

MAURITIUS RESEARCH COUNCIL

DECENT WORK: HOW FAR DO THE ESTABLISHED PARAMETERS APPLY TO WORKERS INVOLVED IN CLEANING SERVICES IN THE REPUBLIC OF MAURITIUS?

Final Report

October 2017

MAURITIUS RESEARCH COUNCIL

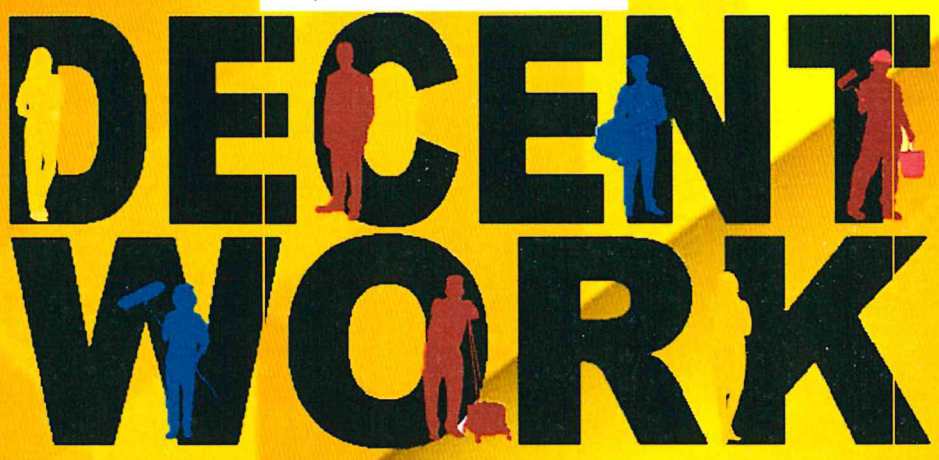
Address:

Level 6, Ebène Heights,
34, Cybercity,
Ebène 72201,
Mauritius.

Telephone: (230) 465 1235
Fax: (230) 465 1239
Email: mrc@intnet.mu
Website: www.mrc.org.mu

This report is based on work supported by the Mauritius Research Council under award number MRC/RSS-1503. Any opinions, findings, recommendations and conclusions expressed herein are the author's and do not necessarily reflect those of the Council.

UNIVERSITY of TECHNOLOGY, MAURITIUS



DECENT WORK: HOW FAR DO THE ESTABLISHED PARAMETERS APPLY TO WORKERS INVOLVED IN CLEANING SERVICES IN THE REPUBLIC OF MAURITIUS?

(Under The Small Scale Research Grant Schemeof the Mauritius Research Council)

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Dr. (Mrs) S D Lukea Bhiwajee

TEAM MEMBERS: Dr. (Ms)P. Naidoo
Dr. (Mrs) P. Ramseook-Munhurrun

RESEARCH ASSISTANT: Mrs. Peggy Moonien

October 2017

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS ii

CHAPTER 1 1

INTRODUCTION 1

1. DECENT WORK 2

1.1 SETTING THE SCENE: THE CASE OF MAURITIUS CLEANING INDUSTRY 4

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY 6

CHAPTER 2 7

PROFILE OF THE CLEANING SECTOR IN MAURITIUS 7

2. THE PROFILE OF THE CLEANING SECTOR IN MAURITIUS 8

2.1 OVERVIEW OF CLEANING COMPANIES 9

2.2 EMPLOYMENT IN THE CLEANING COMPANIES 10

2.3 LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND CLIENTS IN THE SECTOR 11

2.4 TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP 11

2.5 LEGAL ASPECTS GOVERNING CLEANERS IN MAURITIUS 12

2.5.1 ILO Conventions ratified by Mauritius 13

2.6 BENCHMARKING DECENT WORK PARAMETERS 14

2.6.1 An Analysis of Decent Work in the Cleaning Sector of Mauritius 16

CHAPTER 3 17

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK 17

3. THE ORIGIN OF DECENT WORK 18

3.1 THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (ILO) 19

3.2 LINKING DECENT WORK TO MILLENIUM & SDG GOALS 21

3.3 ILO PRE CONDITIONS FOR DECENT WORK 23

3.3.1 Employment Dimension of Decent Work 24

3.3.2 Workers' rights Dimension of Decent Work 33

3.3.3 Social Protection Dimension of Decent Work 36

3.3.4 Social Dialogue Dimension of Decent Work 38

3.4 INTERDEPENDENCIES AND COMPLEMENTARITIES FOR DECENT WORK 43

3.4.1 Conflicts among dimensions of Decent Work 44
3.5 COMPARING DECENT WORK IN COUNTRIES : DECENT WORK MODELS 45
3.5.1 The Classical Model 46
3.5.2 The Transition Model 47
3.5.3 The Development Model 48
3.6 MEASURING DECENT WORK METHODOLOGICALLY 49
3.6.1 Indicators for Employment Dimension of Decent Work 50
3.6.2 Indicators for Social Protection Dimension of Decent Work 51
3.6.3 Indicators for Workers Rights Dimension of Decent Work 52
3.6.4 Indicators for Social Dialogue Dimension of Decent Work 54
3.7 THE WORKING CLASS WORLD WIDE 57
3.7.1 Employing the Working Class – A Green Approach 58
CHAPTER 4 63
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 63
4. INTRODUCTION 64
4.1 FORMULATING THE RESEARCH PROBLEM 65
4.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY 66
4.3 EXTENSIVE LITERATURE SURVEY 66
4.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY 67
4.5 DATA COLLECTION 67
4.5.1.1 Interview Questions 68
4.5.1.2 Structure of the Interview Protocol 70
4.6 DETERMINING THE SAMPLE FROM THE POPULATION 71
4.6.1 Defining the population & sampling. 71
4.6.2 Pilot Testing 73
4.6.3 Problems encountered 74
4.7 ANALYSIS OF DATA 74
4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION 78
CHAPTER 5 79
FINDINGS 79
5. INTRODUCTION 80
5.1 AGE 80
5.2 EDUCATION 80

5.3 GENDER 81
5.4 PRESENCE OF A WORKING CONTRACT 81
5.5 WORKING ARRANGEMENT 82
5.5.1 Arrival and Departure time 82
4.5.2 Overtime 83
5.6 PREVIOUS WORKING EXPERIENCE OF CLEANERS 83
5.7 EMPLOYMENT DIMENSION 85
5.7.1 Salary 85
5.7.2 Other Employment Benefits 87
5.7.3 Quality of life of cleaners 88
5.7.4 Commitment to the work of cleaner 90
5.7.5 Protective Equipment 91
5.7.6 Cleaners' Health Protection 92
5.7.7 Presence of Casual and Sick Leaves 92
5.7.8 Time with Family & Friends – Work Life Balance 93
5.7.9 Career Drive of Cleaners 94
5.7.10 Work Pressure 95
5.7.11 Work Supervision 95
5.7.12 Work Training 96
5.7.13 Work Adaptation 96
5.7.14 Pause in Contract 96
5.8 EMPLOYMENT RIGHTS DIMENSION 97
5.8.1 Knowledge of Workers' Rights 97
5.8.2 Respect of Workers' Rights 97
5.8.3 Knowledge of Unions & Membership 98
5.8.4 Discrimination at Work 99
5.8.5 Presence of Forced Labour 100
5.9 SOCIAL PROTECTION DIMENSION 101
5.9.1 Accident at Work 101
5.9.2 Long absences due to sickness 101
5.9.3 Invalidity at Work 101
5.9.4 Social Protection Extended to family members 102
5.10 SOCIAL DIALOGUE DIMENSION 102

5.10.1 Name of Trade Union 102
5.10.2 Discussion of Employees' request at Trade Union meetings 102
5.10.3 Participation in Strikes or Petitions 103
5.10.4 Types of negotiations 103
5.10.5 Person responsible to take cleaners' requests and suggestions 103
5.10.6 Attending union meetings 103
5.10.7 Negotiations of Salary and Working Conditions 104
CHAPTER 6 ANALYSIS 106
6A DISCUSSION 107
6A.1 Parameter 1 : Work& Employment 107
6A.1.1 Employment Quality and Conditions of Work 107
6A.2 Parameter 2 :Rights at Work Parameter 111
6A.2.1 The legal aspect 111
6A.3 Parameter 3 :Social Protection 116
6A.3.1 Accidents in the cleaning sector 116
6A.3.2 Physical workload and stress 118
6A.3.3 Occupational accidents 118
6A.3.4 Chemical hazards 118
6A.3.5 Psychosocial hazards 119
6A.4 Parameter 4 :Social Dialogue 120
6A.4.1 Freedom of Association 120
6B EMERGING THEMES / ISSUES 123
6B.1 Socio Economic Issues faced 123
6B.1.1 The Vicious circle of Financial Debts 123
6B.1.2 Soliciting financial help from others, neglected households 124
6B.2 Job of Cleaner perceived asForced labour or even next to "slavery" 124
6B.3 Complete Absence of Work Life balance 125
6B.3.1 No days off 126
6B.4 Discrimination at work 127
6B.5 Cleaning companies' expenditure on social protection coverages 127
6B.6 Poor Unionisation & No Collective Agreement 128
CHAPTER 7 RECOMMENDATIONS & CONCLUSION 130
7.1 THE WORK AND EMPLOYMENT PARAMETER 131

7.1.1 Short contractual nature of the work of cleaners 131
7.1.2 Remunerative Employment 132
7.2 THE RIGHTS AT WORK 133
7.2.1 Working hours, pauses and overtime 134
7.2.2 Paid leaves and bonuses 134
7.2.3 Safety & Health Issues 135
7.3 THE SOCIAL PROTECTION PARAMETER 136
7.3.1 Contribution to the National Savings Fund and National Pensions Fund 136
7.3.2 Accident and Medical Insurance Covers 137
7.4 THE SOCIAL DIALOGUE PARAMETER 137
CONCLUSION 139
REFERENCES 141
APPENDICES 155

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1	Main cleaning companies in Mauritius
Table 2.2	Employment in Cleaning Sector in Mauritius
Table 2.3	Salary scale of cleaners
Table 2.4	ILO Conventions in Force and Ratified by Mauritius
Table 3.1	Social Dialogue categories in some countries of the world
Table 3.2	Decent work models
Table 4.1	Research Questions for Employment dimension
Table 4.2	Research Questions for Social Dialogue dimension
Table 4.3	Research Questions for Social Protection dimension
Table 4.4	Research Questions for Workers' rights dimension
Table 4.5	The number of interviewees reached through surveys
Table 4.6	Data collection period
Table 5.1	Age Distribution of respondents
Table 5.2	Education of respondents
Table 5.3	Gender of respondents
Table 5.4	Working contracts of cleaners
Table 5.5	The working schedule of cleaners
Table 5.6	Overtime work by cleaners
Table 5.7	Prior working experience of cleaners
Table 5.8	Perceptions of cleaners' salary
Table 5.9	Others benefits provided by the cleaning company
Table 5.10	Cleaners' quality of life
Table 5.11	The work commitment of cleaners
Table 5.12	Protective equipment at the cleaning company
Table 5.13	Health Protection of cleaners
Table 5.14	Paid leaves of cleaners
Table 5.15	Work life balance of cleaners
Table 5.16	Career drive of cleaners

Table 5.17	Work Pressure in the cleaning work
Table 5.18	Work Supervision of cleaners
Table 5.19	Training of cleaners
Table 5.20	Work Adaptation of cleaners
Table 5.21	Pause in working contract
Table 5.22	Knowledge of workers' rights
Table 5.23	Respect for workers' rights
Table 5.24	Knowledge of unions and membership
Table 5.25	Discrimination at work
Table 5.26	Presence of Forced Labour
Table 5.27	Accident at work
Table 5.28	Long absences due to sickness
Table 5.29	Invalidity at work
Table 5.30	Social protection for family members
Table 5.31	Trade Union name
Table 5.32	Discussions with trade unions
Table 5.33	Participation in Strikes
Table 5.34	Types of negotiations
Table 5.35	Person responsible to take request
Table 5.36	Attending Union Meetings
Table 5.37	Negotiations of salary and working conditions
Table 6.1	Benchmarking ILO Pillar 1
Table 6.2	Benchmarking ILO Pillar 2
Table 6.3	Benchmarking ILO Pillar 3
Table 6.4	Benchmarking ILO Pillar 4

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Evolution in the number of cleaning companies in Mauritius
Figure 2.2	Coherence of Mauritius with ILO Objectives
Figure 3.1	Employment Fit
Figure 3.2	Triangle of social dialogue
Figure 3.3	Typology of social dialogue
Figure 3.4	Cycle of social dialogue
Figure 3.5	ILO preconditions for decent work (interdependencies)
Figure 4.1	The Research process
Figure 4.2	Diagrammatic representation of sampling
Figure 4.3	The snowball technique
Figure 6.1	Thematic representation of discussion for ILO Parameter 1
Figure 6.2	Working contracts and duration of cleaners
Figure 6.3	Thematic representation of discussion for ILO Parameter 2
Figure 6.4	Thematic representation of discussion for ILO Parameter 3
Figure 6.5	Thematic representation of discussion for ILO Parameter 4
Figure 6.6	Intensity of social dialogue in the cleaning sector
Figure 6.7	Typology of social dialogue in the cleaning sector

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The Research Team would like to thank the Mauritius Research Council for providing them with the required opportunity and funding to carry out and promote such social research in the Republic of Mauritius.

The team also seizes this opportunity to thank the University of Technology, Mauritius for having extended the required support to enable successful completion of this research endeavour.

The efforts put in by the Research Assistant engaged in this project is also hereby put on record. The team thus wishes to heartily thank Mrs Peggy Moonien for her continuous dedication and patience shown for all the milestones achieved for the research project.

Words are not enough when it comes to thank all the cleaners and cleaning companies who gave their time and insights during data collection. This project would have definitely been incomplete without their valuable contribution.

Our acknowledgements also go to Jane Ragoo from the CTSP for her insights, and Mr. Pradeep Dursun, CEO Business Mauritius for facilitating data collection at one point in time.

Dr.S D Lukea Bhiwajee Dr. P Ramseook Munhurrun Dr. P Naidoo

ABBREVIATIONS

CEWA	Cleaning Enterprises Workers Association
CTSP	La Confédération des Travailleurs du Secteur Privé
DW	Decent Work
DWCP	Decent Work Country Programme
EPR	Employment-to-population ratio
HRM	Human Resource Management
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LFPR	Labour force participation rate
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MLIRET	Minister of Labour, Industrial Relations, Employment & Training
NEP	National Employment Policy
NRB	National Remuneration Board
RO	Remuneration Order
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
UR	Unemployment rate
WTO	World Trade Organization



CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION



1. DECENT WORK - BACKGROUND & RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The concept of decent work was introduced by the ILO Director-General Juan Somavia in his first report to the International Labour Conference in June 1999 in the following words, The primary goal of the ILO today is to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equality, security and human dignity (Ghai, 2005; Facey *et al.,* 2010; Flores, 2013). Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income; security in the workplace and social protection for families; better prospects for personal development and social integration; freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives; and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men (Ali, 2013; Artazcoz *et al.,* 2004; Butterworth *et al.,* 2013). The promotion of decent work for all is the overarching objective of the ILO (Chawla 2005). This is why decent work is at the heart of global, national and local strategies for economic and social progress. Additionally, today, decent work is central to the efforts to reduce poverty, and as a means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development.

Nevertheless, people throughout the world face deficits, gaps and exclusions in the form of unemployment and underemployment; poor quality and unproductive jobs; unsafe work and insecure income; rights which are denied; gender inequality; exploitation of migrant workers; lack of representation and voice; and inadequate protection and solidarity in the face of disease, disability and old age (Benach *et al.,* 2007; Carr *et al.,* 2012; Dawis, 2005; Dik *et al.,* 2013; Duffy *et al.,* 2016). Despite the fact that the ILO has 187 member states as at November 2015, decent work still eludes the vast number of informal sector workers in developing countries. In June 2001, the Director-General of the ILO presented to the 89th International Labour Conference, the annual report entitled "Reducing the decent work deficit: A global challenge". In his report he expressed concern over a global decent work deficit of immense proportions, reflecting the diverse inequalities of our societies (ILO 2001c; ILO 2004a).

The decent work deficit is more pronounced for the workers in the informal economy in comparison to workers with secure and permanent jobs in the formal economy (Menéndez, 2007;

Nauta, 2013; MacLachlan, 2014; Lewchuck, 2003). However the sad truth is that over the years the bulk of new employment in recent years, particularly in developing and transition countries has been in the informal economy. Most people have been going into the informal economy because they cannot find jobs or are unable to start businesses in the formal economy. These people lack adequate protection, security, organization and voice. The components of decent work: work and employment, rights at work, social dialogue and social protection are as important in the informal as in the formal economy (ILO 2001c, ILO 2002).

In recent years trade liberalization and globalization are re-shaping and re-defining the composition, dynamics and geographical distribution of the informal economy (Malenfant *et al.,* 2007; MacNaughton et al, 2011; Lipscomb *et al.,* 2006). One of the many results of adjustment policies and the globalization of national economies has been the increasing heterogeneity within labour market segments that were previously more homogenous (Flum, 2015). Moreover, changes in the organization of production precipitated by globalization, and involving inter alia, the fragmentation and relocation of production through sub-contracting and outsourcing are contributing to the emergence of a new model of employment relying on more flexible employment arrangements (Guichard, 2013; Hammer *et al.,* 2011; Holland, 1997). Through outsourcing arrangements, formal enterprises retain the services of workers at a cost which is beyond the agreement laid down in the employment contract. As such, decent work deficit is also reflected into this new employment model.

The Cleaning Industry is a well-documented example of this phenomenon. This new employment model has strong gender dimensions attached as the spectacular growth of female participation in the labour market in the past two decades, and their enhanced access to wage employment, have not been paralleled by similar progress in terms of quality employment. And when compared to their male counterparts' women continue to be concentrated in the lower occupational ranks in a narrow range of activities with low wages and least secure contractual arrangements (ILO 2000). The cleaning workers constitute a workforce which is largely invisible and most exploited category of workers in the formal economy.

Cleaning workers are not confined to the developing countries alone but are found in developed countries as well. It is estimated that there are over 17,207,200 million cleaning workers in the

world (Worldwide cleaning report, 2012). Due to the invisibility of their work, the contribution of cleaners to the economy is ignored, and they are deprived of social benefits and workers' rights. Typically, cleaning workers are scattered, often illiterate, un-represented and invisible both in national data or programme. In the recent years, the demand for more cleaners is on the rise and has become a vital and a growing part of the modern world economy (Sinha 2006, WIEGO 2011).

1.1 SETTING THE SCENE: THE CASE OF MAURITIUS CLEANING INDUSTRY

This vulnerability of cleaners gets more accentuated when one analyses it within the context of Mauritius. Many organizations in Mauritius prefer to contract cleaning services considered as a peripheral service to the organization. In so doing, organizations have freed themselves from many HR related issues but on the other hand, have also leaved space for contractors offering cleaning services to "mushroom" out. However, in so doing, the resulted workers are rarely treated as a category of their own in numerous surveys and reports, but are rather roped in under a more general category, most commonly under "others". In this sense, many a times, workers working as cleaners, are most of the time "absent" from economic indicators or are referred in the sector of General cleaning of buildings and industrial cleaning activities (Digest of Labour Statistics, Central Statistics Office, Mauritius, 2014).

Currently, the Cleaning Industry in Mauritius is considered to be a very lucrative business but is devoid of the many hard and soft HR practices an employment contract should entail such as a decent pay, decent hours, presence of a psychological contract, social dialogue, the right to be unionized and so on and so forth. There are around 170 registered cleaning companies throughout the island, employing more than 4,000 individuals of different age groups. (Digest of Labour Statistics, Central Statistics Office, Mauritius, 2014). Alarmingly, the majority of workers offering their services to cleaning companies are most of the time employed on fixed term discontinuous contracts. To add to the complexity of this sector, cleaning services being a very low skilled job, a high rate of labour turnover is also noted coupled with a series of grievances on the part of employees, often made public through private radios and newspapers.

Additionally, if the current working conditions of the Mauritian cleaner in the face of the pre conditions for decent work are analyzed, there seem to be a major disrespect and non-compliance with regards to the ILO decent Work Agenda. More so since, Mauritius has already charted out its Decent Work Country Programme (DWCP) with a list of priorities as well. However, till date, there has not been any structured research done to investigate into the status of decent work after DWCP has been established, contrary to other countries, like Kenya (Geren, 2010) and prestigious institutions like the World Health Organization and World Bank (Di Ruggiero *et al;* 2014).

Furthermore, According to the UNDP (2015), some of the immediate challenges and priorities for Mauritius include Goal no. 8 – Decent work and economic growth of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) 2030 Agenda. The SDG consists of 17 goals commonly known as the Global Goals, which will replace the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Business Mag, 2016).

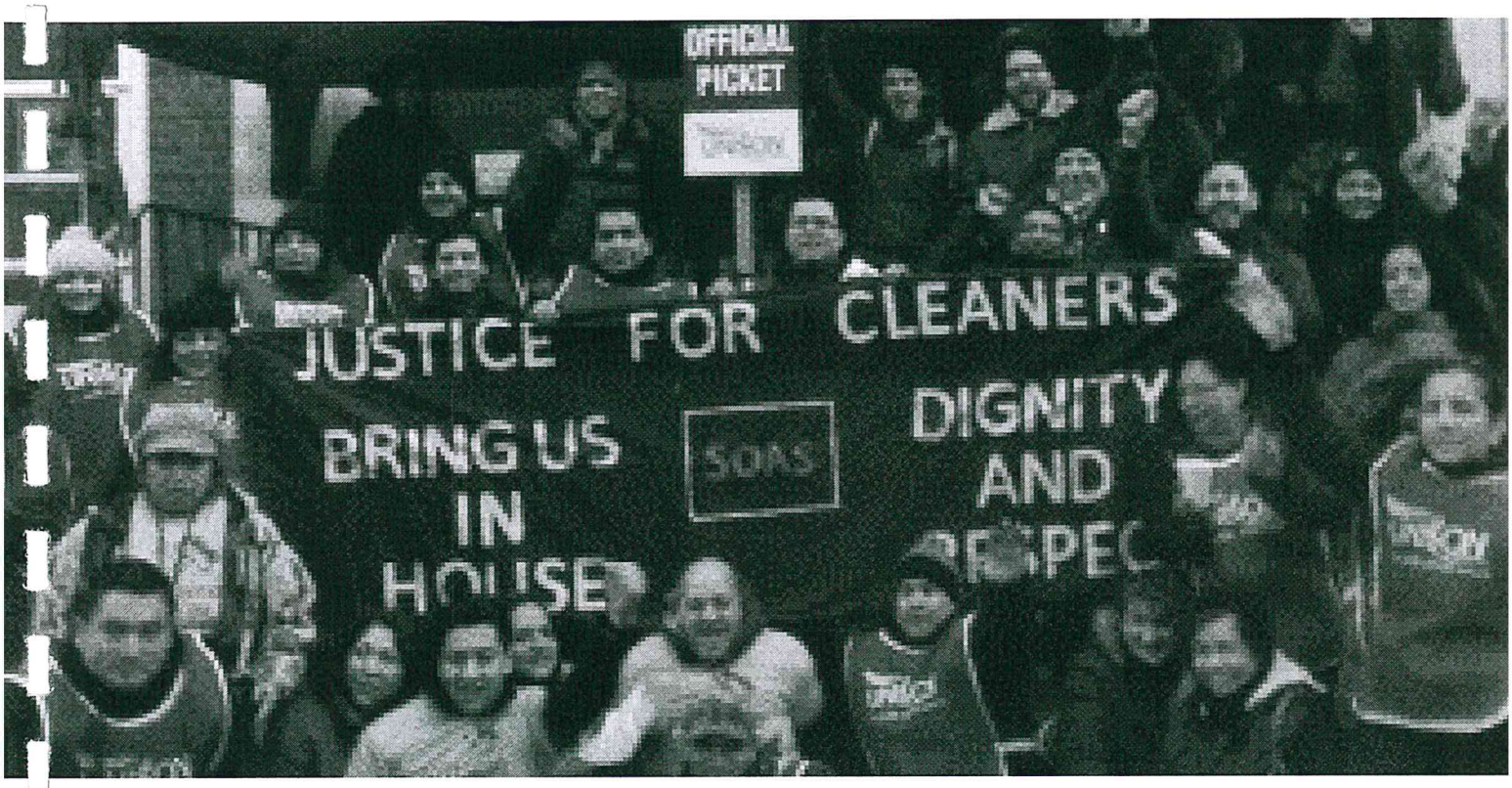
According to the UNDP (2015), the MDGs have been declared the most successful anti-poverty initiative in history, having enabled significant changes such as reducing extreme poverty by half; from 1.9 billion people to 836 million people globally. It has led to the reduction of the number of undernourished people by half while the number of unschooled children fell from 100 million to 57 million. The mortality rate among children under five years of age has also been halved and 2.1 billion people have gained access to sanitation. In spite of this progress, by 2011, the UNDP (2015) reaffirmed that it was clearer that in the future there could not be any development which was not sustainable and that all countries needed to redress their development to keep it within what are now called planetary boundaries. Therein now lies the main challenge for the SDGs: to obtain global resonance which is translated into concrete actions.

According to the CTSP (2015), Mauritius committed itself to achieve 17 goals as set out in the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) for 2015-2030. As far as the 8th goal is concerned, that is, to promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all, the Cabinet gave its green light for Good Governance and the Integrity Bill on 9th October 2015, which will speak of good governance and equal opportunity for all.

1.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study investigates the extent to which individuals working as "cleaners" in the Republic of Mauritius, perceive their jobs to be "decent" according to the parameters set by ILO (2008a). The objectives of the study have been set as follows:

- To assess the **employment dimension** of decent work among cleaning workers in Mauritius.
- To investigate on the **social protection dimension** of decent work among cleaners in Mauritius.
- To examine the **rights at work dimension** of decent work among cleaners in Mauritius.
- To investigate into the details of the **social dialogue dimension** of decent work among cleaners in Mauritius.



CHAPTER 2

PROFILE OF THE CLEANING SECTOR IN MAURITIUS



2. THE PROFILE OF THE CLEANING SECTOR IN MAURITIUS

The Cleaning sector in Mauritius has approximately thirty-one years old and took birth with the incorporation of Alpha Cleaning Co Ltd. According to Le Mauricien (2012), it employs around 3,800 employees generating a value-added of Rs 956 m and thus contributing around 0.33% to the economy. However, despite its meagre share in the total GDP, its importance in the economy should in no way be underestimated since cleaning is a vital service that enables the smooth running of commercial and business activities in the economy. A survey on companies' websites and companies division's websites revealed that the main cleaning companies in Mauritius are as per the Table below:

Table 2.1 Main cleaning companies in Mauritius

Cleaning companies	Number of employees	Year of Incorporation	Remarks
Alpha cleaning	1,200	1986	Certified ISO 9001 : 2000
Service 2000 Ltd	NA	1988	-
Atics Ltd	325	1991	Focused on cleaner environment and owned by keep clean ltd
Mauriclean Ltd	NA	1992	-
Maxiclean Co Ltd	NA	1996	-
Keepclean Ltd	NA	1997	ISO certified
New Cleaning Service Ltd	NA	2001	-
Dynamic Cleaning Services Ltd	NA	2007	-
Ecoclean Co Ltd	NA	2008	-

The salary of cleaners is governed by the National Remuneration Board under the Cleaning Enterprises (RO) Regulations. The Cleaning Enterprises (R.O) Regulations defines a Cleaning Enterprise as an enterprise engaged in general cleaning and keeping in an orderly condition premises, streets and other open places. Although recommendations concerning the remuneration and working conditions of workers employed in this sector were first made public in 1994, the ensuing regulations became effective only in 1995. Thus, the present R.O. was made under the socio-economic conditions prevailing some 17 years back when there were hardly 8 large firms operating in the industry, employing around 2100 workers. It was reported by Le Mauricien (2012) that the Cleaning Sector's Remuneration Order has not been revised for these past seventeen years.

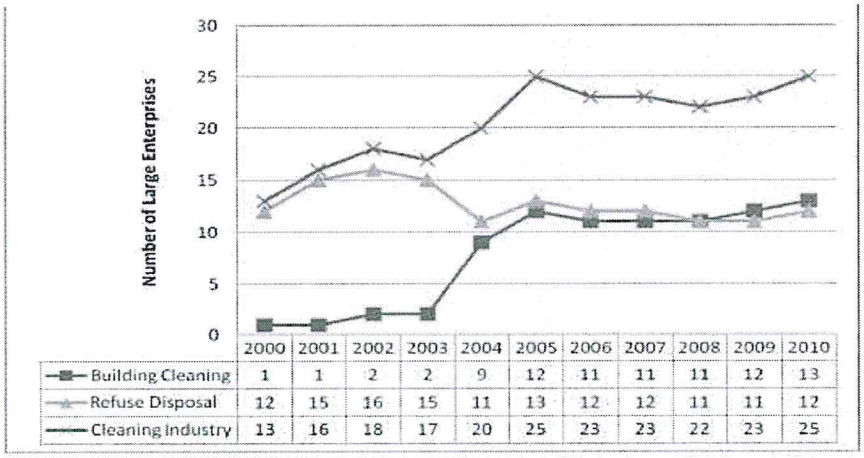
Since then, the cleaning sector has witnessed an intensification and diversification in the range of services provided by private cleaning contractors to meet the growing demands of economic operators in the Mauritian economy. Since 1995, the Cleaning sector has diversified into a wide range of cleaning activities ranging from office cleaning to refuse collection. It also includes industrial cleaning, maintenance of areas around buildings and the cleaning of beaches and streets. Due to the continuous outsourcing of services, contract cleaning has gradually become an integral part of various industrial sectors and it plays an essential role in the daily life of a vast number of workplaces.

2.1 OVERVIEW OF CLEANING COMPANIES

The cleaning sector is characterized by a small number of large firms and a large number of small and medium-sized firms operating in a competitive environment. The small operators tend to be self-employed contractors with less than 10 employees, consisting mainly of cleaners and where the administrative tasks are usually done by the owner himself or a family member. Such establishments normally operate from the owner's home and do not have a formal office as such. According to the Statistics Mauritius, there were around 180 such establishments offering cleaning services in 2007.

Large establishments, on the other hand, are normally well-structured organisations which employ at least some administrative, marketing and supervisory staff in addition to the manual workers. Those falling in between these two types of enterprises are medium enterprises employing up to 50 workers and it can be assumed that they are a common feature of the industrial set-up. From the year 1994 to 2001, the number of large establishments in this sector has increased from 8 to 16 and from 2001 to 2010 the number has further increased to reach 25. It can be noted from figure 1 below that since 2000 the number of firms specialising in building cleaning has remained almost stable till 2003 to pick up sharply in 2004 and to reach 12 in 2005. However, it has dropped slightly in 2006 to stabilise at 11 until 2009 when it registered a slight increase. In 2010 there were 13 such large enterprises operating in the sector. Insofar as refuse collection, disposal and other cleaning services is concerned, there were 12 firms providing such services in 2000. Since then it followed

an upward trend to peak at 16 in 2002 and then gradually decreased to 11 in 2004. After 2005, it has registered a downward trend to increase slightly to 12 in 2010.



	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Building Cleaning	1	1	2	2	9	12	11	11	11	12	13
Refuse Disposal	12	15	16	15	11	13	12	12	11	11	12
Cleaning Industry	13	16	18	17	20	25	23	23	22	23	25

Source: Statistics Mauritius

Figure 2.1 Evolution in the number of cleaning companies in Mauritius

2.2 EMPLOYMENT IN THE CLEANING COMPANIES

Total employment in the sector has registered an increase of 60% in the past decade although the total number of large enterprises has almost doubled to 25. Table I below shows that the number of workers employed in providing cleaning services has increased from 2,371 in the year 2000 to 3,394 in 2005, representing a 43% increase. However, employment in the sector then declined for two consecutive years to pick up again in 2008 to reach 3,247. In year 2010 total employment in the cleaning sector stood at 3,803.

Table 2.2 Employment in Cleaning Sector in Mauritius

Year	Building Cleaning		Refuse Disposal & Other Services		Cleaning Sector	
	Enterprise	Employment	Enterprise	Employment	Total No. of Firms	Total Employment
2000	1	16	12	2,355	13	2,371
2001	1	16	15	2,206	16	2,222
2002	2	118	16	2,843	18	2,961
2003	2	117	15	2,816	17	2,933
2004	9	1,636	11	1,562	20	3,198
2005	12	1,697	13	1,697	25	3,394
2006	11	1,532	12	1,648	23	3,180
2007	11	1,587	12	1,553	23	3,140
2008	11	1,687	11	1,560	22	3,247
2009	12	1,970	11	1,656	23	3,626
2010	13	2,083	12	1,720	25	3,803

Furthermore, it has been observed that an increasing number of female workers have joined this sector from 2000 to 2010. In the year 2000, 620 female workers joined the industry and the number has increased to 1,696 in 2010. Although more or less equally distributed for the whole of the cleaning sector, the tendency seems to be quite distinct for the two types of main activities in this sector. Available data from the Statistics Mauritius indicates that the proportion of female to male workers has increased from 25% to 65% in building cleaning and the trend has been reversed from 26% to 20% in refuse disposal and related activities where workers have been observed to be predominantly male due to the very nature of the work.

2.3 LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND CLIENTS IN THE SECTOR

The NRB (2012) reported that most of the local government authorities contract out a large part of their cleaning services to private companies, hence representing a potential market to cleaning enterprises. The main reasons put forward by the local authorities for having recourse to private cleaning are lack of manpower, equipment and logistics. Hence, it was observed that private cleaning enterprises bring considerable help to the local government authorities in resolving their labour shortage and absenteeism problems and it also helps them reduce cost that they would have incurred in the investment of physical resources and/or the recruitment of in-house cleaners.

2.4 TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP

According to the NRB (2012), most employees of the cleaning companies are not unionized. In a study conducted by the NRB in 2012, out of 18 cleaning enterprises 16 had no union representation within their establishments. On the workers' side, the report stated that out of 213 workers interviewed in this sector in their respective workplaces, only 24, which represent around 11 %, belonged to trade unions. In Le Mauricien (2012), the two main trade unions which have fight and negotiated for the wellbeing of cleaners in Mauritius are: (1) La Confédération des Travailleurs du Secteur Privé (CTSP) and (2) Cleaning Enterprises Workers Association (CEWA).

2.5 LEGAL ASPECTS GOVERNING CLEANERS IN MAURITIUS ACCORDING TO THE REMUNERATION ORDER 2013

- **Salary:** Cleaners salary scale are as follows:

Table 2.3 Salary scale of cleaners

1st year	6,935
2nd year	7,085
3rd year	7,235
4th year	7,390
5th year	7,573
6th year	7,755
7th year	7,938
8th year and thereafter	8,120

- **Normal working week:** A normal working week shall be of 45 hours and be completed in any period of 6 consecutive days.
- **Breaks:** A lunch break of one hour; and 2 tea breaks of 10 minutes each.
- **Public Holiday:** Works on a public holiday shall be remunerated – at twice the basic rate for every hour up to the number of hours.
- **Annual Leave:** Where a worker remains in continuous employment with the same employer for a period of 12 consecutive months, the worker shall, in the following 12 months, be entitled to 16 days' annual leave on full pay.
- **Sick Leave:** A worker who remains in continuous employment with the same employer for a period of 12 consecutive months shall, during the following 12 months, be entitled to 21 days' sick leave on full pay.
- **Transport**: Every worker shall, either be entitled to free transport or, where no free transport is available, be paid the return bus fare if the distance between his residence and the place where he reports for work exceeds 3 kilometers.
- **Meal allowance:** Where a worker is required to perform more than 2 hours' extra work after having completed a normal day's work, he shall, in addition to any remuneration due

for overtime work, be provided by the employer with an adequate free meal or be paid a meal allowance of 70 rupees per day.

- **Protective equipment:** 2 uniforms and 2 pairs of boots or protective shoes, whichever is appropriate, every year; appropriate gloves, which shall be replaced as and when they become unserviceable; and a raincoat every 2 years.
- **Bonus:** Where a worker remains in continuous employment with the same employer for one year, the worker shall be entitled, at the end of that year, to a bonus equivalent to one twelfth of his earnings for that year.
- **Medical facilities:** Where a worker is regularly exposed to dust or noxious substances and emanations – his employer shall cause the worker to undergo a complete medical examination, every 6 months, at the expense of the employer.

