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Original Research Article

Trade Union Organising and Recruitment System of Domestic Workers in Nigeria

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Abstract

The study examines the effect of organizing domestic workers on their recruitment system with a view to ameliorating the untoward activities of the recruitment agents and the employers in the informal sector. It adopted a survey design using structured questionnaire for data collection. The sample size of 189 was purposively selected through stratified random technique. The population of this study was made up of all the stakeholders involved in domestic workers organising; domestic workers, Industrial Unions in Nigeria, FIWON, Federal Ministry of Labour and Employment (Labour officers and Inspectors). Multistage sample was adopted to select the sample size proportional to the cluster of the population. Multiple regression analysis was employed to establish the relationship between organising domestic workers into association and their recruitment system. The result revealed a positive relationship between organising domestic workers and the recruitment system. The study also revealed that organising domestic workers significantly impacted on recruitment of domestic workers. The study concluded that organising domestic workers will be a right step in the right direction because it will minimise the activities of illegal agents recruiting domestic workers, awkward treatment by the employer, and control the routes through which domestic workers are recruited into various households. It was recommended that government should put in place enabling laws and processes that will transform domestic workers into the formal sector.

Keywords: Domestic workers, Recruitment system, Organising, Informal economy, Employers.

JEL Classification Codes: J500, J510, J580

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The complex system of recruitment that appears to have characterised the employment of domestic workers has become a veritable source of anxiety. In many unorganised environment, domestic workers appear to be associated with complex behavioural pattern which ranges from stealing, robbery, maltreatment of client children, conniving with criminals outside their employers to defraud many households. There are also the issues of resigning without notice (D'Souza, 2010). Many employers have gone to work only to return to notice that their domestic workers are gone without notice. In Nigeria, the recruitment of domestic workers seems to be taken for granted. Therefore many employers do not define the employment relationship from the commencement of work with the domestic workers. This may be associated with the employers' desperation when they want to recruit domestic workers.

Also, it seems that the domestic work sector is associated with intricate recruitment processes which are dominated by middle men (D'Souza, 2010). Most of these middlemen appear to be in the business illegally. Some may not have experience in employment and recruitment procedures, many of them are unlikely to be registered with the Corporate Affairs Commission and may not have recruiting licenses that qualify them to recruit workers for individuals and organisations. Studies indicate that many of these recruiting agents appear not to have offices or official contact places. Many of domestic workers confirmed that they met their recruiting agents at the bus top for the first time. Most time when the intending applicants put calls across to the recruiting agents for work, they often arrange for their first meeting at assessable bus tops probably

close to the agents (Ngwama, 2016). Therefore, crises of confidence exist for both the domestic workers and their employers because of this undefined employment relationship and labour contract.

The notable aspect of the complex employment recruiting processes is the varied sources of recruitment that compound the employment relationship in the domestic work sector. Ngwama (2016) in his empirical study of domestic workers organising in Nigeria established the major sources of recruitment in Nigeria. The finding of the study indicates that 36.3% got the domestic job through private recruiting agents, 4.4% obtained the job through outsourcing firms, and 15.9% got domestic work through personal contact with other domestic workers. Many domestic workers have their own social network of recruiting potential job seeker into domestic work: These may include mostly their relatives and friends who are searching for job. Others who got the job through family relations are 11.5%, through friends are 23.9%, and 8.0% through their employers directly.

This domestic work sector is concomitant with the absence of organised process of recruitment which is common in the informal economy. The workers are recruited by the agents from various outlets without going through a defined recruitment process and therefore, there are no details about their training and work experiences. To cap it up system of recruitment is the dominant feature of the illegal, uneducated agents and human traffickers, who supply these workers to those that require their services without adequate background information about the domestic workers (D'Souza, 2010). In the same vein, most of

these third party agents appear not to have any working relationship with these domestic workers and their employers. Consequently, this may have provided the basis for exploitation of each party on the part of both the domestic workers and their employers. These recruiting agents seem to tacitly stand against organising domestic workers because of their activities which seem to have sinister motive and are often believed to be the key factor behind multifarious behavioural attitude of domestic workers climaxing in several criminalities such as larceny, pilfering, ill-treatment and cruelty on their employers and the members of their households (Komolafe, 2015).

