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INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG TRADE UNION COMMITMENT, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB SATISFACTION AND TRADE UNION PARTICIPATION

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Faculty of Commerce
University of Cape Town
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DECLARATION

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

Signature: signature removed …….. Date: 14.05.2006 ……..

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ABSTRACT

The issue of commitment has received extensive research through the years yet inconsistencies still prevail. This research investigated the relationships between organizational commitment, trade union commitment, job satisfaction and trade union participation. A survey based on the work of Meyer and Allen (1997) was used to collect data. The sample consisted of 90 participants who were members of the same trade union. The main findings indicate that trade union commitment is positively correlated to union participation and it explains 34 % of variance in participation. No significant difference based on gender was found in the sample which is inconsistent with available literature. Organizational and union commitment exhibit a significant positive relationship as do job satisfaction and union commitment as well as job satisfaction and union participation. Organizational commitment and union participation exhibited a non-significant result. Dual commitment was also apparent in the sample. Further research is advisable to ascertain fully on these relationships within the South African context.

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CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Introduction

Trade unions are not a new organizational phenomenon either globally or in South Africa. Recognized trade unions have been in existence in South Africa since the mid-1920s and continue to exist today (Patel, 1994; Wood & Harcourt, 1998). However, the union movement has undergone radical changes from its early beginnings in the 1920s and unions in the 21st century bear little resemblance to their predecessors. Whereas the first trade unions where state controlled and racially exclusive of Black and Coloured people, the new unions are inclusive of all groups and have had a major impact not only on the labour relations in the country but also on its political affairs (Grossman, 1996; Grossman, 1997; Patel; Wood & Harcourt). This is due to the union involvement in the mass strike actions of the 1970s and the 1980s (Grossman). As a result membership of trade unions in South Africa had steadily grown throughout the 1980s and early 1990s whereas it progressively declined in most of the developed countries at this time (Patel; Wood & Harcourt).

Today South Africa still retains a strong union presence and has a large union membership across the country. By 1995 it was estimated that South Africa had more than three million union members in its various unions (Marais, 1998).

This literature overview will examine the situation with regards to the relationship between employers and trade unions. Issues pertaining to commitment and satisfaction levels of employees will be attended to closely, as there are some contested research findings in this regard.

1.1. Trade unions defined

Trade unions are employee organizations consisting of employed, wage-earning individuals who by joining a trade union expect to improve and/or maintain their working existence in the company they work for (Finnemore, 1999; Grogan, 2003; Jackson & Schuler, 2000).

Phrased differently, workers join trade unions due to the fact that they expect the trade union and its elected leaders to bargain collectively for better working conditions,

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employment terms and improved pay amongst others (Bartol, Martin, Tein & Matthews, 2001; Finnemore, 1999; Grogan, 2003). The important factor is therefore that through joining unions, individuals are afforded collective power which they would lack if they were not union members (Jackson & Schuler, 2000).

It should be noted that the trade union as an organization differs significantly from the employer organization that the employee works in. Employees working in organizations are voluntary members of the organization and get financially remunerated in return for their labour (Thacker, Fields & Barclay, 1990). On the other hand, those same employees who are union members pay union dues and membership fees in order to enjoy the benefits gained from union membership (Hammer & Avgar, 2005). The union members as a result of membership to the union also stand to lose money as a result of strikes and stay-away activity (Hammer & Avgar).

1.2. Brief history of South African trade unions

Due to the policies of racial inequality which were apparent in South Africa prior to the 1990s, the union movement has generally had a turbulent past (Adler, 2000; Grossman, 1996; Grossman, 1997). The first registered unions appeared post-1924 after the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1924 was passed (Finnemore, 1999; Wood & Harcourt, 1998).

This Act was highly discriminatory however, in that only White unions were recognized and allowed to participate in collective bargaining with employers. Black workers were therefore marginalized and enjoyed little protection (Baskin, 1993; Finnemore, 1999; Grogan, 2003; Grossman, 1997; Wood & Harcourt, 1998). Even though they were allowed to form and join unions, these unions were not recognized by the state and were not allowed to bargain with employers or engage in strike action (Baskin; Finnemore; Wood & Harcourt). Basically, they were trade unions in name only and could obtain no benefits for their members.

The policy of racial segregation and job reservation continued with the election of the apartheid government in 1948 (Grogan, 2003; Finnemore, 1999). Through the 1950s and the 1960s discriminatory policies continued, Black workers were oppressed, and their unions were negated recognition by the state and employers (Finnemore; Kraak, 1993).

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The 1956 Industrial Conciliation Act exacerbated the situation by denying registration of racially mixed unions. By the 1970s the situation had reached boiling point and the dissatisfaction of the oppressed workers was expressed on a wide scale in the strike of 1973 in Durban (Barrett & Mullins, 1990; Grossman, 1996; Grossman, 1997; Kraak, 1993). The strike occurred over minimum wage increases and intensified until close to one hundred thousand workers were involved (Wood & Harcourt, 1998). As a result of the strike employers had to concede to the workers' demands and the unregistered unions realized that widespread strike action could allow them to bargain for better conditions.

Massive strike actions continued, and by 1977 the Wiehahn Commission was appointed by the government to establish plans for easing the increasing tension between workers, employers and the state (Barrett & Mullins, 1990; Finnemore, 1999; Grogan, 2003; Wood, 2001). The commission recommended many concessions and with the Labour Relations Act of 1979, African workers were allowed to join unions and participate in collective bargaining (Baskin, 1993; Finnemore; Grogan; Wood & Harcourt, 1998). The unions which were until then independent and unrecognized were allowed to register and enter into negotiations with their respective employers (Barrett & Mullins; Wood, 2002). Mistrust and hostility were still rife however, even though progress had been made. In many instances some of the concessions were overruled by the labour courts and hence the overall goal of the Wiehahn commission was ultimately not fulfilled as labour unrest continued in the country (Wood & Harcourt).

This was largely due to the fact that the unions and their members were striving towards more than just economic gains. Political factors played a crucial role as unions wanted political and social reforms in the country and not just better wages (Wood, 2002). The result was the alignment of the trade union movement with the national liberation movement by 1984, the formation of the Council of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) in 1985 and National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU) in 1987 (Barrett & Mullins, 1990; Finnemore, 1999; Grossman, 1996; Kraak, 1993; Wood & Harcourt, 1998; Wood).

Due to the continuance of opposition, stay-away activity, and strike action, repressive measures were undertaken by the state and by 1988 the Labour Relations

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Amendment Act was passed (Grossman, 1996; Kraak, 1993; Wood, 2001). This Act severely diminished workers' rights and prohibited many labour practices previously seen as legal (Barrett & Mullins, 1990; Grossman; Wood & Harcourt, 1998).

The worker movement responded by instigating a National Defiance Campaign in 1989. By this time it became obvious that labour unrest, combined with foreign sanctions were seriously hindering the economy of the county (Wood & Harcourt, 1998; Wood, 2001). Due to this, certain members of the government and the business community sought reforms to avoid future unrest, restore business confidence and improve overall conditions in the country (Ginsburg & Webster, 1997; Grossman, 1996; Grossman, 1997; Wood & Harcourt).

This eventually resulted in many milestone decisions, the most important of which were the legalization of previously illegal movements such as the African National Congress (ANC) and the South African Communist Party (SACP) amongst others (Barrett & Mullins, 1990; Finnemore, 1999; Ginsburg & Webster, 1997; Wood, 2002). Many political prisoners were released, and the process of reform and democratization of the country had begun.

By the mid 1990s a democratically elected government was in power, and the repressive apartheid regime and its laws were revoked. The National, Economic, Development, and Labour Council (NEDLAC) was formed to serve as a forum for labour, business and government representatives, and it allowed labour to take an active part in shaping the governmental polices of the new South Africa (Adler, 2000; Finnemore, 1999; Wood & Harcourt, 1998; Wood, 2001).

As a result new labour statutes were instituted and South African workers received many rights which they were previously denied. Entering the 21st century, South Africa had some of the most progressive labour laws protecting employees and their rights to strike and bargain.

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1.3. Why workers join trade unions

There are multiple reasons which will influence a worker's decision to join a trade union or not. These reasons are influenced by both economic and political factors (Finnemore, 1999; Guest & Conway, 2004).

As became apparent in the definition from the previous section, one of the main reasons is that employees may wish to address instrumental issues and may have grievances against their employers (Grogan, 2003; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Hodson, 1997; Snape, Redman & Chan, 2000). They are dissatisfied with an aspect of the job or certain conditions of employment. As a result of this, rather then tackling the organization on their own, the individual employee decides to become a member of a trade union (Finnemore, 1999; Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2002; Guest & Conway, 2004; Snape et al). This ensures that the employee has backing from like-minded individuals who may have similar grievances and are pursuing similar and workplace-related goals. The issue is therefore one of power, or the lack of, in case of the individual worker (Grobler et al; Hodson; Jackson & Schuler, 2000).

1.3.1. Economic factors

Workers, by becoming members of a trade union, hope to address economic issues related to their working conditions, wage levels, and benefits they may be entitled to from the organizations they work for (Haberfeld, 1995; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Finnemore, 1999).

The central issue appears to be one of instrumentality, where workers join trade unions because they feel that the union can obtain tangible results for them through negotiations with employers (Guest & Conway, 2004; Haberfeld, 1995; Jackson & Schuler, 2000). If, on the other hand, employees perceive the trade union as weak and ineffective, then they will be unlikely to join, or will exit the union as there will be no tangible benefits for them (Grobler et al., 2002; Klandermans, 1986).