2.5.1 ILO Conventions ratified by Mauritius

Out of **50** Conventions ratified by Mauritius, of which **38** are in force, **12** Conventions have been denounced; **none** have been ratified in the past 12 months (ILO website). The list below are all ILO ratifications by Mauritius and which are in force:

Table 2.4 ILO Conventions in Force and Ratified by Mauritius

C029 - Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29)
C087 - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87)
C098 - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)
C100 - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100)
C105 - Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)
C111 - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111)
C138 - Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)*Minimum age specified: 15 years*
C182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)
C081 - Labour Inspection Convention, 1947 (No. 81)
C144 - Tripartite Consultation (International Labour Standards) Convention, 1976 (No. 144)
C002 - Unemployment Convention, 1919 (No. 2)
C011 - Right of Association (Agriculture) Convention, 1921 (No. 11)
C012 - Workmen's Compensation (Agriculture) Convention, 1921 (No. 12)
C014 - Weekly Rest (Industry) Convention, 1921 (No. 14)
C017 - Workmen's Compensation (Accidents) Convention, 1925 (No. 17)
C019 - Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) Convention, 1925 (No. 19)
C026 - Minimum Wage-Fixing Machinery Convention, 1928 (No. 26)
C032 - Protection against Accidents (Dockers) Convention (Revised), 1932 (No. 32)
C042 - Workmen's Compensation (Occupational Diseases) Convention (Revised), 1934 (No. 42)
C084 - Right of Association (Non-Metropolitan Territories) Convention, 1947 (No. 84)

C086 - Contracts of Employment (Indigenous Workers) Convention, 1947 (No. 86)
C088 - Employment Service Convention, 1948 (No. 88)
C094 - Labour Clauses (Public Contracts) Convention, 1949 (No. 94)
C095 - Protection of Wages Convention, 1949 (No. 95)
C097 - Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97)Has excluded the provisions of Annexes I to III
C099 - Minimum Wage Fixing Machinery (Agriculture) Convention, 1951 (No. 99)
C108 - Seafarers' Identity Documents Convention, 1958 (No. 108)
C137 - Dock Work Convention, 1973 (No. 137)
C150 - Labour Administration Convention, 1978 (No. 150)
C154 - Collective Bargaining Convention, 1981 (No. 154)
C155 - Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 1981 (No. 155)
C156 - Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156)
C159 - Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (Disabled Persons) Convention, 1983 (No. 159)
C160 - Labour Statistics Convention, 1985 (No. 160) Acceptance of Articles 7-10 and 12-15 of Part II has been specified pursuant to Article 16, paragraph 2 of the Convention.
C175 - Part-Time Work Convention, 1994 (No. 175)
MLC, 2006 - Maritime Labour Convention, 2006 (MLC, 2006) In accordance with Standard A4.5 (2) and (10), the Government has specified the following branches of social security: unemployment benefit; old-age benefit; employment injury benefit; invalidity benefit and survivors' benefit.
Amendments of 2014 to the MLC, 2006
C187 - Promotional Framework for Occupational Safety and Health Convention, 2006 (No. 187)
C189 - Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189)

2.6 BENCHMARKING DECENT WORK PARAMETERS IN THE CLEANING SECTOR OF MAURITIUS – The Decent Work Country Programme For Mauritius

In July 2010, the Government of Mauritius embarked on the development process of a new National Employment Policy (NEP) with the aim to achieve decent employment for all Mauritian women and men. To this end, the Government sought technical assistance from ILO to inter alia, formulate the country's National Employment Policy. A final draft of the National Employment Policy was submitted to the Government in April 2014 for endorsement by the Cabinet. A workshop combining representatives of the Government, Trade Unions, Employers, jobseekers, experts and other stakeholders was organized by the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations, Employment and Training in October 2014 to obtain the views and recommendations of all stakeholders prior to the document being finalized and to come up with an Action Plan regarding the implementation of the NEP. The final draft of the NEP was not however adopted up to date.

However, since the 2014 NEP draft was finalized, the Government has embarked on an ambitious Programme 2015-2019. This High Powered Committee on Achieving the Second Economic

Miracle and Vision 2030 enunciates several new economic and social strategies with the objectives to redress the economy, to boost up investments and to curb down the rising unemployment rate through job creation. The vision is also to overcome the challenge that Mauritius is facing on the mismatch between the unemployment rates estimated at 7.8% in 2011 and 8.0% in both 2012 and 2013 and the dependence of the country on migrant workers.

Besides, the dynamism in Mauritius with the new strategies mentioned above and the vision of the government thus provide a new direction in the economic and social front and in that context, the Ministry has deemed it necessary to review the draft National Employment Policy to refocus it in line with the new areas of employment creation advocated by Government. In that context, the Minister of Labour, Industrial Relations, Employment and Training (MLIRET) approached Mr. Aeneas Chapinga CHUMA, ILO Assistant Director General and Regional Director for Africa, during his visit in October 2015, to review the draft National Employment Policy in line with the new Government strategies. The process would be taken as a process to reinforce social dialogue to ensure full participation and commitment of all stakeholders in the new policy.

It was found that the Mauritius DWCP is relevant and coherent with the global and regional objectives. Its priorities are basically drawn from the Four Strategic Objectives of ILO, with gender equality as a crosscutting objective. Figure below gives an indication of this alignment:

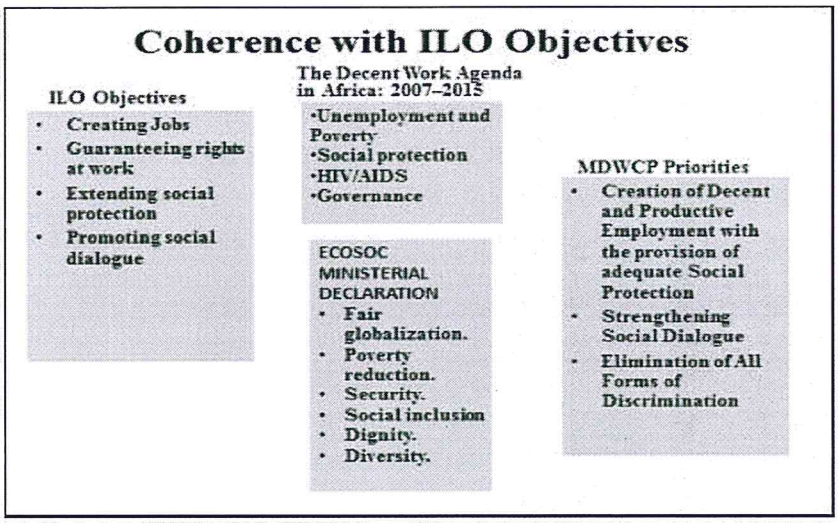


Figure 2.2 Coherence of Mauritius with ILO Objectives

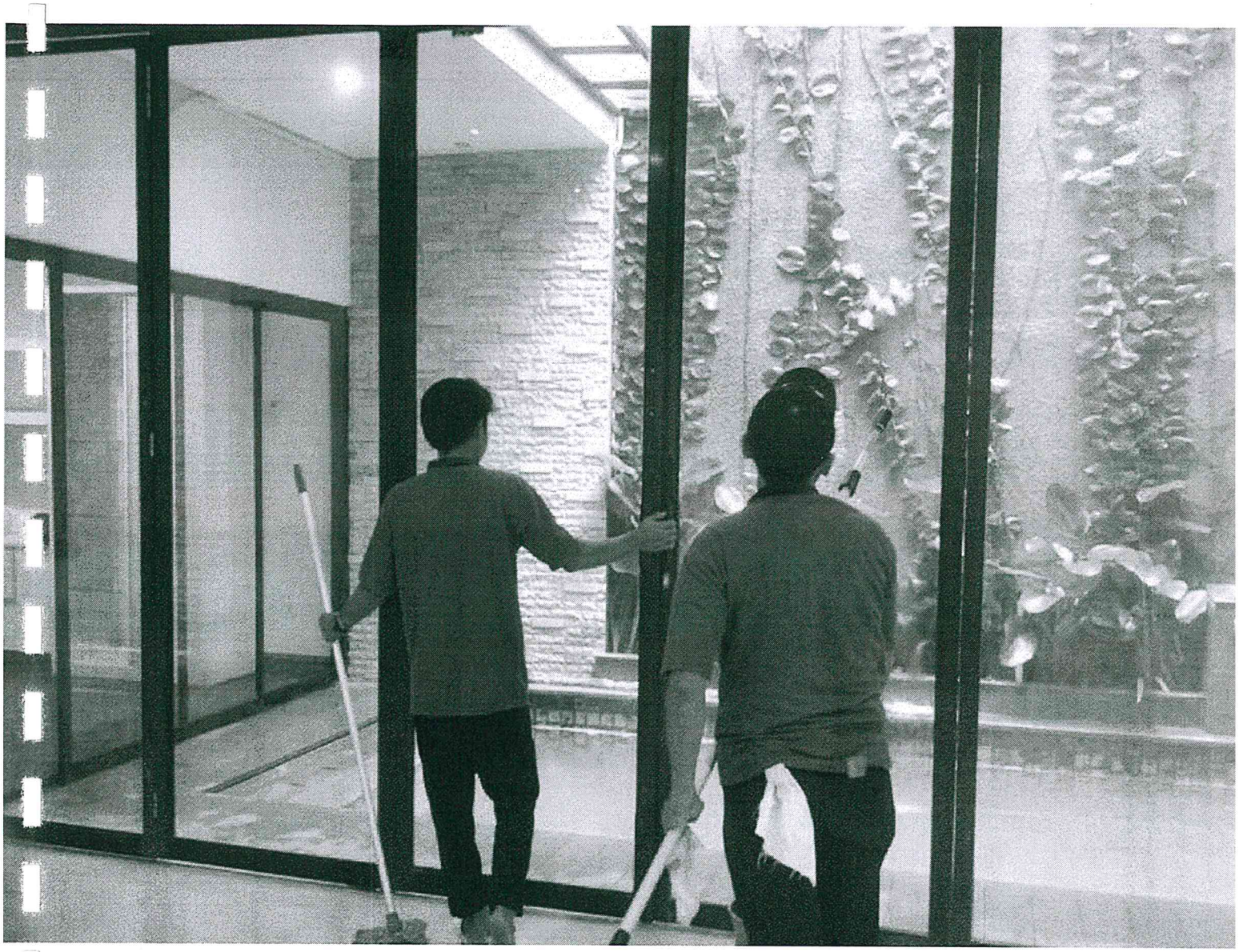
It is noted that the 3 priorities of the MDWCP in juxtaposition with the 4 ILO Objectives and its Decent Work Agenda in Africa (2007-2015), agreed at the Africa Union Summit in Ouagadougou in 2006 and the ECOSOC Ministerial Declaration of 2012. The ILO"s mission on social protection, employment and skill development is fully coherent with national based initiatives.

2.6.1 An Analysis of Decent Work in the Cleaning Sector of Mauritius

The term decent work was first introduced by the Director General of the International Labour Organization (ILO), Mr. Juan Somavia, in his address to the 87th International Labour Conference in 1999. Mr. Somavia defined decent work as 'productive work in which rights are protected, which generates an adequate income with adequate social protection. It also means sufficient work in the sense that all should have access to income earning opportunities. It marks the high road to economic and social development, a road in which employment, income and social protection can be achieved without compromising workers' rights and sound standards.' He indicated that one of the objectives of Member Countries should not only be to create jobs but to create jobs with acceptable quality.

In this study, we attempted to investigate whether cleaners in the Republic of Mauritius perceived their jobs to be "decent" in line with the four main parameters as established by the ILO:

1) Work and employment,
2) Rights at work,
3) Social protection
4) Social dialogue (Rodgers 2001; Ghai 2002; Fields 2003; Jose 2003; Ghai 2005).



CHAPTER 3
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK



3. THE ORIGIN OF DECENT WORK AND INVOLVEMENT OF INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

Work is defined as a context for human experience and development which have positively impacted the lives of people, organizations, and communities for more than a century (Savickas and Baker, 2005; Blustein, 2006; Guichard, 2009; Landy and Conte, 2010; Schleicher *et al.*, 2011; Di Fabio and Maree, 2012; Di Fabio, 2014).

The contemporary working world has been marked by ruptures and weakening of its traditional structures and the emergence of more fluid working dynamics, making it more flexible, heterogeneous, and complex. This creates, on the one hand, room for changes and innovations but, on the other hand, frequent precariousness, instability and insecurity, as well as greater onus on the workers themselves for their working activity and career in an era of so-called contemporary stability (Touraine, 2007; Castel, 2009; Krein, 2013; Antunes, 2015; Ribeiro, 2014; Evans & Gibb, 2009).

To date, the labour market is upset by the many taken-for-granted assumptions about work and careers (Blustein, 2013; Brynjolfsson and McAfee, 2014; Stiglitz, 2015). Working conditions are increasingly governed by market forces that are currently creating growing levels of instability and insecurity among workers and evoking greater levels of stress and anguish for people around the globe (Kalleberg, 2009; Paul and Moser, 2009; Richardson, 2012; Stiglitz, 2012, 2015; Guichard, 2013; Piketty, 2014; Standing, 2014). Amidst the radical changes in the world of work, international leaders from government, labour, and other public policy domains have provided guidelines about the quality of work that people should be able to access in this new era (ILO,2008a,b, 2014,2015;Standing,2008). Their guidelines have yielded aspirational statement about the sort of work that ought to define the lives of all who work and who want to work : A decent work concept then emerges.

3.1 THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION (ILO)

The responsibility for governing international labour laws has traditionally rested with the International Labour Organization or commonly referred as the ILO. The ILO, founded in 1919, is a specialised agency of the United Nations which seeks to promote social justice and internationally recognized human rights and labour rights, thereby improving the situation of human beings in the world of work (ILO, 1999). The traditional approach of the ILO to improve workplace standards has been to promote conventions and recommendations to be ratified by member countries. These conventions and recommendations are, in fact, labour standards, including respect of fundamental human rights, protection of wages, employment security, working conditions, labour market and social policies, and industrial relations. At present, there are 184 conventions, 195 recommendations, and 175 member states.

The ratification of labour standards is central to the ILO's work program. As stated in (ILO, 1994): "One of our major responsibilities, therefore, is to ensure that, once adopted, standards are widely ratified by States which solemnly pledge to apply them". To ensure further adherence to labour standards by ratified states, there has been a call for renewing the standards by strengthening international labour standards, enhancing the ILO's work on standards, re-evaluating standard-setting, choosing suitable subjects for standards, and reassessing existing conventions (ILO, 1999; Ali, 2013; Blustein, 2011; Carr *et al.,* 2012; Dawis, 2005).

Effectively, in the mid-1990s, a sea change took place in ILO where it turned from the "try everything" approach to international labour standards which are new and have a more focused position (Facey *et al.,* 2010; Clark *et al.,* 2007; Ghai, 2003; Flores, 2013). During the World Summit on Social Development held in 1995 in Copenhagen, core labour standards were defined as including the prohibition of forced labour and child labour, freedom of association and the right to organize and bargain collectively, equal remuneration for men and women for work of equal value, and non-discrimination in employment. What was important about the World Social Summit was not so much what was included but what was not, that is, minimum wages, mandated fringe benefits, maximum hours of work, and the like (Nauta, 2013; Pal *et al.,* 2009; Holland, 1997; Hammer *et al.,* 2011).

Furthermore, according to a study report carried out by the OECD (1996), another major milestone was agreement by the OECD countries upon a set of core labour standards including freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining, elimination of exploitative forms of child labour, the prohibition of forced labour, and non-discrimination in employment along with mechanisms to promote those standards worldwide (Richardson, 2012, 1993; Flum, 2015; Byars-Winston, 2012).

In addition, a truly defining moment for international labour standards was the June 1998 International Labour Conference of the ILO, which approved the Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work. The declaration affirmed that all of the member states of the ILO have the responsibility to promote and to realise, in good faith and in accordance with the ILO Constitution, ***Decent Work*** for all in a global economy (ILO 2012a).

Decent work, an international concept, can be traced to the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights, which expressed the need for work as an integral aspect of human rights. The passage regarding work, which was endorsed by the General Assembly of the UN in December 1948, proposed the following:

- Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.
- Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.
- Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.
- Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests (United Nations Declaration of Human Rights, 1948).

Building on this UN statement about work, the International Labour Organization (ILO), focused on defining the attributes of a work life that fulfils the mission of the UN Declaration. The ILO (2008a) advanced the notion of decent work as a statement to guide its agenda for the future of workers within an increasingly complex occupational context. The International Labour Organization's (2008a) definition of decent work, as stated in the report, includes the following attributes:

- Promoting employment via sustainable institutional and economic contexts;
- Defining, developing, and enriching social protection for workers, including social security and labour protection, which are constructed in accordance with the cultures of given societies;
- Promoting social dialog via intentional connections among governments, worker organizations, and employers;
- A□rming, advancing, and fulfilling the fundamental rights that define a dignified and just workplace.

In effect, what was so important was that these core labour standards did not have to be ratified; they were binding on the member countries of the ILO by virtue of the very fact of their membership to the organization. Since that time, these four core labour standards have been reaffirmed in a variety of forum. In 1999, U.N. Secretary-General Kofi Annan integrated these four core labour standards into a nine-point Global Compact of shared values and principles that has been endorsed by a wide range of business groups, individual companies, organized labour, and non-governmental organizations. Then, in August 2000, the member nations of the OECD incorporated these core labour standards into revised Guidelines for Multinational Enterprises. In its November 2001 Ministerial meeting at Doha, the WTO reaffirmed its support for core labour standards. At that time, the WTO also dropped all labour-related issues from its agenda, leaving those to the ILO.

3.2 LINKING DECENT WORK TO MILLENIUM & SDG GOALS

The Decent Work Agenda would ensure poverty reduction by increasing the work opportunities, the rights at work, the social protection, and the voice of the workers, which would result in an improvement in workers' capabilities and their overall well-being (Rodgers, 2001; Sen, 2000). Decent work is part of MDG 1 and SDG 8, which is the eradicating of poverty and hunger, but decent work also contributes to achieving all other MDGs and SDGs. The result of decent work which is economic empowerment and freedom from child labour contribute to achieving universal education (MDG 2 and SDG 2). By fighting gender discrimination at work and promoting women entrepreneurship, decent work has a direct impact on MDG 3 and SDG 5. This, in turn, helps

reduce child mortality (MDG 4 and SDG 3) and improves maternal health (MDG 5 & SDG 3). Decent work also plays a part in promoting environmental sustainability (MDG 7 & SDG 15) through specific projects focusing on awareness raising and the promotion of good working practices. Moreover, access to employment and a decent income also makes adaptation to climate change easier for people. Finally, building a global partnership (MDG 8 and SDG 17) is only possible if we start by improving social dialogue.

The close link between the promotion of decent work principles and progress on the MDGs and SDGs is supported by specific examples. Several projects across the world help to illustrate the impact of decent work on the MDGs and indicate the way forward.

- In Tanzania, the project "Promoting the Linkages between Women's Employment and the Reduction of Child Labour" is a good example. Between 2001 and 2005, as a result of the project's support to women's employment, a total of 1,325 children were enrolled in day care centres and provided with uniforms, learning materials and meals (MDG 1 and 3). Moreover, a total of 1,281 children between the ages of 6 and 13 formerly engaged in child labour or not attending school, accessed primary education. This was a direct result of their mothers' increased income (MDG 1) (ILO, 2007).

- In Ethiopia, the Dutch funded project "Poverty Reduction through Decent Employment Creation" focused on gender and HIV/AIDS mainstreaming in three different sectors (cotton, floriculture and solid waste management in the city of Addis Ababa). As a result, 320 children were withdrawn from commercial sex and traditional weaving, thus contributing to MDG 4. Women's employment reached levels of 88% and 99% in two of the three sectors (MDG 3). Moreover, 776 waste collectors were trained on basic safety and health skills (MDG 7) (ILO, 2010).

- The ILO's Decent Work Country Programme for Indonesia is also worth mentioning. One of the most important outcomes observed during 2004-2009 has been the restoration of livelihoods in crisis-affected areas of Aceh/Nias and Yogyakarta through gainful employment and other income generating activities (MDG 1); increasing the participation of children in education and reducing child labour (MDG 3); finally, it has created five

cross-border trade union networks to address the labour rights of Indonesians in cooperation with the destination countries (MDG 8) (ILO, 2009).

- The US Department of Labour funded the project "HIV/AIDS workplace education programme in China" (MDG 6). As a result, a number of labour inspectors have been trained in collaboration with the government to facilitate implementation of HIV/AIDS legislation and policies; and 15 pilot companies have introduced workplace HIV policies to reduce discrimination, protect the employment rights of people living with HIV and guarantee on-going prevention and health service referrals. The project was successful at: improving knowledge and attitudes related to HIV/AIDS risk behaviours; increasing knowledge of HIV/AIDS and awareness and use of available HIV/AIDS services and reducing stigma (ILO, 2009).

3.3 ILO PRE CONDITIONS FOR DECENT WORK

The notion of decent work emphasizes four elements/dimensions: work and employment, rights at work, social protection and social dialogue. It constitutes an effort to view the different dimensions of work within a single framework (Rodgers 2001; Ghai 2002; Fields 2003; Jose 2003; Ghai 2005). All these four dimensions have their own set of objectives, content, and relevance in different country situations (Rodgers 2001; Ghai 2005). While the first two components of decent work emphasize on the material forces, other two emphasize on the social relations of workers.

3.3.1 Employment Dimension of Decent Work

The ILO (2012b) identifies job generation and the quality of employment as the first aspect of decent work. It is truism, but nonetheless true, that for a person to have a decent job, he or she must have a job. The need for more jobs is central to the decent work paradigm, and full employment rightfully occupies the prime position at the forefront of the decent work effort (Fields 2003; Rushion *et al.,* 2012; Guichard, 2009).

As almost everyone works in one way or the other, although much of this work may not be adequately recognized or rewarded. The questions over quality and quantity of work are omnipresent. With an estimate of 205 million people unemployed across the globe in 2010 the employment goal is best expressed as adequate opportunities for productive and meaningful work in decent conditions - that signifies taking into account working time and work intensity, the need for a living income, the possibilities for personal development and the opportunities to use one's capabilities. It not only includes formal but also informal work in the home, in the factory or in the street (ILO 1997, cited in Rodgers 2001; Fields 2003; Landy, 2010; Lewchuck *et al.,* 2003; Dawis, 2005; MacNaughton, 2011).

This stresses that having a job is the primary consideration and this is followed by working conditions. Existing research (Ghai 2003, Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003) generally measures job generation by the level of employment rate or unemployment rate. In fact, employment is generated or created when there is a fit as shown below:

3.3.1.1 Employment Fit

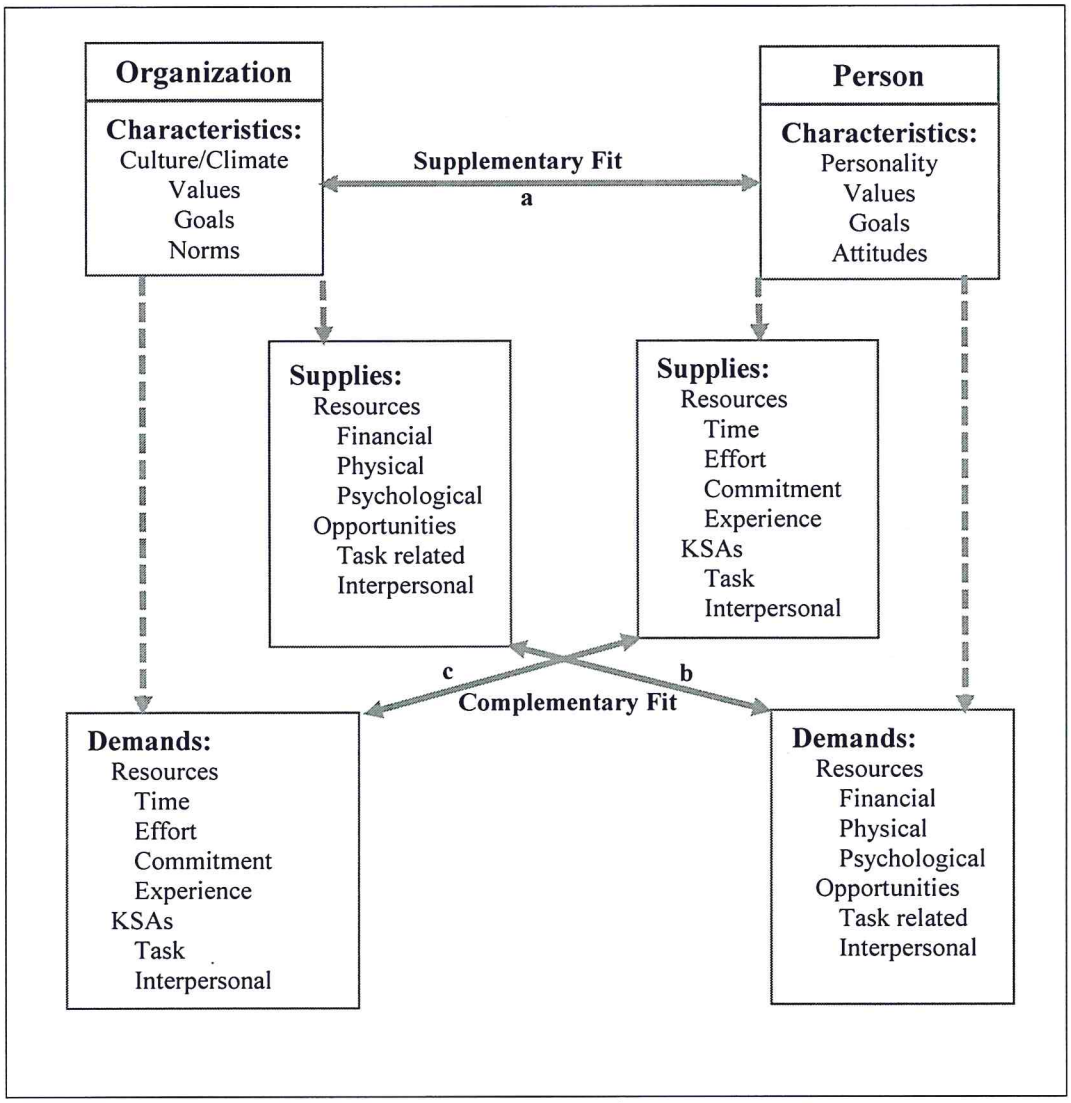


Figure 3.1 Employment Fit

According to Kristof (1996), supplementary fit represented by arrow "a" denotes the relationship exists between the underlying characteristics of the individual and the organization. From the organizations' point of view these characteristics consist of culture, climate, values, goals and norms. On the other side, the individual' characteristics include values, goals, personality and attitudes. Therefore, supplementary fit occurs when there is similarity between the individual' and organization' characteristics (Berger, 2009; Chavis, 2006; Gani, 2011).

These characteristics influence the supply and demand of both entities as shown by the dotted arrows. Organizations supply financial, physical and psychological resources, as well as task-related and interpersonal opportunities requested by individuals. When the organizational supplies are similar with the demands of individuals, the needs-supplies fit is accomplished. Correspondingly, organizations demand side such as time, effort, commitment and experience resources from individuals. When individuals are able to supply the organization with the mentioned resources, then demands-abilities fit is achieved (Rinaldi *et al.,* 2007; Oemar, 2011; Sehnbruch, 2006; Rose, 2003).

In the existing literature on fit between organizations and individuals, four operationalizations of person-organization fit were observed. The first type of operationalization in relation to supplementary fit is the ***congruence between organizational and individual values***. In this type of operationalization, person-organization fit is equivalent to person-culture fit. According to O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) congruency between an individual's values and those of an organization may be at the crux of person-culture fit. Person-culture fit essence lies from the fact that the organizations have cultures that are more or less attractive to individuals (O'Reilly, 1991). This operationalization assumes that values are imperative, as they guide the individuals' behavior (R., E. J., 1994; Tisak J, 1994 and Nisbett R, 1980).

The third operationalization mirrors the ***needs-supplies fit perspective***. This match is between individual preferences and needs and organizational systems and structures (Tomoki, 2004). This type of operationalization originated from the need-press theory which presumes that an individual will be contended with work if the environment fulfills his or her needs (Kristof, 1996).

The fourth and last operationalization matches the characteristic of ***individual personality and organizational culture or climate*** (Tomoki, 2004). This operationalization can be viewed from both perspectives: supplementary and needs-supplies. Supplementary fit, because it describes congruence between organizations' and individuals' personality. From the needs-supplies perspective, it can be said that the environment is determined by organizational supplies and the individuals' personality is determined by the needs of the individuals (Kristof, 1996; Reinecke *et al.,* 2004; Ramos, 2006).

In connection with the relationships described and presented above, person-organization fit can be defined as "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other need, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both" (Kristof, 1996). Therefore, the definition suggests that the desired person-organization fit is achieved when each entity's needs are met by the other and they share similar fundamental characteristics (Kristof, 1996; Olsen *et al.,* 2004; Johnson *et al.,* 2003; Karasek *et al.,* 1990).

3.3.1.2 Employment Quality

Ghai (2003) relays that job generation should also consider the quality of the job. He suggests that the greater challenge for job generation lies not only in having available jobs for workers but in the creation of quality employment. Several authors (Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003; Bonnet, Figueiredo & Standing, 2003; Ghai, 2003; Kuruvilla, 2006) suggest that social upgrading within the quality of employment can be seen through the following indicators:

- Adequate wages (wages should be at least above the poverty threshold of $2 per day per person or above the national poverty line);
- Balanced (not excessive) working hours;
- Allowance for paid leave;
- Provisions for training;
- Existence of health and safety programmes;
- Job security by determining whether work is temporary or permanent.

In examining the quality of employment, Ghai (2003) notes that it is affected by differences in the nature and structure of work, season and consumer demand (local and international). As such, some types of employment are secure, safe and well compensated while others are less secure, prone to accidents and less compensated (Ghai, 2003).

While nuanced disagreements across disciplines remain as to what constitutes a good job, the conversation has progressed from subjective measures of job satisfaction to e□orts by psychologists (Hammer and Zimmerman, 2011) and vocational psychologists (Blustein, 2013; Lent and Brown, 2013), economists (Burchell *et al.,* 2013), business management scholars (Vidal, 2013), and others (Deranty and MacMillan, 2012) to develop a consensus on the defining

dimensions of high quality work. The use of a consensually agreed upon definition of good quality work and decent work goes hand in hand and is defined as fair, dignified, stable, secure and has the potential to drive research, policy initiatives, and potential solutions to the growing crisis in work.

In addition, Rodgers et al. (2009) noted that when the ILO refers to quality of work, it has mainly focused on hours of work, occupational health and safety, and minimum wages. In other words, the qualitative aspect of work has overlooked the substantive way the activity of work and its effects on workers. Rodgers et al. (2009) do mention, however, that the ILO could turn its attention to the "positive dimensions of the quality of work, for instance, creativity, engagement, social inclusion, participation, fulfilment". Moreover, they argue that the Decent Work initiative may well provide a framework through which this could occur.

Moreover, according to Somavia (2000), for "work" to be "decent," he focused on the need to create jobs of acceptable quality or to put it in Somavia's own words: "The quantity of employment cannot be divorced from its quality".

In the same line, Arneson (1987) stated that 'meaningful work' is work that is interesting, that calls for intelligence and initiative, and that is attached to a job that gives the worker considerable freedom to decide how the work is to be done and a democratic say over the character of the work process and the policies pursued by the employing enterprise.

Furthermore, as per Dejours (2006), it is wrong-headed to equate decent work with an activity, that is work, which promotes self-development since there might be cases when an individual freely accepts to fulfill tasks that are not such, as part of their own overall individual way of achieving what for them is the good life. This is notably the case when individuals take on jobs that appear to lack interest, intelligence, and initiative, but the pay they receive for this work enables them to engage in activities that provide them with the fulfillment they seek.

3.3.1.3 Measuring Job Quality

Measuring job quality is not a simple task as jobs are made up of many components. There is no agreements upon definition of a quality work and no consensus on what constitutes a good job (Kalleberg *et al.*, 2000). There are both subjective and objective indicators of job quality. On the objective side, for example, pay and fringe benefits, autonomy, and control, advancement opportunities and job security can be included (Kalleberg and Vaisey, 2005). The subjectivity of job, on the contrary, can be earnings of workers.

The dimensions of quality in work according to the European Commission are (1) Characteristics of the job which includes: (a) intrinsic job quality, and (b) skills, lifelong learning and career development. (2) the work and the wider labour market, which include (c) gender equality, (d) health and safety at work, (e) flexibility and security, (f) inclusion and access to the labour market, (g) work organisation and work life balance (satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict". The focus on the domains of work and family is vital as family and work are regarded as the most important elements of everyone's life, and any competing demands from work and family life cause conflict and negatively affect the wellbeing of workers (Clark, 2000; Frone, 2000)), (h) social dialogue and worker involvement, (i) diversity and non-discrimination and (j) overall work performance.

Green (2006) criticize the Commission's dimensions and reassess the aspects of job quality as comprising of (a) skills, (b) work effort, (c) personal discretion over work tasks and participation in workplace decisions, (d) pay, (e) workers' risks and job insecurity and (f) job satisfaction and affective wellbeing at work.

(a) Job security

Job security was seen as an essential aspect of quality of work (Martel and Dupuis, 2006). Jobs of short and uncertain duration are considered of low quality and the same are jobs where the work itself is pervaded with uncertainty (Green, 2003). Job insecurity is a major source of ill-health and job dissatisfaction, has long lasting impact on individuals and their households and creates tension at home (Burchell, 1994; Burchell *et al.*, 1999; Wichert, 2002).

There is not one single measure of job security and conceptually job security involves more than having a job versus no job. As the concept of job quality itself, job security also has a multidimensional character. Job security depends on aspects of the current job as well as the possibility of alternative job (employability) (Green *et al.,* 2000). Green (2006) defines job insecurity as the loss of welfare that comes from the uncertainty at work and this insecurity may derive from either economic aspects of a job or from the content of the work itself. Uncertainty about the economic aspects of the job can involve more than just losing the job, losses can also occur in the current job through wage cut, missed promotions opportunities and so on but it also involves uncertainty about the income stream in the current or future jobs.

Objective measures of job insecurity according to Green (2003) include:

- separation rates (the rates at which employees leave jobs),
- redundancy rates (the rates at which employees are forced to leave their jobs),
- job tenure (time spent in one job),
- duration of unemployment and impact of job loss on future pay
- fear that existing wages will be maintained,
- access to training,
- promotion opportunities and development of workers,
- Risks of workplace accidents and diseases.

(b) Pay and Fringe Benefits

Pay is the core dimension in the economic perspective on quality of jobs. A low wage has consequences long after a person has left employment. It makes it difficult to build up savings to draw upon when there is no longer an income from employment, and with earning related pension schemes the disadvantage continues as people entre retirement (Gallie, 2002). In defining the hallmark of bad jobs, low earnings and lack of access to health insurance and pension benefits are included (Kalleberg *et al.,* 2000).

Although a raise in wages does not proportionately increase people's happiness, a minimum level of pay is necessary to uphold a basic level of living (Green, 2006). Pay also raises questions on inequality and fairness. Maurin and Postel-Vinay (2005) found an upward trend in the wage gap across skill groups for the period 1995 – 2001, and that low skilled jobs are paid significantly less

that high skilled jobs (difference – 20%). According to the OECD (2006), the incidence of low paid work has increased in several countries.

(c) Intrinsic Job Rewards

With the changing nature of work, intrinsic work orientation is likely to become an increasingly important factor for economic performance and future competitiveness in the knowledge-based economy (Gallie, 2007). Intrinsic job rewards differ from extrinsic job rewards such as pay, promotion in that the reward is derived from the job experience in itself. Typically, an intrinsic rewarding job is interesting and challenging, one is able to use skills and abilities, one is able to learn new things, work independently and being recognised for doing a good job (Kalleberg and Vaisey, 2005; Huang and Vliert, 2002). Several intrinsic job characteristics have been found to be correlated with higher level of job satisfaction and subjective well-being. Examples are meaningfulness of work, clear and identifiable piece of work, task complexity, whether the task is recognizable, task variety, pace, opportunity for use of initiative (Warr, 1987; Judge and Watanable, 1993; Clark, 2005a). Several studies have shown that intrinsic job rewards are more strongly and consistently related to overall job satisfaction than extrinsic characteristics (Kalleberg, 1977; Kalleberg and Griffin, 1978).

(d) Work intensity

Conceptually, work intensity is ambiguous, and has included elements, such as, rising pressure of pace, time pressure, work overload, tight deadlines, harder work and long and unsocial hours. The EU defines working more than 48 hours per week as undesirable (Gallie, 2007b). Green (2006) defines work intensity synonymously with work effort: the intensity of labour effort during time at work, and argues that work efforts should be separated from terms such as performance and productivity. Conceptually, work effort is the rate of physical and mental input of work tasks during the working day.

The literature using the term work intensity is scarce. However, work intensity is closely linked to job demands. Job demands entailed using psychological stressors (Karasek, 1979), using perceptual measures and objective measures such as hours worked, overtime and so on (Michie and Williams, 2003)

(e) Skills

The concept of skill is approached differently in academic fields. In psychology, skill refers to the competence to perform specific tasks while for sociologists, the most important indication of skill is the degree of complexity of work, and economists looks upon skills as a characteristic that individuals can acquire and that enable them to produce valued services at work (Green, 2006). According to the author, skill is an aspect of quality of work because the utilisation of skill is an end in itself. In a review by Green (2006), the measurements for skills are listed as follows: qualifications, length of education, occupation, scores from literacy and numeracy tests, self-assessments and job requirements. Empirically, it was found that a quarter to a third of a nation's employees tend to work in jobs for which they are overqualified, while the proportion having jobs for which they are under-qualified is somewhat lower (Green and McIntosh, 2007).

(f) Autonomy and Control

Traditionally the study of autonomy and control has been the preoccupation of sociologists and psychologists and has been shown to increase job satisfaction and productivity (Huselid, 1995; Nguyen *et al.,* 2003). According to Green (2006), autonomy refers to the extent to which an employee is able to exercise discretion and initiative over what happens on the job. As per the author, the degree of autonomy is an outcome of the manner in which the work is organised, especially the extent of standardization of work processes and whether the execution of work tasks is controlled through rules and procedures or surveillance systems.