Instances of negative consequences of domestic workers include: the recent incidents in Nigeria involving, the kidnapping of three children in Surulere, Lagos State in June, 2015, the killing of the former Vice-Chancellor of Federal University of Technology Akure (FUTA), Ondo State by his domestic workers; driver and steward, and the killing of a High Court judge in Ogun State in 2014 by her domestic workers (Ojenagnon, 2015; Olokun, 2015). Domestic workers lack basic organising capacity because of their location in the informal economy. As a result, they subsequently may not be able to influence public policy to improve access to basic workplace rights, opportunities for occupational development and basic social protection including life insurance, health insurance, occupational health and safety, old age and disability pension programmes as well as child care facilities (Fajana, 2010; Smales, 2010; Ratina, 2013). These create opportunity for exploitation by these recruiting agents and employers. D'Sousa (2010, p.11) notes that "many workers from within the country are informally recruited and do not have employment contract. In the country where the demand for domestic worker is not reflected in the national policy, flow of undocumented workers continues with many being smuggled or

even trafficked for domestic work". D'Sousa (2010) and Ramires-Machado (2003) also suggest that relevant law and regulation covering minimum standard for employment contract should be enforced. Also, control and licensing of recruiting agents, complaint mechanism and means of redressing the case of female migrant domestic workers are vital components towards a sound recruitment system in the domestic work sector. These should include regulating their recruitments, educate workers about their rights, provide supports and services, assist return and address the social and economic root causes of migration. These policies and practices have the potentials of protecting, preventing and controlling of illegal recruitment, trafficking, exploitation and abuses (D'Sousa 2010; Ramires-Machado, 2003). Organising seems to be essential in creating socially acceptable recruitment pattern that may bring domestic workers out from the realm of invisibility which makes them vulnerable to exploitation to visibility, where their economic contributions are recognised, appreciated and their rights enforced.

Therefore, this study sought to assess the effect of organising domestic workers on their recruitment system. A null hypothesis; organising domestic worker does not significantly affect the recruitment, was also postulated and tested to advance the course of the study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Trade Union and Domestic worker

Trade union organising appears to be highly imperative towards taming the tide of exploitation associated with domestic work. This may also demand a legal framework that will enable trade unions, federations and NGOs to undertake this task. The task seems to be challenging because majority of domestic workers are employed through private recruiting agents. These agents seems to be operating without licenses from

government's regulating agencies. Also, there are other difficulties associated with organising of the domestic workers which is imbedded in its unique features and characteristics. Hondagen and Reigos (1997) and Kapinga,(2008) have contended that the hurdles to organising paid domestic workers are engrained in the jobs; it is not related to the workers as it may be. The intricacies are compounded by the nature of the work the does not allowed domestic workers to come together to deliberate the challenges connected to the conditions of their work.

Domestic Worker and Employment Contract

Ngwama (2016) established that majority of domestic workers had no letter of contract which is contrary to the provision of Labour Act of many countries. In Nigeria for instance, his finding showed that 18.3% of domestic workers got employment letter before they started work, 9.2% of them got appointment letter after they started work and the majority of them which was 72.5% of the respondents seemed not to have any employment letter at all. This is reversal of the order of the Nigerian Labour Act. This may be the likely factor behind the composite employment relationship between domestic workers and their employers and the employers seem to explore this gap to the disadvantages of the domestic workers. Many employers have used substandard labour contract as a means of threat to domestic workers for terminations should they resist their attempt of maltreatment on them.

Organising appears to be essential because it may have the potential to reduce exploitation and abuse on the part of the employers and domestic workers. Moreover, this may likely minimise security risk, kidnapping stealing etc. associated with domestic workers. Organising seems to be indispensable towards regulating recruitment of domestic workers in accordance with International Labour Organisations Conventions No 189 of 2011

and Recommendation 201 as this may likely abate exploitation and other excesses attendant with domestic workers' employers and domestic workers in their work relationship.