Closely related to the above is the issue of job security as well as regulations that are governing the employment relationship in the country (Grobler et al., 2002; Guest & Conway, 2004; Haberfeld, 1995). This is especially the case in South Africa where the levels of unemployment are extremely high. As a result of this, workers join trade unions

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in order to protect their jobs and improve their working conditions (Guest & Conway; Haberfeld). The collective voice offered to individuals through their union membership also offers protection from dismissals and retrenchments (Finnemore, 1999; Guest & Conway). Even if these do occur, trade unions go through lengthy negotiations with employers in order to minimize dismissals and the effects of retrenchments, or to give workers enough time to prepare for the job market.

This might also indicate that unions will also try to negotiate access to training programmes and skill attainment for their members to increase their chances of obtaining jobs if layoffs do occur (Guest & Conway, 2004). This is a necessity in order to obtain better working conditions for workers.

Interestingly enough, Guest and Conway (2004) report that union members feel less secure in their jobs than do employees who are not unionized even though union membership is supposed to offer them protection. Fewer dismissals are reported amongst the unionized employees and yet they appear to be less secure (Guest & Conway).

1.3.2. Political factors

Economic reasons, even though of high importance, are not the sole reasons for workers to join trade unions (Newton & Shore, 1992; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995). Political factors may also be an important antecedent of union membership, especially in countries experiencing political oppression as was the case in South Africa prior to the mid 1990s (Haberfeld, 1995; Kester & Sidibe, 1997; Patel, 1994; Wood & Harcourt, 1998).

The reasoning behind this was the fact that the oppressed black workers saw the trade union movement as an opportunity to vent their frustrations with an unjust regime and try to obtain better working and living conditions for themselves and their family members (Finnemore, 1999; Patel, 1994; Wood, 2002). As a result of this, union membership grew exponentially in South Africa whilst it decreased in most developed economies (Wood).

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1.3.3. Social factors

Social needs may determine whether individuals join trade unions or not and hence membership is not based purely on economic or political factors (Finnemore, 1999; Grobler et al., 2002).

The need for social acceptance may be influential, as may the drive for self-fulfilment (Finnemore, 1999). Trade unions may provide their members with opportunities for training and skill expansion which they may not have had if they were not union members. During the apartheid era, this was the only way for many Black union activists to develop their skills and knowledge (Finnemore). Social interaction may also be a reason to join a trade union as trade union membership allows for social contact between individuals through various formal and informal activities related to the union (Grobler et al., 2002; Tetrick, 1995). Societal pressures from colleagues, friends and family members may also be a factor influencing employees to join trade unions (Klandermans, 1986).

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1.4. Commitment

The construct of commitment has received widespread study in the field of organizational psychology (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Commitment of workers to trade unions has also been a widely researched topic since the early 1980s (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bamberger, Kluger & Suchard, 1999; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Snape et al, 2000; Thacker et al., 1990). Organizational commitment has received more attention than trade union commitment but nonetheless there is still an abundance of literature stating that these two constructs differ and have multiple and differing antecedents (Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995).

Various explanations discussing the relationship between organizational commitment and trade union commitment have been advanced. These range from a purely inverse relationship whereby one will either be committed to the company or to the union, to a more positive relationship stating that an individual can be loyal to both an organization and a union simultaneously (Guest & Dewe, 1991; Snape et al., 2000). The latter is known as dual allegiance or dual commitment (Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Guest & Dewe; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Snape et al).

It has been pointed out that the studies done on the topic of commitment have been inconsistent at best and therefore the existing evidence is highly contradictory and consensus is lacking (Bamberger et al., 1999; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Nijhof, de Jong & Beukhof, 1998; Snape et al., 2000). This is due in part to conceptual and theoretical problems as well as differing contextual settings in which the research was conducted (Bamberger et al; Benkhoff, 1997; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Meyer & Herscovitch; Nijhof et al).

Little agreement has been reached as to which multidimensional model of commitment is the most useful one. The models do however exhibit similarities and most include an aspect dealing with the affective relation between the employee and the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The models also seem to show agreement on the fact that commitment to an organization or an entity will be influenced by the costs associated with the failure to do so (Meyer & Herscovitch). The conceptualization of commitment as a multidimensional construct therefore deserves a more in-depth discussion.

1.4.1. Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is said to be the multidimensional identification of the individual to the organization and its goals. It influences levels of worker involvement and performance (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997; Guest & Dewe, 1991; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Commitment of employees has been researched extensively and has been found to consist of three quite distinct forms, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1996; Bagraim, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002; Suliman & Iles, 2000). This is known as the three-component model of commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer et al).

The three-component model has been shown as valid in research examining organizational commitment as well as research investigating professional commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Bagraim, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997). It should be noted that this is a just one of the multi-dimensional views of commitment that has been proposed,

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and that one-dimensional views of organizational commitment and other multidimensional views may not agree with the model developed by Meyer and Allen and others who utilize this model (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

According to the three-component model, affective commitment can be defined as the emotional attachment to the organization by the employee, or the degree to which the employee identifies with the organization and is involved with it (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002; Vandenberghe, Bentein & Stinglhamber, 2004). The more the individual employee identifies with the organization or entity the more likely that employee is to be committed to it (Allen & Meyer; Meyer et al; Suliman & Iles, 2000; Vandenberghe et al).

Continuance commitment occurs when the individual employee recognizes the various costs associated with leaving the organization at the present time (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Continuance commitment hence determines whether the employee will stay with the organization when costs of leaving are accounted for (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). If the potential costs associated with leaving the organization are high, the employee is unlikely to depart from that organization (Allen & Meyer). An employee who has invested a lot of effort and time in the company and sees no viable job alternatives would therefore be unlikely to leave the organization (Beck & Wilson, 2001; Meyer & Allen).

Normative commitment distinguishes whether the employee will continue his/her employment relationship with the organization due to a sense of obligation to the business entity (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). Employees who have a high level of normative commitment therefore stay with the company because they feel that it is the right thing to do (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

The three components have been researched comprehensively and found to differ significantly from each other and have differing antecedents. The scales used to evaluate them have been shown to offer measurement of distinguishable constructs (Bagraim, 2003; Beck & Wilson, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Suliman & Iles, 2000). The developers of the scales stated that modified versions of the developed scales were used in volunteer organizations as well as in examination of professional commitment (Meyer & Allen). They furthermore speculated that the scales could be used to assess the

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commitment to a number of different entities including commitment of employees to their trade union (Meyer & Allen).

The importance of commitment in the workplace has been discussed in the literature in terms of better performance, retention of staff, predicting turnover, attendance at work and performance in the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Redman & Snape, 2005; Vandenberghe et al., 2004). High levels of organizational commitment are also negatively related with employee intention to leave the organization. Basically the more committed the staff of an organization are, the more productive they will tend to be and the less likely they are to depart from the organization.

1.4.2. Trade union commitment

Trade union commitment can be defined as the desire of the worker to belong to, work towards the goals of and identify with the union and its main aims whilst believing in trade unionism (Bamberger et al., 1999; Kuruvilla, Gallagher & Wetzel, 1993; Newton & Shore, 1992; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tetrick, 1995; Thacker et al., 1990).

Trade union commitment is a complex construct which has undergone extensive research and has been found to depend on multiple antecedents (Bamberger et al., 1999; Snape et al., 2000). The work most often cited in union commitment research is that of Gordon et al (1980) who developed a survey comprising 30 questions which resulted in a four-factor measure of union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson & Spiller, 1980; Snape et al; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). The four factors were union loyalty, responsibility to the union, willingness to work for the union and belief in trade unionism (Bamberger et al; Gordon et al; Sverke & Kuruvilla; Tetrick, 1995; Thacker et al., 1990).

Union loyalty consists of pride and the understanding of the advantages of membership to the union. Responsibility to the union indicates the willingness of members to carry out daily obligations to the union (Snape et al., 2000; Tetrick, 1995; Thacker et al., 1990). Willingness to work for the union indicates the enthusiasm for participation in union activities beyond the expected daily activities. Belief in unionism indicates the ideological belief in the concept of trade unions (Tetrick).

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Trade union commitment should not be confused with union satisfaction as the two differ as much as the concept of organizational commitment differs from job satisfaction (Fiorito, Gallagher & Fukami, 1988; Kuruvilla et al., 1993). Furthermore union commitment is slower to develop and longer lasting whilst union satisfaction focuses on daily occurrences in the union and the handling of specific tangible issues (Fiorito et al; Kuruvilla et al).

Union instrumentality (what the union can achieve for the workers) and the attitudes of individuals towards the union were all seen as contributing factors towards commitment to the union or an apparent lack of it (Bamberger et al., 1999; Fullager, Clark, Gallagher & Gordon, 1994; Newton & Shore, 1992).

Union loyalty is seen as consisting of both affective and instrumental attitudes in one construct by certain authors (Snape et al., 2000). Others however distinguish between the two as affective commitment consists of identity with the union and the pride towards the union whilst instrumental commitment to the union is seen as based on benefits obtained by the union for its members (Snape et al).

Various studies have examined a range of factors such as the age, socialization, marital status, family responsibilities and personality traits of union members and their commitment to trade unions (Fullager et al., 1994; Fullager, McCoy & Shull, 1992; Heshizer & Lund, 1995; Iverson & Kuravilla, 1995; Tetrick, 1995; Thacker et al., 1990; Trimpop, 1995). The assumption is that workers will not be as committed to the union if they have other pressing issues to deal with, such as family responsibilities, or if they are older and feel that they have already done enough for the union (Tetrick; Trimpop). However, the findings are mixed as there are other studies which found no significant relationship between age, tenure and union commitment (Miller, 1990; Snape et al., 2000).

Marital status has also been researched as influencing both organizational and union commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Findings have been inconsistent as both negative and positive correlations between marital status and trade union commitment and marital status and organizational commitment have been reported in the available literature (Snape et al., 2000).

