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Company and union commitment amongst members of two South African mining unions

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COMPANY AND UNION COMMITMENT AMONGST MEMBERS OF TWO SOUTH AFRICAN MINING UNIONS

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A Dissertation Submitted to the F··ulty of Arts, University of the Witwatersrand, ... Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree of Master of Arts.

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ABSTRACT

With specific reference to organisational (company and union) commitment, the aim of the present research was to investigate the generality of the dual commitment phenomenon. Utilising the protective/aggressive typology developed by Walker and Lawler (1979), the hypothesis that the type of union investigated may moderate the relationship between company and union commitment (Martin, 1981), was tested.

The Organisational Commitment Questionnaire and Union Commitment Scale, measures of company and union commitment respectively, were administered to members of the Mine Surface Officials' Association (M.S.O.A.), a "protective" union comprising primarily white-collar workers, and the National Union of Mineworkers, an "aggressive" union comprising primarily blue-collar workers. A significant positive correlation between company and union commitment obtained for members of the M.S.O.A., and an insignificant correlation between these variables obtained for members of the N.U.M., provide support for the view that union type moderates the relationship between the commitment constructs. The relationship of certain demographic, work and union experience, and industrial relations climate variables to the dependent variables of company and union commitment was also assessed. Stepwise multiple regression analyses

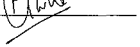
revealed firstly, that whilst company tenure, extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, and union instrumentality perceptions predicted company commitment for members of the M.S.O.A., only extrinsic satisfaction predicted company commitment for members of the N.U.M. Secondly, whilst education, extrinsic satisfaction and union instrumentality perceptions predicted union commitment for members of the M.S.O.A., only company tenure predicted union commitment for members of the N.U.M.

As the investigation of different patterns of commitment has greater conceptual and pragmatic value than approaches merely investigating correlations between company and union commitment, subjects of both unions were classified into four possible commitment patterns (viz., dual commitment, unilateral company commitment, unilateral union commitment, dual disallegiance). Analysis of covariance and Scheffe tests indicated that these patterns correlated differently with extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, union instrumentality perceptions and industrial relations climate measures.

The results of the research indicate that union type is an important moderating variable to be considered when investigating commitment to unions and employing organisations. Secondly, the data presented support the view that organisational commitment research should consider the full spectrum of commitment patterns to be found in the workforce.

DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the Degree of Master of Arts at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has not been submitted before any degree or examination in any other University.

SIGNED : 

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CONTENTS

Title page
Abstract
Declaration
Acknowledgements
Table of Contents
List of Tables

Chapter		Page
1.	INTRODUCTION	1
	1.1. Organisational Commitment	8
	1.2. Company Commitment	12
	1.3. Union Commitment	30
	1.4. Dual Commitment	78
2.	METHOD	88
	2.1. Subjects and Setting	88
	2.2. Questionnaires	91
	2.3. Statistical Analysis	99
3.	RESULTS	104
	3.1. Hypothesis 1	105
	3.2. Hypothesis 2	106
	3.3. Hypothesis 3	110
	3.4. Hypothesis 4	111
	3.5. Hypothesis 5	113
	3.6. Demographic variables	115
	3.7. Hotelling T-statistics	115
	3.8 Multivariate results	116
	3.8.1. Company Commitment	117
	3.8.2. Union Commitment	118
4.	DISCUSSION	120
List of References		151
Appendix		173

LIST OF TABLES

		Page
1.	Correlates of Company Commitment	17
2.	Antecedent Correlates of Unionisation Indices ..	37
3.	Demographic Profiles of the Union Samples and Sample Populations, and Test for Differences between Samples and Sample Populations	93
4.	Union Commitment Scale Item Factor Loadings	99
5.	Descriptive Statistics of Independent and Dependent Variables, Coefficient Alpha Statistics, and Test for Differences in Mean Responses	107
6.	Intercorrelation Matrix - M.S.O.A. Data	108
7.	Intercorrelation Matrix - N.U.M. Data	109
8.	Fisher Z - values to Test for Differences in Correlations between Independent and Dependent Variables for M.S.O.A. and N.U.M. Samples	112
9.	Maximum R-Square Improvement - Company Commitment	117
10.	Maximum R-Square Improvement - Union Commitment	118

INTRODUCTION

Early research conducted to investigate commitment to both company and union, i.e., dual commitment, consistently indicated that employees who hold positive attitudes toward their employing organisation will also hold positive attitudes toward their union (Biles, 1969; Dean, 1954; England, 1960; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Martin, 1981; Martin & Smith, 1979; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1956; Sunderman, 1966; Wade, 1985; Walker & Lawler, 1979). However, the inevitability of dual commitment across different segments of the labour force has been questioned (Angle & Perry, 1986; Conlan & Gallagher, 1987; Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1987; Gallagher, 1984; Martin, 1981). Recent research has indicated that dual commitment to companies and unions is moderated by perceptions of the labour-management relationship climate (Angle & Perry, 1986; Fukami & Larson, 1982; Gallagher, 1984), union membership status (Conlan & Gallagher, 1987), behavioural participation in union affairs (Angle & Perry, 1986) and the occupational status of workers (Fullagar & Barling, 1987). Furthermore, it has been suggested that another variable which may moderate the relationship between company and union commitment is the type of union investigated (Martin, 1981). With reference to Walker and Lawler's (1979) distinction between "protective" and "aggressive" unions, Martin (1981) suggests that dual commitment is more likely to be associated with

"protective" than "aggressive" unionism. Martin (1981) investigated a small single union which had historically begun as an aggressive union, but with the passage of time had adopted a protective union stance. Longitudinal data indicated that in respect to union members, protective unionism is likely to foster dual commitment to company and union whilst aggressive unionism is likely to foster unilateral commitment to the union.

The suggestion that union type may moderate the relationship between company and union commitment provides the primary impetus for the present research, the aims of which are four-fold. Firstly, the generality of the dual commitment phenomenon across different segments of the labour force and amongst members of different trade unions will be assessed. Secondly, the research will investigate predictors, be they common or unique, of company and union commitment and whether these predictors are common to members of different types of unions. Thirdly, the relationship of the two commitment constructs to a previously untested outcome common to both, namely industrial relations climate, will be assessed. Finally, the research will assess whether the four different patterns of commitment possible in the labour force (ie., dual commitment, unilateral union commitment, unilateral company commitment, dual disallegiance) correlate differently with various work and union experiences and industrial relations climate. Specifically, measures of both company and union

commitment, together with measures of various independent variables, will be administered to private sector, mining industry employees belonging to either the Mine Surface Officials' Association (M.S.O.A), a primarily white-collar trade union whose membership is governed by the existance of a closed-shop agreement with the Chamber of Mines, or the National Union of Mineworkers (N.U.M.), a primarily blue-collar trade union of which membership is voluntary.

In order to demonstrate the relevance and applicability of a study of organisational (company and union) commitment, it is necessary to briefly consider the historical relationships that have evolved between the discipline of industrial psychology[1] and management and labour. Industrial psychology's traditional neglect of labour has long been recognised. Historically there has been an imbalance in research in favour of those issues of interest to management (Fullagar & Barling, 1986; Fullagar & Pairis, 1986; Gordon & Nurick, 1981; Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson & Spiller, 1980). Although numerous studies on labour and trade union issues were conducted during the 1950's, a decade described as the "Golden Age of research and discussion on union

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[1]For purposes of brevity the term "industrial psychology" will be used throughout the text to refer to both industrial and organisational psychology simultaneously.

democracy" (Strauss, 1977, p.240), very little of the subsequent research conducted has been of interest to the labour movement (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Presently no more than 1% of research conducted within the field of industrial psychology is estimated to focus on labour and trade union issues (Campbell, Daft & Hulin, 1982). In South Africa, only 2% of research conducted by the National Institute for Personnel Research between 1946 and 1986 focused on industrial relations, trade unions and industrial conflict (Fullagar, 1986b; Webster, 1981).

In allowing a managerial elite to define their focus of enquiry, industrial psychologists have developed theories incorporated firmly within a Euro-American bourgois ideology, theories which not only promote the interests of organised capital but also impede the realisation of the objectives of labour organisations (Fullagar & Paizis, 1986). One of the more obvious reasons for the above-stated research imbalance is that industrial psychologists have, of necessity, served mainly those organisations capable of sponsoring research (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Other reasons given for this imbalance include the following. Firstly, as a consequence of industrial psychology's identification and perhaps even collaboration with management, the discipline's theories and methods alike are perceived as preventing the consolidation of unions (Gordon & Burt, 1981; Huszczo, Wiggins & Currie, 1984; Walker, 1979). For example, the

stress on individual differences within psychometric testing conflicts with labour principles of solidarity and seniority (Barkin, 1961; Rhoads & Landy, 1973). Secondly, the dominant philosophies of scientific management and human relations (Fullagar, 1983; Gordon & Burt, 1981; Kornhauser, 1961; Strauss, 1977), with their attendant inadequate conceptualization of the nature of industrial conflict, have resulted in an insufficient focus on industrial relations issues within the discipline (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Thirdly, scientific management and human relations have been located within the American capitalist socio-political context, where the dominant work ethic stresses individualism, achievement, productivity, and profit incentive schemes (Fullagar & Paizis, 1986). The generality of theories developed within this context to different cultures has been questioned (Hofstede, 1981), not only because of the obvious cross-cultural differences which exist in respect to work values, government policies and legislation, labour market conditions and labour union power positions (Fullagar & Paizis, 1986), but also because of the cultural imperialism inherent in such a pursuit (Jawes, 1986).

Finally, in the South African context the predominantly white, middle-class backgrounds of industrial psychologists precludes an adequate conceptualisation of the work experiences of the black working class (Fullagar & Paizis, 1986). This has resulted in South African

social scientists being labelled as "servants of apartheid", because of their emphasis on formulating theories stressing between- as opposed to within-group differences (Webster, 1981).

As a consequence of the discipline's primary focus on management issues, while industrial psychologists remain generally ignorant of union psychology, the attitudes of unionists towards industrial psychological research are characterised by scepticism and suspicion (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). The limited contribution of industrial psychologists to labour matters is perceived by trade unionists as "..... at best, to be unrelated to their needs, at worst to be antithetical to their interests" (Huszczo, Wiggins & Currie, 1984, p.432).

Although the preceding discussion paints a dismal picture of industrial psychology's neglect of the labour side of the capital-labour dichotomy, attention to recent research indicates that this trend may be undergoing a process of reversal (Fullagar, 1986b). Since the late 1970's an increasing body of research focusing on organised labour has accumulated (Huszczo, 1984; Kochan, 1980; Stagner, 1981). Moreover, special editions of the International Review of Applied Psychology (1981) and the Journal of Occupational Psychology (1986), and a special section of the American Psychologist (1984), all focusing on labour matters, have been published, while various committees within the American Psychological Association have been formed (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

Unfortunately, this recent trend towards investigation of union matters is not evident in South Africa, where psychologists neglect of organised labour has been even more widespread than has been the case overseas (Fullagar, 1984). This phenomenon is not the result of the relative undevelopment of the discipline in the country; on the contrary, the influence of the discipline has been pervasive and dates back as far as the 1910's (Bozzoli, 1977), and is evidenced by the existence of various industrial psychological institutions such as the National Institute for Personnel Research, the National Development and Management Foundation and the Institute for Personnel Management, established in 1946, 1948 and 1964 respectively (Fullagar, 1984).

Despite the pervasiveness of industrial psychology's influence on South African commerce and industry, very limited labour-related research has been conducted (Fullagar, 1984; Webster, 1981). Furthermore, analysis of the prescribed texts for organisational behaviour and industrial psychology courses at nine South African universities indicated that less than 1% of the samples' contents focused on organised labour and trade unions (Fullagar, 1984). This situation has stimulated increasing discussion amongst social scientists concerning the "relevance" of industrial psychology generally, and more specifically, its failure to adequately locate itself within the South African context

(Dawes, 1986; Foster, 1986; Fullagar, 1984; Fullagar & Paizis, 1986; Nzimande, 1984). It is evident that with regard to the extent to which social science addresses the problems and socio-political conditions experienced by the working class majority (Dawes, 1986), industrial psychology has to a large degree become irrelevant in the South African context (Fullagar & Paizis, 1986).

1.1. Organisational Commitment

The increasing growth of labour organisations as a result of legislative changes in South Africa since 1979 has stimulated a limited amount of research applicable to the labour movement (Webster, 1985a). One such area of interest to industrial psychologists in both the overseas and South African contexts is that of union commitment, in particular the relationship between union participation and various psychological, behavioural and attitudinal variables (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Commitment, understood as the binding of the individual to the union (Gordon et al., 1980), differs significantly from other previously researched indices of unionization such as membership. The process of commitment extends throughout the tenure of the individual's membership and is thus critically related to the success of the union to impose sanctions and consolidate its membership (Fullagar, 1986b). In contrast, the exclusive focus on union membership in order to understand union psychology ignores the diversity of attitudes, beliefs and

behaviours of union and non-union members (Fullagar, 1985b). The importance of the study of union commitment specifically, and the construct's relationship to company commitment, will briefly be outlined in the following paragraphs. As the present study investigates both types of organisational commitment, this discussion will be followed by overviews of previous research conducted in these areas. For pragmatic purposes, the specific hypotheses to be tested in the present research are incorporated within the discussion of union commitment only, although they relate to company commitment as well.

To encourage research in the area of labour in general and union commitment in particular, Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson & Spiller (1980) developed a "Commitment to the Union Scale". As the authors' note:

> since the ability of union locals to attain their goals is generally based on the members' loyalty, belief in the objectives of organised labour, and willingness to perform services voluntarily, commitment is part of the very fabric of unions (p.480).

Thus union commitment is an important and particularly relevant variable to be considered in any applied psychological investigation of unions (Gordon & Nurick, 1981). Fullagar & Barling (1986) note three beneficial outcomes to be derived from such research. Firstly, understanding of the psychological processes involved in unionisation would be enhanced. Secondly, unions would

be provided with research of practical value. Thirdly, the generality of current models of commitment, for instance the "company" oriented organisational commitment model developed by Mowday, Porter & Steers (1982), could be tested. This outcome is of particular relevance as the obvious comparability of companies and unions, whilst both social institutions and sharing certain properties, has been questioned (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986; Wade, 1985).

Although unions and bureaucratic organisations share many common characteristics, there are fundamental differences between the two social organisations (March, 1965). Firstly, an important difference is the unique objectives which each organisation pursues (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Labour unions are non-profit motivated, relying on a democratic ethos in which the direction of power and authority is upward as opposed to downward (Strauss & Warner, 1977). Stein (1972) comments that a trade union is "philosophically and traditionally a democratic institution which differs from other types of association, notably the business corporation, in the degree to which it emphasises internal democracy" (p.47).

Secondly, whilst unions typically arise as a result of dissatisfaction with company policy (Tannenbaum, 1965) and are thus perceived by members to be working for them (Fukami and Larson, 1984), the relationship between an employee and his/her company is one based on exchange, in

which skills and services are exchanged fr compensation (Schein, 1980; Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1982).

A further factor differentiating companies and unions is the nature of dependency which arises between the two organisations and their members, in order to ensure organisational survival (Wade, 1985). For both initial certification and the attainment of specific goals and objectives, union membership is crucial. However, whilst membership support is required for the attainment of company goals and objectives, where this support is withdrawn replacement labour and/or training may ensure organisational survival.

Finally, whilst the existence of closed-shop agreements often preclude voluntary membership of a union, on an individual basis company membership is typically voluntary (Wade, 1985). It is possible that the existence of a closed-shop agreement necessitates membership on the part of some individuals who would not willingly belong. This factor has implications for unions in that a section of the membership may not be committed to the union's goals and/or values.

Thus despite suggestions that the commitment process to each organisation may be similar (Fukami & Larson, 1984), a distinction between the company and union organisational commitment constructs appears justified (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986; Wade, 1985)

in view of the above-stated differences between the two social organisations. It is plausible to expect that differentiating factors may affect the nature of membership commitment to each organisation (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

1.2. Company Commitment

A large body of theoretical and empirical research has accumulated in the area of company commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). This research has attempted to both explicate the construct (Etzioni, 1961; Kanter, 1968; Mowday et al., 1982; Salancik, 1977; Staw, 1977) and determine its primary antecedents and outcomes (Bluen & van Zwam, 1983; Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Kanter, 1977; Mowday, Porter and Dubin, 1974; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Salancik, 1977; Sheldon, 1971; Staw, 1977; Steers, 1977; Stevens, Beyer & Trice, 1978). Despite the increasing attention paid to company commitment, there is a lack of consensus regarding the construct's definition (Mowday et al., 1982). Approaches to the conceptualisation of commitment can however be differentiated according to the degree to which either commitment related behaviours, or alternatively, commitment related attitudes, are stressed (Mowday et al., 1982; Salancik, 1977; Staw, 1977).

Behaviour-related approaches to commitment, theoretically

based on the social psychological research of Festinger (1957), Becker (1960), Kanter (1968) and Kiesler (1971), and enunciated in applied industrial settings in the work of Salancik (1977) and Staw (1977), view commitment as the result of various behavioural investments made by the individual. These investments effectively bind the employee to the employing organisation. According to this approach, commitment is developed as a result of the process of "side-bets" whereby the individual employee increases the number of investments made in the organisation as his/her tenure increases (Becker, 1960). This approach to commitment is therefore behaviour-related in that "the locus of events that culminate in the member's commitment is his or her own prior behaviour" (Angle & Perry, 1981, p.124). Specific behaviours found to enhance commitment are those which are public, explicit, irrevocable and voluntary (Salancik, 1977).

Attitude-related approaches to commitment (e.g. Buchanan, 1974; Mowday et al., 1982; Porter & Smith, 1970) emphasise the attitudinal concomitants of commitment, whereby the employee identifies with the organisation (Sheldon, 1971) and matches his/her goals with those of the organisation (Hall et al., 1970). According to this perspective, attitudinal commitment would be defined as: (a) identification with and adoption of organisational goals; (b) a feeling of attachment to and affection for the organisation; and (c) psychological involvement in

one's work role (Buchanan, 1974), or in a similar vein as: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a strong desire to maintain organisational membership; and (c) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation (Porter & Smith, 1970).

Comparisons of the two approaches to company commitment outlined in the preceding two paragraphs have been made in empirical research. Ferris & Aranya (1983) found that attitudinal measures of commitment were better predictors of intent to leave and generally more effective in measuring organisational commitment. Job satisfaction has been more closely related to attitudinal commitment than side-bet theory (Shoemaker, Snizek & Bryant, 1977) which has accounted for less variance in organisational commitment than attitudinal commitment (Angle & Perry, 1983). However, despite the greater empirical support for attitudinal approaches to commitment, Mowday et al. (1982) point out that commitment would most realistically be viewed as composed of both attitudinal and behavioural components, which reciprocally influence the commitment process.

Empirical research has indicated that antecedents of company commitment can be found in at least four distinct areas, as follows: (a) personal characteristics; (b) role-related characteristics; (c) structural characteristics of the organisation; and (d) work

experiences (Mowday et al., 1982). The research findings in each of these areas will be outlined in the following paragraphs. A summary of correlates of company commitment is outlined in Table One below.

(a) Personal characteristics

Although there is some inconsistency in the research (Hall & Schneider, 1972; Steers, 1977), personal characteristics generally positively related to company commitment include both age and tenure (Alutto, Hrebiniak & Alonso, 1973; Angle & Perry, 1981; Brown, 1969; Hall et al., 1970; Hrebiniak, 1974; Lee, 1971; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Sheldon, 1971; Welsh & LaVan, 1981). The increased psychological attachment as a result of increased age or tenure is explained as follows. As age or tenure increases, so the individual's opportunities for alternative employment decrease, thereby increasing the perceived attractiveness of the employing organisation (March & Simon, 1958). Alternatively, the number of investments in the organisation made by the individual increases as his/her tenure increases (Becker, 1960).

In contrast to age and tenure, whilst some inconsistency in research results is evident (Lee, 1971; Steers & Spencer, 1977), a personal characteristic generally shown to be negatively related to commitment is education (Angle & Perry, 1981; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Morris &

Steers, 1980; Steers 1977). Two explanations for this relationship have been suggested. Firstly, the organisation may be unable to meet the higher expectations held by more highly educated individuals (Mowday et al., 1982). Secondly, because more highly educated individuals are committed to their profession or trade, the organisation is unable to compete for their psychological involvement (Mowday et al., 1982). Gender has also been shown to relate to company commitment, with females generally found to be more committed than males (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bluen & van Zwam, 1983; Gould, 1975; Grusky, 1966; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972). This relationship is explained by reference to the greater barriers women have to overcome in order to attain their positions in the organisation, which increases the importance of organisational membership (Grusky, 1966).

Various personality factors have been shown to relate to company commitment including achievement motivation, a sense of competence and other higher-order needs (Koch, 1974; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Rotondi, 1976; Steers, 1977; Steers & Spencer, 1977). It appears that company commitment is related to the degree to which the organisation is perceived as a source of need satisfaction (Mowday et al., 1982). Relatedly, the existence of a strong personal work ethic has been associated with company commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Card, 1978; Goodale, 1973; Hall et al., 1970; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hulin & Blood, 1968; Kidron, 1978; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977).