Recruitment in Domestic Work Sector

The issue of "Labour Recruiter" is addressed in the Forced Labour (Supplementary Measures) Recommendation, No 203; it can be referred to both private and public entities that offer labour recruitment services (Jones, 2015). Article (1) indicates that private entities can take many forms: those registered under commercial or other law that might be formal and those not registered, which is informal, this group appears to operate in the informal sector of the economy which is less regulated. Private employment agencies fall within this definition of labour recruiters as provided by Convention No. 181(ILO, 2015, & Jones, 2015).

Due to a great upsurge in the demand of domestic service sector, there has been increasing number of "placement" agencies managed by private entrepreneurs and voluntary agencies. The demand of domestic workers has given rise to increased number of recruiting agencies/ individuals controlling the supply of domestic workers especially in urban cities (Tsikata, 2016)

The placement agencies play an intermediary role between the employers and employees, they have specific terms and conditions that govern the relationship with the employers and workers, and they charge commission from the domestic workers. Some individual agencies take employment fees from the workers and some also collect from the employers of the domestic workers (Tsikata, 2011).

Some of the recruiting agents seem to also collect fees both from the employers and domestic workers. Absence of regulation appears to be the major reasons for the exploitation and gives it attraction to quite a

number of individuals to undertake this business (Pande & Frantz, 2013). Some of the placement agencies in domestic sector seem to be informal in operation and do not have organised system of recruitment. Agencies could be classified into categories in the informal sector, however, the degrees and parameter of informality varies across agencies (Neetha, 2009).

3.0 METHODOLOGY

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study is situated within the framework of three theories Human Resources, Human Capital and Organising theory to explain the recruitment process of domestic workers.

The major tenet of Human Resources Theory is centred on method of recruitment and selection and the use of interview, psychometric examinations and its outcome on the employment selection process (Korsten, 2003 and Jones, Kalami and Kauhanen, 2006). The authors presented the dichotomy of the recruitment process which may be internal or external and the premise on which the organisation make recruitment decisions. The recruitment decision process appears to be dependent on firms' recruitment policies, decision making, job postings and details, advertising, selection, training and interviewing process (Korsten, 2003). Establishing fair recruitment policies may be fundamental in sharpening and managerial objectives (Jones, Kalami and Kauhanen, 2006). However, in the informal sector the process of recruitment does not follow a defined system as found in the formal organisation. The system of recruitment in the informal sector where domestic workers are located is controlled by informal recruiting agents. Also, recruitment in this segment does not follow organised pattern because little or no skills are required as requisite for domestic work. Even, when the domestic workers have great skill, the employers do not reckon with it, as these skills are not the

requirement for the job. For immigrant domestic workers, most employers do not recognise their skill and educational qualifications because they seem to be adjudged below the standard of education in the countries where they travel to work.

Organising becomes of strategic importance towards recognising the potential embedded in the informal workers. A good recruitment is centered on discovering the potentials of the job applicants that will contribute to organisational growth. For domestic workers, their skills may need to be recognised because they are essential to the labour market development (Jones, *et al.* 2006)

Armstrong & Baron, 2002; Armstrong, 2006 pointed out that the ability to identify and deploy people where they will function maximally with their collective skills, abilities, and experience, are germane to organisational success and positions organisation for competitive advantage in the competitive business environment. This is the premise of the human capital theory, it underlines that people possess innate abilities, behavior and personal energy and these elements make up the human capital they bring to their work, (Davenport, 1999; Armstrong, 2006). The skill must be recognised. Domestic workers with their skills contribute to the expansion of labour market activities and because their voice is not heard, they are not covered by most countries labour legislation thereby relegating them to the informal economy. This has created challenges for the workers toward organise themselves into workers' organisations or trade union of their choice.

