mixed method is that the researcher may not have adequate skills and experience in using mixed methods. Some researchers are either trained in quantitative or qualitative research methods, and this could prove limiting in respect of executing a valid study. Another disadvantage of a mixing method study is the volume of data that is collected. In other words, researchers have to collect a wide range of data, which can prove expensive and time consuming. Paradigms in mixed method research are explicated in the next section.

4.9.2 Paradigms in mixed method research
Mixed method research aligns more with the pragmatic paradigm. Pragmatism is not devoted to any single methodological approach or reality. Pragmatists emphasize the 'what' and 'how' of a study (Creswell, 2011). Maree (2011) notes that using mixed method research, the study is able to blend elements of one paradigm into another, thus being able to engage in comprehensive research. Although pragmatism is understood fundamentally as a mixed-methods paradigm (Somekh & Lewin, 2005), however, certain mixed-methods studies also seem to align with the transformative paradigm (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). It is believed, though, that the mixed approach can be applied within different paradigms. The pragmatic paradigm considers "the research problem" as being important, and uses various methods to resolve the study’s problem (Creswell, 2011: 269). The pragmatic paradigm revolves around the use of appropriate processes to the research problem; it avoids trial and error to obtain the best method
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya (Maree, 2011). According to Mertens and Wilson (2012), pragmatic researchers apply mixed methods, which gives them leeway to use any of the methods that they consider to be most appropriate for the problem at hand. Pragmatic researchers agree that all approaches have setbacks, and the setbacks can be reduced if the mixed approaches were used together (Maree, 2011). Hence, in spite of the fact that the different phases in this study are aligned with respective paradigms, the current study aligns more with the pragmatic paradigm. The research design in mixed method research is explained further in the next section.

4.9.3 Research design in mixed method research

Although the different research designs in mixed method research were discussed earlier under research design, there is a need to refresh on the construct once again here under the mixed method research section. Mixed method research employs six different research designs, which depend on the research questions; it can either be a sequential exploratory mixed method design or a sequential explanatory mixed method design (Creswell, 2011). The current study assumed a sequential explanatory mixed method approach. According to Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), the sequential explanatory mixed method approach is used to expand on the findings of one approach by using the other approach; this is where the researcher employs the quantitative approach and supplements it with the qualitative approach, where the outcomes of the qualitative approach is used to explain or complement the findings of quantitative study. In the current research, as alluded to earlier, the researcher began with the quantitative data analysis and followed up with qualitative data analysis. Conversely, sequential exploratory mixed method research involves the researcher beginning with qualitative data analysis, whilst supplementing it with quantitative data analysis (Creswell, 2011).

With regard to the current study, the sequential explanatory mixed method research design seemed more suitable because of its comprehensive topic. The data was first analysed quantitatively, followed by qualitative analysis. In this case, the quantitative approach was first conducted and sequentially augmented with the qualitative approach (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Qualitative findings help to support, either through confirming or disconfirming, what is contained in the quantitative results (Creswell, 2011). The findings of the quantitative phase inform the direction of the qualitative
phase as it substantiates the findings of the former (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Data from the two approaches, namely quantitative and qualitative research, are then triangulated during discussion of the study’s findings.

4.9.4 Triangulation of data

Triangulation aids to confirm information by considering more than one source. It enhances the accuracy of results through varied tools and improves the opportunity to direct, or at least evaluate, some of the risks or varied factors, which affect the research findings. A type of triangulation is investigator triangulation, which combines different researchers in a single study. Then there is theory triangulation, which pertain to the engagement of different phenomenon. Lastly, there is methodological triangulation, which is basically the application of more techniques in the collection of data (Kennedy & Patrick, 2009). The current study aligned more with methodological cum data triangulation, as it relied on questionnaires and interviews in phase one of the data gathering, and the triangulation of data during the discussion/interpretative of the findings phase.

The strategy combines two methods, namely quantitative and qualitative research, which were utilised to enrich each other. In this case a researcher can decide to begin with any of the methods. The information is then triangulated at the interpretation stage. The essence is to corroborate the findings of one method with another, and thereby reduce the possible errors that could emanate from the utilization of each of methods. This strategy also ensures that information is gathered timeously.

Kennedy and Patrick (2009) observes that triangulation is applied to strengthen the validity of various research approaches, processes and information gathering. Validity is the capacity of a research tool to evaluate whatever it intends to quantify, while dependability focuses on making sure that the research procedures are properly organised in a thorough manner, which is well documented. Thus, by utilising diverse approaches, richer and more reliable data is obtained. In accordance with other authors, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) states that there are two categories of process triangulation, namely concurrent and sequential triangulation. According to Kennedy and Patrick (2009), concurrent triangulation signifies the simultaneous
application of qualitative and quantitative approaches, where there is less linkage between the two approaches during the collection of data phase, while the findings from the two approaches are used to complement each other during the data interpretation phase.

Sequential triangulation is utilised when the finding of a particular method is essential for the design of the ensuing approach (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007). The researcher relied on process triangulation, which is part of sequential triangulation. Process triangulation is the utilization of numerous approaches in a study, the aim of which is to reduce the shortcomings and prejudices that accompany a single approach. Conversely, process triangulation depends on the merits of different approaches, while minimising their respective demerits in the execution of research. Ethical considerations by the researcher during the study are discussed next.

4.10 Ethical considerations
All research studies must have a good ethical standing. This means that all research studies must fulfil the intended purpose, only as expressed to the respondents. The researcher explained the research aim to the participants and obtained their approval to take part in the research. In the same vein, the study’s respondents completed the questionnaires on a voluntarily basis. They were not coerced or subjected to any pressure to complete the questionnaires that the researcher distributed to them. The questionnaires were completed voluntarily by the respondents and at their convenience. Data was moved from the field only by authorized enumerators to ensure that confidentiality was observed. Respondents’ names were not disclosed and their details were not used in the final document.

It was imperative for participants to be assured of the confidentiality of their opinions. The names of the individuals who were interviewed were not revealed for confidentiality purposes, which include not using information that could reveal their identity. The researcher requested permission from the management of the selected organisations to collect information for the study. The researcher sought verbal consent from the respondents to undertake in the research study. As indicated, they were not asked to append their signatures as the researcher felt that it could affect their responses.
Participation in the interviews was also voluntary, and conducted on an anonymous basis (Singh, 2007). The researcher undertook to keep all data that was collected for purposes of the study confidential, and to avail the results of the study, where requested by the respondent.

4.11 Summary
The chapter began by explicating background of the methodology and design, and discussed the meaning of research methodology and design by outlining details of the various methods that were adopted by the researcher.

The study utilised mixed method approach. The quantitative approach falls within the positivist paradigm. The approach minimises biases where respondents are not unduly influenced. Nevertheless, it was argued that the quantitative approach does not recognize the importance of the respondents, as they are treated as mere providers of information. However, the current researcher tends to differ with this criticism, and believes that the quantitative approach gave a structured response that assisted the researcher in terms of the analysis. Secondly, the quantitative approach increased the response rate as the respondents were left with questionnaires to respond to on their own terms.

The study population incorporated all workers who are currently employed both in the government and corporate sectors in Kenya. In terms of the sample size in the quantitative phase, the researcher sampled 500 respondents in the two counties of Nairobi and Mombasa in Kenya, while the study's findings were generalized to represent the entire country. Also, during the quantitative section, questionnaires were used to gather information. The researcher obtained permission from the organisations' management representatives to allow him to distribute the questionnaires. The request was approved by the respective managements before commencement of the exercise. Prior to dissemination of the questionnaire, a pilot test was administered to establish any issue that may arise during the course of answering questions in the questionnaire such as misunderstanding any terms, and to ascertain the time that it took to complete the questionnaire. Issues around validity and reliability in research were addressed in this chapter, including validity, which pertains to the level at which the research
instrument fully assessed or measured the construct of interest. Data analysis and statistical tool that was used, were also highlighted.

In addition, interviews, which were applied to collect qualitative data, was discussed. The interviews were conducted in Nairobi by targeting two senior employees who were each in the employment relations field from five key stakeholders, namely the Central Organisation of Trade Union (COTU), the Federation of Kenyan Employers (FKE), the Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM), the Kenya Private Sector Alliance (KEPSA) and the Ministry of Labour (ML). These groups were selected because they seemed familiar with the topic under study. The next chapter provides the study's data analysis.
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 Introduction
This chapter analyses data, which relates to how globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya. Results were drawn from questionnaires and interviews that were administered to various employees in both the public and private companies in Kenya. A statistical tool, namely Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), was utilised to analyse data that was acquired from the questionnaire, while content analysis was applied on the qualitative interviews.

5.2 Quantitative research data processing
The researcher disseminated and collected completed questionnaires from the respondents after which the data was assigned special codes that were vital for the computerized statistical analysis. According to Babbie and Mouton (2010), quantification is a process where social science data is converted into a numerical format. The coded data can be systematically presented (Babbie & Mouton, 2010), which helps to minimise the errors that accompany manual calculations.

The researcher clearly outlined the problem of the study before articulating the variables to address the problem. The respondents could choose from a five point Likert scale, which was ascribed to each question, categorized as "1-Strongly Agree”, “2-Agree”, “3-Neutral”, “4-Disagree” and “5-Strongly Disagree”. Respondent were requested to choose one that they feel represents their view. For effective analysis, it is worthwhile to reflect on the research questions of the study once more, as outlined below.

5.3 Research questions
The study sought to respond to the following research questions, as shown below.

Main research question
- Is there any impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya?

Subsidiary research questions
- What are the recent trends and developments in the global workplace, and how have these impacted employment relations in Kenya?
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

- How has globalisation influenced employment regulations/deregulations in Kenya?
- What policy insights can be framed to address the ER challenges that are triggered by globalisation in the Kenyan workplace?

The above research questions were expounded to deal with the study problem. The questionnaire comprised of 65 factors. Interview questions were compiled and administered to key players in the employment relations domain in Kenya. The subsequent section discusses how data was analysed by using frequency distribution, which is a form of descriptive statistics.

5.4 Descriptive statistics

Welt and Christian (2011) point out that descriptive statistics involve organising and describing of raw data into meaningful information, while it further summarizes correlation of the variables.

5.4.1 Frequency distribution

According to Welt and Christian (2011), frequency distribution involves listing all the given responses in a category before calculating them to give a total score in that particular variable. The presented scores are in a frequency table format. The researcher computed the total scores by providing a percentage of the responses, which aids in giving accurate feedback.

5.5 Quantitative research results

5.5.1 Section 1: Demographic data

Demographic data was collected to reflect on the profile of respondents, as the aim was to find out the perceptions of the different categories of respondents concerning the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya.

5.5.1.1 Gender representation of respondents

Here the researcher’s aim was to establish the respondents' gender. This was important for the study as it gave an indication of the gender of employees who work in Kenyan organisations, and it further highlighted the category of employees that is preferred by Kenyan employers.
Figure 5.1 shows that the number of male respondents were higher than the number of females. Male respondents comprised 60.7% and females were 39.3%. This indicates that male respondents were the majority of the employees in the selected organisations under study; it also supports the fact that male respondents were the main gender in this study, which could also be a sign that males are more interested than females in the current research topic.

5.5.1.2 Age range of employees
Under this section the researcher was interested in establishing Kenyan companies’ employees’ age, which was crucial to determine, which category of age group has been more affected by globalisation in terms of employment relations. The figure below shows the age brackets of staff that are employed in selected organisations that operate in Kenya.
Figure 5.2: Age range of employees

Figure 5.2 reveals that 0.4% of respondents were below the age of 18 years, while 44.9% ranged between the ages of 18 and 29, 42.4% were between the ages of 30-39 years, 9.7% were between the ages of 40 and 59, and those between the ages of 50 and above, comprised 2.5%. This shows that most of the Kenyan employees are under the age of 40 years.

5.5.1.3 Work experience of employees

This section sought to elaborate on the duration that staff members in the sampled organisations have worked in their present organisations. It was vital to consider the duration of employment to determine work experience with regard to employment relations.

Table 5.1: Work experience of employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many years have you been working in your current organisation?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Less than 1 year</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–Under 2 years</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2–Under 5 years</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5–Under 10 years</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>90.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 10 years</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.1 indicates that 11% of the respondents have worked for their respective organisations for less than 1 year, 28.4% have worked for the organisations for between 1 and 2 years, 28% have worked for the organisations between 2 and 5 years, 23% have worked for the organisations between 5 and 10 years, and 9.7% have worked for the organisations for over 10 years. This shows that a majority of the employees have worked at the sampled organisations for less than 5 years.

5.5.1.4 Terms of service
This section sought to find out the number of permanent employees within the organisations who may be well placed to provide their opinions of the impact of globalisation on employment relations by virtue of their interaction and access to organisational information.

Table 5.2: Terms of service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are your terms of service in the current organisation?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Permanent</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>51.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>60.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contract</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>92.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seasonal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

The results shown in Table 5.2 indicate that 51.8% of the respondents from the organisations that were sampled were permanent staff, 8.5% were temporary staff, 32.5% were employed on contracts, 6.2% comprised casual employment and 1% totalled seasonal staff. This feedback indicates that a majority of Kenyan organisations have engaged their employees on a permanent basis, while a substantial number of employees work on a contract basis.

5.5.1.5 Level of education
This section intended to establish education levels of respondents. The rationale was to establish their literacy and capability levels as workers in the selected Kenyan organisations.
Table 5.3: Level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is your highest level of education?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Certificate</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>237</td>
<td>49.1</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>98.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral degree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.3 shows that 9.9% of the employees in the sampled companies had a certificate as the highest level of qualification, 28.8% had attained a diploma, while 49.1% had a bachelor’s degree as the highest qualification. The results further show that 10.8% of the employees had attained master’s degrees, while 1.4% had doctoral degrees. The feedback shows that most of the employees in the selected organisations possess the requisite qualifications for their jobs, and are thus in a good position to gauge the impact of globalisation on employment relations.

5.5.2 Globalisation and employment relations

In order to determine the opinions of the respondents regarding the research topic, the researcher posed questions and made statements, which respondents had to either answer or respond to.

5.5.2.1 Participation in decision making

This rationale for this section was to establish if the employees are normally given opportunities by their supervisors to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them at the workplace.
Table 5.4: Industrial democracy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees are allowed to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.4 shows that 39.3% of the respondents agreed that they are allowed to make suggestions, and 6.6% strongly agreed. Conversely, 17.4% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that they are allowed to make suggestions, while 5.4% strongly disagreed, and 31.3% were non-committal in respect of the question, probably for fear of reprisal. Cumulatively, 45.9% (39.3+6.6) agreed that they are allowed by their supervisors to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them, while in sum, 22.8% (17.4%+5.4%) disagreed with the statement that they are allowed by their supervisors to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them. The high number of respondents who agreed shows that employees are indeed allowed by their supervisors to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them.

5.5.2.2 Level of employee representation on management boards

This section sought to establish whether employees are represented on management boards at the sampled organisations. When employees are represented on management boards, they tend to feel part and parcel of the organisation, which then improves the relationship between them and the management/organisation.
Table 5.5: Representation on management boards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees are well represented on the company’s management board</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>72.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.5 indicates that many of the respondents were non-committal in terms of this question, with 44.3% remaining neutral. A total of 24.4% agreed that they are represented on the company’s management board, while 3.1% strongly agreed, 20.9% disagreed, and 7.2% strongly disagreed that they are represented on the company’s management board. In total, 28.1% (20.9%+7.2%) disagreed that they are represented on management boards, as opposed to a total of 27.5% (24.4%+3.1%) of those who agreed. The response to this question seems to be polarized in terms of respondents’ views.

5.5.2.3 Opinions of employees

This section was interested in establishing whether employees’ opinions are indeed taken seriously by management. It sought to establish the participation of employees in workplace affairs.

Table 5.6: Consideration of opinions of employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees’ opinions are taken seriously by management in my workplace</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>96.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.6 shows that 32.1% agreed that opinions of employees are taken seriously by management in the workplaces, 3.9% strongly agreed, 37.3% remained neutral, implying that they may not be certain about the issue, while 19.5% disagreed and 7.2% strongly disagreed that their opinions are taken seriously. In total, 36% (32.1%+3.9%) agreed that their opinions are taken seriously by management, while a total of 26.7% (19.5%+7.2%) disagreed that their opinions are taken seriously. The high response rate of those who agreed indicates that opinions of employees are indeed taken seriously by management.

5.5.2.4 Joint consultative meetings of employers and employees

The rationale behind this section was to establish whether employers and employees hold joint consultative meetings. The holding of joint consultative meetings strengthens the bond between employers and employees, and improves levels of trust within the organisation.

Table 5.7: Joint consultative meetings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employers/management and employees often have joint consultative meetings</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>52.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>96.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.7 shows that 44.3% of the respondents agreed to have joint consultative meetings between employers and employees, and 3.7% strongly agreed. A total of 11.6% disagreed about the existence of joint consultative meetings, while 7.5% strongly disagreed, and 32.9% decided to remain neutral. In total, 48% (44.3%+3.7%) of the respondents agreed that they have joint consultative meetings between employers and employees, while a total of 19.1% (11.6%+7.5%) disagreed with the statement. The high response rate of those who agreed indicates that the selected organisations do indeed consult employees by meeting with them, which is positive for harmonious relationship to blossom in the workplace.
5.5.2.5 Trade unions and working conditions

This section sought to establish whether trade unions are still playing effective roles towards workers in terms of helping them to improve their working conditions. This is because when workers’ working conditions are improved, they tend to adopt a positive outlook towards the organisation, which ultimately improves employment relations.

Table 5.8: Trade unions and improvements in working conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade unions help to improve workers’ working conditions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>88.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.8 shows that 41% of the respondents agreed that trade unions have helped to improve their working conditions, 11.8% strongly agreed, 15.3% disagreed, while 4.6% strongly disagreed that trade unions have helped to improve their working conditions, and 27.3% decided to remain neutral on the question. In total, 52.9% (41%+11.8%) agreed that trade unions have helped to improve the working conditions of workers, while a total of 19.9% (15.3%+4.6%) disagreed that trade unions have helped to improve the working conditions of workers. The high response rate of those who agreed shows that trade unions in Kenya have indeed helped to improve the workers’ working conditions.

5.5.2.6 Freedom of workers

The section aimed to establish whether, in the era of globalisation, employees have been allowed by management to freely associate within their respective organisations.
Table 5.9: Freedom to exercise fundamental rights

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management freely allows workers to exercise their fundamental right to association</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>92.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.9 shows that 36.6% of the respondents agreed that management has freely allowed workers to exercise their fundamental right of association, 7.9% strongly agreed, 34.2% decided to be neutral, while 15.7% disagreed that management has freely allowed workers the freedom to associate, and 5.6% strongly disagreed with this statement. In total, 44.5% (36.6%+7.9%) agreed that management has freely allowed workers to exercise their fundamental right of association, while a total of 21.3% (15.7%+5.6%) disagreed with the statement. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that Kenyan companies do give their workers freedom to exercise their fundamental right of association, which has a positive effect on employment relations.

5.5.2.7 Attendance at union meetings

The rationale for this section was to establish if workers who are trade union members are given opportunities to attend union meetings in order to participate in such meetings. This goes a long way towards ensuring that what is presented to management represents members’ opinions, and not merely union officials’ opinions.
Table 5.10: Permission to attend union meetings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Members of the union are given opportunities to attend union meetings</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>94.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.10 reveals that 44.3% of the respondents agreed that they are given opportunities to attend union meetings, 5.6% strongly agreed, 30.2% of the respondents were neutral, while 14.5% disagreed that they are given opportunities to attend union meetings and 5.4% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 49.9% (44.3%+5.6%) of the respondents agreed that they are given opportunities to attend union meetings; however, a total of 19.9% (14.5%+5.4%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed shows that Kenyan organisations do indeed allow their workers who are union members’ opportunities to attend union meetings to discuss issues that directly affect them.

5.5.2.8 Union membership compared to the past

This section sought to establish how current globalisation has affected trade union membership. The researcher was interested to know whether trade union membership has increased in terms of numbers since globalisation.

Table 5.11: Increase in trade union membership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade union membership has increased in numbers compared to the past</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>88.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.11 shows that 40.8% of the respondents agreed and 11.2% strongly agreed that trade union membership has increased in the era of globalisation compared to the past. A total of 11.4% disagreed, while 3.3% strongly disagreed that trade union membership has increased in the era of globalisation compared to the past. In total, 33.3% of the respondents decided to remain neutral regarding the statement, while 52% (40.8%+11.2%) of the respondents agreed that trade union membership has indeed increased during the era of globalisation compared to the past, and a total of 14.7% (11.4%+3.3%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed shows that more workers have joined trade unions in Kenya since globalisation.

5.5.2.9 Independent employee decisions

This section sought to establish whether employees are given a free hand to take decisions on their own concerning routine work activities without consulting management.