TABLE 1 - CORRELATES OF COMPANY COMMITMENT

Researcher(s)	Date	Correlate(s)
Alutto, Hrebiniak, & Alonso	1973	Age, education, marital status, sex, recognition policy and reward structure satisfaction
Angle & Perry	1981	Tardiness, absenteeism, turnover, age
	1986	Labour-management relationship climate
Bartol	1979	Job satisfaction
Bateman & Strasser	1984	Job satisfaction
Brief, Aldag, & Wallden	1976	Leadership style
Bluen & Van Zwam	1983	Sex, race, union membership
Brown	1969	Need satisfaction, job scope
Buchanan	1974	Group norms, job challenge, met expectations, self-image reinforcement, feelings of personal importance, social involvement, perceived pay equity
Card	1978	Personal work ethic
Conlan & Gallagher	1987	Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, union membership status
Dubin, Champoux, & Porter	1975	Work-oriented central life ethic
Farrell & Rusbult	1981	Investments, rewards, costs, alternatives
Fukami & Larson	1984	Tenure, job scope, job stress, supervisor relations, social involvement, union commitment
Goodale	1973	Personal work ethic
Gould	1975	Sex

TABLE 1 contd. - CORRELATES OF COMPANY COMMITMENT

Researcher(s)	Date	Correlate(s)
Grusky	1966	Rewards, costs, met expectations
Hall & Schneider	1972	Personal work ethic, job scope
Hall, Schneider. & Nygren	1970	Satisfaction of affiliation and security needs, personal work ethic, job scope
Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin	1979	Turnover
Krebiniak	1974	Age, tenure, organisational dependability
Krebiniak & Alutto	1972	Role stress, job satisfaction, tenure
Hulin & Blood	1968	Personal work ethic
Kidron	1978	Personal work ethic
Kiesler & Sakumura	1966	Extrinsic rewards
Koch	1974	*Higher-order needs*
Koch & Steers	1978	Absenteeism, turnover
Larson & Fukami	1984	Absenteeism, turnover, performance
Lee	1969	Tenure, personal/organisational goals congruence, professional prestige
	1971	
Marsh & Mannari	1977	Turnover, job scope
Morgan & Herman	1976	Absenteeism
Morris & Koch	1979	Role-conflict
Morris & Sherman	1981	Leadership style, role stress, self-efficacy age, education
Morris & Steers	1980	Education, formalisation *of rules and procedures,* functional dependance, decentralization
Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur	1980	Turnover
Mowday, Porter, & Dubin	1974	Performance

TABLE 1 contd. - CORRELATES OF COMPANY COMMITMENT

Researcher(s)	Date	Correlate(s)
Grusky	1966	Rewards, costs, met expectations
Hall & Schneider	1972	Personal work ethic, job scope
Hall, Schneider, & Nygren	1970	Satisfaction of affiliation and security needs, personal work ethic, job scope
Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin	1979	Turnover
Hrebiniak	1974	Age, tenure, organisational dependability
Hrebiniak & Alutto	1972	Role stress, job satisfaction, tenure
Hulin & Blood	1968	Personal work ethic
Kidron	1978	Personal work ethic
Kiesler & Sakumura	1966	Extrinsic rewards
Koch	1974	*Higher-order needs*
Koch & Steers	1978	Absenteeism, turnover
Larson & Fukami	1984	Absenteeism, turnover, performance
Lee	1969	Tenure, personal/organisational goals congruence, professional prestige
	1971	
Marsh & Mannari	1977	Turnover, job scope
Morgan & Herman	1976	Absenteeism
Morris & Koch	1979	Role-conflict
Morris & Sherman	1981	Leadership style, role stress, self-efficacy age, education
Morris & Steers	1980	Education, formalisation *of rules and procedures*, functional dependance, decentralization
Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur	1980	Turnover
Mowday, Porter, & Dubin	1974	Performance

TABLE 1 contd. - CORRELATES OF COMPANY COMMITMENT

Researcher(s)	Date	Correlate(s)
Mowday, Steers, & Porter	1979	Absenteeism, turnover
O'Reilly & Caldwell	1980	Volitionality and irrevocability of job choice, job satisfaction
Patchen	1970	Group norms
Porter, Crampon, & Smith	1976	Turnover, performance
Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian	1974	Turnover
Rabinowitz & Hall	1977	Personal work ethic
Rhodes & Steers	1981	Worker ownership, participation in decision-making, perceived pay equity, group norms
Rotondi	1976	Higher-order needs, social involvement
Rusbult & Farrell	1983	Rewards, costs, alternatives
Schneider, Hall, & Nygren	1974	Self-image/organisational goals congruence, tenure
Sheldon	1971	Age, tenure, position, social involvement
Smith	1977	Absenteeism
Steers	1977	Attendance, turnover, need for achievement, job characteristics, group norms, organisational dependability, feelings of personal importance, performance
Steers & Spencer	1977	Education, higher-order needs, job scope
Stevens, Beyer, & Trice	1978	Role overload, tenure, job involvement, job scope, centralisation
Stumpf & Hartman	1984	Person/job fit, performance, job satisfaction
Van Maanen	1975	Performance

TABLE 1 contd. - CORRELATES OF COMPANY COMMITMENT

Researcher(s)	Date	Correlate(s)
Wade	1985	Organisational climate, job satisfaction, union commitment
Welsh & LaVan	1981	Role stress, job satisfaction, age, tenure
Wiener & Gechman	1977	Involvement, job satisfaction

Finally, in isolated studies, employees with a work-oriented central life interest were more highly committed to the organisation (Dubin, Champoux & Porter, 1975), and in a study conducted within the South African context, race was shown to relate to commitment, with black employees evidencing higher company commitment than their white counterparts (Bluen & van Zwam, 1983).

(b) *Role-related characteristics*

Variations in the task requirements of different jobs, or role-related characteristics, have been shown to influence employee commitment to their employing organisations (Mowday et al., 1982). Whilst increases in job scope, with an increase in challenge for the individual job incumbents, have been fairly consistently shown to relate to increases in company commitment (Brown, 1969; Buchanan, 1974; Hall et al., 1970; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Steers,

1977; Steers & Spencer, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978; Fukami and Larson, 1984), role conflict (Morris & Koch, 1979; Morris & Sherman, 1981), role overload (Stevens et al., 1978) and job stress (Fukami & Larson, 1984) have been found to be inversely related to company commitment. Finally, research investigating the relationship of role ambiguity to company commitment has provided inconsistent results (Morris & Koch, 1979; Morris & Sherman, 1981).

(c) Structural characteristics

In studies investigating the relationship of selected structural characteristics of organisations to company commitment, the following results have been obtained. Firstly, in a study conducted by Morris & Steers (1980) it was found that individuals who experienced greater formalisation (of written rules and procedures), functional dependence (on the work of others) and decentralisation, were more highly committed than those individuals who experienced these factors to a lesser degree. It should be noted however, that with respect to centralisation, contrary results have been obtained by Stevens et al. (1978). Secondly, Rhodes & Steers (1981), investigating worker ownership and participation in decision-making, found that employees were more highly committed when they have a vested interest and greater participation in the decision-making processes of the organisation. Thirdly, in the South African context

union members have been shown to be more highly committed to their employing organisation than non-union members (Bluen & van Zwam, 1983). Fourthly, data indicate that although different levels of overall employee commitment are evident in different organisations, the job level of employees within each particular organisation does not influence commitment levels (Mowday et al, 1982). Finally, structural characteristics of organisations shown to be unrelated to company commitment are organisation size and span of control (Stevens et al., 1978; Morris & Steers, 1980).

(d) Work experiences

Previous research has indicated that ten work experience variables are significantly related to company commitment. As Mowday et al. (1982) note: "Work experiences are ..... a major socializing force and as such represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organisation" (p.34).

Organisational dependability, defined as the degree to which employees perceive the organisation to look after their interests, has correlated significantly with company commitment in three separate studies (Buchanan, 1974; Hrebiniak, 1974; Steers, 1977). Secondly, increased feelings of personal importance to the organisation on the part of employees has been related to

increased levels of company commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977). Thirdly, data indicate that company commitment increases when employee expectations are met in the workplace (Grusky, 1966), although some evidence exists to the contrary (Steers, 1977). Fourthly, the extent to which employees perceive their co-workers to maintain positive attitudes towards the organisation is related to company commitment (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970; Steers, 1977). Fifthly, in research conducted by Rhodes & Steers (1981) and Buchanan (1974), it was found that company commitment correlated with perceived pay equity and group norms regarding hard work. Sixthly, leadership style, particularly the presence of leader initiating structure (Brief, Aldag & Wallden, 1976; Morris & Sherman, 1981) and leader consideration (Morris & Sherman, 1981), has been related to company commitment. Seventhly, company commitment measures have correlated with supervisory relations (Fukami & Larson, 1984). Eighthly, an important correlate of company commitment is the degree of social involvement that individuals have with their employing organisations (Buchanan, 1974; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Rotondi, 1975; Sheldon, 1971). Finally, Wade (1985) found both organisation climate and job satisfaction to be related to company commitment. Following the preceding summary of previous research findings, it can be concluded that the examination of specific work experiences has made an important contribution to the understanding of company commitment.

With respect to the consequences of company commitment, five areas of research have been investigated (Mowday et al., 1982). Firstly, although the correlations yielded in research are not as high as may be expected, low performance ratings have consistently related to low levels of company commitment (Mowday et al., 1974; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Steers, 1977). Mowday et al. (1982) propose that the low correlations yielded in research may be due to commitment attitudes only influencing one aspect of job performance, which comprises motivational, role clarity and ability factors (Porter & Lawler, 1968).

Secondly, as mentioned previously when discussing personal correlates of company commitment, significant positive correlations between job tenure and company commitment have been yielded (Fukami & Larson, 1984; Mowday et al., 1979; Steers, 1977). Although the causal relationships between these variables remain uncertain, it appears that committed individuals desire to maintain their membership in the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982).

Thirdly, although the research results are somewhat inconsistent (Angle & Perry, 1981), some support exists for an inverse relationship between company commitment and absenteeism (Morgan & Herman, 1976; Smith, 1977; Steers, 1977). One explanation given for this relationship is that highly committed employees are more

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motivated to attend in order that organisational goal attainment is facilitated (Morgan & Herman, 1976). Where the employee's commitments are not related to the organisation (e.g. family, home, sports activities), less internal pressure for attendance is exerted. However, commitment has been shown to be but one of many important influences on absenteeism (Mowday et al., 1982).

Fourthly, a strong negative relationship has been shown to exist between tardiness and company commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981). The theory underlying this relationship accords with the postulate that attitudinally committed employees engage in consistent behaviours such as arriving for work on time. Finally, consistent research results of both a correlational and longitudinal nature indicate a strong inverse relationship between company commitment and labour turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981; Hom et al., 1979; Koch & Steers, 1978; Mowday, Koberg & McArthur, 1980; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974; Porter et al., 1976; Steers, 1977). Longitudinal research indicates that company commitment is a better predictor of turnover than overall job satisfaction (Hom et al., 1979; Koch & Steers, 1978; Porter et al., 1974). Moreover, causal research has also indicated that the magnitude of the relationship between commitment and turnover increases over time (Porter et al., 1974), a result corroborating the process perspective of the commitment construct (Mowday et al., 1982).

Based upon the research findings outlined in the preceding paragraphs and the earlier typologies developed by Etzioni (1961), Kanter (1968), Staw (1977) and Salancik (1977), Mowday et al. (1982) developed a company commitment model briefly outlined in the following paragraphs. The authors stress that the causal relationships between variables postulated by the model should be viewed as tentative due to the correlational nature of the majority of previous research.

Central to Mowday et al.'s (1982) model is the view that commitment is a process that develops slowly over time. Equally important to the conceptual framework outlined in the model is the belief that the commitment construct comprises both attitudinal and behavioural components. The authors prefer not to ascribe primary causal responsibility to either one of these components, and take the view that: "(a) commitment attitudes lead to committing behaviours that subsequently reinforce and strengthen attitudes; and (b) committing behaviours lead to commitment attitudes and subsequent committing behaviours" (Mowday et al., 1982, p.47). Thus the process of commitment is characterised by the reciprocal influence of attitudes and behaviours. This process begins prior to the individual entering the organisation and extends throughout his/her tenure. This time span is divided into three stages: (a) anticipation, pre-entry and job choice influences on commitment; (b) initiation, the development of commitment during the first few months

of employment; and (c) entrenchment, the continuing development of commitment through mid and late career stages. Each of these stages will briefly be discussed in turn.

Generally, the pre-employment and job choice factors influencing the individual's level of commitment constitute the anticipation stage of Mowday et al.'s (1982) model. Specifically, the categories of factors seen to be important in influencing early commitment are the individual's personal characteristics, his/her expectations about the job, and the characteristics important in his/her job choice. Firstly, personal characteristics influencing pre-entry commitment include the need for achievement (Mowday & McDade, 1979), belief in the value of work, and work as a central construct of the individual's self-concept (Dubin et al., 1975; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Secondly, important employee expectations influencing commitment include the existence of realistic expectations (Wanous, 1980) and the extent to which expectations are perceived to be met (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977). Finally, job choice factors influencing commitment include the extent to which the decision to join the organisation is freely engaged in, explicit, revocable and public (Salancik, 1977) and the amount and accuracy of information available about the job (Mowday & McDade, 1979).

Factors influencing the initiation stage of Mowday et

al.'s (1982) commitment model are classified as personal, organisational and non-organisational. Firstly, a personal characteristic seen to influence later attachment to the organisation is the individual's level of commitment on his/her first day of work (Crampon, Mowday, Smith & Porter, 1978; Mowday & McDade, 1979; Porter et al., 1976). Secondly, organisational influences on commitment include: (a) job characteristics such as job scope (Buchanan, 1974; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Steers, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978) and task interdependence (Salancik, 1977; Morris & Steers, 1980); (b) supervisory characteristics such as leader initiating structure (Brief et al., 1976; Morris & Sherman, 1981), participative decision-making practices (Rhodes & Steers, 1978) and decentralisation (Morris & Steers, 1980); (c) work group characteristics such as the degree of social involvement (Buchanan, 1974; Rotondi, 1975; Sheldon, 1971), positive group attitudes toward the organisation (Buchanan, 1974; Patchen, 1970; Steers, 1977) and group norms about hard work (Buchanan, 1974; Rhodes & Steers, 1981); (d) perceived equity in pay structure (Rhodes & Steers, 1981); (e) organisation characteristics such as employee ownership (Rhodes & Steers, 1981) and organisational dependability (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977). Finally, a non- organisational influence on commitment is the availability of attractive alternative job opportunities (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Pfeffer & Lawler, 1980).

The third and final stage of the commitment process outlined by Mowday et al. (1980), that of entrenchment, is best understood by an examination of job tenure. Numerous studies have shown that the longer an individual remains in the organisation, the more likely he/she will be committed to the organisation (Angle & Perry, 1981; Brown 1969; Hall et al., 1970; Hrebiniak, 1974; Lee, 1971; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Sheldon, 1971). Mowday et al. (1982) offer five explanations of why this may be so. Firstly, the longer an employee remains with the organisation, the greater the likelihood that he/she will receive more challenging job assignments, be granted greater autonomy and discretion at work, and receive higher levels of extrinsic rewards. Secondly, the greater the employee's job tenure, the greater the employee's investment in terms of time and energy to the organisation. Thirdly, increased tenure increases the likelihood of greater social involvement in the organisation and outside community. Fourthly, the employee's job mobility is decreased through increased tenure with the organisation. For example, the availability of suitable alternative employment decreases with age. Finally, increasing tenure in the organisation lessens the employee's ability to engage in alternative pursuits. For the majority of individuals, increasing investment involves the sacrifice of other important goals. This sacrifice: "..... may be one way individuals rationalize their decision to forego some important goals in pursuit of other goals" (Mowday et al., 1982, p.66).

It is evident from the preceding overview that the company commitment construct has received considerable attention from industrial psychologists (Americ & Aranya, 1983) and continues to be perceived as an important variable in understanding individual behaviour in organisations (Fullagar, 1986b). Due to the potential consequences of low levels of commitment such as turnover and absenteeism, the study of the construct is very important to employing organisations (Mowday et al., 1982). Furthermore, the study of commitment is conceptually important in that it provides great potential to researchers interested in developing models of attitudinal and behavioural processes (Mowday et al., 1982).

1.3. Union Commitment

Although it was only in 1980 that any serious attempt was made to formalise a definition of union commitment (Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson & Spiller, 1980), previous research conducted in the 1950's (Purcell, 1954; Stagner, 1954, 1956) investigated the concept of "allegiance" to the union in the context of dual allegiance to the union and the employing organisation. However, the definitions of allegiance employed in this research have been criticised for being both anecdotal and subjective (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). For example, while Stagner (1954) viewed allegiance as the individual's acceptance of membership in and favorable

attitudes towards the group, implying that allegiance "has less connotation of depth and intensity" (p.42) than commitment. Purcell (1954) defined the concept in terms of favourable attitudes towards the union and general support for its overall policies. This earlier research has been further criticised for failing to systematically explore or operationalise the concept of union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). For example, no attempt was made to distinguish between the reasons for members joining the union and the development of union loyalty.

As noted earlier, with the exception of industrial psychology's "Golden Age" of union research in the 1950's (Strauss, 1977), the discipline has concentrated disproportionately on managerial issues such as productivity and effectiveness, leadership, selection, training and motivation (Dunnette, 1976). However, noted theorists have cogently argued the importance of understanding behavioural processes in industrial relations (Bain & Clegg,1974; Hyman, 1975; Jackson 1977), and there appears to be a more recent recognition within the discipline for the development of a "psychology of industrial relations" (Fullagar, 1986a). This recognition is clearly evidenced in the recent research on union commitment.

The first systematic exploration of union commitment specifically, made by Gordon et al. (1980), was to some extent based on the company commitment research outlined

earlier in this chapter. In particular, the binding nature of commitment and the importance of the exchange relationship between the member and the organisation (Steers, 1977) was stressed. Moreover, a number of the commitment components identified in previous definitions of organisational commitment (for e.g., Buchanan, 1974; Porter & Smith, 1977) were incorporated in the authors' union commitment measure. The results of Gordon et al.'s (1980) research, and those of two subsequent studies aimed at establishing the concurrent and construct validity of their union commitment measure by utilising factor analytic processes (Fullagar, 1986a; Ladd, Gordon, Beauvais & Morgan, 1982), suggests that union commitment comprises four major constructs, as follows: (a) an attitude of loyalty to the union; (b) a feeling of responsibility to the union; (c) a willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the union; and (d) a belief in the goals of unionism.

Union loyalty implies a desire on the part of the member to maintain his/her membership. This supports definitions of company commitment which stress the desirability of remaining a member of the organisation (Porter & Smith, 1970). The exchange relationship underlying research on company commitment (Mowday et al., 1982; Steers, 1977) is also reflected in the union loyalty construct, whereby attitudes of loyalty to the union are developed in exchange for the gratification of

disparate needs and the provision of various benefits (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). The loyalty construct correlates highly with general satisfaction with the union (Gordon et al., 1980), which implies a "calculative involvement" (Etzioni, 1961; Kidron, 1978) in labour organisations (Gordon et al., 1980; Ladd et al., 1982) derived from the members' union instrumentality perceptions (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

The company commitment definition of Porter & Smith (1970) is again reflected in the union commitment constructs of responsibility to the union and the willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the union (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). These constructs correlate with behavioural indices of union participation such as ensuring that the union and company agreement is fulfilled, and making use of the grievance procedure (Gordon et al., 1980). Schneider (1985) suggests that commitment is epitomised by the willingness to exert effort exceeding that usually required to maintain membership in the organisation.

The fourth union commitment construct, that of belief in the values and goals of unions, once more reflects Porter & Smith's (1970) definition of organisational commitment, an important component of which is the belief in the values and objectives of the organisation. Furthermore, this construct reflects Kanter's (1968) "control" commitment concept, which involves commitment to the

organisational ideology and adherence to its norms (Fullagar 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

The results of follow-up studies (Fullagar, 1986a; Gordon al., 1984; Ladd et al., 1982) conducted to validate and test the generalisability of Gordon et al.'s (1980) union commitment measure indicate that union commitment is a pervasive attitude normally distributed across the labour force (Fullagar, 1986a; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). In research conducted by Ladd et al. (1982), the original factor structure was replicated regardless of the professional status of subjects and the type of union investigated. Moreover, in a study conducted to test the stability and generalisability of the union commitment scale on a sample of South African blue-collar workers, Fullagar (1986a) obtained similar results to those obtained in the earlier validation studies. It is clear therefore that as a result of recent research conducted on union commitment, a stable, valid, generalisable and operational definition has been generated which reflects many of the central components incorporated in earlier definitions of company commitment (Fullagar 1986a). Thus, following adaptation of Porter & Smith's (1970) definition of company commitment, Fullagar & Barling (1986) propose the following definition of union commitment: (a) a strong loyalty to the union, and a desire to remain a member of the union; (b) a feeling of responsibility to the union and a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the union; (c) a

belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of both the union and organised labour.

It could be assumed that as the company and union commitment constructs are stable across unions and employing organisations (and, as reflected in their respective definitions, appear to be so similar), a common model predicting their primary antecedents and consequences may be utilised. However, Fullagar & Barling (1986) point out that this is unlikely to be the case. The authors cite the example of the relationship of job satisfaction to company and union commitment. Whilst job satisfaction is a common antecedent, this variable is positively related to company commitment (Mowday et al., 1982) and inversely related to the desire to join a union (Brett, 1980). Furthermore, while it is plausible that the antecedents and consequences of union commitment may vary when considering different segments of the labour force and members of different unions, to outline an attitudinal definition of union commitment and thereafter research only the extent and level of these attitudes is inadequate (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Moreover, previous research conducted by Fukami and Larson (1984) and Wade (1985) has indicated that there exists both common and unique correlates of company and union commitment. For these reasons, Fullagar & Barling (1986) propose a separate model of union commitment, to be outlined in the following paragraphs.

The authors caution that the process of commitment outlined in their model of union commitment is based mainly on correlational data derived from cross-sectional research, as did Mowday et al. (1982) when proposing their model of company commitment. Therefore a major limitation of the majority of union commitment research is that causal inferences are precluded. Despite this shortcoming however, the cross-sectional research data provide a valuable empirical base upon which a model of union commitment may be developed (Fukami & Larson, 1984). Moreover, through cross-sectional research efforts the relevance and applicability of applying psychological concepts to the area of industrial relations has been verified (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

Fullagar & Barling (1986) propose a process model of union commitment in which both antecedents and consequences of commitment are considered. Six categories of antecedent factors are identified as follows: (a) personal characteristics; (b) structural characteristics; (c) union characteristics; (d) work experiences; (e) role-related characteristics; and (f) environmental characteristics. Each of these categories will be briefly discussed in turn in the following paragraphs. A summary of correlates of union commitment and other unionisation indices is outlined in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2 - ANTECEDENT CORRELATES OF UNIONISATION INDICES

Researcher(s)	Date	Indice	Correlate(s)
Allen & Keaveny	1985	Perceived need for union	Intrinsic job dissatisfaction
Angle & Perry	1986	Commitment attitudes and behaviours	Labour-management relationship climates, behavioural participation
Ashenfelter & Pencavel	1969	Union growth	Economic patterns
Bain & Elsheikh	1976	Union growth	Economic patterns
Berger & Cummings	1979	Union attitudes	Organisation size
Beutell & Biggs	1984	Voting behaviour	Union instrumentality perceptions
Bigoness	1978	Unionisation	Job satisfaction
Bigoness & Tosi	1984	Voting behaviour	Union instrumentality perceptions
Brett	1980	Voting behaviour	Union instrumentality perceptions
Brett & Goldberg	1979	Strike activity	Organisation size
Britt & Galle	1974	Strike activity	Organisation size
Conlan & Gallagher	1987	Commitment attitudes	Membership status
Decotiis & Le-Louarn	1981	Voting behaviour	Union instrumentality perceptions
Duncan & Stafford	1980	Union attitudes	Perceived wage equity
Farber & Saks	1980	Union attitudes	Perceived wage equity
Fukami & Larson	1984	Commitment attitudes	Supervisory relations, social involvement, company commitment
Fullagar	1986	Commitment attitudes and behaviours	Union instrumentality perceptions, job dissatisfaction, early socialization experiences, job involvement, work values
Garbarino	1975, 1980	Unionisation	Intrinsic job dissatisfaction
Getman, Goldberg & Herman	1976	Unionisation	Intrinsic job dissatisfaction

TABLE 2 contd. - ANTECEDENT CORRELATES OF UNIONISATION INDICES

Researcher(s)	Date	Index	Correlate(s)
Gordon, Philpot, Thompson, Spiller & Burt	1980	Commitment attitudes and behaviours	Early socialisation experiences, sex, etc.
Gordon, Beauvais & Ladd	1984	Commitment attitudes	Job satisfaction
Herman	1973	Unionisation	Intrinsic job dissatisfaction
Ingham	1970	Industrial conflict	Bureaucracy, interaction between organisational hierarchical levels, moral involvement
Kochan	1979	Voting behaviour	Union instrumentality perceptions, job satisfaction, perceived equity of pay and working conditions, organisation size.
Ladd & Lipset	1973	Unionisation	Intrinsic job dissatisfaction
Laliberte & Barling	1986	Union attitudes	Union instrumentality perceptions, work beliefs, personality characteristics
Marginson	1984	Industrial conflict	Organisational complexity
Martin	1981	Commitment attitudes	Company commitment
Maxey & Mohrman	1980	Union attitudes	Influence deprivation, perceived wage equity, job environment
Pestonjee, Singh & Singh	1981	Union attitudes	Job involvement
Porter & Lawler	1965	Employee dissatisfaction	Organisation size
Purcell	1960	Union attitudes	Company allegiance
Roomkin & Juris	1978	Union growth	Economic patterns

TABLE 2 contd. - ANTECEDENT CORRELATES OF UNIONISATION INDICES

Researcher(s)	Date	Indice	Correlate(s)
Shorter & Tilly	1974	Strike activity	Organisation size
Stagner	1956	Union attitudes	Company allegiance
Stagner & Eflal	1982	Union attitudes and behaviours	Union-management conflict
Tannenbaum &	1958	Union participation	Participation in decision-making
Turner	1962	Union participation	Style of union government
Wade	1985	Commitment attitudes	Union tenure, company commitment
Walker ler	1979	Unionisation	Intrinsic job dissatisfaction
Youngblood, DeNisi, Molleston & Mobley	1984	Voting intention	Perceived union instrumentality, sex, race, wage
Zalesny	1985	Voting behaviour	Attitudes towards collective bargaining, social forces, perceive union instrumentality.