Heery, Simms, Simpson, Delbridge, and Salmon (2000) proposed organising model as means of helping domestic workers overcome their barriers towards full realisation of their innate potentials. This is based on the premise that their talents of the organizing theory and its practical applications have the potentials of

addressing the key and fundamental issues like recruitment system of domestic workers which makes them vulnerable to exploitation by their employers.

Any management process revolves around recruitment and failure in recruitment may lead to difficulties and unwanted barriers for any company, including untoward effects on its profitability and inappropriate degrees of staffing or employee skills (Jones, *et al.* 2006).

Davenport (1999) comments that people possess innate abilities, behaviours, personal energy and have to make choice how they are going to deploy these abilities as they wish, without recourse to their employers. They own this capital and decide when, how and where they will use it; work appears to be a two-way altercation of worth, not a one-way exploitation of an asset by its owner (Armstrong, 2009). The human capital theory considers people as assets and stresses that the investment in people by organisations will bring worthwhile returns and that is why Barney (1991) associated it with Resource Based View of the organisations. Trade union model of organising has generated a lot of debate base on its strength and weaknesses, however, researches indicate that organising model has some advantages, because it promotes systematic, proactive, a well thought out campaign which help the union to get their goals achieved. Organising encourages workers participation in the

campaign that mostly affects them, of which the methods of recruitment which is controlled by illegal agents makes the domestic work highly exploitative by the employers. These employers connive with the recruiting agents and human traffickers to foster their trade in order to procure cheap labour. It is also, important in promoting both equity and equality with, it compels the support from workers and given them sense of investment in day to day function of the union itself.

Research Design

The study employed survey method. Using a Multi-stage sampling technique, two hundred and twenty two respondents were selected. In the first stage, purposive sampling method was used to draw information from the relevant respondents. In the second stage. The respondents were segmented into four homogeneous groups that could provide relevant information on domestic workers. They included; ministry of Labour, labour Union, FIWON, Labour officers. The third stage was selection of the sample. The proportion drawn from each stratum was based on the magnitude of each homogeneous group. In the fourth stage, structured questionnaire was used to collect information from the respondents. Data collected were analysed using both table, percentage and multiple regression analysis..

4.0 ESTIMATION RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Table1a. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents (Domestic workers)

Gender of domestic workers	Frequency	%
Male	25	20.8
Female	95	79.2
Age of domestic workers		
10-20 years	10	8.3
21-30 years	89	74.2
31-40 years	14	11.7
51-60 years	6	5.0
60 and above	1	.8

Educational qualification

Did not go to school at all	5	4.2
Primary school	13	10.8
Secondary school	79	65.8
NCE/OND/HND	23	19.1

Marital status

Married	27	22.5
Single	86	71.7
Divorced	3	2.5
Widow/ Widower	4	3.4

Length of service

Less than 12 months	37	30.8
1-3 years	41	34.2
4-6 years	35	29.2
7-9 years	7	5.8

Source: Field Survey 2017ss

Table 1b: FIWON, Ministry of Labour and Employment, and Industrial Union secretaries

Categories of respondents	Frequency	%
FIWON	6	8.7
Ministry of Labour and Productivity	31	44.9
Trade union leaders	32	46.4
Gender		
Male	43	62.3
Female	26	37.7
Age of respondents		
18-30 years	4	5.8
31-40 years	15	21.7
41-50 years	26	37.7
51 years and above	24	34.8
Marital status		
Single	8	11.6
Married	59	85.52
Widows/widowers	2	2.9
Work experience		
1-5 years	13	18.8
6-10 years	9	13.1
11-15 years	9	13.1
16-20 years	13	18.8
20 years and above	25	36.2
Educational qualification		
NCE/OND	17	18.3
HND/B.SC.	34	57.3
Masters	16	21.4
P. hD and Other	2	1.5