Economists have been worried that giving workers too much autonomy will lead to inefficiency and underemployment of workers (Shapiro and Stiglitz, 1984). According to Braverman (1974), when workers get less autonomy management will eventually increase control over labour process. Psychologists look upon workers' autonomy and the content of the job as being fundamental importance for job satisfaction and job quality. The demand-control model argues that low decision latitude and high work demands interact to produce the greatest levels of stress (Karasek 1979; Karasek and Theorell, 1990). Furthermore, workers 'autonomy varies across nations, and workers in the Nordic countries have greater autonomy than American, Canadian and Australian workers (Dobbin and Boychuk, 1999; Gallie, 2003; Gallie, 2007c). This may be explained by the Nordic countries having a skill-oriented employment system that increase job autonomy, while in

other countries the rule-oriented employment system lowers autonomy. In other words, a country's national employment system influence autonomy at work.

3.3.2 Workers' rights Dimension of Decent Work

According to Hepple (2003), although active labour market policies play an important role in the reduction of unemployment, poverty and inequality it does not follow that this would by itself produce decent work, they must be accompanied by the promotion of ***rights at work***. The ILO (2012b) considers rights at work as the second aspect of decent work. This dimension constitutes the ethical and legal framework for all other dimensions of decent work (Ghai, 2003; Parent-Thirion, 2012; Chan, 2009).

Its objective is to ensure that work is associated with dignity, equality, freedom, adequate remuneration, social security and voice, representation and participation for all categories of workers. The dimension of rights at work forms part of the broader agenda of human rights, which in turn derive from a long tradition with deep philosophic, theological and juridical roots.

The charter of the United Nations and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights gave a powerful boost to the human rights movement, endowing it with a universal meaning (Hepple, 2003). The ILO Declaration on "Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work" adopted by the International Labour Conference of 1998, laid down these basic rights/core labour standards: freedom of association and the effective recognition of the right to collective bargaining; elimination of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; effective abolition of child labour; and elimination of discrimination in respect of work and employment. These rights form the core of the rights component of decent work so much so that their acceptance is regarded as a prerequisite of ILO membership (ILO 2001*b*; Rodgers 2001; Hepple 2003; Jose 2003; Ghai, 2005).

The rights at work have evolved through various phases in different countries starting with the industrialized world in the nineteenth century. It is only over time that they have expanded in content and coverage. So for many countries in the developing category the idea of rights at work is totally new. Today these rights cover not only the classical rights of freedom of association, non-discrimination and abolition of forced labour, but also social and economic rights of collective

bargaining, the provision of benefits on cessation of work, adequate remuneration, social security and safety and health at work. These rights came into place after a long struggle by trade unions, political parties and supportive movements and also comrades who believed in this cause. However it is true that countries have adopted different approaches to the promotion of workers' rights according to their legal traditions and dominant ideologies The attainment of rights at work, like the other objectives, is also influenced by many features of economic, social and institutional structure (Ghai 2002, cited in Hepple 2003). In fact, it is often argued that the concept of rights at work, as derived from ILO standards, is based on the classical employer-employee model in industrialized market economies and that this has little relevance to the needs and conditions of most developing countries. As the great majority of these countries share characteristics in which the language and the culture of rights just seem to be a little out of place. These characteristics are: widespread absolute poverty, extensive under- or unemployment, limited industrialization and dualistic economic structures. There also exists a fear that this implementation of rights at work will put developing countries at a competitive disadvantage in international trade and in attracting foreign direct investment (Hepple 2003; Ghai 2005).

Even though the ultimate responsibility for creating and implementing rights at work rests with the national authorities, the international agencies have played an increasingly important role in this area. The UN charter, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights and the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights have acted as landmark documents in the struggle for human rights. In addition to this, a whole series of conventions, norms, declarations on marginalized and vulnerable sections of the population by the UN and specialized agencies, have played a critical role over the past 60 years in shaping the approach and content of human and workers' rights all over the world. However, it was the efforts of ILO, created in 1919 that had the greatest impact on the corpus of rights at work worldwide. The Organization with its work spanning over more than nine decades has adopted 189 Conventions and 201 Recommendations covering all the issues of interest to workers and employers. These have included in their ambit matters relating to employment, wages, hours and conditions of work, social security, industrial relations, multinational enterprises, health and safety at work, and many others. They have also offered protection to vulnerable groups such as migrants, women workers, indigenous people and children

against hazardous occupations, exploitation and discrimination. In the same manner, many Conventions and Recommendations have been promulgated to lay down standards for specific industries like transport, maritime, mining, agriculture, textiles, printing, telecommunications and home-based work. The ILO today also has an impressive body of international labour law through its work and tireless efforts (Ghai 2005).

Even though rights at work embodied in ILO Declarations, Conventions and Recommendations are considered of universal validity and relevance. However, it should be noted that the ratification of different Conventions is only a very rough index of the achievement of rights at work. It is also clear that Declarations, Conventions and Recommendations and their applicability is conditioned by: political systems, economic structures, stage of development, distribution of power among various social and economic groups, and availability of resources. For example, in communist and authoritarian political systems where power is monopolized by an entity or an individual, it is difficult, if not impossible, to achieve freedom of association, embodied for example, in representative and independent trade unions and employers 'organizations. In the same manner, most of the rights at work assume an economic system where the bulk of the workers are wage employees. As discussed above this situation is approximated in developed countries, the developing and increasingly many transition countries display a more complex picture with a predominance of workers in the self-employed, informal and homeworkers categories. In the same manner workers' rights especially those pertaining to social security and adequate remuneration tend to be more feasible in high income than in middle or low income countries (Ghai 2005; Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003; Kuruvilla, 2006; Barrientos, 2007; Deshingkar, 2009).

3.3.3 Social Protection Dimension of Decent Work

The main purpose of social protection is to provide security against a variety of contingencies and vulnerabilities. These include ill-health, maternity needs, accidents, unemployment, destitution, extreme economic fluctuations, natural disasters and civil conflicts. A sound social protection strategy should address the needs of vulnerable groups such as orphaned or abandoned children, single mothers, female-headed households, widows, elderly in need and the physically challenged. Thus the main focus of social protection policies is to reduce suffering, anxiety, insecurity and material deprivation (ILO, 2012b; Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003).

They should promote health and well-being, self-confidence and a willingness to accept technical and institutional innovations for higher productivity and growth. The concept of social protection as outlined above goes beyond the limited notion of social security for work related situations firstly as it is broader in its coverage of protection and extends to the worker's family to embrace vulnerable and insecure persons outside paid employment. Secondly, the contingencies and vulnerabilities are wider in their scope (to include destitution, extreme economic fluctuations and natural and human catastrophes) thus moving beyond the conventional insecurities identified in the ILO Conventions on Social Security. This all-inclusive and more comprehensive definition of social security has the advantage of covering the full range of vulnerabilities of all members of society and not just select section of the population who are often among the more advantaged groups in some countries. However, this all-inclusive notion of social protection does not imply that all countries are in the same position to design and implement the necessary policies and measures. As the items and levels of social protection provided to the population will naturally depend upon their past traditions, stages of development, and resource mobilization (Ghai 2005; Kuruvilla, 2006; Saith, 2004; Ghai, 2003; Lund & Srinivas, 2000).

According to Ghai (2005), historically, the responsibility for providing social security was on institutions such as families, clan members, charitable institutions, employers and local central authorities. For that reason, even today in the poorer countries the most important source of institutional support for social protection continue to be families, community groups and charitable

bodies. Thus while designing its social protection strategy a country needs to address three interrelated issues:

- its coverage (in terms of items and individuals);
- the organizational and institutional means of providing social protection; and
- Arrangements for financing social support.

However, the list of contingencies and vulnerabilities is quite extensive. Thus even the richest countries could find it tough to finance all the potential items of social protection. So, it becomes necessary to make choices through democratic means about priority items to be covered. Consequently, the choices made by countries are a reflection of their respective political traditions, the intensity of social solidarity, the level of development and institutional means for delivering social protection.

Apart from the identification of priority needs and of individuals and groups suffering from deprivation, social protection strategies need to set up an institutional framework for the delivery and financing of social policies and measures. The financing of social security may be through public resources or through voluntary or compulsory private contributions or a mix of both. If a system is based largely on private financing then it has a minimal impact on the existing pattern of income distribution, thus universal access to services like health care, primary education, access to shelter, water and sanitation can only be ensured through public financing (Saith, 2004; Ghai, 2003; Lund & Srinivas, 2000; Ghai 2005).

In the past two or three decades there has been a reduction in the share of GDP devoted to social protection expenditure in many developed countries. There has been a trend toward increased private financing of social security items such as pension and health care. This can be seen as an impact of the neo-liberal policies. Similar trends have been seen in many developing countries.

Apart from the global influences many of these countries have suffered from declining or negative growth since the 1980s, increased debt burdens and growing budgetary imbalances. However, now there is increasing consensus about the importance for human well-being and sustained development of universal access to basic services and benefits. Moreover, there is increasing

realization that that these services can best be provided on a universal basis by a strengthened public sector. Thus there have also been attempts in many developing countries by voluntary and community based schemes to increase access to health care, pension, loans, and credits, however their reach is inevitably limited. Undoubtedly, the role of the State in providing effective universal access to basic services and benefits cannot be replaced as there is no feasible alternative to state leadership in planning, financing and ensuring their implementation even if the responsibility for their organization and delivery is shared with other institutions such as communities, local authorities, voluntary agencies or the private sector (Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003; Ghai 2005).

3.3.4 Social Dialogue Dimension of Decent Work

The promotion of social dialogue is the fourth aspect of decent work identified by the ILO. According to Ishikawa (2003) and Kuruvilla (2006), social dialogue includes, all types of negotiation, consultation, or simple exchange of information between representatives of governments, employers, and workers, on the issues of common interest relating to economic and social policy. Kuruvilla further states that social dialogue can be between management and labour (bipartite) or together with government's participation (tripartite). The process may be formal or informal and may take place at different levels (national, regional or at the enterprise level). It can also be on a sectoral or inter-sectoral level. In social dialogue, all parties concerned are encouraged to be involved so that a common agreement can be achieved under conditions of equal representation (Kuruvilla, 2006).

A generation ago, researchers interested in social dialogue focused largely on a single indicator: the extent of unionization. Although important, however, unionization represents only a small slice of the social dialogue picture. A large number of studies have found effects of not only union density but also wage-setting arrangements and/or participation in policy making as contributing to the effectiveness of social dialogue in a given context. (Flanagan 1990; Traxler, Blaschke, and Kittel 2001; Kenworthy 2002; Nickell and Layard 1999).

A large amount of research has examined the impact of union density on socioeconomic performance outcomes (Kenworthy 1995, Kittel 2000b; Mishel and Voos 1992). One view holds that unions undermine economic efficiency by blocking the introduction of new technology, disrupting the market for labor, and driving wages above marginal productivity levels (Hayek 1960; Hirsch 1992; Troy, Koeller, and Sheflin 1980). Another contends that unions augment efficiency by replacing exit with voice as the principal means for workers to communicate their preferences to employers, and that encompassing unions in particular internalize the adverse effects of militant wage bargaining and are therefore likely to restrain wage demands (Freeman and Medoff 1984; Olson 1982). Of course, the behavior and effects of unions, and of their employer counterparts, are determined not only by membership density but also by their organizational concentration and centralization (Cameron 1984; Golden 1993).

3.3.4.1 The Triangle of Social Dialogue

The ILO recognizes that the definition and the concept of social dialogue varies from country to country and over time. Figure 3.2 illustrates the relationship among the different notions of social dialogue.

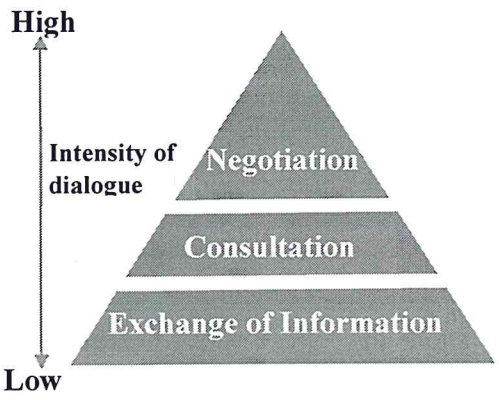


Figure 3.2 Triangle of social dialogue

According to ILO (1999), exchange of information is the most basic process of social dialogue. It implies no real discussion or action on the issues concerned, but it is an essential starting point towards more substantive social dialogue. Consultation is a means by which the social partners not only share information, but also engage in more in-depth dialogue about issues raised. While consultation itself does not carry with it decision-making power, it can take place as part of such a process. Collective bargaining and policy concertation can be interpreted as the two dominant

types of negotiation. Collective bargaining is one of the most widespread forms of social dialogue and is institutionalized in many countries. It consists of negotiations between an employer, a group of employers or employers' representatives and workers' representatives to determine the issues related to wages and conditions of employment. Successful collective bargaining results in collective agreements. Collective bargaining can be centralized at national level or decentralized at sectoral, regional, enterprise or bargaining unit level. It can be regarded as a useful indicator of the capacity for social dialogue within a country to engage in national level tripartite policy concertation (Kittel 2000b; Mishel and Voos 1992).

Following Compston (2002), policy concertation is defined as the codetermination of public policy by governments, employers' organizations and trade union confederations. Tripartite policy concertation or social concertation can be regarded as the "full bloom" of social dialogue whereby "employers', workers' representatives and governments have developed a reflex for acting in a concerted multifaceted manner to address all major national economic and social policy issues by seeking consensus (Trebilcock, 1994). However, this is only possible when the Government fully recognizes the legitimacy and constructive functions of social partners' participating in national policy-making. The results of successful tripartite policy concertation are sometimes manifested in social pacts.

3.3.4.2 Typology of Social Dialogue

Casey and Gold (2000) put forward a typology to illustrate social dialogue as shown below:

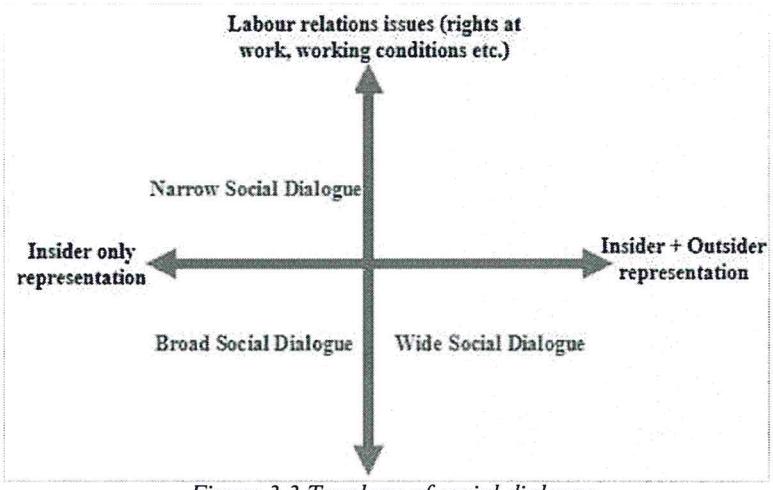


Figure 3.3 Typology of social dialogue

a) 'Narrow' social dialogue

- Representation: tripartite or bipartite.
- Issues discussed: labour relations issues.

This form of social dialogue takes place in fora where employers, workers and their representative bodies (conventionally termed as insiders) discuss 'insider issues' (such as pay, terms, conditions and rights at work, social security) through consultation procedures or collective bargaining (Casey and Gold, 2000).

b) 'Broad' social dialogue

- Representation: tripartite or bipartite.
- Issues discussed: wider economic and social issues.

This form of social dialogue takes place in fora where insiders also discuss 'outsider' issues such as job creation measures and employment policy, thus allowing those active in the labour market to engage the interests of those who are not active (that is, outsiders such as the unemployed, pensioners, school leavers and people with disabilities). This can be extended to include the whole range of economic and social policy making (Casey and Gold, 2000).

c) 'Wide' social dialogue

- Representation: tripartite plus other relevant interest groups.
- Issues discussed: wider economic and social issues.

This type of social dialogue takes place in fora where both insiders and outsiders discuss social and economic issues of joint concern. In such fora, representatives of young people, the unemployed, pensioners, consumers and environment groups among others participate alongside employers' and workers' organizations (Casey and Gold, 2000).

Example of countries in both the broad and the wide social dialogue category are shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Social Dialogue categories in some countries of the world

Broad Social Dialogue	
Austria	Incomes policy, social policy, prices and wages policy, fiscal policy, monetary policy, investment policy, industrial policy, social welfare, labour law, job creation and training, employment
Finland	Macroeconomic policy, income policy (wages, taxation, social security and social welfare), employment
Germany	Social insurance, labour law, health, reconstruction of East Germany
Italy	Taxation, public expenditure, pensions, labour law
The Netherlands	Social security, employment, labour market policy
Portugal	Modernization of the economy, macroeconomic stability, working conditions, competitiveness and productivity, labour market policy, reformulation of collective bargaining legislation, social security and protection
Wide Social Dialogue	
Ireland	Overall macroeconomic policy strategy, social welfare, government spending in general, employment policy, labour market policy, social policy, regional policy, equality

3.3.4.3 Cycle of Social Dialogue

According to Lee (2002), for national social dialogue to be sustainable in the medium and long term, there should be a proper cycle of social dialogue in place. Such a cycle consists of a mechanism of regular consultation and discussions, agreeing on common stances, and the implementation of agreements and their monitoring/evaluation. The figure below shows the cycle of the different stages of the social dialogue process.

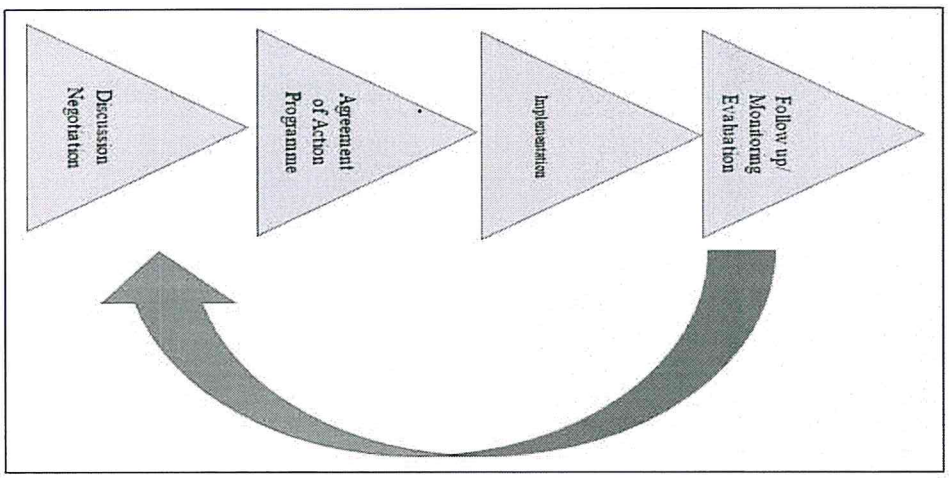


Figure 3.4 Cycle of social dialogue

As per Lee (2002), social partners can be actively involved in different stages of the social dialogue processes. This does not apply only to policy-making processes which lead to agreements. Social partners can also be actively involved in the implementation and monitoring stages of social dialogue.

3.4 INTERDEPENDENCIES AND COMPLEMENTARITIES OF ILO PRE CONDITIONS FOR DECENT WORK

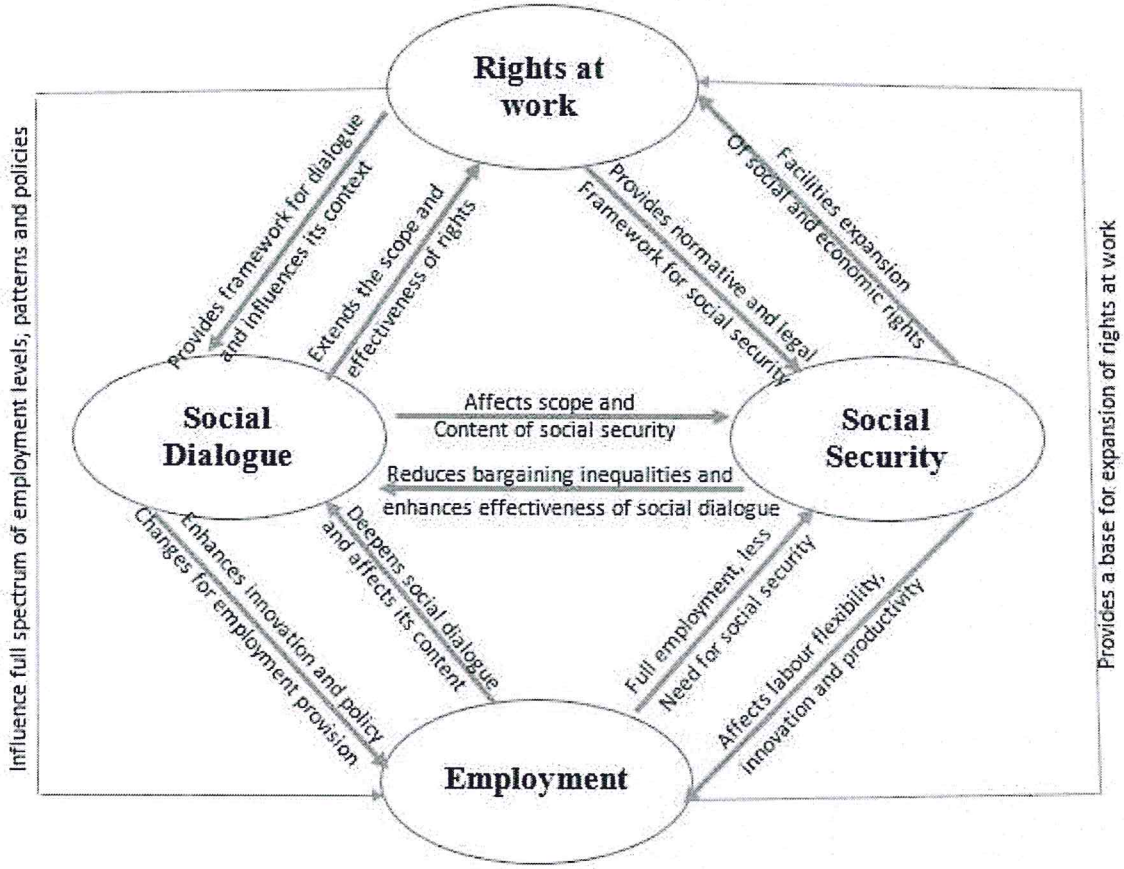


Figure 3.5 Interdependencies and complementarities of ILO preconditions for decent work

According to Ghai (2005), there is an inter dependency among the pre-conditions of ILO decent work. For instance, the component of rights at work affects all aspects of work for example right to a minimum wage and a healthy working environment affect the form and volume of employment. The right to freedom of association and collective bargaining has consequences for the degree and pattern of social protection affecting also the nature and substance of social dialogue. On the other hand, social dialogue provides a vehicle for negotiation on rights at work

such as social security, minimum wages and conditions of work. It also makes it possible to influence the implementation of these rights, as well as to monitor achievement. As observed, employment levels and status affect social security in obvious ways as high levels of remunerative employment obviate the need for certain types of social security. The content, delivery and financing of social security are influenced by the proportion of the labour force in different work categories. Employment levels and remuneration affect the content of collective bargaining. They also affect the ability of workers to negotiate on a range of issues pertaining to rights at work. The connection between social protection and other decent work components are self-evident. The coverage and benefit levels of social security affect employment through their impact on labour supply, investment levels, productivity and worker's response to change and innovation. They also influence the bargaining power of workers in social dialogue and their ability to secure other rights at work (Godfrey 2003; Ghai 2005).

3.4.1 Conflicts among dimensions of Decent Work

Ghai (2005) argues that while there is general agreement on the interdependence between elements of decent work, there are sharp differences of views on their nature and direction. According to the author, there are two distinctive and opposing schools of thought namely the neo-classical and the institutional schools respectively.

On the one hand Neo-classical/Distortionists argue that interventions such as minimum wages, social security financed through taxation or levies on enterprises, and collective bargaining have an adverse impact on growth, employment and wages because of disincentive effects on investment, savings, innovation and risk taking. On the other hand, the Institutionalists argue that State interventions tend to mitigate economic fluctuations and help maintain economic activity and employment at high levels. Minimum wages, social protection, and collective bargaining promote and enhance productivity, health and safety, and bring a sense of responsibility and participation. In the context of developing countries, both the preceding arguments are somewhat modified to take into account their economic and social differences. As argued by many economists setting up of minimum wages and the operation of trade unions and collective bargaining have particularly negative economic and social effects because they apply only to a

small minority of the labour force. They are blamed to distort economies, accentuate inequalities among the working people and hold back investment and job creation. According to them, the establishment of social security schemes under these conditions has a similar negative impact further eroding the competitive position of developing countries in an increasingly integrated global economy. The essence of decent work approach is precisely to overcome potential trade-offs and constraints and maximize the synergies amongst its different dimensions and find policy and institutional options to overcome conflicting relationships and constraints (Godfrey 2003; Ghai 2005).

3.5 COMPARING DECENT WORK IN COUNTRIES : DECENT WORK MODELS

As illustrated in the table below, Ghai (2002) states that there are three models of decent work: classical, transition, and developmental. From the decent work perspective the defining features of these models relate to the work status and sectoral distribution of the labour force or working population; the organization of the labour force into trade unions and other associations; and public expenditure and social security expenditure as a proportion of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Ghai 2002; Godfrey 2003; Ghai 2005). Some authors have suggested flexibility of the economy and labour markets as another way of categorizing countries. In this case flexibility refers to the range and extent of regulations pertaining to wages, employment, working conditions, social security, trade unions, collective bargaining, and to the prevalence of resource allocation by administered or quantitative methods thus fewer government regulations in these domains will ensure a more flexible economy. In recent decades there has been a worldwide trend towards liberalization, deregulation, and privatization resulting in greater flexibility in national economies. Undoubtedly, the expansion in the scope and intensity of globalization has been an important contributory factor to this trend (Ghai 2005).

Table 3.2 Decent work models

Models of decent work	Income per head	Share of wage employment in total employment	Share of total government and social security expenditure in GDP
Classical	High with modest intercountry differences	High	High, with fairly wide range
Transition	Middle-income, but wide inter-country differences	Still high but lower than pre-transition	Much lower than before but still relatively high
Development	Very wide range, from middle-income to impoverished	Very wide range	With a few exceptions, low or negligible

Adapted from Godfrey 2003

3.5.1 The Classical Model

The countries in this model are characterized by high per capita income, high share of the labour force in wage employment and high proportion of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) allocated to government and social security expenditure. The classical model countries have a high proportion of their labour force in wage employment (75 to 90%); the great majority is found in services (generally between 60 and 80%) and industry (between 10 and 20%). The problems of extreme destitution in the form of hunger, malnutrition, lack of access to clean drinking water and shelter is negligible although relative poverty defined as the percentage of people with incomes below 50 per cent of median income is more substantial. In these countries trade unions constitute the most important and representative form of workers' organization. A relatively high proportion of workers are trade union members but this population has undergone a decline over the past two or three decades owing to the various sectoral changes in employment, technological advancements and intensifying globalization. Still collective bargaining at enterprise, industry or national level is the most important means of determining remuneration and other terms of employment in most countries of this model. The public expenditure and social security expenditure represent a relatively high proportion of the GDP typically between 35 and 45%. However this also has undergone a decline over the years a reflection of the shift towards the privatization of social security and of budgetary pressures caused, inter alia, by growing global economic integration.

This model includes countries like United States of America (USA), Norway, Japan, United Kingdom (UK), Denmark, Australia, Netherlands and France (Ghai 2002; Godfrey 2003; Ghai 2005).

3.5.2 The Transition Model

The transition countries from the former Soviet bloc are moving from centrally planned to market economies however they still bear the remains of their earlier existence. The central feature of communist economies was state ownership of mostly all productive assets and property. Thus practically the entire population was employed in government, in state enterprises or on collective farms. An integral part of their social and economic policy was full employment and compulsory work for all male adults and most women. The state provided a comprehensive social security to all its citizens. All workers were members of trade unions which in turn were controlled by the state and the communist party. The transition countries that emerged from the collapse of communism display significant diversity in their level of development, economic performance and social policy. In particular clear differences have emerged between the Central European states (which have performed relatively well) and the East and South East European states on the other (Marius *et al.,* 1997; Lourens *et al.,* 2004; Adams, 2004; Addo, 2005; Allen, 2003).

The European transition model countries are characterized by a high proportion of their labour force in wage employment (despite their relatively low per capita income). However, the relative importance of the informal economy has increased considerably. Similarly, government expenditure and tax revenue constitute a relatively high proportion of the GDP. The social security system has undergone quite radical changes in line with the overall economy. It has become less comprehensive and generous, more targeted and means-tested and more privatized. A relatively high proportion of the labour force are trade union members however these numbers have also declined but the unions have become independent of the state and political parties. These unusual features are for the most part legacies of their communist past. The countries in this model are: Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Russian Federation (Ghai 2002; Godfrey 2003; Ghai 2005).

3.5.3 The Development Model

The developing countries display far greater diversity in their economic structures than the countries in the two groups discussed above. The economic differences among developing countries are recognized in the various classifications employed by international agencies, such as middle income (upper and lower), low income and least developed countries. Despite these differences, the great majority of these countries share the characteristics of widespread absolute poverty, extensive under- or unemployment, limited industrialization and dualistic economic structures. There is somewhat similar diversity with regards to the share of the labour force in wage employment, which varies from less than 15% in many low-income countries to between 60 and 70% in middle-income countries. In the development model, countries have a relatively high proportion of their workforce in the informal economy (self-employed, home-based workers, agriculture and so on.), typically ranging between 30 and 50% in semi industrialized countries and 70 and 90% in the least developed countries. The government expenditure as a share of GDP seems less related to GDP per capita in developing countries. The ratio of public social security expenditure is much lower in developing countries than in industrial or transition model countries. The distinguishing feature of most developing countries is extensive absolute human poverty and low human development indicators. The working poor are defined as families with earnings of less than one dollar per day, form between 20 and 50% of the employed population in most countries. Moreover indicators such as malnutrition, infant mortality, access to clean drinking water and adult literacy also bring out the existence of widespread poverty in most developing countries. The proportion of the working population enrolled in trade union (that is, trade union density) tends to be relatively low. Some of the countries in this model are: Lithuania, Kyrgyzstan, India, Philippines, Brazil, Kenya, and Morocco (Ghai 2002; Godfrey 2003; Ghai 2005).

3.6 MEASURING DECENT WORK METHODOLOGICALLY

Since the launch of decent work agenda in 1999, there has been no dearth of attempts to establish the full meaning of the concept and more particularly to develop concrete and reliable means of measuring countries' performance in achieving decent work for their citizens. Researchers have tried to develop a set of indicators or more precisely a decent work index to measure decent work performance of various countries which would further help in cross-country comparison (Ghai 2002; Standing 2002; Ahmed 2003; Anker et al. 2003; Bescond et al. 2003; Bonnet et al. 2003; Ghai 2003; Ghai 2005). According to Ghai (2002; 2003) indicators are used to measure the extent to which a specified objective or outcome has been achieved. They can thus be used to assess performance and evaluate progress over time in the achievement of specified objectives; and can be helpful in making cross country comparisons. They are also used extensively to test alternative hypotheses about relationships between different components of decent work. Ideally, indicators should provide a direct measure of the specified objective, for example if the objective is a healthy population, the indicator should give the information on the number or proportion of people suffering from sickness. But it is often difficult to give a precise meaning to a general objective. Like one of the attributes of decent work is remunerative employment, but the term 'remunerative' must first be defined before a suitable indicator to measure it can be developed. It is rare to find one single measure of the desired outcome and a combination of several indicators tends to give a more accurate measure of a specified objective. Moreover, the indicators might be qualitative or quantitative, for instance, the quantitative indicators of social security concern the proportion of people receiving the different types of benefits whereas on the other hand qualitative indicators thereof concern the quality and effectiveness of services. Thus, in order to obtain an accurate picture it may be necessary to combine several indicators into an overall indicator or index (Ghai 2002; Ghai, 2003; Alston, 2004; Armour, 2003). The table below identifies the indicators of three main authors.

3.6.1 Indicators for Employment Dimension of Decent Work

According to Ghai (2005), Anker et al. (2003) and Bescond et al. (2003) there are three specific attributes to the employment dimension namely: (1) *employment opportunities* and (2) *remunerative employment.*

3.6.1.1 Employment Opportunities

As far as the attribute of employment opportunities is concerned, the measurements include (1) *labour force participation rate (LFPR)*, (2) *employment-to-population ratio (EPR)* and (3) unemployment rate (UR) (Winters *et al.,* 2000; Towers, 1997; Storey, 1994; Marlow *et al.,* 2000). The EPR and UR provide a better picture of work opportunities with separate measures of the employed and the unemployed (Abbott, 1998; Curran *et al.,* 2001). Additionally, Anker et al. (2003) and Bescond et al. (2003) stated that youth unemployment rate, time-related unemployment rate, share of wage employment in non-agricultural employment can also be considered as measurements of employment opportunities. Decent work must be work that is acceptable to society, it is therefore necessary to know the incidence of types of work that are universally condemned, both to ensure that such work is excluded from indicators of employment opportunities and to measure progress towards elimination (Scase, 1995; Earnshaw *et al.,* 1998; Beardwell *et al.,* 1994; Blyton *et al.,* 1992).

Moreover the advantage of EPR measure is that it gives information both on the number and proportion of persons in the working population in the production of goods and services and on the breakdown of the employed by age and sex (Atkinson *et al.,* 1994; Bacon *et al.,* 1996; Cully et al; 1999). The EPR varies over time within one country and between countries for a number of reasons like changes in unemployment, retirement age and educational enrolment. The participation of women in the labour force is a major source of variation between countries. As a matter of fact, women working at home whether looking after their children and the elderly or engaged in food preparation, manufacturing, transporting water and food, or doing repairs are not counted as member of the labour force, if they were then the huge gender differentials in the EPR would disappear (Dundon *et al.,* 1999; Moule, 1998; Ram, 1994).

3.6.1.2 Remunerative Employment

For many people, the most important characteristic of work is pay, nearly all individuals who work or seek work do so in order to earn an income and ensure the economic well-being of themselves and their households (Abassi *et al.,* 2000; Alexander *et al.,* 1994; Barros, 1990; Dess *et al.,* 2001; Firth *et al.,* 2007; Griffeth *et al.,* 2000). According to Ghai (2002; 2003) and Anker et al. (2003), the attribute of remunerative employment is an important attribute of decent work however it is not possible to specify an absolute figure that should constitute remunerative employment in all countries (Allen 1996; Boehman, 2006; Greenberg, 2005; Turner, 2005; Lee, 2004). Remunerative employment varies in accordance with the prevailing societal values and the material prosperity of a country. For developing countries a good indicator of remunerative employment is provided by data on absolute poverty (Thoms, 2002; Shann, 1998; Samad, 2007; Robbins, 2003). The suggested indicators elaborated by Anker et al (2003) for adequate earnings and productive work are: inadequate pay rate, average earnings in selected occupations, excessive hours of work, time related underemployment and employees with recent job training.

3.6.2 Indicators for Social Protection Dimension of Decent Work

The social security dimension is assessed by two types of indicators: (1) public expenditure on social security as a proportion of GDP and (2) adequacy of coverage of workers in respect of the contingencies like accident, sickness, old age and invalidity (Jaros, 2007; Ghai 2002; 2003; Anker *et al.,* 2003; Kalliny *et al.,* 2004; Junaida *et al.,* 2010; Falola *et al.,* 2014). The ILO has estimated that only 20 per cent of the world's workers and their dependents have truly adequate social protection (ILO 2001*b*, Ogaboh, 2010; Meyer *et al.,* 2001; Dawes, 1994).

Furthermore, the ILO estimates that globally over 2 million workers die each year from work-related injuries and diseases (Takala 2002, cited in Anker et al. 2003) the suggested indicators for safe work are: fatal occupational injury rate, labour inspection, occupational injury insurance coverage, and excessive hours of work (Bacchetta *et al.,* 2009; Carr *et al.,* 2010; Moyo, 2009; Saner *et al.,* 2006).

3.6.3 Indicators for Workers Rights Dimension of Decent Work

The dimension of rights at work concerns these specific attributes: (1) *forced labour and child labour*, (2) *discrimination at work* (3) *Balancing work and family lives* and (4) *Conditions of work* (Bhagwati, 1995; Fischer, 2000; Hensman, 2000; Leary, 1996).

These workers' rights have been of central concern to the ILO since its inception and the Organization has developed and adopted a series of international standards defining these rights and their violation, and elaborating on conditions and guidelines to protect and promote them. Like the first ILO Convention on Forced Labour, No. 29 was adopted in 1930, likewise child labour has recently attracted a great deal of attention on the part of governments, international agencies, civil society organizations and the media but the ILO's concern with it goes back to 1919 when the Minimum Age (Industry) Convention was adopted (ILO, 1994; ILO, 1999; Panagariya, 2000; Pencavel, 1997; Reich, 1994).

3.6.3.1 Forced Labour and Child Labour

The suggested indicators of forced labour and child labour also termed as unacceptable work by Anker *et al.,* 2003 are: children not in school by employment status and children in wage employment or self-employment activity rate (Achankeng, 2003; Barbalace, 2003; Budlender, 2013; Diaas, 2013; Harvey, 1989; Lund, 2009).

3.6.3.2 Discrimination at Work

The aspect of fair treatment in employment is an intrinsic human expectation. In international law this has been expressed in terms of equality of opportunity in employment and occupation, and equal pay for work of equal value (Kalleberg, 2008; Marazzi, 2011; Mbeki, 2003). The attribute of discrimination at work involves the denial of equality of treatment and opportunity to individuals in their own right or as members of a social group (Medina, 2007; Moser, 1978; Neuman, 2000; Samson, 2005). The focus here being on gender discrimination and the suggested indicators for it are occupational segregation by sex, female share of employment in managerial and high-level administrative occupations, female share of non-agricultural wage employment, female/male wage or earnings ratio, female/male ratios or differences for the other suggested

indicators (Schenck *et al.,* 2012; Theron, 2003; Theron, 2010; Chen, 2004; Block, 1977; Bonner *et al.,* 2012).