As illuminated when outlining the antecedents of company commitment earlier in the chapter, a number of personal characteristics relate to commitment to employing organisations. With reference to union commitment, whilst there is little evidence to support the conventional wisdom notion of a "union type" (Fullagar, 1986b; Gordon et al., 1980), the demographic characteristics of race (Fullagar, 1986b) and sex (Gordon et al., 1980), and certain personality characteristics (Fullagar, 1986b; Laliberte & Barling, 1986), have been found to relate to union commitment. In Gordon et al.'s (1980) research, females in the sample expressed greater

loyalty to the union than their male counterparts, but males were more likely to participate in the union's activities. However, this latter phenomenon is not necessarily due to gender per se, but rather other diverse variables including females experiencing greater sex-role conflict than males (Chusmir, 1982). Sex is a "marker" variable which indicates the presence of a more significant underlying process (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). With respect to Gordon et al.'s (1980) findings, females' greater home and family responsibilities may mitigate against full participation in the union affairs. However, this lack of participation does not preclude the existence of strong feelings of attachment to the union on the part of females, a phenomenon which clearly illustrates the importance of differentiating between attitudinal and behavioural commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Fullagar's (1986b) finding that the relationship between work and union experiences and loyalty to the union was influenced by race can also be explained by viewing race as a marker variable. In the South African context, race denotes differences in privilege, job security, wages, union protection and access to political, organisational and social institutions (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). This finding therefore reflects the different needs to be found amongst different sectors of South Africa's divided labour force (Webster, 1985a). In these terms race is not the cause of differing commitment levels, but rather moderates the causes of union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

Whilst the demographic variables of sex and race are marker variables indicating the existence of important underlying processes, the same explanation is not true when considering personality characteristics and their relationship to union commitment (Fullagar, 1986b). The potential reciprocal relationships that exist between union attitudes and personality characteristics cannot possibly exist when considering demographic characteristics (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). In common with Mowday et al.'s (1982) company commitment model, the union commitment model postulates that in order for the individual to become involved in the union, his/her beliefs should be compatible with the process of unionisation (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). In support of this contention, union attitudes have been predicted by Marxist work beliefs (Fullagar, 1986b; Laliberte & Barling, 1986). However, it has been found that race moderates the relationship between work values and union commitment (Fullagar, 1986b). Whilst work ethic beliefs are more important in determining union commitment amongst white, privileged workers, Marxist-related work beliefs are stronger predictors of union commitment amongst black, disenfranchised workers (Fullagar, 1986b). Finally , individual needs, such as the union member's perception of the congruence between his/her goals and those of the union, and the degree to which the union is perceived to be instrumental in attaining these goals, may affect his/her commitment level (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). However, further investigation is

required before the nature and direction of the relationship between perceived union instrumentality and initial levels of commitment can be specified (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

(b) Structural characteristics

The structural characteristics of labour and employing organisations comprise a second category of antecedent factors of Fullagar & Barling's (1986) union commitment model. The structure of employing organisations has been shown to affect industrial relation issues. Firstly, it has been demonstrated that the possibility of industrial conflict is enhanced when organisational complexity increases (Marginson, 1984). Secondly, increasing union-management conflict is associated with greater membership loyalty and participation in union activities of an intensity not usually required to maintain membership (Stagner & Eflal, 1982). Thirdly, lower levels of bureaucracy, greater interaction between hierarchial levels and greater moral involvement on the part of members, all factors characteristic of smaller employing organisations, result in more harmonious labour relations than is the case with larger organisations (Ingham, 1970). The size of the organisation has also been shown to relate to union success, with intermediate size organisations more prone to unionisation than is the case in small or large organisations (Kochan, 1979). Furthermore, organisational size is positively related to

employee dissatisfaction (Berger & Cummings, 1979; Porter & Lawler, 1965) and the incidence of strike activity (Britt & Galle, 1974; Shorter & Tilly, 1974). However, bureaucracy does not necessarily increase uniformly with organisational size (Marginson, 1984) and organisational size is not necessarily related to conflict (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). It has been suggested that technological factors may exacerbate the effects of size of the employing organisation because, as a result of the restrictions imposed within routinized technological organisations, the only method workers have to influence the work process is through collective union action. This action increases the likelihood of higher levels of membership commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

As the structure of employing organisations affects industrial relations issues, so too does the structure of trade unions. As outlined earlier in the chapter, a number of structural characteristics affect levels of company commitment (Mowday et al., 1982). One of these characteristics, namely participation in decision-making, parallels Tannenbaum & Kahn's (1958) finding of a positive relationship between members' participation in union activities and their perceived control over the union (Fullagar, 1986b). Fullagar & Barling (1986) posit that, when union attachment is viewed as a response to the unequal distribution of power and control in employing organisations, different types of unions would differ in respect to the emphasis placed on resolving the

power imbalance. For instance, using Walker & Lawler's (1979) typology, "aggressive" unions, representing workers alienated from the organisation's political processes, would seek to rectify the imbalance in authority structure between management and employees. In contrast, "protective" unions, representing relatively privileged, skilled workers with greater access to the organisation's decision-making structures, are more concerned with protecting their members' interests and less concerned with the balance of power. Consequently the two different types of union may comprise members who possess different levels and processes of commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Similarly, unions can be differentiated according to their style of government, a factor affecting their levels of membership participation (Turner, 1962). For example, it is conceivable that higher levels of membership commitment would characterise "closed" unions where higher levels of membership participation prevail than is the case with "open" unions (Greenberg, 1975).

No previous research has investigated the relationship between company and union commitment for members of both aggressive and protective unions operating within a single industrial or commercial facility. The lack of empirical data regarding the relationship between these variables was the primary stimulus for the present research. Subsequently, previous research of direct relevance to the present study will be outlined in the following paragraphs.

Utilising the typology between "aggressive" and "protective" unions formulated by Walker and Lawler (1979), Martin (1981) suggests that dual allegiance is more characteristic of privileged workers belonging to protective unions than for more alienated and deprived workers belonging to aggressive unions. The two types of union differ in their policies concerning the scope of change in conditions of employment, the methods for achieving change, and their degree of militancy (Walker & Lawler, 1979). Aggressive unionism occurs "..... among alienated employees who are relatively deprived and seek to establish greater group control. Protective unionism encompasses employees who are relatively privileged and seek to protect their control in the face of actual or potential threats" (Walker & Lawler, 1979, p.3). No empirical research has yet been conducted to test this proposition. However, results obtained by Walker & Lawler (1979) indicated that employees belonging to a protective union evidenced higher levels of company commitment than employees belonging to an aggressive union. Union commitment was not investigated. Moreover, in a study examining both company and union commitment, Martin (1981) found that public sector employees belonging to a protective union displayed higher levels of dual commitment than did employees who were non-union members. This finding does not necessarily imply that a pattern of dual commitment is more likely amongst protective than aggressive union members. However, Martin (1981) suggests that this finding, considered

together with the Walker and Lawler (1979) conceptual model, may indicate that with respect to union members, protective unionism is likely to foster dual commitment and aggressive unionism is likely to foster unilateral commitment to the union.

Related to the proposition of union type moderating the relationship between company and union commitment, is the occupational status of workers. Fullagar (1986a), in a factor analytic study ascertaining the construct validity and stability of Gordon et al.'s (1980) union commitment construct on a sample of blue-collar workers, isolated an "organisational/work loyalty" factor [illegible]ent of union loyalty. The author explains th[illegible]n terms of workers' perceptions that loyalty [illegible]'s work as opposed to the union is instrumental to individual success within the organisation. This explanation is reinforced by findings by the same author (Fullagar, 1986b) showing that affluent, relatively privileged, loyal, white union members evidenced higher levels of job involvement than black union members whose job involvement scores indicated a far higher degree of alienation from their work. In contrast, job involvement scores of white union members did not indicate a strong sense of alienation from the organisation's political processes, a somewhat predictable result given South African whites' traditional incorporation into organisational decision-making processes (Fullagar &

Barling, 1986). It follows that more privileged workers incorporated into the political processes of the organisation are more likely to have greater levels of dual allegiance than lower-level, alienated workers (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Furthermore, Tannenbaum & Kahn (1958) propose that the phenomenon of dual allegiance may be explained by union members' perceptions that the unions' primary function is that of protecting their interests on the job. The possibility therefore exists that at the lower levels of the organisation, where there is less opportunity for organisational involvement and the satisfaction of higher-order needs (Barling, 1983), the phenomenon of dual allegiance is less common. A positive relationship between company and union commitment would exist for intrinsically motivated employees but not for extrinsically motivated employees (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). In a study conducted to test this proposition, Fullagar & Barling (1987) found a significant and strong positive correlation between union and company commitment for white, occupationally privileged workers and a significant and strong negative correlation for black, occupationally underprivileged workers.

The suggestion made in respect of the variable union type (Martin, 1981) moderating the relationship between union and company commitment assumes importance in the South African context given the country's characteristic labour market segmentation. Webster (1983) divides the South

African labour market into three broad segments, as follows: (a) the secondary market; (b) the subordinate primary market; and (c) the independent primary market. Each of these segments is characterised by differing skill levels, employment conditions and racial groups. The secondary market, or "unskilled" segment in the sense that tasks are essentially repetitive involving primarily manual effort and require a maximum of one to two days induction training, offers virtually no job security, low wages and poor working conditions. This segment is further characterised by black labour and a relatively low level of unionisation. The subordinate primary market, or "semi-skilled" segment in the sense that tasks are generally routinised and subject to machine pacing, offers a limited degree of job security, relatively stable employment and higher wages than is the case in the secondary market. The subordinate primary market is characterised by a Coloured and Asian labour force. The independent primary market, or "skilled" segment in that tasks typically require skills obtained in advanced or specialised schooling, is characterised by high wages, good working conditions, stable employment, job security, upward mobility within the organisation and trade union protection. A primarily white labour force and a high degree of unionisation further characterise this segment (Webster, 1983).

Given the above-stated labour market segmentation, two qualitatively different types of unions have emerged

within the South African context which can generally be classified using Walker & Lawler's (1979) "aggressive/protective" typology and which reflect the different needs and interests which exist within different segments of the labour force (Pullagar, 1986b). Whilst protective unions operating within the independent primary labour market concern themselves with maintaining the status, security and privileges enjoyed by their primarily white members and are thus essentially "restrictionist" in nature, aggressive unions operating within the secondary market seek to ensure democratic and social justice for all workers irrespective of their differing skill levels and are thus essentially "expansionist" in nature, depending on large membership and activism to achieve their objectives (Thompson, 1984). It is important to acknowledge however, that given other significant differences between unions operating in the South African context, to differentiate on the basis of the aggressive/protective and/or expansionist/restrictionist classifications is highly simplistic. Other noteworthy differences between the two specific unions investigated in the present study will therefore be outlined in the following paragraphs.

In order to test the proposition that union type moderates the relationship between company and union commitment, in the present research measures of both constructs will be administered to private sector employees belonging to either a primarily white-collar

union, or to a primarily blue-collar union. Rather than classify the unions under investigation according to a theoretical classification which may or may not rigidly apply, it is considered expedient to differentiate between the two unions on the basis of the very real differences that exist between them. Although differentiating between "aggressive" and "protective" unions (Walker & Lawler, 1979) is heuristically useful in providing a broad conceptual schema, this particular typology was developed to apply to American business unionism and may not resolutely apply to the unique South African context. Moreover, this typology can be criticised in terms of the specific terminology employed, particularly the term "aggressive" which implies a measure of unprovoked action which may or may not be the case when considering specific union action.

The primarily white-collar union investigated in the present study, the Mine Surface Officials' Association (M.S.O.A.) was formed in 1919 and is registered as a trade union in terms of the Labour Relations Act of 1956, previously the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1924. The nature of this particular organisation is clearly revealed through an analysis of its membership. Surface officials on the South African mines represent a heterogeneous group of occupational categories comprising the administrative, technical and welfare departments of mining companies, and include Assay staff (for example, assayers and chemists), Administrative staff (for

examples, paymasters, timekeepers, storekeepers), engineering staff (for example, engineering supervisors and foremen, engineers, winding engine drivers, draughtsmen), Hospital staff (for example, superintendents, nurses), Hostel staff (for example, hostel managers, recreation personnel), Reduction staff (for example, smelters, metallurgists), Clerical staff (for example, clerks, secretaries, typists) and various other categories of staff including groundsmen and supervisory security personnel (Morrison, 1986). It is clear that the M.S.O.A. organises workers in occupations traditionally categorised as "white-collar". A further distinguishing characteristic of the M.S.O.A. is the large proportion of female membership, mostly employed in clerical posts (Morrison, 1986). Of more particular relevance to this discussion is the existence of a closed-shop agreement with the Chamber of Mines, which was signed in 1969 and compels all designated surface officials to be members of the union (Morrison, 1986). Within the organisation investigated specifically, all employees in positions graded at the B level of the Paterson Job Evaluation System and above are required as a condition of service to join the M.S.O.A. The "restrictionist" nature of the union, in terms of job level requirements, is therefore evident. The existence of the closed-shop agreement, together with the existence of statutory job reservation outlined previously in the chapter, has resulted in a membership profile less

traditionally categorised as "white-collar". At the company investigated, no black employees are members of the M.S.O.A. (R.R., 1986), despite the M.S.O.A. having opened its ranks to all workers (in specified job categories) on a non-racial basis in 1983, as a response to the broader pressures brought about by changes in the Labour Relations Act after the publication of the Wiehahn Commision's Report (Morrison, 1986). With respect to its membership requirements, the union has therefore moved from an "exclusive" to a more "open" approach (Greenberg, 1975). However, it is equally evident that the M.S.O.A. cannot be classified as an "industrial" union (Greenberg, 1980), as it remains "exclusive" to the extent that membership is derived from employees in limited occupational levels at the higher levels of the organisational hierarchy. Flanders defines industrial unions as those which "..... admit to membership all employees in a particular industry or service whatever their occupation ....." (1952, p.25).

With due regard to the limitations of applying theoretical classifications as mentioned above, in terms of the M.S.O.A.'s membership profile the "protective" union label (Walker & Lawler, 1979) could, with caution, be applied. In terms of worker militancy, the M.S.O.A. has historically adopted a policy of moderation and reasonableness in negotiating conditions of employment with the Chamber of Mines (M.S.O.A., 1976). Having previously been dubbed as "management men" (and more

recently as a "sweetheart" union), the M.S.O.A. has become increasingly assertive over issues of job security and related conditions of employment, as a result of the proposed scrapping of the "Scheduled Person" definition in the Mines and Works Act (Morrison, 1986). However, to-date no recorded M.S.O.A. initiated work stoppages have occurred at the company investigated. The total membership of the M.S.O.A. is ± 18 000, who as a result of various agreements with the Chamber of Mines, enjoy the following benefits: Mine Officials' Pension Fund membership, Mines Benefit Society (Medical Aid Scheme) membership and membership of the Death Benefit Fund. Other services offered by the union itself include a group insurance scheme at reduced rates, legal assistance and holiday travel and accommodation at reduced rates (M.S.O.A., *1986*). The M.S.O.A. was an affiliate of the Trade Union Council of South Africa (T.U.C.S.A.) prior to T.U.C.S.A. disbanding in November 1986 (Raine, 1986b).

The primarily blue-collar trade union investigated in the present study, the National Union of Mineworkers (N.U.M.), began organising on the mines in 1982 and signed its first agreement with the Chamber of Mines to organise workers in occupations designated as clerks, personnel assistants, carpenters, recreation officers and stores assistants in June 1983 (Morrison, 1986). Since its inception the union's growth has been phenomenal and it is now the largest trade union in South Africa (Carrim, 1986), total membership of which is estimated to

exceed 250 000 (I.R.I.S., 1986). In contrast to the restrictive nature of the M.S.O.A., at it's second annual congress in December 1983 the N.U.M. put out the call for "one industry, one union" (Thompson, 1984). Originally affiliated to the Council of Unions of South Africa, the N.U.M. is now affiliated to the Congress of South African Trade Unions (C.O.S.A.T.U.), the largest union federation in South Africa and whose committed policy is to organise all workers in the major sectors of the economy into national industrial unions (S.A.L.B., 1986).

The N.U.M.'s general-secretary, Cyril Ramaphosa, explains the unions growth in terms of it's organising strategy. Rather than attempting to impose the union on unorganised workers, the union prefers to be approached by workers who are then encouraged to form themselves into an organising committee (S.A.L.B., 1985).

The N.U.M.'s membership is made up of workers at all levels (S.A.L.B., 1985) but recently the union is "..... tending more and more to give attention to the people right at the bottom because they don't have much to lose" (Ramaphosa, 1985, p.4). The Preamble to C.O.S.A.T.U.,s Constitution states that "..... this federation shall determinedly seek to further and protect the interests of all workers and that its guiding motto shall be the universal slogan of working class solidarity: ..... 'an injury to one is an injury to all'" (S.A.L.B., 1985). At the company investigated all

employees belonging to the N.U.M. are in positions graded B3 or below in terms of the Paterson Job Evaluation System (R.R., 1986), all are black and 86% of black workers eligible for membership are signed-up (R.R., 1986).

Since its inception the N.U.M. has been involved in a number of disputes with the Chamber of Mines and its affiliated companies (Leger & van Niekerk, 1986). These disputes have concerned a broad range of issues including wages, working and living conditions, health and safety and discrimination (Leger & van Niekerk, 1986). In August 1983 the N.U.M. declared a wage-related dispute with the company under investigation (Thompson, 1984). After applying for a conciliation board the union declared its satisfaction with the negotiated package and a legal strike was averted the day before it was due to commence. With due regard to the limitations of Walker & Lawler's (1979) classificatory schema, it is perhaps expedient to classify the N.U.M. as an "aggressive" union. Cyril Ramaphosa has stated that: "Workers political strength depends upon building strong and militant organisation in the workplace" (S.A.L.B., 1986, p.44). A recognition agreement has been signed with the company investigated. As yet no pension fund, formal medical aid or group life assurance schemes exist for black employees (R.R., 1986). The range of issues negotiated at the bargaining table by the N.U.M. and other emergent unions have tended to be very broad. Over

and above wages and standard conditions of employment, negotiated issues have included discrimination, safety and disciplinary issues (Liebenberg, 1986), as well as overtly political issues (Levy, 1987).

As indicated in the preceding discussion, at the company investigated members of the respective unions occupy two virtually distinct levels in the organisational hierarchy. That is, members of the N.U.M. occupy positions graded A1 (the lowest level) to B3, and members of the M.S.O.A occupy positions graded B1 and above. Thus the N.U.M. represents members of the organisation who are relatively deprived and alienated from the organizational *political processes, and* thus to some extent at least is characteristic of an "aggressive" *union type in terms* of Walker & Lawler's (1979) typology. Conversely, the M.S.O.A. represents members of the organisation who are relatively privileged and incorporated into the organisational political processes and thus is characteristic of a "protective" union type (Walker & Lawler, 1979). The proposal that union type (Martin, 1981) may moderate the relationship between organisational and union commitment, whereby the generality of the dual allegiance phenomena is questioned, can therefore be tested in the present research.

A further structural characteristic of organisations relevant to the present research which may effect union commitment concerns the degree of freedom of association

offered to workers (Fullagar 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). It is conceivable that the structure and level of commitment in organisations where more than one labour organisation compete may differ to those in organisations where a closed-shop agreement with a particular union exists. This parallels company commitment research which indicates that when the prospective employee has a number of alternative job offers, the chosen job will be rated more attractive and valued more highly than is the case where no alternative employment possibilities exist (Lawler, Kuleck, Rhode & Sorensen, 1975; Vroom & Deci, 1971). With reference to dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), Fullagar and Barling (1986) postulate that the selection of one of a number of competing unions would influence the new member's attitude to the chosen union, particularly as freely engaged behaviour is central to an understanding of commitment (Salancik, 1977).

With regard to the present research, it is possible that a significant proportion of the M.S.O.A.'s membership belong to the union because of the existence of the closed-shop agreement and not as a result of attitudinal or behavioural commitment. However, in the absence of a closed-shop agreement, it may be assumed that membership of the N.U.M. is the result of volitional choice on the part of individual members. The possibility therefore exists for the two labour organisations to have different levels of membership commitment as a result of the existence, or lack of, a closed-shop agreement. The

proposition that the existence of a closed-shop agreement will moderate levels of union membership commitment will also be tested in the present research.

On the basis of the preceeding discussion, the first and major hypothesis to be tested in the present research is accordingly divided into the following components:

Hypothesis 1a : The relationship between company and union commitment will be moderated by union type, and a significantly stronger positive correlation between company and union commitment will exist for members of the M.S.O.A. than for members of the N.U.M.

1b : The level of union commitment will be moderated by the existence of a closed-shop agreement, and will be significantly higher for members of the N.U.M. than for members of the M.S.O.A.