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Gender was examined in relation to commitment levels to the organization and the union (Gordon et al., 1980; Metochi, 2002; Schur & Kruse, 1992). Certain studies have found that women tend to be more committed affectively to the union whilst men are more likely to participate in union activities (Bemmels, 1995; Gordon et al; Metochi; Schur & Kruse; Snape et al., 2000). This has been attributed to traditional responsibilities of women as homemakers. Even though they have more to gain by union membership, women participants are hindered in participation due to family responsibilities (Gordon et al; Schur & Kruse). Women workers may also be less likely to join a union due to the fact that in the majority of unions, the leadership structure is most often made up of males and hence there are no women in leadership positions (Schur & Kruse; Snape et al). Role models fore women participants are therefore lacking in the existing unions.

Attitudes towards supervisors have also been researched in relation to both organizational and trade union commitment (Fullager et al., 1994; Metochi, 2002). It appears that favourable attitudes towards supervisors foster commitment to the employer organization and may weaken commitment towards the union (Snape et al., 2000).

Fulager et al., (1994) and Metochi (2002) found that characteristics and interactions of shop stewards are also important and may influence commitment levels of union members due to their role in the socialization process of members into the union. A similar finding has also been reported by Kuruvilla et al., (1993) and Snape et al., (2000) who add that commitment to the union may increase with prolonged exposure to the union and its activities. However Thacker et al., (1990) found that shop steward interaction did not influence commitment to the trade union by its members.

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1.4.3. Dual commitment

Dual commitment, also known as dual allegiance or dual loyalty, occurs when individual workers retain simultaneous loyalty to both the organization they work for and the trade union they are a member of (Angle & Perry, 1986; Benson, 1998; Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Guest & Dewe, 1991; Johnson, Johnson & Patterson, 1999; Snape et al., 2000). The employees hence offer approval and support for both the goals of the organization and the trade union (Benson; Gordon & Ladd; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Snape & Chan, 2000; Snape et al).

The importance of dual commitment is based on the prediction that workers loyal to both unions and organizations will be more effective and productive due to their concerns for the benefit of both of these entities (Deery, Erwin & Iverson, 1999; Snape et al., 2000). Benson (1998) carried out a study of dual commitment amongst casual workers in Australia to assess whether the employees commit to the employer paying them or the contractor providing them employment. It was found that employees tend to commit more to the contractor employing them than the employer organization as a result of their daily interaction with the contractor and little interaction with the employer (Benson). The importance of this for the South African context is quite clear. The growing trend in South African firms is to turn to casual labour to incur fewer costs in terms of production (Theron, 2004). Benson however postulates that if commitment to the employer is crucial than the result of casualisation of labour could be lowering of performance as well as increased absenteeism and turnover. This could have important ramifications for the trade union movement and the levels of commitment exhibited to it.

As has been the case with trade union commitment there have been inconsistencies reported both in terms of conceptualization of dual commitment and the results obtained by researchers (Bemmels, 1995; Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Johnson et al., 1999). Measurement of dual commitment has been undertaken by either using the dimensional or the taxonomic approach (Bemmels; Gordon & Ladd; Johnson et al; Snape et al., 2000). The dimensional approach indicated a significant linear relationship between organizational and union commitment (Bemmels; Snape et al). The taxonomic approach involves the categorization of individuals based on their obtained scores on the two different commitment measures (Gordon & Ladd; Johnson et al; Snape et al). According to the taxonomic approach individuals are grouped into four distinct categories namely dual commitment, unilateral allegiance to either the union or the organization and dual disallegiance indicating low commitment to both entities (Snape et al).

It has been stated that dual commitment is the by-product of satisfactory industrial relations climate between management of the organization and the trade union (Angle & Perry, 1986; Bemmels, 1995; Deery et al., 1999; Snape & Chan, 2000; Snape et al., 2000). As such it can be seen as temporary, as the relations may change and may lead to

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changes in commitment (Deery et al; Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Snape et al). This view is supported by studies which show high levels of dual allegiance in organizations which have good union management relations and low levels of dual commitment where there has been labour unrest and conflict between the union and management (Angle & Perry; Gordon & Ladd).

Gordon & Ladd (1990) go as far as stating that research of dual commitment is a waste of time as it is just a by-product of union-management relations. Support for this view also comes from Guest and Conway (2004) as well as from Angle and Perry (1986) who found that the more unsympathetic the management of an organization is towards a union, the more likely the views of the unionized members are to be negative towards that organization. This view however is disputed. Johnson et al. (1999) in their meta-analysis of dual commitment strongly disagree with this view and state that dual commitment is a phenomenon in its own right and as such merits more research. Bemmels (1995) also found that dual commitment is a unique construct and not a by-product of union-management relations.

It has been pointed out that commitment to the organization and the trade union may be largely independent from each other due to the fact that their antecedents differ (Snape et al., 2000). As a result individuals may be committed to both the organization and the trade union as both forms of commitment may be perceived as having advantages to the employee.

Another important factor which needs to be taken into consideration is that employees may not only be committed to the organization and/or trade union. Employees may exhibit commitment to co-workers, teams, leaders and supervisors, or to the profession they are engaged in (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Redman & Chan, 2005; Vandenberghe et al., 2004). These different commitment outlets are beyond the scope of this dissertation but need to be accounted for in order to understand the complexity of commitment in the workplace (Meyer & Herscovitch).

1.5. Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction can be defined simply as the degree to which an individual enjoys the job they perform and the various aspects involved in the job, including wage levels, working

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conditions, relations with supervisors and dealings with co-workers (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Gibson et al., 1997; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Miller, 1990; Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction has traditionally correlated well with organizational commitment (Snape et al., 2000).

It becomes apparent from the review of the available literature that the levels of job satisfaction may be fairly influential in determining whether workers exhibit high levels of commitment to trade unions or not (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Hammer & Avgar, 2005). It has been reported consistently that unionized workers almost always report lower levels of job satisfaction than do their non-unionized colleagues (Gordon & DeNisi; Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar; Miller, 1990). It has also been pointed out in the literature that those individuals who are unionized are also more likely to voice their discontent (Gordon & DeNisi; Guest & Conway; Miller).

Certain authors have stated that high levels of job satisfaction will indicate low levels of union commitment and participation as the workers do not see a need for trade union support and assistance (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway, 2004; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Newton & Shore, 1992). The basic premise of this claim is that the more satisfied the workers are with their job, the less interest they will have in the trade union and its goals (Iverson & Kuruvilla; Miller, 1990; Newton & Shore). The inverse also appears to be true with less satisfied workers being more likely to join a trade union and attempt to express their grievances via the process of collective bargaining (Bender & Sloane; Haberfeld, 1995; Miller).

Miller (1990) also pointed out that the reason for the more dissatisfied workers being unionized is the fact that they may be working in poorer conditions and hence have a higher desire to unionize. They are therefore more motivated to join a trade union and voice their grievances (Miller). Simultaneously, even though they are more dissatisfied with their jobs, the unionized employees are less likely to leave the organization that they work in and hence their turnover is less than those of non-unionized workers (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Goron & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Miller). The reason for this is that workers belonging to a trade union have an opportunity to voice their grievances whilst those who are non-unionized have no other viable option

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but leaving the company (Bender & Sloane; Gordon & DeNisi; Guest & Conway; Hodson, 1997). This is known as the exit-voice theory.

It has furthermore been indicated that union membership may also increase job dissatisfaction due to the fact that the workers are encouraged to voice dissatisfaction and grievances thereby contributing to the politicization of the labour force (Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar, 2005).

Dissatisfaction is also incited by the union and its representatives in order to recruit members to the trade union. Basically, the union fosters dissatisfaction in order to attract and retain membership (Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Hammer & Avgar, 2005). Subsequently, satisfaction with pay amongst unionized workers has been noted to improve, whilst satisfaction with working conditions and supervisors has been noted to decrease as a result of union membership (Gordon & DeNisi; Guest & Conway, 2004).

Other studies have found contrasting results with job satisfaction not changing significantly or even being increased with unionization (Gordon et al., 1980; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Hammer & Avgar, 2005). It is assumed that this is a result of benefits gained by the union through the negotiations with the employers. The union members who obtain tangible benefits as a result of union membership become more satisfied with their jobs and hence their job satisfaction increases (Hammer & Avgar). This results in a more positive relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment and participation.

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1.6. Trade union participation

Trade union participation can consist of both formal and informal behavioural activities that union members engage in as a result of their membership to a specific trade union (Klandermans, 1986; Kuruvilla, Gallagher, Fiorito & Wakabayashi, 1990; Parks, Gallagher & Fullager, 1995; Snape et al., 2000). Union participation may therefore be inclusive of formal union meetings dealing with work-related issues as well as informal, voluntary activities such as ongoing socialization activities with other union members (Klandermans; Parks et al; Snape et al; Thacker et al., 1990). As was the case with organizational and union commitment constructs, the construct of trade union participation has been found to be a multidimensional one (McShane, 1986).

Participation of union members in the activities of the trade union has been found to be one of the main results of trade union commitment (Parks et al., 1995; Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape et al., 2000). This indicates that the more an individual is committed to his/her trade union the more likely that individual is to participate in its activities (Bamberger et al., 1999; Snape et al; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). Generally the available literature indicates that trade union commitment is a pre-requisite condition for union participation. It has however been pointed out that through the course of the individuals' participation in the activities of the trade union, the individual may also become more committed to the trade union (Snape et al).

It should be noted that antecedents of union participation have been tested in culturally different settings such as Japan and have been found to be relatively similar across the different contexts (Kuruvilla et al., 1990). As expected, there are certain cultural differences that influence participation but overall it appears that participation does have some common elements (Kuruvilla et al). This is important to consider as most of the theories discussing union commitment and participation were developed in the west.

Certain authors caution against focusing purely on formal participation of members in the trade union by stating that the informal activities can be as important especially when the effects of the two are combined (Kuruvilla et al., 1990; Parks et al., 1995). This also indicates the multidimensionality of the construct and shows that even though union members may participate in certain activities they may not necessarily participate in others (McShane, 1986).