Table 5.12: Routine work activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees independently take decisions regarding routine work activities</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.12 shows that 30.6% agreed and 11.8% strongly agreed that employees independently take decisions concerning their routine work activities, while 30% disagreed and 7.3% strongly disagreed with the statement. A total of 20.3% of the respondents were neutral in terms of the statement. In total, 42.4% (30.6%+11.8%) of the respondents agreed that employees independently take decisions on their routine work activities and a total of 37.3% (30.0%+7.3%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed indicates that employees are given opportunities to independently take decisions about their routine work activities in Kenya, particularly since globalisation.
5.5.2.10 Reward systems

The rationale for this section was to establish if management considers merits and input of workers when deciding upon rewards for their staff, or if they normally make unilateral decisions when determining rewards.

Table 5.13: Determination of rewards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>82.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.13 shows that 39.3% of the respondents agreed and 17.2% strongly agreed that unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards while 12.8% disagreed and 3.1% strongly disagreed with the statement, and 27.5% remained neutral in this regard. In total, 56.5% (39.3%+17.2%) agreed that unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards and a total of 15.9% (12.8%+3.1%) disagreed that unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards. This trend seems to have increased during globalisation.

5.5.2.11 Decisions on outsourcing

This section sought to establish whether workers are consulted when management plans to outsource some services or activities in the selected organisations.
Table 5.14: Management prerogatives on outsourcing decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management’s decision</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>71.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.14 shows that 46.4% of the respondents agreed that outsourcing of some services/activities are solely management’s decision, while 28.2% strongly agreed, and 18% remained neutral regarding the statement. A total of 2.9% disagreed with the statement, while 4.6% strongly disagreed that outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management’s decision. In total, 74.6% (46.4%+28.2%) agreed that outsourcing of some services/activities are solely management’s decision, while a total of 7.5% (2.9%+4.6%) of the respondents disagreed that outsourcing of some services/activities are solely management’s decision. The high number of those who agreed with the statement shows that outsourcing of some activities were solely undertaken by management without consulting with workers to obtain their input.

5.5.2.12 Decision making of unions

The rationale for this section was to establish if management influences decisions that are taken by the unions on behalf of workers, specifically in light of whether unions are independent of management in terms of decision making around collective bargaining and strike action.
Table 5.15: Independent union decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>93.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

As indicated in Table 5.15 above, 32.5% of the respondents agreed that the unions independently take decisions on collective bargaining and strike action, while 7.0% strongly agreed, and 37.5% of the respondents remained neutral regarding the statement. A total of 19.5% disagreed with the statement and 3.5% strongly disagreed. Altogether, 39.5% (32.5%+7%) of the respondents agreed that there is a level of independence by unions in taking decisions on collective bargaining and strike action, while in total, 23% (19.5%+3.5%) disagreed that unions independently take decisions on collective bargaining and strike action. The high number of those who agreed with the statement shows that unions do represent employees adequately without management’s undue influence.

5.5.2.13 Globalisation and downsizing/retrenchments

The rationale for this section was to establish whether globalisation has contributed to the high level of retrenchments in Kenya.

Table 5.16: Rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation

| There has been rising trends in retrenchments in recent times owing to globalisation |
|---------------------------------------------|--------|------------------|
|                | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Valid Strongly Disagree | 28     | 5.8     | 5.8                |
| Disagree       | 59      | 12.2    | 18.0               |
| Neutral        | 101     | 20.9    | 38.9               |
| Agree          | 216     | 44.7    | 83.6               |
| Strongly Agree | 79      | 16.4    | 100.0              |
| Total          | 483     | 100.0   |                     |

(N=483)
Table 5.16 shows that 44.7% of the respondents agreed that there has been rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation, and 16.4% strongly agreed with this statement. However, 20.9% of the respondents decided to remain neutral on the subject, while 12.2% disagreed, and 5.8% strongly disagreed that there has been rising trends in retrenchments since globalisation. In sum, 61.1% (44.7%+16.4%) agreed with the statement, while a sum of 18% (12.2%+5.8%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that retrenchments have increased in Kenya since globalisation. This development may have an adverse effect on employment relations.

5.5.2.14 Procedural fairness in retrenchments since the advent of globalisation

This section sought to establish if management has been fair when executing the retrenchment process, which has far reaching consequences on staff morale and employment relations.

Table 5.17: Due process of fairness during retrenchments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Due process of fairness is followed by management where retrenchment occurs</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.17 shows that a substantial number of respondents, namely 42%, were non-committal towards the subject, while 19.5% agreed that due process of fairness is followed by management where retrenchment occurs and 5.6% strongly agreed with the statement. However, 21.3% disagreed and 11.6% strongly disagreed that due process of fairness is followed by management during retrenchments. In sum, 32.9% (21.3%+11.6%) of the respondents disagreed that due process of fairness is followed by management when retrenchment occurs, while a sum of 25.1% (19.5%+5.6%) agreed with the statement. The high number of those who remained neutral is a sign
that many workers chose not to take sides on the statement, probably owing to the tensions that retrenchment issues bring to the workplace.

5.5.2.15 **Representation of employees in the retrenchment process**

Here, the researcher sought to establish whether employees have a say in the retrenchment process via their representatives.

**Table 5.18: Involvement of employee representatives in retrenchment process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>97.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.18 shows that a vast number of respondents, 40.8% remained non-committal as to whether or not employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise. However, 20.5% agreed and 2.5% strongly agreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise, while 29.4% disagreed and 6.8% strongly disagreed with the statement. In sum, 36.2% (29.4%+6.8%) disagreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise, while a sum of 23% (20.5%+2.5%) agreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise. The high number of those who disagreed indicates that retrenchment exercises have been solely executed by management, with less or no involvement of employee representatives, which could have negative repercussions for harmonious employment relations.

5.5.2.16 **Payment of terminal dues during retrenchments**

The rationale for this section was to establish the treatment of employees during the retrenchment process, and whether they are given all their dues to accord them some comfort. This would help to eliminate some discontent amongst the remaining employees that survived the retrenchment exercise.
Table 5.19: Payment of terminal dues to retrenched employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees are paid their termination dues before leaving employment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>90.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.19 shows that 43.5% of the respondents agreed that employees are paid their termination dues before leaving employment and 9.1% strongly agreed, while 32.5% were neutral on the subject. However, 9.9% of the respondents disagreed and 5.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed that employees are paid their termination dues before they leave their employment. Altogether, 52.6% (43.5%+9.1%) agreed with the statement, while in sum, 14.9% (9.9%+5.0%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement signifies employers’ positive treatment of retrenched employees in terms of payment of their terminal dues.

5.5.3 Influence of recent trends and developments in the global workplace

The objective here was to establish respondents’ perceptions in respect of the influence of recent trends and developments in the global workplace on employment relations in Kenya.

5.5.3.1 Rising trends in outsourcing in recent times

This section sought to establish whether globalisation has increased the reorganisation of work through outsourcing as opposed to the recruitment of permanent workers.
Table 5.20: Increased outsourcing of work to external organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Currently, most of the work in organisation is outsourced compared to the past</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.20 indicates that 44.7% of the respondents agreed that, currently, most of the work in the organisation has been outsourced in recent times compared to the past, and 13.9% strongly agreed. However, 22.8% were neutral on the subject, while 15.3% disagreed and 3.3% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 58.6% (44.7%+13.9%) of the respondents agreed that, currently, most of the work in their organisation has been outsourced recently compared to in the past, while in total, 18.6% (15.3%+3.3%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that most organisations have resorted to outsourcing more of their routine activities in recent times, thereby rendering more workers redundant for future retrenchments.

5.5.3.2 Modern technology and work allocation

This section sought to establish the impact of modern technology, a by-product of globalisation, on work allocation, in order to ascertain whether technology has reduced workloads or otherwise.
Table 5.21: Reduction of workloads because of modern technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Increased use of modern technology has reduced workloads</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>81.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.21 indicates that 40.6% of the respondents agreed that increased use of modern technology has reduced workloads, while 18.8% strongly agreed, and 19.3% of the respondents were neutral regarding the impact of modern technology on workloads. However, 16.8% of the respondents disagreed and 4.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 59.4% (40.6%+18.8%) of the respondents agreed that increased use of modern technology has reduced workloads, while 21.4% (16.8%+4.6%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed shows that the use of modern technology has led to a reduction in employees' workloads, which may potentially trigger redundancy in the workplace.

5.5.3.3 Modern technology and redundancy

The rationale for this section was to establish whether increased use of modern technology has negatively affected employees in terms of redundancy.

Table 5.22: Redundancy of workers as a result of increased use of technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Increased use of modern technology has led to redundancy of workers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>19.9</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>89.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.22 indicates that the subject elicited varied reactions, as 33.5% of the respondents agreed that increased use of technology has led to worker redundancy, while 10.4% strongly agreed, 19.9% disagreed, and 6.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. However, 29.6% of the respondents were non-committal towards the subject. In sum, 43.9% (33.5%+10.4%) agreed that increased use of technology has led to workers redundancy, while cumulatively, 26.5% (19.9%+6.6%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement indicates that modern technology has indeed contributed to redundancy in the workplace, which ultimately has a negative effect on the relationship between employers and employees owing to retrenchments as a result of redundancy.

5.5.3.4 Technology and new developments in labour relations

This section sought to establish whether technological developments, as a by-product of globalisation, has impacted on labour relations within organisations.

Table 5.23: New development in labour relations as a result of modern technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technological development has influenced developments in labour relations</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.23 indicates that 7.9% of the respondents strongly agreed and 35.4% agreed that technological development has influenced developments in labour relations, while 1.2% strongly disagreed and 14.5% disagreed, respectively, with the statement, and 41% remained neutral. In total, 43.3% (35.4%+7.9%) agreed that technological development has influenced developments in labour relations, while a total of 15.7% (14.5%+1.2%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement indicates that technological development has influenced developments in labour relations.
5.5.3.5 Technology and trade unions’ power

This section sought to establish if the increased use of technology in the wake of globalisation has eroded the power base of trade unions.

Table 5.24: Erosion of trade unions’ power by modern technology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact of trade unions has diminished owing to increasing use of technology</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.24 establishes that 27.3% of the respondents agreed that the impact of trade unions has diminished owing to the increasing use of modern technology, while 6% strongly agreed, and 2.7% strongly disagreed and 32.1% disagreed with the statement. However, 31.9% remained neutral regarding the statement, which could point to the fact that they were not quite sure about the subject. In sum, 33.3% (27.3%+6.0%) of the respondents agreed that the impact of trade unions has diminished owing to the increasing use of modern technology, while a sum of 34.8% (32.1%+2.7%) disagreed with the statement. The slim margin between those who agreed and those who disagreed here is a sign that respondents seem polarised on the subject.

5.5.3.6 Globalisation and social security of workers

The rationale for this section was to ascertain whether the workers’ social security system has improved since globalisation.
Figure 5.3: Improvements in workers’ social security

Figure 5.3 shows that 45.1% of the respondents agreed that workers have social security and 19.5% strongly agreed; 18.8% of the respondents were neutral regarding to the statement, while another 13.9% disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed that workers have social security. In sum, 64.6% (45.1% + 19.5%) of the respondents agreed that workers have social security, while in sum, 16.6% (13.9% + 2.7%) disagreed with the statement. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement shows that social security benefits for workers in Kenyan companies have improved in recent times, which is something positive that has happened during the era of globalisation.

5.5.3.7 Current work schedule of low wage employees

The section aimed at determining the level of unpredictability of the work schedule of low wage employees in the era of globalisation. The question specifically sought to find out whether or not work schedules have been predictable in recent times compared to the past.
Table 5.25: Unpredictability of the work schedule for low wage employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>43.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.25 indicates that a majority of the respondents, namely 40.8%, agreed that the work schedules for low wage employees have become more unpredictable in recent times than in the past, while 16.1% strongly agreed, and 24.6% were neutral regarding the question. Conversely, 16.1% of the respondents disagreed and 2.3% strongly disagreed with the statement. In sum, 56.9% (40.8%+16.1%) agreed that the work schedules for low wage employees have been more unpredictable in recent times than in the past, while a sum of 18.4% (16.1%+2.3%) disagreed with the statement. The fact that a majority of respondents agreed with the statement indicates that the work schedules for low wage employees have indeed become more unpredictable in recent times than in the past, which may have an adverse effect on labour relations.

5.5.3.8 Globalisation and working conditions in terms of health

This section sought to establish the impact of globalisation on work environments of Kenyan employees in terms of health.
Table 5.26: Improvements in working conditions in terms of health

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of health</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.26 shows that 39.5% of the respondents agreed that globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of health, while 6.0% strongly agreed and 35.4% of the respondents were neutral towards the subject. However, 14.3% disagreed, while 4.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 45.5% (39.5%+6.0%) of the respondents agreed that globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of health, while a total of 19.1% (14.3%+4.8%) disagreed with the statement. Therefore, the high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that the conditions of workers in terms of health have improved in Kenya since globalisation.

5.5.3.9 Globalisation and working conditions in terms of safety

The researcher was interested in finding out if work environments in terms of safety for Kenyan workers have improved since globalisation.

Table 5.27: Improvements in working conditions in terms of safety

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of safety</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>93.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.27 indicates that a majority of the respondents, namely 45.8%, agreed that globalisation has indeed improved working conditions in terms of safety; 6.2% strongly agreed; 33.7% were neutral on the subject; 11.4% disagreed; and 2.9% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 52% (45.8%+6.2%) of the respondents agreed that globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of safety, while 14.3% (11.4%+2.9%) disagreed with the statement. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement shows that working conditions in terms of safety have indeed improved since globalisation.

5.5.3.10 Globalisation and working hours

The rationale for this section was to establish whether or not the working hours of Kenyan workers have improved as a result of globalisation in recent times compared to the past, which may show whether or not employees work less hours and earn the same amount as they used to earn in the past.

Figure 5.4: Improvements in working conditions in terms of working hours

Figure 5.4 shows varied views, as 33.7% of the respondents agreed that globalisation has improved working condition in terms of working hours, while 2.7% strongly agreed, and 28.6% remained neutral regarding the subject. A total of 27.5% of the respondents disagreed, while another 7.5% strongly disagreed that globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of working hours. In total, 36.4% (33.7%+2.7%) agreed that globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of working hours, while a total of 35% (27.5%+7.5%) disagreed with the statement. The slim margin between the number
of respondents who agreed with the statement and those who disagreed reflects a polarised view of respondents on the subject.

5.5.3.11  Globalisation and work pressure
The rationale for this section was to compare the current work pressures that Kenyan workers experience in relation to what they used to experience before globalisation; the intention was to find out whether globalisation has had negative effects on employees in terms of work pressures.

Table 5.28: Increase in work pressures owing to globalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work pressures have increased in recent times compared to the past</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.28 shows that 42.0% of the respondents agreed and 17.6% strongly agreed that work pressures have increased in recent times compared to the past, while 25.3% of the respondents were neutral towards the statement. However, 12.6% of the respondents disagreed and 2.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 59.6% (42%+17.6%) of the respondents agreed that their work pressures have increased in recent times compared to the past, while in total, 15.1% (12.6%+2.5%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that work pressures have indeed increased in recent times compared to the past.

5.5.3.12   Use of child labour as an unskilled workforce
The aim of this section was to find out if Kenyan employers employ children and exploit them by paying them low wages compared to the available skilled labour.
Figure 5.5 shows that 29.6% of the respondents agreed and 12.8% strongly agreed that the high prevalence of child labour is owing to the low wages that they charge, while 22.6% disagreed and 6% strongly disagreed with the statement. However, 29% of the respondents remained neutral regarding the statement. In total, 42.4% (29.6%+12.8%) of the respondents agreed that the use of child labour has increased owing to the low wage costs involved, while a total of 28.6% (22.6%+6.0%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed shows that organisations in Kenya are exploiting children by paying them low wages as part of their unskilled workforce.

5.5.3.13 Globalisation and the use of child labour

This section sought to establish whether globalisation has encouraged the increase use of child labour in Kenyan organisations in recent times compared to the past.
Figure 5.6 shows that a majority of the respondents, namely 40.2%, were non-committal as to whether the use of child labour has increased in recent times, while 30.8% agreed and 10.6% strongly agreed with the statement. Conversely, 14.9% of the respondents disagreed and 3.5% strongly disagreed that the use of child labour has increased in recent times. In total, 41.4% (30.8%+10.6%) of the respondents agreed that the use of child labour has increased in recent times, while a total of 18.4% (14.9%+3.5%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who remained neutral may point to the fact that child labour exists, but most respondents lack information as to whether or not the phenomenon has increased in their respective organisations. Despite the high number of those who remained neutral, a great number of those who agreed indicated that there has been a rising trend in the use of child labour in recent times in Kenyan organisations, particularly in the manufacturing sectors.

5.5.3.14 Globalisation and legislation on child labour
The rationale for this section was to establish whether legislation on child labour has become weak during the era of globalisation.
Figure 5.7: Legislation to curb child labour in the era of globalisation

Figure 5.7 indicates that 38.1% remained neutral on the question, which could indicate that the respondents were not aware of the existence of legislation on child labour, while 18.6% agreed and 7.9% strongly agreed with the statement. A total of 20.7% disagreed and 14.7% strongly disagreed, respectively. Cumulatively, 26.5% (18.6%+7.9%) of the respondents agreed that legislation to curb child labour is weaker today than before, while cumulatively, 35.4% (20.7%+14.7%) disagreed with the statement. Hence, the high number of those who disagreed indicates that legislation to curb child labour is not weaker today compared to the past.

5.5.3.15 Globalisation and increasing patronage of cheap labour

This section sought to establish if there has been an increase in the patronage of cheap labour during the era of globalisation in Kenya.

Table 5.29: Increasing use of cheap labour since globalisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>82.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.29 shows that 46.2% of the respondents agreed that there has been an increase in the patronage of cheap labour, while 18% strongly agreed, and 24% remained neutral regarding the statement. However, 8.3% disagreed and 3.5% strongly disagreed that there has been a rise in the use of cheap labour. In sum, 64.2% (46.2%+18%) of the respondents agreed that there has been an increase in the patronage of cheap labour while a sum of 11.8% (8.3%+3.5%) disagreed with the statement. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that there has been an increase in the patronage of cheap labour within Kenyan organisations.

5.5.3.16 Equal employment opportunities for casual workers

The rationale for this section was to establish whether Kenyan companies provide casual workers with equal employment opportunities during the era of globalisation.

Figure 5.8: Equal employment opportunities

Figure 5.8 shows that 15.3% of the respondents agreed that there are equal employment opportunities for casual employees; 6.2% strongly agreed; 30.6% disagreed; and 19.7% strongly disagreed with the statement. However, 28.2% remained neutral regarding the statement. Altogether, 21.5% (15.3%+6.2%) agreed that there are equal employment opportunities for casual employees, while in sum, 50.3% (30.6%+19.7%) of the respondents disagreed. The high number of those who disagreed indicates that there are unequal employment opportunities for casual employees in Kenya.
5.5.3.17 Skills development and casual employment
This section sought to find out if Kenyan companies provide casual employees with opportunities to develop their skills in the era of globalisation.

Table 5.30: Lack of skills development opportunities for casual employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>87.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.30 shows that majority of the respondents, namely 32.3%, were neutral on the subject, while 30.2% agreed and 12.4% strongly agreed that casual employees never get opportunities to improve their skills. However, 19% disagreed and 6.0% strongly disagreed with the statement. Altogether, 42.5% (30.2%+12.4%) of the respondents agreed that casual employees never get a chance to improve their skills while a total of 25% (19.0%+6.0%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that casual employees in Kenyan companies are not given opportunities to develop their skills.

5.5.3.18 Casual employees and profit sharing schemes
This section sought to establish if all employees are treated equally when it comes to sharing bonus profits, to which all the employees contributed.
Figure 5.9: Exclusion of casual employees in profit sharing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>37.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>21.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 5.9 shows that 37.7% of the respondents agreed that casual employees are excluded from bonus profit sharing, while 21.9% strongly agreed, and 21.3% of the respondents remained neutral regarding the statement. However, 12.8% disagreed and 6.2% strongly disagreed with the statement. In sum, 59.6% (37.7%+21.9%) of the respondents agreed that casual employees are excluded from bonus profit sharing, while a sum of 19% (12.8%+6.2%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed, therefore, shows that Kenyan companies exclude casual employees from profit sharing schemes.

5.5.3.19 Possibility of change in employment status of casual employees

The rationale for this section was to establish if there is a likelihood that casual employees will be hired on a permanent basis during the era of globalisation, specifically if employers consider casual employees when permanent vacancies arise.
Figure 5.10: Hiring of casual employees on a permanent basis

Figure 5.10 shows that 21.7% of the respondents agreed that there is a likelihood that casual employees will be hired on a permanent basis, while 5.0% strongly agreed, and 38.1% of the respondents remained neutral regarding the statement. However, 21.3% disagreed and 13.9% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 26.7% (21.7%+5.0%) of the respondents agreed that there is a likelihood that casual employees may be hired on a permanent basis, while a total of 35.2% (21.3%+13.9%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who disagreed indicates that it is unlikely that casual employees may be hired on a permanent basis, while the great number of those who remained neutral may suggest some level of uncertainty from respondents as to whether employers consider hiring casual employees on a permanent basis.