(c) Union characteristics

Certain union characteristics and perceptions, a third category of antecedent factors in the union commitment model, have been shown to relate to union attitudes and behaviours (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). In particular, a

strong relationship exists between union instrumentality perceptions and firstly, employees voting behaviour in a certification or decertification election (Beutell & Biggs, 1984; Bigoness & Tosi, 1984; Brett, 1980; Decotiis & Lelouarn, 1981; Kochan, 1979; Youngblood et al., 1984) and secondly, union attitudes in general (Laliberte & Barling, 1986). The importance of union instrumentality perceptions is evidenced in research conducted on both blue- and white-collar workers indicating that union instrumentality is more predictive of union support than either intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction, and significantly more predictive of voting behaviour than *employees' general image of organised* labour (Kochan, 1979).

In longitudinal research conducted on a sample of unionised blue-collar workers, union instrumentality was found to be a strong predictor of both attitudinal union commitment and behavioural participation in union activities (Fullagar, 1986b). Furthermore, perceived union instrumentality and union commitment are related to the member's initial level of commitment when joining the union (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). This can be explained by the reciprocal nature of the relationship between commitment attitudes and behaviours (Mowday et al., 1982), in that employees initially committed to the union are more *likely to engage in union activities which* in turn reinforce attitudes and behaviours (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). With respect to different patterns of

commitment, Fullagar & Barling (1987) found that the union was perceived as more instrumental in meeting members' needs by individuals manifesting high dual allegiance or unilateral union commitment than by individuals manifesting dual disallegiance or unilateral company commitment.

As one aim of the present research is to investigate predictors of company and union commitment amongst members of different types of unions, consideration will be given to the effect of perceived union instrumentality on the dependent variable union commitment. Whilst perceived union instrumentality has been shown to relate strongly to both union certification/decertification voting behaviour (Beutell & Biggs, 1984; Bigoness & *Tosi, 1984; Brett, 1980; Decotiis & Lelouarn, 1981;* Kochan, 1979; Youngblood et al., 1984) and general union attitudes (Laliberte & Barling, 1986), the influence of instrumentality perceptions on union commitment across different labour organisations has not as yet been researched. In the present research, the existence of a closed-shop agreement for white-collar workers belonging to the M.S.O.A. may moderate the level of union instrumentality perceptions. As mentioned above, previous research has shown that instrumentality perceptions influence voting behaviour. It is therefore proposed that amongst members where a choice to join the union exists, perceived union instrumentality will be higher than for members of unions where there is no

membership choice. It is plausible to expect that workers who do not perceive the union to be instrumental in meeting their needs, would not volunteer to join the union. No such choice exists for members of unions governed by a closed-shop agreement, such as the M.S.O.A.

The second hypothesis to be tested in the present research is accordingly stated as follows:

Hypothesis 2a : Union instrumentality perceptions will be positively related to union commitment for members of both unions investigated.

Hypothesis 2b : The level of union instrumentality perceptions will be moderated by the existance of a closed-shop agreement, and will be higher for members of the N.U.M. than for members of the M.S.O.A.

d) Work experiences

Work experiences constitute a fourth category of antecedent factors related to union commitment (Pullagar & Barling, 1986). Research indicates that several job characteristics are important in understanding commitment to the union, as outlined in the following paragraphs.

The process of unionisation is generally explained in

terms of employees' perceptions of deprivation and dissatisfaction with their conditions of employment (Bigoness, 1978; Dubin, 1973; Farber & Saks, 1980; Getman et a. , 1976; Kochan et al., 1974; Walker & Lawler, 1979; Zalesny, 1985). These explanations generally distinguish between extrinsic/economic and intrinsic/non-economic conditions and satisfaction (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). The results of research conducted in this area, although far from unequivocal (Bigoness, 1978; Shriesheim, 1978), indicate firstly that overall job satisfaction is inversely related to the perceived need for a union (Allen & Keaveny, 1983) and secondly, that extrinsic dissatisfaction is a more important influence on unionisation than dissatisfaction with intrinsic factors (Beer & Driscol, 1977; Getman et al., 1976; Kochan et al., 1974; Strauss, 1977). Despite this latter finding however, several intrinsic factors have been shown to be important predictors of unionism (Bigoness, 1978; Garbarino, 1975, 1980; Herman, 1973; Ladd & Lipset, 1973; Walker & Lawler, 1979) including the degree of autonomy, skill utilisation, machine pacing, distrust in decision-making and powerlessness. Fullagar & Barling (1986) conclude that the process of unionisation is related to both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction.

The blue-collar/white-collar distinction has been shown to moderate the relationship between facets of union commitment and extrinsic/intrinsic job satisfaction

(Kochan, 1979), as has the professional status of the employees investigated (Gordon et al., 1984). Kochan (1979) found that dissatisfaction with extrinsic factors was more strongly related to union support amongst blue-collar workers, and dissatisfaction with intrinsic rewards was more strongly associated with union support among white-collar workers.

Longitudinal research conducted by Fullagar (1986b) confirms that amongst both black and white union members and especially amongst more affluent workers, dissatisfaction with extrinsic job characteristics predicts union commitment. However, intrinsic dissatisfaction was a more significant cause of attitudinal commitment amongst black union members who were more alienated from their jobs. Fullagar & Barling (1986) propose that this latter finding may be a result of the stronger desire on the part of black, alienated workers to influence the content of their jobs, especially as they are unable to affect changes in the intrinsic aspects of their work environment through involvement in other informal, individualistic or employer-initiated programs. The authors state that ".... jobs which have a low motivating potential and which engender greater dissatisfaction with the work environment should evoke greater union commitment amongst workers" (1986, p.17). The importance of intrinsic dissatisfaction on attitudinal commitment amongst black, alienated workers suggests firstly, that explanations

based purely on a simple blue-collar/white-collar distinction are inadequate (Fullagar & Barling, *1986*) and secondly, corroborates the industrial relations perspective that both dissatisfaction and perceived deprivation cause attachment to unions (Begin, 1979; Kemerer & Baldridge, 1975; Walker & Lawler, 1979). In very recent research investigating patterns of commitment, Fullagar & Barling (1987) found that individuals manifesting high dual commitment or unilateral union commitment were more intrinsically and extrinsically motivated than individuals manifesting dual disallegiance or unilateral company commitment.

Whilst the positive relationship between company commitment and job satisfaction is well documented (Fukami & Larson, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982; Wade, 1985), the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment has received considerably less attention in empirical research (Conlan & Gallagher, 1987). This study will therefore also address the influence of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction on union commitment.

Although research indicates that job dissatisfaction may predispose workers toward union membership (Berger, Olsen & Bourdreau, 1983; Hills, 1985; Kochan & Helfman, 1981), extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction and union loyalty are positively related when union membership is already established (Gordon & Long, 1981; Gordon et al., 1980, 1984). The former findings support the view that

union membership is based on workers' perceived deprivations and dissatisfaction with various conditions of employment (Bigoness, 1978; Dubin, 1973; Farber & Saks, 1980; Getman et al., 1976; Kochan, 1978; Schriesheim, 1978; Walker & Lawler, 1979; Zalesny, 1985). The latter findings reflect the instrumental nature of union membership whereby members credit the union for higher levels of job satisfaction (Gordon & Long, 1981; Gordon et al., 1980, 1984). In the present study it is therefore predicted that as membership of both unions investigated is already established, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction will correlate positively with union commitment for members of both the M.S.O.A. and the N.U.M. However, following Fullagar's (1986b) findings in the South African context of *extrinsic dissatisfaction being a more significant cause* of union commitment amongst white, affluent workers and intrinsic satisfaction a more significant cause of union commitment amongst black, alienated workers, the relationships between extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment and intrinsic satisfaction and union commitment will be stronger for M.S.O.A. and N.U.M. members respectively. Members of the M.S.O.A. generally occupy skilled positions, receive relatively high wages and enjoy high levels of job stability. In contrast, members of the N.U.M. generally occupy unskilled positions, receive relatively low wages and have minimal job security. The third hypothesis to be tested in the present research is accordingly stated as follows:

Hypothesis 3a : Intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction will correlate positively with company and union commitment for members of both unions investigated.

3b : The relationships between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment will be moderated by union type, and in the case of extrinsic satisfaction will be stronger for members of the M.S.O.A., and in the case of intrinsic satisfaction will be stronger for members of the N.U.M.

Other work experience differences in the causes of commitment between different segments of blue-collar workers include decision-making, compensation and supervision (Fullagar, 1986b). Amongst white-collar workers, although influence deprivation and job environment have been associated with union attitudes, these relationships were moderated by hierarchical position (Maxey & Mohrman, 1980). An inverse relationship between perceptions of equity of wages and working conditions, and the propensity to unionise has been found (Kochan, 1979), but although measures of wage inequity have consistently associated with pro-union attitudes and union membership (Duncan & Stafford, 1980; Farber & Saks, 1980; Maxey & Mohrman, 1980), they are unrelated to union commitment (Fukami & Larson, 1984).

However, Fullagar & Barling (1986) propose that differential relationships may exist between pay equity and union commitment across different levels of occupational status and different types of jobs.

The concept of alienation/job involvement has received some attention in empirical research on unionisation (Fullagar, 1986b; Pestonjee, Singh & Singh, 1981). Amongst blue-collar Indian workers a significant negative relationship between job involvement and attitudes towards unions was found (Pestonjee et al., 1981). However, in longitudinal research conducted by Fullagar (1986b) the relationship between job involvement and unionisation was moderated by the marker variable race, denoting level of privilege. Loyal, affluent white members of the union were more involved in their jobs than black members. This result i[illegible]ted that when workers have greater access to [illegible]national decision-making processes, as is the case with most white workers in South Africa, the role of the union member and job involved employee resembles that of the concept of dual commitment (Martin, 1981; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1956), where workers who express positive attitudes towards their job generally express positive attitudes towards their union (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). It should be noted that the effects of job satisfaction and job involvement/alienation on union commitment are likely to be moderated by union instrumentality perceptions (Brett, 1980; Docotiis & Lelouarn, 1981; Kochan, 1980).

(a) Role-related characteristics

The fifth category of antecedent factors of union commitment, that of role-related characteristics, although examined in some detail in research regarding company commitment, has not been extensively researched in the area of union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). However, Fukami & Larson's (1984) finding that work experiences are the only common significant predictors of both union and company commitment suggests that some individual experiences in the initial stages of organisational socialization are generalizable to labour organisations and can thus contribute to the development of a union commitment model (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

Research has consistently shown a direct relationship between union commitment and early socialisation experiences (Fullagar, 1986b; Gordon et al., 1980). Specifically, those members who experience positive socialisation during their first years of membership evidence higher levels of loyalty and sense of responsibility to the union, greater willingness to work for the union and stronger beliefs in unionism. Secondly, the finding in company commitment research that higher commitment levels are evident when the organisation is perceived as dependable in attending to its members needs (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977) is relevant to the investigation of union commitment, particularly when considering members calculative

involvement in unions (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Previous discussion has highlighted the importance of union instrumentality perceptions to an understanding of commitment to labour organisations (Beutell & Biggs, 1984; Bigoness & Tosi, 1984; Brett, 1980; Decotiis & Lelouarn, 1981; Kochan, 1979; Laliberte & Barling, 1986; Youngblood et al., 1986). Thirdly, while company commitment research indicates that role conflict and commitment are inversely related, equivocal results were obtained concerning the relationship between role ambiguity and commitment (Morris & Koch, 1979; Morris & Sherman, 1981). With reference to union commitment, Fukami & Larson (1984) found that while job scope and stress predicted company commitment, these variables did not predict union commitment. However, Fullagar & Barling (1986) contend that these results may be due to Fukami & Larson (1984) omitting to investigate the scope, stresses, conflicts and ambiguities involved in union membership as opposed to organisational membership roles. Thus before definitive statements can be made, further investigation to enunciate the relationships between these variables and union commitment is required.

(f) Environmental characteristics

Finally, although no empirical investigations of union commitment have considered macro-economic determinants, it is likely that market context and socio-political variables such as the state of the economy, levels of

inflation and unemployment and changes in employment and wage rates would *affect* union commitment *levels* (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Although results are inconsistent (Anderson, O'Reilly & Busman, 1980; Fiorito, 1982; Mancke, 1971; Moore & Pearce, 1976; Sheflin, Troy & Koeller, 1981), some research indicates that union growth is facilitated in periods of low employment or rapid employment growth (Ashenfelter & Pencavel, 1969; Bain & Elsheikh, 1976; Roomkin & Juris, 1978), a phenomenon that points to the probable *influential* role of specific labour market conditions on union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). In the *South African context* political factors such as the high rate of detention of union members and organisers (Weekly Mail, *1986*) could *plausibly affect* union commitment attitudes and particularly union commitment behaviours.

With respect to the consequences of union commitment, Fullagar & Barling (1986) point out that because of the reliance on cross-sectional designs and correlational analysis, the hypotheses generated in previous company and union commitment specifying causal relationships between behavioural variables have been based purely on either intuition or theory.

Despite Stagner's (1956) assertion that participation in union-related activities causes individual attachment to the union, research investigating the behavioural correlates of union commitment is very limited (Fullagar,

1986b). Utilising cross-sectional research design, Gordon et al. (1980) found significant correlations between the four factors of their union commitment measure and firstly, participation in union activities such as serving in an elected office and attending general membership meetings and secondly, participation in recent activities supportive of the union. In cross-sectional research conducted by Fullagar (1986a), the four union commitment factors correlated significantly with participation in both formal, essential activities and informal, peripheral behaviours.

Recent longitudinal research, utilizing cross-legged regression analyses, examined the causal effects of union loyalty on behavioural participation in the union (Fullagar, 1986b). Consistent with the prediction that affective commitment contributes to the development of behavioural commitment indices (Angle & Perry, 1983; Buchanan, 1974; Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Mowday et al., 1982), the results of this research invariably demonstrated that attitudes of loyalty to the union caused subsequent participation in the union's affairs, such as attendance at meetings, voting and grievance filing behaviour. Similarly, formal union participation in the form of utilizing the grievance procedure has been found to be the most effective behaviour in differentiating between active and inactive union members (Tannenbaum & Kahn, 1958). Moreover, utilisation of the grievance procedure correlates highly with responsibility

to the union and willingness to work for the union (Gordon et al., 1980). In a study conducted by Allen & Keaveny (1985), job-related and demographic variables were less likely to predict grievance filing behaviour than were attitudes towards unions. It appears therefore that there is substantial evidence to suggest that union commitment is associated with various union behaviours (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

Although longitudinal research has indicated the causal relationship of work attitudes and experiences to subsequent union attachment (Fullagar, 1986b), research also indicates that unionisation affects work attitudes (Allen & Keaveny, 1983; Berger, Olsen & Bourdreau, 1983; Goldberg, 1981; Kochan, 1980; Olsen & Berger, 1983). For example, employee attitudes may improve if the union is perceived to be instrumental in enhancing wages and working conditions (Allen & Keaveny, 1983). Also, whilst economic satisfaction may increase because of union instrumentality perceptions resulting from tangible gains made by the union, intrinsic satisfaction may diminish as union experiences sensitize members to the problems inherent in their work (Berger et al., 1983). Thus Fullagar and Barling (1986) recommend consideration of the effects of union commitment on work values and attitudes towards the job and employing organisations in future commitment-related research.

Industrial relations climate has been shown to be an

outcome of unionisation (Dastmalchian, Blyton & Abdollahyan, 1982; Nicholson, 1979). This construct, a derivative of organisational climate, is conceptualised in terms of three basic dimensions as follows: (a) "issue climate", or the perceptions of industrial relations problem-solving mechanisms and the occurrence and satisfactory resolution of industrial relations problems (Nicholson, 1979); (b) "interpersonal climate", or the perceptions of inter-actions with members of the "opposing side" at all levels in the organisation (Nicholson, 1979); and (c) the extent of perceived "union support" in the organisation (Dastmalchian et al., 1982). Whilst the issue and support climate dimensions are associated with organisational effectiveness and the interpersonal climate dimension related to indices of absenteeism, labour turnover and perceived union disharmony, all three moderate the relationship between behavioural outcomes and organisational effectiveness variables (Dastmalchian et al., 1982). Thus it is possible that industrial relations climate may be an important outcome of union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). As this relationship remains to be tested empirically, the effect of union and company commitment on an attitudinal outcome, namely industrial relations climate, will be assessed in the present research.

As noted earlier, recent research has indicated that work attitudes and experiences cause subseque union

attachment (Fullagar 1986b); conversely, unionisation has been shown to effect work attitudes (Allen & Keaveny, 1983; Goldberg, 1981; Kochan, 1980; Berger et al., 1983). In particular, industrial relations climate is an attitudinal outcome of unionisation (Dastmalchian et al., 1982; Nicholson, 1979). It is therefore proposed that for members of both the white-collar and blue-collar unions investigated in the present research, union commitment attitudes will be significantly related to industrial relations climate. However, as this relationship has not been previously investigated, one could only speculate on the direction of this relationship. Bluen and Van Zwam (1983) found a positive relationship between union membership and company commitment. One explanation given for this relationship is that as the recognised union is involved in the organisation's decision-making processes, union members are more committed to the outcome of union-management negotiations and subsequently credit both the company and union for improvements in conditions of employment (Schein, 1980), as has been suggested in respect to the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment (Gordon et al., 1980). It is therefore tentatively suggested that industrial relations climate will be positively related to union commitment for members of both unions investigated in the present research.

With regard to the dependent variable company commitment,

it is predicted that perceptions of the industrial relations climate will be significantly positively related to company commitment. If workers join unions primarily as a result of dissatisfaction with company policy (Tannenbaum, 1965), positive attitudes towards the employing organisation should engender favourable perceptions of the industrial relations climate. Relatedly, it is further suggested that when considering different patterns of commitment, dual commitment (i.e., commitment to both company and union) will associate strongly with positive perceptions of the industrial relations climate. On the basis of the preceeding discussion, hypothesis 4 is accordingly stated as follows:

Hypothesis 4 : Industrial relations climate will be positively related to both company and union commitment for members of both unions investigated.

Very little research has investigated the potential psychological consequences of involvement in industrial relations processes (Fullagar, 1986b; Fullagar & Barling, 1986). However, a few studies have identified the stress involved in occupying union official and member roles (Anderson, 1978; Bluen, 1984; Nicholson, 1976; Warr, 1981). Bluen (1984) notes that several stresses are inherent in the union leader's role, including the dilemma of maintaining internal democracy

while simultaneous environmental demands pressurize the incumbent to adopt a more bureaucratic structure (Anderson, 1978). Insufficient funds lead to the experience of role overload on the part of union officials (Warr, 1981), and shop stewards experience firstly, high levels of role ambiguity because of lack of training and/or specific guidelines and secondly, high levels of role conflict because of the conflicting demands inherent in mediating between management and workers (Nicholson, 1976). Other sources of stress for union members include management victimisation, threatened dismissal or plant closure, transfer to lower paying jobs, denial of privileges and summary dismissal (Bluen, 1984). Moreover, involvement in strikes is obviously stressful (Barling & Milligan, 1985; Thompson & Borglum, 1973). Thus, it is clear that involvement in unions has several potential stressful outcomes. Barling & Fullagar (1986) suggest that union commitment may allay some of these outcomes or alternatively increase the quantitative and qualitative role overload experienced by members.

Although no research has investigated the relationship between union commitment and voluntary membership turnover, it is proposed that, as one characteristic of successful organisations is the ability to attract and retain members (Katz & Kahn, 1978), this would be an important factor in those organisations where more than one union compete for membership (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Union "militancy" (Schutt, 1982; Leggett, 1968)

may also be associated with union commitment, although this relationship is as yet unresearched (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). As previous research has indicated that union commitment influences certain behavioural activities, it may well be related to the nature, militant or otherwise, of these activities.

In concluding this overview of previous union commitment and related research, it is important to note that Fullagar & Barling (1986), in common with Mowday et al's (1982) reference to company commitment research, point out firstly that future researchers should as far as possible concentrate on longitudinal designs, so that a process model of union commitment can be developed. Secondly, the authors propose that although most of the research conducted in the field of union (and company) commitment assumes that participative behaviours are a result rather than an antecedent of commitment attitudes, it is more probable that union commitment is a process in which reciprocal relationships exist between attitudes and behaviours, antecedents and outcomes. Thirdly, to determine whether methodological problems limit researchers knowledge of the process of commitment, the importance of establishing the complexity of interaction between antecedent variables is stressed. Fourthly, there is a need to investigate the possible outcomes of union commitment, as yet relatively ignored in previous research (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Finally, the possibility that the different union

commitment constructs have different causes and consequences, indicates the need to research the multidimensional nature of this variable.

1.4. Dual Commitment

Given that the primary aim of the present research is to investigate the generality of the dual commitment phenomenon, it is necessary to briefly consider the conceptual and pragmatic importance of research in this area and outline the contribution made by earlier dual commitment research in furthering an understanding of the psychological processes of industrial relations.

The consideration of commitment to unions and employing organisations has important conceptual implications. Firstly, the ability of an organisation to meet its objectives is dependent on the memberships loyalty, belief in the organisation's objectives and willingness to partake in the organisation's activities (Gordon et al., 1980), factors in common to both employing organisations and labour unions. Secondly, recent research findings (Fukami & Larson, 1984) have indicated that models formulated to predict company commitment, such as Mowday et al.'s (1982) model, have not satisfactorily predicted commitment to labour unions. The consideration of commitment as it pertains to employing oganisations and unions alike therefore appears warranted (Wade, 1985). Thirdly, the isolated study of

company or union commitment precludes the investigation of how each may fit into the "macro" organisational framework (Brett, 1980; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Reichers, 1985). Consideration of the literature on reference groups, role theory, boundary roles and dual allegiance indicates that individuals in organisations experience multiple attachments to multiple constituencies (Reichers, 1985). Finally, in seeking to understand and facilitate membership motivation, performance and retention, consideration of commitment is important to researchers, managers and union leaders (Wade, 1985).

Over and above the conceptual importance of studying dual commitment, the concept has assumed increasing pragmatic importance as a result of the changes in commercial and industrial organisations towards new structures aimed at facilitating greater employee participation (Kochan, Katz & Mower, 1984). This trend is evident in the South African context, particularly with regard to the introduction by employers of employee share ownership schemes (Mastrantonis, 1987), aimed at increasing employee commitment to the company (Maller, 1987). Such schemes have to-date been implemented by two of the largest group companies operating in the mining sector, one of which is the largest mining company in the country (L.E.R.C., 1987). From a management perspective, the aim of share schemes is to ensure that "..... shareowners will identify with and feel a sense of commitment to the

company and as a result work more productively" (Maller, 1987, p.54).