Another issue of importance is that temporal issues need to be taken into consideration. In essence this means that the levels of participation will differ over time due to various factors such as the industrial relations climate, contextual factors, and scheduling of union events (Parks et al., 1995; Snape et al., 2000).

In the case of compulsory trade union membership, such as a closed shop agreement, individuals may not participate more than is absolutely necessary (Parks et al., 1995; Tetrick, 1995). This would occur when employees are required to join a trade union even though they may have no desire to participate (Finnemore, 1999; Tetrick; Trimpop, 1995). A similar result would occur if people are compelled to join and

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participate by their colleagues, even though they do not have a desire to do so (Davy & Shipper, 1993; Klandermans, 1986; Metochi, 2002).

Another interesting factor pointed out by Klandermans (1986) is that union members may wish to participate in certain actions but not others. Basically the degree of militancy may be moderated by perceived gains and costs associated with participation. A union member may therefore be willing to participate in a go-slow but be less enthusiastic about a strike.

Certain authors have also researched union participation in terms of the theory of reasoned action developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (Snape et al., 2000; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). This theory states that both attitudes and perceptions of social norms will play a part in determining a person's behaviour (Ajzen & Madden, 1997; Fraser, 2001; Snape et al).

The research for this theory was carried out by Ajzen and Fishbein who found significant positive correlations between attitudes and intentions ($r = 0.72$) as well as between intentions and behaviour ($r = 0.83$) thereby showing that attitudes are in fact of high importance in determining behaviours (Ajzen & Madden, 1997; Fraser, 2001).

In terms of trade union participation it was found that union opinions and attitudes combined with subjective norms will influence pro-union intentions (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). These in turn will determine the extent of union participation by influencing actual behaviours (Snape et al., 2000; Sverke & Kuruvilla).

Furthermore, Sverke and Kuruvilla (1995) point out that it might be the belief about a specific trade union that is significant and not just belief in unionism. This is important as it indicates that even though an individual may have general trade union ideals, participation may not be influenced unless there is belief in the actual trade union one belongs to.

1.7. Research question

Based on the above information, it becomes apparent that the relationship between organizational commitment, trade union commitment, job satisfaction and trade union participation can be complex and may sometimes be unclear. It is, therefore, important to assess the relationship amongst these variables in the South African context and establish

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whether findings adhere to previous research. This research will therefore attempt to examine the interrelationships among these variables.

Specifically, this research will assess whether a positive relationship exists between union commitment and union participation as well as whether there will be an inverse relationship between organizational commitment and trade union commitment as espoused in some of the available literature (Parks et al., 1995; Redman & Snape, 2005). This is a necessity as certain authors claim that organizational and union commitment may coexist in a positive relationship whilst others ascertain that the employee will be committed to either the union or the organization (Bamberger et al., 1999; Haberfeld, 1995; Iverson & Kuruvilla; Snape et al., 2000). The relationship between organizational commitment and trade union participation will also be examined in the current research to ascertain what the relationship between these two variables is.

It will furthermore be examined whether job satisfaction exists in an inverse relationship with both union commitment and union participation as is to be expected from the existing literature (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995). This is based on the premise that employees satisfied with their jobs are less likely to join a union and participate in its activities than those employees who are not satisfied with their jobs (Hammer & Avgar; Iverson & Kuruvilla; Newton & Shore, 1992).

The current study will also assess whether there are gender differences in terms of trade union commitment and participation in trade union activities. This is a necessity as differences between male and female participants regarding the levels of union commitment and participation have been found in previous research (Bemmels, 1995; Metochi, 2002; Schur & Kruse, 1992). Traditionally female union members have been more committed to trade unions but less likely to participate (Bemmels; Gordon et al., 1980; Metochi; Schur & Kruse). This study will hence also assess if this is the case in the South African context. Finally, the level of variance of trade union participation as explained by the other variables under examination will be ascertained. This will give an indication of which variables are the best predictors of trade union participation. Subsequently, the trade unions providing participants for the current research could focus on these variables to foster commitment to the union.

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CHAPTER 2: METHOD

2.1. The sample

The sampling method used in this research project was a non-probability one with the main criteria for sampling being accessibility to the site and convenience (Emery, 1977; Trochim, 1999).The access to the trade union and its members was gained via the trade union representative who arranged the data collection at two separate sites. The organization at one site is involved with metallurgic manufacture and the organization at the other site is involved in electronic manufacture. The demographic characteristics of the sample are presented in table 1.

Table 1:
Sample Demographics

	Number of participants	**Gender**	**Marital Status**	**Race**	**Education Levels**	**Mean Age (Years)**	**Mean Tenure (Years)**
Sample A (CO1):	50	Male: 22 Female: 28	Married: 34 Single: 12 Unknown: 4	White: 1 Black: 0 Coloured: 39 Unknown: 10	Less Than Std 8: 11 Std 8: 22 Matric: 13 Unknown: 4	38.7	18.8
Sample B (CO2):	40	Male: 5 Female: 28 Unknown: 7	Married: 19 Single: 12 Unknown: 9	White: 0 Black: 1 Coloured: 32 Unknown: 7	Less Than Std 8: 7 Std 8: 15 Matric: 14 Unknown: 4	34.7	13
Total:	90	Male: 27 Female: 56 Unknown: 7	Married: 53 Single: 24 Unknown:13	White: 1 Black: 1 Coloured: 71 Unknown 17	Less Than Std 8: 18 Std 8: 37 Matric: 27 Unknown: 8	36.9	16.2

2.2. The questionnaire

The questionnaire used for the purpose of data collection was the union commitment questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of 90 items including the demographic questions. It is in a Likert format and is available in the Appendix. It was constructed by Bagraim (2004) based on the work of Meyer and Allen (1997) dealing with the construct

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of commitment and the work of Gordon et al (1980) examining trade union commitment. Subscales obtained from Angle & Perry (1986), Kelloway, Catano & Southwell (1992) and Sverke & Kuruvilla (1995) were also present in the questionnaire.

Items 75-86 in the current questionnaire as constructed by Meyer and Allen (1997) and modified by Bagraim (2004) were used to measure the three components of organizational commitment. These were namely affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment to the organization the employees work for (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen).

The commitment scales measuring affective, continuance and normative commitment were also modified to apply to the trade union setting in order to measure the commitment to the union. These were items 29-40 in the questionnaire. More information about the trade union and the commitment to the union was gained through the items used by Gordon et al. (1980) examining belief in trade unionism. These are items 24-28 in the current questionnaire. Union participation was examined using items 46-66 based on the work of Kelloway et al (1992). A job satisfaction sub-scale measuring the satisfaction with nature of work was also included from Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1997). In the current questionnaire these were items 87-90. The dual commitment subscale (items 41-45) was based on the work of Angle & Perry (1986) and it examined levels of dual commitment present in the current sample.

Items 8-23 in the questionnaire measured union instrumentality and were based on the work of Sverke & Kuruvilla (1995). Items 67-71 were developed by Kelloway et al (1992) and measure the responsibility of the individual to the union whilst items 72-74 examine the intent of the individual to leave the union.

2.3. Commitment scales: validity & reliability issues

Meyer and Allen (1997) who developed the three scales state that the internal consistency of the affective, continuance and normative commitment scales are $\alpha = 0.85$, $\alpha = 0.79$, and $\alpha = 0.73$ respectively (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen). The authors of the scale indicate that the reliability estimates of the commitment scales generally seem to exceed $\alpha = 0.70$. This was also found by other authors who have also found comparable results with the internal consistency scores being quite high for the three scales (Meyer &

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Allen). Suliman and Iles (2000) found similar results with the internal consistency scores of the affective, continuance and normative commitment being $\alpha = 0.73$, $\alpha = 0.60$ and $\alpha = 0.47$ respectively. The explanation by the authors for the low normative commitment result ($\alpha = 0.47$) was explained in terms of cultural differences as the study was carried out in Jordan which they state might be the reason for the low result (Suliman & Iles).

Temporal stability of the measures has been examined and was found to depend on the length of tenure of employees, with scores being lower with new employees (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). All scores have been found within an acceptable range however (Meyer & Allen). Test-retest reliability has been therefore been found to range from 0.38 to 0.94 for affective commitment depending on the length of tenure (Meyer & Allen). Convergent and discriminant validities of the three commitment scales have also been indicated by the authors (Allen & Meyer). Substantial correlations between the affective commitment scale and the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) indicate convergent validity of the scale, whilst the weak correlation between the affective and the continuance commitment scales indicates dicriminant validity (Allen & Meyer). The developers of the scales also claim that as the continuance commitment scale and the normative commitment scale correlate weakly with other attitude measures this offers further evidence of discriminant validity (Allen & Meyer).

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2.4. Factor analysis evidence

The authors of the three commitment scales state that results of numerous studies show that affective, continuance and normative commitment are distinguishable constructs (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Furthermore, they claim that various studies have shown that the three constructs are also different from job satisfaction measures and occupational commitment measures amongst others (Meyer & Allen). Some inconsistency has been reported regarding the continuance commitment scale and whether it represents a one-dimensional or a two-dimensional construct (Allen & Meyer). Results are mixed however and there seems to be evidence indicating that even though continuance commitment may represent a two-dimensional construct the two factors are highly correlated (Allen & Meyer).

2.5. The JSS: Reliability & Validity issues.

The JSS according to Spector (1997) displays relatively high reliability scores in terms of internal consistency and test-retest reliability. The internal consistency scores for the JSS range from $\alpha = 0.60$ to $\alpha = 0.82$ for the nine subscales included in the scale with the overall coefficient alpha for the JSS being quite high ($\alpha = 0.91$) (Spector). The nature of work subscale used in this research has a coefficient alpha score of 0.78.