5.5.3.20 Labour brokering and employment creation
The rationale for this section was to establish if labour brokers have helped people to at least earn a living in the era of globalisation owing to the high rate of unemployment.
Table 5.31: Labour brokers’ assistance in earning a living

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour brokers help people to earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.31 shows that a majority of the respondents were non-committal on the question, with 39.8% remaining neutral, while 35.2% of respondents agreed and 4.8% strongly agreed that labour brokers help people to at least earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent. A total of 17.6% respondents disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 40% (35.2%+4.8%) of the respondents agreed that labour brokers help people to at least earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent, while a total of 20.3% (17.6%+2.7%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed indicates that labour brokers do indeed help people to at least earn a living in Kenya, where high unemployment is prevalent.

5.5.3.21 Employees’ recruitment and labour brokers

The rationale for this section was to find out if Kenyan companies recruit their employees through employment bureaus and labour brokers as opposed to engaging them directly to determine their suitability.
Figure 5.11: Recruitment of employees through bureaus

Figure 5.11 shows that 36% of the respondents were neutral regarding the question; 30% of respondents agreed that employees are usually recruited by an employment bureau; 9.3% strongly agreed; 18% of respondents disagreed; and 6.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 39.3% (30.0%+9.3%) of the respondents agreed that employees are usually recruited by an employment bureau/labour broker, while cumulatively, 24.6% (18.0%+6.6%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that there is a rising trend in the recruitment of employees through employment bureaus/labour brokers in Kenyan companies in the era of globalisation.

5.5.3.22 Trends in labour brokering

The rationale for this information was to establish whether the use of labour brokers has been a rising trend in terms of recruiting employees instead of companies employing directly. In other words, whether the number of labour brokers has grown owing to the demand from employers for their services.
As shown in Table 5.32, 50.3% of the respondents agreed that there has been an increase in the number of labour brokers since the era of globalisation; 15.7% strongly agreed; and 27.1% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 3.9% of the respondents disagreed and 2.9% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 66% (50.3%+15.7%) of the respondents agreed that the number of registered labour brokers has increased since globalisation, while cumulatively, 6.8% (3.9%+2.9%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement shows that the number of registered labour brokers in Kenya has increased in recent times.

5.5.4 Influence of globalisation on employment regulations
This section sought to establish the perceptions of respondents concerning how employment regulations have been affected by globalisation, specifically whether employment regulations have changed currently compared to the past.

5.5.4.1 Legislation on casual employment
The purpose here was to find out if the increase in labour brokers that supply casual employees for employers has been as a result of weak labour legislation.
Figure 5.12: Weakness of legislation on casual employment

Figure 5.12 shows that 47.0% of the respondents agreed that the number of registered labour brokers has increased since globalisation as a result of weakened legislation, and 12.8% strongly agreed. Conversely, 0.8% strongly disagreed and 4.8% disagreed with the statement, while 34.6% remained neutral. Cumulatively, 59.8% (47.0%+12.8%) of the respondents agreed that the number of registered labour brokers has increased since the era of globalisation as a result of weakened legislation, while cumulatively, 5.6% (4.8%+0.8%) disagreed with the statement. From the high response rate of those who agreed with the statement, it is clear that labour legislation has indeed been weakened to allow labour brokers to supply casual labour to employers.

5.5.4.2 Corporations and community projects

The rationale for this section was to ascertain if organisations in Kenya support community based projects by giving back to the communities in which they conduct business as part of their social corporate responsibility programmes.
Table 5.33: Community projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My organisation has programmes that support community projects to benefit host communities</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>41.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.33 shows that most of the respondents, namely 41.8%, agreed that their organisation has a programme that supports community projects, which benefit host communities; 16.1% strongly agreed; 25.3% remained neutral; 14.5% disagreed; and 2.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed. Hence, cumulatively, 57.9% (41.8%+16.1%) agreed that their organisation has a programme that supports community projects, which benefit host communities, while cumulatively, 16.8% (14.5%+2.3%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed shows that organisations in Kenya do initiate programmes that support community projects, which benefit host communities.

5.5.4.3 Involvement in social projects

The reason behind this section was to find out if the organisations have been more involved in social projects in recent times than before, and whether the projects benefit the employees, in addition to whether their involvement was key to their wellbeing.
Figure 5.13 established that 30% of the respondents agreed that their organisation has been more involved in social projects in recent times than before, while 10.6% strongly agreed, and 34.4% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 22.2% of the respondents disagreed, while 2.9% of the respondents strongly disagreed to the statement. Cumulatively, 40.6% (30.0%+10.6%) of the respondents agreed that their organisation has been more involved in social projects in recent times than before, while cumulatively, 25.1% (22.2%+2.9%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that organisations in Kenya have been more involved in social projects in recent times than before.

5.5.4.4 Identification of social projects by employees
This section sought to find out whether employees are involved in the identification of social projects that are supported by their organisations, as this would promote a good relationship between employers and employees.
Table 5.34: Identification of social projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employees are involved in the identification of social projects that are supported</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>63.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>92.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.34 shows that 29% of the respondents agreed that employees are involved in the identification of social projects that are supported, while 7.5% strongly agreed, 32.3% of the respondents remained neutral, while 25.9% of the respondents disagreed, and 5.4% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 36.5% (29.0%+7.5%) of the respondents agreed that employees are involved in the identification of social projects that are supported by organisations, while cumulatively, 31.3% (25.9%+5.4%) disagreed. The high number of neutral responses may be an indication that most respondents have not been involved in the identification of social projects. The slim margin between those who agreed and those who disagreed with the statement shows a somewhat polarised view on the part of respondents regarding the subject.

5.5.4.5 Welfare support of employees by employers

The rationale for this section was to find out whether or not employees are provided with welfare support by their respective employers in the era of globalisation. This will create harmonious relationship between employers and employees.
Figure 5.14: Provision of welfare support for employees

Figure 5.14 shows that 44.1% of the respondents agreed that their employers do provide them with welfare support for survival, and 5.6% strongly agreed with the statement. However, 31.1% of the respondents remained neutral, while 17% of the respondents disagreed and 2.3% strongly disagreed that their employers do provide them with welfare support for survival. In total, 49.7% (44.1%+5.6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement while a total of 19.3% (17.0%+2.3%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that employers in Kenyan organisations do provide welfare support to their employees for survival.

5.5.4.6 Payment to foreign expatriates
This section sought to find out if foreign expatriates are paid more than local workers who do the same job in Kenya in the era of globalisation.
Figure 5.15: More payment to foreign expatriates than local workers

Figure 5.15 shows that 52% of the respondents strongly agreed that foreign expatriates are paid more than local workers who do the same job, while 25.5% agreed with the statement, and 17.2% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 3.3% of the respondents disagreed and 2.1% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 77.5% (52.0%+25.5%) of the respondents agreed that foreign expatriates are paid more than local workers who do the same job, while cumulatively, 5.4% (3.3%+2.1%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement shows that Kenyan companies favour foreign employees compared to local employees in terms of pay.

5.5.4.7 Difference in wage gap between senior management and workers

The rationale for this section was to establish whether organisations treat both employees fairly irrespective of their positions in terms of pay packages. In other words, to establish whether there exists realistic differences in wages between senior management and other workers.
Table 5.35: High wage gap between senior management and workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The wage gap is high between top management and workers in my organisation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.35 shows that 18.6% of the respondents agreed that the wage gap is high between senior management and workers in their organisations, while 60.7% strongly agreed and 14.7% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 3.9% disagreed and 2.1% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 79.3% (60.7%+18.6%) of the respondents agreed that there is indeed a high wage gap between senior management and workers in Kenyan companies, while cumulatively, 6% (3.9%+2.1%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who agreed with the statement shows that there is an increasing difference between top management and employees in Kenyan organisations within the era of globalisation.

5.5.4.8 Employee agreement contract

The rationale for this section was to establish if organisations in Kenya adhere to agreements that are made between them and employees in the employment contract when it comes to the payment of wages.
Figure 5.16 shows that 44.5% agreed that employees are paid according to the agreement in their employment contract, and 18.4% strongly agreed. However, 21.5% remained neutral, while 11.4% disagreed and 4.1% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 62.9% (44.5%+18.4%) of the respondents agreed that employees are paid according to the agreement in their employment contract while cumulatively; only 15.5% (11.4%+4.1%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that Kenyan companies pay their employees according to their employment contracts in the era of globalisation.

5.5.4.9 Unions and wage negotiation
The rationale for this section was to establish whether unions exert a great influence on wage discussion involving employers and employees, specifically if the push by the unions leads to improvements in wages, which are paid to employees by management.
Table 5.36: Influence of unions on wage negotiation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unions exert a great influence on wage negotiation between management and employees</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.36 shows that 39.5% of the respondents agreed to the fact that unions exert a great influence on wage negotiations between management and employees, while 11.6% strongly agreed, and 32.9% of the employees remained neutral, which may point to the fact that most of the respondents were not union members. However, 12.4% of the respondents disagreed and 3.5% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 51.1% (39.5%+11.6%) of the respondents agreed that unions exert a great influence on wage negotiations between management and employees, while a total of 15.9% (12.4%+3.5%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that unions do indeed exert an influence on wage negotiations between management and employees.

5.5.4.10 Free labour movement and competition

This section was interested in establishing if free labour movement stimulates competition and allows for resource allocation within Kenyan companies in the era of organisation.
Figure 5.17: Labour movement and resource allocation

Figure 5.17 shows that 45.3% of the respondents agreed that free labour movement stimulates competition and allows for resource allocation; 9.3% strongly agreed; 34.2% remained neutral; 7.2% disagreed; and 3.9% strongly disagreed. In sum, 54.6% (45.3%+9.3%) of the respondents agreed that indeed free labour movement does indeed stimulate competition, and allows for resource allocation, while a sum of 11.1% (7.2%+3.9%) disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who agreed indicates that free labour movement does stimulate competition, and allows for resource allocation within Kenyan companies in the era of globalisation.

5.5.4.11 Labour movement restriction and competitive wages

This section sought to find out whether restrictions on labour movement have prevented competitive wage rates since globalisation.

Table 5.37: Restrictions on labour movement and competitive wage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restrictions on labour movement prevent establishment of a competitive wage rate</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
As shown in Table 5.37, 41.2% of the respondents agreed that restrictions on labour movement prevent the establishment of a competitive wage, while 7.7% strongly agreed, and 38.1% of the respondents remained neutral, which could point to the fact that the respondents were not in a position to know whether or not there are labour movement restrictions. A total of 12% of the respondents disagreed and 1% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 48.9% (41.2%+7.7%) of the respondents agreed that restrictions on labour movement prevent the establishment of a competitive wage, while cumulatively, 13% (12%+1%) of the respondents disagreed. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement indicates that restrictions on labour movement do prevent the establishment of a competitive wage in most Kenyan companies in the era of globalisation.

5.5.4.12 Trends in labour movement

The rationale for this section was to establish whether labour movement has increased with skills and educational levels in recent times.

Figure 5.18: Labour movement, skills and education levels

Figure 5.18 shows that 40.2% of the respondents agreed that labour movement has increased with skills and educational levels; 18.4% strongly agreed; 28.2% remained neutral; 11% of the respondents disagreed; and 2.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, 58.6% (40.2%+18.4%) agreed that labour movement has increased with skills and educational levels, while cumulatively, 13.3% (11%+2.3%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The high number of respondents who
agreed with the statement indicates that labour movement has increased with skills and educational levels.

5.5.4.13 Contribution of employers to labour movement
The rationale for this section was to establish whether employers encourage labour movement by providing training to address skills shortages amongst employees.

Table 5.38: Support of employers towards labour movement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employers encourage labour movement by providing training to address skills shortage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>36.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>66.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>94.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.38 shows that 31.3% of the respondents disagreed that employers encourage labour movement by providing training to address skills shortage; 5.4% strongly disagreed; 29.8% remained neutral; 28.2% agreed; and 5.4% strongly agreed. Cumulatively, 33.6% (28.2%+5.4%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while 36.7% (31.3%+5.4%) disagreed. The responses to the question seem to be slightly polarized in terms of the respondents’ views.

5.5.4.14 Globalisation and industrial disputes
The rationale for this information was to ascertain if industrial disputes have become more frequent in organisations in recent times in Kenya, and to establish whether there are clear mechanisms to resolve disputes in the workplace.
Figure 5.19: Frequency of industrial disputes

Figure 5.19 indicates that 25.7% of the respondents agreed that industrial disputes have become more frequent in their organisations in recent times; 4.1% strongly agreed; 42% of the respondents remained neutral; 24.8% disagreed; and 3.3% strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, 29.8% (25.7%+4.1%) of the respondents agreed with the statement while cumulatively, 28.2% (24.8%+3.3%) disagreed. This reflects that the respondents’ views were polarised. The high number of those who remained neutral may be a sign that industrial disputes have indeed become more frequent in recent times, but they chose not to comment in this regard.

5.5.5 Challenges triggered by globalisation

This section sought to establish respondents’ perceptions of recent challenges, which have been triggered by globalisation in Kenyan workplaces.

5.5.5.1 Dispute resolution channels

This section sought to establish whether the Kenyan companies have proper channels to facilitate dispute resolutions within their organisations in the era of globalisation.
Table 5.39: Existence of proper dispute resolution channels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dispute Resolution Channel</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>90.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.39 indicates that 44.1% of the respondents agreed that there is a proper channel, which facilitates dispute resolutions in their workplace; 9.7% strongly agreed; 29% remained neutral; while 12.2% disagreed; and 5.0% strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, 53.8% (44.1%+9.7%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while cumulatively, 17.2% (12.2%+5%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that there are proper channels for dispute resolutions in most Kenyan organisations.

5.5.5.2 Resolution of disputes through reconciliation

The rationale for this section was to establish if Kenyan companies have established reconciliation mechanisms to resolve disputes within the organisations since globalisation.

Figure 5.20: Referral of disputes for reconciliation
Figure 5.20 shows that 28.8% of the respondents agreed that disputes are resolved by referring them to third parties for reconciliation, while 7.9% strongly agreed, and 42% remained neutral, which could probably point to the fact that some of the selected respondents had not been involved in disputes that were referred to third parties for reconciliation. Furthermore, 15.5% of the respondents disagreed and 5.8% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 36.7% (28.8%+7.9%) of the respondents agreed that disputes are resolved by referring them to third parties for reconciliation, while cumulatively, 21.3% (15.5%+5.8%) disagreed. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement shows that Kenyan organisations do refer disputes to third parties for reconciliation. This implies that globalisation has not affected this aspect of employment relations in Kenya.

5.5.5.3 Resolution of disputes through mediation

The rationale for this section was to find out if Kenyan companies have established mediation as a mechanism to resolve disputes in the era of globalisation.

Table 5.40: Referral of disputes for mediation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disputes are resolved by referring it to third parties for mediation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.40 reveals that a majority of the respondents, namely 41.6% remained neutral, while 30.2% of the respondents agreed and 3.5% strongly agreed with the statement. A total of 18.2% of the respondents disagreed and 6.4% strongly disagreed. In total, 33.7% (30.2%+3.5%) of the respondents agreed that disputes are resolved by referring them to third parties for mediation, while in total, 24.6% (18.2%+6.4%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who remained neutral may point to the fact that disputes that are referred to third parties for mediation are kept confidential, and thus some respondents may not be aware that these take
place. The number of respondents who agreed far exceed those who disagreed, which indicates that Kenyan organisations do indeed refer disputes to third parties for mediation, which indicates that globalisation has not affected this facet of employment relations in Kenya.

5.5.5.4 Resolution of disputes through arbitration

The rationale for this section was to establish if, in the case of disputes, companies take the initiative to refer them to third parties for arbitration. This will in turn reflect a fair dispute resolution that does not negatively affect the relationship between employers and employees.

Figure 5.21: Referral of disputes for arbitration

Figure 5.21 shows that most of the respondents, namely 38.4% remained neutral, which points to the fact that some of the targeted respondents had not been involved in disputes that were referred to third parties for arbitration; 29.4% of the respondents agreed; 7.7% strongly agreed; 18.4% disagreed; and 5.6% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 37.1% (29.4%+7.7%) of the respondents agreed that disputes are resolved by referring them to third parties for arbitration, while cumulatively, 24% (18.4%+5.6%) disagreed. The high number of respondents who agreed with the statement shows that Kenyan organisations do indeed refer disputes to third parties for arbitration, which signifies that globalisation has not affected this particular facet of employment relations in an adverse way in Kenya.
5.5.5.5 Strike action and dispute handling procedures

This section sought to establish procedures that are employed by Kenyan organisations to handle disputes, and whether they have contributed to a reduction in strikes.

Table 5.41: Reduction of strike action through dispute handling procedures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Procedures for handling disputes prohibit strike action in terms of a collective agreement</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>43.3</td>
<td>94.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)

Table 5.41 shows that 43.3% of the respondents agreed that dispute handling procedures help to reduce strike actions, while 5.2% strongly agreed and 41.8% remained neutral. Furthermore, 7% of the respondents disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed with the statement. Cumulatively, 48.5% (43.3%+5.2%) of the respondents agreed that dispute handling procedures reduce strikes, while in sum, 9.7% (7%+2.7%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement shows that dispute handling procedures do indeed reduce strike actions.

5.5.5.6 Trends in strike action in Kenyan workplaces

The rationale for this section was to establish whether globalisation has contributed to an increase in strike actions in Kenyan workplaces.
Figure 5.22: Rising trends in strike action in recent times in Kenyan workplaces

Figure 5.22 shows that 36.4% of the respondents disagreed that strikes have increased in recent times at their workplace, while 16.1% strongly disagreed, and 25.9% of the respondents remained neutral. Furthermore, 17.2% of the respondents agreed that there has been an increase in strikes, and 4.3% strongly agreed. Cumulatively, 21.5% (17.2%+4.3%) of the respondents agreed that strikes have increased in recent times at their workplace, while cumulatively, 52.5% (36.4%+16.1%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement. The high number of those who disagreed with the statement indicates that strike actions have not increased in recent times in Kenyan workplaces, notably amongst the selected organisations.

5.5.5.7  Poor communication and strike action

The rationale for this section was to establish whether strikes take place as a result of poor communication between management and unions/workers. This may result in a poor working relationship between unions/workers, which could affect harmony in the workplace.
Table 5.42: Strike action owing to poor communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strikes occur owing to poor communication between managements and unions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>79.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.42 shows that 36.4% of the respondents agreed that strikes occur owing to poor communication between managements and unions, while 20.3% strongly agreed and 21.1% of the respondents remained neutral on the subject. However, 15.9% disagreed and 6.2% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 56.7% (36.4%+20.3%) of the respondents agreed that strikes occur owing to poor communication between management and union, while a total of 22.1% (15.9%+6.2%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates that strike actions have indeed occurred owing to poor communication between managements and unions/workers in recent times in most Kenyan organisations.

5.5.5.8 Remuneration of employees and strike action

This section sought to establish the main causes of strike actions in Kenyan organisations in the era of globalisation, with specific emphasis on wages and earnings.
Figure 5.23: Poor wages/earnings and strike action

Figure 5.23 shows that 39.5% of the respondents agreed that wages is the greatest contributor of strikes, while 23.8% strongly agreed, and 24% remained neutral. Conversely, 9.3% disagreed with the statement and 3.3% strongly disagreed. Cumulatively, 63.3% (39.5%+23.8%) of the respondents agreed that wages is the greatest contributor of strikes, while cumulatively, 12.6% (9.3%+3.3%) disagreed. The high response rate of those who agreed with the statement indicates, therefore, that wages is the greatest contributor to strikes in most Kenyan organisations.

5.5.5.9 Strike action and dismissal

The rationale for this section was to establish if Kenyan organisations victimize their employees through dismissal if they participate in strike actions. This amounts to intimidation of the employees, which may lead to poor employment relations.

Table 5.43: Rising trends in the dismissal and replacement of striking workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>60.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>88.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(N=483)
Table 5.43 shows that 34.2% of the respondents remained neutral regarding the above statement, which could probably point to the fact that they are afraid of victimization. A total of 28.2% agreed that workers are dismissed and replaced by new workers if they partake in strike action; 11.4% strongly agreed; 21.9% disagreed; and 4.3% strongly disagreed. In total, 39.6% (28.2%+11.4%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while a total of 26.3% (21.9%+4.3%) of the respondents disagreed. The high percentage of respondents who agreed shows that workers are summarily dismissed and replaced with new workers if they partake in strike action, which adversely affects workers’ rights.

5.5.5.10 Globalisation and unemployment

The reason for this section was to establish if the rate of unemployment has increased more in recent times than previously as a result of globalisation.