Whilst assumptions that share ownership and productivity are related have been questioned (Maller, 1987), the extent to which this aim has been realised appears very limited, with the black trade unions expressing an overwhelming scepticism of share schemes (Lynas & O'Neill, 1987; Maller, 1987; Mastrantonis, 1987). The General-Secretary of the blue-collar union investigated in the present study, Cyril Ramaphosa, has described Anglo American's share scheme as " .... political and economic blackmail that the corporation is using to try to seduce workers away from socialism". Lynas and O'Neill (1987) question whether participative efforts of any form by South African organisations can succeed, given the findings of European research indicating that such efforts operate effectively only where the general political climate is supportive of participation (Dachler & Wolpert, 1978). Considering the country's current political system, it is not surprising that participative efforts on the part of South African companies have been overwhelmingly rejected by organised labour (Carrim, 1986).

Given these reservations concerning participative management programs, the continued importance of the study of the dual commitment concept is self-evident. The results yielded by early dual commitment research led

researchers to doubt the inevitability of industrial conflict (Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1954, 1956). The present research will address the question of whether commitment to both employing organisation and union is as widespread as earlier research in this area would suggest.

The concept of dual "allegiance", which states that in conditions of normal union-management relations employees who hold positive attitudes towards their union will tend also to hold positive attitudes towards their employing organisation (Purcell, 1960; Stagner,1954, 1956), initially received attention in the 1950's. The majority of subsequent studies conducted in this area (Biles, 1969; Dean, 1954; England, 1960; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Gordon et al., 1984; Martin, 1981; Martin & Smith, 1979; Sunderman, 1966; Wade, 1985; Walker & Lawler, 1979) have supported the general dual allegiance hypothesis.

In as yet the most extensive emperical study investigating dual allegiance (Martin, 1981), Purcell (1960) found that 83% of the employees sampled had dual allegiance, 17% had unilateral allegiance to the company or union, and less than 1% had negative attitudes towards both organisations. These results and others led Whyte (1969) to comment that where a mature collective bargaining relationship exists, the dual allegiance proposition was " ..... the most thoroughly

demonstrated proposition that we have in human relations" (p.472). Whyte's assertion may be overly simplistic in the South African context, where the majority of blue-collar workers have historically been politically as well as economically disenfranchised. No formal recognition of trade unions prior to 1981, together with labour practices including the migrant labour system, hostel accommodation, and wage rates below the poverty datum line may, inter-alia, have tended to preclude the fostering of commitment on the part of black workers to their employing organisations.

Two major criticisms have been levelled at the early dual allegiance research. Firstly, the definitions of allegiance employed in this research were both anecdotal and subjective. Secondly, no attempts were made to systematically explore or operationalise the concept of union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1986). Relatedly, both early and more recent research conducted in the dual allegiance area can be criticised for being methodologically unsound. In early research attitude scales consisted of single items in many cases. In two recent studies, Walker and Lawler (1979) and Martin (1981) utilised an index of organisational commitment composed merely of the subjects' rank and tenure in the organisation under study. Martin's (1981) attitude-towards-union scale consisted of four items specifically assessing the union officials' effectiveness and interest in the welfare of rank and file membership, support

enjoyed by the union and how the union carried out its agreements.

In a more recently published study investigating dual allegiance, Fukami & Larson (1984) attempted to apply parallel models to both company and union commitment. Specifically, Mowday et al.'s (1982) model was applied to investigate common predictors of commitment to the two different social organisations. Organisational commitment was measured by utilising a combination of the 6-item Buchanan (1974) index and a 6-item modified version of the Alutto, Hrebiniak & Alonso (1973) index. This choice is methodologically somewhat surprising as the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday et al., 1982) has been developed to specifically incorporate the key components of Mowday et al.'s (1982) organisational commitment definition and conceptual framework. Union commitment was measured by a shortened 10-item version of Gordon et al.'s (1980) scale. The positive correlation coefficient between organisational (company) and union commitment obtained in this study ($r = .30$, $p < .001$), is consistent with the earlier dual allegiance literature (for e.g., Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1954). However, correlations between the three categories of antecedent variables considered, namely personal characteristics, role-related characteristics and work experiences, and company and union commitment, indicated that unique predictors exist for each commitment construct. Whilst personal characteristics

predicted company commitment, work experiences predicted union commitment. Similarly, in an unpublished study conducted by Wade (1985), unique predictors of organisational and union commitment were found.

Martin, Magenau & Peterson (1982) examined the influence of 27 diverse variables in predicting company and union commitment. The results obtained indicated in general that different variables are associated with commitment to each organisation. The results of these studies confirm the perspective that due to the differences that exist between commercial organisations and trade unions, different models of company and union commitment should be developed (Fullagar & Barling, 1986).

Recent research has indicated that patterns of commitment may differ when considering the membership status of union members (Conlan & Gallagher, 1987), perceptions of the union-management relationship (Angle & Perry, 1986; Gallagher, 1984; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Magenau & Martin, 1985; Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980), behavioural participation in union affairs (Angle & Perry, 1986) and the occupational status of workers (Fullagar & Barling, 1987). Investigating the membership status of public sector employees, Conlan & Gallagher (1987) found a significantly higher correlation between company and union commitment for individuals who had voluntarily resigned their membership of the union than for individuals who either retained their membership or who had

never joined the union. These results imply that it is insufficient to merely distinguish between union members and non-members (for e.g., Martin, 1981; Purcell, 1954) in dual commitment research. Where membership of the union is voluntary, differences in both the levels of union commitment and its relationship to company commitment may differ according to three different *membership* status categories, as follows: current members, employees who were never members; and employees who have *relinquished* their membership (Conlan & Gallagher, 1987).

Studies investigating workers perceptions of the union-management relationship (Angle & Perry, *1986*; Gallagher, 1984; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Magenau & Martin, 1985; Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980) have generally indicated that stronger dual commitment is more likely where these perceptions are favourable. Furthermore, the extent of union members' behavioural participation in the union moderates the relationship between company and union commitment, with stronger dual commitment amongst active union members (Angle & Perry, 1986).

A severe limitation of both early and more recent dual commitment *research is* that it does not fully explain the various possible patterns of company and union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, *1987*). *With one exception*, studies investigating commitment patterns have as yet only focused on dual allegiance or disallegiance. However,

the existence of a positive correlation *between company and union* commitment does not necessarily support the dual allegiance proposition (Fullagar & Barling, 1987). Whilst some individuals may be committed to both organisations, others may be committed to *neither*. *Similarly, a negative* correlation between these variables may indicate that individuals are committed to the union and not the company, or vice-versa. In the only research conducted to investigate the four possible *patterns of* commitment, *Fullagar* & Barling (1987) found that measures of organisational behaviours and attitudes, namely job satisfaction and job involvement, and union behaviours and attitudes, namely perceived union instrumentality and participation *in union activities*, correlated differently with the four different patterns of commitment. The authors conclude that: "..... investigating different patterns of commitment may have greater conceptual and pragmatic value than *approaches* which only investigate correlations between company and union commitment" (Fullagar & Barling, 1987, p.2). In the present research, an assessment will therefore be made of the relationships between *union* attitudes (union instrumentality perceptions), organisational attitudes (extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction) and industrial relations attitudes (in-company industrial relations climate) to the four *commitment patterns*. Hypothesis 5 is accordingly stated as follows:

Hypothesis 5 : Measures of organisational, union and

industrial relations attitudes will correlate differently with the four possible patterns of commitment, namely dual commitment, unilateral company commitment, unilateral union commitment and *dual disallegiance*.

Over and above the specific hypotheses outlined in the preceeding discussion, the relationships of the *following* five personal characteristics to the dependent variables of company and union commitment will be considered in the present research: subject's sex, education, company tenure, union tenure and job level. Personal characteristics constitute an important category of antecedents of both Mowday et al.'s (1982) company commitment and Fullagar and Barling's (1986) union commitment models.

2. METHOD

2.1. *Subjects and Setting*

The labour market segmentation as outlined by Webster (1983) and its attendant characteristics, notably the presence of restrictive and expansionist unions, is perhaps nowhere more evident than in the South African mining industry where statutory job reservation clauses in the 1956 Mines and Works Act have historically frustrated the upward mobility of black workers (Raine, 1986a). The most influential clause incorporated in the Mines and Works Act relevant to this discussion is the "Scheduled Person" clause which states that only Whites, Coloureds and Asians are entitled to obtain the certificates of competency required for entry into specified categories of work. This clause has effectively barred blacks from the majority of the more skilled, responsible positions in the mining industry (Raine, 1986a), and although it is due to be replaced by a new clause incorporating a definition of a non-racial "Competent Person", the historical effects of the "Scheduled Person" legislation are not likely to be overcome quickly (S.A.L.B., 1986). Furthermore, the educational and language entrance requirements specified in the proposed "Competent Person" definition have been criticised as constituting a more subtle form of discrimination against lower educated black workers (Manga, 1986). In any event, certain Agreements with the

Chamber of Mines obtained by a number of primarily white unions and staff associations operating in the mining sector constitute non-statutory forms of job reservation (Morrison, 1986). Most pertinent of these are the closed-shop agreements, some signed as early as 1937, whereby only those persons eligible for trade union membership were entitled to employment in certain categories of work (Greenberg, 1975). Prior to 1979 there was no official recognition of black trade unions, and therefore no black membership of any of the officially recognised trade unions (Wiehahn, 1982). It is clear therefore that the effects of both statutory and non-statutory discrimination on the mines has resulted in labour market segmentation that conforms very closely to Webster's (1983) description. The resultant organisational hierarchies of mining companies are divided to a great extent along racial lines.

The present research was conducted in an associate company of the Chamber of Mines of South Africa. The total complement of the company was 406 at the time of data collection, of which 148 white employees and 198 black employees were members of the Mine Surface Officials' Association and the National Union of Mineworkers respectively. Composite questionnaires were distributed to all union members individually during company time but were completed by respondents after official company hours. Table 3 below provides a profile of available demographic characteristics of the samples

and sample populations, for the two unions under investigation.

A total of 134 questionnaires were returned to the researcher, of which 89 were completed by members of the M.S.O.A. and 45 by members of the N.U.M. 87 and 38 complete and useable questionnaires were returned by members of the M.S.O.A. and the N.U.M., response rates of 58,7% and 19,1% respectively. The low response rate on the part of N.U.M. members indicates a problem of representivity. A major contributing reason for the low response rate is the low level of literacy on the part of black workers in South Africa, especially in the mining industry. This factor alone would exclude a significant proportion of the N.U.M.'s membership from participating in the research. Moreover, difficulty was experienced by the researcher in obtaining the authority to conduct the research with N.U.M. members. A written proposal for the research was submitted to the General-Secretary of the union, which was subsequently considered separately by the local shop stewards, regional and national committees. Final authority to conduct the research was given by the National Executive Committee some months after originally submitting the proposal. This drawn-out procedure may indicate a high level of mistrust on the part of the union towards industrial psychological research, exacerbated by the fact that the researcher occupied a professional position in the company investigated. This latter consideration may have

promoted mistrust on the part of N.U.M. members as to the true intentions for conducting the research. However, despite the low response rate on the part of N.U.M. members, no significant differences with regard to demographic characteristics (job level, education, company tenure) between the union sample and sample population were evident for either the M.S.O.A. or the N.U.M. (see Table 3 below). This indicates that both samples were representative of their respective populations, at least in terms of these demographic characteristics. No population data for age and union tenure was available. Limited generalisation to the broader populations therefore appears warranted.

2.2. Questionnaires

Independent variables.

The personal characteristics of age, education, company tenure, union tenure, and job level were collected by means of single-item measures whereby respondents indicated their age, company and union tenure in months, and educational level according to sixteen categories ranging from "no schooling" to "post-graduate degree". With regard to job level, respondents indicated either their designation or alternatively, to maintain confidentiality, their specific job grade.

Extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction was measured by two

sub-scales of the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (*Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Camman, 1982*), each of which contains three items. Coefficient alpha is reported as .87 for Intrinsic Satisfaction and . 63 for Extrinsic Satisfaction. The two scales are inter-correlated .36 and associated with the authors' measure of Overall Job Satisfaction .62 and .33 for Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction respectively. (See Appendix A).

Union instrumentality perceptions were measured by the Barling & Milligan (1985) Perceived Union Instrumentality Scale, which incorporates the perceived instrumentality of the union in satisfying 24 intrinsic and extrinsic work-related outcomes and their subjective importance or valence. Thus respondents rate the extent to which they perceive union membership leads to 24 outcomes plus the desirability of each of these outcomes. Each item's instrumentality is multiplied by its valence, and these 24 values are added to obtain the overall instrumentality index. Coefficient alpha for the scale is reported by the authors as .94. (See Appendix B).

The measurement of industrial relations climate was facilitated by the development of Donald's (1985) In-company Industrial Relations Climate Scale in the South African context. This scale contains 39 items assessing workers' perceptions of the specific in-company grievance and disciplinary procedures, communications, worker representation, supervision and company policy. (See Appendix C).

TABLE 3: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF THE UNION SAMPLES AND SAMPLE POPULATIONS AND TEST FOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SAMPLES AND SAMPLE POPULATIONS

Demographic Characteristics	Mine Surface Officials Association			National Union of Mineworkers		
	Sample N = 87	Sample Population N = 148	t	Sample N = 38	Sample Population N = 198	t
Educational level (years)	11,92	11,56	1,04	7,57	6,53	1,20
Company tenure (years)	10,60	9,73	1,24	12,52	13,52	1,01
Job level (grade)	8,13	8,09	1,04	2,18	2,08	1,10

* Significant at the 0.05 significance level
** Significant at the 0.01 significance level

Dependent variables.

Company commitment was measured by the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Porter & Smith, 1970; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). This scale consists of 15 items, six of which are negatively phrased and reverse scored. Median coefficient alpha across various validation studies is given as .90 (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981). (See Appendix D).

A slightly modified version of Gordon et al.'s. (1980) 28-item Union Commitment *Scale was used to measure* Union Commitment in the present research. The following modifications were made to the original scale. Firstly, following Fullagar's (1986a) blue-collar Union Commitment *Scale* validation study, as the concept of a union "label" is possibly ambiguous and confusing in the South African context, this item was replaced by one concerning management victimisation, *specifically reading:* "If I was victimised by management for being a member of the union, I would continue to support the union" (Fullagar, 1986a).

Secondly, one other item was modified and four items omitted. As membership of the white-collar union *investigated in the present* research was governed by a closed-shop agreement, it was felt that the item stating: "There is a lot to be gained by joining to the union" should be changed to: *"There is a lot to be* gained by belonging to the union", and that the items stating: "Deciding to join the union was a smart move on my part" and "The only reason I belong the union is to *make sure I get promotion* or other transfers of job assignment" should be omitted. Furthermore, after discussion with shop stewards of both unions investigated, it was *decided to omit* both items concerning the union's newsletter as some union members, particularly those of the blue-collar union, did not receive the union's newsletter regularly.

The Union Commitment Scale therefore consisted of a total of 24 items in the present study. (See Appendix E). However, validation studies of the Gordon et al. (1980) Union Commitment Scale conducted by Ladd et al. (1982) and Fullagar (1986a) have consistently indicated the multidimensional nature of the union commitment construct. Subsequently, the data obtained in the present research was factor analysed using the principal components method (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973). As in the earlier validation studies, four factors were identified which conformed relatively closely to the original factor structure identified by Gordon et al. (1980).

Factor 1 in the present research explained 57,6% of the variance in subjects' responses and was utilised as an index of Union Commitment in all subsequent statistical analyses (see Table 4 below). 10 items (4, 9, 11, 12, 16, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24) loading strongly on this factor were in common to the "Union Loyalty" factor identified in Gordon et al.s (1980) initial research and subsequent validation studies (Fullagar, 1986a; Ladd et al., 1982). However, the previously identified "Willingness to Work for the Union" factor did not emerge as a separate factor as in earlier validation studies. 3 "Willingness to Work for the Union" factor items (8, 17, 18) loaded strongly on the "Union Loyalty" factor in the present research. This factor is exemplified in items concerning feelings of pride in the union (for e.g. 11

and 21) and a willingness to serve on a committee or as an elected official for the union (items 17 and 18).

The second factor to emerge in the present research did not conform very closely to any factor identified in previous research. However, the presence of this factor may have been artifactual as the largest loading items were all negatively-phrased (3, 5, 6, 10, 13, 14, 15). This may plausibly account for its presence as a separate factor. A dominant dimension of the second factor concerned loyalty to one's work and the employing organisation (item 3, 6, 15), similar to the "Organisation/Work Loyalty" factor identified by Fullagar (1986a) in a validation study on blue-collar workers. The second factor accounted for 19,4% of the common variation in responses. The third factor identified closely approximated the "Responsibility to the Union" factor identified in previous research (items 1, 2, 7). This factor reflects a sense of responsibility on the part of the member for ensuring that management acts in accordance with the union agreement, that members support each other when using the grievance procedure and keep informed regarding management information of possible use to the union. The "Responsibility to the Union" factor accounted for 11,7% of the common variation in responses. Finally, the only item (20) loading strongly on the fourth factor identified was previously incorporated in the "Belief in Unionism" factor identified in previous research.

Although the factor structure outlined above fairly closely approximates the previously validated Union Commitment Scale factor structures (Pullagar, 1986a; Gordon et al., 1980; Ladd et al., 1982), no comparative statistical analyses were computed to assess any significant differences in the factor structures. Given the differences between the two unions investigated in the present research, it is possible that different factor structures would have emerged if separate analyses had been computed on the data for each union. Although high levels of fit between separate factors for South African black and white blue-collar workers belonging to a single union were obtained by Pullagar (1986a), the significant differences in the two unions presently investigated may have resulted in different factor structures for each union.

A uniform 3-response alternative format was applied throughout the composite questionnaire, as it has been found that in developing countries less difficulty is experienced by black, blue-collar workers in interpreting scales containing 3-response alternatives than is the case with 5- or 7- response scales (Morris & van der Reis, 1980). Moreover, greater test-retest reliability and validity statistics have been obtained with 3-response alternative scales than with scales containing a greater number of response alternatives (Morris & van der Reis, 1980).

A covering letter on University of the Witwatersrand letterhead and signed by the researcher was included in the composite questionnaire. This letter stressed the confidentiality of the research, as it was felt that due to the traditional mistrust of psychologists by labour (Huzczo et al., 1984) and that the researcher was employed at the organisation investigated, confidentiality would help to ensure greater trust and less response bias on the part of participants (Miceli & Near, 1984). (See Appendix F).

The English version of the composite questionnaire plus covering letter was translated into Afrikaans, Southern Sotho and Xhosa, three of the vernacular languages most representative of the workforce at the company investigated. Accuracy of the translations was ensured by following the "back-to-back" translation method whereby the translated version is re-translated back into English by a different translator. Any anomalies between the original English version and the re-translated English version were thereafter investigated and rectified. The Afrikaans and Southern Sotho versions were translated by the Translation Unit and the Department of African Languages of the University of the Witwatersrand respectively, and the Xhosa version by the Department of Xhosa and Sotho of the University of Fort Hare. The questionnaires, once completed, were placed in envelopes provided and collected by the researcher approximately one week after distribution.

TABLE 4: UNION COMMITMENT SCALE ITEM FACTOR LOADINGS

	ITEM	FACTOR 1	2	3	4
1.	It's every N.U.M./M.S.O.A. member's responsibility to see to it that management "lives up to" all the terms of the Agreement.			.62	
2.	It is the duty of every worker "to keep his/her ears open" for information that might be useful to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.			.61	
3.	Moving ahead in the company is more important than staying in the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.		.38		
4.	If I was victimized by management for being a member of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A., I would continue to support the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.	.67			
5.	I feel little loyalty to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.		.41		
6.	As long as I'm doing the kind of work I enjoy, it does not matter if I belong to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.		.64		
7.	It's every N.U.M./M.S.O.A. member's duty to support or help another worker use the grievance procedure.			.64	
8.	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected of a member in order to make the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. successful.	.82			
9.	I could just as well work in a non-union company as long as the type of work was similar.	.48			
10.	I have little confidence and trust in most members of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.		.58		
11.	I speak about the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. to my friends as a great organization to be a member of.	.61			
12.	There's a lot to be gained by belonging to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.	.79			
13.	I doubt that I would do special work to help the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.		.79		
14.	The member does not get enough benefits for the money taken by the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. for dues.		.38		
15.	I intend to improve my relations with management by not being active in the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.		.30		
16.	My values and the N.U.M.'s/M.S.O.A.'s values are not very similar.	.48			

TABLE 4 contd.: UNION COMMITMENT SCALE
ITEM FACTOR LOADINGS

	ITEM	FACTOR			
		1	2	3	4
17.	If asked I would serve on a committee for the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.	.70			
18.	If asked I would run for an elected office in the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.	.65			
19.	My loyalty is to my work, not to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.	.43			
20.	It's the group representative's job, not the member's duty, to see that management is living by the Agreement.				.71
21.	I feel a sense of pride being a part of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.	.33			
22.	Based on what I know now and what I believe I can expect in the future, I plan to be a member of the N.U.M./ M.S.O.A. the rest of the time I work for the company.	.78			
23.	The record of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. is a good example of what dedicated people can get done.	.81			
24.	Very little that the membership wants has any real importance to the N.U.M./ M.S.O.A.	.52			
	% variance explained by each factor	57,6	19,4	11,7	11,2

2.3. Statistical Analysis

Firstly, to test hypotheses 1a (the relationship between company and union commitment will be moderated by union type) and 3b (the relationships between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment will be moderated by union type), Fisher's Z-transformation statistics were computed (Guildford, 1965). This procedure tests for differences between uncorrelated correlation coefficients. No test of difference between population r's is very satisfactory if based upon standard errors of r, as the sampling distribution of the

Pearson r depends upon the magnitude of both N and r and is therefore extremely variable except under the most highly restricted conditions. In contrast, Fisher's Z standard error is related only to N and not to r (Guildford, 1965).

Secondly, to test hypotheses 1b (the level of union commitment will be moderated by the existance of a closed-shop agreement) and 2b (the level of union instrumentality perceptions will be moderated by the existance of a closed-shop agreement), t-tests of mean responses were computed (Runyon & Haber, 1977).

Thirdly, to test hypotheses 2a (union instrumentality perceptions will be positively related to union commitment), 3a (extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction will correlate positively with company and union commitment), and 4 (industrial relations climate will be positively related to company and union commitment), zero-order correlation coefficients were computed.

Fourthly, to test hypothesis 5 (measures of organisational, union and industrial relations climate attitudes will correlate differently with the four possible patterns of commitment), on the basis of a median split of the two dependent variables, analysis of covariance statistics with age as the covariate were computed. It must be noted that a severe limitation of this method of classifying subjects into categories is

that each subject is classified on the basis of his or her position relevant to a fixed point indicating high or low on each variable, necessitating a tremendous loss in the range of the data (Anastasi, 1982). For example, a subject scoring marginally lower than the median on a particular variable is classified "low" and a subject scoring marginally higher than the median is classified "high". The variable age was selected as the covariate as previous research has consistently demonstrated this variable's positive relationship with organisational commitment.