3.6.3.3 Balancing Work and Family Life Indicator

Anker et al. (2003) added that another major concern worldwide is balancing work and family life; it has always been a gender equity issue since women throughout the world have the main responsibility for family care and household work. The suggested indicators for it are: employment rate for women with children under compulsory school age and excessive hours of work (Schoeman, 2011; Bauman, 1998; Baxter *et al.,* 2008; Devey et al. 2006; Flyvbjerg, 2006).

3.6.3.4 Conditions of Work

Although the word condition may be viewed from two perspectives: conditions of service as contained in the contract of employment and the built layout or physical conditions of work. Kyko (2005) believes that working conditions that constitute toxic environment includes hot and noisy environment, unsafe work conditions, dirty work environment, insufficient resources, old technology, old machinery and so forth. McGuire &McLaren, (2007) believes that an organization's physical environment especially its design and layout can affect employee behaviour in the workplace (Hussan *et al.,* 2012; Jaros, 2007; Huselid, 1995; Guihua *et al.,* 2008).

According to Ghai (2002; 2003), the attribute of conditions of work covers a range of elements including night work, hours of work or decent work, weekly rest, paid leave and occupational safety and health. Over the years, the ILO has done an enormous amount of work to improve occupational safety and health, through international standards and technical assistance. Moreover, a large number of Conventions and Recommendations have been adopted and ratified by ILO member states (Ghai, 2002; Ghai, 2003; Akinsanya *et al.,* 2013; Anvari *et al.,* 2011; Briner, 2000; Clement, 2000).

3.6.4 Indicators for Social Dialogue Dimension of Decent Work

Ghai (2002; 2003) considered that the attributes of the dimension of social dialogue concern: (1) *Freedom* of Association (2) *Union density and concentration*, (3) *collective bargaining*, (4) *ratification of ILO conventions* and (5) *participation at the national level.*

3.6.4.1 Freedom of Association

For freedom of association there are two types of indicators, first that measure freedom of association directly (like those who have ratified the Conventions No. 87 and 88), and second that rely on the results or outcomes of such freedom (like trade union density) (Bieler, 2008; Castells, 1989; Dilata, 2008; Hartman, 2009). However, the relevance of trade union density as an indicator of freedom of association is even more limited in developing countries because of the small size of the labour force in the formal economy (Horn, 2009; Neuman, 2000). As a majority of the workforce in these countries are farmers, self-employed, home-based workers and domestic workers and fall in the informal economy. A large variety of organizations have sprung up to defend the interests of workers not yet organized in trade unions. These include peasant groups, community organizations, neighbourhood associations, women's groups' homeworkers' associations and organizations of informal sector workers (Baccaro 2001, cited in Ghai 2002; Ghai 2003).

3.6.4.2 Union Density and Concentration

Union density is a measure of the power a trade union is able to generate. It is defined as the share of employed workers who are member of a trade union (Ebbinghaus and Visser, 2000). Different authors Kuruvilla et al. (2002), and Compa (2002) have identified a number of problems that may cropped up when Union density is seen as the sole indicator for social dialogue. First, using union density as a proxy for union strength and as a basis for dialogue is questionable in countries where unions are not independent and are subject to authoritarian control. Secondly, there have been several problems with the quality of data, both in terms of the data collection methodology and in the calculation of density.

Union concentration (sometimes referred to as associational monopoly) has two basic aspects: across confederations (inter associational) and within confederations (intra-associational). The former refers to the extent to which union members belong to a single confederation rather than being divided among multiple confederations (or not belonging to any confederation). The latter refers to the extent to which the membership of the union confederation(s) is concentrated within a small number of affiliates rather than being spread out across a large number of affiliates (Schmitter, 1981; Cameron, 1984; Headey, 1970).

3.6.4.3 Collective Bargaining

Kuruvilla et al. (2002) have combined indicators of collective bargaining coverage with levels of bargaining to arrive at a measure of union influence and effectiveness of representation. There are two types of indicators used to measure the right to collective bargaining: one relating to legal and administrative requirements and the other to the outcomes in terms of collective bargaining (Anker *et al.,* 2003; Auer, 2000; Choi, 2000; Herron, 1998; Lee, 2002; Visser, 1999; Parsons, 2002).

3.6.4.4 Ratification of ILO Conventions

Another indicator that has been commonly used is whether countries have ratified the ILO Conventions relating to freedom of association and collective bargaining. The assumption here is that ratification denotes a country's basic commitment to social dialogue and can serve as a basis for the ILO to persuade members to increase social dialogue or at least to avoid repressing social dialogue possibilities. Several studies have used these data to examine growth of social dialogue in countries which ratified the convention for freedom of association and collective bargaining (Rama, 1995; Mah, 1997; Rodrik, 1996; Chau and Kanbur, 2001; Hepple, 2003).

3.6.4.5 Participation at National Level

Another aspect of social dialogue concerns workers' participation in the functioning of their enterprise, whether in the formal or the informal economy (Ozaki, 1999; Olney *et al.,* 2002; Mailand, 2002; Gostner, 2000). The most appropriate approach to develop indicators in this field should be through a detailed country by country examination of laws, institutions, procedures and practices relating to the various aspects of workers' participation. The aspect of participation at the national level concerns participation of trade unions; employers' organizations, other associations

of economic agents and civil society bodies in the formulation and implementation of social and economic policies bearing on work and livelihoods (Ghai 2002; 2003; Compston, 2002a; Fajertag *et al.,* 2000; Galilea *et al.,* 2002; Talos *et al.,* 2002; Trebilcock, 1994).

3.6.4.6 Social Dialogue and Workplace Relations

Another important dimension of decent work is the extent to which workers can express themselves on work-related matters and participate in determining their working conditions. The union density rate, collective wage bargaining coverage rates and strikes and lockouts are some suggestive indicators for this aspect (Berger, 2002; Casale *et al.,* 2001; Fashoyin, 2001; Boreham, 1992; Chau, 2001).

3.6.4.7 Economic and Social Context of Decent Work

The economic and social context within which decent work occurs is also important. A consideration of three conceptual aspects is outlined below: socio-economic context, which conditions the sustainability of decent work; socio-economic performance which might be affected by the achievement of decent work; and aspects of employment composition that are needed to compile some decent work indicators (Adams *et al.,* 2000; Barbier, 2004; Godfrey, 2006; Johnson *et al.,* 2003). The suggested indicators for this aspect are: output per employed person, growth of output per employed person, education of adult population, composition of employment by economic sector, income inequality, poverty, informal economy employment (Anker et al. 2003; Noll, 2004; Nussbaum, 2000; Rifkin, 1995; Ward, 2004).

Thus, social upgrading with respect to social dialogue may be measured by:

- union density;
- the existence of collective agreements;
- collective bargaining coverage rate; and
- the existence of tripartite consultations (Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003; Ghai, 2003; Kuruvilla, 2006).

However, Kuruvilla (2006) cautions that these indicators have their own limitations. For instance, while collective bargaining agreements are indicators of social dialogue, some workers such as

those in the informal sector, are not represented in negotiations (Kuruvilla, 2006). Likewise, Ghai (2003) further adds that bargaining agents may not effectively represent the 'voice' of the workers in front of employers and government.

Interestingly, a number of researchers who are either directly or indirectly linked to the ILO have argued that social dialogue between management and workers over the functioning of an enterprise, say through quality circles, is also a critical dimension of decent work (Anker et al.2003; Ghai 2003). The benefits of this form of dialogue have been well established in the literature on employee voice (Wilkinson et al. 2010; Hsieh 2005, 2009).

3.7 THE WORKING CLASS WORLD WIDE

The concept of decent work is for all workers; not only for those who are in the formal sector, but also for the unregulated wage workers, the self-employed workers, and the home-based workers in the informal sector (ILO, 1999). The recent economic crisis has increased informal and vulnerable forms of work across the world (ILO 2009b). Informal employment comprises between one-half and more than three-quarters of non-agricultural employment in developing countries (Vanek *et al.,* 2014). Experts have estimated that there are as many as 100 million informal workers worldwide, with growing figures from Europe to Asia (Simonovsky, 2011).

Informal workers can be employed by unregistered informal enterprises, or can be owner operators, self-employed, or unpaid family workers; they can be temporary or part-time workers, casual day workers, contract workers, industrial outworkers, or unregistered workers (ILO, 2002). Compared to formal workers, informal workers are less likely to work at a single address, making them harder to track; the lack of official statistics accounting for informal workers contributes to their invisibility (Folkerth and Warnecke 2011). Informal workers are also often invisible in terms of policy; they are not covered by most labour laws nor are they protected by the governmental safety net of social security/welfare systems (De Ruyter et al. 2009). This form of invisibility makes informal workers highly vulnerable to low wages, poor working conditions, and the lack of upward mobility. Although informal labour has always existed, over the last few decades countries around the world, both developed and developing, have experienced a shift toward more precarious

forms of employment under the premises of the Washington Consensus (De Ruyter and Warnecke, 2008).

Moreover, Chen (2007) admitted that there has been continuous debate among three schools of thought about the informal sector: (1) the dualist view, (2) the structuralist view, and (3) the legalist view.

- The dualist view was first coined by Tokman (1978). According to this view, the persistence of informal activities is due to the fact that there is not enough modern job opportunities which have been created to absorb surplus labour, due to a slow rate of economic growth and a faster rate of population growth (Hart, 1973; ILO, 1972; Tokman, 1978).

- The structuralist view was put forward by Moser and by Castells and Portes in the late 1970s and 1980s and they stated that the formal sector and the informal sector are interrelated, connected, and interdependent in terms of labour. Workers were said to have been pushed out of the formal sector, where they enjoyed job security, and into the informal sector, where they have no security, due to large capitalist firms' desire to reduce input and labour costs and increase their competitiveness (Castells & Portes, 1989; Moser, 1978).

- The legalist view, proposed by Hernando De Soto (1989), argued that the informal sector includes micro-entrepreneurs who prefer to operate informally in order to avoid the high costs, time, and effort involved in the formal registration associated with meeting the demands of state regulations.

3.7.1 Employing the Working Class – A Green Approach

In general, job descriptions can be used to specify a number of related task, duties and responsibilities (Wehrmeyer, 1996; Renwick et al, 2008 and 2013). These days, some companies have incorporated environmental and social tasks, duties and responsibilities as far as possible in each job in order to protect the environment. In some companies, each job description includes at least one duty related to environmental protection and also specifically includes environmental

responsibilities whenever and wherever applicable (Daily *et al.*, 2001; Huselid *et al.*, 2000; Jabbour, 2011).

Job descriptions and person (job) specifications may include environmental, social, personal, and technical requirements of the organizations as far as possible. For example, environmental protection duties should be included, along with the allocation of environmental reporting roles and health and safety tasks (Crosbie and Knight, 1995; Wehrmeyer, 1996; North, 1997; Revill, 2000). In addition, some companies use teamwork and cross-functional teams as job design techniques to successfully manage the environmental issues of the company (May and Flannery, 1995; Florida, 1996; Clement, 1997; Palmer and Andrews, 1997; Beard and Rees, 2000; Griffiths and Petrick, 2001; Daily and Huang, 2001; Govindarajulu and Daily, 2004; Jabbour, Santos, and Nagano, 2010). It is because of this reason that environmental protection task of a company requires or demands multi-disciplinary team works.

3.7.1.1 Green Human Resource Recruitment

In general, environment concerned companies have their own environmental policy framework. In materializing the established environmental policies, companies need environmentally oriented workforce. In creating environmental oriented workforce, companies have two options: First is focusing on green recruitment. Second is providing required environmental protection related awareness, education, training and development to the existing workforce. The first option is more proactive and cost effective than the second option. Hence, searching best green recruitment practices is important to organizations. In the recruitment context, what some companies are doing is that they integrate corporate environmental policy and strategies with the recruitment policy of the company. A survey by the British Carbon Trust confirms that most of the employees (more than 75%) considering working for an organisation perceived it as important that they have an active environmental policy to reduce carbon emissions (Clarke, 2006; May, 1995; Jackson *et al.*, 2011; Oates, 1996).

Attracting environmentally aware talent might be facilitated by pro-active branding of the organization as a high-quality "green employer of choice" (Renwick et al, 2008; Jackson et al,

2011). Increasingly, firms are beginning to recognize that gaining a reputation as a green employer is an effective way to attract new talent (Phillips, 2007; Stringer, 2009). Really, environmentally responsible employers can attract talent that they needed to implement corporate environmental management initiatives and ultimately it contributes to achieve organization"s environmental goals.

3.7.1.2 Green Training and Development

Providing environmental training to the organizational members (non-managerial employees and managers) to develop required skills and knowledge is an important function of green HRM. This will be helpful to implement corporate environmental management programs of the company (Cook and Seith, 1992). Providing training to encourage recycling and waste management, supporting flexible schedules and telecommuting, and reducing long-distance business travel (Jackson et al, 2011) are very useful to reduce the negative environmental impacts of the organisations (Palmer *et al.,* 1997; Opatha, 2013).

Creating environmental awareness among the workforce by conducting seminars and workshops at organizational level is also important to achieve good environmental performance. Providing environmental education that will result in a change of attitude and behaviour among managers and non-managerial employees (North, 1997) is also needed to the organisations. For example, in Fuji Xerox Singapore, every staff goes through Eco awareness training, as well as the sales forces receive education on the green aspects of its product and supplies. Apart from these, some organizations celebrates annual environmental day at company/organization level by organizing many competitive programs for non-managerial employees, managers and children of employees. This is also a good practice to inculcate certain key eco-values among the workforce as well as their family members (Philips, 2007; Renwick *et al.,* 2008; Stringer, 2009).

3.7.1.3 Green Health and Safety Management

The green health and safety management is really beyond the scope of traditional health and safety management function of HRM. It really includes the traditional health and safety management and some more aspects of environmental management of an organisation. That is why nowadays many organizations are redesigning the post of health and safety manager as health, safety and

environmental manager. This post includes a wider job scope when compared with traditional post of health and safety manager in an organisation. For example, it includes biodiversity protection and community support initiatives and so on. The key role of green health and safety management is to ensure a green workplace for all. Green workplace is defined as a workplace that is environmentally sensitive, resource efficient and socially responsible (SHRM, 2009). At present there are companies where traditional health and safety function was extended to include environmental management/protection. These companies have continually endowed to create various environmental related initiatives to reduce employee stress and occupational disease caused by hazardous work environment (Berry *et al.,* 1998; Clement, 1997).

In order to improve health and safety of employees, some companies have really created strategies (for instance, green factory/green zone) to maintain a conducive environment to prevent various health problems. These aspects can be considered as some examples for green health and safety management practices of the organizations. Some proactive companies (3M, DuPont, Allied, Signal, Amoco, and Monsanto) in environmental management found that management of environment and its cost lead to improvements in the health of employees and local communities, enhancing the image of the company as a desirable employer and corporate citizen (Cook *et al.,* 1992; Milliman *et al.,* 1996; North, 1997; Revill, 2000).

3.7.1.4 Green Social Dialogue

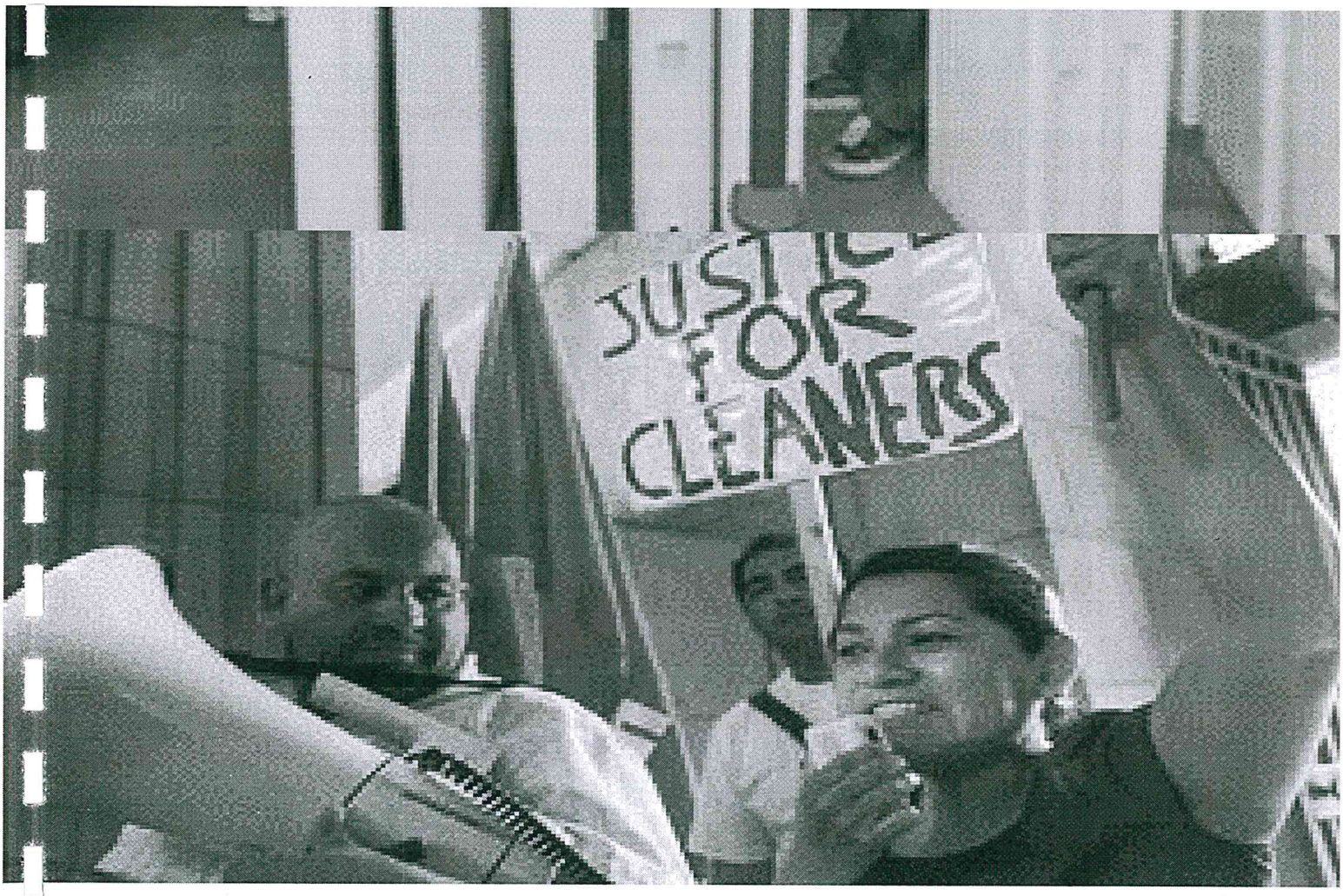
The evolution of green HRM has penetrated into the employee relations and union management activities of the organisation. In green HRM, employee relations and union support (in a unionized workforce context) are critical in implementing corporate environmental management initiatives and programs. Some companies have strategies (joint consultations, gain sharing, recognizing union as a key stakeholder in environmental management) to get the expected support of trade unions for corporate environmental management initiatives. Really it a good practice to increase firm's environmental performance (Wells *et al.,* 1993; Schwalm, 1994; Wehrmeyer, 1996; Clarke, 2006).

Renwick et al (2008 and 2013) suggested certain green employee relations and union management practices. They include employee involvement and participation in green suggestion schemes and

problem-solving circles, staff independence to form and experiment with green ideas, integrating employee involvement and participation into maintenance (cleaning), employee help-line for guidance in green matters, tailoring green employee involvement schemes to industry/company standards, increasing line/supervisory support behaviours in environmental management, union-management negotiating to reach green workplace agreements, training of union representatives in respect of environmental management aspects, encouraging employees to use green forms of transport, set-up of low carbon chiefs (including CEO and Board) to increase action in environmental management, and introducing green whistle-blowing and help-lines (Beard *et al.,* 2000; Carpenter, 1994; Florida, 1996; Gerhart *et al.,* 2000; Crosbie *et al.,* 1995).



CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY



4. INTRODUCTION

Christensen *et al.*, (2011:4) argue that the scientific approach to research is a very hybrid approach to generating and justifying knowledge claims and to accumulating this knowledge over time". Thus, social research has to be conducted in a methodical and scientific manner for validity and reliability. According to McNabb (2008), all research activity takes place in a sequence of steps and Saunders *et al.* (2003) state that the following steps have to be followed in order to successfully complete a research project:

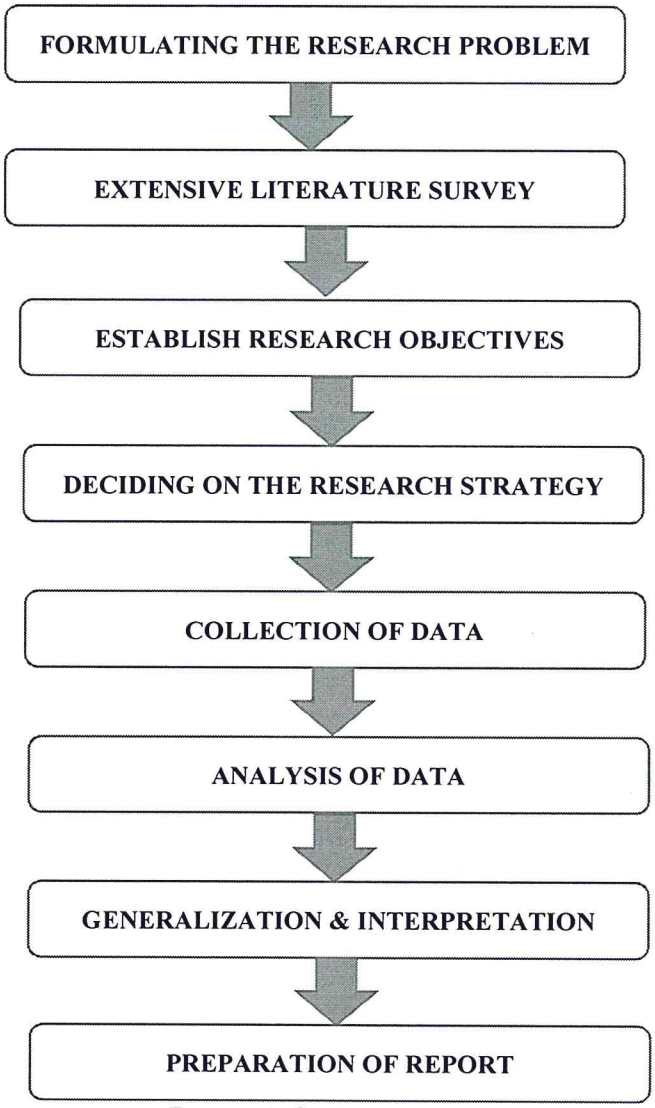


Figure 4.1 The Research process

The purpose of this chapter therefore, is to explain the research methodology adopted in fulfilling the objectives set of the present study, including detailed explanation of data collection and analysis as per the steps put forward by Saunders (2003).

4.1 FORMULATING THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The local Cleaning Industry faces a number of challenges in situating its workforce. Many organizations in Mauritius prefer to contract cleaning services considered as a peripheral service to the organization. In so doing, organizations have freed themselves from many HR related issues but on the other hand, have also leaved space for contractors offering cleaning services to "mushroom" out. However, in so doing, the resulted workers are rarely treated as a category of their own in numerous surveys and reports, but are rather roped in under a more general category, most commonly under "others". In this sense, many a times, workers working as cleaners, are most of the time "absent" from economic indicators or are referred in the sector of General cleaning of buildings and industrial cleaning activities (Digest of Labour Statistics, Central Statistics Office, Mauritius, 2014).

Currently, the Cleaning Industry in Mauritius is considered to be a very lucrative business but is devoid of the many hard and soft HR practices an employment contract should entail such as a decent pay, decent hours, presence of a psychological contract, social dialogue, the right to be unionized and so on and so forth. There are around 170 registered cleaning companies throughout the island, employing more than 4,000 individuals of different age groups. (Digest of Labour Statistics, Central Statistics Office, Mauritius, 2014). Alarmingly, the majority of workers offering their services to cleaning companies are most of the time employed on fixed term discontinuous contracts. To add to the complexity of this sector, cleaning services being a very low skilled job, a high rate of labour turnover is also noted coupled with a series of grievances on the part of employees, often made public through private radios and newspapers.

Additionally, if the current working conditions of the Mauritian cleaner in the face of the pre conditions for decent work are analyzed, there seem to be a major disrespect and non-compliance with regards to the ILO decent Work Agenda. More so since, Mauritius has already charted out its Decent Work Country Programme (DWCP) with a list of priorities as well. However, till date,

there has not been any structured research done to investigate into the status of decent work after DWCP has been established, contrary to other countries, like Kenya (Geren, 2010) and prestigious institutions like the World Health Organization and World Bank (Di Ruggiero *et al;* 2014).

4.2 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study investigates the extent to which individuals working as "cleaners" in the Republic of Mauritius, perceive their jobs to be "decent" according to the parameters set by ILO (2008a).The objectives of the study have been set as follows:

- To assess the **employment dimension** of decent work among cleaning workers in Mauritius.
- To investigate on the **social protection dimension** of decent work among cleaners in Mauritius.
- To examine the **rights at work dimension** of decent work among cleaners in Mauritius.
- To investigate into the details of the **social dialogue dimension** of decent work among cleaners in Mauritius.

4.3 EXTENSIVE LITERATURE SURVEY

An extensive review of different publications, articles and websites was done to prepare the research. On a theoretical point of view, literature search was done to better understand the issues relating to decent work. Articles, books and websites were consulted to gain a better insight of the concepts. The main journals and consultancy reports consulted were: International Journal of Manpower, Employee Relations, Personnel Review, Journal of Human Resource Costing & Accounting, MIT Sloan Management Review, Workforce, and so on. It is important to highlight that the vast majority of information available on decent work comes from international reports published mostly by the ILO and only a handful from academic studies and e-books. The main findings of the literature have been presented in Chapter 3 of this report.

4.4 RESEARCH STRATEGY

Saunders et al. (2003) define a research strategy as a general plan of how the researcher will answer the research questions and objectives of the study. It specifies the sources from which data will be collected and also consider the limitations of the study. Of the many research strategies that exist, it was important to ponder and choose the one that will be most appropriate for the study.

The main objectives of the current study was to understand the realities of decent work in the cleaning sector and the extent to which the different parameters of decent work, as defined by the ILO are applicable in the cleaning sector in Mauritius. Corbin and Strauss (2008) argue that qualitative research enable researchers to "get an inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture, and to discover rather than test variables". Thus, the qualitative stance was privileged for this study. More so, qualitative research involves understanding the research topic from the participant's perspective and therefore is usually relatively open and unstructured, rather than relying solely on theory to provide a framework of the research (Struwig & Stead, 2001). In turn, the meanings derived from participants' experiences help develop their needs and find out how these needs can be met (Cohen *et al.* 2000).

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

4.5.1 Interviews

Although there are many alternative methods of data collection (See Corbin & Strauss 2008), interviews are preferred since they allow more control over data collection and enable participants for follow up responses (Christensen *et al.,* 2011). Acknowledging that the target population for the study consisted of individuals with very low level of education, the researchers adopted Mishler's (1986 in Corbin & Strauss 2008) interpretation of interviews as being "questioning and answering are ways of speaking.....to express feelings and intentions"(pg 28). In fact, for this research, a typical interview protocol, that is a survey instrument that has been put into a script like format enabling the interviewer to systematically read the questions and easily record responses has been used (See Christensen *et al.,* 2011). Furthermore, interviews were unstructured to benefit from free flow of communication as advocated by Corbin & Strauss 2008).

4.5.1.1 Interview Questions

Further to the literature review and the research objectives set, research questions were formulated in English and further translated in creole (spoken language among the target population) to account for cultural differences as advocated by Christensen *et al.,* 2011 . The interview protocol was charted out as shown below:

Table 4.1 Research Questions for Employment dimension

Parameters	Statements	Questions (English)	Questions (Creole)	Theoretical Foundation
Employment	Having a job	For how long have you been employed at the cleaning company?	Comier lé temps ou travaille pour la compagnie ?	Fields 2003; Rushion *et al.,* 2012; Guichard, 2009
	Remunerative employment	How well are you remunerated in the organization you are working?	Eski ou satisfait ek la paille ou recevoir chak mois ?	Kalleberg and Vaisey, 2005; Huang and Vliert, 2002; Gallie, 2002
		Apart from salary, what are the other benefits that you received from your organization?	Apart ou salaire, eski ou compagnie offert ou ban lé zot bénéfices ?	
		Does your salary covers your monthly budget?	Eski ou salaire li assé pou ou roule ou la cuisine ?	
		Is your salary a motivating factor to continue working at the company?	Eski ou salaire li motive ou pou contine travaille pour la compagnie ?	
		Are you paid for overtime work?	Eski la compagnie paille ou overtime?	
	Conditions of work	Do you have protective equipment to carry out your daily duties?	Eski ou gagne bann equipments pou protège ou dans ou travaille ?	Hussan *et al.,* 2012; Jaros, 2007; Huselid, 1995; Guihua *et al.,* 2008
		Is there a health and safety programme at the organization?	Eski ena ene programme Health & Safety dans ou compagnie?	
		Do you work on shift systems?	Eski ou travaille lor ban system shifts?	
		Are you eligible for paid leaves?	Quand ou absent eski ou la paille li coupé ?	
		Would you say that you have a balanced working hours?	Eski ou trouve ou la vie balancé, travaille ene coté, la famille ek lakaz de láutre coté ?	
		Would you say that you have job security in your current job?	Eski ou senti ki ou éna securité démploi dans ou travail ?	Burchell, 1994; Burchell *et al.,* 1999; Wichert, 2002
		Do you work under pressure?	Eski ena pression dans travaille ki ou faire?	Gallie, 2007b; Green, 2006

		What is the extent of autonomy and control in your work?	Eski ou être constamment surveillé dans travaille ki ou faire ?	Dobbin and Boychuk, 1999; Gallie, 2003; Gallie, 2007c
	Training	Have you participated to any form of training lately offered by your organization?	Eski ou finne participle dans ban training récemment?	Anker *et al.*, 2003; Bonnet, Figueiredo & Standing, 2003; Ghai, 2003; Kuruvilla, 2006
	Supplementary fit	Do you share characteristics with your organization?	Eski ou trouver ki ena ene match entre la fason ki ou travaille ak la fason ki ou compagnie faire es choses?	Berger, 2009; Chavis, 2006; Gani, 2011
	Needs supply fit	Do you believe your organization is fulfilling yours needs?	Eski ou companie répond à tout ou ban besoins et attentes?	Kristof, 1996; Tomoki, 2004

Table 4.2 Research Questions for Social Dialogue dimension

Parameters	Statements	Questions (English)	Questions (Creole)	Theoretical Foundation
Social Dialogue	Union Density	If you are member of a Union, please let us have the name of the Union.	Si ou membre d'ene syndicat, faire nou gagne le nom du syndicat s'il vous plait.	Ebbinghaus and Visser, 2000; Kuruvilla *et al.*, 2002; Compa, 2002
		Have your requests been discussed in unions and solutions found?	Eski ou bann requettes ine déja être discuté. Eskiou ine gagne bann solutions ?	
		How do you find the strength of the union you are in?	Comment ou trouve la force de ou syndicat ?	
	Union concentration	Do you know if your Union is affiliated to some federation or some confederation?	Eski ou coné si ou syndicat li affilié à ène fédération ou confédération ?	Schmitter, 1981; Cameron, 1984; Headey, 1970
	Collective bargaining	Do you know how many cases of cleaning workers have been resolved till date ?	Eski ou au courant le nombre de cas ki fine être remporte pour les employés du secteur cleaning ?	Anker *et al.*, 2003; Auer, 2000; Choi, 2000; Herron, 1998; Lee, 2002; Visser, 1999; Parsons, 2002
	Social dialogue and workplace relations	Have you ever been on strikes to fight for a given issue at your company ?	Eski ou finne déjà engage ou dans ène forme de grève pour régler ène problem au travail ?	Berger, 2002; Casale *et al.*, 2001; Fashoyin, 2001; Boreham, 1992; Chau, 2001
	Type of social dialogue	Is the social dialogue at your company a bipartite or tripartite one ?	Eski bann négotiations li faire zis ek management ou compagnie ek syndicat ou éna l'intervention gouvernment ?	Kuruvilla, 2006

Table 4.3 Research Questions for Social Protection dimension

Parameters	Statements	Questions (English)	Questions (Creole)	Theoretical Foundation
Social Protection	Accident coverage	Have you ever been subject to any form of accident, if yes: what was the reaction of the company where you are working?	Eski ou ine déja faire accident au travail? Si oui, dire nou inpé couma la réaction de ou compagnie ti été ?	Jaros, 2007; Ghai 2002; 2003; Anker *et al.*, 2003; Kalliny *et al.*, 2004; Junaida *et*

	Sickness coverage	Have you ever been ill for more than a week? If yes, how did the company took care of you?	Ou ine déja absent au travaille parceki ou ti malade plis ki ène semaine ? Si oui, dire nou comment ou compagnie ine prend soin de ou ?	*al.*, 2010; Falola *et al.*, 2014
	Invalidity coverage	Have you been witness of any person who have become invalid while working for your company? If yes, let us know what did the company do for this person?	Eski ou cone kit employé kine vine invalid dans travail ? Si oui, dire nou ki la compagnie ine faire pou li ?	
	Family coverage	Have the company ever provide benefits that extend beyond you as an employee and touched your family and loved ones?	Eski la compagnie ine deja faire kitsoze pour ou la famille (e.g. aide zenfants dans léducation etc)	Ghai 2005; Kuruvilla, 2006; Saith, 2004; Ghai, 2003; Lund & Srinivas, 2000

Table 4.4 Research Questions for Workers' rights dimension

Parameters	Statements	Questions (English)	Questions (Creole)	Theoretical Foundation
Workers' Rights	Respect of rights	Do you believe that your rights as an employee is well respected?	Eski ou pensé ki ou ban droit travailleur li pé etre respecté par a companie cot ou travaille ?	Ghai, 2003; Parent-Thirion, 2012; Chan, 2009
	Freedom of Association	Do you have the right to belong to a union?	Eski ou éna le droit pour appartenir à ène syndicat ?	Baccaro 2001, cited in Ghai 2002; Ghai 2003
	Discrimination at work	Do you feel any form of discrimination at your workplace?	Eski ou fine être témoin ou fine subir kit forme de discrimination dans la compagnie ki ou été ?	Kalleberg, 2008; Marazzi, 2011; Mbeki, 2003
	Forced Labour/Unacceptable work	Have you been forced to work at any time by the company?	Eski ou finne deja etre forcé pou travaille dans la compagnie à ène moment donné ?	Achankeng, 2003; Barbalace, 2003; Budlender, 2013; Diaas, 2013; Harvey, 1989; Lund, 2009
	Work Life Balance	Do you enjoy a work life balance?	Eski ou travaille donne ou assé lé temps pou prend soin ou famille ek ou meme ?	Schoeman, 2011; Bauman, 1998; Baxter *et al.*, 2008; Devey et al. 2006; Flyvbjerg, 2006
	Type of contract	What type of working contract are you in with the company?	Kel type de contrat travail ou éna avec la compagnie?	
		Have you ever had breach in your working contract? If yes, for how long?	Eski ou fine deja gagne bann *pause* dans ou contrat?	

4.5.1.2 Structure of the Interview Protocol

The survey instrument was thus devised as a six-page comprehensive interview schedule translated in creole comprising of five sections namely: ***A***-Demographics, ***B***-Employment Dimension of

Decent Work, ***A3***-Workers'rights dimension of Decent Work, ***A4***-Social Protection Dimension of Decent Work, ***A5***- Social Dialogue Dimension of Decent Work.

4.5.2 Observation

Observation is the process whereby the researcher watches and records events or behavioural patterns of people (Christensen *et al.,* 2011). Corbin & Strauss (2003) also highlight that the observation is important in qualitative research since it is not unusual that people do not do as they say! So observation helps researchers to cross check their findings. Also, observation puts researchers where the action is" (ibid, pg 31). For the purpose of this study, naturalistic interviews were also used where the cleaners were observed in their real world situations. (Christensen *et al.,* 2011).

4.6 DETERMINING THE SAMPLE FROM THE POPULATION

According to Saunders *et al.* (2003), sampling enables a researcher to collect data from a small subset instead of taking the whole population as shown below:

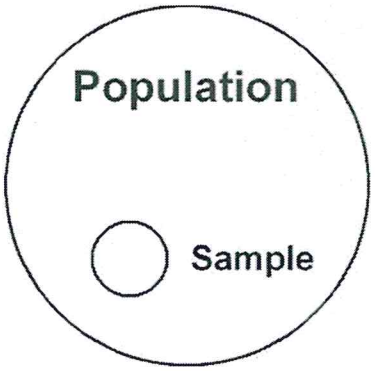


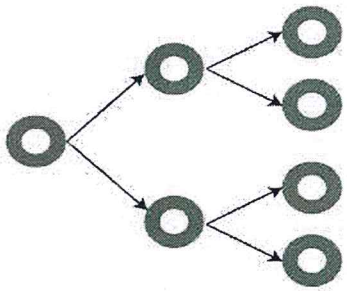
Figure 4.2 Diagrammatic representation of sampling

The sampling design consists of defining the population (sample frame), select the most appropriate sample technique, and decide on sample size and the sample plan.