Figure 5.24: Rising unemployment owing to globalisation

Figure 5.24 shows that 48% of the respondents agreed that globalisation has increased the rate of unemployment in Kenya, while 9.7% strongly agreed, and 30.8% of the respondents remained neutral. However, 8.7% of the respondents disagreed and 2.7% strongly disagreed with the statement. In total, 57.7% (48%+9.7%) of the respondents agreed that globalisation has increased the rate of unemployment, while a total of 11.4% (8.7%+2.7%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement is an indication that unemployment has indeed increased in Kenya globalisation.
5.5.5.11 Mergers, acquisitions and unemployment

The rationale for this section was to establish if there is a connection between the various mergers and acquisitions in Kenya, and the increasing rate of unemployment. In other words, to ascertain specifically if mergers and acquisition, which is a rising trend in the era of globalisation, has resulted in increased job losses.

Table 5.44: Rising unemployment owing to mergers and acquisitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisational mergers and acquisitions has increased levels of unemployment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>62.3</td>
<td>87.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>483</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[(N=483)\]

Table 5.44 shows that 62.3% of the respondents agreed that mergers and acquisitions in organisations in Kenya has increased levels of unemployment, while 12.6% strongly agreed, and 20.3% remained neutral. However, 3.1% of the respondents disagreed and 1.7% strongly disagreed those organisational mergers and acquisitions have increased levels of unemployment. Cumulatively, 74.9% (62.3%+12.6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while cumulatively, 4.8% (3.1%+1.7%) disagreed. The high percentage of those who agreed with the statement is an indication that organisational mergers and acquisitions has indeed increased levels of unemployment since globalisation.

5.5.5.12 Organisational restructuring and job destruction

The rationale for this section was to establish whether there is a link between organisational restructuring, and the growing trend of employee layoffs amongst Kenyan organisations in recent times.
Figure 5.25: Growing trend in employee layoffs owing to organisational restructuring

Figure 5.25 shows that 49.7% of the respondents agreed that there is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring, while 20.5% strongly agreed with the statement, and 24.4% remained neutral. However, 4.8% of the respondents disagreed and 0.6% strongly disagreed that there is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring. Cumulatively, 70.2% (49.7%+20.5%) agreed with the statement, while cumulatively, 5.4% (4.8%+0.6%) disagreed. The high number of those who agreed with the statement indicates that there is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring, which has increased since globalisation.

5.5.5.13 Unemployment and trade union power base

This section sought to establish whether or not the increased unemployment that has been prevalent in Kenya has affected the power base of trade unions. Trade unions are effective when they have a high number of members, while a decrease in their membership might negatively affect their power base in terms of counteracting with employers.
The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

5.6 Qualitative research results

The qualitative phase of the research was conducted in Nairobi by interviewing two senior employees from five key stakeholders in the Central Organisation of Trade Unions, the Federation of Kenya Employers, the Kenya Association of Manufacturers, the Kenya Private Sector Alliance and the Ministry of Labour. The researcher interviewed the respondents to gauge their perceptions of the impact of globalisation on employment relations. The interviewer asked open-ended questions and simply recorded the participants’ responses.

The data was prepared by compiling field notes and transcribing the interviews immediately. The data was analysed after each interview to ensure that an ongoing
reflective process was maintained (Creswell, 2009). The notes were first read to obtain a sense of the overall meaning. The data was then analysed in terms of its content (Creswell, 2009). The responses were offered in narrative format and the data was interpreted by considering the literature review and the research objectives.

5.6.1 Senior management
As mentioned earlier, a total of ten (10) senior management staff members, two from each of the five key organisations in Kenya, comprising of the Central Organisation of Trade Unions, the Federation of Kenya Employers, the Kenya Association of Manufacturers, the Kenya Private Sector Alliance and the Ministry of Labour were invited, and all responded positively to the interviews. Each member was approached for interviews individually in their respective offices. See Appendix C for the questions that were posed. Participants were given the following codes: (COTU) representing the Central Organisation of Trade Unions; (FKE), representing the Federation of Kenya Employers; (KAM), representing the Kenya Association of Manufacturers; (ML), representing the Ministry of Labour; and (KEPSA), representing the Kenya Private Sector Alliance. The number against the codes represents the participants, namely either 1 or 2, as there were two respondents from each of the organisations.

5.6.2 Globalisation and employment relations
To effectively capture the study’s objectives, the researcher had to establish the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Several questions were discussed via the interview guide with the key informants, and the results are presented and analysed below through content analysis, where similar respondents were grouped together.

5.6.2.1 Participation in decision making
It was important to establish whether supervisors have allowed their employees to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them in the workplace since globalisation.

- To what extent are employees involved in decision making in your company’s affairs?
COTU 1 and 2 and KEPSA 1 indicated that they are represented through their trade union leaders in decision making meetings. They further indicated that workers' views
are also taken to management via their immediate supervisors, which was not the case before. KEPSA 2 indicated that employees only participate in decision making via their union leaders, who champion their grievances and bargain for their benefits and working conditions.

COTU 1 had this to say: “we hold regular consultation with the union leaders to discuss issues that affect workers and get or give updates if any. We have introduced suggestion boxes where employees can directly drop their written issues for consideration. Also, the workers can call or come to our offices to air their concerns; this has enhanced employees’ participation today than before”. Another respondent, COTU 2, had the following to say: “the workers are represented by their union officials in company decision making meetings where decisions are deliberated and passed”. This shows that employees have indeed been involved in the company’s decision making in the wake of globalisation.

ML 1 and 2, FKE 1 and 2 and KAM 1 and 2 indicated existence of regular consultation between the workers and leaders through their union representatives. FKE 1 noted that: “the union leaders are like a bridge for the workers to channel their concern to the management and vice versa. FKE 2 said that: “in the recent past companies have set out suggestion boxes where only management has the keys for opening, in case a worker has an issue that they want to write down and drop in the boxes”. However, COTU 1 indicated that there is mistrust between the workers and management, and said that: “the issues raised through such means are not implemented and there is no feedback to show that indeed they were received”. The above responses show that union representation has improved labour relations in Kenya since globalisation, even though there has been resistance.

KAM 1 and 2 indicated that some organisations hold quarterly meetings where employees are given a chance to express their views. In this regard, KAM 1 stated that: “we have introduced holding of regular meetings on quarterly basis to get the concerns of the employees”. COTU 2 indicated that: “the union only represent the permanent employees’ when discussing issues with the management, this leaves out employees on casual and those on contract basis”. Thus, the responses here show that these
changes have generally improved relationships between employers and employees since globalisation.

5.6.2.2 Globalisation and downsizing/retrenchments
It was deemed necessary to ascertain out whether globalisation has contributed to the high level of retrenchment in Kenya.

- **How has globalisation resulted in increasing retrenchments?**
Some respondents indicated that retrenchments have negatively affected employment relations since globalisation. It has resulted in an attitude of mistrust, since previous retrenchments have created strained relationships or increased workloads. COTU 1 had this to say: “retrenchment creates disharmony among the workers, especially those earmarked for retrenchment because they feel unfairly targeted, It exerts pressure on the remaining workers to work more hours to make up for the loss through retrenchment”.

The responses indicate that more pressure is exerted on workers today than before, especially for fear of being retrenched. FKE 2 said that: “because retrenchment comes with company restructuring, those who leave the company are psychologically affected and those that remain are assigned new responsibilities. Sometimes those who remain are forced to work extra hours to make up for the lost workforce which greatly affects employment relations”. Despite the negative impact of retrenchments, the above response indicates that workers who have better skills and experience are either promoted or they escape retrenchment because their colleagues who are less skilled or have no skills are retrenched instead. It further creates panic and a lack of interest for work, since employees are uncertain about their fate before completion of the retrenchment exercise. Retrenchment also helps companies to reduce their overheads, hence increase their profitability, which has driven more companies to undertake retrenchments today than before. KAM 1 noted that: “workers have lost interest in their job because they have divided attention to look for other jobs before they are laid off. Also, there is stress to the few remaining workforce since they have to put in more time to maintain the production”. The responses generally show that retrenchments have indeed negatively affected employment relations in Kenya since globalisation.
5.6.2.3 Globalisation and strike action

It was deemed imperative to establish via the interviews whether globalisation has contributed to an increase in strike action in Kenyan workplaces.

• Has globalisation resulted in increasing strike action?

The respondents indicated that strike actions cause the main day losses within organisations, which affect production and profitability, and may finally lead to retrenchments as a result of low profits. The responses show that strikes have increased since globalisation, thus affecting employment relations. COTU 2 said that: “in the recent past strike actions have increased with aim of forcing management to listen to the employee’s grievances. In most cases these strikes have led to increased wages for the worker, which affects the employment relations between the employer and employee”. The respondents indicated that there has been an increase in strike actions since globalisation, which strains the already sensitive relationships between union members and management within organisations. COTU 1 stated that: “workers are now more informed about their rights today than before and when the employers don’t want to listen to them, they resort to strike actions to force the management to agree on their demands. Even though the strikes have impacted employment relations, their increase has in most cases helped the employees in their quest to demand for better standards of living”.

ML 1 indicated that: “due to the introduction of performance contracting the striking had gone down in many organisations. The Management has based production or performance on compensation hence the employees are motivated to deliver. Through the trade union strike, the employees’ grievances have been addressed i.e. their salaries have improved, their working condition have improved and the management now take their rights into consideration when making decisions”. ML 2 mentioned that: “through the strikes, the members working condition have generally improved today than before, terms of employment have improved and safety has been enhanced”. Some respondents indicated that strike actions have forced many employers to review their workforce with a view of cutting down on costs. FKE 1 had this to say: “each time there is a strike, valuable time is lost. In some case employers have laid off some workers for taking part in the strike actions e.g. the government, which adversely affects the employment relations”. KAM 2 indicated that: “strikes have increased in Kenya in
the 20th century; which is a sign of many unresolved disputes in the period of globalisation. In the public sector, strike actions have been on the increase because the government wage differences are very huge and labour standards are not properly observed”.

5.6.3 Developments in the global workplace
It was deemed important to find out how recent trends and developments in the global workplace have influenced employment relations in Kenya.

5.6.3.1 Globalisation, technological changes and employment relations
It is crucial to understand how modern technological development has impacted employment relations in Kenyan organisations since globalisation.

- Identify and comment on the effect of technological change on employment relations in your organisation and in Kenya, in general

Most respondents iterated that modern technology has improved output, but in the process many workers have lost their jobs. The respondents also indicated that technological developments call on workers to be proficient in IT skills at the expense of experience. The responses show that technological changes have resulted in a loss of jobs among management and other employees who have none or few competencies. Jobs that used to be done by many people are now being done by a few.

In this regard, FKE 2 had this to say: “I will say computer or ICT, since its introduction, many workers lost their jobs and some are still being laid off due to their incompetence to use the computers. Work that used to be done by many clerical workers is done by one person”. COTU 1 remarked that: “introduction of computers has been a blessing to some people, but a disguise for other...for instance, there are many people who have set up many computer businesses and are doing well, but there are those that have lost their jobs”. The respondents’ views show that employees are slow to adapt to modern technology, because most of the time management attend theoretical training but expect that the workers will learn from them and apply the skills, which is sometimes problematic owing to the radical change of the capital intensity of ultra-modern workplaces. Technology seems to lead to more competition and uncertainty with regard to job security because without the right skills, workers have no future in their current
employment. There is also an indication that more and more skilled ICT labour is emerging in the market, pushing aside old manual workforces that have not yet reached retirement age. Technology seems to have improved communication, decision making and productivity in organisations. For instance, management does not need to be in the office to access information and make decisions. From that perspective, KAM 1 said that: “I can say organisations are running more effectively because of technology. Owing to introduction of new system, the workers have been forced to acquire more knowledge. It has also encouraged efficiency and companies are now more profitable as a result of improved quantity of service in various departments. Communications have been made easy and fast thus timely and accurate decision making”.

In similar disposition, KEPSA 2 commented that: “technology in the form of computer is good, it changes the way things are done e.g. before computers came, there were the typewriters that if one made a mistake, it would take you a lot of time to correct a typed mistake, but right now you can type something and correct immediately if there is a mistake. Right now management can make decision in real time because information is shared in real time”. The respondents’ views show that technology has improved the way that things are done in many companies, but at the same time it is the major reason for most retrenchments in many companies.

5.6.4 Globalisation and insurance policies
This section intends to establish whether welfare in terms of insurance and pension policies are well protected in Kenya in the era of globalisation.

- Does your organisation have specific policies that cover the welfare and responsibilities of workers?

The respondents indicated that organisations do indeed have insurance and pension policies that have been anchored in the labour laws of Kenya since globalisation. The government expects everyone who works within the formal sector to subscribe to the National Social Security Fund (NSSF). It further established that, internally, companies should, through worker unions, establish safety policies to protect workers at their workplaces. ML1 indicated that: “every organisation should guarantee the welfare of all employees working in his/her workplace. The Labour Relations Act. provides for health and safety of all workers present at workplaces”. ML 2 had this to say: “yes we do have
the labour laws that have been passed by the parliament to protect the workers and those are what guide and safeguard everyone. Like now it is compulsory for the workers to be in a retirement scheme like National Social Security Fund (NSSF) and to have an insurance cover that care for their medical need which was not the case in the past, plus many other laws and policies. We have the health insurance policies, NSSF, terminal benefits; we also belong to a Sacco. We rely on the labour laws that are anchored in the constitution...as trade unions representative; we cannot formulate or operate outside the Kenyan labour or industrial laws”. NSSF is a public pension fund, regulated by Kenyan law. Both employers and employees make statutory contributions as stipulated in the Retirement Act. Both parties are expected to make contributions of Ksh 200 each per month which translates to a Ksh 400 contribution for the policy holder”.

5.6.5 Dispute resolution channels
This section sought to establish whether Kenyan organisations have proper channels for dispute resolutions within their organisations in the era of globalisation.

ML 2 and COTU 1 and 2 respondents indicated that employers must establish talks and negotiate; they must avoid hard stances and always be ready to honour collective bargaining agreements. ML 2 indicated that: “workers perceive globalisation as a way of creating channels for dispute mechanism, but the perception seems to be different. In the event of dispute, they take hard stands; they don’t negotiate and try to meet the employees’ grievances”. COTU 1 said that: “employers have refused to get out of the old ways of doing things where they are used to abuse and underpay their workers, even though they have learned to give dialogue a chance to get solutions to the workers’ trade unions concerns through establishment of effective dispute resolution mechanism”. COTU 2 said that: “it is unfortunate in many cases simple things are resolved through a strike action. Employers are not well vast with labour laws in order to address the workers concern. They are not willing to listen, being practical during negotiations and have a human face when dealing with their workers concern”.

The respondents mentioned that Kenyan organisations have not established dispute resolution mechanisms during of globalisation, which should help to improve employment relations. COTU 1 further said that: “the employers are not willing to sit down with the union officials and discuss the workers concerns to avoid unnecessary
strikes, which are time consuming”. COTU 2 further said that: “employers should welcome dialogue and work within the labour laws framework. They should be ready and willing to listen to trade unions demand”.

5.6.5.1 Executive pay
The rationale for this section was to establish whether there is a wide margin between executive and employee pay, and to find out its consequence on employment relations in Kenyan workplace.

- In what ways have the present government sought to influence the level of pay settlement in Kenya, and how effective has the policy been?
The respondents indicated that the Coalition government has set up the Salary Remuneration Commission (SRC), which is mandated to review workers’ salaries and informs the government on adoption of minimum wage. ML 1 said that: “the pay gap between executive and employee continue to widen as executive remuneration races ahead of staff wage settlement”. The respondents’ view indicate that the increasing gap between executive and employee remuneration indicated in the Business Magazine remuneration survey (what corporates pay their top management), arises as call for the government to review the ballooning wage bill. ML 2 indicated that: “the government through the judiciary has revamped the industrial court with special judges to handle labour disputes between the employers and their workers”. ML1 indicated that: “the successful implementation of the remuneration policy and results of the evaluation programme will determine its effectiveness in Kenya”.

5.6.5.2 Globalisation and unemployment
The purpose of the section was to find out if globalisation has had an effect on the rising rate of unemployment.

- What has been the impact of rising unemployment on trade union membership in your organisation?
The respondents’ views show that unemployment has impacted individual union membership. COTU 1 said that: “the trade union operates through membership deduction...the strength of unions are measured by the number of membership they control. Some unions have a bigger bargaining power for its members because of their
numbers, and should they call a strike action the effect is felt hard, however of late due to the government reluctant to recruit more civil servants, the strength of trade unions has reduced”. COTU 2 said that: “I think for now the impact is not that big compared to a few years ago when there was massive retrenchment in both the public and private firms. But whenever it happens we lose members which are not good at all. This has had negative effects on the trade union because the trade unions survive purely on the membership contributions and when the workers are retrenched or there is no hiring of new employees then the unions become insolvent”.

The respondents’ views reveal that unemployment, as a result of globalisation, weakens trade unions activities because they get their funding from members’ fee deductions. COTU 1 indicated that: “unemployment brought about by globalisation leads to low wages because there are fewer jobs and many people looking for work, thus the few who get employed settle for the minimum salaries”. The respondents' indicated that unemployment denies trade union revenue to conduct their activities. COTU 2 said that: “when more people are in employment our revenue as trade union goes up and with that we are able to meet our obligations to them (workers) but with unemployment, there are no revenue and our membership shrink. COTU 1 said that: “when there is no employment yet there is retrenchment the union loose both members and revenue to carry out their mandate”.

5.6.5.3 Globalisation and employers’ recruiting strategies
This section sought to understand how globalisation has impacted recruitment strategies, which are employed by Kenyan organisations when recruiting to fill vacancies.

- What type of recruiting strategies have you used in recent times? Has globalisation influenced your recruiting strategy in any way?

Some respondents’ reported that most organisations are currently hiring contract and casual workers because of the low costs involved. The responses seemed to indicate that they mostly have a lean permanent work force. KAM 2 said that: “hiring on contract and especially for the manufacturing industries is done through agencies. The agencies does the recruiting for you, allowing you to skip the process of hiring or training...they only get people on short contract to meet their need. We use competitive recruitment
from the open labour market”. The respondents’ views revealed that individual companies or organisations recruit competitively from the labour market. KAM 1 said that: “we have adopted labour laws that govern how individual employees are recruited by their respective trade unions”. The responses show that some firms hire the services of private consultants to recruit on their behalf. Internal job advertisements (IJAs) also make logic because it is a method to recognise good performance and reward loyalty. The cost of recruitment is then minimized as advertisements can be done via emails or announcements posted on notice boards. KEPSA 2 said that: “like for us we hire the management staff through a consultancy to avoid bias and nepotism”. FKE 2 said that: “most companies employ directly from the job market themselves, and few hire recruitment agencies services to recruit on their behalf”.

5.6.5.4 Relationship between management and trade unions since globalisation

It was deemed necessary to find out if there has been any an improvement in the relationship between management and trade unions in Kenyan organisations since globalisation

- Describe your relationship with the trade unions of globalisation. Is it cooperative or combative?

The respondents’ views indicate that their relationship with trade unions is one that is somewhat cooperative; the respondents indicated that employers and trade unions hold negotiations whenever there are any labour disputes. In this regard, FKE 1 said that: “we relate in a cooperative manner, we need each other to work harmoniously. As the umbrella body, whenever there is a dispute between the trade union and the employer we are called upon to mediate or bring the two worrying parties to the negotiation table”. FKE 2 remarked that: “we have a very cordial relationship, we advise employers to solve labour disputes with their workforce immediately they arise”. This can sometimes take the form of a partnership and understanding among the organisation and the trade unions which identifies their common interests and objectives”.

The respondents’ views show that trade unionists are activist workers who endeavour to work in harmony in order to achieve their goals. COTU 1 said that: “the strength is derived in togetherness and that is where unions get their power”. KAM 1 said that: “we are in good terms with the trade unions...in the past five years we have worked together
and conflicts have been solved very fast thus solution reached as a result of close working relationship.

5.6.5.5 Globalisation and trade unions
The rationale for this section was to establish if globalisation has affected the effectiveness of trade unions in representing employees’ needs to employers.

- Do you feel that trade unions are still playing an effective role in improving the relationship between employers and employees?

The interviews show that most unions have helped to improve the living standards of workers. In this regard, COTU 2 had the following to say: “yes, I am positive about their representation of their members needs. They have to or otherwise they will be voted out of office. They monitor implementation of the labour laws touching on collective bargaining agreements and champion the rights of workers”. COTU 1 said that: “yes they represent the workers at disciplinary and grievance hearing...or in case their members have a dispute, they provide legal support in our courts of law”.

The respondents’ views show that the unions carry employees’ concerns to management and thereafter take the feedback back to the employees. They act as the go between management and worker; they are the employees’ eyes, ears and mouth piece. The respondents’ views show that the role of trade unions have gradually changed over time, since globalisation.

5.6.6 Effect of globalisation on casual workers
It was deemed crucial to sought information on the impact of globalisation in respect of casual employment in Kenya, with a view to consider the challenges that have been brought about by this kind of employment relations.

- Has globalisation triggered an increasing use of casual workers? What are the challenges/problems that casual employees face in your organisation?