According to Spector (1997) validity levels of the JSS are also satisfactory as it correlates quite highly with other scales of job satisfaction, namely the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which Spector claims is one of the most validated scales of job satisfaction. Scores were in the range from $r = 0.61$ to $r = 0.80$ when the JSS was correlated with the JDI (Spector).

2.3. Procedure

The participants at the two separate sites where the data was collected were informed that the purpose of the data collection was purely academic and that the researcher was not affiliated to either management or the trade union. This was necessary to ease the participants' concerns and get them to be as sincere as possible. Confidentiality and anonymity were also explained to participants prior to the data collection process. This was done to make the participants as comfortable as possible with the process of data collection. The questionnaire also expressly stated that the participants should not include their names on any pages of the questionnaire. This was done to safeguard the anonymity of participants.

Of the 120 questionnaires handed out, 98 were returned. Eight questionnaires were discarded due to the fact that they were incomplete or were consistently answered by choosing the neutral category throughout the whole questionnaire. It should be noted that data collection occurred after union meetings, during break-time, and as a result a lot of potential participants were reluctant to participate. The participants of the study on average took about 15 to 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

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CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

3.1. Difference between groups

T-tests calculations were carried out to assess whether there was any significant difference between Company 1 (CO1) union members and Company 2 (CO2) union members.

The only significant result in the current sample was in terms of dual commitment, ($t(88) = -3.79$, $p<0.05$). Employees of Company 2 exhibited a significantly higher mean score ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 0.80$) than did employees of Company 1 ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 0.93$). As this was the only significant difference between the two groups of participants, the two samples were grouped together as a single sample.

3.2. Factors

A principal-axis factor analysis (Varimax normalized) was carried out on the responses of participants to reduce the number of existing variables and ascertain the number of existing factors. It should be remembered that he relationships amongst the constructs were under examination in the current study and not the dimensionality of the constructs themselves, hence these are not attended to in detail.

The procedures utilized left the following variables: JSAT representing job satisfaction, TUCOM representing trade union commitment, ORGCOM representing organizational commitment, UPAR representing union participation and DCOM representing dual commitment. A reliability analysis (Cronbach's Alpha) was also carried out to assess the items and possibly remove weak and hence unnecessary items. The results of the reliability analysis are presented in table 2.

Table 2:
Cronbach Alphas for Variables

Variable	Cronbach alpha (α)
TUCOM	0.91
ORGCOM	0.88
DCOM	0.83
JSAT	0.84
UPAR	0.91

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3.3. Relationships amongst the variables

3.3.1. Union commitment & union participation

The expected positive relationship between TUCOM and UPAR was supported in the current study. The relationship between trade union commitment and trade union participation in the current study was a statistically significant positive relationship ($r = 0.59$, $p<0.05$) as indicated in Figure 1.

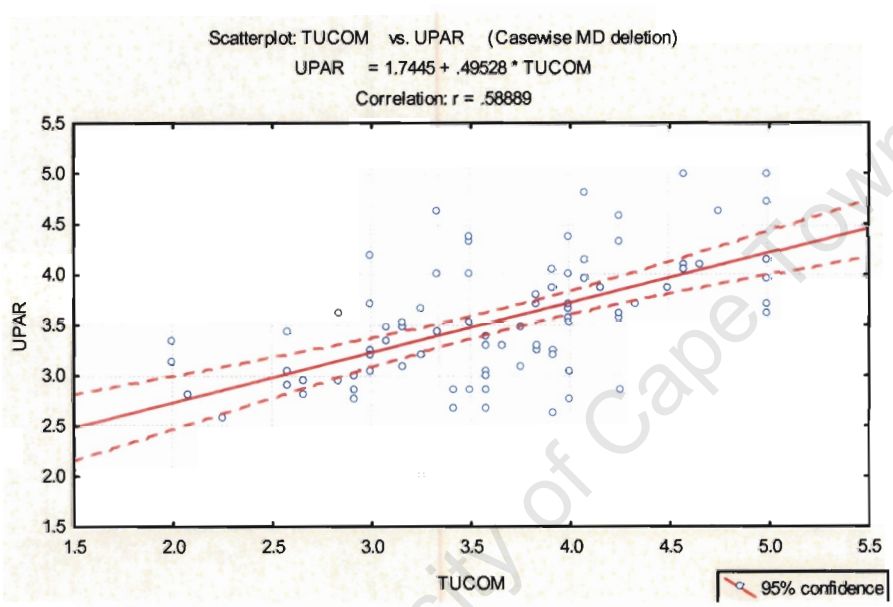

Figure 1: Correlation between union commitment & union participation

Significant positive correlations were also found when the affective, continuance and normative commitment constructs were correlated to union participation ($r = 0.53$, $r = 0.50$, $r = 0.52$, $p<0.05$). Belief in trade unionism also positively correlated with union participation ($r = 0.48$, $p<0.05$).

3.3.2. Union commitment & organizational commitment

Organizational commitment and trade union commitment exhibit a significant positive relationship in the current study ($r = 0.24$, $p<0.05$). The expected inverse relationship between ORGCOM and TUCOM was therefore not evident. This positive relationship is evident visually in Figure 2.

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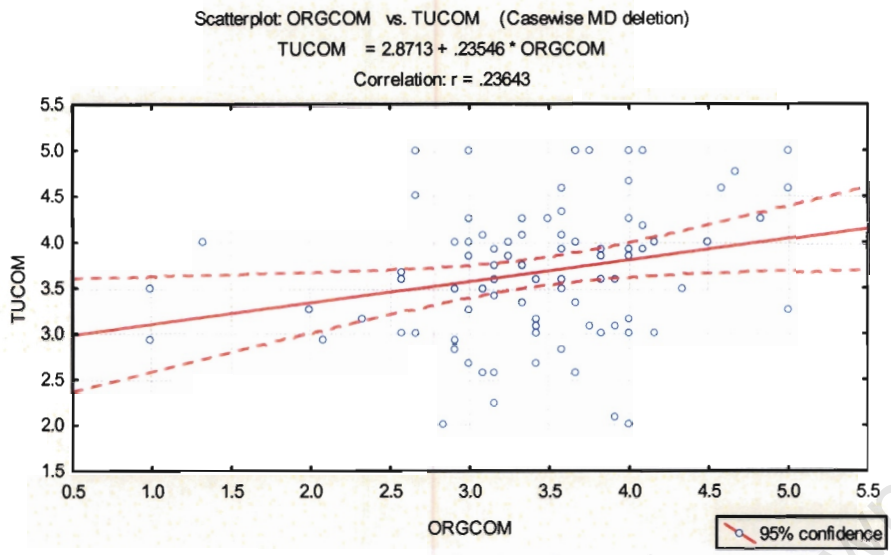

Figure 2: Correlation between organizational commitment & union commitment

As becomes apparent from Figure 2, the responses of the participants were spread out in the current sample. Analysis of the dual commitment variable (DCOM) shows a mean of 3.23 (SD = 0.94). The standard deviation is rather large however and indicates that responses from participants in the current sample vary substantially.

3.3.3. Organizational commitment & union participation

The expected inverse relationship between organization commitment and union participation was not supported in the current sample. A non-significant positive relationship appears to exist between the ORGCOM and UPAR variables ($r = 0.19$, $p>0.05$).

3.3.4. Job satisfaction & union commitment

The expected inverse relationship between job satisfaction and trade union commitment was not supported in the current sample. A significant positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and trade union commitment in the current sample ($r = 0.39$, $p<0.05$). This positive relationship is evident in Figure 3.

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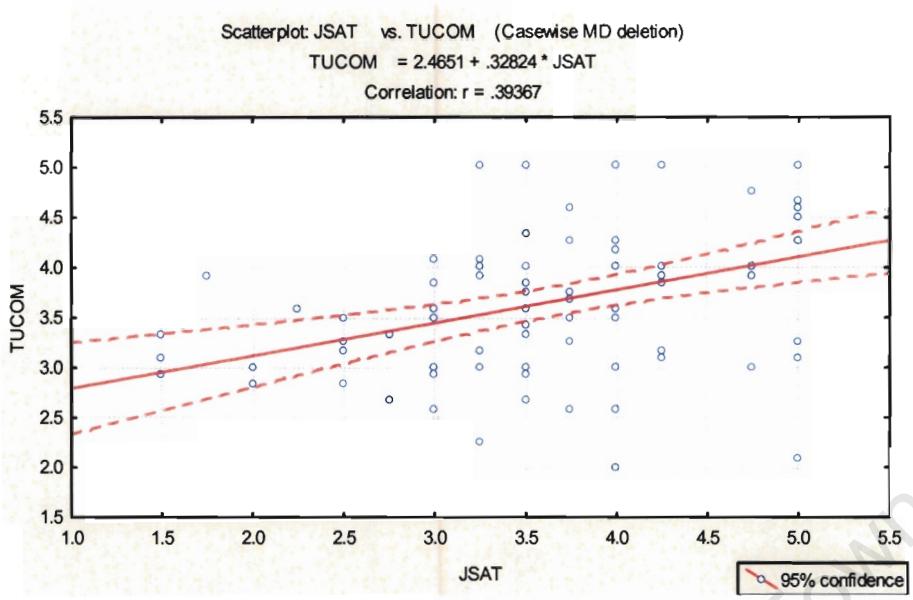

Figure 3: Correlation between job satisfaction & union commitment

3.3.5. Job satisfaction & union participation

The inverse relationship expected between job satisfaction and trade union participation has not been supported in the current sample. A significant positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and trade union participation ($r = 0.38$, $p<0.05$). This is apparent in Figure 4.