Source: Field Survey, 2017

The summary is in two sections first, the socio-demographic of domestic workers, followed by Federation of Informal Workers Organisation of Nigeria (FIWON), Ministry of labour participants, and labour union members. The variables considered in this study were age, gender, educational level, years of experience. Table 1a below shows that the majority of the respondents 74.2% and 11.7% belong to age group 21 – 30 years and 31 – 40 years respectively, this is followed by age 10 – 20 years representing 10% and 51-60 years and 60 years above of 5.8% and 0.8%. Most of the domestic workers were female 74.2% while male counterparts had 20.8% representation. The implication of this study indicates that there were more female domestic workers which showed that there were gender based differences that are prevalent in the profession. The table also shows that 4.2% of these respondents have not attended any formal or informal education, 10.8% had primary six leaving certificate examination, while majority of the domestic workers had SSCE, representing 65.8%, and only 19.1% reported to have either OND/NEC/HND. On length of service, 30.84% have put less than 12 months, 34.2% reported 1 – 3 years while 29.2% have served between 4-6 years and only 5.8% have put between 7 – 9 years above. The implication is that the respondents were highly experienced. This would enable them to provide relevant information for the study. Finally, 71.7% of the domestic workers were single, 22.5% were married and 3.4% were widow/widower.

Table 1b shows the total number of the respondents, FIWON was 8.7%. The

Ministry of Labour and Employment was 44.9%, Industrial Union Organising Secretaries was 46.4%. The gender of the respondents without the domestic workers indicates that 62.3% were males while the majority with 37.7% was females. It also shows that male participants were greater than female participants among this component of the sample unlike the domestic workers in this study.

Table 1b., shows the age distribution of the respondents, 5.8% of the respondents were between the ages of 18-30, 21.7% of the respondents falls between 31-40, 37.7% of the respondents which constitute the majority were between 41-50 years and 34.8% fall between the ages of 51 and above. The mean age distribution of the respondents was 2.46. The data in table 2 shows the marital status of the respondents, 11.6% of the respondents were single, majority of the respondents, 85.5% were married, and 2.9% were widows /widowers. The descriptive table 1b, also shows the work experience of the respondents and other groups of participants apart from the domestic workers: 18.8% indicated that they had 1-5 years' experience on their job, this was followed by 13.1% that have put in 6-10 years on their jobs, another 13.1% had acquired 11-15 years' experience, 18.8% spent 16-20 years and 36.2% had worked for 20 years and above. The distribution of the respondents by highest educational qualification shows that 18.3% had NCE/OND; the majority 57.3% had first degree and its equivalent (HND/BSC). Also, 21.4% had Master's degree and 1.5% had a Ph.D degree and other certificates. From the analysis therefore, majority of the respondents had first degree (HND/B.Sc.)

Table 2: Opinions of Domestic Workers on Unionizing of Domestic Workers

Variables	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean
Organising Domestic Worker						
Political advocacy create Sense of hostility between Union and employer	63 (33.3%)	65 (34.3%)	31(16.4%)	20 (10.6%)	10 (5.3%)	2.20
Provision of transport fare To organising meetings will encourage domestic workers.	60 (31.7%)	73 (38.6%)	18 (9.5%)	30 (15.9%)	6 (3.2%)	2.10
Lack of time to attend/organising meeting by domestic workers	74 (39.2%)	61 (23.3%)	24 (12.7%)	20 (10.6%)	10 (5.3%)	2.11
Lack of financial resources	49 (25.9%)	67 (35.4%)	37 (19.6%)	25 (13.2%)	11 (5.8%)	2.39
Absence of accommodation to Accommodate expelled domestic workers.	54 (28.6%)	70 (37.0%)	27 (14.3%)	25 (13.2%)	13 (6.9%)	2.33
Visiting employers homes to reach out to domestic workers	38 (20.1%)	36 (19.0%)	35(18.5%)	67 (35.4%)	13(6.9%)	2.9
Employment through recruitment agent	77 (41.0%)	72 (38.2%)	18 (9.6%)	9 (4.8%)	12 (6.4%)	1.97
Recruited without labour contract	76 (40.2%)	80 (42.3%)	17 (9.0%)	10 (5.3%)	5 (2.6%)	1.87