The responses indicate that casual employees are not in regular employment and thus do not have a steady income. It further states that they are vulnerable to financial problems, which lead to unstable families. They are exploited as a cheap source of labour that has minimum costs. These employees greatly contribute to a firm's
profitability, yet they are remunerated poorly compared to permanent employees, as most of them do not belong to any trade union and their employment is very insecure. Hence, KEPSA 2 said that: “the wage gaps are so huge between the causal labours compared to the permanently employed staff. They also don't benefit from health care systems and other incentives that companies give their permanent employees”. The respondents indicated that the numbers of casual employees are decreasing because the organisations are automating most of their work. Also, the casuals do not have any representation because they do not belong to any trade union. For casual workers, there is a lack of job security and they have no union to champion their concerns to the management. They do not belong to any trade union to assist them to bargain for better wages and working conditions. In similar vein, ML 2 remarked that: “hiring and firing of casual workers is not defined in the labour laws of Kenya...they have no job security and that they are not allowed to join any trade unions”.

5.6.6.1 Globalisation and workplace concerns
The rationale for this section was to establish the difference in workplace concerns between the private and public sector in Kenya, since globalisation.

• What are your main workplace concerns in the wake of globalisation?
The interviews revealed that workers want management to support them to improve on their current skills so that they remain relevant in their workplaces. Another respondent stated that employers should address low salaries, discrimination and harassment by management in terms of work promotions. From this perspective, COTU 1 said that: “I think that the Kenyan employees face bullying, harassment and/or discrimination. Further, employees are not compensated as they should today as compared to before. The management get very huge salaries at the expense of those that do the actual work of production in most organisations”.

COTU 2 added that: “for a long time, I feel that the workers development and skills in an organisation need to ultimately improve their output. But you will discover that the management are the ones who attend workshops or training seminars today compared to the past yet it is the workers on the one hand who really need that skill”. The interviews showed a lack of social facilities for workers, and therefore, a need for employers to provide social welfare and facilities, which can be used to motivate
workers. The study revealed that companies do not adhere to the set out procedure to reward and promote their workers. The study shows that there is rampant nepotism, favouritism and bribery both in government and the corporate sector today compared to the past. Gender equality is not observed to the full, and when it comes to promotions, males are not considered as much as their female colleagues. This is in line with the Kenyan Constitution of 2010 that requires all employers to ensure that one third of the positions are occupied by women.

5.7 Summary

The chapter presented the quantitative analysis in phase one and qualitative analysis in phase two. The quantitative analysis revealed that globalisation has had a mixed impact in terms of employment relations in Kenya. The results show that employees are given a free hand to make decisions, whereas management freely allows workers to exercise their fundamental rights of association, thus union members are given opportunities to attend union meetings.

The results further indicate that employees independently take decisions regarding their routine work activities, which positively affects the industrial democracy component of employment relations. On the contrary, within the era of globalisation, unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards, and this affects the relationship between employee and employer. The results show that outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management’s decision, and that there has been a rising trend in retrenchments in recent times owing to globalisation, which also negatively affects employment relations. As a result, due process of fairness is not followed by management where retrenchment occurs, and the data showed that employee representatives are not engaged in the retrenchment exercise, which widens the rift between employers and employees.

The qualitative results indicated that unemployment, as a result of globalisation, has greatly affected the trade union membership; thus, the study reveals that unemployment weakens unions’ activities, since funding that comes from members’ fee deductions, is reduced. The interviews established that most organisations do indeed have insurance and pension policies that are provided for in the national labour laws of Kenya, which is
a positive impact of globalisation as this was not the case in the past. It further established that, internally, companies, through the worker unions, have established safety policies that protect workers more than before.

The responses show that technological changes, as a result of globalisation, have resulted in loss of managerial jobs and other jobs of employees who are deemed as incompetent. Jobs that used to be done by many people, are now done by a few workers as a result of globalisation. On the contrary, some interview responses seemed to contradict this assertion. For instance, responses from the quantitative research indicate that strike actions have reduced, while those from the qualitative data show that strike actions have increased. The next chapter discusses the research findings.
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction
This chapter discusses the study’s research findings based on the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, and corroborates it with previous literature sources. The research addressed four objectives, namely:

- To find out how globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya;
- To examine recent trends and developments in global workplaces, in order to establish their impact on employment relations in Kenya;
- To study how globalisation has influenced employment regulations/deregulations in Kenya; and
- To provide insight towards framing a policy to address the employment relations challenges that have been triggered by globalisation in Kenya.

The first three objectives are discussed in this chapter, while the last objective is discussed in the next and final chapter as it entails the recommendations of the study. Alongside discussion of results in relation to the objectives, this chapter also covers the limitations of the study, as well as implications of the findings. The discussion is presented below.

6.2 Demographic data related issues
In this study the number of male respondents was higher at 60.7% compared to females at 39.3%. This is an indication that most Kenyan organisations have engaged more males in their workforce than females during the study period, which also falls within the era of globalisation. However, this finding seems to contradict Kaburu’s (2007) position that more women became increasingly engaged in formal employment as opposed to their male colleagues within the same period.

A majority of the participants (44.9%) were in the youthful age of between 18-29 years. This group had worked for the organisations under study for less than five years. For instance, 11% of the respondents indicated that they worked for the organisations for less than 1 year; 28.4% had worked for the organisations for between 1 and 2 years; 28% had worked for the organisations between 2 and 5 years; 23% had worked for the
organisations for between 5 and 10 years; and 9.7% had worked for the organisations for over 10 years.

It was found that most of the organisations that were investigated have engaged their staff on a permanent basis, as 51.8% of the respondents were permanent staff. However, the rate of contract and temporary employees seems to be on the rise as well. For instance, 32.5% of employees in the organisations under study were employed on a contract basis, while 8.5% of employees were engaged on a temporary basis. This is a reflection that since globalisation, a majority of Kenyan organisations have begun to engage more and more employees on a contract and temporary basis, which is quite different from what was obtainable before the dawn of globalisation, when organisations engaged more of their employees on a permanent basis. This finding seems to align with Kaburu’s (2007) study, which found that most organisations are engaging more casual workers because of the low costs for their labour. The finding also concurs with Neikirk (2008) who found that most organisations currently engage employees either on a part-time, temporary, freelance or independent contractor basis.

In terms of job qualifications, the findings show that a majority of Kenyan employees were qualified for the positions that they held. For instance, 9.9% of the employees possess a certificate as their highest level of qualification, while 28.8% had attained a diploma, and 49.1% had a bachelor’s degree as their highest qualification. The results further show that 10.8% of the employees had attained master’s degrees, while 1.4% had doctorate degrees. This also signifies that most of the respondents for this study are certainly qualified to have participated in this study.

6.3 Establishing the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya
The findings, which relate to the perceptions of Kenya workers regarding the impact of globalisation on employment relations, are discussed below.

6.3.1 Globalisation and industrial democracy in Kenya
One of the key elements of industrial democracy is workers’ participation in decision making. Despite the fact that workers are permitted to take part in decision making in most of the organisations that were investigated, it seems that they are not involved in
making key decisions. That has been left to the prerogative of management. For instance, 28% as opposed to 2.9% of the respondents said that they were not involved in making key decisions. Nevertheless, in their views, COTU 1 and 2 and KEPSA 1 indicated that employees are represented through their trade union leaders in decision making meetings, whilst the views of workers are often taken to management through their immediate supervisors. However, KEPSA 2 stated that: “employees only participate in decision making through their union leaders that champion their grievances and bargain for their benefits and working conditions. The union leaders act as a bridge for the workers to channel their concern to the management”. Hence, COTU 1 remarked: “we hold regular consultation with the managers and leaders to discuss issues that affect them and get or give updates on the same if any. We have introduced suggestion boxes where employees can directly drop their written suggestion or concerns for consideration. Also the workers are encouraged to call or visit the offices physically to present their concerns; this has enhanced employees’ participation today than before”. This is a sign that there has been an improvement in employment relations between employers and employees in most of the Kenyan organisations under study, in terms of their participation in decision making in the era of globalisation.

Since globalisation, consultation with workers seems to have improved, as most Kenyan organisations usually hold quarterly meetings where the employees are given a chance to raise any burning issues, which affect them. This was reflected by 48% of the respondents who agreed that there are always joint consultative meetings between employers and employees, as opposed to 19.1% who disagreed with the statement that they have joint consultative meetings between employers and employees. This is a sign of an improvement in employment relations in Kenya during the era of globalisation, since allowing workers’ participation in decision making is certainly a positive step towards harmonious employment relations. However, this only applies to permanent employees, as observed by COTU 1. Casual and contract workers are not properly represented in spite of the fact that they form the bulk of employees during the era of globalisation. COTU 2 noted that: “the union only represent the permanent employees’ when discussing issues with the management, this leaves out employees on casual and those on contract basis”. This seems to contradict the findings of Brewster (2008) who
indicates that all workers are free to associate with one another, provided that it is lawful.

It was also interesting to find that employees’ opinions are taken quite seriously by management, as indicated by 32.1% of the respondents who agreed that employee’s opinions have indeed been taken seriously by management since globalisation. Konrad and Mangel (2000) assert that organisations expect employees to make additional efforts. Thus, employers should invest in their workers by improving their working conditions in order to obtain results. Consultation between management and employees goes a long way towards improving employment relations, as employees feel then appreciated when they are given opportunities to contribute their ideas. The current study’s findings show that management and workers in most Kenyan organisations do often hold joint consultative meetings in the era of globalisation, which is reflected by 44.3% of the respondents who agreed with this statement, as opposed to 11.6% of the respondents who disagreed. This represents something positive within the era of globalisation.

Even though trade unions represent their members by expressing their members’ position to employers, they sometimes go against that representation by serving their own interests, as opposed to their members’ interests. Sometimes union officials make independent decisions on behalf of their members without consulting them, as hinted by 32.5% of the respondents who indicated that the unions independently take decisions on collective bargaining and strike action. This sometimes has a negative ripple effect on employment relations. Hennebert and Bourque (2011) state that an organised trade union is a sign of maturity in democracy. However, in the Kenyan case, the attitudes of most union officials seems to have, to an extent, stifled industrial democracy, since most of them do not give members an opportunity to express their views on how they wish to be represented in terms of collective bargaining and strike action. This was reflected by 39.5% of the respondents who agreed that there is a level of independence by unions in taking decisions on employment relations, as opposed to 23% of the respondents who disagreed that unions independently take decisions on employment relations.
Unions are supposed to present management with the views of workers and not the views of the union leaders. Thus, members meet with unions to express their views that should be raised with management. This was confirmed by 44% of the respondents who agreed that they are given opportunities to attend union meetings. In other words, what is presented to management by the unions are supposed to be the workers’ views.

Roberts (2006) argues that a modern brand of trade union leadership is key for effective representation of workers. This is also in line with GoK’s (2007) study, which states that trade unions act as a means of representing workers’ interests. Unions are supposed to engage in bargaining agreements for their members.

Kenyan workers are not consulted when management outsource for services or activities. This assertion was supported by 46.4% of the respondents who agreed that outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management’s prerogative as opposed to 2.9% who disagreed. Participation of employees in determining their welfare and security is important. However, employee welfare and job security in Kenya seems to have been affected negatively owing to the fact that employees have no say in outsourcing decisions in most organisations. Outsourcing is a cost cutting mechanism of the global economy, which has negatively impacted on job security of workers in most countries, including Kenya.

There appears to be a progressive working relations between employees and their supervisors, since employees are allowed to freely discuss issues that affect them, as supported by 39.3% of the respondents who indicated that they are allowed to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them, as opposed to 17.4% of the respondents who disagreed, implying that employees are allowed to freely express their opinions. Thus, Kenyan organisations should do more to enable their employees to freely discuss issues, which affect them. The current study reveals that, currently, employees are allowed to take decisions on their own concerning routine work activities without consulting management, as indicated by 30.6% of the respondents who agreed that employees independently take decisions on their routine work activities, notably since globalisation. This, in turn, positively affects relations between employees and management.
6.3.2 Globalisation and labour unionism in Kenya

In the wake of globalisation, employees have been allowed by the management to freely associate within the organisations. This has positively affected their morale and has thus positively impacted on employment relations, as indicated by 36.6% of the respondents who agreed that management has freely allowed workers to exercise their fundamental right to association.

The findings show that globalisation has indeed opened new grounds for labour unionism in Kenya, even though the level is not too impressive. However, trade union membership has increased since globalisation. This is supported by 40.8% of the respondents who agreed that union membership has increased. An increase in membership shows the confidence that employees have in the trade unions, in agitating for their rights in Kenya, even though the employers seem to have been treating trade unions with impunity. The findings show that trade unions operate through membership fee deductions and that unions are strong when they have more members, for example, KNUT has more bargaining power for its members because of their numbers, and when they call a strike, it is effective. Rising unemployment since globalisation seems to have weakened trade union activities because they receive their funding from members’ fee deductions. Unemployment leads to low wages because there are fewer jobs, and many people are seeking work, which greatly affects union membership.

Omolo (2007) study found that trade unions agitate for better and improved labour inspection. Similarly, the findings show that trade unions have contributed positively towards workers’ welfare since globalisation, as supported by 41% of the respondents who agreed that trade unions have improved their working conditions, which is a positive impact. However, the findings contradict Nzuve’s (2007) study, which found that trade unions in Kenya have not improved working conditions. Irungu (2011) argues that something different, namely average wages have been adjusted upward by 3.5%. This may be a sign that, to an extent, trade unionism has had some positive impact on employment relations in Kenya since globalisation, since it has improved the working conditions of the represented workers.
During the period of globalisation, negotiation between employers and the unions in Kenya has been determined by the level of pressure that is exerted by the union, as shown by 39.5% of the respondents who agreed that unions have exerted a great influence on wage negotiations between management and employees since globalisation. This finding is in line with Hayte and Stoevska (2010) who purports that in Kenya there is Central Organisation of Trade Unions (COTU), which was formed by the Presidential Ministerial Commission to safeguard workers, and they exert pressure on the employers to award their members pay increases.

Therefore, it is very clear that the contribution of trade unions have not diminished in Kenya owing to the increasing use of technology in the era of globalisation. This is reflected by 32.1% of the respondents who disagreed that the impact of trade unions has diminished owing to the use of technology. In fact, to an extent, technology has enhanced the activities of trade unions. For instance, in the past, trade unions had to use the old means of communication, both for employees and employers. However, with technology comes more sophisticated ways of engaging with employees and employers. However, in some instances technology has weakened the relevance of trade unions, as employers can sometimes engage directly with employees without consulting the trade unions to resolve issues. Hence, technology has changed the way of doing things. In some instances it has a positive impact on the effectiveness of trade unions. However, in other instances the relevance of trade unions may be questioned in the face of new sophisticated technologies, which allow workers to work in strategic locations without being physically present, which affect the membership and power base of unions.

6.3.3 Globalisation and employee remunerations/rewards in Kenya
The best way to motivate employees is through adequate remuneration/rewards; this has been one of the effective factors of enhancing employment relations, particularly in the era of globalisation. There is a huge discrepancy between what organisations pay their management staff compared to the rest of the employees. This is reflected by 60.7% of the respondents who agreed that the wage discrepancy between senior management and non-management in their organisations is quite high. The high wage gap affects staff morale as staff feel that they are doing most of the work, yet are not
well rewarded, which in turn affects the relationship between employees and senior management, and in turn affects the performance of workers.

There is no merit when rewarding employees, as management normally makes unilateral decisions when determining rewards, as testified by 39.3% of the respondents who agreed with this statement. Thus, the findings indicate that merit is not normally followed when rewarding employees, and this negatively affects employment relations as employees become discontent with the reward system and their productivity slows down. The findings show that employees are paid their dues in accordance with the employment contract and this agreement was confirmed by 44.5% of the respondents who agreed with this statement. Being paid what was agreed upon goes a long way towards boosting employees’ morale. Thus, they feel that the employers are honouring their contractual obligations, which makes them deliver their tasks to the employer’s satisfaction, and this enhances the labour relationship.

It was found that the provision of welfare support to employees has been a positive gesture since globalisation, which seals ties between employers and employees. For instance, 44.1% of the respondents agreed to the fact that employers do provide welfare support to employees for survival, as opposed to 17% of the respondents who disagreed. The finding conforms to Egels-Zanden’s (2009) study, which found that to survive; all organisations need diverse forms of tactical changes, organisational structures, administration systems, and an organisation culture that includes provision of welfare support. The finding is supported by KAM 1 who stated that: “companies operating in Kenya have a specific policy that covers the welfare and responsibilities of workers. The employees have insurance and pension policies that are anchored in the labour laws of Kenya”. Since globalisation, Kenya has streamlined the operations of savings and credit cooperative societies, and encouraged employees to join registered organisations. Workers that have permanent contracts have medical cover and a pension scheme, but casual employees are not covered by their employers. The presence of labour laws that were passed in parliament to protect workers, guide and safeguard all employees, particularly in the era of globalisation. Currently, the labour law requires all workers to be in a retirement scheme such as the pension, as well as health insurance schemes that caters for their medical needs.
6.3.4 Globalisation and working conditions in Kenya

Work pressures on workers have increased in Kenyan organisations since globalisation, which might have been caused by the rapid retrenchments that were witnessed in the recent past. A total of 42.0% of the respondents agreed that works pressures have increased in comparison to the past. The findings are supported by McCourt and Eldridge (2004) who postulate that globalisation can be said to have led to retrenchments owing to global competition, while downsizing results in the remaining employees facing extra work pressures, which in turn negatively affect relations between employers and employees. The findings also reveal that free labour movement leads to job satisfaction, as 45.3% of the respondents agreed that free labour movement allows for resource allocation in Kenya, as opposed to 7.2% of the respondents who disagreed. The findings are further supported by Hjalager and Andersen (2001) who purport that Kenya has lost key professionals to developed countries, where they are well remunerated.

6.3.5 Globalisation, labour disputes, strike action and resolution of employment disputes/conflict in Kenya

One way of settling employee/employer differences is through dispute or conflict resolution. Since globalisation, there has been an increase in conflicts between employees and employers. Most of the disputes relate to wages and working conditions.

Since globalisation, Kenya has endeavored to strengthen channels of dispute resolution, as indicated by 44.1% of the respondents who agreed that there is a proper channel for dispute resolution in their workplace, as opposed to 12.2% who disagreed; this in turn improves the confidence of employees in their employers, and thus positively affects their relationship. However, since globalisation, employers have continued to underpay their workers. In the wake of globalisation, there has been an increase by Kenyan organisations referring disputes between them and employees to third parties for resolution, as shown by 28.8% of the respondents who agreed that disputes are resolved by referring them to third parties for reconciliation, while 30.2% agreed that disputes are resolved by referring them to third parties for mediation, and 29.4% agreed that disputes are
indeed resolved by referring these to third parties for arbitration. This shows some level of trust among Kenyan organisations to increase the referral of disputes to non-partisan parties for resolution, thus gaining confidence from their employees which in turn improves relations.

The findings show that there has been an increase on the part of Kenyan organisations to summarily dismiss workers and replace them with new workers if they partake in strike actions, as shown by 28.2% of the respondents who agreed with this statement, as opposed to 21.9% who disagreed. The findings are supported by the ITUC (2012) study that established that summarily dismissal was applied to employees who participate in strike actions or who join trade unions. Replacing employees for partaking in strikes have adversely impacted employment relations in Kenya, since the strikes are supposed to be allowed legally as a means of expressing their (employees) grievances. The positive side is that strikes have reduced in recent past, thus the number of employees that are laid off as a result of strikes has decreased. This finding contradicts the study by ML 2 who said that: “in the event of dispute, the employers take hard stands; they don’t negotiate and try to meet the employees’ grievances”.

There has been a decrease in strikes since globalisation, as shown by 36.4% of the respondents who disagreed that strikes have increased in recent times at their workplace as opposed to 17.2% who agreed. However, this is not in alignment with the finding in the qualitative phase of the study, which shows that in the recent past, strike actions have increased with the aim of forcing management to listen to employees’ grievances. In most cases these strikes have led to increased wages for workers, which negatively affect employment relations between employer and employee. Increased strike actions since globalisation has the tendency to strain the already sensitive relations between the union members and management of most organisations in Kenya. The finding confirm Ukpere and Slabbert’s (2007) study, which revealed that the eminent dissatisfaction among employees within the current global economic system can be seen from the increasing number of industrial disputes witnessed in major cities across the globe. COTU 1 observed that: “strike actions are in most cases the last resort by the unions to push the management into agreeing to the employee’s demands”.
Poor communication has been the main cause of strikes, as shown by 36.4% of the respondents who agreed that strikes occur owing to poor communication between management and unions, as opposed to 15.9% who disagreed. The finding is supported by the ITUC (2012) study of 2012, which found that workers were angered by the government’s pronouncement of a 12.5% minimum wage increase, which was far below the union’s demand for a 60% increment owing to a rise in living costs. It was found that setting higher minimum wages and strengthening the industrial courts help to address labour disputes. In line with this, the government increased the minimum wage of civil servants, and at the same time reinforced the labour laws. ML 2 stated that: “the present government has set up salary remuneration commission (SRC) which is mandated to review salary for workers and advise the government on the national minimum wage”. This is good to allow for harmonious employment relations to exit.