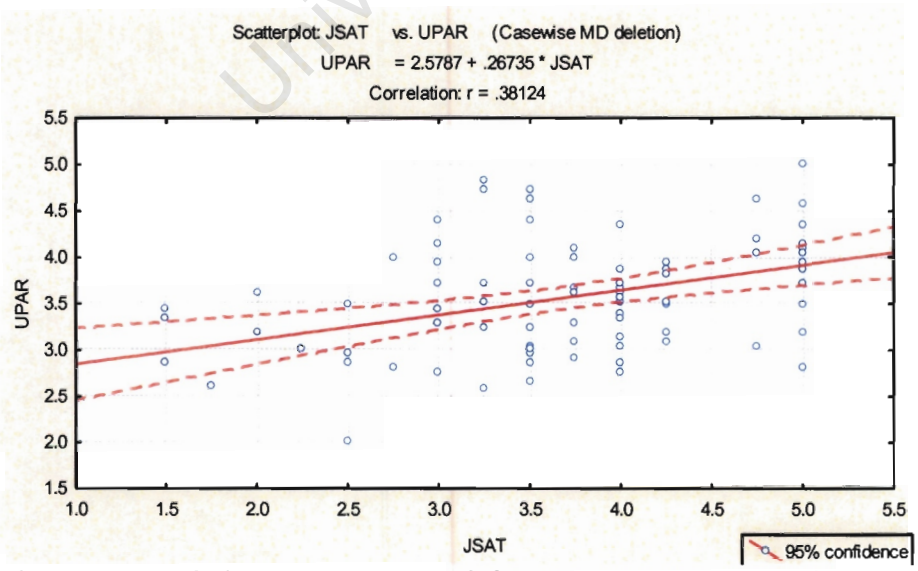

Figure 4: Correlation between job satisfaction & union participation

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3.4. T-test results

3.4.1. Union commitment & gender

There appears to be no significant difference between male and female participants in the sample in levels of union commitment ($t(81) = 0.12$, $p>0.05$).

3.4.2. Union participation & gender

There was no significant difference between male and female participants in the levels of union participation in the current sample ($t(81) = -0.97$, $p>0.05$).

3.5. Regression results

A stepwise regression analysis was conducted to assess how much variance in trade union participation is explained by trade union commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The stepwise regression therefore consisted of three steps. The results of the regression are presented in table 3.

Table 3:
Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Trade Union Participation

Variable	Beta	SE of Beta	B	SE of B	t(78)	p-level
Step 1						
TUCOM	0.515027	0.096615	0.437561	0.082083	5.33070	0.000001
Step 2						
JSAT	0.193113	0.112785	0.141618	0.082711	1.71221	0.090830
Step 3						
ORGCOM	0.024316	0.107967	-0.020307	0.090167	-0.22521	0.822403

Note. After Step 1: $R^2= 0.3385$; after Step 2: $R^2= 0.3661$; after Step 3: $R^2= 0.3675$

In step one, trade union commitment was included in the model as the first independent variable and it explained 34% of variance in the sample at $p<0.05$.

In step two of the regression analysis, job satisfaction was included as an independent variable and combined variance was 37%. Job satisfaction on its own hence explains about 3% of variance in trade union participation.

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In step three, organizational commitment was added as an independent variable and it added extremely little to the regression analysis as combined variance explained was still approximately 37% and organizational commitment on its own was not significant at $p>0.05$. Organizational commitment by itself therefore does not explain any variance in trade union participation in the current sample.

The above results indicate that trade union commitment and job satisfaction are the best predictors of trade union participation at least in the sample under study. The variable of dual commitment was not used in the regression analysis due to the dangers of multicollinearity as both trade union commitment and organizational commitment were already used as independent variables in the model.

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CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

4.1. Discussion of the relationship between variables

Both organizational and trade union commitment have become important issues in organizational research. The reasoning behind this is the connection between levels of commitment and on-the-job performance, retention of staff, absenteeism and turnover amongst others (Redman & Snape, 2005). This dissertation attempted to examine the interrelationship between the various commitment foci of individuals as well as its relation to job satisfaction and union participation.

4.1.1. Union commitment & union participation

As espoused in the available literature trade union commitment in the current study is significantly correlated to trade union participation. This positive relationship has been advocated by certain authors who indicate that union commitment is a prerequisite condition for active participation in union activities (Parks et al., 1995; Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape et al., 2000). It has also been pointed out that levels of participation could with time increase levels of commitment but usually union commitment is seen as an antecedent of participation in union activities (Bamberger et al., 1999; Heshizer & Lund, 1995; Redman & Snape; Snape et al; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995).

The significant positive relationship between trade union commitment and union participation in the current study was therefore not surprising as it supports existing research findings. Logically, since the overall construct of union commitment correlates with union participation it also was found that affective, continuance and normative union commitment all positively correlate to union participation. This indicates that the union members will participate in union activities due to their sense of obligation to the union, emotional attachment to the union and also because it is to their benefit to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Belief in trade unionism also correlates positively to union participation in the current study. All the different dimensions of trade union commitment therefore play a role in determining participation of union members.

Belief in trade unionism correlating positively to union participation is supported by existing literature stating that the ideals of union members will also to an extent

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determine commitment to the union and subsequently their union participation (Gordon et al., 1980; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995). This indicates that the value and belief system of the individual also influences the decision to join a union, commit to it and participate in its various activities. One needs to note that it could be the belief about the specific trade union which is important and not only belief in trade unionism as a whole as pointed out by Sverke and Kuruvilla. In the current sample that would mean that participation is influenced by the belief in the actual trade union workers are members of, and not just the concept of belief in unionism.

4.1.2. Union commitment & organizational commitment

A significant positive relationship exists between organizational commitment and trade union commitment. This is in accordance to certain studies which have shown that organizational commitment may at times be a positive predictor of trade union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Snape et al., 2000). This result is not a direct indicator of dual commitment in the sample but it is certainly indicative of the fact that these two constructs co-vary in the current sample as espoused by certain authors (Gordon & Ladd, 1990; Snape & Chan, 2000). Some authors have found similar results and state that this indicates that dissatisfaction with the organization may not be the main driver behind employee unionization (Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape & Chan). Snape et al. state that this may indicate "that union commitment is not an expression of negative attitudes towards the organization" (p. 214).

The premise of certain authors was that if employees are dissatisfied with some aspect of organizational life their commitment to the organization will decrease (Haberfeld, 1995). At the same time those employees will be more likely to join a union, and if they are already members they are more likely to commit to its goals. The reason behind this would be that the employees are enabled to voice their grievance through the trade union.

The mean score of participants on the dual commitment subscale also indicates the existence of moderate levels of dual commitment in the overall sample. It could be postulated that this result is due to the harmonious relationship between the trade union

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and the management of the organizations where data was collected (Angle & Perry, 1986; Bemmels, 1995; Deery et al., 1999; Snape & Chan, 2000; Snape et al., 2000).

Significant difference in levels of dual commitment was reported at the two sites. Members of Company 2 exhibited significantly higher levels of dual commitment than did the employees of Company 1. This could be attributed to the fact that the relationship between the trade union and the employer in Company 1 might not be as amicable as those in Company 2. As mentioned in the previous chapter however this was the only difference between the two groups and hence the two samples were grouped together as they belong to the same trade union.

Another possible explanation is that mean tenure in company 2 was significantly shorter than in Company 1. The mean tenure in Company 2 was 13 years whilst the mean tenure in Company 1 was 18.8 years. The tenure difference between the two samples was hence almost six years. This shows that commitment may be present more in employees with shorter levels of tenure (Snape & Chan, 2000). In essence, incumbents may get disillusioned with the whole union process. They could also be pressed with other important issues such as family responsibility and hence do not have the time and resources to commit more to the organization and the union (Meyer & Allen. 1997; Tetrick, 1995; Trimpop, 1995). The available literature also postulates that older union members may not be as committed to the union as they might feel that they have already done enough for the union (Tetrick; Trimpop). This is a possibility in the current study even though evidence for it is lacking.

Available literature has shown that levels of dual commitment are more likely to be exhibited in organizational settings where the employer and the trade union have an amicable relationship (Bemmels, 1995; Deery et al., 1999; Snape & Chan, 2000; Snape et al., 2000). The employees hence perceive the relationship between employer and trade union as being in agreement and hence are more at ease to commit to both the organization and the trade union (Angle & Perry, 1986).

It could also be stated that the result of the current study offer evidence of dual commitment in that the antecedents of organizational and union commitment differ as postulated by certain authors (Snape et al., 2000). As a result of differing antecedents for the two commitment foci, unionized employees are committed to both the union and the

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organization as there are different benefits to be gained from these differing commitments (Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape & Chan, 2000).

One could however also state that the result in the current study is irregular given the volatile history that trade unions and management have had in South Africa (Adler, 2000; Grossman, 1996; Wood & Harcourt, 1998). The result in the current study could be indicative of a changing relationship between employers and the union movement in the country. As pointed out by Angle and Perry (1986) the main issue should not be whether dual commitment is a phenomenon in its own right or not as has been the topic of much research but rather how unions and employers can best use it to their advantage.

A more realistic possibility could be that there is little hostility between the employers and the union because the union is relatively new. Past animosities may therefore not be considered in the current union-employer relationship. Basically the employers may not be as distrustful of this new union as they might be of older more established unions with which they might have had hostile relationships in the past. This could however also be debated given the fact that most of the union members have had high levels of tenure at the organization and most have been unionized in the past with older more established unions.

The harmonious relationship between the company and the union may be occurring because the organization does not perceive any real threat from the trade union. It might also be in the interest of the organization to oblige the union and maintain an amicable relationship with it and its members. This is given support by some authors claiming that it is actually beneficial for organizations to have unionized employees as they are less likely to leave the organization even if dissatisfied (Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar, 2005). In essence, as postulated by the exit-voice theory, even if employees are dissatisfied they are likely to stay in the organization as they have accessible channels to vent their frustration through the union (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway; Hodson, 1997). This is important in the South African context, as labour training costs are high and recruiting and retaining talent may at times be exceptionally difficult. It is hence in the organization's best interest to have unionized employees in order to decrease turnover and costs associated with turnover.