Fifthly, to assess the significance of the differences in correlations between the *four patterns of commitment*, Scheffe's multiple range statistics were computed.

Sixthly, related to the present studies more general aim of investigating whether correlates of company and union commitment are common to members of different types of unions, Hotelling T-statistics were computed (Guildford, 1965). The Hotelling T procedure tests for differences between one variable's correlation with two different variables (the difference between r_{12} and r_{13}). Stated differently, the procedure tests for the difference between correlated correlation coefficients.

Finally, to determine the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the two dependent

variables, stepwise multiple regression equations were computed for each of the union samples. The stepwise procedure selects the best possible combination of variables for the multiple regression equation and moreover, enters into the regression model only those independent variables whose relationship with the dependent variable are statistically significant (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973).

3. RESULTS

Prior to computing the appropriate statistical analyses to establish the relationships among independent and dependent variables, alpha coefficients, a measure of the inter-item consistency of subjects' responses (Anastasi, 1982), were computed to ascertain the reliability of the measurement scales administered. All scales except the Afrikaans version of the Industrial Relations Climate company policy sub-scale had alpha reliability coefficients greater than 0.55 (Guildford, 1965). (See Table 5 below).

Initial analyses were conducted to establish if any multicolinearity existed among the variables included in the study. In regression analysis, high multicolinearity between predictor variables can lead to any of the following problems (Johnson, 1972). Firstly, difficulty in interpreting the separate effects of independent variables on the dependent variable. Secondly, predictor variables may mechanically be incorrectly dropped from the stepwise procedure. Thirdly, estimates of regression coefficients may be highly sensitive to the specific sample data. Tables 6 and 7 below present the zero-order correlation coefficients of all variables included in the study and indicate a problem of multicolinearity between subjects' age and company tenure. The variable age was therefore excluded from subsequent regression analyses because of the difficulties involved in interpreting the

solved regression equation when the inter-correlations of the independent variables are high.

To assess differences in variable levels between the union samples, t-tests of mean responses indicated that, in comparison to N.U.M. members, M.S.O.A. members were significantly more highly educated ($t = 2.87$, $p < 0.0001$), had belonged to their union longer ($t = 35.66$, $p < 0.0001$), occupied higher-level positions in the organisation ($t = 11.34$, $p < 0.0001$), were more extrinsically satisfied ($t = 1.93$, $p < 0.05$), were less committed to the union ($t = 3.80$, $p < 0.0001$), perceived the union as less instrumental in obtaining valued outcomes ($t = 1.80$, $p < 0.05$), and were less satisfied with worker representation in the company ($t = 1.92$, $p < 0.05$). (See Table 5 below).

3.1. Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1a, that the relationship between company and union commitment will be moderated by union type, was supported by the significant positive correlation obtained between company and union commitment ($r = .43$, $p < 0.01$) for M.S.O.A. members, and the insignificant relationship obtained between these variables for members of the N.U.M. ($r = .20$, $p > 0.05$). However, the correlations obtained between the dependent variables for each of the union samples were not statistically different ($z = 1.30$, $p > 0.05$). (See Table 8 below).

These findings provide modest support for the proposition that dual commitment is not necessarily distributed throughout the labour force and may be moderated by the variable union type.

Hypothesis 1b, that the level of union commitment will be moderated by the existance of a closed-shop agreement, was supported by the finding that members of the M.S.O.A. were significantly less committed to the union than members of the N.U.M. ($t = 3.80$, $p < 0.0001$). (See Table 5 below).

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2a, that union instrumentality perceptions will be positively related to union commitment for members of both unions investigated, was partially supported by the significant positive correlation obtained between these variables for members of the M.S.O.A. ($r = .59$, $p < 0.01$), and the insignificant positive correlation obtained between these variables for members of the N.U.M. ($r = .13$, $p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 2b, that the level of union instrumentality perceptions will be moderated by the existance of a closed-shop agreement, was supported by the finding that members of the M.S.O.A. perceived the union as significantly less instrumental in obtaining valued outcomes than did members of the N.U.M. ($t = 1.80$, $p < 0.05$).

TABLE 5 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES, COEFFICIENT ALPHA STATISTICS, AND TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN MEAN RESPONSES

	UNION							
	M.S.O.A.		N.U.M.			COEFFICIENT ALPHA		
VARIABLE	X	S.D	X	S.D	t	ENG.	AFRIK.	SOTHO
Age	36.1	11.5	39.8	9.5	1.47			
Education	11.9	1.5	7.5	2.6	2.87**			
Company tenure	10.6	9.4	12.5	7.6	1.52			
Union tenure	7.7	6.5	4.1	1.0	35.66**			
Job level	8.1	2.9	2.1	0.8	11.34**			
Intrinsic satisfaction	22.6	7.2	18.6	6.8	1.14	.60	.79	.68
Extrinsic satisfaction	22.8	4.8	19.4	6.1	1.93*	.90	.66	.71
Union instrumentality	107.1	42.1	159.5	36.1	1.80*	.98	.97	.80
Grievance procedure	12.7	2.9	14.1	2.5	1.30	.69	.62	.60
Disciplinary procedure	14.4	3.5	14.9	3.1	1.32	.73	.75	.68
Communication	8.6	2.4	10.7	2.4	1.02	.73	.58	.70
Worker representation	12.9	3.7	16.4	2.6	1.92*	.78	.76	.58
Supervision	10.9	2.8	10.2	3.0	1.18	.73	.65	.66
Company policy	15.3	3.3	16.7	3.1	1.15	.74	.47	.67
Company commitment	35.7	6.0	28.1	5.6	1.13	.81	.64	.61
Union commitment	24.2	5.8	32.4	3.2	3.80**	.85	.74	.86

* Significant at the 0.05 significance level.
** Significant at the 0.01 significance level.

TABLE 6

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX AND TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN CORRELATIONS
INVOLVING COMPANY AND UNION COMMITMENT - M.S.O.A. DATA

VAR	T	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
01	.72																
02	1.45	-.12															
03	.35	.73**	-.31**														
04	.96	.66**	-.01	.64**													
05	.96	.41**	.49**	.24**	.26**												
06	.38	.22*	-.06	.08	.07	.04											
07	2.40*	.08	-.02	.07	.00	.05	.13										
08	.26	.18	-.19	.17	.15	.00	.22*	.31**									
09	1.00	.39**	-.18	.34**	.21*	.05	.26*	.29**	.60**								
10	.87	.26**	-.14	.20*	.15	.07	.20*	.28**	.56**	.50**							
11	1.90	.37**	-.22*	.29**	.24	.02	.30**	.17	.54**	.67**	.64**						
12	1.51	.31**	.01	.27**	.21*	.20*	.29**	.32**	.44**	.49**	.47**	.47**					
13	2.25*	.24*	-.20	.16	.21*	-.04	.25**	.31**	.55**	.67**	.71**	.64**	.44**				
14	1.29	.30**	-.[illegible]*	.21*	.17	-.01	.32**	.43**	.44**	.51**	.51**	.57**	.36**	.55**			
15	N/A	.32**	-.30**	.25**	.12	-.02	.41**	.39**	.23*	.42**	.30**	.36**	.28**	.33**	.49**		
16	N/A	.24**	-.45**	.21*	.23*	-.23*	.37**	.13	.26**	.32**	.39**	.46**	.11	.55**	.59**	.43**	

KEY: VARIABLE (VAR)

01 = Age
02 = Education
03 = Company Tenure
04 = Union Tenure
05 = Job Level
06 = Extrinsic Satisfaction
07 = Intrinsic Satisfaction
08 = I.R.C. Grievance Procedure
09 = I.R.C. Disciplinary Procedure
10 = I.R.C. Communication
11 = I.R.C. Worker Representation
12 = I.R.C. Supervision
13 = I.R.C. Company Policy
14 = Union Instrumentality
15 = Company Commitment
16 = Union Commitment

* Significant at the .05 significance level.

** Significant at the .01 significance level.

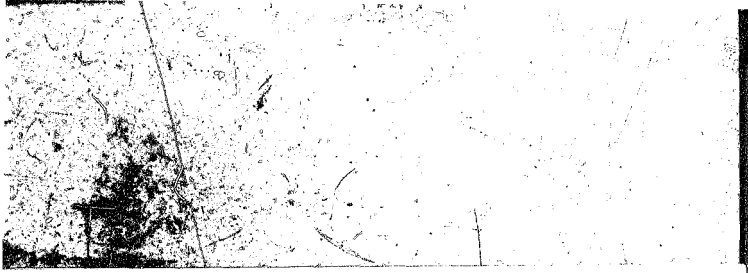


TABLE 6

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX AND TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN CORRELATIONS
INVOLVING COMPANY AND UNION COMMITMENT - M.S.O.A. DATA

VAR	T	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
01	.72																
02	1.45	-.12															
03	.35	.73**	-.31**														
04	.96	.66**	-.01	.64**													
05	.96	.41**	.49**	.24**	.26**												
06	.38	.22*	-.06	.08	.07	.04											
07	2.40*	.08	-.02	.07	.00	.05	.13										
08	.26	.18	-.19	.17	.15	.00	.22*	.31**									
09	1.00	.39**	-.18	.34**	.21*	.05	.26*	.29**	.60**								
10	.87	.26**	-.14	.20*	.15	.07	.20*	.28**	.56**	.60**							
11	1.90	.37**	-.22*	.29**	.24	.02	.30**	.17	.54**	.67**	.64**						
12	1.51	.31**	.01	.27**	.21*	.20*	.29**	.32**	.44**	.49**	.47**	.47**					
13	2.25*	.24*	-.20	.16	.21*	-.04	.25**	.31**	.55**	.67**	.71**	.64**	.44**				
14	1.29	.30**	-.23*	.21*	.17	-.01	.32**	.43**	.44**	.51**	.51**	.57**	.36**	.55**			
15	N/A	.32**	-.30**	.25**	.12	-.02	.41**	.39**	.23*	.42**	.30**	.36**	.28**	.33**	.49**		
16	N/A	.24**	-.45**	.21*	.23*	-.23*	.37**	.13	.26**	.32**	.39**	.46**	.11	.55**	.59**	.43**	

KEY: VARIABLE (VAR)

01 = Age
02 = Education
03 = Company Tenure
04 = Union Tenure
05 = Job Level
06 = Extrinsic Satisfaction
07 = Intrinsic Satisfaction
08 = I.R.C. Grievance Procedure
09 = I.R.C. Disciplinary Procedure
10 = I.R.C. Communication
11 = I.R.C. Worker Representation
12 = I.R.C. Supervision
13 = I.R.C. Company Policy
14 = Union Instrumentality
15 = Company Commitment
16 = Union Commitment

* Significant at the .05 significance level.
** Significant at the .01 significance level.

TABLE 7

INTERCORRELATION MATRIX AND TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN CORRELATIONS
INVOLVING COMPANY AND UNION COMMITMENT - N.U.M. DATA

VAR	T	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
01	1.82*																
02	1.33	-.61**															
03	1.75*	.75**-.39															
04	.42	.29	-.30**.22														
05	1.09	-.03	-.02	.11	-.08												
06	1.53	.01	.02	.11	.01-.04												
07	.09	.05	.00	.10	-.25	.14	.59**										
08	4.28**-.04		.28	-.09	-.05-.20		.52**.22										
09	.54	.03	.04	-.02	-.03	.03	.24	.25	.31*								
10	1.86*	.19	-.12	-.03	.28-.05		.46**.28		.34*	.59**							
11	.45	.17	.20	.20	-.17-.05		.09	.09	.41**.07		.00						
12	2.87**	.2.	-.08	.30	.11	.00	.24	.01	.63**.17		.40**.29						
13	3.55**	.15	.05	.11	.22-.13		.56**.06		.68**.19		.58**.49**.60**						
14	.14	.14	.01	.10	.05	.16	.06	-.31*.28		-.08	.08	.27	.43**.39**				
15	N/A	.02	.18	-.03	-.03-.19		.32*	.23	.66**.28		.48**.34*		.60**.63**.18				
16	N/A	.38**-.01		.33*	.06	.04	.01	.21-.02		.17	.13	.25	.11	.04	.13	.20	

KEY: VARIABLE (VAR)

01 = Age
02 = Education
03 = Company Tenure
04 = Union Tenure
05 = Job Level
06 = Extrinsic Satisfaction
07 = Intrinsic Satisfaction
08 = I.R.C. Grievance Procedure
09 = I.R.C. Disciplinary Procedure
10 = I.R.C. Communication
11 = I.R.C. Worker Representation
12 = I.R.C. Supervision
13 = I.R.C. Company Policy
14 = Union Instrumentality
15 = Company Commitment
16 = Union Commitment

* Significant at the .05 significance level

*** Significant at the .01 significance level*

3.3. *Hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3a, that intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction will correlate positively with company and union commitment for members of both unions investigated, was partially supported by the findings of significant positive correlations between extrinsic ($r = .41$, $p < 0.01$) and intrinsic ($r = .39$, $p < 0.01$) satisfaction and company commitment, and extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment ($r = .37$, $p < 0.01$) for members of the M.S.O.A. For N.U.M. members, extrinsic satisfaction was significantly positively related to company commitment ($r = .32$, $p < 0.05$).

Hypothesis 3b, that the relationships between intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment will be moderated by union type, was supported by the findings of a strong, significant positive correlation between extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment for members of the M.S.O.A. ($r = .37$, $p < 0.01$), and the weak, insignificant correlation between these variables for members of the N.U.M. ($r = 0.01$, $p > 0.05$). The correlation obtained between these variables for M.S.O.A. members was significantly stronger ($Z = 1.92$, $p < 0.05$) than the correlation obtained for N.U.M. members. In the case of intrinsic satisfaction, although a weaker, insignificant correlation was obtained between intrinsic satisfaction and union commitment ($r = .13$, $p > 0.05$)

for M.S.O.A. members than was the case for N.U.M. members ($r = .21$, $p > 0.05$), the difference between these correlations was not statistically significant ($Z = .42$, $p > 0.05$).

3.4. Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4, that industrial relations climate indices will be positively related to company and union commitment for members of both unions investigated, was supported by the following findings.

For members of the the M.S.O.A., all industrial relations climate sub-scales were significantly positively related to company commitment, as follows: grievance procedure ($r = .23$, $p < 0.05$), disciplinary procedure ($r = .42$, $p < 0.01$), communication ($r = .30$, $p < 0.01$), worker representation ($r = .36$, $p < 0.01$), supervision ($r = .28$, $p < 0.01$) and company policy ($r = .33$, $p < 0.01$). For members of the N.U.M., 5 industrial relations climate sub-scales were significantly positively related to company commitment, as folows: grievance procedure ($r = .66$, $p < 0.01$), communication ($r = .48$, $p < 0.01$), worker representation ($r = .34$, $p < 0.05$), supervision ($r = .60$, $p < 0.01$) and company policy ($r = .63$, $p < 0.01$).

With respect to union commitment, for members of the M.S.O.A. 5 industrial relations climate sub-scales were significantly positively related to union commitment,

namely grievance procedure ($r = .26$, $p < 0.01$), disciplinary procedure ($r = .32$, $p < 0.01$), communication ($r = .39$, $p < 0.01$), worker representation ($r = .46$, $p < 0.01$) and company policy ($r = .55$, $p < 0.01$). For members of the N.U.M., no industrial relations climate sub-scales were significantly related to union commitment.

TABLE 8: FISHER Z-VALUES TO TEST FOR DIFFERENCES IN CORRELATIONS BETWEEN INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES FOR M.S.O.A. AND N.U.M. SAMPLES.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	COMPANY COMMITMENT	UNION COMMITMENT
Age	1.58	0.78
Education	2.48**	1.95*
Company Tenure	1.45	0.65
Union Tenure	.76	0.88
Job Level	0.36	1.39
Extrinsic Satisfaction	0.52	1.92*
Intrinsic Satisfaction	0.90	0.42
Grievance Procedure	2.83**	1.45
Disciplinary Procedure	0.81	0.81
Communication	1.08	1.42
Worker Representation	0.11	1.22
Supervision	2.05	0.00
Company Policy	2.02*	2.93**
Union Instrumentality	1.80	2.77**
Company-Union Commitment	1.30	1.30

* Significant at the 0.05 significance level

** Significant at the 0.01 significance level

3.5. Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5, that measures of organisational, union and industrial relations climate attitudes will correlate differently with the four possible patterns of commitment, was supported by the following findings.

To test whether classifying subjects into one of four patterns of commitment would predict different commitment attitudes, company and union commitment responses were dichotomised into low and high scores on the basis of the median value for each variable (company commitment median = 33.56; union commitment median = 26.5). On this basis subjects were classified into one of four commitment patterns, as follows: (1) high company commitment, high union commitment (i.e., dual commitment); (2) high company commitment, low union commitment (i.e., unilateral company commitment); (3) high union commitment, low company commitment, (i.e., unilateral union commitment); and (4) low company commitment, low union commitment (i.e., dual disallegiance).

Utilising subjects' age as the covariate, analysis of covariance indicated significant differences between the four patterns of commitment on extrinsic ($F = 9.67$, $p < 0.0001$) and intrinsic ($F = 6.40$, $p < 0.0005$) satisfaction, the disciplinary procedure ($F = 5.36$, $p < 0.0017$), communication ($F = 9.89$, $p < 0.0001$), worker representation ($F = 15.11$, $p < 0.0001$), supervision ($F =$

6.02, $p < 0.0007$) and company policy ($F = 11.60$, $p < 0.0001$) industrial relations climate measures, and union instrumentality perceptions ($F = 16.87$, $p < 0.0001$).

Scheffe's multiple range tests indicated consistent commitment patterns for intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. No differences with regard to these variables were evident in terms of firstly, dual commitment and unilateral company commitment or secondly, unilateral union commitment and dual disallegiance. Specifically, subjects manifesting dual commitment and unilateral company commitment were more extrinsically ($F = 9.60$, $p < 0.05$) and intrinsically ($F = 11.81$, $p < 0.05$) satisfied than subjects manifesting unilateral union commitment or dual disallegiance. Subjects manifesting dual commitment or unilateral union commitment perceived the union as more instrumental in meeting their needs ($F = 2.69$, $p < 0.05$) than did subjects manifesting unilateral company commitment or dual disallegiance. Finally, subjects manifesting dual commitment perceived the disciplinary procedure ($F = 5.61$, $p < 0.05$), communication ($F = 4.25$, $p < 0.05$), worker representation ($F = 6.90$, $p < 0.05$), supervision ($F = 4.75$, $p < 0.05$) and company policy ($F = 6.74$, $p < 0.05$) facets of industrial relations climate more favourably than any of the other patterns of allegiance.

3.6. Demographic variables

For M.S.O.A. members, the demographic variables of age ($r = .32$, $p < 0.01$), education ($r = -.30$, $p < 0.01$), and company tenure ($r = .25$, $p < 0.01$) were significantly correlated with company commitment. Whilst age and company tenure were positively correlated with company commitment, education was inversely related to company commitment. For N.U.M. members, no demographic variables were significantly related to company commitment.

For M.S.O.A. members, the demographic variables of age ($r = .24$, $p < 0.01$), education ($r = -.45$, $p < 0.01$), company tenure ($r = .21$, $p < .05$), union tenure ($r = .23$, $p < 0.05$) and job level ($r = -.23$, $p < 0.05$) were all significantly related to union commitment. Whilst age, company and union tenure were all positively related to union commitment, education and job level were inversely related to union commitment. For N.U.M. members, the demographic variables of age ($r = .38$, $p < 0.01$) and company tenure ($r = .33$, $p < 0.05$) were significantly positively related to union commitment.

3.7. Hotelling T statistics

Related to the present study's more general aim of investigating whether predictors are common or unique to the two commitment constructs, the results of Hotelling T statistics computed on M.S.O.A. data (see Table 6)

indicated firstly, that intrinsic satisfaction was significantly more strongly related to company than union commitment ($T = 2.40$, $p < 0.05$) and secondly, that company policy was significantly more strongly related to union than company commitment ($T = 2.25$, $p < 0.05$).

The results of Hotelling T statistics computed on N.U.M. data (see Table 7) indicated significant differences in correlations between the following independent variables and the dependent variables. Firstly, the variable age was significantly more strongly associated with union than company commitment ($T = 1.82$, $p < 0.05$). Secondly, the variable company tenure was significantly more strongly associated with union than company commitment ($T = 1.75$, $p < 0.05$). Thirdly, the industrial relations climate sub-scales of grievance procedure ($T = 4.28$, $p < 0.01$), communication ($T = 1.86$, $p < 0.05$), supervision ($T = 2.87$, $p < 0.01$) and company policy ($T = 3.55$, $p < 0.01$), were all more strongly associated with company than union commitment.

3.8. Multivariate results

Two stepwise multiple regression equations were computed to assess the relative contribution of each of the independent variables to the dependent variables of company and union commitment, for each of the union samples.

3.8.1. Company Commitment

For M.S.O.A. members, four independent variables, namely company tenure, extrinsic satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction and union instrumentality perceptions, were significant predictors of company commitment entered into the model at the 0.05 significance level or better (see Table 9). The greatest contribution to the variance in company commitment is given by union instrumentality perceptions (MAXR = .24). The four independent variables explain 40% of the variance in company commitment responses, with MAXR increased by 7%, 4% and 5% by the variables extrinsic satisfaction, intrinsic satisfaction, and education respectively.

TABLE 9: MAXIMUM R-SQUARE IMPROVEMENT FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE COMPANY COMMITMENT - M.S.O.A. AND N.U.M. DATA

UNION	STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED	PARTIAL R^2	MODEL R^2	INTERCEPT	B-VALUE	F-VALUE
M.S.O.A.	1	Instrumentality	.24	.24	28.08	.03	27.97**
	2	Ext. satis.	.06	.31	21.65	.35	8.53**
	3	Int. satis.	.04	.35	18.89	.20	5.25*
	4	Company tenure	.04	.40	29.85	-.88	6.62*
N.U.M.	1	Ext. satis.	.10	.10	22.35	.29	4.22*

* Significant at the 0.05 significance level
** Significant at the 0.01 significance level

For N.U.M. data, one independent variable, namely extrinsic satisfaction, was a significant predictor of

company commitment entered into the model at the 0.05 significance level (see Table 9). Extrinsic satisfaction explained 10% of the variance in company commitment responses.

3.8.2 Union Commitment

For M.S.O.A. data, three independent variables, namely union instrumentality perceptions, education and extrinsic satisfaction, were significant predictors of union commitment entered into the model at the 0.05 significance level or better (see Table 10). The greatest contribution to the variance in union commitment is given by union instrumentality perceptions (MAXR = .35). The three independent variables explain 50% of the variance in union commitment responses, with MAXR increased by 11% and 4% by the variables education and extrinsic satisfaction respectively.

TABLE 10 : MAXIMUM R-SQUARE IMPROVEMENT FOR DEPENDENT VARIABLE UNION COMMITMENT - M.S.O.A. AND N.U.M. DATA.