4.6.1 Defining the population & sampling.

The population under study are individuals working as cleaners in the Republic of Mauritius. The job of "cleaner" being perceived as being quite precarious and unstable because of its nature, it was difficult to have exact figures form authorities concerned to derive a plausible sample.

Taking same into consideration, and knowing that the size of a sample used for a qualitative project is influenced by both theoretical and practical considerations, the researchers opined that best way of acceeding the required sample from the existing population would be through snowballing. Snowball sampling is used as a main vehicle through which informants are accessed or as an auxiliary mean, which assists researchers in enriching sampling clusters, and accessing new participants and social groups when other contact avenues have dried up or are not available (Noy 2008). A diagrammatical representation of the technique of snowball is shown below:



ique

The researchers have accessed informants through contact information which was provided by other informants, that is, employees working for cleaning services. This process is, by necessity, repetitive: informants refer the researcher to other informants, who are contacted by the researcher and then refer her or him to yet other informants, and so on. (Barkhuizen *et al.,* 2014).

Since there are no power calculations or quantitative sample size estimations algorithms in qualitative research, to determine sample size, the investigators will begin with a pre specified idea of a sample size based on the variability of the target population characteristics under study. Interviews would continue until "saturation" has been reached. Saturation is usually explained as being "when no new categories or relevant themes are emerging". (See Corbin & Strauss 2003: 148) . This is the point whereby additional interviews are not expected to yield new or valuable information (See Cutliffe, 2000). However, since there are no clear cut rules on when "enough is enough," although it has been suggested in the literature that most projects reach saturation after conducting twelve interviews, that is when, between 88 and 92% of analysis codes (themes) can be identified (See Guest *et al.,* 2006). The table below gives pertinent details of the sample interviewed. For confidentiality purposes names of companies surveyed have not been disclosed.

Table 4.5 The number of interviewees reached through surveys

Cleaning companies	Number of interviewees	Field site
A	21	University of Technology, Mauritius
B	6	Gare du Nord
C	13	Jeetoo Hospital, Port Louis
	7	Candos Hospital, Quatre Bornes
D	6	Curepipe bus station and Jan Palach
	9	University of Mauritius
E	3	Vacoas: Market, Police Station and Consulate Italy
F	6	Mahebourg: Caudan Waterfront, Foire and Bazar
TOTAL	**71**	

In effect, the collection of data started by the end of June up to mid of September 2017. The time slots were split as follows:

Table 4.6 Data collection period

Cleaning companies	Jun-Jul	Jul	Aug	Sept
A				
B				
C				
D				
E				
F				

4.6.2 Pilot Testing

Pilot tests are important to carry out before conducting the actual study since they not only ensure the correctness of the instrument being used but also provide the researcher with a short experience of the entire procedure. (Christensen *et al.,* 2011). Acknowledging the difficulties which might be involved in the field, it was crucial to carry out a pre-testing for this particular study. Accordingly, five cleaners were chosen randomly and the interview was conducted before finalising the interview schedule. The pilot test's aim was to identify the weaknesses, ambiguities and time taken per questionnaire. Respondents understood the rationale of this research. Around 15-30 minutes

were taken to complete one interview. However, one modification was undertaken with respect to the elimination of a repetitive question at number A-9.

4.6.3 Problems encountered

During the interviews, the researchers faced few difficulties as follows:

- Cleaners were apprehensive about their interviews being recorded and some intimidation was noticed on their part
- Some cleaners did not speak much
- Uncooperative attitude of supervisors in some cases
- Cleaners had very less time to spare for the interviews

4.7 ANALYSIS OF DATA

As data are collected, these should be available for analysis in terms of themes, patterns and meanings (See Christensen 2011: 374) in line with the objectives of the study. In analysing data, Yin (2009: 127) opines that "much depends on an investigator's own style of rigorous empirical thinking along with the sufficient presentation of evidence and careful consideration of alternative interpretations". While the author enumerates a series of pre packaged software as computer assisted tools for analysing large sets of qualitative data, he also cautions researchers about the two words "assisted" and "tools" where he argues that software will not be analysing data for researchers and therefore the results they derive cannot be used by themselves as end analyses for a study. He rather calls for researchers to indulge in their analysis "iteratively and gradually" (pg 128) in response to the how and why of the study by their own thinking and analytical skills.

Data from the interviews was gathered using an integrated chip (IC) recorder. Interviews lasted for a minimum of thirty minutes and a maximum of around forty five minutes. Data collected was immediately transcribed by the researchers(See Pole & Lampard 2002: 202), subsequently printed on A4 paper and also carefully stored electronically to ensure that the researcher does not lose them (See Creswell 2007: pg 142) and so that they could be easily retrieved as and when required (See Yin 2009).

4.7.1 Coding, Interpretation & Analysis of Data

The study made use of "thematic analysis" to identify, analyse and report patterns (themes) within the data collected, thus providing rich, detailed and complex account of same (See Griffiths *et al.*, 2011) . Although Braun & Clarke (2006:79) outline that there is "no clear agreement about what thematic analysis is and we go about doing it", the researcher indulged in four phases as elaborated upon below to create meanings out of the data collected:

4.7.1.1 Creating Interview Transcripts

Sacks (1992 in Silverman 2006) points out that when conducting research, it becomes practically impossible to remember or note certain matters. Both authors thus portray the use of tapes which enable the researcher not only to preserve the sequence of talks, but also indicate the advantage which tapes have in terms of enabling the researcher to replay them in order to improve the transcripts. As Silverman (2006:207) advocates "the preparation of transcripts "involve close, repeated listenings to recordings which often reveal previously unnoted recurring features of the organisation of talk."

Transcriptions were prepared immediately after each interview(s). Details such as date, time and place of the interview were noted. The recordings were played again and again so as to get the exact sequence and wordings of the "naturally occurring" talk (See Silverman 2006:201) while typing the texts. Certain observation notes were also noted on the transcripts based on observation while conducting the interview. Once the whole interview was transcribed, the interview was listened to and the transcriptions read simultaneously in order not to miss any section of the conversation carried out thus ensuring some type of "completeness" of the text.

4.7.1.2 Getting Familiarised with the Discourses in the Form of Texts

Cresswell (2007) opines that the use of computer software in qualitative data coding and analysis is helpful with very large databases, usually with more than 500 text pages. In this respect, the team did not make use of any software, but rather immersed themselves deeply in the transcripts to make meaning out of the conversations for analysis at a later stage. In order to achieve same, the transcripts were carefully read several times and relevant expressions, sentences and words

were underlined and notes were made to guide the researcher in line with the objectives of the study, over here being the four parameters of decent work as indicated by the ILO.

4.7.1.3 Coding Transcripts

Coding data involves reducing raw data gathered into manageable pieces of information which can also be easily retrieved by the researcher at a later stage and basically involves two simultaneous activities (See Neuman 2003: 442), that is "mechanical data reduction" and "analytic categorization of data into themes". Boyatzis (1998: 31) advocates regarding "a good thematic code" as being "one that captures the qualitative richness of the phenomenon (under study).It is usable in the analysis, the interpretation, and the presentation of research".

The researchers took the above aspects into consideration while coding her data, including the argument of Strauss (1987 in Neuman 2003) about three kinds of qualitative data coding; namely open coding, axial coding and selective coding where the researchers found open coding to be most appropriate, since this type of coding helped in bringing "themes to the surface from deep inside the data" (See Neuman 2003: 443).

4.7.1.4 Identifying Themes, Sub Themes & Charting out Emergent Themes

According to Braun & Clarke (2006: 82), a theme "captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set". For the purpose of the study, data was categorized under 4 broad themes and 16 sub themes as shown in below and in line with the ILO parameters for decent work and existing literature.

4.7.2 Themes & Sub Themes

4.7.2.1 Work and Employment

- Employment Opportunities
- Employment Quality
- Employment Fit
- Employment Characteristics

4.7.2.2 Social protection

- Expenditure on coverage
- Accidents in the Cleaning Sector
- Inclusion of family members in Social Protection

4.7.2.3 Rights at work

- Conditions of work
- Balanced Life
- Discrimination
- Forced Labour

4.7.2.4 Social dialogue dimension

- Intensity
- Typology
- Participation
- Union Density
- Freedom of Association

4.7.3 Emerging Themes & Sub Themes

4.7.3.1 Socio Economic Issues

- Vicious circle of economic debt
- Soliciting financial help from others
- Neglected households

4.7.3.2 Forced Labour/ A Job next to slavery

4.7.3.3 Complete absence of Work Life Balance

- **No days off**
- **Discrimination at work**
- **Poor awareness about social protection**

4.7.3.4 Poor Unionisation and No Collective Agreement

4.8 VALIDITY & GENERALISABILITY OF THE STUDY

Validity is all about truthfulness and in social research, validity bridges the gap between a social construct and data obtained. While ensuring validity, social researchers have the task of creating a very close link between what they have understood and what is actually occurring in the social world. According to Neuman (2003), these can be achieved in three ways which the researcher has considered while working with her data obtained:

(i) portraying plausible data i.e. putting forward the researcher's genuine experiences with data obtained

(ii) obtaining data from diverse small details

(iii) continuous search in diverse data and the connections between them.

While in quantitative research, generalisability is achieved through appropriate sampling procedures, in the case of qualitative research however, sampling procedures are usually unavailable rather, the sample for qualitative research is perceived as being theoretical (See Silverman 2006) that is depending on what is being researched upon. As indicated by Cresswell (2007:125), "the inquirer selects individuals and sites for the study , and in this study, has been the various places of work of cleaners.

Regarding "analytical" generalisation sought in qualitative research, the results obtained from the thematic analysis of the interviews conducted have been applied to the broader concepts of decent work as enumerated in the literature review.

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

According to Christensen *et al.,* 2011, ethical issue in social science revolves around the extent to which to which societal concerns and cultural values direct the course of scientific investigation. Therefore, for this study, respondents were given the choice to participate or withdraw themselves. Each time a cleaner had be contacted for an interview, the verbal consent was asked and further anonymity and confidentiality were also guaranteed even regarding the names of the cleaning companies.

CONCLUSION

This chapter provided insights as to how the research process was designed as a whole. The qualitative stance was justified including the interview protocol, details of the sample derived were indicated and a detailed account of how data obtained has been analysed has been portrayed. The next chapter now presents the findings of the study.



CHAPTER 5
FINDINGS



5. INTRODUCTION

This chapter detailed and described the findings obtained from the seventy-one (71) interviews carried out with cleaners throughout the island.

5.1 AGE

AGE	*%*
20 - 30	17
31 - 40	26
41 - 50	24
51 - 60	19
Over 61	14

Table 5.1 Age

Table 5.1 illustrates that the study's respondents are mostly in the age bracket 31-60 years old (69%). However, a smaller proportion of cleaners (14%) are also senior citizens/pensioners. The study also revealed a younger pool of employees working as cleaners in the age range of 20-30 years old.

5.2 EDUCATION

EDUCATION LEVEL	*%*
CPE	97
Form III	3

Table 5.2 Education Level

According to the study, Table 5.2 indicates that most cleaners interviewed showed a level of education up to CPE level.

5.3 GENDER

Table 5.3 Gender

GENDER	%
Female	81
Male	19

Of the number of respondents interviewed, Table 5.3 indicates that 81% are female and only 19% of the cleaners are male.

5.4 PRESENCE OF A WORKING CONTRACT

Table 5.4 Working contract

DURATION OF WORKING CONTRACT	***STATEMENTS***	*%*
No contract	• *« Non pas encore. Mo fec rentré ine gagne ène mois. »* • *« Fec gagne ène mois depuis mone pren travail mo pane signe aucaine contrat. Mo lor probation pou 3 mois encore. Apres quoi mo pou signe mo contrat. »*	19%
Contract of 3 months	-	30%
Contract of 5 months	-	
Contract of 8 months	• *« Mo ti déjà travail avant ici. Mone quitter la mone ré vine ici même pou faire 8 mois bientôt. »*	
Contract of 9 months	• *« Ene contract de 9 mois a renouveler dépend nous conduite et performance. Pas sire nanien. Superviseur ek buro ki pou decide sa. »* • *« Mone faire 1 an la mone signe ene contract 9 mois pou fini en Fev 2017. Au faite chaque l'annee nou signe ene contract. »*	
Contract of 11 months	-	

Contract of 1 year	• *« Mo fec rentrer mo lor probation 1 an. »* • *« Oui mo ine signe ene document quand mo ti faire un an. »*	16%
Contract of 2 years	-	14%
Contract of 2 and a half year	-	2%
Contract of 3 years	• *« Oui. Ene document ti faire moi signer ki dire ki mo pou travaille pou la compagnie pou 3 ans. »*	17%
Permanent		3%

As shown in Table 5.4, 19% of the cleaners are working with no contract or any form of written document in hand. However, of the 30% of respondents who do have a working contract, their work duration is from a minimum of 3 months to a maximum of 11 months. An equal proportion of cleaners have contract with a minimum of 2 years and a maximum of 3 years. Only a small percentage (16%) have contracts of 1 year. We also observe that 3% of the repondents are on a permanent basis with more than thirteen years off experience with the company.

5.5 WORKING ARRANGEMENT

5.5.1 Arrival and Departure time

Table 5.5 Working Arrangement

ARRANGEMENT	*%*
Arrival Time	
7:00	100
Departure Time	
16:00	10
17:00	90
Breaks	
8:30 – 8:45	10
12:00 – 13:00	100

According to the Table 5.5, all cleaners, without exception, starts work at seven (7:00) in the morning and while the large majority finishes at five (17:00) – 90%, there is a small percentage of respondents who finished one hour earlier (10%). It was also evident from the study that not all cleaners have morning breaks of 8:30 – 8:45 only 10% do. However, all of them enjoys lunch from 12:00 to 13:00.

4.5.2 Overtime

Table 5.6 Overtime

	%	STATEMENTS
YES	*48*	• *« Oui quand nou travail apres 17.00. Mais des fois sa aussi sauter. Zot raconte ene zistoire ki ou pas compren nanien. »*
NO	*52*	• *« Non pas gagner overtime. Dimanche nanien pas paye double. Conge publique tou travay. »* • *« Non pas gagne overtime. Apres 16.00 supossement bisin paye overtime mais nous pas gagner. »* • *« Non pena overtime ici. Mais nous ine signe ene contract zis pou trois heures temps travail mais nou travay 7.00 – 5.00 sans aucaine overtime. »*

The Table 5.6 shows that there is a more or less equal number of cleaners who worked overtime (48%) and those who do not (52%).

5.6 PREVIOUS WORKING EXPERIENCE OF CLEANERS

Table 5.7 Working experience of cleaners before joining the cleaning company

STATEMENTS	SECTORS
« Mo ti pe faire plantation lor ene la terre à bail. Mais propriétaire la ine reprend so la terre ek mone retouve moi sans travail. »	**AGRICULTURE**
« Mo ti pé faire baby Sitter pendant trois ans. Avant mo ti pé travail Leather Garments pendant 12 ans. »	**BABYSITTER, TEXTILE**
« Mo ti pé travail pou mo même. Mo ti éna ène entreprise textile. Mo ti pé faire ban sac à main. »	**SMALL SCALE BUSINESS**
« Mo ti dans business. Mo ti éna trisic cot moi ti pé vane gato frire tou sa. Travail pas tro bon. Lerla mone vine rode ène travail cleaner même. Mais couma dire ine sape dans poilon tombe dans difer sa.. ! »	
« Mo ti pé travail Cascavelle comme cleaner même mais pou ène lot compagnie. Mo ti près pou gagne 1 an contrat ine fini. »	**CLEANING SERVICES**
« Mo ti pé travail cleaner à titre individuel dans ène buro. »	
« Mo ti pé travail cleaner dans Alpha Cleaning après mone bizin arreter mo ti bien malade. Mone decourager mo ti penser mo pas pou capave travail encore. »	
«Mo ti pé travail dans dry cleaning. »	
«7 ans mo ti travail Maxiclean. Oui mais akoze mo l'age zot ine tire moi mais ici zot ine re employe moi. Avan sa mo ti pé travail dans l'usine ek dans jardin inper partout partout. »	

«Mo ti dan ene lot compagnie cleaning. »	
«Ti faire cleaner même pendant 2 ans. Mo ti pé travail dans l'usine les gants.»	**CLEANING & TEXTILE**
« Mo ti pé travail dans construction. Mo ti pé faire mason. Travail la ti commence vine dure ek inper instable. Zordi éna travail demain péna. A koz sa mone change travail. »	**CONSTRUCTION**
« Mone travail la plus part du temps dans secteur construction après mo fine ale a l'extérieur et la bas mo tip e travail couma contracteur même. »	
« Mo ti pé travail mason ek mo beau-frère. »	
« Mone faire maneve mason pendant 5 ans. Travail la ti tro dure. Apres arrive décembre ou péna travail. C'est pour sa ki mone rode ène lot travail. »	
« Mo ti pé faire mason après mone rentre inper dans l'hotelerie. »	**CONSTRUCTION & TOURISM**
« Care taker dans l'école pendant 35 bananes. »	**EDUCATION**
« Pendant 7 ans mo ti travail dans la cuisine ène l'école. »	
« Dans ene Snack pendant 2 ans. »	**FOOD**
« Mo ti pé travail dans la cour ban dimune. Jardinier ek réparation. Ene jour ène camarad ine rod sa travail cleaner la pou moi. »	**GARDENER**
« Dans la cour ban compagnies. »	
« Dans la cour dimune. »	
« Mo ti pé travail dans ène la cour faire jardinage. Mais après mone bisin quitter ban dimunne la ine déménager.	
Mo ti pé travail dans la cour	
Mo ti pé lave linge cote ene madame k faire ban travail dans la cour	**GARDENER & HOUSEHOLD WORKER**
« Mo ti pe faire peintre. Mais sa travail la pas stable.	**MANUAL**
« Mo ti pe faire tolelier »	**MECHANIC**
« Jamais mone travail avant alors c'est mo premier expérience. »	**NEVER WORKED BEFORE**
« Mo pas ti pe travail. »	
« Non zamais mone travail avant. »	
« Dans ène restaurant. Mo ti dans la cuisine. »	**RESTAURANT**
« Mo ti plongeur dans ène restaurant dans port-louis. »	
« Dans ène magasin vêtement bébé »	**SALES GIRL**
« Blendax mo ti travail pendant 7 ans. Compagnie ine perdi so ban contracts. »	**TEXTILE**
« Mo ti travail dans l'usine CMT pendant quatre ans après mone vine travail ici. »	
« Mo ti pé travail dans ène l'usine textile mais akoze fini tar mone rode ène lot travail ek mone gagne ici. »	
« Mo ti pe travail l'usine. Mone faire sa pendant trois ans. »	
« Un an mone travail dans l'usine. Apres mo ine rentre dans Mauriclean mo ti travail pointe-aux-sables après zot ine shifter moi ici l'hopital. »	
« Avant Keepclean mo ti pé travail l'usine pendant 10 ans. »	
« Un peu dans l'usine après mone faire business. »	**TEXTILE & SMALL SCALE BUSINESS**

« Dans l'usine ek dans la cour dimune. »	**TEXTILE & GARDENER**
«Dans ene trisik avec ene madam. Ene trois mois par la. Avant sa mo ti pé travail dans l'usine faire repassage. »	**TEXTILE, MANUAL WORKER - HOUSEHOLD WORKER**
«Dans l'usine, dans l'hôtel dans dernier position noune vine la. »	**TEXTILE & TOURISM**
« Mone travail dans l'hôtellerie pendant 2 mois. Mo ti pé faire plongeur la bas. avant sa mo ti pé travail dans l'usine. »	
« Dans l'hôtellerie. Ti pé faire serveuse. Mone bocou fatiguer la bas. Mo dire mo changer. Mais ici li pas bon même. »	**TOURISM**
« Mo ti pé travail dans l'hôtel. »	
« Mo ti serveur dans ène l'hôtel. »	
« Mo ine faire Controller bus. Mais tro fatiguer. Pendant 7 ans mone faire sa. »	**TRANSPORTATION**

Table 5.7 indicates that cleaners have a varied working experience before joining the cleaning company. From the survey, it was found that cleaners are groomed from 16 different sectors namely: Agriculture, Babysitter, Textile, Small Scale Business, Cleaning Services, Construction, Tourism, Education, Food, Gardener, Household Worker, Manual, Mechanic, Restaurant, Sales Girl, and Transportation. Additionally, a proportion of the respondents have never worked before joining the cleaning company. The survey also revealed that respondents, during their working experience, had more than one job.

5.7 EMPLOYMENT DIMENSION

5.7.1 Salary

Table 5.8 Perceptions of cleaners' salary

STATEMENTS	***THEMES***
• *« Non Rs 6000 pas kasse sa. Mo ti pou bien contan si gouvernment ti capave augmente sa l'argent la par zis Rs 2000 nou ti pou reci sorti dans nou ban problem.»* • *« A chaque fois pé tan dire casse la pou monté mais zamais sa pe arriver. »* • *« Nou base Rs 4000 pas Rs 6000. Rs 2000 transport sa ceki noune signer lor contrat. Nou journée supposément Rs 200 mais nous gagne zis Rs 133 journee. »* • *« Non salere pas asser. La vie li coute cher... »*	**Requesting intervention of Government and Policy makers**
• *« Quand ine tire tout dépense cuma mo pou ris ène mois avec zis Rs 1000. Mo mari travail peintre. Mais sa ene travail zordi éna demain péna. Pas capave compte lor la. »* • *« Moi mo dire li pas assez. mo fec marier mo éna ene tipti bébé mo mari pena ène travail stable. li pas assez. mais ki mo capave faire. »*	**Coping with bills and family's expenditures**

• « ....ene boucher manzer pe réci gagner avec sa casse la, bisin faire avec. » • « ale dans supermarcher ou gueter de jours en jours la vie pé vine cher. mais ki pou faire travail misère. » • « Mo marrier. Mo mari travail dans ene la boutique dans l'endroit même. Nous casse ensemble pas arrive Rs 10,000. Mo ena 2 zenfants pé ale l'école primaire. Bisin paye van, rod manzer tou les jours. Li pas asser pou vive. » • « Mo marier mo éna 2 zenfants. Mo mari travail jardinier. Nous casse ensam pas asser. Ban zenfants encore à l' ecole (Form 3 et Forme 2). » • « Zordi jour ou bisin au moins Rs 200 par jour pou roule la cuisine. Sa meme pou ene mois ine arrive Rs 6000. Li bien difficile pou zoine les deux bouts. » • « nou reste dans ene lakaz louer, nou ena délo, la lumière ek téléphone pou payer. Ena commission pou faire. Ki magic bisin faire pou ki tou sa la capave faire dans sa casse la. » • «Oui li ok. Mo pas marrier. Mo rest kot mo mama. Mo donne ène ti casse dans la caze et la différence mo faire c'est ki mo envi li suffissant pour moi. » • «Non li pas asser. Mo bisin faire 2 lot travail pou capave zoine deux boutes. Mo travail dans la cour ek lave linge cote ne madam. »	
• « Rs 6000 li pas asser pou roule ene lakaz tousel avec zenfant car mo mari li pas capave travail. » • « Mo ena ene lakaz pou ocupper ek trois enfants. Mo mari li nepli ek moi. Franchement c'est ki mo gagner li pas asser. »	**Single working parent**
• « Couma gagne la paye so lendemain mo bisin commence demande dimoune preter. Mo habite Baie du Tombeau. Quand pena transport mo marcher depuis Baie du tombeau jusqu'à L'hopital Jeetoo, Port-Louis. Depuis 5.00 du matin mo commence marcher pou mo arrive dans travail 7.00, tous les jours mo faire sa. » • « Mo dépense plis ki mo gagner. Mo bisin demande mo mama ek la famille aide moi. Mo osi prend preter avec mo ban camarad. Mo ena dette ziska li cou et mo péna aukaine moyen pou rétourne sa l'argent la. » • «Mo dans difficulter apres ene semaine la paye. Des fois ban factures reste pas payer li accumuler lor 3-4 mois. Bisin pren preter pou payer. Faire dette et refaire dette pou paye dette. »	**Increased debt among cleaners**
• « Quand mo ti pe travail mason li ti bocou pli bon parceki ti pe paye nou en journée. Pou moi mo ti pé capave roule mo la cuisine jour pou jour. Mais avec mason pas tou les jours ki ou ena travail. C'est pour sa ki mo pe travail ici. Mais la paye la bien minime. »	**The cleaning job compared to a precarious job**
• « ...Ou couma dire esclave ici. »	**A new facet of slavery: the cleaning workers**
• « ...Ena dimune ale manzer dehors pour autant l'argent...nou nou gagne sa cuma salere! »	**Salary compared as a day out in Mauritius**

• *« Mo vive dans ene lakaz louer. Mo tifi aide moi pou paye loyer. Mo pena pension pas encor gagne 60 ans. Finalement ena zis sa la paye la meme pou debrouiller. »*	**Family members' intervention**

The findings of Table 5.8 shows that cleaners are unanimously dissatisfied with their monthly salary and have proposed some recommendations or are having recourse to some alternative means in order to maintain their living. Eight main themes came out of the perception that cleaners have of their salary and these will be further elaborated in Chapter 5.

5.7.2 Other Employment Benefits

Table 5.9 Others benefits provided by the cleaning company

STATEMENTS	*THEMES*
• *« Bonus nou gagner mais Transport non parceki nou reste près. »* • *« Nanien péna. Nou 13eme mois aussi nou pas gagne li couma bisin. Nous gagne zis Rs 4000 comme 13eme mois. »* • *« Sel benefice c'est nou bonus fin l'annee cot nou gagne Rs 4000. »*	**Bonus regarded as an employment benefit or an unfair benefit**
• *« Non pena tout sala. Apart 13eme mois sa meme. »* • *« Mo coner nou gagne ene soi-disant 13eme mois. Des fois li moins ki ène mois la paye tou. »* • *« Nou gagne 13eme mois. mais gouvernment li donne ou ene lot mois la paye. Ici mo pa gagne compran ena gagne Rs 2000 ena gagne Rs 3000. »* • *« Apart mo saler, mo gagne ene pension ek government et puis bonus la fin l'année. »*	
-	**No benefits at all**
• *« Non péna nanien apart saler. Mais mo pas appel sa ène bénéfice mais plutôt nou droit. »* • *« La compagnie ine faire nous signe ene contract ki nous la paye li Rs 6250 aster quand li done nous 13eme mois li donne nous zis Rs 4000. Couma ou explik sa. Quand nous ale demander li dire nous base la paye c'est Rs 4000 et nou tout ici ine obliger signer ki nous la paye li Rs 6250. Sa augmentation Rs 600 la aussi nou pane gagner. Pou NRB la aussi nou pane gagner. »*	**Salary regarded as right not a benefit- A right which is not being respected**
• **Supervisor** *: « chaque la fin l'année ban veuve gagne matérielles scolaires pou zot zenfants, facilites loan, mais faudrait ki travailleur la faire so request ; ena 4-5 travailleur ki gagne pension mais mo request compagnie pas coupe zot pension. »*	**School materials for kids**
• *« Ici nou gagne zis saler ek uniform. »*	**Uniform regarded as a benefit**

According to Table 5.9, cleaners do not perceive employment benefits beyond bonus and uniforms. During the study, five such themes were retrieved from the findings and these will be detailed and explained in Chapter 5.

5.7.3 Quality of life of cleaners

Table 5.10 Cleaners' quality of life

STATEMENTS	*THEMES*
• *« Mo pas ene dimune ki contant dépenser mais dans c'est qui nécessaire même mo pas pe capave acheter. »* • *« Nou manze c'est qui gagner. Des fois nou ale dormi vente vide péna personne pou donne nou. »* • *« Ena jour nou finne manze du pain sec nou ine ale dormi. Pa ti ena casse pou acheter manzer. »* • *« Mo ena ene bebe de 3 mois ki mo quitte avec mo sœur. Mo pe bisin donne mo zenfant du lait grand dimune parseki mo budget pas permet moi acheter du lait ti baba ki coute Rs 295. Li pas facile di tou. »* • *« Non di tou. Oune déjà donne ou zenfants 5 jours meme zafaire. kot moi sa meme arriver. »*	**Quality of life and meeting basic needs are two opposing concepts at Cleaning companies**
• *« Mo bisin faire **trois travail** pou arrive Rs 10,000 ... »* • *« Mo prend **crédit** dans ene la boutique. Gramatin meme boutiquier la pe faire moi coner ki mo compte ine vine plis ki Rs 5000. Et la ene sou mo pena. »* • *« Li pas asser. Mo ene veuve donc mo gagne ene pension ek gouvernment mo aussi gagne ene l'aide ek mo garson. Mo resi lerla. »* • *« Mo locataire mo bisin paye lakaz, manzer boir li bien difficile pou moi. Mo ene veuve, tomber, lever pe bisin tracer.. »* • *« Non zis c'est ki bisin. des fois nous marquer. mo marier mo mari li travail dans camion. li gagne casse par journee. lor la mo bisin depan quand moi mo l'argent ine fini apres 2 jours meme. Paye lesson, ration...etc. »* • *« Des fois ou cuma dire ene ti toutou pe ale rode manzer lakaz lakaz. »* • *« Non si pas ti ena mo mama mo reste sans manzer moi ek mo ban zenfants. sa travail la li pas couvert depense ene la vie ene dimoune. mo bien stresser ek sa. »* • *« Li difficile pou vivre lor ene salere 10,000 (moi ek mo fame) sak mois. des fois moi mo gagne travail la peinture ek plomberie kot ban dimune, surtou la fin l'annee, sa ban ti travail la aide nou inper. »* • *« Zis c'est ki bisin ki nous capave acheter. »* • *« Dans ban kitsoze necessaire même pe bisin faire economie. »*	**Spillover effects of a work that deteriorates quality of life**

• *« Mo en detter ziska licou. Mo pena la lumiere cot moi depuis 3 semaine la. mo nepli ena casse. »*	
• *« Mo bisin faire l'impossible des fois. »* • *« Bisin fair bocou effort. »* • *« Nou bisin faire boucou economie. »* • *« Bisin bocou serre la main. »* • *« Mo economiser sou pou sou pou faire vivre mo famille. »* • *« Nou bisin zis pense zordi pou zordi. »* • *« Difficile pou acheter ban kitsoze extra vagance. »* • *« Non faire bocou sacrifices. »* • *« Mo compte lor Bondie pou roule le mois. »* • *« Dans Rs 6000 ou tire ou transport Rs 2000 (Mo reste bamboos) ou reste zis Rs 4000 pou role sa mois la. Ena mois mo bisin absent pou donne zenfant l'argent pou ale l'ecole. Mo bolome osi travail dans cleaning ATICS mais li osi so contract pou ale fini. »* • *Zis acheter c'est ki bisin dans la cuisine casse ine prope.*	**Struggling to get the minimum in quality of life**
• *« Mo gagne l'aide ek mo misier li travail dans camion construction pou ene compagnie. Li gagne Rs 10,000 la paye. Sa aide nou bocou. Avec depense ban zenfants li pas facile. »* • *« Mo ene madam separer mo ena deux enfants. Ene chance mo reste ek mo maman li aide moi. Mo pas pe donne mo mama kass pou roule la cuisine dans le moment. Mais mo bisin occupe ban zenfants la. L'argent pou van l'ecole etc. »* • *« Mo misier aide moi. So saler ek pou moi nou reci debrouiller. »* • *« Mo ena 4 zenfant mais 2 la dans pe déjà travay donc zot pe aide moi inper.*	**Quality of life compensated from family members, children, husbands and wives**
• *« Ou ran ou compte ki ena dimune pe faire shopping ene jour ek Rs 6000. Mo trouve sa tro denigrand. Mo ene dimune ki debattre pou mo famille. Depui tipti mo pane gagne la chance pou faire grand lekol. Eski sa bisin penalise nou pou vivre ene la vie pareil ? Tou les jours li ene traca pou moi kot pou gagne l'argent pou acheter manzer. »*	**Lack of education and the work of cleaner**
• *« Nanier progres pas reci faire ek sa casse la. Couma gagner li fini. »*	**Stagnant in life : No progress**
• *« Sa kasse nou gagner la li pas permet nou rever. Quad ou pe passe devant ene magasin oune trouve ene zoli linge bisin faire cuma dire pane trouve nanien. Sa c'est la vie ki mo pe amener. Li bien difficile. »* • *« Zis c'est ki capave acheter ki nous acheter. Nou pas capave faire nou plaisir tout les temps. »* • *« Mo pas gagne droit envi plis avec sa travail ki mo ena la. »*	**"No dreams is allowed for us.."**

• *« La vie a Maurice li coute cher. Mo ti pou demande le gouvernement pou met en place ene barem pou banne travailleurs cleaning pou qui employeurs pas capave paye nous enbas sa barem la. »*	**Minimum pay for the Cleaning Industry**

Table 5.10 depicts the quality of life that cleaners have and how their work as a cleaner impacts on their daily routines. During the interview, eight themes were identified to resume and to picture the living conditions of cleaners. This will be further elaborated in Chapter 5.

5.7.4 Commitment to the work of cleaner

Table 5.11 The work commitment of cleaners

STATEMENTS	***THEMES***
• *« Mo obliger travail. »* • *« La cot ine arriver pe pese neznez boire de l'huille. »* • *« Mo pe manze mo cou parceki mo famille compte lor moi. »* • *« Mo pas penser sa l'âge la mo ti bisin travail. Mais pe obliger ki pou faire. »* • *« Mo pena choix.. »* • *« Contant ? mo pou dire pli tot mo obliger travail. Dan Maurice pena travail. Travail bien misère zordi zour. »* • *« Mo obliger nourrit mo famille pena okaine l'amour dans c'est ki mo faire. »* • *« Non li zis ene devoir ki mo bisin faire. »*	**"I worked with obligation and not commitment..."**
• *« Saler la li pas motive moi pou vine travail. Mais travail la en li même li bon. »* • *« Faudrait ban conditions ameliorer... »* • *« Oui mais saler la fair defaut. »* • *« Oui mo travail mo faire li ek bocou passion. Mo contant c'est qui mo faire. »* • *« Mo pas dire ou non. Travay la li bon li. Mais selment nous l'heur travail li pas bon. Nous rentrer 7.00 mais nous bisin attan misier la amène solution pou nou travail. Sa veu dire ene cou 08.45 par la ki nous pou commence travail. Apres tantôt nou fini nous travay 14.00 mais seulement nou bisin reste en place ziska 5.00 p.m. Nous pou bisin ale lakaz dans noir. »* • *« Oui mais l'heur 5.00 aller la dégoutant net et surtout travay dimanche. »*	**Ameliorating the conditions of work can enhance job commitment**
• *« Mo atan gagne mieux. »* • *« Mo pe atan ene lot travail la. »*	**On the move for another job**
• *« Travail c'est travail. Quand travail la pe donne ou ene ti boucher manger ou pas capave guet grand tipti. C'est qui Bondier ine choisirer bisin accepter. »*	**A fated job**

The survey shows a continuum on the line of commitment to the work of a cleaner and we detected three category of cleaners: (1) Not committed at all, (2) committed if there are changes in the working conditions and (3) slightly committed but thinking of moving for a better opportunity. Along this same line, four themes were found which can best explained the work commitment of cleaners in Mauritius.

5.7.5 Protective Equipment

Table 5.12 Protective Equipment

	%	STATEMENTS
Uniforms and gloves	5	• *« Bottes nanien pas gagner. Mo met savates mo travail. Mo gagne les gants ek uniforme. Bottes bisin pou protège nous lipie contre solution. Zot dire c'est ki donner sa même. »*
Uniforms only	29	• *« Zis uniforme. Les gants aussi nous pas gagner faudrait nurse qui dans la salle pitié nous lerla nou gagne les gants pou travail. Si non nous nettoye toilet ek nous la main. »* • *« Ene seul rechange Uniform. Bisin lave li tous les jours. Quand ena la pli nou bisin vine met li sec ici avant commence travail. Nous bottes c'est savates. Les gants ena gagner. »* • *« Uniforme zis après mo bisin débrouiller. »* • *« Zis uniforme mo bisin travaille ek mo savatte lakaz parceki mo pas gagne ni botte ni nanien ek zot. »*
Uniforms and boots	16	-
Uniforms, boots and gloves	36	• *« Oui mo gagne mo bottes et tou outils qui mo bisin pou travail. Quand botte casser ou les gants ine dechirer nous faire superviseur coner ek li faire ene demarse pou nou gagne ene nouveau. »*
Uniforms, detergents, boots and gloves	7	-
Uniforms, *flanelle*, detergents, boots and gloves	2	-
Uniforms, garbage bags and gloves	5	-

As shown in Table 5.12, 52% of the cleaners admit that uniforms and gloves represent their protective equipment. While a 29% of the respondents stated that their uniform only are the protective equipment for what they are doing as work. A minor percentages associated uniform with gloves, *flanelle* and garbage bags as being their equipment at work not necessarily protective.

5.7.6 Cleaners' Health Protection

Table 5.13 Health protection

	%	STATEMENTS
Don't Know	40	• *« Mo pas coner zamais mone tende ban zafaire cumsa. »*
No	38	• *« Non. Pena sa ici. Meme ene dimoue kine faire plis ki 1 un an si pa gagne l'assurance. Si ene dimune ine blesser li meme paye so medical. »* • *« Ayo sa ban zafaire la pas exister sa. Ine tar sa. Ou vini avec ene papier docteur li dire ou pas payer sa. Zot crase li jette li dans poubelle. Li pena aukaine valer. »* • *« Nous travail dans l'hopital zot pas faire aucaine vaccin avec nous. Ena dimune kit toilet zot faire zot ban besoin enbas. Aster gueter nous couma pou faire pou ramasse sa. »*
Yes	22	• *« Tan dire mo ena ene l'assurance maladie mais mo pas tro coner cuma li marcher. »* • *« Enfin oui mo pas coner ki ena la dans. »*

As per Table 5.13, it was found that 78% of our respondents either do not know or disagree with the presence of a protection scheme at the cleaning company. A further 22%, however, agree with having an arrangement of health protection at the company.