In most cases these strikes have contributed to higher wages for workers, but on the contrary it affects the cost of living because the prices of commodities have as well increased as a result of wage increases. The strikes seem to have strained the already sensitive relationships between union members and the managements of their respective organisations. The strikes have helped workers to become more informed about their rights and when the employers do not want to listen to them, they resort to strike action. In the past two years, the strikes have increased because the cost of living has increased, yet employers do not want to equally increase workers’ pay.

6.4 Recent trends and developments in the workplace since globalisation and their impact on employment relations in Kenya
Since the advent of globalisation, there have been innumerable new trends in the global workplace, especially Kenya in particular, which have shaped employment relations. The findings, which relate to some of these new trends are discussed within the context of the sub-headings that follow below.

6.4.1 Globalisation and increasing mergers and acquisitions in Kenya
Most organisations in Kenya have resorted to mergers and acquisitions to boost their performance since globalisation; many organisations have established similar or almost similar lines of products or operations, and thus create stiff competition, thereby making
mergers and acquisitions a viable option for taking over the less performing organisations in order to withstand global competition.

It is clear from the current finding that since globalisation, organisational mergers and acquisitions seems to have accelerated the rate of unemployment in Kenya, as mergers and acquisitions is also part of the lean production of global economic logic. This position is supported by 74.9% of the respondents who agreed that organisational mergers and acquisitions has increased levels of unemployment, as opposed to 4.8% of the respondents who disagreed with the statement. There is a growing trend in employees' layoffs owing to organisational restructuring as a consequence of the new economic logics of globalisation. A total of 49.7% of the respondents agreed with this above statement. The finding is in line with Ukpere and Slabbert (2009) who observed that current organisational behaviours in terms of downsizing, re-engineering and organisational combinations as a direct consequence of global competition, have adverse effect on employees.

6.4.2 Globalisation, downsizing, rightsizing, and accelerated retrenchments in Kenya

In the wake of globalisation, many organisations in Kenya have become pressurized to remain competitive. This has mostly emerged from new entrants in the markets, as they have employed sophisticated means of operations that guarantee them profitability at a lower cost. Thus, organisations that are finding it difficult to break-even have resorted to downsizing, rightsizing and accelerated retrenchments in order to remain afloat in the competitive race within the global economy.

Globalisation has contributed to the high level of retrenchments in Kenya, as indicated by 44.7% of the respondents who agreed that there has been an increasing trend in retrenchments in recent times owing to globalisation, as opposed to 12.2% who disagreed. In the wake of globalisation, workers bear a lot of work pressure for fear of being retrenched, because retrenchment comes with company restructuring. Those who leave the company are psychologically affected and those that remain are assigned new responsibilities and are sometimes forced to work additional hours to make up for the lost workforce. The findings concur with McCourt and Eldridge (2004) who argue
that globalisation has contributed to retrenchments because competition levels have metamorphosed to global competition. Hence, workers who remain after downsizing are often forced to work extra hours to make up for the lost workforce, which greatly affects employment relations, and this is in line with Guest (2007) who says that downsizing alters the work environment of employees and managers who remain in the organisation; usually known as survivors.

The findings show that as a result of downsizing, retrenchments create panic and a lack of interest in work, since employees do not know their fate before the retrenchment exercise is completed. Most workers seem to have lost interest in their job because they have divided their attention to look for other jobs before they are laid off. COTU 1 remarked that: “there is stress to the few remaining workforce since they have to put in more time to maintain the production”. COTU 1 further indicated that: “retrenchment creates disharmony among the workers especially those earmarked for retrenchment because they feel unfairly targeted, It exerts pressure on the remaining workers to work more hours to make up for the loss through retrenchment”.

With an increase in retrenchments in the era of globalisation, employment relations between employees and employers in some Kenyan organisations seem to have deteriorated. The findings concur with Guest (2007) who correctly observed that employees, including managers, are more fearful than ever of losing their jobs. Fear of unemployment can reduce innovation, dampen employee loyalty, and lead to poor performance. Employees lose confidence in their employers and thus work in fear, as they do not know whether they will be retrenched next.

Irungu (2011) indicates that employees have little control when retrenchments are carried out. There is no fairness by management when they execute the retrenchment process, which has far reaching consequences on staff morale, as shown by 21.3% of the respondents who disagreed, as opposed to 19.5% who agreed that due process of fairness is followed by management when retrenchment occurs. The findings concur with Guest (2007) who found that downsizing is always stressful and greatly alters an employee’s financial position, while Cascio (2010) states that job morale decreases following layoff. The same applies to organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and
job involvement. The study is further supported by Cascio (2010) who argue that stress levels increase as employees feel unappreciated by the employers. Retrenchments have rendered many people jobless (loses sources of livelihoods), and have also created panic and stress amongst the workforce, whilst it reduces morale among workers because there is uncertainty about their job security. In addition, it creates disharmony among employees, as some have a feeling of being victimised. Some indicated that it exerts pressure on the remaining workers who have to work more hours to make up for the loss because of retrenchments. The finding is in harmony with Guest (2007) who state that as a result of retrenchments, morale and commitment were adversely affected, stress had increased at work and loyalty to employers and the amount of enjoyment gained from work had decreased. Cascio (2010) reports that study after study has found that job morale reduces after a layoff programme, as does organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement.

Retrenchments go hand in hand with company restructuring, while those who leave the company are sad and those who remain are assigned new responsibilities. Since globalisation, companies seem to be saving on operational costs through retrenchments, but the workforce is reduced which mean that there is additional pressure on the remaining workforce to deliver in order to maintain optimum production. Thus, during retrenchments there are those that benefit such as those who have better skills and experience and get promoted or retained, while their colleagues who have less or no skills are sent home through the retrenchment process. However, the findings show that there seems to be some degree of fair treatment of employees during the retrenchment exercise. Employees are given all their dues to afford them some level of comfort. This was supported by 43.5% of the respondents as opposed to 9.9% of the respondents who agreed that employees are paid their termination dues before leaving employment, which eases the discontent among the remaining employees. This finding seems to contradict Roberts (2006) who found that many African administrations are prone to corruption, which leads to workers who are retrenched leaving without being paid their final dues.

Despite the fact that employees are to some extent treated fairly during retrenchment exercises in the era globalisation, they or their representatives have less or no say in
the retrenchment process. This was confirmed by 29.4% of the respondents who disagreed, as opposed to 20.5% who agreed that employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise. COTU 1 indicated that: “one way of reducing the tension is that employers should involve the employees in the retrenchment exercise. This is because the employees feels that retrenchment is a negative exercise and therefore they need to be convinced that this is good for the organisation and for the remaining employees, failure to which the relationship between employers and employees deteriorates”. The current finding shows that retrenchment has brought benefits to organisations by saving costs, but conversely, it has negatively affected employment relations, as most of the workers have been deprived of their livelihoods, and those who remain have additional workloads and live in fear of being the next target in subsequent retrenchment exercises.

6.4.3 Globalisation and modern technology in the workplace in Kenya

There exists an increase in application of technology in the recent past, which has brought about some benefits to Kenyan organisations, as indicated by 40.6% of the respondents who agreed that increased use of technology has reduced workloads, as opposed to 16.8% of the respondents who disagreed. It is clear that one of the major changes that has been triggered by globalisation is technological advancement, and in the current era most organisations are embracing advanced technology, which goes a long way towards improving efficiency, cutting costs and thus increasing productivity. This may result in mixed effects on employment relations, which depends on its effect on workers. With decreases in workloads, employees can now use less energy to achieve their desired goals, thus impacting positively on the employment relations. The finding concurs with Clott (2004) observation that advancements in technology have improved the working environments.

Technology has improved output, but in the process many workers have lost their jobs and some are still being laid-off owing to their incompetence to use advanced technologies such as computers. Technological changes have resulted in loss of jobs among some managers and senior staff that lack technological competencies. The finding conforms to Clott (2004, p.153) who says that practically every workplace in the world is impacted by the “intelligent machine”. Jobs that used to be done by many
people are now restricted to a few individuals. Despite technological advancements, staff that are employed to take over the position are paid salaries that those without the skills had received. Employees are sometimes slow to embrace modern technology, because it is only management, in most cases, that attend training, yet they expect workers to learn from them and apply the skills, which is problematic at times. Fashoyin (2008) state that owing to the high concentration of capital, modern workplaces have become exposed to the risk of human error or sabotage. Technology has led to more competition and uncertainty with regard to job security. Without the right skills, workers have no future in their current employment. More and more skilled ICT labourers are coming into the market, pushing aside old manual workforces that have not yet reached retirement age. Technology seems to have improved communication, decision making and productivity in organisations. For instance, management does not need to be in the office to access information and make decisions. Due to the introduction of modern technology, workers have been forced to seek more knowledge. It has also encouraged efficiency, and companies are now more profitable as a result of improved quantity of service in various departments. Communications have been made easy and fast, and thus have enhanced fast and accurate decision making.

However, it is necessary to mention that technology, in the form of computers, is good as it changes the way that things are done, unlike in the times of typewriters when it could take one a long time to correct a typed mistake. Computers are faster and efficient in correcting mistakes. Computers have further assisted management to make decisions in real time because information is shared in real time. Clott (2004) advances that technology has contributed to the spread in globalisation, thus influencing the way that work is done. There has been an increase in computer based management technology, which has resulted in redundancy in the workplace. This is supported by the current finding that technology has contributed to employee redundancy, as indicated by 33.5% of the respondents who agreed that increased use of technology has led to the redundancy of workers, as opposed to 19.9% of the respondents who disagreed. The finding is supported by Clott (2004) who purports that today almost all work is performed by the use of computers. With an increase in redundancy, comes job losses. Thus, in spite of the positive impact of technology on work, it also adversely affects employment.
relations when workers become redundant and hence retrenched owing to rapid technological innovations and incursions.

With regard to Kenya, technology seems to have negatively affected labour relations, as 35.4% of the respondents in the current study agreed, as opposed to 14.5% who disagreed that technological development has negatively affected labour relations. However, Kenyan youths seem to be conversant with technological changes that have accelerated since globalisation. Most young generation workers in Kenya tend to use modern technologies with ease to improve on their performance and productivity, which has the likelihood of improving employment relations at that level in Kenya. Technology has brought about benefits to Kenyan organisations through reductions in operational costs, which in turn has had positive implications for the bottom-line. Technology has further reduced employees’ workloads; however, this has come with some negative implications, namely re-engineering, retrenchments and rightsizing, as few employees are now required to undertake jobs that were previously performed by a number of employees, thereby adversely affecting employment and employment relations in Kenya.

6.4.4 Globalisation and outsourcing in Kenya
Most organisations in Kenya have increased engagement in outsourcing services since globalisation as a way of reducing the costs of operations in order to maximise profits and remain competitive. In line with this, 44.7% of the respondents in the current study agreed that currently, most of the peripheral work and sometimes core activities in most organisations are outsourced compared to the past, as opposed to 15.3% who disagreed. This concurs with Clott (2004) who states that the importance of outsourcing is that a firm gives away the production line, which is not its main activity and, which can be done at a lower cost. This has some negative implications for harmonious employment relations. Workers are more comfortable in organisations if they are continuously engaged. In this way they are assured of continuity and by extension payment at the end of the month; however, in order to cut costs, most organisations have decided to outsource some services as opposed to engaging their staff to undertake those jobs, which concurs with Neikirk (2008) who argues that in the global era, organisations outsource even their core functions to cut costs. This impacts
negatively on employment relations, since employees feel that they may be declared redundant if their work is no longer available.

6.4.5 Globalisation, labour brokering, contract, casual and temporary employment in Kenya

Since globalisation, Kenyan organisations have increased the engagement of labour brokers to recruit employees on their behalf. Furthermore, there is an increasing tendency for organisations to engage employees on a contract and/or casual basis as opposed to a permanent basis, while others are engaged on a temporary basis.

Most Kenyan organisations currently engage labour brokers to secure the services of various employees. In other words, they engage the services of employment bureaus, which they believe have the expertise to recruit the best employees. They then engage the employees on a definite period of time, either less than one year or more depending on the organisation, and after the agreed period either the contract can be renewed or the services are terminated. Other employees are engaged on a casual basis, where they do not accrue any benefits and they are not assured of the work for a definite period of time, while still others are engaged on a temporary basis. A temporary contract is akin to a casual agreement. The only variance is that for the temporary one there is a definite timeframe, even though shorter than the casual contract. For both casual and temporary contracts, the employees are not assured of their job security, which impacts negatively on employment relations.

The findings show that there has been an upsurge in the number of labour brokers in Kenya. For instance, 50.3% of the respondents in the current study agreed that there have been an upsurge in the number of labour brokers since globalisation. Different organisations use different means of recruiting employees in Kenya, and most of them prefer to use an independent person or organisation to recruit on their behalf, as this eliminates biases and ensures on getting the right candidate for the position. However, for some, this labour broker comes at a cost to employees, as they are forced to part with a certain amount of money, which affects the way that they perceive their employers.
Kenya has experienced a rise in the number of labour brokers in recent times. Labour brokers also sometimes help people to earn a living in the face of rising unemployment. For instance, 35.2% of respondents agreed as opposed to 17.6% who disagreed that labour brokers help people to earn a living, where high unemployment is prevalent, while 30% of the respondents agreed as opposed to 18% who disagreed that employees are usually recruited by an employment bureau. The findings show that labour brokers assist employees who feel that they have helped to link them with prospective employers. However, employees have to pay brokers a fee for their services in this regard.

6.4.6 Globalisation, part-time and flexi-time work in Kenya

Globalisation has brought about changes with regard to the working time of organisations in Kenya. Employers have resorted to engaging employees on a part-time basis, where the employees do not need to be at the company on a permanent basis, but are only called upon when there is work for them, after which their services are discontinued. Conversely, employees are engaged on flexi-time, whereby they do not have to work between 08:00-17:00, but can work any time as long as they achieve their targets.

Kenyan organisations treat their employees differently when it comes to assigning work schedules, depending on how they are paid; this is shown by 40.8% of the respondents who agreed that the work schedules for low paid employees are more unpredictable than in the past. This finding seems to align with Balsiger and Philip (2010) who indicate that those who work on flexible time achieve their targets even more so. Conversely, as much as employees prefer part-time and flexi-time, it tends to affect other employees who are engaged on a permanent basis, as observed by Lewis and Den (2008) who established that all workers, including management, agree with the idea of flexible working hours, leading to an overburden of part-time employees, which may impact negatively on employment relations in Kenya.

6.4.7 Globalisation and unemployment in Kenya

The rate of unemployment has increased since globalisation in Kenya, as shown by 48% of the respondents who agreed that the advent of globalisation has indeed
accelerated the rate of unemployment. This concurs with Ukpere (2007) who asserts that one repugnant aspect of globalisation is the increasing rate of unemployment in societies across the globe. In line with this, Zulkipl and Burt (2013) posits that global unemployment is on the rise, and there are growing signs that this trend will continue unabated. As mentioned earlier, organisational mergers and acquisitions have increased levels of unemployment. This was reflected by 62.3% of the respondents who agreed that organisational mergers and acquisitions have indeed increased levels of unemployment in Kenya. Since globalisation, mergers and acquisition have led to a reduction in workforces for the merged organisations, since departments merged and did not need the combined workforce from the two distinct organisations, which led to unemployment for the laid-off employees.

It is clear from the findings that unemployment has increased in Kenya in the era of globalisation. In this regard, COTU 2 had this to say: “the impact of unemployment is that big compared to a few years ago; this has had negative effects on the trade union because the trade unions survive purely on the contribution of members and when the workers are retrenched, it impacts on the income of unions”. Hence, unemployment has weakened activities of trade unions in Kenya because they receive their funding from members’ contributions. Rising unemployment has also led to low wages because there are fewer jobs with many people looking for work. The few who are employed settle for minimum salaries, which they are not content with and in turn lose faith in their employers for underpaying them. Hence, globalisation seems to have accelerated the rate of unemployment, as well as underemployment in Kenya.

6.5 Globalisation and employment regulations in Kenya
Globalisation and the doctrine of liberalisation seem to have led to the de-regulation of employment relations in many countries across the globe. Findings, which relate to employment regulations in Kenya since globalisation are discussed below within the context of the sub-headings that follow.

6.5.1 Globalisation, child labour and cheap labour in Kenya
The law in Kenya prohibits the employment of children, while any person under the age of eighteen is perceived as a minor and if engaged in employment, this would be
unlawful. However, the findings reveal that child labour has increased in recent times. This is supported by 30.8% of the respondents who agreed, as opposed to 14.9% who disagreed that increasing use of child labour has been witnessed in Kenyan workplaces in the recent past.

It is evident that the government of Kenya has initiated mechanisms to ensure that there is a reduction in the use of child labour through legislation. This is shown by 35.4% of the respondents who disagreed, as opposed to 26.5% who agreed that legislation to curb child labour is weaker today than before. The findings indicate that in the era of globalisation, Kenya has strived to enact legislation to curb child labour. This seems to be a positive development for employment relations, as it is a sign of maturity and ethical conduct by Kenyan employers, which has positive effects on employment relations.

With regard to cheap labour, the findings show that 46.2% of the respondents agreed that there has been an increase in the patronage of cheap labour, as opposed to 8.3% who disagreed. The findings are supported by Fashoyin (2010) who argues that vulnerable children, as a result of HIV/AIDS, are an easy target for cheap labourers. However, organisations in Kenya seem to have taken advantage of the plight of these putative cheap labourers. Most organisations seem to have also taken advantage of the high rate of unemployment to engage underage workers at a lower rate than the market rate. While others who have stayed for a long time without employment resort to accepting jobs at a lower rate because of a lack of bargaining power. This in turn negatively affects employment relations in Kenya.

6.5.2 Globalisation and working hours in Kenya
There has been improvement in terms of working hours for employees since globalisation. For instance, 33.7% of the respondents agreed that since globalisation, working conditions seem to have improved in terms of working hours. When employees are given time to rest by working within the time frame stipulated in the labour laws, their morale certainly improves, which goes a long way towards enhancing a cordial relationship between the two parties in the labour relationship. However, the current finding is contrary to the ITUC (2012) and Waweru (2007) who state that the average
working week has increased to 64 hours, as opposed to 44 hours per week as provided by the labour laws.

COTU 1 remarked that: “the labour laws of Kenya provides for eight hours working time with one hour lunch break in between, but many organisations as observed, mistreat their employees by subjecting them to long hours without compensating them for the extra hours”. The tendency has been to increase since globalisation, as companies have become more profit oriented at the expense of the welfare of employees, which negatively affects employment relations.

6.5.3 Globalisation, health and safety of workers in Kenya

Employees are the greatest asset of every organisation and their safety should be a priority concern for the companies. Failure to guarantee employees’ safety, impacts negatively on their productivity and in turn affect the organisation’s profitability. Working conditions in terms of safety seem to have improved in Kenya, as indicated from the findings where 45.8% of the respondents agreed that globalisation has indeed brought about improvements in working conditions in terms of safety. The findings show that the employees’ safety has been guaranteed in the era of globalisation, thus employees in Kenya are more comfortable in their workplaces today than before, thereby strengthening employment relations.

Furthermore, much like safety, employees’ health is a great concern for the organisation as it impacts directly on their productivity. The study shows that Kenyan organisations have endeavoured to improve the health issues of their employees since globalisation, as 39.5% of the respondents agreed that globalisation has led to improved working conditions in terms of health, as opposed to 14.3% who disagreed. FKE 1 indicated that: “taking care of the workers health for example through provision of medical insurance cover is one way of motivating the employees”. The research findings point to the fact that Kenyan organisations have endeavoured to take care of employees’ health concerns, and to generally ensure that employees are well attended to whenever they become ill at work. This in turn has positively affected employment relations in Kenya.
6.5.4 Globalisation and migrant workers in Kenya

Globalisation has brought international companies to Kenya, either in the form of main offices or branches. This has led to the recruitment of migrants to work in Kenya. It was found in the current study that payment discrepancies exist between local and migrant staff, as indicated by 52% of the respondents who agreed that migrants are paid more than local workers whilst they do the same job. COTU 2 indicated that: “discrimination in terms of pay between local and foreign workers for the same work, affects the morale of the local staff who feel being treated inferior and thus negatively affecting their performance and employment relationship”. Globalisation has brought about liberalisation and thus foreign companies can invest in Kenya; this has brought foreign staff who are treated differently to local staff, which seems to have negatively affected how local staff perceive their foreign counterparts.

A number of organisations in Kenya have resorted to employing the services of expatriates, especially for technical jobs, as these skills are hard to find locally. Others have established businesses that need experts who can only be secured from outside the country. These companies have continued to pay expatriates higher salaries and benefits compared to local staff who do the same work. Worse still, the expatriates are given preferential treatment compared to the local staff. This state of affairs has an adverse impact on employment relations in Kenya.

6.5.5 Globalisation and collective bargaining mechanisms in Kenya

In Kenya employees are paid according to the type of work they are engaged in, as well as qualifications and in some cases, as a result of how they were able to negotiate around salaries at the point of recruitment. Unions also help to negotiate better pay for their members through negotiations with respective employers.