UNION	STEP	VARIABLE ENTERED	PARTIAL R^2	MODEL R^2	INTERCEPT	B-VALUE	F-VALUE
M.S.O.A.	1	Instrumentality	.35	.35	20.21	.09	47.24**
	2	Education	.10	.46	39.70	-1.52	17.13**
	3	Ext. satis.	.03	.50	34.45	.28	6.24*
N.U.M.	1	Company tenure	.11	.11	36.82	.15	4.52*

* Significant at the 0.05 significance level
** Significant at the 0.01 significance level

For N.U.M. data, one independent variable, namely company tenure, was a significant predictor of union commitment entered into the model at the 0.05 significance level (see Table 10). Company tenure explained 11% of the variance in union commitment responses.

DISCUSSION

Prior to discussing the implications of the present findings, it is important to recognise some general limitations of the research. A major limitation of this and previous dual commitment research is that it is cross-sectional in design (Fullagar & Barling, 1987). Cross-sectional research designs preclude the possibility of establishing causal relationships between variables (Anastasi, 1982; Kerlinger, 1973), particularly in terms of identifying the antecedents and consequences of firstly, the two organisational commitment constructs and secondly, the different patterns of commitment. Any conclusions drawn on the basis of the present research must therefore be considered speculative at best. Future research in the area of dual commitment should, where possible, utilise longitudinal research designs which facilitate the development of process models of commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1987).

A second significant limitation of the present research is the small sample sizes utilised, particularly in the case of the National Union of Mineworkers. Although in terms of certain demographic characteristics both union samples closely approximated their respective sample populations, the limited sample sizes necessitates that caution is exercised in generalising the study's findings to a wider population. However, it is

important to acknowledge that difficulties are generally experienced in obtaining representative sample sizes in survey research (Etzel & Walker, 1974), and particularly in union-related research.

A third limitation of this study is that no cognisance was given to subjects' perceptions of the union - management relationship, a variable which has been shown to moderate the relationship between company and union commitment (Angle & Perry, 1986; Gallagher, 1984; Larson & Fukami, 1984; Magenau & Martin, 1985; Schriesheim & Tsui, 1980). This limitation is particularly pertinent, given that early researchers qualified the phenomenon of dual allegiance in the context of a mature and supportive relationship between management and labour (Purcell, 1960; Stagner, 1956). It is possible that perceptions of this relationship may have differed between members of the two unions investigated in the present research, particularly if one considers that whilst the M.S.O.A. have a long-standing relationship with the Chamber of Mines, (Morrison, 1986) the National Union of Mineworkers have only very recently been officially recognised by the Chamber (Thompson, 1984).

This limitation is thus very valid in the South African mining industry context. Whilst relations between employers and unions and staff associations representing mostly white workers are long-standing, mature and

generally conciliatory, relations between employers and the National Union of Mineworkers have tended to be adversorial in the extreme. These latter relations are reflected in an analysis of industrial conflict within South Africa for the period 1979-1986 (Levy, 1987). Obviously related to the rapid expansion of the black trade union movement since official recognition in 1979, this period has been characterised by a substantial increase in strike activity. Sectoral distribution of strikes indicate a marked increase in strike activity since the founding of the National Union of Mineworkers in 1982. Notwithstanding *global factors such as* disenfranchisement and institutionalised racial discrimination, *the adversorial relations* between employers and the N.U.M. are exacerbated by the existence *within the mining sector* of the migrant labour system, hostel accommodation, job reservation and the conservative attitudes of the racially exclusive Mine Workers Union. The turbulent nature of industrial relations in the industry is expressed in the extremely high levels of violence often associated with labour unrest, encapsulated in the unprecedented levels of militancy associated with the 1987 N.U.M. strike (Hersch, 1987). This militancy was not necessarily restricted to union activity. On the contrary, the Industrial Relations Advisor of Anglo American, Bobby Godsell, stated that he perceived:

> "no irony or even paradox in the fact that conflict is taking place through the collective bargaining system between N.U.M.

> and ourselves. But it is a big mistake to think that giving people room to organise means we are giving up our ability to aggressively, assertively and effectively promote our vital interests" (Hersch, 1987, p. 4).

Nine deaths and five hundred injuries occurred during the strike (Hersch, 1987). Within the context of the industrial relations scenario outlined above, it is unlikely that members of the N.U.M. would characterise union-management relations as supportive.

Fourthly, although the two unions investigated in the present study can be classified according to the protective/aggressive typology (Walker & Lawler, 1979), other significant differences between the two unions may have contributed significantly to the pattern of results obtained. The presence (M.S.O.A.) or absence (N.U.M.) of a closed-shop agreement, the different sexual, racial and cultural profiles of the two unions, as well as the different occupational levels occupied by members of the two unions, are all factors which may have influenced the present findings. Although in the South African context some difficulty would be encountered in attempting to control for cultural, racial and sexual differentials, future research investigating the influence of union type on patterns of company and union commitment would do well to control for these variables, particularly the closed-shop agreement. More definitive conclusions regarding the influence of union type on commitment patterns would then be possible. This is especially

important given the significant differences in levels of union instrumentality perceptions and union commitment obtained for members of the two unions investigated. The demographic and structural differences between the two unions may have accounted for the patterns of results obtained, and not the distinction between aggressive and protective unionism. For instance, earlier research in the South African context has indicated that the occupational status of workers moderates the relationship between company and union commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1987).

Finally, although the independent variables considered in the present research *accounted for significant variation* in the dependent variables for members of the protective union, *they accounted* for a very limited amount of variation in these variables for members of the aggressive union. This indicates that the influence of other important antecedent variables should be considered in future research of this nature, particularly when investigating commitment amongst aggressive union members in the South African context. Previous research suggests that other determinants of organisational commitment not considered in the present research would include: personal characteristics such as work values and beliefs, and individual needs; union characteristics such as labour union image, expectations of the union, union experiences and group norms; work experiences such as perceived pay equity, work involvement and control,

alienation, automation and management attitudes; role-related characteristics such as role conflict, stress and ambiguity and socialisation experiences; structural characteristics such as organisational structure, size and span of control, organisational technology and the distribution of power; and environmental characteristics such as the political and economic climate, legal constraints and historical background (Fullagar, 1986b). Early socialisation experiences, job involvement and Marxist work beliefs have predicted commitment to the union amongst black union members in South Africa (Fullagar, 1986b) and should not have been omitted in the present research.

The general proposition tested in the present research was that the variable union type, specifically whether workers belong to a "protective" or "aggressive" union (Walker & Lawler, 1979), moderates the relationship between company and union commitment (Martin, 1981). The finding of a strong, significant, positive relationship between company and union commitment for members of a protective union and a weak, insignificant relationship between these variables for members of an aggressive union, provides support for this proposition. It appears that patterns of commitment to employing organisations and unions differ when considering the degree of privilege and incorporation or alienation from the organisation's political decision-making processes experienced by different categories of workers (Martin,

1981; Walker & Lawler, 1979). The results of t-tests of *mean responses* computed on the present data confirmed significant differences in privilege between members of the two unions investigated. M.S.O.A. members were not only significantly more highly educated, but also occupied significantly higher-level positions within the organisational hierarchy than their N.U.M. counterparts. The zero-order correlation coefficients between company and union commitment indices obtained for each of the union samples indicated that a pattern of dual commitment to the two social organisations appears more likely to develop among workers belonging to a protective as opposed to an aggressive union. This finding indicates that the phenomenon of dual commitment is not as widespread as the majority of previous research would suggest (Biles, 1969; Dean, 1954; England, 1960; [illegible] & Long, 1981; Fukami & Larson, 1984; Martin, [illegible] Martin & Smith, 1979; Purcell, 1960; Stagner, [illegible], *Sunderman, 1966;* Wade, 1985), and reinforces recent findings of other variables moderating the relationship between the two commitment constructs, namely perceptions concerning labour-management relationship climates (Angle & Perry, 1986; Fukami & Larson, 1982; Gallagher, 1984), past and present membership status of union members (Conlan & Gallagher, 1987), behavioural participation in union affairs (Angle & Perry, 1986) and the occupational status of workers (Fullagar & Barling, 1987).

The present research results are not as definitive and conclusive as the earlier finding of a strong, significant, positive correlation between union and company commitment for South African white, occupationally privileged workers and a strong, significant, negative correlation between these variables for black, occupationally underprivileged workers (Fullagar & Barling, 1987). However, they do support the contention that dual commitment is more likely among intrinsically motivated workers occupying positions at the higher levels of the organisational hierarchy where greater opportunities exist for organisational involvement and the satisfaction of higher-order needs (Barling, 1983). The present research findings would suggest that in the South African context, the phenomenon of dual commitment is more likely amongst the white labour "aristocracy" (Webster, 1983).

The present results also reinforce the importance of voluntary behaviours as central to an understanding of commitment (Salancik, 1977). Members of the M.S.O.A., governed by a closed-shop agreement, were significantly less committed to the union than were members of the N.U.M., who join the union voluntarily. As voluntary behaviours are important determinants of commitment (Salancik, 1977), this finding is plausibly the result of the existence of the closed-shop agreement. Alternatively, it may signify greater solidarity in the ranks of aggressive unions and suggest that they would be

more powerful than protective unions in imposing sanctions (Gordon et al., 1980). This finding is all the more important given that the tenure of N.U.M. members was of significantly shorter duration than in the case of M.S.O.A. members, indicating that within a relatively short period of time, the N.U.M. has been able to foster high levels of membership loyalty. The degree of Freedom of Association offered to workers is obviously a core structural characteristic of organisations which cannot be ignored in commitment-related research.

The previous consistent findings of a strong, positive relationship between union instrumentality perceptions and general union attitudes (Fullagar, 1986b; Laliberte & Barling, 1986) and behaviours (Beutell & Biggs, 1984; Bigoness & Tosi, 1984; Brett, 1980; Decotiis & Lelouarn, 1981; Kochan, 1979; Youngblood et al., 1984) were, in the case of union commitment attitudes, supported in the present research. The strong, significant, positive relationship obtained between union instrumentality perceptions and union commitment attitudes for members of the M.S.O.A indicate that for members of protective unions, union instrumentality perceptions are an important variable associated with commitment to the union.

The insignificant positive correlation obtained between union instrumentality perceptions and union commitment for members of the N.U.M. does not necessarily suggest

that instrumentality perceptions are not strongly associated with affective union commitment amongst members of aggressive unions. Previous longitudinal research has indicated that instrumentality perceptions were a stronger determinant of union commitment attitudes amongst black union members, and more predictive of behavioural involvement in union' activities amongst white members (Fullagar, 1986b). However, in the South African context, black unions have increasingly negotiated agreements over intrinsically-related issues such as retrenchment, childcare facilities, pensions, health and safety (Piron, 1984). Although the instrumentality measure included in the present research measured work-related items of an intrinsic and extrinsic nature, intrinsic outcomes such as those stated above were not assessed. These outcomes may be very important in assessing the instrumental nature of the union for blue-collar, disenfranchised and alienated union members. This is supported by the present findings of a strong positive correlation between extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment amongst M.S.O.A. members, and the relatively strong, positive correlation between intrinsic satisfaction and union commitment for N.U.M. members. The present correlations obtained between union instrumentality perceptions and company and union commitment suggest that future research should further consider the moderating effect of instrumentality perceptions (Brett, 1982) on the relationship between the organisational commitment constructs and other related variables.

The previous finding of instrumentality perceptions being more strongly associated with union support than either intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction (Kochan, 1979) was also supported in the present research. Furthermore, the present finding that voluntary members of the N.U.M. perceived the union to be significantly more instrumental in obtaining valued outcomes than was the case for members of the M.S.O.A., who are governed by a closed-shop agreement, supports the contention that a union characteristic, specifically the existence or absence of a closed-shop agreement, moderates levels of instrumentality perceptions. This finding has important implications for unions. Whilst those relying on voluntary membership may assume that instrumentality perceptions of members are relatively high, those governed by closed-shop agreements are likely to have a proportion of their membership who do not perceive the union to be instrumental in obtaining valued outcomes. This finding further substantiates the importance of voluntary behaviours in understanding commitment (Salancik, 1977), as well as other union-related constructs. Further investigation of the influence of structural characteristics of organisations appears warranted

With respect to the work experience variables of extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, the present research findings of significant, positive relationships between these variables and company commitment for members of the M.S.O.A. is consistent with a large body

of previous research (Bartol, 1979; Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Wade, 1985; Wiener & Gechman, 1977; Welsh & LaVan, 1981). However, in the case of N.U.M. members, although extrinsic satisfaction was significantly positively related to company commitment, intrinsic satisfaction was not related to company commitment.

The finding of a significant, positive relationship between extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment for members of the M.S.O.A. is consistent with previous research findings (Fullagar, 1986b; Gordon et al., 1980). Although previous research generally indicates that job dissatisfaction predisposes unorganised workers to unionization (Bigoness, 1978; Getman et al., 1976; Schriesheim, 1978), once certified the union shares the *blame for conditions leading to job* dissatisfaction (Gordon et al., 1980; Gordon & Long, 1982). This finding also supports the view of unions as primarily "bread and butter" organisations, concerned with addressing workers dissatisfaction with economic issues (Beer & Driscol, 1977; Getman et al., 1976; Kochan et al., 1974; Strauss, 1977), although intrinsic dissatisfaction has also been shown to relate to unionization (Bigoness, 1978; Fullagar, 1986b; Garbarino, 1975, 1980; Herman, 1973; Ladd & Lipset, 1973; Walker & Lawler, 1979). The existence of the closed-shop agreement and statutory job

reservation have historically protected the privileged positions of white workers within the South African mining industry (Morrison, 1986). The threat of black advancement to white workers (Chalmers, 1983) would undoubtedly have a considerable impact on the instrumental nature of membership of the union, especially in terms of job security. The attendant benefits of job reservation for M.S.O.A. members, particularly in terms of extrinsic conditions of employment, may be credited, at least partly, to membership of the union. This argument is supported by the significant positive correlation obtained between extrinsic satisfaction and union instrumentality perceptions for members of the M.S.O.A.

Previous research in the South African context has indicated that dissatisfaction with extrinsic rewards was the strongest predictor of union loyalty amongst white union members, and that intrinsic dissatisfaction was more predictive of union loyalty amongst black union members than extrinsic dissatisfaction (Fullagar, 1986b). The present findings of extrinsic satisfaction being significantly related to union commitment for M.S.O.A. members and intrinsic satisfaction more strongly associated with union commitment for N.U.M. members support these previous findings. Furthermore, Hotelling T-statistics computed in the present research indicate that for members of the M.S.O.A., intrinsic satisfaction was significantly more strongly associated with company

than union commitment, supporting Fullagar's (1986b) earlier finding. It appears that the *unionisation* process and union attachment results from both dissatisfaction with economic issues (Bigoness, 1978; Brett & Hammer, *1982; Schriesheim, 1978*) and the industrial relations concept of perceived deprivation (Begin, 1979; Kemerer & Baldridge, 1975; Walker & Lawler, 1979).

In the South African context whilst unionisation and subsequent commitment may be influenced by economic factors for all categories of workers, black workers may support the union as a result of dissatisfaction with intrinsic factors such as the opportunity to learn new things and accomplish something worthwhile in their jobs. The absence of significant *correlations between* intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction and union commitment for N.U.M. members suggests that the union may not as yet share the blame or *credit for changes* in conditions of employment, given the relatively short period of time that the union has been officially recognised (Thompson, *1984*). Alternatively, it is also plausible to suggest that members of aggressive unions, within the South African context specifically, join unions not only for those intrinsic and extrinsic factors evaluated in the present study, but also for protection against unfair dismissal (Levy,1987), non-work factors such as racial abuse and discrimination, as well as other threats to human dignity not usually incorporated in traditional

indices of conditions of employment. The total political disenfranchisement of black workers in South Africa may also lead to trade unions being perceived by members as appropriate vehicles for addressing political issues. Epirical research has indicated that the majority of black union members in South Africa believe worker action to be instrumental in solving political problems (Schlemmer, 1984). These findings may also suggest that commitment to the union amongst aggressive union members may be more strongly associated with the personal characteristics of individual members than with day-to-day work experiences. For example, previous research has indicated that black workers in South Africa held strong Marxist-related work beliefs, specifically a belief in the existence of a class structure, and a *self-identification* in being a member of the working class which involves social and material disadvantages (Fullagar, 1986b).

This study's finding that M.S.O.A. members were significantly more intrinsically and extrinsically satisfied than their N.U.M. counterparts is not surprising given the virtually distinct occupational levels which members of the respective unions occupy. The positive relationship between job satisfaction and occupational status is well-documented (Vroom, 1964), and the present findings therefore accurately reflect the work conditions experienced by different segments of the South African labour force (Webster, 1983). N.U.M.

members, occupying positions characteristic of the *secondary labour market, are responsible for repetitive,* unskilled tasks involving minimal job security, low wages and poor working conditions. In contrast, M.S.O.A. members fulfill skilled tasks for which they receive relatively stable employment, high wages and good working conditions.

In the present research significant, positive correlations were obtained between industrial relations climate measures and both company and union commitment for members of the M.S.O.A., and significant, positive correlations between these measures and company commitment for members of the N.U.M. These findings indicate firstly, that strong affective commitment to both social organisations is related to favourable perceptions of the industrial relations climate on the part of protective union members. In contrast, strong *levels of affective union commitment on the part of* aggressive union members does not necessarily indicate favourable perceptions of the in-company industrial relations climate. The presence of significant relationships between industrial relations climate indices and both company and union commitment for members of the M.S.O.A. and only company commitment for members of the N.U.M. may indicate that whilst positive perceptions of the in-company grievance and disciplinary procedures, communication, worker representation, supervision and company policy are associated with

increased commitment to both organisations in the case of protective union members, this is not necessarily true in the case of aggressive union members. Hotelling T-statistics indicated that for members of the N.U.M., industrial relations climate measures were significantly more strongly associated with company than union commitment.

It could be speculated that aggressive union members perceive the company to be the party solely responsible for ensuring a harmonious industrial relations climate, whilst protective union members perceive this climate to be the result of the joint responsibility of the company and the union. An implication of this finding for employing organisations is that if positive perceptions of the industrial relations climate are to be engendered, conditions must be established within the company that allow not only for increased company commitment, but also increased commitment to the union. The adversorial relationship that has developed between many South African employers and predominantly black unions implies that many employers believe that increased commitment to the one organisation necessarily implies relinquishing commitment to the other. Results of analysis of covariance and Scheffe' statistics computed on the present data indicate that this view may well be erroneous.

Whilst earlier research findings (Fukami & Larson, 1984;

Wade, 1985) suggest that commitment to each organisation has unique determinants, analysis of covariance statistics computed on the present data suggest that only where a pattern of dual commitment is evident, will positive industrial relations climate perceptions be a common outcome of these attachments. Favourable perceptions of industrial relations climate is not associated with patterns of dual disallegiance, or unilateral commitment to the company or union. This pattern of findings reinforces the importance of investigating patterns of commitment as opposed to the relationship between the commitment constructs (Fullagar & Barling, 1987).

In the case of dual commitment, the present data supports earlier findings that unionisation affects work attitudes (Allen & Keaveny, 1983; Berger et al., 1983; Goldberg, 1981; Kochan, 1980). Whilst previous research has indicated that industrial relations climate is an attitudinal outcome of unionization (Dastmalchian, 1982; Nicholson, 1979), these present findings suggest that the relationship between these variables is moderated by patterns of commitment and may differ when considering different segments of the labour force. The results of analysis of covariance and Scheffe statistics computed on the present data indicated that subjects committed to both company and union perceived the disciplinary procedure, communication, worker representation, supervision and company policy aspects of the in-company

industrial relations climate more positively than subjects committed unilaterally to the company or union and those committed to neither organisation. Future researchers would do well to consider the influence of different commitment patterns between company and union commitment on industrial relations climate, amongst members of different types of unions. No previous research has investigated the relationship between union commitment and industrial relations climate. The data reported here suggest that industrial relations climate is an important variable which can enhance the understanding of psychological processes in organisations and contribute much to the development of a union psychology (Donald, 1985).

Results pertaining to the last proposition tested in the present research, that different patterns of commitment would correlate differently with organisational and union attitudes, reinforce the previously stated view that there is greater conceptual and pragmatic value to be gained by investigating different patterns of commitment, as opposed to merely investigating the relationship between the two commitment constructs (Fullagar & Barling, 1987). For instance, the finding of a positive correlation between company and union commitment could indicate that whilst some individuals are committed to both organisations, others are committed to neither. The positive correlation between the commitment constructs could therefore indicate the presence of both dual

commitment and dual disallegiance. By investigating the four commitment patterns possible in the workforce, the researcher can establish whether different organisational and union attitudes and behaviours are associated with each pattern, as is suggested by the present findings. Overall, the present findings in this regard strongly support the importance of investigating all possible patterns of commitment in the workforce (Fullagar & Barling, 1987).

Consistent with Fullagar and Barling's (1987) earlier finding, in the present research measures of organisational and union attitudes related differently to the four possible commitment patterns. Specifically, the present findings suggest firstly, that intrinsically and extrinsically motivated workers are more likely to manifest patterns of dual commitment or unilateral commitment to the company. Secondly, workers who perceive the union to be more instrumental in obtaining valued outcomes are more likely to manifest dual commitment or unilateral union commitment. Finally, workers who are committed to both company and union are likely to perceive the industrial relations climate more favourably than workers manifesting any of the other three commitment patterns.

These results are wholly consistent with earlier research investigating correlates of the different patterns of commitment (Fullagar & Barling, 1987) in respect to union

instrumentality perceptions, which is undoubtedly a strong determinant of union commitment (Laliberte & Barling, 1986), and partially consistent with respect to intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Fullagar & Barling (1987) found that individuals manifesting dual commitment or unilateral union commitment were more intrinsically and extrinsically satisfied than individuals manifesting dual disallegiance or unilateral company commitment. The relationship between the commitment constructs and industrial relations climate has not been previously researched. The present finding indicates that positive perceptions of industrial relations climate is manifested only by workers committed to both the employing organisation and the union.

One of the aims of the present research was to assess correlates of company and union commitment and investigate whether these are common across different segments of the labour force. The results of Hotelling T statistics would appear to indicate that for members of a protective union (Walker & Lawler, 1979), a common set of variables are significantly related to both commitment constructs, partially contradicting earlier research investigating models of organisational (company and union) commitment. Fukami and Larson (1984) found that although the personal characteristics of age, company tenure and educational level predicted company commitment, these variables did not predict union commitment. In contrast, Wade (1985) found that whilst

age, union position, company tenure and union tenure were unrelated to company commitment, they were all related to union commitment. In the present research, for M.S.O.A. members the personal characteristics of age, company tenure and education level were all significantly related to both company and union commitment. Union tenure was also significantly related to union commitment. These findings may well indicate a closer similarity between protective unions in South Africa, such as the M.S.O.A., and traditional American business unions, than is the case with emergent South African unions such as the N.U.M. Two very important similarities provide strong support for such an argument. Firstly, in the United States private sector most new members do not choose voluntarily to join the union, but are forced to through the existence of union shop contracts (Strauss, 1977). The same is true for members of the M.S.O.A. The lack of voluntary membership in both contexts is an important factor linking the traditionally white, mostly staff associations operating in the South African context and traditional American business unionism.