5.7.7 Presence of Casual and Sick Leaves

Table 5.14 Casual and Sick Leaves

	%	STATEMENTS
No Sick & Casual Leaves	67	• *« La li couper mais quand mo pou faire 1 an mo pou gagne mo local. »* • *« Oui parceki mo lor probation. »* • *« Oui coupe dans la paye. Ici quand ou fini faire un an si continuer coupe dans la paye quand absent. Nou ine déjà faire*

		complainte buro travail mais nanien pane arriver. »
Yes have Sick & Casual Leaves	33	• *« Mo ena 16 casual ek 21 sick li coupe la dans même. »*

Table 5.14 shows that during the study, 67% cleaners attested that they do not have any sick or casual leaves while a further 33% do have their paid leaves.

5.7.8 Time with Family & Friends – Work Life Balance

Table 5.15 Work life balance of cleaners

STATEMENTS	*THEMES*
• *« Non. Mo tro fatiguer apres travail. »* • *« Pas tro mo bisin galouper quand travaille fini ale cuit bouille pou ban zenfant ek bolome. »* • *« Entre travail ek lakaz le temps li bien limiter. »* • *« Entre travail ek lakaz, li pas facile pou tire le temps pou lezot zafaire. »* • *« Mo ena troi enfants ki pe ale l'ecole. mo madam nepli avec moi. nou ine divorcer. mo essaye vine papa, maman tou les deux. mais avec sa travay la, quand mone rentre lakaz mone demi mort. Cot ou croire mo pou envi sorti. »* • *« Mo reste roche bois. quand mo fini mo rentrer vers 18.30. Baigner, manzer ou zis envi ale dormi. demain matin meme routine. ou gagne zis dimanche, la aussi pas tro sire. »*	**No balance : over tiredness and limited by time**
• *« Kot pou gagne casse ? Sorti zordi jour li couter. Mo pena lote choix ki prive mo ban zenfant ek madame. »* • *« Mo pa capave vivre la bellle vie avec sa travay la. Nou bisin serre la main. Mais temp en temps nou faire ene ti sorti KFC. »*	**The conditions of work in the cleaning industry does not allow budget for outings**
• *« Si ban zenfants vine cot moi mo bisin coze ene menti dans travay mo absente pou mo capave recevoir mo ban zenfants. Eh pas bisin dire pou coupe mo l'argent tout la. »*	**A little leisure cost me a working day**
• *« Pena le temps ni pou zenfants ni pou lakaz... »* • *« Pas facile pena letemps ek zenfants negliger. »* • *« Pas gagne le temps. Lakaz mo pas gagne le temps nettoyer. Fini ici mo ale lakaz fatiguer. Cuit, Bouille, baigner sa meme. Pas gagne le temps coze avec zenfants nanien (16 ans ek 14 ans).*	**Houses and Children are neglected**

• « *Gagne problem ek zenfants zot dire moi tout lezour to ale travail dimanche tou.* » • « *Mo zenfants sorti lekol zot debrouille zot. Mo rentrer mo cuit manzer nou diner apres sakaine ale dormi faire devoir. Pena le temps pou sorti. Nous travaille lundi à dimanche.* » • « *Mo pas mem reci passe le temps ek zenfants.* »	
• « *Non pena. Dimanche nou ti ouler rentre lakaz inper bonair ale zoine inper fami mais nou pena aucaine zour off. Cuma rentre lakaz, baigner dormi lendemain 6.00 fini lever pou re vine travail.* »	**No days off – work from Monday to Sunday and back again**
• « *Non mo pas capave. Ena ene madame ki reste pres kot moi, dans ene semaine deux fois li demande moi pou repasse so linges. Alors cumsa mo gagne ene ti l'argent additionelle.* » • « *Quand mo fini travail mo ale aide mo mari qui pecheur. Mo bisin reste ek mo zenfant handicaper.* »	**Any free time is booked with a freelance work to add to the income stream**
• « *Mo ene dimune kip e galoper tout le temps. Alle promener c'est ene luxe pour moi.* »	**Outings and Family time is a luxury**

According to Table 5.15, all cleaners manifest some form of regret because of their lack of time to spend with family and friends. Others, if they do have that time, stated with disappointment that their lack of finance cannot budget for regular outings and happy time with family. The study revealed seven main themes which will be discussed in Chapter 5.

5.7.9 Career Drive of Cleaners

Table 5.16 Career

	%	***STATEMENTS***
Don't know	3	-
No	84	• « *Non mo pas souhaite personne faire sa travail la.* » • « *Pou debattre oui, l'avenir non.* » • « *Ki l'avenir. Dans jeune ine seyer apran pane ena casse. Depi sa pe tracer meme ar la vie la.* » • « *C'est pas ene travail ki mone reve pou faire. mais mo p faire li par obligation.* » • « *Ena l'avenir si ti pou augmente nous la paye.* »
Yes	12	• « *Oui peutetre ene jour mo pou vine superviseur.* »

The findings revealed that the high majority (84%) of the respondents do not want a career in the cleaning industry while a small percentage (12%) is aspiring to have a form of career in the sector.

5.7.10 Work Pressure

Table 5.17 Work Pressure

	%	STATEMENTS
No	38	• *« Non pas du tout. Mo faire mo travail a l'aise. »*
Yes	62	• *« Un peu mais capave faire face. »* • *« Li met pression lor nou mais pas donne asser l'argent. »* • *« Oui ici superviseur li lor nou le dos. Nou pas capave faire nanien meme si pe gagne faim bisin atan meme. »* • *« Ici ou gagne superviseur la partout cot ou eter. »*

It was found that 62% of cleaners agree that they bear some forms of pressure in their daily work while 38% of respondents disagree with having pressure in their work.

5.7.11 Work Supervision

Table 5.18 Work Supervision

	%	STATEMENTS
No	31	• *« Non mo asser libre. »*
Yes	69	• *« Inper mais capave surmonter. »* • *« Oui et surtout pena manière coser. »* • *« Si ene travail line male faire li bon quand ene ancient li vine montrer Cuma bisin faire travail la. Mo contant pou coner. »* • *« Enfin des fois li jourer. Li pena manière coser. »* • *« En plus li maltraite nou tou. »* • *« Li pas kit nou. Mo penser li croire nous so ban esclave. »* • *« Li met dire lor nous cuma dire nous pas pe faire nanien. »* • *« Met pression dire nous faire vite.. vine ici ale laba... ene journee ale cumsa même. »* • *« Oui li reste la meme li. Supervisor la bien strict. »* • *« Oui zot veille ou meme attention cozer ou manzer ou bien pe faire lere ar travay. »* • *« Disons supervisor la li pas laisse nous respirer. »*

Table 5.18 indicates that 69% of cleaners are supervised when conducting their work on a daily basis. This is contrasted with 31% of cleaners who considered that they are not supervised in their work.

5.7.12 Work Training

Table 5.19 Training

	%	BY WHOM?	DURATION OF TRAINING
No	26	-	-
Yes	74	Friend, Colleague or Supervisor	1 week to a maximum of 1 month

As shown in Table 5.19, 74% of cleaners undergone a form of training for one week minimum and a maximum of one month with friend, colleague or supervisor. However, a minority of respondents (26%) did not receive any training at the time they started working as cleaner.

5.7.13 Work Adaptation

Table 5.20 Adaptation

	%
Yes	0
No	100

	%	STATEMENTS
No	0	-
Yes	100	• *« Oui puis que mone rentre dans ene domaine ki mo contan. »* • *« Enfin travay c'est travay. Si ou pas adapter ou dehors. Mone faire ene demarse pou mo adapter. »* • *« Tout travail c'est qui mone gagner ziska lere mone capave combattre ar li. Li pas difficile pou mo apran. »* • *« Oui domaine ki mo ti pe travail avant pas tro different. »*

As far as adaptation is concerned, Table 5.20 reported a 100% quick and easy adaptation to the work of cleaner with no great difficulty.

5.7.14 Pause in Contract

Table 5.21 Pause in contract

All respondents stated that they never faced situations where they had any pause in their contract as shown in Table 5.21 above.

5.8 EMPLOYMENT RIGHTS DIMENSION

5.8.1 Knowledge of Workers' Rights

Table 5.22 Knowledge of workers' rights

	%	STATEMENTS
No	53	
Yes	47	• *« Un peu c'est ki mone tander dans l'information. »* • *« Oui mo coner. Mo pas gagne peur mo cozer kan bisin coser. Ou demande ene permission meme li pas facile. Superviseur la ine dire nou la loi ine dire 2 jours pa capave absent moi mo coner 3 jours ki bizin presente certificat medical. »* • *« Nou ban droits pas respecter. Ena cas cleaners ine travail 2 ans, 13eme mois ine gagne zis Rs 2000 bonus. »*

According to Table 5.22, a moreover equal number of cleaners are aware and not aware of their rights as workers in the cleaning sector.

5.8.2 Respect of Workers' Rights

Table 5.23 Respect of workers' rights

	%	STATEMENTS
Don't know	12	• *« Mo pas pou capave repond lor la mo pas tro coner. »*
No	64	• *« Non pas croire ki dans la paye li respeter nou droit. »* • *« Nou pa gagne conges payant nous pena repos. »* • *« Parceki nous pena okaine conges payant ek dimanche ek conge publique supposer paye double. Transport a part. Gouvernment ti pe donne Rs 250 augmentation mais nous pas gagner. Par contre les zot compagnies cleaning ine gagner. »* • *« Non mo salere dire tout. »* • *« Si droit travailleur veut dire li bisin gagne ene saler avec ki li capave vivre lerla mo pou dire non. Li pas pe respecter nou droit. »* • *« Mo croire ki ene travailleur so droit si li ti respecter mo ti bisin pe vivre dans ene meilleur condition. »* • *« Mo penser non. Ici la compagnie pena nanien à faire de ban droit travailleur. »* • *« Mo pas coner mais c'est ki mo capave dire ou tout le zours mo vive dans manquement ek mo pe tracer. Si sa appelle pa respecter droit travailler mo pou dire oui. »* • *« Mo saler li pas suffisant pou vivre et c'est ene des plus grand droit travailler pou gagne ene saler ki capave permet li vive. »*

		• *« Non parceki mo dans bez. »* • *« Li ti pou bien bon si mo saler li ti augmenter un peu sa ti pou arrange moi. »*
Yes	24	-

As stated in Table 5.23, only 24% believes that the cleaning company respect their rights as employees, however, the majority (76%) do not agree.

5.8.3 Knowledge of Unions & Membership

Table 5.24 Knowledge of unions and membership

STATEMENTS	***THEMES***
• *« Quand mo ti travail dans l'usine saumon mo ti dans syndicat. Ici zot tout peur pour entrer. »* • *« Mo ti déjà dans syndicat avant quand mo ti pe travail l'usine. Ici non mo pas dans syndicat. »*	**Experienced in Unions**
• *« Pas tro. Mo pas membre. »*	**No knowledge in Unions**
• *« Mo ti a bien envi etre syndiquer. Mais pena coorperation. Zot capave dire oui nou bizin faire sa. Et puis sakaine pou bat quarter. Puis personne pas pou aller. Nou ti faire ene complainte buro travail. Couma compagnie ine dire ale tire plainte tou dimune ine aller. Misier buro travail ine dire la peur kine faire ou vine tire sa la. Compagnie ti menacer pou met nous dehors. Des fois vaut mieux sa Rs 6000 ki nanien ditout. »* • *Faudrait mo ban camarad rod rentre dans syndicat. Ena pou peur. Ena ene manque de coorperation. Gagne peur perdi place travail. Selment si superviseur la coner ki nou ine rentre dans syndicat nous pou gagne bocou problem. Ki syndicat pou capave faire pou nous garde nous travail ?!*	**Lack of cooperation among cleaning workers to join a union**
• *« Mo pas gagner meme asser casse pou ale paye syndicat. Ici pena coorperation aussi pou ale vers ene syndicat. Li risquant si ene collegue ale dire ki mo pe faire sa mo capave perdi mo place travail. Zot acheter ou zot vend ou ene ti moment. Pena confiance. »*	**No budget to become member of union**
• *« Mo ti pou contant vine membre. »* • *« Oui, mo ti toujour envi gagne ene rencontre avec ban syndicats. Mo penser zot pou capave aide nou. »*	**Interested to become part of a union**
• *« Mo ti pou contant coner cuma vine ene membre parceki ena tro dominaire ici »* • *« Mais mo pas tro coner ki bisin faire pou vine membre ene syndicat. »* • *« Mo bien envi coner cuma syndicat pou capave tire nou la dans . »* • *« Mo ti pou bien contant vine membre mais mo pas coner cuma pou faire sa. »*	**Lack of information on Unions**

• « *Mo ti voudrer gagne plis renseignement lor la pou vine membre.* »	
• « *Mo gagne inper peur pou enregistrer moi akoz mo fec rentre dans sa travail la.* » • « *Ene ti peu hesiter pou vine ene membre talere sa travail la osi pas pou ena la.* » • « *Bocou peur zot travail. Patron ine seme ene la peur personne pa le prend risk.* » • « *Bisin faire sa en secret pas tro coner si zot coner...ki zot pou faire ek moi.* » • « *Mo pas penser compagnie pou contant si mo vine ene membre dans ene syndicat.* » • « *Li inper delicat ici. Quand ou coze syndicat patron gagne inper traca ek zot capave fanne ek ou tou.* »	**Fear to become a union member**

Table 5.24 shows the perception of cleaners on unions and membership. Seven themes were retrieved from the numerous statements of respondents which will be discussed later in Chapter 5.

5.8.4 Discrimination at Work

Table 5.25 Discrimination

	%	STATEMENTS
No	26	
Yes	74	• « *Oui ena be ki ou pou faire bisin soumet.* » • « *Zot choisir dimune ici pou donne permission.* » • « *Nous pas capave dire nanien li inper partout sa.* » • « *Si patron la pe guet deux lizier couma ou pou capave empeche li.* » • « *Pas akoz nous cleaner met nous ene coter akoze ena linge vert lor nous. Dimune lève nez nez quand nous passer. Nous travail li extra délicat. Moi mo travail dans maternité. Tous les jours pe bisin tir gro disang ek malprope. Pas facile mais pe accepter pe vini meme.* » • « *Certain dimune gagne ban préférence. Ena osi pas travail et superviseur pas dire nanien.* » • « *Ena mais seulement bisin bouche lizier.* »

Table 5.25 shows 74% of respondents agree there is discrimination at work compared to a minor 26% who disagree.

5.8.5 Presence of Forced Labour

Table 5.26 Forced Labour

	%	STATEMENTS
No	28	• *« Lor la mo pena reproche. »*
Yes	72	• *« Ti force moi, même blesser tou ti bisin vine travail. »* • *« Zot pas rode comprend quand ou malade. »* • *« Ki pou faire nous gagne peur pou perdi nou boucher manzer. »* • *« Ou malade si ou bisin vine travail sinon ou la paye li couper. »* • *« Ici ou ene robot ou pas gagne droit malade. »* • *« Mo ti malade mone telephoner pou dire mo pas pe vini zot dire moi vini même. »* • *« Superviseur dire ou ki ou obliger travail. »* • *« Malade pas dans zot vocabuliare sa. »* • *« Zot dire pas donne prétexte pou pas vine travail. Même si ou pe montrer papier docteur si prétexte sa. »* • *« Ou pas capave absent. Lendemain ou gagne plis travail ou bien zot maltraite ou. »* • *« Pas supposer pena la santer. Bisin cravacher meme gramatin tanto. »*

Table 5.26 illustrates that there is 72% of respondents who state that there is forced labour in cleaning companies.

5.9 SOCIAL PROTECTION DIMENSION

5.9.1 Accident at Work

Table 5.27 Accident at work

	%	STATEMENTS
Yes	41	• *« Enfin ene ti coupure cumsa. Mo pane dire personne nanien. Mone deal ek sa mo meme. »* • *« Oui mo ti tomber mo ti gagne di mal dans mo lebras dans travail même. Personne pane faire nanien pou moi. Mo pane gagne conger ni soins medical. Mo patron ine force moi pou vine travail. »* • *« Mo cone ene kikaine kine déjà blessé dans travail. Mais nanien pane faire pou li. Pas paye soin medical nanien. »* • *« Oui mo ti deja tomber ek blesser. Ziska l' heur mo deux genoux faire mal. Zot dire zot pa rentre la dans. Papier docteur pas servi. »* • *« Ici ou pas gagne droit blesser si non ou même ki penaliser. Mo ti pren trois jours conger quand mi ti tomber. Heureusement mo ena sick. »*
No	59	-

Table 5.27 shows that 59% of cleaners do not encounter major accidents at work. However, 41% of the respondents stated that they do.

5.9.2 Long absences due to sickness

Table 5.28 Long absences

	%
Yes	0
No	100

Table 5.28 illustrates that none of the respondents have had long absences due to illness.

5.9.3 Invalidity at Work

Table 5.29 Invalidity at work

	FREQUENCY	%
Yes	0	0
No	58	100

Table 5.29 shows that none of the cleaners began invalid on their work site.

5.9.4 Social Protection Extended to family members

Table 5.30 Social Protection

	%
Yes	0
No	100

As illustrated in Table 5.30, no cleaning companies provide social protection to the family members of cleaners.

5.10 SOCIAL DIALOGUE DIMENSION

5.10.1 Name of Trade Union

Table 5.31 Trade union name

	%
NA	100

This question was not applicable to respondents. Table 5.31 shows that no respondent could give a name of a trade union since they are not members of any union.

5.10.2 Discussion of Employees' request at Trade Union meetings

Table 5.32 Discussions with trade unions

	%
NA	100

As shown in table 5.32, this question was not applicable as cleaners do not belong to a union.

5.10.3 Participation in Strikes or Petitions

Table 5.33 Participation in strikes

	%	STATEMENTS
Yes	0	
No	100	• *« Pas la greve mais nou inne déjà faire ene groupe ale Ministère du travail. Mo pas coner kine arriver après mo ti kit travail. »* • *« Ti déjà ale coser avec buro travail dans ene groupe dimune. »*

Table 5.33 shows that no respondent have been engaged in any form of strike.

5.10.4 Types of negotiations

Table 5.34 Types of negotiations

	%
NA	100

This question was not applicable to respondent since they are not members of any union.

5.10.5 Person responsible at the company to take cleaners' requests and suggestions

Table 5.35 Person responsible to take request

	%
Supervisor	100

As the table shows, the Supervisor is the only person to whom requests and suggestions from cleaners are sent to.

5.10.6 Attending union meetings

Table 5.36 Attending union meetings

	%
NA	100

According to Table 5.36, this question was not applicable to any cleaner as they do not attend unions meeting because they are not members of any union.

5.10.7 Negotiations of Salary and Working Conditions

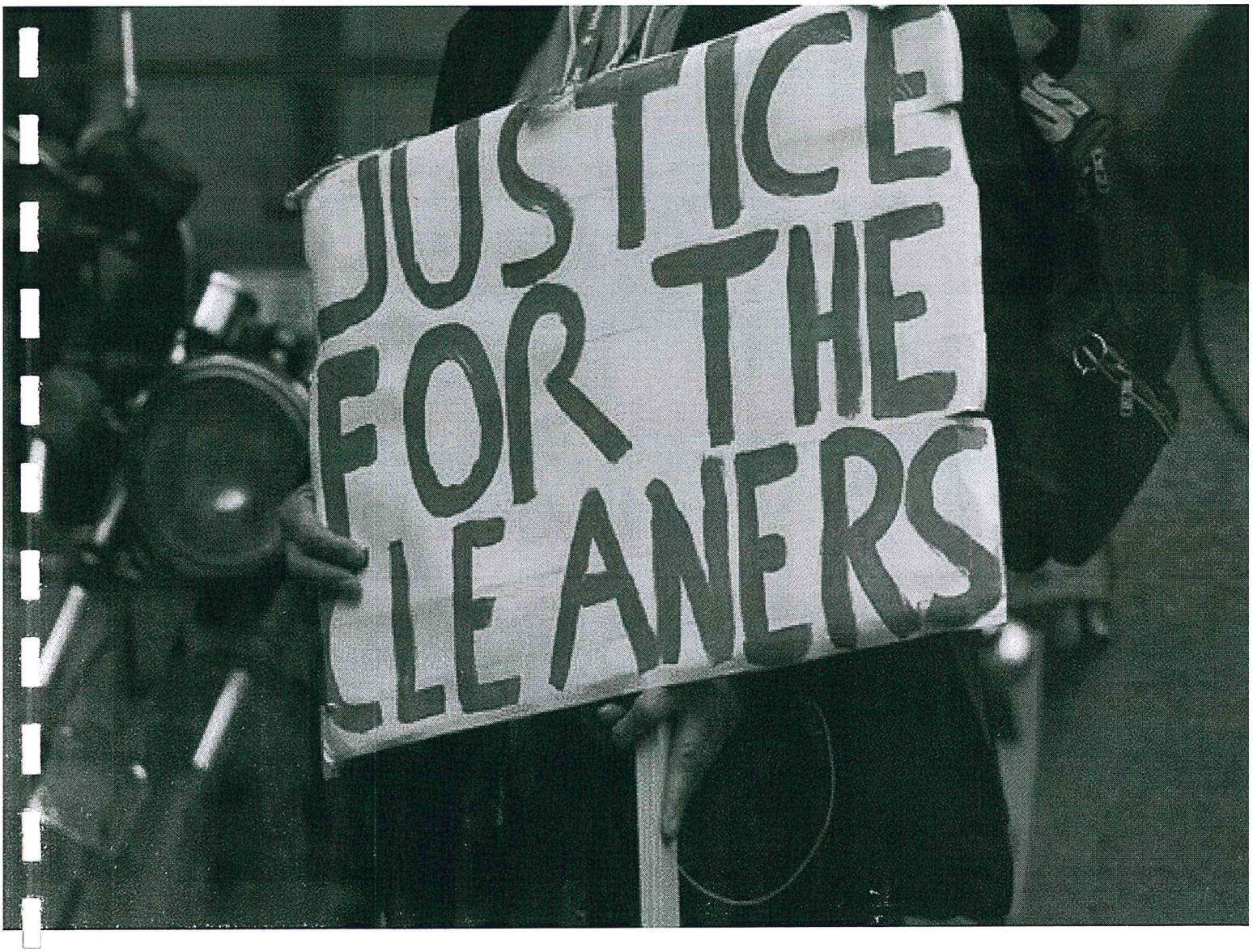
Table 5.37 Negotiations of salary and working conditions

	%	STATEMENTS
No	21	• *« Mo pa encore capave faire sa mais quand mo pou confirmer mo pe penser pou faire ene l'ekip pou ale cozer. »* • *« Non mo pas penser mo pou capave ale coze ar ban boss la... mo meme mo pas encore confirmer. »* • *« Mone prefer reste trankil li ene sujet asser delicat. »* • *« Non mais mo ti ouler dire monte nou casse, donne nous sick ek local parceki nou pe quitte nous banne zenfants nous pe vine travay dimanche. Sois donne nous Rs 6000 ek Rs 2000 transport. »* • *« Non mais nou le gagne nou conger, nou blesser paye nou ek augmente nou saler. »*
Yes	79	• *« Zot abordable mais coter la paye la nanien mem pas capave faire. »* • *« Oui mais pas reci faire nanien zot dire ki gouvernement ki bisin paye nou ek faire ban changement dans la loi. »* • *« Oui ine déjà. Mais zot dire li pas a zot niveau pou decide lor sa bann zafaire la ek c'est gouvernement ki bisin faire kitsoze. »* • *« Ine déjà coser zot dire nou faire ene document ale buro travail mais zamais personne ine solidaire pou nou faire sa. »* • *« Mo esperer ki nous la paye li augmenter par ene Rs 3000. Normalement dans nou la paye aster la nous transport li dans sa Rs 6000 la meme. »* • *« Zot pas tan nou. Bisin mote casse. Rs 1500 - 2000 bisin garde pou transport ek faire nou la paye vine Rs 8500. Quand nou dire li li amerder. »* • *« Oui mais sa pas marcher ici. Zot pas ecoute ou. »* • *« Ici pena aukaine kitsoze ki nous dire ki pren en consideration. »* • *« Nou déjà négocier pou gagne nous double dans dimanche ek conger publique et puis gagne nou local ek sick. Mais nanien pane faire. »* • *« Nou atan nous saler li augmenter au mois par ene Rs 2000 – Rs 3000 et pui ki nous capave etre affilier a ene syndicat. »* • *« Zot dire nou ban illiterate ek zamais nou pou reci ale de l'avant ek nou proposition pou augment nou salere mais mo croire moi ki nou pou reci. »* • *« Negocier pane abouti a nanien. Bisin pense ene cou si ene syndicat pou capave debout pou nous. »* • *« Déjà negocier mais zot dire ki li pas dans zot la main pou augment nou. »*

According to Table 5.37, 79% of the respondents have negotiated their salary and their working conditions. However, only 21% did not do so because of some reasons that we will discuss in Chapter 5.



CHAPTER 6 ANALYSIS



6A. DISCUSSION

6A.1 Parameter 1 : Work& Employment

6A.1.1 Employment Quality and Conditions of Work

Ghai (2003) considered that the ***quality of the job***is a strong component of the job itself. He suggests that the greater challenge for job generation lies not only in having available jobs for workers but in the creation of quality employment. This study assesses the quality of cleaners' job.

6A.1.1.1 Low Job Security & Absence of Career Drive

« Contant. Mo pou dire pli tot mo obliger travail »
« Happy ! I would say I am forced to work »

Figure 6.2 indicates that all the cleaners interviewed were employed on definite contracts, not exceeding three years. More so apart from the first three months being without any formal contracts, some cleaners indicated that they are fired from their jobs once the definite contract is over. This demonstrates the high level of job insecurity with which cleaners are working. Ghai (2003) suggests that the greater challenge for job generation lies not only in having available jobs for workers but in the creation of quality employment and job security is one of the parameters assessed in line with quality employment (See also Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran& Ritter, 2003; Bonnet, Figueiredo& Standing, 2003; Kuruvilla, 2006). Research also shows that such high job insecurity has been found to be a major source of ill-health and job dissatisfaction and has long lasting impact on individuals and their households which also creates tension at home. (See Burchell, 1994; Burchell*et al.,* 1999; Wichert, 2002).

At the same time, findings revealed that very few cleaners were "happy" with the job they were doing. Many also proclaimed that this is not the job they wanted and were looking for other job opportunities. According to Kalleberg and Vaisey (2005),the most important criteria for job security is to make sure that there are opportunities for growth in a given company and that people

are aspiring for these opportunities, in other words, people want to build their career in this same company. The majority of cleaners interviewed claimed to be doing the job " by obligation" since they often used the word *"oblizer"*. This is explained by the fact that, because of their very low level of education, cleaners find it difficult to find a variety of jobs. Others have clearly stated that they do not foresee any future in such employment which thus testifies the lack of career drive among young cleaners interviewed.

6A.1.1.2 Largely insufficient remuneration & ignorance about benefits

« Non Rs 6000 pas kasse sa»
« Rs6000 is not money!! »

Although findings depict long and continuous working hours for cleaners, the study also revealed very inconsistent remuneration practices among cleaners. The interviews revealed that the salary of cleaners was not meeting their basic needs and was not even covering their basic staple food requirements in some cases. Only those who were single and knew that they would not get other jobs seemed to be satisfied with what they got as salary. Others argued that, with a net salary of approximately Rs 6,000 only, it is difficult to avail of family needs. One interviewee even quoted

« Non Rs 6000 pas kasse sa» (This is not money!!).

The study also revealed that workers in the sector were not aware of certain benefits which they could avail and perceived uniforms and personal protective equipment, which is mandatory as per law, to be a benefit. At the same time, some inconsistencies were noted in their end of year bonus, where they claimed that the amount was not equal to their one month's salary and they did not really understand how the amount they received was reached. The research highlighted a lack of knowledge pertaining to bonus and how they are calculated. There is a somewhat vague understanding that bonuses are actually an additional month's pay. While some cleaners were very assertive on their point that in December they should be getting Rs 12,000 or Rs 6,000 times two, others argued that they perceived Rs 4,000 and not Rs 6,000.

The research also showed that bonus, irrespective of how it was allocated to cleaners, was the only benefit that cleaners received from their employers. No other benefits could be thought of because

there was a perception that cleaning companies only give the basic benefits to its employees and would not cross the lines to go over and above to provide benefits of any kind to its employees.

Some cleaners also compared their salary to be equivalent to a day out for the average Mauritian. As stated by one interviewee «...dimune ale manzerdehors pour autantl'argent...! » , again highlighting the very low level of salary of workers in the cleaning sector. Pay being the core dimension in the economic perspective on quality of jobs (See Gallie, 2002), and in defining the hallmark of bad jobs, low earnings are included (Kalleberg *et al.,* 2000), thus giving clear indications as to categorizing the job of cleaners into that of "bad jobs".

An intrinsic rewarding job is interesting and challenging as one is able to use skills and abilities, learn new things, work independently and being recognised for doing a good job (Kalleberg and Vaisey, 2005; Huang and Vliert, 2002). The survey investigated the benefits associated with the job of cleaner and the following findings came evident as shown in Table 5.9.

6A.1.1.3 Quality of life of cleaners

« Ena jour nou fine mange du pain sec noune ale dormi ! »
« There are days we ate only bread and went to bed !»

Some cleaners are so disgusted with their quality of life that they compared themselves as "toutou" (doggies) going from door to door to ask for food. Some stated that they are ready to face humiliation because they have children to feed. "Si pas ti ena mo mama, motipoureste sans manger" (If I did not have my mum, I would have stayed without food) Their quality of life has deteriorated to such an extent that they no longer have a status in the society as people look down at them. They have lost all the sense of worth and value of belonging to a society.

They boldly spoke out their hearts that quality of life is far from what they are living as their mere basic needs are not met. We surveyed respondents who stated that they often went to bed with no food because there is not enough money to buy themselves a dinner. *"Des fois nou ale dormi vente vide pena personne pou done nou".*Others testified how they had to eat bread only to get rid of their hunger.*" Ena jour nou fine mange du pain sec noune ale dormi"* Though they are working,

cleaners cannot sustain a proper living since their salary does not accommodate for a day-to-day staple food. *" Ena jour... pa tiena casse pou aster manger".*

In addition, we encountered cleaners who stated that they ate the same food over five days consecutively because their budget does not allow them to prepare fresh food on a day to day basis. This depicts a much gloomy picture of the life cleaners are living and is an alarming situation which needs immediate attention.

6A.1.1.3.1 Stagnant life without economic & social progress

« Pas permet nou rever. »
« No dreams are allowed for us.. »

Respondents in the study stated *«Nanier progres pas reci.»* They treat themselves as robots and money making machines for their family and loved ones. At the end of the day, their money is spent only in paying debts. They end up having a non-productive and stagnant life with no progress. Cleaners are, however, in hope to see a newer version of their life and are determined to believe. They also voiced out *«pas permet nou rever» «pas capave faire nou plaisir» «pas gagne droit envi plis ».* We understand from these quotes that cleaners are living in a restricted way, excluded from all the comforts that life can give, but working people should not have been in such precarious financial postions.

6A.1.1.3.2 Struggling to get the minimum in quality of life

« Pa capave acheter kitsoze extravagance... »
« Cannot buy luxurious things... »

Respondents voiced out how they have to save every cent to sustain a living. They used a number of words to express sincerely their discomfort and their reality such as *«bocou effort»* (a lot of efforts) *«economiser» «serre la main»* (savings) *«pa capave acheter kitsoze extravagance»* (cannot exaggerate) *«faire l'impossible»*(do the impossible) *«pense zordi pou zordi»* (think for the day only) *«bocou sacrifices»* (a lot of sacrifices) *«compte lor Bondier»* (placing trust in God). Such findings uproot a number of questions regarding the quality of life lead by claeners in Mauritius,

therby contradicting the findings of Anker *et al.,* 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003; Ghai, 2003; Kuruvilla, 2006 who suggested that social upgrading is much enhanced when there is quality employment which provides for a living income and possibilities for personal development and the opportunities to use one's capabilities (See also ILO 1997, cited in Rodgers 2001; Fields 2003; Landy, 2010; Lewchuck *et al.,* 2003; Dawis, 2005; MacNaughton, 2011).

6A.2 Parameter 2 :Rights at Work Parameter

6A.2.1 The legal aspect

Hepple (2003) stated that, although job quality reduces unemployment, enhances employment, decreases poverty and inequality it does not follow that this would by itself produce decent work; they must be accompanied by the promotion of ***rights at work***. The ILO (2012b) considers rights at work as the second aspect of decent work. This dimension constitutes the ethical and legal framework for all other dimensions of decent work (Ghai, 2003; Parent-Thirion, 2012; Chan, 2009).

6A.2.1.1 Working Conditions

Kyko (2005) believes that working conditions constitute of toxic environment and includes hot and noisy environment, unsafe work conditions, night work, hours of work or decent work deficiencies, weekly rest, paid leave and occupational safety and health, dirty work environment, insufficient resources, old technology, old machinery and so forth. McGuire &McLaren, (2007) believes that an organization's physical environment especially its design and layout can affect employee behaviour in the workplace (Hussan *et al.,* 2012; Jaros, 2007; Huselid, 1995; Guihua *et al.,* 2008). The research team thus investigated the conditions of work prevailing in the cleaning sector.

6A.2.1.1.1 Casual and Sick Leaves

« Pena local nisick !Ici quand ou fini faire un an si continuer coupe ou casse quand absent.»

(We have neither casual nor sick leaves. Even after one year, our salary is deducted if we are absent from work!)

According to the findings in Table 5.14, 67% of cleaners do not enjoy any form of paid leaves – casual or sick leaves. Some respondents stated that they are on probation and have not covered one year of their contract this is why they are not eligible paid leaves. Surprisingly, other cleaners who have been in the company for two or three years are still with no paid casual and sick leaves. This shows an exploitation of the very basic rights of an employee who is deprived of leaves to rest or to do her/his personal things (Hussan *et al.,* 2012; Jaros, 2007). According to the Remuneration Order 2013 for Mauritian Cleaners:

- **Annual Leave:** Where a worker remains in continuous employment with the same employer for a period of 12 consecutive months, the worker shall, in the following 12 months, be entitled to 16 days' annual leave on full pay.
- **Sick Leave:** A worker who remains in continuous employment with the same employer for a period of 12 consecutive months shall, during the following 12 months, be entitled to 21 days' sick leave on full pay.

We also observed that 33% of cleaners agree that they are paid their leaves when they are not in office. But attention is drawn that application for the leaves have to be made well in advance to allow supervisors to allocate cleaners on work site given the hectic scheduling that the companies have.

6A.2.1.1.2 Normal working hours

« Travail overtimeapres 17.00. Mais des fois l'argent la pas trouver! Zotraconteenezistoirekiou pas comprennanien. »

(Yes I worked overtime. But I am not paid. The staff of the company tell us they will pay later but it never happens...)

The EU defines working more than 48 hours per week as undesirable (Gallie, 2007b). Work intensity is synonymously related to work effort (Green, 2006; Karasek, 1979; Michie and

Williams, 2003). Data concerning work intensity of cleaners in Mauritius is retrieved from the amount of work overtime (see Table 5.6) and the arrival and departure time of cleaners from their work. Nearly half of the sample surveyed work after normal hours as overtime. Usually, respondents carried out overtime from 16hrs or 17hrs up to 19hrs. However, an investigation over their normal working hours is alarming. All cleaners start work at seven in the morning (see Table 5.5) and finish mostly at five o'clock in the afternoon, with two breaks totalling 1 hour and 15 minutes. At this rate, cleaners are working slightly more that preconized in the Remuneration Order (2013), which indicates a normal working week of 45 hours to be completed in 6 consecutive days. Such findings show that few cleaning companies are not complying with the law. More so, few respondents also indicated that they worked during public holidays as well. As stated by some respondents *« Conge publique tou travay ek dimanche travail normal. »* This is against the essence of rights of any employee irrespective of the sector and nature of the industry where the person is working. A non-compliance to the Remuneration Order 2013 was also observed here.

Additionally, cleaners who worked overtime (48% as per Table 5.6) are not given a Meal allowance. As part of the Remuneration order 2013, it states that when a worker is required to perform more than 2 hours' extra work after having completed a normal day's work, he/she shall, in addition to any remuneration due for overtime work, be provided by the employer with an adequate free meal or be paid a meal allowance of 70 rupees per day. Not all cleaning companies seem to be abiding to such laws.

6A.2.1.1.3 Breaks and Lunch time

The Remuneration Order 2013 stipulates that cleaners are allowed a lunch break of one hour; and 2 tea breaks of 10 minutes each during their working day. Table 5.5 shows a different picture of what the law stipulate where only 10% of respondents surveyed get breaks of 15 minutes only. Fives minutes are less and the breaks are not spread throughout the day, they are allowed to take breaks only in the morning from 8.00 – 8.45. While employee welfare and social networking is important, we observed that in the cleaning sector employees are not provided adequate rest time per working day.