Source: Field survey 2017

Key: SA: Strongly agree, A: Agree, U: Undecided, D: Disagree, SA: Strongly disagree

The opinion on table 3 shows responses on organising domestic workers to form or joining unions. The respondents reported from strongly agreed to strongly disagreed, 33.3% strongly agreed, 34.3% agreed, 16.4% were undecided, 10.6% disagreed and 5.3% strongly disagreed. Despite that many reported in agreement, the mean response rate and the average distance from the mean (1.12) shows that there was in their response. Thus there is no degree of agreement in this statement. The table also shows that 31.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that there was no provision of transport facilities for meeting to encourage domestic workers, 38.6% agreed and 9.5% were undecided 15.9 disagreed and 3.20% strongly disagreed. The mean and standard deviation of the response show that there was no degree of agreement in this statement. It was also revealed that 39.2% of respondents strongly agreed that domestic workers do not have time for

organising and attending meetings, 23.3% agreed, 12.7% were undecided, 10.6 disagreed, and 5.3% strongly disagreed. The mean and standard deviation of this statement showed that there was a high disagreement in their responses. Table 3 also reveals that 25.9% strongly agreed that lack of financial resources of the union is strategic towards organising, 34.5% agreed, 9.6 were undecided, 13.2% disagreed and 5.8% strongly disagreed, the mean of 2.33 and standard deviation of 1.17 shows that there was no degree of disagreement in their statement. It can be observed that 28.6% of the respondents strongly agreed that absence of accommodation to house is missed workers affect the organising of domestic workers, 37.0% agreed, 14 3% undecided, 13.2% disagreed while 6.9% strongly disagreed with this statement. The mean rate of this responses show however, there was no degree of agreement in their responses. It can also be observed that from table 3

that 20.1%, of the respondent strongly that organisers do not have access to employers home for personal contact with domestic worker to persuade them to come for organising, 19% agreed, 18.5% were undecided, 35.4% disagreed and 9.6% strongly disagreed. The mean and standard deviation of the response indicate that there was no degree of agreement about this statement. On recruitment system, 41.0% of the respondent strongly agreed, that recruiting agents do not support their participation in their activities, 38.3% agreed, 9.6% were undecided, 4.8% disagreed and 6.4% strongly disagreed. The mean response rate (1.97) shows there was a degree of agreement in their response. Still,

on recruitment, 40.2% strongly agree, that domestic workers do not understand labour contract governing employment relationship 42.3% agree, 9.0% were undecided, 5.3% disagree and 2.65 strongly disagree. The mean response rate 1.87 and standard deviation of 0.96 shows that there was a degree of agreement in this response.

Inferential Statistics

Hypothesis

H₀: Organising domestic workers into a union will not significantly impact on the system of recruitment.

H₁: Organising domestic workers into a union will significantly impact on the system of recruitment.

Regression Analysis Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.451 ^a	.203	.185	1.01459

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	47.486	4	11.872	11.533	.000 ^b
	Residual	186.320	181	1.029		
	Total	233.806	185			

a. Dependent Variable: Recruitment System

b. Predictors: (Constant), Publicadvocacy, financialsup, meetings, visiting

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.961	.255		3.770	.000
	Visiting	-.020	.072	-.029	-.284	.777
	Meetings	.165	.060	.278	2.752	.007
	Financialsup	.174	.036	.383	4.793	.000
	Publicadvocacy	-.135	.037	-.309	-3.630	.000

Coefficients^a

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)		
1 Visiting	.432	2.314
Meetings	.432	2.312
Financialsup	.690	1.450
Publicadvocacy	.607	1.648

Table 3: Regression result: Effect of Unionising Domestic Workers on Recruitment System

	B	β	t	sig.
(Constant)	.961		3.770	.000
Visiting	-.020	-.029	-.284	.777
Meetings	.165	.278	2.752	.007
Financial support	.174	.383	4.793	.000
Public advocacy	-.135	-.309	-3.630	.000