A second important phenomenon common in both contexts is that historically, American business unions have been perceived by members as primarily economic entities. The pursuance of political objectives is secondary to the pursuance of economic objectives. Strauss (1977) states that: "... those in the U.S. look upon the union more as an insurance policy than as a social movement or an

instrument in the class struggle" (p.21). As previously argued, the M.S.O.A. has pursued similar objectives in South Africa. In contrast, the N.U.M. and other black unions in South Africa have pursued overtly political objectives (Schlemmer, 1984), objectives which more closely resemble the European model of union development. These two similarities between American business unionism and an established South African union such as the M.S.O.A. may, inter-alia, account for the present patterns of findings.

With respect to members of the N.U.M., whilst personal characteristics were unrelated to company commitment, age and company tenure were significantly related to commitment to the union. Upon initial inspection, it may appear surprising that for N.U.M. members, company tenure was significantly positively related to union commitment. However, the N.U.M. members investigated in the present research had all joined the union within 3 years of the data being collected and the majority had joined the union at approximately the same time (R.R., 1986). Therefore the range in union tenure was very small for the sample considered. In contrast, the range in company tenure was much greater for members of the N.U.M. Age and company tenure were obviously inter-correlated. This finding would suggest that for the aggressive union members investigated in this research, the longer the individual member's tenure in the organisation, the greater his commitment to the union.

Overall, the results regarding personal characteristics suggest firstly, that for members of both protective and aggressive union members, demographic variables may well predict union commitment, confirming the results of earlier research (Fullagar, 1986b; Gordon et al., 1980). Secondly, for members of an aggressive union, personal characteristics are more strongly related to union than company commitment. Finally, the results confirm the perspective that personal characteristics constitute an important category of antecedent variables for company (Mowday et al., 1981) and union (Fullagar & Barling, 1986) commitment models.

In earlier research, Fukami & Larson (1984) found that work experience variables were the only set of variables to predict union commitment. Wade (1985), on the other hand, found that work experience variables were only related to company commitment. In the present research, for M.S.O.A. members extrinsic satisfaction was significantly related to both company and union commitment, and intrinsic satisfaction only related to company commitment. It would therefore appear that for members of a protective union, extrinsic satisfaction is one work experience variable related to commitment to both organisations. For N.U.M. members, extrinsic satisfaction was also significantly related to company commitment, confirming that this variable is an important variable associated with company commitment across different segments of the labour force. However, for

N.U.M. members, no work experience variables were associated with commitment to the union, suggesting that for members of an aggressive union, personal characteristics may be more important predictors of union commitment than specific work experiences. Moreover, when considered together, the relationships obtained between work experience variables and company and union commitment for the M.S.O.A. and the N.U.M. would appear to indicate that the dissatisfaction model of unionisation (Bigoness, 1978; Brett & Hammer, 1982; Feuille & Blandin, 1974; Schriesheim, 1978) may be more applicable in the South African context to protective unions such as the M.S.O.A. than aggressive unions such as the N.U.M.. The unique South African situation, particularly in respect to black workers, may include conditions for which the traditional dissatisfaction model of unionisation is inapplicable, or at most only partially applicable. Factors outside of the narrow formal work context, such as disenfranchisement, may be more important in understanding the process of unionisation than factors such as dissatisfaction with specific work experiences. Alternatively, factors within the work context but not usually incorporated in work experience indices, such as overt support or opposition by the employer to factors such as migrant labour, hostel accommodation, health and safety, discrimination, transport, victimisation and violence may be more strongly associated to the process of unionisation of South African black workers than is the case in overseas contexts.

An interesting finding in the present research was that union instrumentality perceptions was also commonly associated with company and union commitment for protective union members. This finding probably results from the existence of the M.S.O.A.'s closed-shop agreement, whereby members credit not only the union but also the company for the benefits accruing from union membership. Similarly, the present results indicate that for members of a protective union, industrial relations climate is an outcome significantly related to both company and union commitment. In contrast, for members of an aggressive union, industrial relations climate is related only to company commitment. This may indicate that aggressive union members credit the company and not the union for any deterioration or improvement in the industrial relations climate. It must be noted however, that industrial relations climate was only significantly related to a pattern of dual commitment, a pattern not manifested by aggressive union members in the present research. Alternatively, the finding that industrial relations climate was unrelated to union commitment for members of the N.U.M. may possibly indicate that traditional models of union commitment do not apply in the case of aggressive unions.

In their totality, these results would appear to confirm that given the different characteristics of companies and unions (March, 1965), there are both common and unique variables associated with commitment to each

organisation. However, these variables may differ when considering different segments of the labour force, specifically the type of union to which workers belong (Martin, 1981; Walker & Lawler, 1979). Certain personal characteristics, work experience variables and union characteristics have been shown to relate to both company and union commitment for protective union members. In contrast, the present findings suggest that certain work experience variables are more strongly associated to company commitment and personal characteristics more strongly associated to union commitment amongst aggressive union members.

These results justify further investigation of models of commitment to employing organisations and unions amongst members of different types of unions. It is unlikely that global models of commitment to each organisation can fully account for the differences in these variables across different categories of workers. The data reported here support the view that organisational commitment is a multi-faceted construct possessing multiple foci (Morrow, 1983). Commitment to the different foci may differ from individual to individual and from group to group. When commitment to the company's and the union's goals and values are significant foci, the causes, patterns and levels of commitment to these may differ according to different constituencies in the organisation (Reichers, 1985), such as the different types of union to which individual employees belong.

Multiple regression analyses computed on the present data suggest that in the case of the company commitment model, four variables were significant predictors of commitment for M.S.O.A. members and only one predicted commitment for N.U.M. members. Whilst union instrumentality perceptions, extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction, and company tenure explained 40% of the variance in company commitment for M.S.O.A. members, extrinsic satisfaction explained a mere 10% of variation in company commitment for members of the N.U.M. In the case of union commitment, union instrumentality perceptions, education and extrinsic satisfaction explained 50% of the variance in M.S.O.A. responses, whilst company tenure explained only 11% of the variation in N.U.M. responses. These findings suggest that in the South African context a greater understanding of the organisational commitment process is currently possible when considering white members of a protective union than is the case when considering black members of an aggressive union. Models of commitment developed abroad appear to be more relevant to an understanding of the commitment process amongst white segments of South Africa's working population, and less relevant to advancing an understanding of the working experience of the black working class (Fullagar & Paizis, 1986).

In conclusion, the results of this research are particularly pertinent to the present socio-political situation in South Africa, given attempts by the present

government and organised capital to "win the hearts and minds" of black workers. The issue at stake is the survival of the private enterprise system in a post-apartheid society. To quote a leading management consultant: "The major challenge facing employers is to win back the credibility of the free enterprise system" (Pennington, 1988, p. IR14), and when referring to the leadership of *C.O.S.A.T.U., reflects that* ".... *it is* disturbing to witness what little respect the endeavour of capital and entrepreneurs has amongst the union leadership" (1988, p. IR14). The N.U.M.'s "Socialism is Freedom" campaign is indicative of the black union movement's aim of restructuring the social order. The General-Secretary of C.O.S.A.T.U. has recently stated that apartheid and capitalism are inseparable (Naidoo, 1988). Consequently, it is not surprising that strategies on the part of South African capitalists towards greater participation at the workplace have been *increasingly* criticised by the black union movement as strategies of co-option (Joffee, 1988). Black trade unionists have recently stated that employee share ownership schemes had nothing to do with democratizing the workplace; on the contrary, they were aimed at smashing democracy.

It appears that general perceptions on the part of black unions regarding participative schemes reflect a belief that such attempts form part of a broad and sophisticated trade union-bashing strategy and should therefore be

rejected. The Labour Relations Amendment Act severely curtails the activities and restricts the rights of trade unions in representing their members, giving credence to this view. With very few exceptions, organised capital's indifference to this new legislation has been perceived by unionists as evidence of the state's and capital's collaboration in this so-called union-bashing exercise. The extent of anti-capitalist sentiment amongst blacks is evidenced by the Black Management Forum calling for a socialist economic framework (Malunga, 1988).

The finding in the present research of high levels of union commitment on the part of N.U.M. members arguably reflects grass roots support for the socialist rhetoric expressed by black union leaders. More specifically, this finding indicates that the N.U.M. has been successful in fostering relatively high levels of unilateral commitment to the union amongst it's members. The ability of the union to organise during 1987 one of the most significant strikes in the South African mining industry's history, with an estimated 200 000 workers on strike for 21 days, provides behavioural support for the high level of affective commitment found amongst N.U.M. members in this study. The tremendous escalation of industrial conflict in South Africa during the past decade would suggest that management attempts to foster greater loyalty amongst the black, unskilled workforce have been misguided. During the period 1979 to 1986, in any given year less than 2 million man-days were lost as

a result of strike action (Pennington, 1988). In 1987 alone, more than 9 million man-days were lost in this manner. If participation is dependent on active management and employee support, as suggested by the United Kingdom's Bullock Committee of Inquiry on Industrial Democracy, it is not surprising that so-called participative efforts by companies have been unsuccessful in South Africa, where management commitment and employee support are patently lacking (Lynas & O'Neill, 1987). Moreover, although no research has been conducted to establish whether anti-union management and state actions, highly prevalent within the current South African context (Bluen & Van Zwam, 1983; Douwes-Dekker, 1981; Shindler, 1984), foster or impede the development of union commitment amongst union members (Fullagar, 1986b), the present findings suggest that with respect to black, disenfranchised workers, these actions could establish conditions in which commitment to the union may necessitate abandoning commitment to the employing organisation.

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APPENDIX A

EXTRINSIC AND INTRINSIC SATISFACTION (SEASHORE, LAWLER, MIRVIS AND CAMMAN, 1982).

Extrinsic Satisfaction

1. How satisfied are you with the amount of pay you get?

2. How satisfied are you with the fringe benefits you receive?

3. How satisfied are you with the amount of job security you have?

Intrinsic Satisfaction

1. How satisfied are you with the chances you have to learn new things?

2. How satisfied are you with the chances you have to accomplish something worthwhile?

3. How satisfied are you with the chances you have to do something which makes you feel good about yourself as a person?

APPENDIX B

PERCEIVED UNION INSTRUMENTALITY (BARLING AND MILLIGAN, 1986)

1. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "a fair wage for my work".

2. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "adequate income".

3. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "decent fringe benefits".

4. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "settling problems at work".

5. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "challenging work".

6. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "interesting work".

7. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "respected work".

8. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "increased task variety".

9. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "recognition of good work".

10. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "feeling good about my work".

11. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "more independence at work".

12. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "feelings of achievement".

13. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "dignity at work".

14. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "intelligent supervision".

15. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "decent supervision".

16. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "loyal supervision".

17. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "participation in decision-making".

18. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "interesting co-workers".

19. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "loyal co-workers".

20. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "intelligent co-workers".

21. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "profit sharing".

22. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "seniority rights".

23. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to a "fair chance of promotion".

24. Membership of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. leads to "job security".

APPENDIX C

IN-COMPANY INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS CLIMATE SCALE (DONALD, 1985)

Grievance Procedure sub-scale

1. To what extent is it possible for workers to complain about their work problems at Rand Refinery?

2. *How thoroughly are* grievances looked at?

3. To what extent *are grievances* handled fairly?

4. To what extent are grievances *responded* to *in a* satisfactory amount of time?

5. To what extent are grievances solved?

6. To what extent are reasons given for unresolved grievances?

7. How much does the grievance procedure help solve worker complaints?

Disciplinary Procedure sub-scale

1. To what *extent are* workers made aware of what disciplinary action can be taken against them if they commit an offence?

2. To what extent are worker *offences properly investigated* before disciplinary action is taken?

3. To what extent is evidence shown of what the worker has done wrong?

4. To what extent are workers given the correct discipline for what they do wrong?

5. To what extent can workers appeal against their discipline if they think it is unfair?

6. To what extent is discipline applied in the same way to all workers?

7. To what extent does the disciplinary procedure ensure fair disciplinary action?

Communication sub-scale

1. How up-to-date are workers kept on matters that affect their job (pensions, pay, promotion, etc.)

2. To what extent are the reasons for changes in the company explained to the workers?

3. To what extent does the company inform workers of what they want to know?

4. To what extent is it possible to obtain relevant information when you need it?

5. To what extent is the information given by management to workers accurate?

Worker Representation sub-scale

1. To what extent are workers' representatives appointed in a satisfactory manner?

2. To what extent are representatives truly representative of the workforce?

3. To what extent are workers able to approach their representatives?

4. How much do representatives help workers with their problems?

5. To what extent do representatives take workers' problems to management?

6. To what extent do representatives report back on what has been discussed with management?

7. How acceptable are the outcomes of management/worker representative discussions to workers?

Supervision sub-scale

1. How easy is it to approach your supervisor?

2. To what extent is your supervisor willing to discuss problems?

3. How much does your supervisor help you with your problems?

4. To what extent is your supervisor capable of solving your problems?

5. To what extent does your supervisor treat all workers fairly and equitably?

Company Policy sub-scale

1. To what extent have workers been informed of company policy (the way management sees it's relationship with workers)?

2. To what extent is the company policy acceptable to workers?

3. To what extent does management live up to all its statements of how workers should be treated?

4. To what extent are the views and opinions of workers considered when management decisions are made?

5. To what extent has management succeeded in reducing hostility and conflict at Rand Refinery?

6. To what extent is Rand Refinery a fair and just employer?

7. To what extent is Rand Refinery's approach to worker-management relations the right one?

8. To what extent has Rand Refinery succeeded in establishing a good relationship with its workers?

APPENDIX D

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (PORTER AND SMITH, 1970; MOWDAY, STEERS AND PORTER, 1979)

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help Rand Refinery be successful.

2. I speak about Rand Refinery to my friends as a great organisation to work for.

3. I feel very little loyalty to Rand Refinery.

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for Rand Refinery.

5. I find that my values and Rand Refinery's values are very similar.

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of Rand Refinery.

7. I could just as well be working for a different organisation as long as the type of work were similar.

8. Rand Refinery really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave Rand Refinery.

10. I am extremely glad that I chose Rand Refinery to work for, over other organisations I was considering at the time I joined.

11. There is not too much to be gained by staying with Rand Refinery indefinitely.

12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with Rand Refinery's policies on important matters relating to it's employees.

13. I real.y care about the fate of Rand Refinery.

14. For me Rand Refinery is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.

15. Deciding to work for Rand Refinery was a definite mistake on my part.

APPENDIX E

UNION COMMITMENT SCALE (GORDON, PHILPOT, BURT, THOMPSON AND SPILLER, 1980)

1. It's every N.U.M./M.S.O.A. member's responsibility to see to it that management "lives up to" all the terms of the Agreement.

2. It is the duty of every worker "to keep his/her ears open" for information that might be useful to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

3. Moving ahead in the company is more important than staying in the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

4. If I was victimized by management for being a member of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A., I would continue to support the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

5. I feel little loyalty to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

6. As long as I'm doing the kind of work I enjoy, it does not matter if I belong to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

7. It's every N.U.M./M.S.O.A. member's duty to support or help another worker use the grievance procedure.

8. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected of a member in order to make the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. successful.

9. I could just as well work in a non-union company as long as the type of work was similar.

10. I have little confidence and trust in most members of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

11. I speak about the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. to my friends as a great organisation to be a member of.

12. There's a lot to be gained by belonging to the N.U.M./ M.S.O.A.

13. I doubt that I would do special work to help the N.U.M./ M.S.O.A.

14. The member does not get enough benefits for the money taken by the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. for dues.

15. I intend to improve my relations with management by not being active in the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

16. My values and the N.U.M.'s/M.S.O.A.'s values are not very similar.

17. If asked I would serve on a committee for the N.U.M/ M.S.O.A.

18. If asked I would run for an elected office in the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

19. My loyalty is to my work, not to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

20. It's the group representative's job, not the member's duty, to see that management is living by the Agreement.

21. I feel a sense of pride being a part of the N.U.M./ M.S.O.A.

22. Based on what I know now and what I believe I can expect in the future, I plan to be a member of the N.U.M./ M.S.O.A. the rest of the time I work for Rand Refinery.

23. The record of the N.U.M./M.S.O.A. is a good example of what dedicated people can get done.

24. Very little that the membership wants has any real importance to the N.U.M./M.S.O.A.

APPENDIX F

COVERING LETTER TO THE COMPOSITE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear N.U.M./M.S.O.A. member

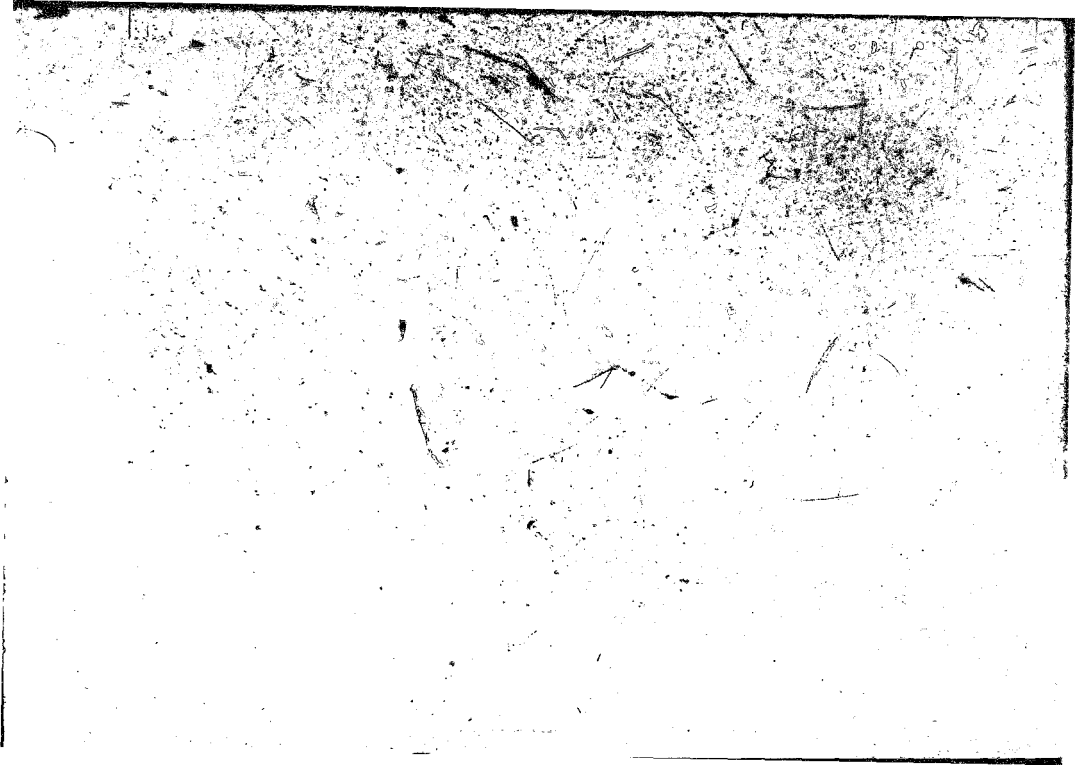
I am currently involved in a research project assessing predictors of employee commitment to employing organisations and unions. For this purpose, I have attached a questionnaire designed to measure your commitment to Rand Refinery Limited and the National Union of Mineworkers/Mine Surface Officials' Association. In addition, a number of questions are included to assess those factors of your work experience which may be related to your level of commitment. This research forms part of an independant study presently being conducted within the Division of Industrial Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand.

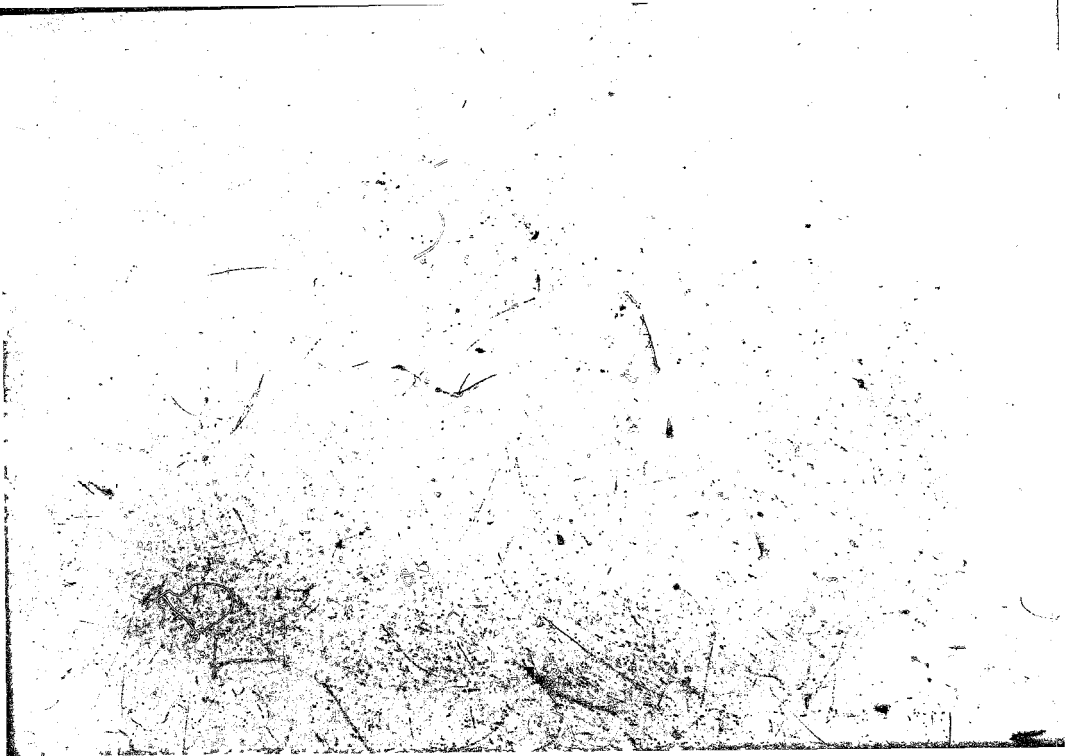
I would greatly appreciate if you would complete the attached questionnaire and place it in the envelope provided which will be collected from you at a later date. It should be stressed that confidentiality will be ensured by having participants remain anonymous. A copy of the final report will be made available at the University of the Witwatersrand library for anyone wishing to read it.

May I take this opportunity of thanking you in advance for participating in the research.

Yours faithfully

PETER CHRISTIE





Author Christie Peter Andrew
Name of thesis Company And Union Commitment Amongst Members Of Two South African Mining Unions. 1988

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