6A.2.1.1.4 Transport facilities

« Quand pena casse transport mo marcher depuis Baie du tombeau jusqu'à L'hopital Jeetoo, Port-Louis. Depuis 5.00 du matin mo commence marcher .... »
(When I do not have money to pay my daily transport, I walked from Tombeau Bay to jeetoo Hospital, Port-Louis)

As per Remuneration Order 2013 , every worker shall, either be entitled to free transport or, where no free transport is available, be paid the return bus fare if the distance between his residence and the place where he reports for work exceeds 3 kilometers. We encountered a number of respondents who worked in Port-Louis but live at Pointe-aux-Piments, Baie-du-Tombeau, Cite la Cure and so on. These cleaners claimed that they were not provided free transport, though the distance is more than 3 km, and also they are not paid the bus fare. Cleaners from Pointe-aux-Piments told us how difficult it is for them to be on time for work. Others eventually have to borrow money from colleague on the eve to be able to show up at work the next day. We also interviewed respondents who, could not afford paying their bus fare, and hence walked from Baie-du-Tombeau to Jeetoo Hospital where they work as cleaner. Some cleaners sometimes claimed absenting themselves from work just because they did not have the money to pay the bus fare.

Our analysis shows that cleaning companies have created confusion on the salary and transport provided to cleaners. As stated by one respondent, the working contract stated that the salary is Rs 4000 and Rs 2000 is for transport. This is the agreement that they signed. However, given that the basic salary of cleaners is Rs 6,000 according to Remuneration Order 2013, few employers included transport in the salary package to do away with the transport issue.

6A.2.1.1.5 Protective Equipment

Cleaners are entitled to 2 uniforms and 2 pairs of boots or protective shoes, whichever is appropriate, every year; appropriate gloves, which shall be replaced as and when they become unserviceable; and a raincoat every 2 years as per Remuneration Order 2013. According to the field survey, only 36% of cleaners gets their uniforms, boots and gloves as protective equipment to work. Another 29% get only one uniform as their protective equipment. As stated by one respondent *« Ene seul rechange Uniform. Bisin lave li tous les jours » (We get only one Uniform,*

we have to wash it everyday) they have to wash the same thing over and over again before wearing it the next day. 5% stated that they do not get boots and have to wear their own slippers to work. Few cleaners advocated that they only had an apron (overall) , rather than uniform per se. These clearly demonstrate how few cleaning companies are not providing the basic protective equipments to their cleaners who are exposed to sevral hazards. According to Section 82 (2C) of OSHA (2005), employers should ensure that any risk to which a person is exposed is effectively prevented or adequately controlled. This does not seem to be the case in cleaning companies, where it is obvious that cleaners are not being protected from the hazards they face.

6A.2.1.1.6 Bonus

Where a worker remains in continuous employment with the same employer for one year, the worker shall be entitled, at the end of that year, to a bonus equivalent to one twelfth of his earnings for that year (Remuneration Order, 2013). The bonus of cleaners is another major issue that deter their rights as an employee. During interviews, respondents voiced out that even after 2 years of service they received a bonus of Rs 2,000 others Rs 4,000 and not Rs 12,000. The fact that many cleaners are uneducated, they could not figure out what is the amount of money they should receive as bonus. Employers often stated that the rest of the money will be paid later to them but cleaners never get to see the rest of this money. This is also in contradiction with the employment rights act (2008) where it is clearly mentioned that bonus should be paid not later than on the last working day of the same year.

6A.2.1.1.7 Medical facilities

When it comes to Medical facilities, Remuneration Order 2013 for cleaners in Mauritius stipulate that when a cleaner is regularly exposed to dust or noxious substances and emanations – his employer shall cause the worker to undergo a complete medical examination, every 6 months, at the expense of the employer. However, no compliance is observed with this document. We observed that cleaners working on different worksites, for instance, health (hospitals), food, streets, fairs, toilets public and so on are exposed to different hazards but claimed that they have never undergone any medical checkup paid by the company. This is in complete contradiction to Section (29)(1) of the Employment Rights 2008, which stipulates that every person who employs 10 or

more workers shall provide appropriate arrangements for medical and health requirements of his workers at work.

6A.3 Parameter 3 : Social Protection

Social protection is considered to be the third parameter of decent work. It is described as a security provided by a nation or a company against a variety of contingencies and vulnerabilities. These include ill-health, maternity needs, accidents, unemployment, destitution, extreme economic fluctuations, natural disasters and civil conflicts. A sound social protection strategy should address the needs of vulnerable groups such as single mothers, female-headed households, widows, elderly in need and the physically challenged. Thus the main focus of social protection policies is to reduce suffering, anxiety, insecurity and material deprivation (ILO, 2012b; Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran& Ritter, 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003).

The social security dimension is assessed by two types of indicators: (1) public expenditure on social security as a proportion of GDP and (2) adequacy of coverage of workers in respect of the contingencies like accident, sickness, old age and invalidity (Jaros, 2007; Ghai 2002; 2003; Anker *et al.,* 2003; Kalliny *et al.,* 2004; Junaida *et al.,* 2010; Falola *et al.,* 2014). Is social protection a valid concept in the cleaning companies of Mauritius? Much of the data was gathered through ***observation*** while doing the survey.

6A.3.1 Accidents in the cleaning sector

«Eneticoupure, mone deal eksamo meme»

(I once get hurt at work but i prefer to deal with it personally....!)

Survey findings from Table 5.27 shows that cleaners perceive that social protection is non- existent in the cleaning sector. Employers seek their own interest and to safeguard their work, some cleaners prefer not to say anything when they are hurt at work as declared by a respondent *«ene ti coupure, mone deal ek sa mo meme»(I delat with a small cut all by myself)* Out of fear, cleaners tried to keep their work and to make themselves capable even when incidents at work occur regularly.

Another cleaner noted with much pain how she was badly hurt on her arm while doing her daily routine job. When she went to see the Supervisor, he did not take her seriously. She had to pay all her medical bills by herself. *«Personne pane faire nannie pou moi»(No one did anything for me).* As her arm was paining the next day she could not move , she called to say that she was not coming to work, the warnings and threatening she got on the phone, forced her to come *«ine force moipou vine travail».(I was forced to come to work)* . The company did not support her, knowing very well that she was hurt on the job, and also did not give her any rest leave to recover.

Furthermore, a respondent noted that she did not receive any medical assistance from his employer when she felt down from an *escabeau*. This happened last year but she regularly suffers from knee pain. During her recovery, the cleaner presented a medical certificate because of her inability to work but the Supervisor yelled at her stating *«papier docteur pas servi. » (Medical certificate is of no use)* .We noted that a considerable aount of minor accidents do take place in the cleaning sector which unfortunately go unnoticed.

While the risk and the insecurity for cleaners are very much present what is even more alarming is the exposure of some cleaners in specific sectors. During interviews with a batch of cleaners at hospital, one of the respondent shared that she works in the maternity ward. Every day she has to remove and clean clots of blood and human waste in toilets. She is not protected and not vaccinated to do this kind of job. Her senses are exposed day in day out with sorts of bacteria or viruses, yet nothing is done on employers' part to make sure of her health safety.

Taking into account all these particular accidents and the precarious conditions of cleaners, we observed that the sector has escaped from control such as regulations, health surveillance and risk reduction. Our analysis have shown that occupational hazards in the cleaning work happen and it can be from anything ranging from the detergent used, the environment being cleaned, the working tasks or the equipment in use. In short, safety and health aspects are given very less importance among cleaners surveyed.

6A.3.2 Physical workload and stress

Cleaning involves both dynamic and muscular work done with the use of various pieces of manual equipment. Cleaning work is generally labour intensive. During the interviews, respondents highlighted that the physical hazards that happened depended on design of the buildings, facilities, cleaning tools, machines and approaches. In most cases, respondents shared that they spent most of their time in a static postural load, whereby the cleaners often bent forward and with a twisted back. Moreover, our observation of cleaners on the streets show that they disposed heavy and bulky items in bins which can be considered to be an important physical risk factor. Our on-site field interviews depicted that a number of cleaners suffer from lower back pain, symptoms affecting the neck, hand wrist and legs and knees. Older women claimed having more of these symptoms.

6A.3.3 Occupational accidents

There seems to be a general lack of safety regulations for the cleaning sector in Mauritius. An important factor that was observed is that buildings, food courts or fairs where cleaners work are typically designed for purposes other than cleaning. The risk is quite high when cleaner make use of stepladders, as shown in the analysis above, to clean higher objects. Likewise wet floors can cause slips and cleaners are mostly prone to these risks. Street cleaners were found to be at risk of road accidents. Interviewees at this particular work site were observed to be quite stressed while cleaning. They sometimes crossed the road without any glance at vehicles' direction. Other types of hazards include hospital needle prick incidents due to improperly stored waste. Our encounter with cleaners working at hospitals were shocking. We observed how used needles were thrown in plastic bags which are moved by cleaners to a large bin outside of the hospital. Sometimes to make things easy they moved three bags at a go without any glove. We found how close their hands were to used needle and used blood stained bandages.

6A.3.4 Chemical hazards

Cleaning products typically contains many different chemical agents. Many of these agents are corrosive at high concentration and irritant at lower concentration. They may produce irritation of the skin, eyes and mucous membranes. During the interviews, we met people who told us they do

not have gloves and boots. They were told by the supervisor to wear their slippers at work. While we were on-site, we indeed saw that some cleaners have no boots and they were working in toilets using highly corrosive detergents.

Dermal effects

When detergents get into contact with the skin, the hands are the principal parts which can be affected. Cleaning agents contain substances that degrease and break down the natural barriers of the skin. Exposure to water changes the defense mechanisms of the skin barrier, and the skin is then easier to penetrate and more sensitive to other chemical substances. The most common disorder is irritant skin, itching and redness. Cleaners who do not wear gloves are at risk of these dermal effects.

Respiratory effects

Several cleaning agents cause mucosal membrane irritation leading to several respiratory symptoms including rhinitis, cough, and shortness of breath. On the site of their work when cleaners approached us to have the interview, the smell of the detergents did not go unnoticed and was persistent. The respiratory effects of such chemical agents can deteriorate the health of cleaners drastically. However, cleaning companies concerned do not seem to have done anything to avoid such health effects till now. No other protective equipment (for instance, cleaning mask and goggles) were added to their existing ones to help cleaners work without affecting their health.

6A.3.5 Psychosocial hazards

In certain locations, the research team observed that cleaners typically worked alone. In connection with the fact that many clean after or before regular working hours, fear and risk of harassment and violence is common *«nu rentre travail dans noir nou ale lakazdans noir.»* Cleaners are often excluded from social contacts such as tea breaks or are oppressed to have it quick. In general, cleaners have little or no chance to influence their work or to advance in their professional career (or even obtain any advantages from their work). There is little or no possibility to influence their work arrangements, work place, tools or machines, the division of labour, or choice of work partner. Interviews revealed that work related stress and lack of control over work conditions were

common. Other factors include physical strain, fatigue, time pressure, insufficient training, and monotonous work.

6A.4 Parameter 4 :Social Dialogue

The promotion of social dialogue is the fourth aspect of decent work identified by the ILO. According to Ishikawa (2003) and Kuruvilla (2006), social dialogue includes, all types of negotiation, consultation, or simple exchange of information between representatives of governments, employers, and workers, on the issues of common interest relating to economic and social policy. The research team thus investigated the social dialogue parameter in the cleaning companies in Mauritius.

6A.4.1 Freedom of Association

According to ILO (1999) freedom of association refers to the right of workers and employers to create and join organizations of their choice freely and without fear of reprisal or interference. This includes the right to establish and affiliate to confederations and international organizations. This will give right to workers for collective bargaining, which allows workers to negotiate their working conditions freely with their employers. Mauritius ratified two ILO conventions related to freedom of association and collective bargaining. These are the **C087** - Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87) and **C098** - Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98). Similarly, in the Employment Rights Act (2008) Section 38(1d) it is stipulated that a working agreement shall not be terminated by an employer by reason of a worker becoming or being a member of a trade union. This study investigated whether cleaners are associated to any specific union and their perceptions of unions. We recorded the findings under some themes as described below. (See Table 5.24)

6A.4.1.1 Lack of cooperation among cleaning workers to join a union

«Zamais personne ine solidaire pou ale buro travail»
(Nobody ever cooperates to go to the Ministry of Labour)

Some cleaners noted that there is a lack of cooperation and solidarity among cleaners this is why the situation has remained status quo for so many years «*zamais personne ine solidaire pou ale*

buro travail» The research tried to find out what was the reasons that left some cleaners indifferent or lack courage to come together as a force. Some of the statements were recorded *«mo pas encore confirmer»(I am not yet a confirmed employee), «ene sujet asser delicat»(it's a delicate issue) «perdi travail»(lose my job) «gagne moi conte» (in the bad books of management).* From these findings, we observed that the reluctance come from their fright to lose their job or to become black listed for supervisors. It is a much too big risk for some cleaners to voice out how dissatisfied they are with their current working conditions. They also would like to know how unions can help them to change their current working conditions.

6A.4.1.2 No budget to become member of union

Findings depict a large majority of respondents who showed interest in joining a union because they want to fight their case and win it. As stated by one respondent *« Mo penser l' union pou capave aide nou. »(I believe the Union can help us). However,* some of the respondents stated that though they want to get affiliated to a union, they will not be able to give their monthly subscription to the union given their meagre salary: *« Mo pas gagner meme asser casse pou ale paye syndicat. »* This shows that though few cleaners have a hign desire to associate themselves with a union, there are two main factors which inhibit them:

(1) Lack of information on Unions and intensity of social dialogue

«Pas coner Cuma pou faire»
(We do not know how to go about!)

Some interviewees stated that they lack information on the unions that can represent them. There are unions, federation and confederations. Cleaners do not really know where and who to contact. Interviews revealed that respondents also lacked knowledge on how they can become members of unions and what unions can really do for them. They actually would like to know if they risk their jobs for unions will it still be worthwhile. As stated by some respondents *«cuma vine ene member?»* (how to become a member?) *« pas coner Cuma pou faire»*(Don't know how to go about) ,*«plis renseignement»*(more information) . Their thirst for more information will indeed be a motivating factor to join a union. Union sensitisation campaigns in this sector is more than important.

The level of exchange of information regarding unionism is not only low but also questionable in the cleaning sector. To get more insight on the quality of information exchange, we assessed the *Government – Employers – Cleaners* exchange of information whereby the research team enquire into how far cleaners are informed of their rights as a worker. Some evidence of the findings are quoted *«mone tander dans l'information»(I have heard in the news) « Superviseur dir 2 jours pa capave absent .»(Supervisor said) «la paye li pas respecter»(pay is not respected) «pa gagne conges payant» (no paid leaves are granted) , «travail 2 ans gagne zis Rs 2000 bonus.»(2 years of work with only Rs. 2000 as bonus).* Cleaners' rights as an employee are only partially known. The fact that cleaners are not literate they end up understanding only bits and pieces of what they believe are their rights. The low intensity of dialogue shows that whatever the cleaners know of their rights are heard on TV or through their supervisor. What is unfortunate, however, is that employers exploit this lack of knowledge and give them information that suits the employers and they modify that same information when they feel like. As one respondent stated, the supervisor told them that they cannot absent from work more than two days on medical grounds. This is because the supervisor does not want them to be absent at all. Mature cleaners are more knowledgeable and they understand the hidden agenda of the supervisors. Sometimes they consult other colleague cleaners in other companies or their children and husbands to cross check information disseminated by supervisors.

(2) Fear to become a union member

«Patron inesemeene la peur. »
(Boss has frightened us...!)

According to some cleaners, they work in quite a tensed atmosphere and associating themselves with a union might aggravate the situation. Cleaners described the authoritative management of supervisors and how he make sure that cleaners remained submitted to his orders *«patron ine seme ene la peur. »* (We have been frightened by our employer) . Other cleaners stated that they just started work in the cleaning company hence they fear they might lose this job if they become member of a union *«peur pou enregistrer moi akoz mo fec renter dans travail. »* Interviewees also

shared that when they mentioned unions, supervisors get worried and they react harshly with them : *«quand ou coze syndicat patron gagne traca zot fanner ek nou.»*

6A.4.1.4 Previous membership/experience in Unions

« Quand mo ti travail dans l'usine saumon mo ti dans syndicat.. »
(When i worked in a Salmon factory, I was affiliated to a union)

During the study, while cleaners were interviewed in terms of their experience in unions, some stated that, during their previous employment, they were affiliated to unions. Hence they know the functioning of unions and how to get registered. As stated by one respondent : *«quand mo ti travail dans l'usine saumon mo ti dans syndicat.» «Mo ti déjà dans syndicat avant quand mo ti pe travail l'usine.»* These showed that there are some forms of determination from cleaners to change their world but it depends a lot on the mass. While some are more decisive others are less risky and they are thing of their job and family instead. Such disproportionate thinking and ideals will not give rise to any form of progress in the social dialogue realm of the Cleaning Sector in Mauritius.

6B. EMERGING THEMES / ISSUES

Apart from the parameters laid down by the ILO in terms of gauging the extent to which workers of the cleaning services perceived their work to be, a number of issues emerged during the conversations carried out by the cleaners. Unfortunately, these issues do not lend justice to these workers already facing a serious decent work deficit as already discussed earlier. The core themes which emerged as elaborated upon as below:

6B.1 Socio Economic Issues

6B.1.1 The Vicious circle of Financial Debts

According to the survey's findings, the low level wage of cleaners has resulted into an increased debt burdenamong cleaners. As mentioned by one cleaner *« Couma gagne la paye so lendemain mo demande preter.»* (I ask people to lend me money on the next day of my pay itself). Cleaners have entered into a vicious debt cycle where they owe money to their colleagues, friends and family members; as noted by a respondent : *«Mo ena dette ziska li cou.* » From time to time

cleaners shared how awkward and embarrassed they felt in front of their family members because they cannot pay back what they owe them and the debt burden keeps building up.

Furthermore, cleaners voiced out how their unpaid bills keep piling up with no way out. Instead what many cleaners in this category do is they borrow money to pay their debts as pointed out by one cleaner *«Mo faire dette pou paye dette. »* We could thus observe a spillover effect of the low wage of cleaners on their social life.

6B.1.2 Soliciting financial help from others, neglected households

The conversations depicted that a number of cleaners were single parent indicating only one stream of revenue in the household. As one respondent indicated *« Rs 6000 pas asser pou roule ene lakaz tousel. »* (It is not easy to run a household alone only with Rs. 6000)

One divorced lady bluntly uttered *« Franchement c'est ki mo gagner li pas asser.»* (Whatever I get is not enough) . Such a state leads to the intervention of other relatives to cater for these people financially, for example to pay their rent, weekly groceries or even pay utility bills. As depicted : *«Mo tifi aide moi pou paye loyer.»,«mo maman li aide moi » ,«2 enfants pe déjà travay donc zot pe aide moi.»*

Yet another issue which emerged with the aspect of debt and single parenting was about the fact that children and households are being neglected. With these existing conditions of work, many women cleaners found it difficult to grapple with their children and their own household chores, as they indicated: *«zenfants negliger», «pas gagne le temps nettoyer», «gagne problem ek zenfants», «zenfants sorti lekol zot debrouille zot».*

6B.2 Job of Cleaner perceived as Forced labour or even next to "slavery"

Mauritius being one of the member country which ratified the ILO convention **C105** - Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105), the aspect of forced labour should not be a subject of discussion. Yet, in order to assess decent work deficiency, we had to go into this area to find out if there are some degrees of forced labour in the Cleaning sector. Forced labour is any kind of labour which is unacceptable (Anker *et al.,* 2003; Achankeng, 2003; Barbalace, 2003; Budlender,

2013; Diaas, 2013; Harvey, 1989; Lund, 2009). The findings of Table 5.26, illustrate that 72% of respondents agree that the cleaning sector engaged in some form of forced labour. The next question we asked was how? The statements of the cleaners show that forced labour for them is translated into forced to come to work in spite of *«blesser» «malade»* (hurt, sick)where they are compared to *«ene robot»*(a robot). The consequences that cleaners have to bear if they go against the forced labour prevailing in the industry are *«la paye couper»*(there is a cut in my pay) *«maltraiter»* (ill treated) *«perdi travail»* (lose my job).

Cleaners who have had an exposure to precarious jobs showed their interest in the latter more than their current jobs of cleaner but their only concern is that precarious jobs are not daily and they are left with months where there is no job at all. As stated by one respondent *« Quand mo ti pe travail mason li ti bocou pli bon. »* (It was much better when I was working as a mason) .
Cleaners' preference for precarious job is that it pays on a daily basis and is much more than a monthly salary as cleaner.

The survey also reveals that workers in cleaning companies are treated as slaves as noted by one respondent *«...Ou couma dire esclave ici. »*They advocated themselves as being slaves since they had no rest time, perceived that they were not well paid, they were constantly being ill-treated and they perceived that they were not regarded as employees but as 'a thing' which can be used and discarded as the need arise.

6B.3 Complete Absence of Work Life balance

Work Life Balance is defined as the satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict. The focus on the domains of work and family is vital as family and work are regarded as the most important elements of everyone's life, and any competing demands from work and family life cause conflict and negatively affect the wellbeing of workers (Clark, 2000; Frone, 2000). In order to understand how work life balance is established for cleaners in Mauritius, we asked them how much time they have to spend with family and friends. Some interesting themes came out of the study which necessitate immediate attention as shown in Table 5.15. The study revealed that few were also doing a maximum of three jobs per day to keepup

a minimum standard of living with a total monthly salary of Rs 10,000 which in turn takes a toll on their family life and general well being as depicted above.

In a large majority of cleaners interviewed, most took up freelance jobs that they do after their cleaners' jobs which is after 17hrs in the afternoon. Though they are tired and do not have time for kids and family, they still forced themselves to have this second job in order to sustain the living of their family. As stated by some cleaners *«repasse linges cot ene madam»* (I do some ironing) *«aide momari qui pecheur»* (I help my husband who is a fisherman) . The revenue of the second job adds up to their primary job which enables cleaners to pay for school van or to buy one month's groceries. This is a big relieve but often at the expense of many other spheres of lives which remain neglected because the primary motive being to have money and to sustain a living.

«Tro fatiguer»(too tired) *«bisin galouper»*(I have to rus too much) *«le temps li limiter»* (not enough time) *«mone demi mort»*(half dead) *:* These are some of the statements voiced out by cleaners in trying to round off monthly salaries depicting the absence of work life balance. They are always on the rush in order to cope both work and family responsibilities, though they are losing on both side. Moreover, cleaners opined that:

"Promener c'est ene luxe »(going out for fun is a luxury) , *«sorti coute cher»*(going out costs a lot) ,*«pa capave vivre la bellle vie»* (cannot live an easy life)

According to them, having outings are much expensive and they cannot afford of providing a budget nor time for such entertainment. Their work does not allow them to have leisure time outside of their normal environment because of their financial constraint. *«Si ban zenfants vine cot moi mo bisin coze menti dans travay»* (I have to lie at work when my children come at my place).

6B.3.1 No days off

«Nou pena aucaine zour off» : A majority ofworkers from the cleaning sector highlighted that they do not have any day off and that they worked from Monday to Sunday and back again. They are also on duty during public holidays with no change in their salary which remains moreover the same again contributing to a very low work life balance.

6B.4 Discrimination at work

«Ban préférence»

(People are prefered over others)

Mauritius also ratified a convention called **C111** - Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111). According to this convention, states are required to enable legislation which prohibits all discrimination and exclusion on any basis including of race or colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national or social origin in employment. We observed, as per the analysis that cleaners went through some types of discrimination at work. As we asked some pertinent questions regarding this aspect of decent work, cleaners point out that they sense discrimination when *«choisir dimune pou permission» (*Permissionsa re not granted to all)*«guet deux lizier»* (not all of us are equal) *«ban préférence»* (favouritism) .Cleaners wenr further to say that that were helpless under such circumstances : *«soumet» «bouche lizier»* These kinds of behaviours is against what the Employment Rights Act (Sec 4(1)(a) stipulates whereby no worker shall be treated in a discriminatory manner by his employer in his employment or occupation.

Few cleaners spoke about the negative attitude of the general public towards them. As quoted in the words of a few respondents *«lève neznez quand nous passer»* resonate each time a person pass by them. Conversations showed that cleaners are discriminated on a two paradigm, first, in their workplace and their respective supervisor and second with the larger public among which they normally work, for instance, fairs, markets, food courts and so on.

6B.5 No awareness about social protection

«blesser dans travail ou meme paye ou medical»

(If you are hurt at work, you have to pay your medical...)

According to these authors (Bacchetta *et al.,* 2009; Carr *et al.,* 2010; Moyo, 2009; Saner *et al.,* 2006) one of the indication that a company is moving towards a safe working environment, is the presence of an insurance policy for its employees. The contracting out of such a policy will also involve quite a huge sum of money depending on the number of employees to be insured. These altogether should properly define the degree of social protection the company is allocating to its

staff. To get these information, the research team asked questions around the health protection scheme. The findings are illustrated in Table 5.13 in Chapter 5.

Interestingly, only 22% of the cleaners mentioned that they have an insurance policy but have never heard of it really, do not know the clauses and do not know how to use it. As mentioned by an interviewee *«mo pas tro coner cuma li marcher»*. However, 78% of the cleaners either do not know or do not possess an insurance policy. Some cleaners voiced out that there is no initiative from the company to implement medical insurance policies: *«zamais mone tende» «Pena sa ici» «blesser dans travail ou meme paye ou medical» «pa exister sa» «crase papier docteur zette dans poubelle»*.

To add up to the analysis, the research team wanted to investigate how far, in case social protection is present, are families of cleaners protected, covered and included. As table 5.30 depicts, none of the cleaners have had their family members covered. It will thus be evident to say that because employers do not find it necessary to cover their own employees why will they now cater for the families?

6B.6 Poor Unionisation & No Collective Agreement

Kuruvilla *et al.* (2002) stated that collective agreement or collective bargaining agreement is an agreement which is 'collectively negotiated' between management and trade unions (on behalf of employees) (Anker *et al.,* 2003; Auer, 2000; Choi, 2000; Herron, 1998; Lee, 2002; Visser, 1999; Parsons, 2002). In the cleaning sector of Mauritius, after a number of manifestations and trials of unions, the only collective agreement reached was the revision of the Remuneration Order 1995 to the new and current Remuneration Order 2013.

The aspect of participation at the national level concerns participation of trade unions; employers' organizations, other associations of economic agents and civil society bodies in the formulation and implementation of social and economic policies bearing on work and livelihoods (Ghai 2002; 2003; Compston, 2002a; Fajertag *et al.,* 2000; Galilea *et al.,* 2002; Talos *et al.,* 2002; Trebilcock, 1994).

We attempted to start the analysis of this section by asking cleaners what they did in reaction to their bad conditions of work and their poor salary. A calculation was also done with the unionized cleaners at CEWA with respect to the population of cleaners in Mauritius. Assuming that the number of cleaners (3,803) involved in building cleaning has remained moreover the same since 2010, the union density is 58/3,803 * 100 = 1.5%.

Also, from the responses obtained, none of the cleaners have ever been engaged into any form of strike. However, some cleaners testified that they once formed a group and went to the Ministry of Labour & Industrial Relations. When the company came to know about it, they threatened most cleaners in the group to remove the complaint from the Ministry otherwise they will find themselves with no job. When they finally cancelled their complaint, an officer from the Ministry told them that he will no longer accept complaints from them. They acted out of fear of losing their jobs. No other cases like this were recorded in the sample interviewed. This might demonstarate that the oppression of the management on cleaners are so heavy that when cleaners try to emancipate and to raise their voice, the employers actually detain the remote control to set things back to normal.



CHAPTER 7 RECOMMENDATIONS & CONCLUSION



As stipulated in the beginning of this report, the concept of decent work was introduced by the ILO in 1999 with an aim to promote opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equality, security and human dignity (See also Ghai, 2005; Facey *et al.,* 2010; Flores, 2013). And till date, decent work remains at the heart of global, national and local strategies for economic and social progress, the reason behind including same as part of the Sustainable Development Goals in the quest for reducing poverty, and as a means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development.

It is very unfortunate that the findings of this study show a complete deficit in all the parameters of decent work as laid down by the ILO among cleaners in the Republic of Mauritius despite having signed an MoU with the International Labour Organisation in the form of a Decent Work Programme to show its commitment towards decent work. Under Article I of the MoU, both parties agreed on the following:

a) the creation of decent and productive employment with the provision of adequate social protection;
b) the strengthening of social dialogue and
c) the elimination of all forms of discrimination

In line with the above and to reduce the existing decent work deficit in the cleaning sector in Mauritius, the following recommendations are being made both, in line with the findings of the study and also after having sought the views of the CTSP, namely, Ms. Jane Ragoo.

7.1 THE WORK AND EMPLOYMENT PARAMETER

7.1.1 Short contractual nature of the work of cleaners

Very few respondents 3% claimed that they are employed on a permanent basis having more than 13 years of service with their cleaning companies. Majority of cleaners interviewed indicated that they either had not yet signed any contract at all, or were employed on contracts not exceeding three years. The conversations revealed that cleaners are submissive to such conditions since they are aware that although they do have skills but are considered to be illiterate.

It is unfortunate that in a democratic Republic as the Island of Mauritius, people are being offered such conditions of work just because their low level of education does not permit them to understand the ins and outs of being "employed". On account of sound basic employee relations in this 21st century , all working relationships have to be performed on the basis of a contract of employment clearly stipulating the start date in employment, the probation period, the conditions pertaining to the work and even the criteria under which the cleaner shall be on a permanent basis if applicable. This does not always seem to be the case for cleaners.

In line with same, the mere fact of working under contract does not instigate trust and commitment among workers. Lack of trust specially emancipating from whether their contracts will be renewed for another couple of months or not reduces the commitment at work shown by the cleaners, thus forcing them into frequent turnover. That is joining companies where they believe they might get longer contracts.

It thus becomes imperative for our policy makers to urgently look into ways and means of eliminating the short contractual nature of work offered by cleaning companies. As stipulated by Fields 2003; Rushion *et al.,* 2012; Guichard, 2009, for a person to have a decent job, the person should first have a job, but the contractual jobs of our cleaners are but just temporary jobs. It is high time that working contracts of cleaners are regulated to last longer where applicable. Moreso, taking into consideration Burchell, 1994; Burchell *et al.,* 1999; Wichert, 2002 who opined that job insecurity is a major source of ill-health and job dissatisfaction, which has long lasting impact on individuals and their households and creating tensions at home .

7.1.2 Remunerative Employment

Work is defined as a context for human experience and development which have positively impacted the lives of people, organizations, and communities for more than a century (Savickas and Baker, 2005; Blustein, 2006; Guichard, 2009; Landy and Conte, 2010; Schleicher *et al.,* 2011; Di Fabio and Maree, 2012; Di Fabio, 2014).

All cleaners acknowledged being very poorly paid, so much so that, for some with numerous family members, basic needs are not being satisfied with their current basic pay. Work is supposed

to have a positive impact on the lives of people organisations, and communities (Savickas and Baker, 2005; Blustein, 2006; Guichard, 2009; Landy and Conte, 2010; Schleicher *et al.,* 2011; Di Fabio and Maree, 2012; Di Fabio, 2014). What is the use of working when basic needs are not being satisfied? This calls for some urgent consideration at the level of the NRB , which governs conditions of work for cleaners in Mauritius. At the same time, the researchers do acknowledge that the government is working upon the minimum wage project in Mauritius. There is thus an urgent immediate call for considering a minimum wage rate for cleaners as well irrespective of the contractual nature of their jobs. In line with same, it is also imperative that cleaners are clearly informed distinctively about their basic salary and travelling allowances.

Reiterating that jobs should have an impact on the lives of people, the introduction of a progressive wages approach (PWA) to help cleaners in different sectors achieve sustainable real wage increases which correspond to their skills and productivity levels is recommended at a later stage. The PWA could be made up of four main components: (1) salary progression, (2) skills upgrading, (3) career advancements and (4) productivity improvements. It comprises a series of wage points, and provides a clear pathway for the workers in the cleaning industry to earn higher wages and enjoy career progression as they upgrade and become more productive. At any stage the PWM wage points are determined by the unions and industry bodies in consultation with respective Ministries and other stakeholders concerned. This approach is believed to enhance and positively spill over on the miserable quality of life that cleaners are living and their commitment vis-à-vis their employing organisations.

7.2 THE RIGHTS AT WORK PARAMETER

Rights at work constitutes, among others, ensuring that work is associated with dignity, equality, freedom, adequate remuneration, social security and voice, representation and participation for all categories of workers.(See for example Hepple, 2003)

The findings revealed that not all cleaning companies offer desirable working conditions to their employees. Cleaners claimed not availing of sick nor local leaves, working beyond agreed hours and not being paid overtime, not getting the appropriate personal protective equipment among

others. This indicates the absence of either a clear legal framework regulating working conditions in the cleaning sector in Mauritius or there are no enforcement mechanisms to ensure that rights at work of cleaners are being respected. Again this boils down to contractual employment of cleaners whereby they are not being accounted for under any legal entity.

It is thus recommended that the Ministry of Labour and other stakeholders concerned ensure enforcement of working conditions of cleaners. Such measures might include:

7.2.1 Working hours, pauses and overtime

Findings indicate that cleaners work between more than 48 hours in a 7 day week which is over and above the normal working hours as per enforced Labour Act. It is recommended that such working hours are reduced to be in line with the Labour Laws, 48 hours per week including their pauses. As advocated by Clark, 2000; Frone, 2000, competing demands from work and family life cause conflict and negatively affect the wellbeing of workers. Such reduction will not only enable workers to overcome their overtiredness as they indicated, but will also enable them to improve their work life balance , yet another shortcoming which was found among the cleaners in Mauritius.

Also, should cleaners be called upon to work beyond hours stipulated, not only should well established policies be put in place with respect to their payment of overtime in accordance with law but cleaners should be well informed about these conditions.

7.2.2 Paid leaves and bonuses

It is understood that workers are not entitled to sick and annual leaves during their first year of employment. However, having understood from the findings that cleaners in Mauritius are contractually employed on a maximum of two years only, it is recommended that appropriate arrangements are made by the NRB or policy makers concerned for cleaners to avail of their sick and annual leaves despite being employed on short term contracts.

Cleaners advocated that they were not really aware about how their end of year bonus, which happens to be their only financial benefit, is calculated. It is therefore recommended that stakeholders concerned establish relevant framework to render details of this payment transparent to the cleaners and also ensure that their end of year bonus payment are adhered to.

7.2.3 Safety & Health Issues

As stipulated, through observation, it was found that cleaners were unknowingly exposed to numerous occupational hazards, such as bilogigal, chemical, psychosocial etc The low level of literacy amongst cleaners makes them unaware of the dangers they face while doing their jobs and are ignorant towards the use of appropriate personal protective equipment and also personal hygiene. A number of measures pertaining to the occupational safety & health aspects of the cleaners' jobs are being recommended:

7.2.3.1 Risk Assessment

Although the researchers acknowledge that the mobile workplaces of cleaners make risk assessment quite difficult, it is high time that same is conducted in a scientific manner so as to assess the various risks and levels of risks to which cleaners are exposed to. Safety data sheets can also be produced in this respect. Once this is done, the other steps as below can follow:

7.2.3.2 Sensitisation & Awareness Campaigns

Unions are thus urged to create awareness among cleaners for their own safety and health. It is understood that such workers are not in a position to attend seminars, workshops and the like, however, they can be sensitized by talking to them face to face while they are doing their jobs or even pamphlets in creole can be distributed to them. Such initiatives should include topics such as safe and hygienic working practices, wearing of PPE and also usage of appropriate tools. Although in her conversation Jane Ragoo mentioned that pamphlets are distributed and that a sensitization campaign had just started where CTSP had there stalls installed by the end of the month in well known supermarkets, the research team is of the opinion that such initiatives should be more aggressive to be able to reach cleaners with their existing characteristics.

7.2.3.3 Provision of appropriate Working Tools and Personal Protective Equipment

Policy makers and Unions should ensure that appropriate working tools are provided to cleaners to be used when performing their jobs. It was observed during the study that many cleaners were involved in bending, heavy weight lifting, manual handling, climbing among other hazardous activities. In this respect, it is recommended that appropriate tools (such as palettes, cranes, stepladders , long handled equipments etc are provided to the cleaners to ease their strenuous activities, not withstanding the proper maintenance of these equipments.

Policy makers and Unions should also seriously consider ensuring the distribution and enforcement of the wearing of personal protective equipments among cleaners, especially appropriate kinds of personal protective equipments since, as observed, cleaners are exposed numerous health hazards. Depending on the site of work, such protective equipments should include those for the eyes, face , head, hand, feet and for breathing.

7.2.3.4 Vaccination

Cleaners interviewed consisted also of those who worked in a medical environment where they are exposed to life threatening hazards, which might also prove to be fatal. As mentioned before, cleaners concerned might be ignorant vis a vis such hazards which they face. In this respect, apart from sensitization and awareness campaigns, as a precautionary measure, hospital cleaners should be vaccinated against certain diseases, including for example, hepatitis A & B

7.3 THE SOCIAL PROTECTION PARAMETER

The main focus of social protection policies is to reduce suffering, anxiety, insecurity and material deprivation (See ILO, 2012b; Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Merhran & Ritter, 2003; Bonnet *et al.,* 2003). While as a whole adequate social protection framework exist in Mauritius, such policies are not always extended to the cleaning sector. This is better analysed below:

7.3.1 Contribution to the National Savings Fund and National Pensions Fund

Every employer has a legal obligation to contribute 2.5 % of the total basic prescribed wages of each of its employees which will serve to pay back a lump sum at retirement age under the National Savings Fund In the Republic of Mauritius. There is also the National Pensions Fund which is

based on a two tier system where benefits are paid to insured persons whose employers have contributed to the Scheme as well.