R=.451^a, R²=.203, F(4,181) = 11.533, P < 0.05

Multiple regression analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between organising domestic workers and recruitment. In order not to violate the assumptions underlying the application of regression analysis, colinearity diagnostics statistics (variance inflation factor and tolerance were computed. The result shows that variance inflation factor (VIF) ranges from 1.450 to 2.314 which are far lower than the upper limit of ten (10) and the Tolerance values ranges from 0.432 to 0.690 which are higher than 0.1, this implies that the explanatory variable is not strongly correlated with other independent variable hence, there is not a problem of multi-colinearity Douglas, Williams and Samuel, 2010) the table also shows that, F(4,181) = 11.533, P < 0.05), indicating the model is fit to predict the dependent variable. Besides, the joint effects of independent variables (organising efforts) on recruiting domestic workers is statistically significant (FC4, 181) = 11.533, P < 0.05, R = 0.451, R² = 0.203 adjusted R² = 0.185. Therefore meetings, financial support, and public advocacy jointly and independently influenced recruitment system of domestic

workers. About 20% of the variation in recruitment system was accounted for by the independent variables. The result also shows relative contribution of each of the explanatory variables on recruitment system (table 4V) visiting (0.029, P<0.05), meetings (0.276, P < 0.05), Financial support (0.383, P < 0.05) and public advocacy (0.309, P < 0.05) respectively. Public advocacy however, has inverse relation with the dependent variable under study. Meanwhile, among the independent variable, visiting does not significantly impact on recruitment system of domestic workers. The null hypothesis was rejected F(4,181) = 11.533, P < 0.05) and we concluded that organising domestic workers significantly impacts on its recruitment. This finding is in concomitant with D’Soussa (2010, p.11) that “many workers from within the country are informally recruited and do not have employment contract. In the country where demand for domestic worker is not reflected in the national policy, flow of undocumented workers continues with many being smuggled or even trafficked for domestic work”. D’Souza (2010) and Ramires-

Machado (2003) also suggest that relevant law and regulation covering minimum standard for employment contract, control and licensing of recruiting agents, complaint mechanism and means of redress the case of female migrant domestic workers which includes regulating their recruitments, educate workers about their rights, provide supports and services, assist return and address the social and economic root causes of migration. They make up good policies and practices from protecting, preventing and controlling of illegal recruitment, trafficking, exploitation and abuses (D'Sousa 2010; Ramires-Machado, 2003)

5. Conclusion

The study concluded that trade unions organising will impact positively on the recruitment system of domestic workers. this will be done by deploying union members who will be committed to advance the rights of the workers. Also, building strong network, effective leaderships, instilling confidence among the domestic workers through organising meeting, providing financial assistance which will aid domestic workers to participate in organising meeting. Furthermore, there is need for personal contact, which will likely involve spending time talking to workers about their precarious situation, this also, demands a participatory role on the part of the workers in strengthening and responding to the effort of the trade unions and other organisations to facilitate their struggles.

The financial resources is central as a determinant of the strength of organising and the relative size of the organising function. The organising model will likely demand commitment of resources and the use of media (TV, radio, newspapers etc.) for a proactive campaign. Engaging in public advocacy will also educate members of the public and policy makers on the need of legislative support for organising of domestic workers. Organising remain one of the most viable options that can positively

impact the system of recruitment in domestic work sector.

Recommendations

1. The trade union should intensify campaign through public advocacy to educate and gain attention of the public on the plight and exploitations of domestic workers.
2. The trade unions federations organising domestic workers should provide financial assistance to aid domestic workers towards participating in organising meetings. Many domestic workers earn salary which is below minimum wage.
3. They government should intensify its efforts towards tackling of illegal recruitment, trafficking, exploitation and abuses in domestic work sector.
4. There is the need to provide minimum standard for employment contract, control and licensing of recruiting agents.

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