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4.1.3. Organizational commitment & union participation

The expected inverse relationship between organizational commitment and trade union participation was not supported in the current study.

The positive result obtained was however not significant and hence one could speculate that the positive correlation was in fact a result of error rather than a true indication of a relationship. The fact that an inverse relationship was not supported could however be indicative of the fact that organizational commitment and trade union commitment are separated in the minds of employees (Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape & Chan, 2000). As trade union commitment may be influencing union participation, the levels of organizational commitment may not be important in the sense that the employees are not influenced by their levels of organizational commitment in terms of participation in union activities. They hence keep the commitment foci separate as there might be benefits to be gained from both (Snape & Chan). One could also postulate that organizational commitment may indirectly influence union participation in that employees dissatisfied with an organization are more likely to join a union and commit to it if there are benefits to be gained in doing so. These individuals may therefore be more likely to participate in union activities in order to address their grievances. This may explain why there is a positive relationship between organizational commitment and trade union commitment but no relationship between organizational commitment and trade union participation.

4.1.4 Job satisfaction & union commitment

A significant positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and union commitment in the current study. This is atypical as literature available on the topic indicates that high levels of job satisfaction should be indicative of less willingness and need to join a union and exhibit commitment to it (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Deery et al., 1994 as cited in Snape et al., 2000; Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Newton & Shore, 1992).

Certain authors state that if the job incumbent is satisfied with the job, the likelihood of joining and/or committing to the union will be decreased (Hammer & Avgar, 2005). The reason for this is that if the employees perceive their job situation as

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fair and are satisfied with it they will have fewer grievances and hence less of a need to become members of a trade union and commit to its endeavours (Davy & Shipper, 1993; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Miller, 1990; Newton & Shore, 1992). The opposite is also true with those who are less satisfied with the job and working conditions being more likely to join and commit to the union and its goals (Bender & Sloane, 1998; Haberfeld, 1995)

This view however assumes that only instrumental issues are important to the employees. Basically employees will, according to this view, join a union if they have a problem with their job and wish to express a grievance (Haberfeld, 1995).

The above can not be denied as instrumentality is clearly important for union members, but it must be remembered that workers may join trade unions due to social affiliation needs, political reasons and also due to their belief in the concept of trade unionism (Finnemore, 1999; Gordon et al., 1980; Guest & Conway, 2004; Haberfeld, 1995; Klandermans, 1986; Newton & Shore, 1992; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995; Snape et al., 2000; Wood, 2002). This view is supported by Davy and Shipper (1993) who found in their longitudinal study that job dissatisfaction was not a strong predictor of union commitment and participation.

The significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and union commitment may also show that employees have joined the union due to reasons other than being dissatisfied with employers or their jobs. One could postulate that in a country such as South Africa, levels of unemployment as well as the increasing move to casual labour by organizations could be influencing employees to become members of unions (Grogan, 2003; Theron, 2004). In other words, membership may be acquired in order to increase levels of job security rather than improving current conditions and addressing grievances (Guest & Conway, 2004; Haberfeld, 1995). Belief in trade unionism could also be an integral factor in the current case where the decision of employees to join the union might have been driven by ideals rather than instrumental needs (Gordon et al., 1980).

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4.1.5. Job satisfaction & union participation

Job satisfaction and union participation exist in a significant positive relationship in the current sample indicating that even though employees may be satisfied with their jobs they will still participate in the activities of their trade union. This could be attributed to the fact that membership in unions is determined by needs for social affiliation as opposed to only instrumental issues (Finnemore, 1999; Tetrick, 1995).

In essence, workers may be joining the union as it provides them with an opportunity to socialize with other individuals similar to them (Finnemore, 1999). The reason to join and participate in union activities might therefore be separated from the purely instrumental issues and possible negative perceptions of the organization.

It would be interesting to investigate what the perceptions of union members are regarding formal and informal participation activities and which of these they are more likely to attend. This would go towards showing whether union members participate due to social needs, instrumental needs or a combination of instrumental and social needs.

Another possibility is that the employees feel compelled to join and participate in union activities due to societal pressures and cultural factors (Davy & Shipper, 1993; Klandermans, 1986; Metochi, 2002). South Africa is a country characterised by strong union membership and this may also be a determining factor (Marais, 1998).

It should also be noted that only a single job satisfaction subscale was used. If it was to be expanded in terms of assessing satisfaction with co-workers, supervisors and remuneration amongst others, the results may vary (Spector, 1997). Certain authors have also stated this claiming that different facets of job satisfaction should be measured to assess the overall job satisfaction of employees in relation to trade union commitment (Hammer & Avgar, 2005).

4.1.6. Union commitment & gender

No significant difference became apparent between the commitment levels of male and female participants in the current sample. This is not consistent with some of the literature which states that female union members are more likely to be committed to the union (Bemmels, 1995; Gordon et al., 1980; Metochi, 2002; Schur & Kruse, 1992). A

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reason for this could be the fact that the previous studies were carried out in a non-South African context and at different times.

Most of the studies claiming that women are more likely to be committed and less likely to participate were done in the 1970s, 1980s and the 1990s. Due to the changing nature of the workplace and gender equality, one could postulate that this stereotypical view might have in fact changed. Essentially the whole view of women in employment has changed (Grobler et al., 2002; Grogan, 2003). Previously female employees might have had to adhere to the image of homemakers, but in the new world of work more widespread opportunities are available. Gender inequality has been reduced in the workplace and women employees are entitled to the same rates of pay and benefits that their male counterparts receive (Grobler et al).

This is especially the case in South Africa which post-1994 placed a great deal of emphasis on racial and gender equality to correct previous disparities. Another possibility explaining why the level of commitment is not higher in the female subset of the sample is the possibility that the overall leadership of most unions is still overwhelmingly consisting of males. As a result, women employees may not be as eager to join and commit to a union. This is supported by some of the previous findings which state that female employees are less likely to join and commit to a union if leadership consists overwhelmingly of males (Schur & Kruse, 1992; Snape et al., 2000).

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4.1.7. Union participation & gender

No significant difference was established between male and female participants in terms of participation in trade union activities. This was contrary to the literature which stated that male union members are more likely to participate whilst female union members even though they want to participate will be constrained by their role as homemakers (Gordon et al., 1980; Metochi, 2002; Schur & Kruse, 1992).

As stated above, the role of women in employment has changed with women being entitled to the same treatment that male employees receive (Grogan, 2003). As a result female participants may now be able to participate in union activities more than they used to. It would also be interesting to examine whether the levels of participation may differ in terms of whether the participation is formal or informal. Female participants

might be more likely to participate in formal activities such as general meetings, voting and similar activities as these are held during work hours. Their informal participation on the other hand might not be as active if they are indeed constrained by traditional roles.

Metochi (2002) found that there was a significant difference between male and female union members in terms of participation. As this study was carried out in Cyprus, cultural differences may explain this difference. Another important factor which needs to be accounted for is that this study was conducted on mostly white-collar unions, whilst the current study is based on blue-collar union members. This might also explain the difference (Metochi).

Another important factor that needs to be accounted for is the atypical composition of the South African context. In South Africa women may increasingly be the breadwinners and the heads of households. They do not therefore have the leisure of being just homemakers but also need to be actively involved in the workplace and the trade union.

The additional calculations performed to assess whether there is difference between male and female participants were all insignificant. This supports the current finding that gender disparity has been decreased in the South African context as levels of ORGCOM, TUCOM, DCOM and JSAT do not differ significantly based on gender. It should be noted that the number of female participants overpoweringly outnumbered the number of male participants. This might have distorted the precision of the present findings.

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4.2. Discussion of regression results

The regression results indicate that trade union commitment explains 34% of variance in trade union participation. This is in line with previous research which found that trade union commitment is an antecedent of union participation (Bamberger et al., 1999; Heshizer & Lund, 1995; Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape et al., 2000; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995).

Job satisfaction explains 3% of variance in union participation. Literature states that high levels of job satisfaction traditionally indicate that employees will not join a union and commit to it as discussed in the previous sections (Bender & Sloane, 1998;

Gordon & DeNisi, 1995; Guest & Conway, 2004; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Newton & Shore, 1992).

Organizational commitment did not explain any variance in union participation in the regression analysis, and as discussed above, this is consistent with literature stating that employees will separate their union and organizational commitment foci as both may have benefits (Redman & Snape, 2005; Snape & Chan, 2000). In other words, organizational commitment may not influence union participation as employees do not consider it, and are not influenced by their commitment to the organization in deciding whether to participate in union activities or not.

4.3. Implications of regression results

Given that 34% of variance in trade union participation is explained by trade union commitment it becomes clear that unions need to foster union commitment in order to increase participation activities of members. Subsequently the focus of unions should be kept on antecedents of trade union commitment in order to increase trade union participation.

Trade unions could in the future therefore create a balance between the various instrumental and non instrumental factors important to members in order to increase their commitment. This might be necessary as members may have different concerns including job security, pay, and treatment in organization as well as social and political factors that influence their commitment and participation levels (Bamberger et al., 1999; Finnemore, 1999; Haberfeld, 1995; Hammer & Avgar, 2005; Sinclair & Tetrick, 1995). In essence, as apparent in existing literature, satisfying the short and long-term needs of members will result in increased trade union commitment and hence participation in union activities, whilst failure to do so will have an opposite effect (Klandermans. 1986). Snape et al. (2000) points out that union socialization is a good predictor of trade union commitment and suggests that unions should focus on it in order to increase commitment of members. The union where the data was collected might therefore consider focusing on socialization processes in order to increase commitment to the union and consequently participation in union activities.