The findings show that 44.5% of the respondents agreed as opposed to 18.4% who disagreed that employees are paid according to the agreement in their employment contract. Furthermore, the findings indicate that 39.5% of the respondents agreed as opposed to 12.4% who disagreed that unions exert a great influence on collective bargaining between management and employees. This is in accordance with Fashoyin
(2010) study, which found that trade unions capitalise on collective agreements and strike action as a means to improve the working conditions of members.

Employees in Kenya in the recent past have resorted to collective bargaining to obtain a favourable working environment and pay from their organisations. The trade unions have become the perfect means to drive this cause, which has in turn improved the living standards of employees as a result of improved pay. The findings indicate that 39.5% of the respondents stated that unions exert a great influence on wage negotiations between management and employees, which in turn negatively affects employment relations.

6.6 General impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya

Globalisation has brought about mixed impacts as far as employment relations are concerned in Kenya. On a positive side, globalisation has stimulated and enhanced workers’ participation in decision making, as employees are now allowed to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them at their workplaces. According to Goldin and Reinert (2007), the workplace offers employees opportunities to gain self-determined skills. One way of ensuring that employees feel part and parcel of the organisation is to involve them in the company’s management board.

In most company boards in Kenya since globalisation, union representatives have not been allowed to serve on management boards of companies. However, there has been increasing joint consultative meetings between employers/management and employees. Their opinions are now taken seriously by management, which is beginning to have some positive impact on employment relations. Employers are interested in making their employees work extra hours (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). Thus, the era of globalisation seems to have improved the wellbeing of employees in most organisations.

Since the era of globalisation, there have been improvements in workers’ working conditions as a direct result of a high rate of trade union militancy. Furthermore, there is a renewed effort by Kenyan organisations to allow workers to freely exercise their fundamental right to association, which includes joining trade unions, as well as participating in union meetings. According to Hennebert and Bourque (2011), a well-
functioning trade union movement is often a good indicator of industrial democracy and respected standards of human rights.

Union members are now free to join trade unions and the freedom accorded by their employers, unlike in the past, where they could lose their jobs for engaging in union activities. In terms of routine work, employees now independently take decisions regarding their routine work activities. With regard to supervision, there are reduced levels of supervision, which has made employees innovative in their various workstations, and they do not have to wait for orders from their supervisors. Their general working conditions in terms of health, safety and working hours seem to have improved in Kenya since globalisation.

Despite the positive impact of globalisation, there is a strong view/perception that globalisation has impacted negatively on employment relations in Kenya. For instance, globalisation has resulted in unilateral management decisions, which have burgeoned and has been commonly used to determine rewards for performance. This has had negative implications for employment relations. In terms of outsourcing, workers are not involved at all, which has negative implications. This has to a great extent exacerbated levels of retrenchments in Kenya owing to the increasing redundancy of workers within the period of globalisation. Where retrenchment occurs as a result of outsourcing, due process of fairness is not followed by management, which has negatively affected employment relations. Employee representatives are not involved in the retrenchment exercise, thus the whole process lacks transparency, other than prompt payment of termination dues to affected employees before they leave their employment.

Globalisation has triggered an increase in the use of technology, which has reduced workloads for employees in Kenya, and as a result, technology has ensured that few employees remain in the workforce owing to a redundancy of workers. Advancements in technology has always contributed to workplace changes (Roberts, 2006). Technology has prompted organisations to resort to the services of casual and child labour to undertake duties that cannot be performed by technology. From the discussion it appears that globalisation has positively impacted employment relations in many ways.
However, there are still so many negative impacts of globalisation with regard to employment relations in Kenya, as expounded in the findings of this study.

6.7 Future research areas
The research concentrated on a developing country, which provides an opportunity to international researchers to further explore the topic in their respective countries or regions. This can of course be undertaken in different countries to establish the exact findings in different contexts. Since the study covered Kenya, which is a developing country, a comparative study can be undertaken in another developing country to establish similarities or differences in the results. Furthermore, the research was restricted to a number of selected sectors, hence it may be necessary to expand and broaden the sectors of research in future in order to establish whether the findings will be different or similar.

Furthermore, there is a need to develop a measure for cultural similarity by drawing a sample that categorizes employers and employees from culturally similar markets and then to compare the findings. This might interest future researchers in terms of theoretical perspectives of the globalisation phenomenon. Moreover, owing to the fact that this study only emphasised formal employees’ perceptions with respect to globalisation and employment relations, it certainly overlooked the informal settings. Therefore, any future research in that direction may be important to incorporate both the perceptions of employees in formal, as well as informal employment relations.

6.8 Implications of the findings
The findings have highlighted mixed effects in terms of globalisation with regard to employment relations in Kenya. The working environments seem to have improved in some areas, while in some areas there are still challenges. Since globalisation, employees are allowed to join trade union movements to agitate for their welfare. They have also been allowed to freely attend meetings, which are called by trade unions in order to express their views to their employers. Furthermore, there are increasingly joint consultative meetings that take place, where employees’ views are taken seriously in decision making. Employers have continued to embrace technology in order to reduce operational costs, and thus improve their profitability. Employees have further been
involved in identifying projects that should be undertaken by their employers under their corporate social responsibility programme, which is a positive impact of globalisation. These projects create employment opportunities for the locals.

In terms of negative aspects of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya, many organisations have continued to outsource most of the services that essentially should be performed by the employees without consulting them. This has resulted in increased retrenchments. Poor communication between management and unions has been blamed as the main cause of rising trends in strike actions. If children are engaged as child labourers and allowed to continue to work, it may have a ripple effect on future leaders. The management of most organisations seem to have ignored the involvement of employees in decision making when it comes to the retrenchment exercise. Rising unemployment has also contributed to levels of crime amongst the youth, in particular.

Technology has also contributed to re-engineering, rightsizing and retrenchment, the outcome of which is widespread unemployment, which has a negative effect on employment relations. Management and HR practitioners must take note of these dynamics, and ensure that there is reasonable ways to retrench such as balancing profit making and human value. There should be more emphasis on some regulations with regard to what is happening in the workplace to protect workers.

6.9 Limitations of the study
The study examined the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Interpretation of the findings should be done keenly as it merely reflects the perceptions of the respondents. Generally, any study may be affected by numerous factors. For instance, this study is only based on a fraction of the population in employment relations. Moreover, the findings are grounded on the perceptions of participants that were sampled, which may not essentially mirror the views of participants in other sectors or regions. Moreover, the mental functioning of the respondents could have an impact on the answers that they provide in the questionnaire. This could lead to outright misrepresentation of the effect of globalisation on employment relations. The information was collected from Kenya only, which limits the reliance on the data in terms of generalisation. The data was captured from workers and their organisations, while other members of the broader public were not given an opportunity to express their
views, which may not fully cover the perceptions of all working class individuals and potentials who are affected by globalisation, and how it impacts their respective employment relations.

While acknowledging the above limitations, to a great extent this research is an effort towards comprehending the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. In other words, the study highlights how employees and employers could strive for better working relationships in the workplace within the current era of globalisation.

6.10 Contribution of the study

The contribution of the study has been discussed under three sub-headings, namely theoretical contribution, where the findings relate the contribution of the current study with previous studies, while it further highlights the methodological and practical contributions.

6.10.1 Theoretical contribution

The theoretical contribution of this research, within the highlighted limitations, could be in a number of areas. The findings have helped to corroborate the study with other studies on globalisation and employment relations. It is conspicuous that globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya in various ways. Since the era of globalisation, the rate of unemployment has increased and thus organisations in Kenya should take measures to address this phenomenon. More literature has been integrated in this study.

Many organisations have engaged the services of employment bureaus to recruit staff. The cost of recruitment has been passed to employees in spite of the bureaus helping them to secure employment opportunities. It is noted that engaging staff through such means does indeed affect employment relations, as employees feel disengaged from their employers. They only provide their services to a third party.

Child labour has been a major concern globally; most organisations preferred to engage the services of children because of the low wages payable to them, and are employed on a temporary basis, hence there are less costs in terms of benefits. Earlier findings
indicate an increase in the use of child labour in Kenya; consequently, the current study corroborates the previous findings, and thus organisations should take steps to curb these vices within their society. Technology has been a success factor for many organisations in the recent past, and has increased competition, while the organisations that have failed to embrace it are facing challenges. This study confirms that for any organisation to remain afloat, it must embrace technology, though it can lead to retrenchments as a result of reduced workloads, if not handled well.

6.10.2 Methodological contribution
This research has used the two approaches, namely quantitative and qualitative methods. The methodological contribution of the study is the ease with which mixed methods can be blended together. When quantitative and qualitative approaches are combined, the findings are strengthened, which help to enhance reliability and validity of the study. The triangulation method is one of the most effective methods that ensures that qualitative information is captured, which is used to validate, support, confirm or even refute the quantitative analysis. According to Singh (2007), triangulation in research illustrate the use of a different data approaches, which are used to explain a specific phenomenon under study, either simultaneously or sequentially, to generate a valid result. This was demonstrated by the use of questionnaires and interviews to gather data for this research, which improved the reliability and dependability of the results. The current researcher has acknowledged weaknesses and strengths of both approaches/instruments and the findings that demonstrate how the two were ideally used in combination.

6.10.3 Practical contribution
The study’s practical contribution permits for replica of a comparable study at other organisations, which were not sampled in this study. Organisations will benefit from the findings in coming up with best practices that will ensure improvements in employment relations in their workplaces within the current era of globalisation. Among them, organisations will have to consult more with employees before they take any decision that affects them. Employers could be stimulated to improve the general working conditions of employees, based on the recommendations of this study.
The second contribution is that the data that was gathered during the research is a rich source of information that could be preserved for Human Resource (HR) and Industrial Relations (IR) practitioners, as well as future researchers. Researchers who are interested in areas of employment relations may re-assess the data and excerpt an area of concern. This study will enlighten HR practitioners in terms of how child labour issues can be managed. It will also enable practitioners to adjust their conduct towards ethical behaviours. The need for more ethical behaviour is necessitated by the findings that there has been an increase in the exploitation of child and casual labour in the recent past, where the rights of those on casual and temporary employment are often violated in terms of pay, allocation of duties and consideration for positions. The third contribution of the study is that it suggests an alternate method to the assessment of employment relations in Kenya. The findings show that this study has attracted enlightened respondents and participants. In other words, information, which relate to this study is valuable to workers, organisations, practitioners, researchers and the Kenyan government with regard to effective policy formulation within the domain of employment relations in the era of globalisation.

6.11 Summary
The chapter deliberated the research’s findings with regard to the quantitative and qualitative data analysis, and corroborated it with the literature review. Hence, a fine triangulation was achieved in this chapter. Globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya, both positively and negatively, while it has generally improved employees’ working conditions by providing avenues for freedom to join and hold meetings with the trade unions. Since globalisation, employees are assured of their bargaining power, where their representatives are accorded opportunities to present the grievances of members to management.

Conversely, globalisation has contributed to the high level of retrenchments in Kenya, and has thus impacted negatively on employment relations, hence no employee, even those who have survived retrenchments will be comfortable working in the same organisation. Furthermore, workers’ representatives are not allowed to serve on management boards at various companies, where their views are considered in making management decisions. Employees are also not
consulted when key retrenchment decisions are made by management. Retrenchments have been exacerbated by an increased level of outsourcing by Kenyan organisations without due consideration for the welfare of employees. Technology seems to have enabled organisations to maximize their profits through cost reductions. On the contrary, technology has also rendered employees redundant owing to reduced work activities, thus negatively impacting employment relations. The chapter has extensively discussed the findings of the study, giving key attention to the qualitative and quantitative findings, whilst comparing them to previous authoritative literature. The study recommendations and conclusion will be drawn in the next and concluding chapter.
CHAPTER 7: RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction
This study focussed on the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Globalisation has triggered various recent trends and developments, which have impacted global workplaces, including that of Kenya, as alluded to in this research. Furthermore, the study explored the influence of globalisation on employment regulations/deregulations in Kenya and, lastly, it has provided insights on how to frame policies that could address some workplace challenges, within the era of globalisation, in order to foster harmonious employment relations in Kenya.

7.2 Overview of findings
The main purposes of the study have been achieved. The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya has been established. Indeed, employment relations in Kenya has undergone tremendous changes since globalisation. The research established that most of the workers in Kenya are employed on a permanent basis. However, currently, there are tendencies to move towards more flexible employment relationships. Globalisation has indeed changed the perceptions of employers towards collective bargaining. In recent times employees have been represented on management boards at various organisations in Kenya through their union leaders, whose views are considered when making decisions. This has positively impacted employment relations in Kenya. In addition, employees are allowed to occasionally hold joint consultative meetings with management to discuss issues that affect them. More than this, they are also allowed to freely associate with each other or participate in union activities. This has had positive impact on industrial democracy and, of course, on employment relations.

One notable area that has improved in the workplace since globalisation is employees’ health related issues, and this has potential to improve employment relations in Kenyan workplaces because, naturally, employees whose health concerns have been well taken care of will feel comfortable with and committed to their organisations. Within the era of globalisation, employers seem to have relied more on labour brokers as opposed to engaging prospective employees directly. Employers are following this route with a view to reduce the expenses which are accompanied with hiring employees directly.
Levels of supervision seem to have improved in Kenya since globalisation. Unlike in the past, employees now independently take decisions on their routine works. There is currently minimum supervision in most Kenyan organisations. Thus, employees seem to have become more innovative in their various workstations, as they do not have to wait for orders from their supervisors. It was also found that employees in most Kenyan organisations are allowed to make suggestions within their respective working places. However, in spite of this freedom to make suggestions, workers are not engaged in key decision making within the organisations. This has negatively affected the relationship between employees and employers, as the employees feel excluded from contributing to decisions, which relate to issues that directly affect them. They feel that they are not properly involved when it comes to running the organisation’s affairs.

In the recent past, organisations in Kenya have increasingly began to utilise outsourcing by moving their non-core services to low wage regions and countries as a cost cutting measure. However, in this regard, employees are not engaged in decision making on outsourcing in spite of the fact that they are directly affected. This trend has negatively affected employment relations in Kenya. For one thing, outsourcing in most organisations has led to redundancy and, of course, has increased retrenchments. Retrenchment in any form has further negative impacts on relationships at the workplace, notably in Kenya. Social projects are a key mechanism, which is used by organisations to reward communities that have supported their operations. Most of the employees come from the resident communities, hence their involvement and participation in the organisations’ social and community projects is imperative for the projects’ success. However, there is a perception that employees are excluded from identifying the projects. Hence, by extension, the projects may also not be supported by the community, since employees are part and parcel of the community.

In recent times accelerated advancements in technology have reduced workloads, which is something positive for most organisations. However, the reduced workloads have resulted in redundancies, which have made employees more vulnerable to retrenchments. Kenyan workplaces are not exempt from this incursion of modern technologies which has contributed to redundancies in most organisations and, by extension, retrenchments and job losses, and these have negative effects on
employment relations. Hence, it may be argued that technological advancements in the era of globalisation have contributed to high levels of retrenchments in Kenya, and this has adversely impacted employment relations in Kenya.

Globalisation has brought about discrimination in terms of pay scales amongst employees such as executives and foreign expatriates. This trend has tended to affect employees’ morale, as they are remunerated poorly. Despite this, workers seem to have been allowed to move more freely from one employer to another, which stimulates competition, allows for resource allocation and encourages establishment of competitive wages. Labour mobility seems to have increased with skills and educational levels as a result of an information explosion in the era of globalisation. This information explosion has also brought awareness amongst employees. On a negative note, this has contributed to an increase in the number of strikes by employees and their unions because of dissatisfaction. Increased organisational mergers and acquisitions have not made life any better either for employees, as it has increased retrenchments in spite of assisting organisations to improve on profitability, which has led to high unemployment in Kenya. Indeed, unemployment has increased in Kenya since globalisation, which of course has negative effects on employment relations.

It was observed that most Kenyan organisations do not consider merit when rewarding employees, as deserving employees are not considered by management who utilise unilateral decisions to reward employees. This affects employees’ morale, which in turn negatively affects the relationship between employees and management, as some employees feel less appreciated. This state of affairs has rendered many employees discontented with the rewards system, and caused some of them to resort to a ‘go-slow’ in their work stations. As a way out, most organisations seem to have relied more on child labour, which has increased in Kenya since globalisation owing to more reliance on their low cost of wages and unskilled labour. Given that a majority of the employees that are recruited in Kenya are not highly educated, the prevalence of this kind of labour has to some extent adversely impacted the labour relationship.
7.3 Recommendations

In respect to the research findings and the analysis above, the current researcher has proposed various recommendations that are geared towards improving employment relations in Kenya in the current era of globalisation. The researcher believes that if the Kenyan government and other stakeholders in the labour relations sphere adopt the proposed recommendations, more harmonious labour relations could be harnessed, which may improve the working relationship between employers and employees in Kenya. The proposed recommendations are outlined below.

7.3.1 Management should always involve and consult employees on key decisions such as outsourcing

The decision to engage third parties from outside of the organisation in the form of outsourcing, to undertake organisational work affects employees in the organisation. In most cases the work may be beyond the scope of employees in the organisation. However, in some instances organisations have relied on outsourcing as a way to cut costs, because in most instances outsourcing seems to be cheaper than producing the product or performing the services internally. However, it is proposed that such a decision appears to be sensitive to the welfare of employees in the organisation, and should hence involve employees who are key stakeholders.

More than this, organisations in Kenya should also try as much as possible to minimize the indiscriminate outsourcing of work, as this has adverse effects on the relationship between the employers and employees. Hence, management should be passionate about the welfare of their workers. They should spend time coaching employees, encouraging good performers to move to new positions whilst helping poor performers to improve upon their work activities. The fact that outsourcing is a management decision should not stop management from at least consulting with employees before arriving at a decision to outsource, including the type of services that should be outsourced. This will enhance the relationship between management and employees. The latter will then feel connected and committed to the organisation’s goals.
7.3.2 There should be a concerted effort by management to minimize the use of retrenchments as a first option to enhance efficiency

Retrenchment is one of the painful exercises, which is undertaken by organisations in Kenya; the study has established that the trend has been increasing since globalisation, which has adversely affected employment relations. It is, therefore, proposed that organisations should establish a less punitive means of reducing the workforce other than retrenchment. In other words, employers can halt recruitments, while they train current workers to take over some of the duties that they intend to outsource in the near future. In addition, as a way of reducing tension, employers are advised to involve employees in most of their retrenchment exercises, because most employees seem to have negative perceptions of being unnecessarily targeted by management through retrenchments. Therefore, employees should be convinced or reassured that this is not the case, and that as a matter of fact, it is in the interest of the organisation and the remaining employees.

Hence, organisations should sensitize employees about impending retrenchments through effective consultation. Moreover, organisations should provide clear guidelines on how the exercise will be conducted, which will in turn remove any suspicion that certain employees are being targeted. In addition, organisations should try as much as possible to use external experts to undertake the exercise. In other words, the organisation may utilise the services of a consultant who has no prior engagement with the employees and the organisation. This will help to avoid the use of the retrenchment process to settle personal scores and instil confidence in the whole exercise. Furthermore, the organisations should hold meetings with the remaining employees who survive the retrenchments to reassure them that the exercise is over, and that their jobs are secure, which will enable them to refocus on their duties, and thereby boost employment relationships.

7.3.3 Work schedule for low paid employees should be made more predictable

Kenyan organisations should make the work for low paid workers more predictable. This will encourage them to hold on to their existing jobs without moving to other organisations. All employees in the organisation should be encouraged to work towards a common goal. They should be made to perceive some element of equity and
appreciation for their contribution in the workplace so that they can contribute more towards the achievement of the organisation objectives. As ways to motivate them, low paid employees should be afforded training and skills development opportunities, in addition to inclusion in profit sharing, whilst also engaging them on a permanent basis whenever opportunities arise. Some employers who use ‘just-in-time schedule’ to lower labour costs, which places work activities at the mercy of consumer demands for a particular product and often results in employees being given little advance notice of their work schedule. A fair, flexible and reliable schedule is one way to ensure that workers are treated with dignity and respect. Employers should view employees as human beings with competing life demands rather than as mere numbers on a spreadsheet.

7.3.4 Management should desist from using unilateral actions to determine rewards in the workplace
One of the avenues of motivating workers is via a reward system, as staff feels appreciated when they are rewarded for the good work that they do. However, the reward system can become counterproductive if the process is done incorrectly. Management should follow due process and reward the right people instead of using unilateral actions to determine rewards. There is a need to maintain a teamwork spirit by rewarding the best performing employees. However, employees who are not rewarded should be encouraged to improve their performances so that they can be appreciated in future, and this can only happen when everybody feels that the process was followed in the right manner, and that those who were rewarded indeed deserve to be rewarded after due consultation and consideration.