Findings from the study show evidence that majority of employees are not aware whether they are contributing to these schemes. This is invariably due to the contractual nature of the job of cleaners and maybe the temporary nature of certain cleaning companies. It is thus again recommended that policy makers, under the NRB look into this matter, by either encouraging or legally biding employers and employees in the sector to contribute to these Schemes.

7.3.2 Accident and Medical Insurance Covers

While it is acknowledged that in Mauritius many companies offer accidents and medical insurances to their employees using different schemes, including one which might even be non contributory on the part of employees. Findings revealed a totally different picture for the cleaning sector. Cleaners claimed not even knowing about this as a benefit. More so, since cleaners perceive their salaries not sufficient for earning a decent living, the question of contributing to a medical scheme would seem very far fetched. This again adds food for thoughts for our policy makers in terms of the remuneration and benefits being provided to cleaners. Adequate framework should be designed to accommodate medical insurances to cleaners which might enhance their social protection.

However, until cleaners will be employed on a contractual basis, under actual laws enforced in Mauritius, social protection will remain so far a myth for our cleaners, despite being of utmost importance for every worker.

7.4 THE SOCIAL DIALOGUE PARAMETER

The findings of the study convinced us that cleaners have a poor knowledge of trade unions with very few having been registered at a union to negotiate their working conditions. After having understood the characteristics of people working in this industry, this can be explained by many factors. For example, their low level of education breeding ignorance, or also their hectic schedules of working 7 days' a week not even having the time to spare and know what is happening around them or worse not having enough financial lee way to contribute to Trade Unions. One

interesting factor put forward by Jane Raggoo was also the issue of gender disparity, where the Trade Unionist advocated that since the work of cleaners is female dominated, many social issues women prevent women from joining Trade Unions, among the few being no permission from their husbands. Also, she was of the opinion that information among cleaners is mostly dissipated through word of mouth because of the very low level of education; so which type of information and whether the right information is being dissipated is not known.

It is therefore recommended that unions fighting for the needs of cleaners such as the CTSP and the CEWA to actively sensitise cleaners and provide as much information as possible so that the current low membership of cleaners in Unions is effectively addressed. Of course, stakeholders concerned should acknowledge that this might involve a lot of convincing and walking around in the field. As indicated by Jane Raggoo, an interesting measure taken by the CTSP in this direction is the sticking of posters, distribution of cards and pamphlets to cleaners. One very recently started initiatives is to visit courtyards of well known supermarkets around the island to sensitise people, including cleaners, about the benefit of joining trade unions.

Having proposed recommendations as above in line with the four parameters as set out by the ILO, the team would also put forward two general recommendations regarding cleaning companies themselves as follows:

(i) The possibility of adopting an adapted version of the Atkinson Model of Employment in Cleaning Companies where they would be having a core and peripheral employees (See Appendix C)

(ii) Making ISO Certification of Cleaning Companies mandatory by policy makers

The research team would like to point out a word of caution here however in the sense that the study was carried out from a pure social science point of view with the aim of rendering work of cleaners more "meaningful" (See Arneson 1987) . All required steps have been undertaken to gauge the perception of cleaners with respect to decent work and recommendations have been based on the responses of the cleaners interviewed. How far these recommendations are aligned

with existing legal frameworks do not fall into the purview of the study and therefore requires more probing.

CONCLUSION

This study aimed at assessing the extent to which cleaners in the Republic of Mauritius perceived their jobs to be decent as per the parameters laid down by the ILO (1999). A purely qualitative research was undertaken among cleaners throughout the island working in various cleaning companies after having taken stock of and analysing existing reports, documents and existing literature about decent work worldwide.

The findings from the study revealed that there is a decent work deficit in all the four parameters of decent work as laid down by the ILO (1999), cleaners point of view. There is thus an urgent need to reduce if not eliminate same, both for the Republic of Mauritius to be in line with Sustainable Development Goals and in accordance with the MoU which has been signed between Mauritius and the ILO.

In the light of the findings obtained, recommendations have been proposed so that cleaners can avail of "decent work" in the Republic of Mauritius. It is noteworthy to emphasise at this point that, all recommendations proposed boil down to one major factor in the cleaning services: the nature of the very short contractual employment of cleaners in cleaning companies.

However, the research team also acknowledges that the current study, although having achieved the objectives set, could be enhanced by involving other stakeholders to get a better picture of the status of decent work among cleaners. For example, the employers of cleaners and members of those Union members fighting for the cleaners have not been included as part of the population in the study. Their viewpoints would have definitely provided another side of the coin of decent work. Although some of the views of the CTSP, from the discussions on the day of the presentation of

the findings with Mr. Reeaz Chuttoo and a short interview with Ms Jane Raggoo have been included in the recommendations.

Secondly, it is also acknowledged that the recommendations proposed as above would require the consideration of certain policy frameworks in accordance with existing laws related to work and employment currently being practiced in Mauritius.

Further research could thus consider directly involving other stakeholders related to "decent work" such as other trade union representatives, employers of cleaners and partners from the legal background. This would enable triangulation of the findings from this present study and thus provide a tripartite view, in accordance with current laws, of decent work for the cleaning sector. Such data would invariably provide our policy makers with more information to guide them towards rendering the job of our cleaners more "decent".



REFERENCES



1. Abassi SM, Hollman KW (2000). "Turnover: the real bottom line", Public Personnel Management, 2 (3) :333-342.

2. Atkison J , 1984, " Manpower Strategies for Flexible Organisations" , Personnel Mangement, 28-31

3. Abbott, B. (1998), 'The new shop stewards, the Citizens Advice Bureaux', Employee Relations, Vol.20, 6, 610 - 625.

4. Achankeng, E. (2003). "Globalisation, Urbanisation and Municipal Solid Waste Management in Africa". African Studies Association of Australasia and the Pacific Conference Proceedings, African on a Global Stage, October 1-3, Flunders University, Adelaide, Australia.

5. Adams, A., Lugsden, E., Chase, J., Arber, S. and Bond, S. (2000). Skill-mix changes and work intensification in nursing, Work Employment Society, vol. 14, no. 3, 541–555

6. Carol Adams. (2004) "The Ethical, social and environmental reporting - performance portrayal', Accounting, Auditing and accountability journal

7. Michael K Addo (2005) "Symposium: Human Rights perspectives of corporate groups" , Connecticut Law Review

8. AkinsanyaA.O.&OludeyiO.S.(2013).Dialecticsofstaffunionismanduniversitymanagement ; criticaldiscourseforeffectiveeducationalservicedelivery.NationalAssociationofScience, HumanitiesandEducationalResearchJournal,11(2),65-72A

9. Alexander J, Bloom J, Nuchols B (1994). "Nursing turnover and hospital efficiency: an organization-level analysis", Industrial Relations, 33 (4): 505-520.

10. Ali, S. R. (2013). "Poverty, social class, and working," in The Oxford Handbook of thePsychologyofWorking,ed.D.L.Blustein(Oxford:OxfordUniversityPress), 127–140.doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199758791.013.0008

11. Allen, Meyer, (1996), "Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organization: An Examination of Construct Validity", Journal of Vocational Behavior, Vol: 49, pp: 252-276.

12. Anker, R., Chernyshev, I., Egger, P., Mehran, F., & Ritter, J. (2003). Measuring decent work with statistical indicators. International Labour Review, 142(2), 147-178.

13. Antunes, R. (2015). The new morphology of the working class in contemporary Brazil. Social. Regist. 51, 178–198.

14. Anvari,R.,Amin,S.A.,Ahmad,U.N.,Seliman,S.,&Garmsari,M.(2011).The relationship between strategic compensation practices and affective organizational commitment. Interdisciplinary Journal of Research in Business,1(2),44-55A

15. Arneson, Richard. 1987. "Meaningful Work and Market Socialism." Ethics 97: 517–45.
16. Artazcoz, L., Benach, J., Borrell, C., and Cortes, I. (2004). Unemployment and mental health: understanding the interactions among gender, family role, and socialclass.Am.J.PublicHealth94,82–88.doi:10.2105/AJPH.94.1.82

17. Atkinson, J. B. and Storey, D. (1994), Employment, The small firm and the labour market, Routledge.

18. Auer, Peter (2000) Employment Revival in Europe: Labour Market Success in Austria, Denmark, Ireland and the Netherlands. Geneva: International Labour Office (ILO).

19. Bacchetta, M., Ekkehard, E., & Bustamante, J. (2009). Globalization and informal jobs in developing countries. Geneva, Switzerland: International Labour Organisation.

20. Bacon, N., Ackers, P., Storey, J. and Coates, D. (1996), 'It's a small world: managing human resources in small businesses', International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol.7, 1.82 - 1.

21. Barbalace, K. 2003. The History of Waste Management.Environmental Chemistry.com

22. Barbier, J.-C. 2004. Precarious Employment in Europe (ESOPE), 'Managing Labour Market Related Risks in Europe, Policy Implications', final policy report, European Comission

23. Barrientos, S., & Smith, S. (2007). Do workers benefit from ethical trade? Assessing codes of labour practice in global production systems. Third World Quarterly 28(4), 713-729.

24. Bauman, Z. 1998. Work, Consumerism and the New Poor, Open University Press.

25. Baxter, P. and Jack, S. 2008. Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers, The Qualitative Report 13(4) December.

26. Beard, C. and Rees, S. (2000), Green Teams and the Management of Environmental Change in UK Country Council, Environmental Management and Health, Vol.11, No.1, pp. 27-38.

27. Beardwell, I. & Holden, L. (1994), Human Resource Management: A Contemporary Perspective, Pitman, London.

28. Benach, J., and Muntaner, C. (2007). Precarious employment and health: developingaresearchagenda.J.Epidemiol.CommunityHealth61,276–277.doi: 10.1136/jech.2005.045237

29. Berger, Sebastian. "Myrdal's Institutional Theory of the State: From Welfare to Predation." Journal of Economic Issues 43, 2 (2009): 353-360.

30. Berry, M. A. and Rondinelli, D. A. (1998), Proactive corporate environmental management: A new industrial revolution, Academic Management Executive, Vol. 12, No. 2, pp. 38-50.

31. Bescond, D., Chataignier, A. and Mehran, F. 2003. Seven indicators to measure Decent Work, International Labour Review, vol. 142 no. 2, 179–211

32. Bhagwati, Jagdish. 1995. "Trade Liberalization and Fair Trade Demands: Addressing the Environmental and Labour Standards Issues." World Economy 18 (November): 745-59

33. Blustein, D. L. (2006). The Psychology of Working: A New Perspective for Career Development, Counselling and Public Policy. New York, NY: Routledge.

34. Blustein, D. L. (ed.) (2013). The Oxford Handbook of the Psychology of Working. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

35. Bonnet, F., Figueiredo, J., & Standing, G. (2003). A family of decent work indexes. International Labour Review, 142(2), 213-238.

36. Braverman, H. (1974) Labour and Monopoly Capital: The Degradation of Work in the Twentieth Century. New York, NY: Monthly Review Press.

37. Brynjolfsson, E. and McAfee, A.(2014).The Second Machine Age: Work Progress, and Prosperity in a Time of Brilliant Technologies. New York.

38. Burchell, B., Day, D., Hudson, M., Lapido, D., Mankelow, R., Nolan, J., Reed, H., Wichert, I. and Wilkinson, F. (1999) 'Job Insecurity and Work Intensification: Flexibility and the changing boundaries of work', Joseph Rowntree Foundation report.

39. Burchell, B., Sehnbruch, K., Piasna, A., and Agloni, N. (2013). The quality of employment and decent work: definitions, methodologies, and ongoing debates.Camb.J.Econ. Vol 38, pg. 459–477.

40. Burchell, B. (1994) 'The effects of labour market position, job insecurity and unemployment on psychological health', in Gallie, D.Marsh, C. and Vogler, C (eds.): Social Change and the experience of Unemployment. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

41. Business Mag. 2016. Sustainable Development Goals: Politics, capitalism and proletariat marching towards a better world.

42. Cameron, David R. 1984. "Social Democracy, Corporatism, Labour Quiescence, and the Representation of Economic Interest in Advanced Capitalist Society." in Order and Conflict in Contemporary Capitalism, edited by John H. Goldthorpe, (Oxford: Clarendon Press), pp. 143-178.

43. Castel, R. (2009). La Montée des Incertitudes: Travail, Protections, Statut de L'individu [The Increased Uncertainty: Work, Protections, and Status of the Individual]. Paris: Seuil.

44. Castells, M., & Portes, A. 1989. World underneath: The origins, dynamics, and effects of the informal economy. In A. Portes, M. Castells, & L. A. Benton (Eds.), The informal economy: Studies in advanced and less developed countries: 11–37. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

45. Chau N.; Kanbur, R. 2001. "The adoption of international labor standards conventions: Who, when, why?", in Collins, S.; Rodrik, D. (eds.): Brookings trade forum, Washington, D.C., Brookings Institution, pp. 1131-1156.

46. Chen, M. A. 2007. Rethinking the informal economy: Linkages with the formal economy and the formal regulatory environment.

47. Clark, A.E. (2005a). 'Your Money or Your Life: Changing Job Quality in OECD Countries' British Journal of Industrial Relations, Vol. 43, 377-400.

48. Compa, L. 2002. Assessing assessments: A survey of efforts to measure countries' compliance with freedom of association standards, prepared for the Project on International Labor Standards, Washington, D.C., National Academy of Sciences.

49. Confédération des Travailleurs du Secteur Prive. 2015. open letters to members of the Parliament.

50. De Ruyter, Alex and Tonia Warnecke. "Gender, Non-Standard Work and Development Regimes: A Comparison of the U.S. and Indonesia." Journal of Industrial Relations 50, 5 (2008): 718-735.

51. De Ruyter, Alex, Ajit Singh, Tonia Warnecke and Ann Zammit. "Core vs. Non-Core Standards, Gender and Developing Countries: A Review with Recommendations for Policy." Paper presented at the ILO Conference on Decent Work, Geneva, 2009.

52. Dejours, C. (2006). Subjectivity, work and action. Crit. Horiz. 7, 45–62.

53. Deranty, J. P., and MacMillan, C. (2012). The ILO's decent work initiative: suggestions for an extension of the notion of "decent work." J. Soc. Philos. 43, 386–405.

54. Deshingkar, P. (2009). Extending labour inspections to the informal sector and agriculture. Chronic Poverty Research Centre Working Paper No. 154. http://ssrn.com/abstract=1524722.

55. Di Fabio, A., and Maree, J. G. (2012). Group-based life design counselling in an Italiancontext.J.Vocat.Behav.80, 100–107.

56. Di Fabio, A. (2014). Intrapreneurial self-capital: a new construct for the 21st century. J.Employ.Couns.51, 98–111.

57. Dobbin, F, and T Boychuk. (1999). "National Employment Systems and Job Autonomy: Why Autonomy is High in the Nordic Countries and Low in the U.S., Canada, and Australia". Organization Studies, Vol. 20, 257-291.

58. Ebbinghaus, Bernhard and Jelle Visser. 2000. Trade Unions in Europe since 1945 (London: Macmillan).

59. Evans,J. and Gibb,E.(2009). Moving from Precarious Employment to Decent Work. Geneva: International Labour Organization,13.

60. Flanagan, Robert J. 1990. "Centralized and Decentralized Pay Determination in Nordic Countries", in Wage Formation and Macroeconomic Policy in the Nordic Countries, edited by Lars Calmfors. (Oxford: Oxford University Press).

61. Folkerth, John and Tonia Warnecke. 2011. "Organizing Informal Labor in India and Indonesia." Paper presented at the Global Labor University Conference, Johannesburg.

62. Freeman, Richard B. and James L. Medoff. 1984. What Do Unions Do? (New York: Basic Books).

63. Gallie, D. (2002) "The quality of working life in welfare strategy', in Esping-Andersen, G. (ed.); Why we need a new welfare state. Oxford University Press.

64. Gallie, D. (2003). 'The Quality of Working Life: Is Scandinavia Different?' European Sociological Review, Vol. 19, 61-79.

65. Gallie, D. (2007) 'Welfare regimes, Employment Systems and Job Preference Orientations' European Sociological Review, Vol.23: 279-293.

66. Gallie, D. (2007b) 'Production Regimes, Employment Regimes and the Quality of Work.' pp. 1-33 in D. Gallie (ed.) Employment Regimes and the Quality of Work. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

67. Gallie, D. (2007c) 'Production Regime and the quality of employment in Europe.' Annual Review of Sociology, Vol. 33, 85-104.

68. Ghai, D. (2003). Decent work: concept and indicators. Int. Labour Rev. 142, 113–144.

69. Golden, Miriam. 1993. "The Dynamics of Trade Unionism and National Economic Performance" in American Political Science Review, vol. 87, pp. 439-54.

70. Green, F. (2006) Demanding Work. The Paradox of Job Quality in the Affluent Economy. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
71. Green, F. and McIntosh, S. (2007) 'Is there a genuine under-utilization of skills amongst the over-qualified' Applied Economics, Vol. 39, 427-439.]

72. Green, F., Burchell, B. and Felstead, A. (2000) 'Job insecurity and the difficulty of regaining employment: an empirical study of unemployment expectations' Oxford Bulletin of Economics & Statistics, Vol. 62, pp. 855-884.

73. Guichard, J. (2009). Self-constructing. J. Vocat. Behav. 75, 251–258.

74. Guichard, J. (2013). Career guidance, education, and dialogues for a fair and sustainable human development. Paper Presented at Inaugural Conference of the UNESCO Chair of Lifelong Guidance and Counselling (Poland: University of Wroclaw).

75. Hammer, L. B., and Zimmerman, K. L. (2011). "Quality of work life," in APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Maintaining, Expanding, and Contracting the Organization, ed. S. Zedeck (Washington, DC: American Psychological Association),399–431.

76. Hart, K. 1973. Informal income opportunities and urban employment in Ghana. Journal of Modern African Studies, 11: 61–89.

77. Hayek, Friedrich A. 1960. The Constitution of Liberty (Chicago: University of Chicago Press).

78. Headey, Bruce W. 1970. "Trade Unions and National Wage Policies" in Journal of Politics, vol. 32, pp. 407-439.

79. Hepple, R. 2003. Rights at work, Geneva, ILO.

80. De Soto, Hernando (1989). Th e Other Path: Th e Economic Answer to Terrorism. Harper Collins, New York.

81. Hirsch, Barry T. 1992. "Firm Investment Behavior and Collective Bargaining Strategy", in Labor Market Institutions and the Future Role of Unions, edited by M. F. Bognanno and M. M. Kleiner (Oxford: Blackwell).

82. Hsieh, Nien-he. 2005. "Rawlsian Justice and Workplace Republicanism." Social Theory and Practice 31: 115–42.

83. Hsieh, Nien-he. 2009. "Justice at Work: Arguing for Property-Owning Democracy." Journal of Social Philosophy 40: 397–411.

84. Huang, X., and Van de Vliert, E. (2002). 'Intrinsic job rewards at the country-level and individual-level codetermine job satisfaction', Journal of International Business Studies, Vol. 33, pp. 385-394.

85. Huselid, M. (1995). 'The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity and corporate financial performance', Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 38, 635-672.

86. International Labour Organization [ILO] (1999). "Report of the director-general: decent work,"in Proceedings of the International Labour Conference, 87 Session (Geneva: International Labour Organization).

87. International Labour Organization [ILO] (2008a).ILO Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/dg reports/cabinet/documents/generic document/wcms371208.pdf.

88. International Labour Organisation. (2012b). Decent work agenda: Promoting decent work for all. from http://www.ilo.org/global/aboutthe-ilo/decent-work-agenda/lang--en/index.htm.

89. ILO, 2001b,c. Report of the Director-General: Reducing the Decent Work Deficit—A Global Challenge. Report presented at the 89th Session of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, Switzerland, June.

90. International Labour Organization (ILO). 2002. "Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture." Geneva: International Labour Organization.

91. International Labour Organization [ILO]. 2009b. "Unemployment, Working Poor and Vulnerable Employment to Increase Dramatically Due to Global Economic Crisis." Geneva: International Labour Organization, 2009b.

92. ILO (2012a): Decent work agenda. http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/decent-workagenda/lang--en/index.htm.

93. International Labour Organization (ILO). 1972. Employment, incomes and equality: A strategy for increasing productive employment in Kenya. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

94. ILO, 1994. Defending Values, Promoting Change. Geneva: ILO.

95. International Labour Organization [ILO] (2007). Conclusions concerning the promotion of sustainable enterprises. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/empent/Publications/WCMS_093970/lang--en/index.htm.

96. International Labour Organization [ILO] (2008b). World of Work Report 2008: Income Inequalities in the Age of Financial Globalization. Available at:http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@dgreports/@dcomm/@publ/documents/publication/wcms100354.pdf.

97. International Labour Organization [ILO]. (2010). Global wage report 2010/11: Wage policies in times of crisis.

98. International Labour Organization [ILO] (2014). Global Employment Trends. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/dgreports/dcomm/publ/documents/publication/wcms234107.pdf.

99. International Labour Organization [ILO](2015).World Employment Social Outlook: Trends 2015. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgrep orts/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms337069.pdf.

100. Ishikawa (2003) Key Figures of National Social Dialogue: a Social Dialogue Resource Book, ILO.

101. Judge, T. and Watanade, S. (1993). 'Another look at the job satisfaction-life satisfaction Relationship', Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 78, 939-948.

102. Kalleberg, A.L. (1977) 'Work values and job rewards: a theory of job satisfaction', American Sociological Review, Vol. 42, 124-143.

103. Kalleberg, A.L. and Griffiin, L.J. (1978) 'Positioning Sources of Inequality in Job Satisfaction' Sociology of Work and Occupations, Vol.5, 371-401.

104. Kalleberg, A.L. and Vaisey, S. (2005) 'Pathways to a Good Job: Perceived Work Quality among the Machinists in North America' British Journal of Industrial Relations, Vol. 43: 431-454.

105. Kalleberg, A.L., Reskin, B.F. and Hudson, K. (2000) 'Bad jobs in America : Standard and non-standard employment relations and job quality in the United States', American Sociological Review, Vol. 65: 256-278.

106. Kalleberg, A. (2009). Precarious work, insecure workers: employment relations in transition.Am.Sociol.Rev.74, 1–22.

107. Karasek, R.A. (1979) 'Job demands, job decision latitude and mental strain: Implications for job redesign' Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol.24, 285-308.

108. Karasek, R.A. and Theorell, T. (1990). Healthy work. Stress, productivity and the reconstruction of working life. New York, NY. Basic Books.

109. Kenworthy, Lane. 1995. In Search of National Economic Success: Balancing Competition and Cooperation. (Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage).

110. Kenworthy, Lane. 2002. "Corporatism and Unemployment in the 1980s and 1990s", in American Sociological Review.

111. Kittel, Bernhard. 2000b. "Trade Union Bargaining Horizons in Comparative Perspective: The Effects of Encompassing Organization, Unemployment, and the Monetary Regime on Wage Pushfulness", in European Journal of Industrial Relations, vol. 6, pp. 181-202.

112. Krein, J. D. (2013). The changes in the working world and trends of labor relations in the first decade of the 21st century in Brazil. Rev. NECAT 2, 6–25.

113. Kristof, 1996. Person-organization fit: an integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement and implications. Personnel Psychology.

114. Kuruvilla, S. (2006). Social dialogue for decent work. ILR Collection, Articles and Chapters, Paper 167, 175-215. http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?artile=1168&conte xt=articles.

115. Kuruvilla, S. et al. 2002. : "Union growth, decline and revitalization in Asia", in British Journal of Industrial Relations, Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 431-463.

116. Landy, F. J., and Conte, J. M. (2010). Work in the 21st Century: An Introduction to Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 3rd Edn. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley Blackwell.

117. Lent, R. W., and Brown, S. D. (2013). "Promoting work satisfaction and performance," in Career Choice and Development: Putting Theory and Research, eds S. D. Brown and R. W. Lent (New York, NY : Wiley),621–652.

118. Lund, F., & Srinivas, S. (2000). Learning from experience: A gendered approach to social protection for workers in the informal economy. Geneva, ILO-STEP.

119. Mah, J.S. 1997. "Core labor standards and export performance in developing countries"

120. Martel, J.P. and Dupuis, G. (2006) 'Quality of work life: Theoretical and methodological problems, and presentation of a new model and measuring instrument', Social Indicators Research, Vol. 77: 333-368.

121. Maurin, E. and Postel-Vinay, F. (2005) 'The European Job Security Gap' Work and Occupations, Vol. 32: 229-252.

122. Michie, S. and Williams, S. (2003) 'Reducing work related psychological ill health and sickness absence: a systematic literature review', Occupational and Environmental Medicine, Vol. 60, 3-9.

123. Mishel, Lawrence and Paula B. Voos, eds. 1992. Unions and Economic Competitiveness Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe).

124. Moser, C. N. 1978. Informal sector or petty commodity production: Dualism or independence in urban development? World Development, 6: 1041–1064.

125. Nguyen, A.N., Taylor, J., and Bradley S. (2003). 'Job autonomy and Job satisfaction: new evidence' Working Paper 2003/050. Department of Economics. Lancaster University Management School.

126. Nickell, Stephen and Richard Layard. 1999. "Labor Market Institutions and Economic Performance." in Handbook of Labor Economics, edited by Orley Ashenfelter and David Card. Amsterdam: Elsevier, vol. 3C, pp. 3029-84.

127. Nisbett R, R. L., 1980. Human inference: strategies and shortcomings of social judgement. s.l.: Prentice Hall.

128. O'Reilly, C. C., 1991. People and organizational culture: a profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. Academy of Management Journal.

129. OECD. 1996. Trade, Employment, and Labour Standards. Paris: OECD.

130. OECD. 2006. Employment Outlook. OECD. Paris.

131. Olsen, L. 2010. "Supporting a just transition: The Role of Labour Standards". In ILO. 2010.Climate change and labour: The need for a "just transition". International Journal of Labour Research.Vol. 2. Issue 2.

132. Olson, Mancur. 1982. The Rise and Decline of Nations. (New Haven, CT: Yale University Press).

133. Paul, K. I., and Moser, K. (2009). Unemployment impairs mental health: meta analyses.J.Vocat.Behav.74, 264–282.

134. Piketty, T.(2014).Capital in the twenty-first century: a multidimensional approach to the history of capital and social classes. Br. J. Sociol. 65, 736–747.

135. R., E. J., 1994. Regression analysis as an alternative to difference scores. Journal of Management.

136. Rama, M. 1995. "Do labor market policies and institutions matter? The adjustment experience of Latin America and the Caribbean", in Labor.

137. Ribeiro, M. A. (2014). Careers: A New Social Constructionist View for a Flexible World . Curitiba: Juruá.

138. Richardson M. S. (2012). Counseling for work and relationship. Couns. Psychol. 40 190–242.

139. Rodgers, Gerry, Lee, Eddy, Swepston, Lee, and Van Daele, Jasmien. 2009. The International Labour Organization and the Quest for Social Justice, 1919–2009. Geneva: ILO.

140. Rodgers, G. 2001. Decent work as a development objective. Indian Journal of Development Economics, 44: 15–26.

141. Rodrik, D. 1996. "Labor standards in international trade: Do they matter and what do we do about them?", in Lawrence, R. et al. (eds.): Emerging agendaforglobal'trade: High stakes for developing countries, Washington, D.C., Johns Hopkins University Press.

142. Saith, A. (2004). Social protection, decent work and development. Discussion paper 152. Education and Outreach programme, International Labour Organisation. http://www.ilo.int/public/english/bureau/inst/publications/discussion/dp152 04.pdf.

143. Savickas, M. L., and Baker, D. B. (2005). "The history of vocational psychology: antecedents, origin, and early development," in Handbook of Vocational Psychology: Theory, Research, and Practice, eds W. B. Walsh and M. L. Savickas (Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers), 15.

144. Schleicher, D. J., Hansen, S., Fox, D., and Kevin, E. (2011). "Job attitudes and work values," in APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Maintaining, Expanding, and Contracting the Organization, ed. S. Zedeck (Washington, DC: American Psychological Association).

145. Schmitter, Philippe C. 1981. "Interest Intermediation and Regime Governability in Contemporary Western Europe and North America", in Organizing Interests in Western Europe, edited by Suzanne D. Berger (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press), pp. 285-32.

146. Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. Personnel Psychology, 40, 437-453.

147. Schneider B, G. H. S. B., 1995. The ASA framework: and update. Personnel Psychology.

148. Sen, A. K. 2000. Work and rights. International Labour Review, 139: 119–128.

149. Shapiro, C. and Stiglitz, J. (1984) 'Equilibrium unemployment as a worker discipline Devise', American Economic Review, Vol. 74, 433-444.

150. Simonovsky, Yamila, and International Labour Office. 2011. Global and regional estimates on domestic workers. Domestic work policy brief 4. Geneva: ILO.

151. Somavia, Juan (2000) `Decent Work in the Global Economy', speech delivered in Vigyan Bhavan, New Delhi, 18 February, Available at http://www.ilo.mirror/public/english/bure...o/speecheds/Somavia/2000/delhi.htm .

152. Standing, G.(2014).A Precariat Charter: From Denizens to Citizens. New York, NY: Bloomsbury.

153. Standing, G. (2008). The ILO: an agency for globalization? Dev. Change 39, 355–384.

154. Stiglitz, J. (2012). The Price of Inequality: How Today's Divided Society Endangers Our Future. New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Co.

155. Stiglitz, J.(2015).The Great Divide : Unequal Societies and What We Can Do About Them. New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Co.

156. Tisak J, S. C., 1994. Difference Scores: Rationale, Formulation and Interpretation. Journal of Management.

157. Tokman, V. 1978. An exploration into the nature of the informal-formal sector relationship. World Development, 6: 1065–1075.

158. Tomoki, S., 2004. Person-organization fit and person-job fit in employee selection: a review of the literature. Osaka Keidai Ronshu.

159. Touraine, A. (2007). A New Paradigm for Understanding Today's World. Cambridge: Polity.

160. Traxler, Franz, Sabine Blaschke, and Bernhard Kittel. 2001. National Labour Relations in Internationalized Markets (Oxford: Oxford University Press).

161. Troy, L., C. T. Koeller, and N. Sheflin. 1980. "The Three Faces of Unionism" in Policy Review, Fall, pp. 95-109.

162. UNDP.2015. Marilyn Cham: nationalising the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development: Awareness raising session with members of the National Assembly.

163. United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (1948). UN General Assembly, Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 10 December 1948, 217 A (III). Available at: http://www.refworld.org/docid/3ae6b3712c.html.

164. J. Vanek, M. Chen, J. Heintz, R. Hussmanns. 2014. Statistics on the informal economy: Definitions, regional estimates & challenges, Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing, Cambridge MA.

165. Vidal M. (2013). Low-autonomy work and bad jobs in post-fordist capitalism. Hum.Relat.66, 587–612.

166. Warr, P. (1987). Work, unemployment and mental health. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

167. 1.Wichert, I. (2002) 'Job Insecurity and work intensification: the effects on health and well-being', in B. Burchell, D. Lapido and F. Wilkinson (eds.): Job Insecurity and Work Intensification. London. Routledge.

168. Wilkinson, Adrian, Gollan, Paul, Marchington, Mick, and Lewin, David, eds. 2010. The Oxford Handbook of Participation in Organizations. Oxford: Oxford University Press.



APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

Decent Work: How far do the Established Parameters apply to Workers involved in Cleaning Services in The Republic of Mauritius?

Interviewer :
Site :
Company:
Recording No:-

Section A: Demographics

A-1 *Age :* [ ]

A-2 *Qualification :* [ ]

A-3 *Sexe :* [ ]

A-4 *Ou travail couma apeller ?*

A-5 *Ou éna contrat travail qui oune signé ?*

A-6 *Quand contrat fini ? kifer ?*

A-7 *Revenue :*

A-8 *Cot oune travail avant ?*

A-9 *Comier lé temps ou travaille pour la compagnie cleaning?*

A-10 Explique nous ou l'heurs travail. Ena break ?

Section B: Employment Dimension of Decent Work

B-1 Saler ou gagnez la fin du mois assez pou ou ?

B-2 Apart ou saler, eski ou compagnie offert ou ban lé zot bénéfices (par exemple ; l'aide pou l'education zenfants, transport pou travaille, bonus performance etc.)?

B-3 Avec ou saler, ou capave acheté tou c'est qui ou bisin dans ou la cuisine ek dans ou la kaz en general ?

B-4 Ou contant travaille pour la compagnie ? Kifer ?

B-5 Paye ou overtime ? Quand ? Couma ?

B-6 Ki compagnie donne ou pou ou travail ?Ou gagne bottes et gants ou bien ou bisin ammené ou meme ?

B-7 D'apres ou, la compagnie li pren soin de ou la santé ? Si oui, comment li faire li ?

B-8 Quand ou absent eski ou saler li coupé ?

B-9 Ou ena le temps pour la famille pou alle promener ?

B-10 Comment ou trouve sa travail la, ena l'avenir pou ou la dans ?

B-11 Eski ena pression dans travaille ki ou faire?

B-12 Dan travail ki ou faire, ena patron sirveille ki ou pe faire ? Raconte un peu.

B-13 Patron ine déjà montrer ou comment faire travail la ?

B-14 Li ti facile pou adapter dans sa compagnie la ?

B-15 Eski ou compagnie répond à ou ban besoins et attentes? (Kan ou demand augmentation, facilités transport, congés etc) Couma ou faire sa ?

Section C: Workers' Rights Dimension of Decent Work

C-1 Ou conne ou ban droits en tant ki ène travailleur ?

C-2 Ou pensé ki ou ban droit travailleur li pé etre respecté par la companie cot ou travaille ?

C-3 Ou coné ki été ène syndicat ? Ou déjà membre ?

C-4 Ou déjà entendre ban formes de discrimination dans la compagnie ki ou été ?

C-5 La compagnie ine déjà force ou pou travaille ? Couma ?

C-6 Ena bann pause dans ou contrat.... ou bien ?

Section D: Social Protection Dimension of Decent Work

D-1 Eski ou ine déja blesser au travail? Ki ti arriver ? Ki patron ine faire ?

D-2 *Ou ine déja absent au travaille parceki ou ti malade plis ki ène semaine ? Patron kinne faire ?*

D-3 *Eski ou cone kit employé kine vine invalid dans travail ? Si oui, dire nou ki la compagnie ine faire pou li ?*

D-4 *Eski la compagnie ine déja faire kitsoze pour ou la famille (e.g. aide zenfants dans l'éducation etc.)*

Section E: Social Dialogue Dimension of Decent Work

E-1 *Nom ou syndicat (Si applicable).*

E-2 *Eski ou bann requettes ine déja être discuté dans ene reunion syndicat ? Eski ou ine gagne bann solutions?*

E-3 Eski ou finne déjà engage ou dans ène forme de grève pour régler ène problem au travail ?

E-4 Eski bann négotiations li faire zis ek management ou compagnie ek syndicat ou éna l'intervention gouvernment ?

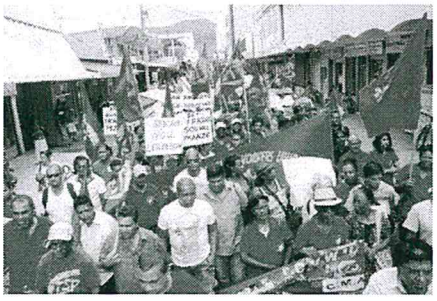
E-5 Quand ou ena quique complaintes / requettes pou faiire, avec ki sannela ou causer ?

E-6 Ou aller commités syndicats ?

E-7 Oune déjà negocier saler ek conditions travail ?

APPENDIX B

Unions' national manifestation



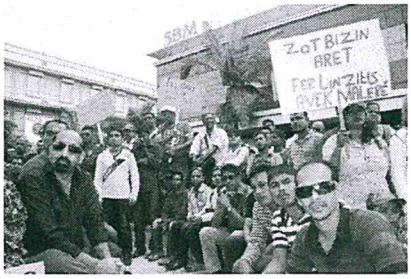
- On the 5th February 2017, the CTSP organized a pacific march with the theme « LamarspoukasssomeyGovernman ». All members of this union were grouped at Rose-Hill where they manifested for eight main areas of improvement, among which was the case of 329 cleaners who worked in school and are paid a salary of only Rs 1,500 – Rs 2,000 per month.

- In October 2015, the CTSP addressed an open letter to members of the Parliament for the query of 500 women cleaners working in primary and secondary government schools. The Contract has been awarded to a cleaning company for a period of 3 years (2012-2015) and costs Rs. 76,794,106.90. As part of the contract, the company is supposed to employ 2 Cleaners per school, but such was not the case as in almost all schools there is only one Cleaner who works 3 hours a day and gets a monthly salary of Rs. 1,500.

- In June 2011, the Workers' Union of the Ministry of Health and the Federation of Civil Service and Other Unions has had a press conference on the cleaning tasks in hospitals. They stated that there was only one lady who cleaned toilet from 7 am to 4 p.m. However, after 4 pm there was no cleaners to continuously keep the toilet clean. Nevertheless, the cleaning company, whose services were retained by the hospital, receives its money without the hospital administration having ensured that the work has been done.



- On June 2015, the CTSP, the Federation of Progressive Unions (FPU) and the United Front of Workers (FTU), manifested their frustrations, their disagreements and revolts regarding the low paying jobs and precarious work of cleaners in Mauritius.



- Continuing its campaign against precarious work, the CTSP manifested in front of the Government House in Port Louis. He denounced, once again, the 'unacceptable' conditions of work of cleaners in Mauritius. As stated by the President ReazChuttoo« *Zot pa gagn local leave, sick leave, boni fin d'annee, maternity leave ni compensation salariale. Sakzur absence coupe dansaRs 1 500 la* »