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A variety of studies have examined leadership styles of union officials, shop-steward characteristics, and other factors influencing trade union commitment (Fullager et al., 1994; Metochi, 2002; Snape et al., 2000; Thacker et al., 1990). The trade union where data was collected could also attempt to assess these factors in order to maximize commitment and hence participation in the union. In essence, union leaders and shop stewards need to customize their leadership style in order to foster trade union commitment. As most of the studies mentioned above were not carried out in the South African context, unions need to be careful of considering context specific factors that may influence commitment levels, attempt to address these, and thereby increase participation. This is of crucial importance when one accounts for the fact that union membership has been experiencing a global decline in recent years (Wood & Harcourt, 1998).

4.4. Recommendations

The study of the relationship between trade union commitment, organizational commitment, dual commitment, job satisfaction and trade union participation could in the future entail a more comprehensive questionnaire with some short open ended questions. This would allow the participants to express themselves in more depth regarding the foci of their commitment. A larger sample would also be advisable in future in order to increase validity, reliability, and generalization possibilities of obtained results. A further analysis of the factors influencing the multidimensionality of union commitment and union participation could also receive more focus in following research endeavours. This is advisable as a lot of discrepancy appears to exist in the available literature regarding the multidimensional nature of the constructs.

As no significant difference was established between male and female participants in the current sample, emphasis in future research could also be placed on the gender of participants. This would need to occur in order to ascertain whether there are significant differences in gender and the views expressed by members of each gender group in other trade unions in South Africa or whether this has been mediated by the progressive labour laws and increasing gender equality.

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Another recommendation is to tailor the survey more to the participants. The fact that South Africa has 11 official languages and the survey was in English could be problematic. This becomes especially important when the fact that most participants had an education less than Grade 12 is accounted for. An attempt should therefore be made to translate the survey and assess participants in their mother-tongue. This may increase the validity and reliability of obtained results.

As the study was cross-sectional in nature, causation can not be inferred. According to Snape et al. (2000) this is a common problem in trade union research. Longitudinal studies examining the relationships amongst the constructs would therefore be advisable as pointed out by Snape et al. The study was also unable to sample across trade unions and therefore many potential participants from other trade unions were not reached.

The fact that close to two thirds of participants were female could also indicate that the sample was not representative of trade unions in general. The trade union from which the participants were drawn is relatively new and has only been in operation for the last two years. This could also be viewed as a potential drawback as it might not represent the accurate situation in regards to other, more established unions. The sample comprised blue-collar workers and hence generalization to white-collar unions is not advisable. As the study was a purely quantitative one, the participants may not have been able to express themselves fully and hence some potentially valuable information might not have been recorded. Another important thing to note is that the survey used to collect data has been relatively untested and this indicates that more research is needed to establish its usability.

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4.5. Conclusion

This study has shown that organizational commitment, trade union commitment, job satisfaction and trade union participation co-exist in the South African context with multiple antecedents and correlates.

Trade union commitment has been shown as a major correlate of union participation and it explains 34 % of variance in union participation. This indicates that trade unions should focus on increasing trade union commitment in order to foster trade

union participation. This is important as globally the tendency has been towards decreasing union membership. Consequently trade unions representatives and leaders need to focus on antecedents of union commitment and participation to combat declining membership.

Job satisfaction and trade union commitment were found to correlate significantly as did job satisfaction and union participation. Organizational commitment and trade union commitment also exist in a significant positive relationship. This indicates that the antecedents of organizational commitment, union commitment and union participation may vary and as such deserve further examination in the current context.

The South African trade union movement is atypical as it has been characterized by profound political involvement and overt militancy in the last 30 years. Most of the studies examining union commitment and participation have however been carried out in a non-South African context. Even though the democratization of the country has changed conditions and resulted in progressive labour laws, the situation still merits more study in South Africa. Future research should therefore be more contextualized with more emphasis being placed on South African specific factors. This would involve accounting for high rates of unemployment, low levels of skills and technological knowledge, language and education differences, globalization, casualisation of labour and cultural factors amongst others. These may all play a significant role in influencing organizational commitment, trade union commitment, job satisfaction and trade union participation in the country and may be influential in explaining the relationships existing amongst these constructs. Attempting to incorporate these factors into future research may hence shed more light on the relationships examined in the current study.

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APPENDIX:
THE UNION COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

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UNION COMMITMENT SURVEY

This information is confidential. Do not put your name on any part of this questionnaire.

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1. **Gender:**
   - ❑ Male
   - ❑ Female

2. **Marital status**
   - ❑ Married
   - ❑ Single

3. **Race**
   - ❑ White
   - ❑ Black
   - ❑ Coloured
   - ❑ Indian
   - ❑ Prefer not to answer this question

4. **Your education:**
   - ❑ Less than Std 8
   - ❑ Std 8 (JC)
   - ❑ Matric
   - ❑ Diploma
   - ❑ Degree

5. **Your age (in years):** ☐

6. **Years with this company:** ☐

7. **Years with this union:** ☐

	My union can improve...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
8	**...my pay**	1	2	3	4	5
9	**...physical work environment**	1	2	3	4	5
10	**...job security**	1	2	3	4	5
11	**...how interesting my job is**	1	2	3		5
12	**...how company operations work**	1	2	3	4	5
13	**...my work situation**	1	2	3	4	5
14	**...the control I have over my work**	1	2	3	4	5
15	**...how fairly the company treats me**	1	2	3	4	5

	It is important for me to improve...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
16	**...my pay**	1	2	3	4	5
17	**...my physical work environment**	1	2	3	4	5
18	**...my job security**	1	2	3	4	5
19	**...how interesting my job is**	1	2	3	4	5
20	**...my company's operations**	1	2	3	4	5
21	**...my work situation**	1	2	3	4	5
22	**...how much control I have over my work**	1	2	3	4	5
23	**...how fairly the company treats me**	1	2	3	4	5

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	About my trade union	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
24	I believe in the idea of having trade unions	1	2	3	4	5
25	My union and I have approximately the same basic values	1	2	3	4	5
26	I feel that it is important to be part of a union	1	2	3	4	5
27	If my union wanted, I would give up an increase to support low-paid members in other unions	1	2	3	4	5
28	Unions give members their money's worth for the dues they pay	1	2	3	4	5
29	I feel a strong connection to my union	1	2	3	4	5
30	I feel emotionally attached to my union	1	2	3	4	5
31	I feel like part of the family at my union	1	2	3	4	5
32	My union has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
33	It would be very costly for me to leave my union right now	1	2	3	4	5
34	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided that I wanted to leave my union now	1	2	3	4	5
35	I would not leave my union right now because of what I would stand to lose	1	2	3	4	5
36	For me personally, the cost of leaving my union would be far greater than the benefit	1	2	3	4	5
37	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my union now	1	2	3	4	5
38	I would feel guilty if I left my union now	1	2	3	4	5
39	I would not leave my union right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5
40	I would violate a trust if I quit my union now	1	2	3	4	5
41	It is easy to be loyal to both union and management	1	2	3	4	5
42	Management makes it easy to conduct union business	1	2	3	4	5
43	Management makes it easy for me to talk to my shop steward	1	2	3	4	5
44	You can be a good union member and support management at the same time	1	2	3	4	5
45	Union members don't mind if you try to help management improve work effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5

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About my trade union		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
46	If asked I am willing to spend a lot of time to help my trade union	1	2	3	4	5
47	If asked I would run for elected office in my trade union	1	2	3	4	5
48	If asked I would serve on a committee for my union	1	2	3	4	5
49	I read my union newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
50	I keep informed about issues that may affect my union	1	2	3	4	5
51	I attend union meetings	1	2	3	4	5
52	I talk to my shop steward about union matters	1	2	3	4	5
53	I vote in union elections	1	2	3	4	5
54	I vote on other union issues	1	2	3	4	5
55	I attend my union AGM (annual general meeting)	1	2	3	4	5
56	I support my union when it calls for action	1	2	3	4	5
57	I support my union when it calls for action, even when I disagree	1	2	3	4	5
58	I would support my union if it called for a go-slow	1	2	3	4	5
59	I would support my union if it called for a strike	1	2	3	4	5
60	I would support my union if it called for protest action	1	2	3	4	5
61	I actively try attract members to join my union	1	2	3	4	5
62	I actively assist my union to organise meetings	1	2	3	4	5
63	I actively help at union events	1	2	3	4	5
64	I talk positively about my union to others	1	2	3	4	5
65	I defend my union when others criticize it	1	2	3	4	5
66	I defend my union when other union members criticise it	1	2	3	4	5

Every union member...		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
67	...must be willing to take the time and risk of filing a grievance	1	2	3	4	5
68	...has a duty to listen for information that might be useful to the union	1	2	3	4	5
69	...has a responsibility to see that the other members 'live up to' the collective agreement	1	2	3	4	5
70	...has a duty to support another worker to use the grievance procedure	1	2	3	4	5
71	...should report any breach of the collective agreement to the union	1	2	3	4	5

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More about my union		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
72	I would like to terminate my membership with my union	1	2	3	4	5
73	I would like to terminate my membership with my union as soon as possible	1	2	3	4	5
74	Within the next 12 months I hope to have terminated my membership with this union.	1	2	3	4	5

About the company I work for		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
75	I feel a strong connection to this company	1	2	3	4	5
76	I feel emotionally attached to this company	1	2	3	4	5
77	I feel like part of the family at this company	1	2	3	4	5
78	This company has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
79	It would be costly for me to leave this company right now	1	2	3	4	5
80	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided that I wanted to leave this company right now	1	2	3	4	5
81	I would not leave this company right now because of what I stand to lose	1	2	3	4	5
82	For me personally, the cost of leaving this company would be far greater than the benefit	1	2	3	4	5
83	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my company now	1	2	3	4	5
84	I would feel guilty if I left my company now	1	2	3	4	5
85	I would not leave this company right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5
86	I would violate a trust if I quit my job with this company now	1	2	3	4	5

About my job		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
87	My job is meaningful	1	2	3	4	5
88	I like doing the things I do at work	1	2	3	4	5
89	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job	1	2	3	4	5
90	My job is enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your participation.

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