7.3.5 Technological development and advancements should be utilised for the benefit of workers and not otherwise
Globalisation has brought about rapid technological changes in workplaces. Some previous tedious duties can now be performed at ease owing to advanced technology. Companies have saved a lot by using sophisticated technology in the production process, even though the capital investment is a bit higher. Rapid changes in technology have affected employees in the workplace in different ways as they enjoy the benefits and endure the costs at the same time. Hence, employers should strive to
ensure that the benefits that accrue to employees outweigh the costs so that employees can perceive technology in a positive light. Employees should readily be trained to utilise modern technology. This will enable them to willingly embrace modern technologies and utilise it to both their own benefit and the benefit of the organisation. Management should strive to minimise introducing and using rapid technology as a ploy to layoffs or retrenchments.

7.3.6 There should be concerted efforts to reduce work pressure in the current era of globalisation
Globalisation has introduced work pressures owing to stiff global competition. Every company strives to outperform each other for the global market, and this has placed additional pressure on employees to work extra hard to meet customer expectations. The effort can work against the company if the employer is not keen to balance the work pressures and stiff competition. Employees may burn out as a result of this pressure, which may negatively affect productivity, and may lead to an unfavourable work environment, resulting in high attrition and employee turnover. Managers should attempt to balance employees’ work pressures. A flexible work structure could be introduced to enable employees more convenient times and schedules to perform their job.

7.3.7 The government should play a major role to prohibit the use of child labour
Most organisations have engaged the services of children because of the low wages that they can pay children. Children are paid lower wages compared to adults, in addition to the fact that they are not engaged in a formal manner. This is partly because most children do not know their rights, and because they are engaged illegally, it prevents them from complaining to authorities. There is a need for the government to establish mechanisms to minimise and, if possible, put an end to the use of child labour. One way to achieve this is to impose heavy fines on companies that engage children for work. Parliament should also pass legislation that will make it punitive to use child labour in the workplace. Children should be encouraged and supported to seek formal education instead of being employed as child labourers.
7.3.8 More emphasis should be placed on the creation of decent jobs
The era of globalisation has witnessed the diminishing of decent jobs and an upsurge in the creation of informal jobs. Most people have resorted to the informal sector owing to rising unemployment. The condition of work in the informal sector has been recognised as poor in addition to low wages. There have been improvements in the academic sector, where each year qualified personnel are channelled into the labour market from the universities. However, these qualified graduates still find it difficult to secure decent formal employment. Hence, the government should establish policies that will encourage the creation of decent jobs. More expansion should be supported in the formal sector to guarantee the absorption of the qualified workforce. This will reduce graduate unemployment, and thereby increasing the number of jobs opportunities, which will contribute to improving employment relations in Kenyan workplaces.

7.3.9 Casual employees should also be sent for training and development
All employees in an organisation contribute towards the shared goals of the company, as both work towards improving the company’s performance. Despite their employment status, they are part and parcel of the human capital of the company and hence the manner that they are handled is imperative to the organisation’s success. Employees should be re-energised through capacity building and training and development from time to time. In most cases only permanent employees are considered for training, leaving out casual workers, yet they both contribute to the company’s success. Therefore, it is vital to also consider casual employees for training and development in the workplace, which will reduce a sense of inequity amongst casual employees, thereby enabling them to move into permanent or even other better employment opportunities.

7.3.10 The disparity in pay between foreign and local employees should be reduced
In Kenya there is disparity in the payment of foreign staff compared to local staff, while most multinationals engage the services of foreign staff who are treated well and paid better. This really has a discouraging effect on local staff who feels a sense of ill treatment owing to the huge disparity in pay in spite of the fact that local workers perform the same work or work even harder than the foreign workers. Hence, it is highly
recommended that the gap in terms of pay to foreign staff and local staff should be reduced through some form of government policy and legislation. This will greatly improve employment relations and will help to boost productivity, as all employees will then feel equal. This will also guarantee mutual respect between and amongst employees, which will help to bolster harmonious employment relations in Kenya.

7.3.11 Collective agreement reached should be respected by all parties to minimize industrial disputes
Employee disputes are presented to management via trade unions. In most cases what is agreed between the union and employers is sometimes not honoured, which leads to strikes by the union as a last resort to push for implementation of the agreement. To minimize industrial disputes, all parties in the labour relationship, including the government, must honour the collective agreements that are made during negotiation and consultation. This will instill trust amongst parties, and help to move employment relations a step further in the right direction.

7.3.12 Right of workers to participate in strikes should be protected as much as possible
Grievances of workers are presented to management through their respective trade unions, which negotiate with the management to improve the working conditions. In most cases their discussions are agreed upon and any contentious issues are sorted out by management. If management fails to heed to their genuine demands, workers may turn to strikes as a last resort to champion for their course. But in most cases employers in Kenya tend to bar workers from participating in strikes action. However, this right to strike legally should be protected at all times. Also, workers are advised not to abuse such rights by engaging in illegal strikes. This approach will go a long way towards improving employment relations in Kenya.

7.3.13 Stakeholders should create job opportunities by providing training that is linked to the job market
Kenya has witnessed an upsurge in the informal sector in the era of globalisation. Despite the country having an advanced educational sector, many qualified personnel have been unable to secure white collar jobs in recent times. In the prevailing
circumstances, the employment relations stakeholders should introduce practical solutions, which will reduce unemployment through job creation, business growth, productivity and skills development. In terms of skills development, the educational curriculum should be structured to guarantee the expectations of organisations in the labour market.

7.3.14 There is a need to reduce the wide margin between senior management and other employees
Organisations in Kenya seem to possess organograms that are unfavourable to subordinate employees. Top management staff seems to have been given a lot of powers over their subordinates. In addition, the pay of executive management staff when compared to other staff, reflects a huge gap. This state of affairs has negatively impacted on employment relations in most organisations in Kenya, as the staff feels that there are two different categories of staff in the organisation. There should be a need for organisations to make a concerted effort to bridge this huge gap between top management and other workers. All employees should be treated fairly in order to improve teamwork towards achieving the common goals.

7.3.15 Community projects should be utilised to reduce unemployment in Kenya
There has been a reduction in white collar jobs, which has made many people to become either jobless or resort to finding informal sector jobs. However, one way to give back to the community is for organisations to initiate community projects. These projects should also be attractive to enable host community members to take up jobs in such projects. Hence, organisations in Kenya should increase their investments in such attractive community initiatives, as it will help to reduce unemployment levels in Kenya.

7.3.16 Framework for harmonious employment relations in Kenya within the era of globalisation
Employment relations is a broad area that involves a number of players; and among them government is the key player to regulate employment relations. Others are employers who play a key role in effecting employment relations, while other players are workers who are directly affected by employment relations. The other crucial players are the trade unions that ensure that employment relations are not violated, and they do so
on behalf of the workers. Still, there are other stakeholders who are not directly involved in employment relations, but they play a key role, and these include civil society, non-governmental organisations, both local and international, and members of the public.

In view of the above, there is a need for development of a framework that will ensure that all the players work harmoniously towards the protection of all parties, particularly workers. Each party should have a way of championing their interests without negatively affecting the activities and interests of the other party. Within the era of globalisation, no player can afford to work in isolation, as employment relations is not only regulated by local authorities, but also governed by International Labour Laws.

**Figure 7.1: Framework for achievement of harmonious employment relations**

![Figure 7.1: Framework for achievement of harmonious employment relations](source)

Figure 7.1 indicates that government should be able to engage all the key players in the employment relations domain when drafting policies that guide labour regulations. The employers should also be involved to provide their input into policy decisions, while the trade unions and civil societies should also be part of the important process. In doing so, the government will be able to ensure that the regulations of labour relations have considered the views of all parties and are in line with international standards, as any contradiction could pave the way for agitations and disputes. Of course, the most
affected party in the labour relationship are workers and their interests should be well protected. The government should sensitize workers around the existence of policy regulations in order to protect them. If workers are empowered, some exploitative employers may have the chance to take undue advantage of them. Government should establish mechanisms that can deal with any person or organisation that violates the provisions of the labour laws. When all these are in place, harmonious employment relations will take effect in Kenyan workplaces.

7.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, it is necessary to firstly reflect on the thesis chapters. Chapter one introduced the research topic, which was contained in the introduction and background of the study. It also contained the problem statement, research questions and objectives that guided the study. The motivations, significance, as well as the contributions of the study were also delineated in the chapter. Current knowledge in relation to the topic was explicated. Among the issues outlined were globalisation and unemployment, employment challenges in the manufacturing sector, rising trends in the use of child labour, issues of working poverty in the era of globalisation, policy measures and governance structure to curtail any negative impacts of globalisation with regard to rising poverty, automation, retrenchments, wage inequalities and unemployment. The research methodology and design were also briefly highlighted in Chapter One.

Chapter Two, which presented the literature review of the study, explored employment relations in the era of globalisation, the impact on earnings and the working conditions of employees; and briefly considered the gap between temporary and permanent employees. One of the major drivers of globalisation is information technology, which was reviewed in this chapter as means to understand how technological innovations have changed the way in which employees relate to each other, as well as their employers. It was clear that working hours have also been altered owing to the new developments, as employees are no longer expected to work for eight hours strictly at their desks, as long as they meet their targets. The chapter also considered how globalisation has affected organisational design and rewards for employees. The chapter alluded to the fact that the nature of the global economy has allowed employees
to move from one employer to another, hence developing countries end up losing their well trained workforce to developed countries owing to better pay and working conditions. The chapter further highlighted the effect of globalisation on organisational work structures.

Chapter Three extended the literature review to employment relations in Kenya. In this regard, Kenya’s employment relations framework was discussed. The issue of trade unions as a key player in collective bargaining was reviewed, as well as changes to labour unionism over time in terms of membership and contribution, and the effectiveness of unions in addressing labour challenges. Different legislation by the Kenyan government to address labour issues was also reviewed in this chapter. The labour market reforms were elaborated, including an analysis of reforms since the pre-independence epoch. The chapter alluded to the fact that job structures have undergone changes since globalisation, resulting in wage employment inequalities in Kenya. The chapter also reviewed the disparity in pay packages between local companies and multinationals, and included rising trends in the use of outsourcing in Kenya. The high level of unemployment and the influx of workers into the non-formal sector caused by retrenchments were also reviewed. The use of temporary and casual employees as opposed to permanent employees by Kenya organisations was also presented, and Kenya’s employment status and the impact of globalisation on Kenyans employment relations were discussed.

Chapter Four explained the research methodology and design by providing details of the various methods that were utilised by the researcher. The mixed method approach was embraced, where the quantitative and qualitative approaches were applied sequentially. The chapter outlined the study’s population, which encompassed all workers that are currently employed both in government and the corporate sectors in Kenya. A sample of 500 respondents in the two counties of Nairobi and Mombasa were used to represent the entire population. The researcher used a questionnaire to collect the quantitative data, while interviews were employed to gather the qualitative data. Prior to data collection, permission was sought from various managements to distribute the questionnaires. A pilot test was undertaken before floating the main questionnaire with the aim of correcting the instruments in order to minimize the errors. Furthermore,
validity and reliability tests were done before analysis to ensure that the data met the validity and reliability criteria. The researcher used inclusion validity that pertained to the level to which the tool fully assessed or measured the construct of interest.

Chapter Five presented the quantitative and qualitative research findings. From a quantitative analytical perspective, the results showed that globalisation has had a mixed impact in terms of employment relations in Kenya. The analysis has established that employees are given a free hand to make decisions; conversely, management freely allows workers to exercise their fundamental right of association, and thus employees who are union members are given opportunities to attend union meetings. The chapter further established that employees do not require supervision to undertake routine work activities, which positively affect industrial democracy and of course employment relations. On the negative side, management makes unilateral decisions in determining rewards, and this affects the relationship between employees and employers. Furthermore, management solely makes decisions pertaining to outsourcing certain services/activities, and this outsourcing also contributed to layoffs in recent times, which has negatively affected employment relations. As much as retrenchment is a management decision, management should involve employee representatives to be part of the process, which was not the case from the study, hence the rift between employers and employees widens.

From a qualitative analysis perspective, unemployment has greatly affected trade union membership, which weakens unions’ activities, as they rely on funding that comes from the fees of members. The results show that most organisations have insurance and pension policies that are provided for in the national labour laws of Kenya, which positively affects employment relations. Furthermore, results show that companies, through their unions, have set up health and safety policies that protect workers. Conversely, technological changes in the era of globalisation have resulted in job losses among management and other employees who lack competencies. The number of employees that is required for certain tasks has also reduced owing to technological changes within the workplace. On the contrary, some interview responses seemed to contradict this section of the questionnaire’s results. For instance, responses from the quantitative research indicate that strike actions have reduced, while those from the
qualitative data show that strike actions have indeed increased in Kenya during the era of globalisation.

Chapter Six presented a triangulated discussion of the research findings in corroboration with the literature review. The findings show that globalisation has impacted employment relations in Kenya, both positively and negatively. Globalisation seems to have improved the working conditions of the employees since the employees can freely join trade unions as well as hold regular meetings in the workplace. In the recent past employees have been assured of bargaining powers; their concerns are presented to management through their elected leaders. On the negative side, retrenchment levels have increased in Kenya since globalisation and employees’ views are not considered when retrenchment exercises are carried out, which negatively affects employment relations. One of the contributors of retrenchments is outsourcing by companies. Furthermore, in spite of the fact that technology has contributed to maximization of profits, it has also aided the retrenchment of workers. In Kenya, most organisations occasionally reward their employees for outstanding performance; however, the decision to reward workers is normally arrived at arbitrarily and not through merit, thus negatively affecting deserving workers who are otherwise not rewarded.

The impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya has triggered mixed effects, with some reflecting on the positive impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya, while others focus on the negative impacts. The positive impacts of globalisation, as reflected in the study’s findings, seem encouraging, while the negative impacts seem repugnant and discouraging. Nevertheless, the author has proffered recommendations to ameliorate the adverse effect of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. If the above recommendations are taken into consideration by policy makers, globalisation could have more of a positive impact on employment relations in Kenya.
REFERENCES


In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (eds), Sage handbook of mixed methods in social

Lincoln (eds). The SAGE handbook on qualitative research (4th edn, pp.269-284).


Double Bottom Line: Implications for the future of Microfinance. Occasional
Paper. Washington, C-GAP.

effort: a re-examination using agency theory. Journal of Marketing, 70, 137-150.


Review of Evidence from the New Minimum Wage Research, National Bureau of


244


APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE COVER LETTER

December 2013

Dear Participant

I, Kennedy Ochieng Olungo, am undertaking a research project for a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Employment Relations at the University of Johannesburg. I am investigating the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. This is to gain a better understanding of the impact of globalisation on employment relations in Kenya. Hence, I kindly request you to complete the following short questionnaire regarding employment relations with your current employer in the era of globalisation.

Please do not enter your name or contact details on the questionnaire. The questionnaire should take no more than 15 minutes to complete. Please complete the form by ticking the appropriate box. Kindly complete the questionnaire on or before 31st January 2014. On completion, please email the questionnaire back to me.

Your response will be highly appreciated.

Should you have any queries or comments regarding this survey, you are welcome to contact me directly on +254(0)722-322735, or by email at: kennedy.olungo@gmail.com

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

Kennedy Ochieng Olungo

Supervisor: Professor Wilfred Ukpere
# APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

Please note that all responses will remain anonymous. Your co-operation is appreciated.

## BACKGROUND INFORMATION

This section of the questionnaire refers to background information.

### Section 1: Demographic data

1. **Gender**
   - Male
   - Female

2. **Age**
   - Less than 18 years
   - 18 - 29 years
   - 30 - 39 years
   - 40 - 59 years
   - Above 50 years

3. **How many years have you been working in your current organisation?**
   - Less than 1 year
   - 1 – under 2 years
   - 2 – under 5 years
   - 5 – under 10 years
   - Above 10 years

4. **What are your terms of service in the current organisation?**
   - Permanent
   - Temporary
   - Contract
   - Casual
   - Seasonal
   - Other – (please specify)………………………………………………………

5. **What is your highest level of education?**
   - Certificate
   - Diploma
   - Bachelor’s Degree
   - Master’s degree
   - Doctoral degree
   - Other – (please specify)………………………………………………………
Section 2: Globalisation and Employment Relations Questionnaire

The questions are ranked according to a five-point Likert scale. Considering your current workplace since the advent of globalisation, please provide an answer to each statement below using the scale provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Globalisation and Employment Relations</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Employees are allowed to make suggestions concerning decisions that affect them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Employees are well represented on the company’s management board</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Employees’ opinions are taken seriously by management in my workplace</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Employers/management and employees often have joint consultative meetings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Trade unions help to improve workers’ working conditions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Management freely allow workers to exercise their fundamental right to associate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Members of the union are given opportunities to attend union meetings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Trade union membership has increased in numbers compared to the past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Employees independently take decisions regarding routine work activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Unilateral management decisions are commonly used to determine rewards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Outsourcing of some services/activities is solely management’s decision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Unions independently take decisions on collective bargaining and strike action</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. There has been a rising trend in retrenchments in recent times owing to globalisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Due process of fairness is followed by management where retrenchment occurs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Employee representatives are involved in the retrenchment exercise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Employees are paid their termination dues before leaving employment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Currently, most of the work in the organisation is outsourced compared to the past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Increased use of technology has reduced workloads</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Globalisation and Employment Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. Increased use of technology has led to redundancy of workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Technological development has influenced developments in labour relations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Impact of trade unions has diminished owing to increasing use of technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Most workers have social security</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The work schedules for low paid employees are more unpredictable than in the past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of safety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Globalisation has improved working conditions in terms of the number of working hours</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Work pressures have increased in comparison to the past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. The high prevalence of child labour is owing to the low cost of an unskilled workforce</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Child labour has been witnessed in the recent past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Legislation to curb child labour is weaker today than before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. There has been an increase in the patronage of cheap labour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. There are equal employment opportunities for casual employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Casual employees never get an opportunity to develop their skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Casual employees are excluded from bonus profit sharing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. There is a likelihood that casual employees will be hired on a permanent basis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Labour brokers help people to least earn a living where high unemployment is prevalent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Employees are usually recruited by an employment bureau/labour broker</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. The number of labour brokers registered has increased since the era of globalisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. Labour legislation has allowed labour brokers to supply casual labour to employers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Globalisation and Employment Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>My organisation has a programme that support community projects to benefit host communities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>My organisation is more involved in social projects than before</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Employees are involved in the identification of projects that are supported</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Employers provide welfare support to employees for survival</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>Foreign expatriates are paid more than local workers who do the same job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>The wage gap is high between top management and workers in my organisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Employees are paid according to the agreement in their employment contract</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Unions exert a great influence on wage negotiations between management and employees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Free labour movement stimulates competition and allows for resource allocation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>Restrictions on labour movement prevent the establishment of a competitive wage rate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>Labour movement has increased with skills and educational levels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>Employers encourage labour movement by providing training to address skills shortages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>Industrial disputes have become more frequent in my organisation in recent times</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>There is a proper channel to facilitate dispute resolutions in my workplace</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>Disputes are resolved by referring it to third parties for reconciliation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>Disputes are resolved by referring it to third parties for mediation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>Disputes are resolved by referring it to third parties for arbitration</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Procedures for handling disputes prohibit strike action during the term of a collective agreement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>Strikes have increased in recent times at my workplace</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>Strikes occur owing to poor communication between managements and unions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>Wages and earnings have been the main reasons for strike action</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation and Employment Relations</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61. Workers are summarily dismissed and replaced by new workers if they partake in strike action</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. Globalisation has accelerated the rate of unemployment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63. Organisational mergers and acquisitions has increased levels of unemployment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64. There is a growing trend in employee layoffs as a result of organisational restructuring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65. Rising unemployment in recent times has affected the power base of trade unions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank you for your time and patience in responding to the questionnaire. Your contribution is highly appreciated.
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview Questions

Personal Details
Name……………………………………………………………………………………………………
Your age…………………………………………………………………………………………
Company…………………………………………………………………………………………
Job title…………………………………………………………………………………………

The following are questions concerning your employment relations and how these have been affected by globalisation.

1. How has globalisation resulted in increasing retrenchments?
2. To what extent are employees involved in decision making in your company’s affairs?
3. Has globalisation resulted in increasing strike action?
4. Identify and comment on the effect of technological change on employment relations in your organisation and in Kenya, in general.
5. Does your organisation have specific policies that cover the welfare and responsibilities of workers?
6. In what ways have the present government sought to influence the level of pay settlement in Kenya, and how effective has the policy been?
7. What has been the impact of rising unemployment on trade union membership in your organisation?
8. What type of recruiting strategies have you used in recent times? Has globalisation influenced your recruiting strategies in any way?
9. Describe your relationship with the trade unions since globalisation. Is it co-operative or combative?
10. Do you feel that trade unions are still playing an effective role in improving the relationship between employers and employees?
11. Has globalisation triggered an increasing use of casual workers? What are the challenges/problems that casual employees face in your organisation?
12. What are your main workplace concerns in the wake of globalisation? Do you believe that these concerns are similar to workers both in the public and private sectors in Kenya?

Thank you for your time and patience in answering the questions. Your contribution is highly appreciated.