

TRADE UNIONS' SERVICE LEVEL AND MEMBER SATISFACTION

BY

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to:

The Jesus, the lion of the tribe of Judah, the Lamb that sits upon the throne.

The loving memory of my late parents Simon Magana Kgaphola and Elizabeth Manyaka Kgaphola (née Masola),

my wife, Busisiwe Roseline Kgapola,

my children, Mongezi and Masego-Arona,

my brothers and sisters, and

Babina tau and babina peba.

You have seen by now what education means to us: the identification of ourselves with the masses. Education to us means service to Africa. You have a mission; we all have a mission. A nation to build we have, a God to glorify, a contribution clear to make towards the blessing of mankind. We must be the embodiment of our people's aspirations. And all we are required to do is to show the light and the masses will find the way. Watch our movements keenly and if you see any signs of 'broadmindedness' or 'reasonableness' in us, or if you hear us talk of practical experience as a modifier of man's views, denounce us as traitors to Africa...Let me plead with you, lovers of my Africa, to carry with you into the world the vision of a new Africa, an Africa reborn, an Africa rejuvenated, an Africa re-created, young AFRICA...Africa will not retreat! Africa will not compromise! Africa will not relent! Africa will not equivocate! And she will be heard! REMEMBER AFRICA!

~ (Robert Mangaliso Sobukwe, 1949) ~

"The heights by great men reached are kept, were not attained by sudden flight, But they, while their companions slept, Were toiling upward in the night" – Henry Wadsworth Longfellow

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*The Lord bless you and keep you; The Lord make His face shine upon you, and be gracious to you; the Lord lift up His countenance upon you, and give you peace
(Numbers 6: 24-26, NKJV)*

ABSTRACT

TRADE UNIONS' SERVICE LEVEL AND MEMBER SATISFACTION

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Trade unions are juristic entities and volitional associations that have, historically and ideologically, represented the aggregate strength of labour to maximise their effectiveness in their endeavour to fulfil their core responsibilities and principal functions. However, Ceronie (2007) postulates that, in South Africa, there has been a loss of ideological support for unions since the dawn of democracy. The establishment of the democracy had the effect that a huge driving gear to belong to a union was lost. The mandate of trade unions is to, *inter alia*, protect, maintain, and improve the working conditions of their members. They fulfil this mandate by ensuring that they offer services that meet, if not exceed, members' satisfaction levels. Trade unions ultimately exist to protect both the work- and non-work-related interest of their members, whether these be economic, social, political, or environmental (Venter, 2003). Nel *et al.* (2005) asseverate that trade unions are membership organisations: They exist because of their members, they are made up of members, they serve their members' interest, and they are governed by their members. That is, they derive their authority and mandate from the members. Therefore, trade union are service providers. They must give employees enough reason to become attracted to them as members and to remain members. Simply put, trade unions, as the embodiment of workers' aspirations, owe a duty of care to their members, and thus should at all times,

act in their best interests. Thus, the kind and quality of services offered by trade unions should be perceived by members as sufficient and satisfactory. Highly satisfied and committed union members are more likely to support and participate in trade union activities.

Trade unions, like any other organisation that provides services, are faced with challenges of membership decline due to perceived poor services or the lack thereof, and are therefore required to devise remedial measures to mitigate the membership decline.

Against the backdrop of the foregoing, the aim of the study was to examine if there is a relationship between the quality of services and benefits offered by unions to their members and member satisfaction.

The sample comprised members of the three major unions within the public service of South Africa. Using the quantitative paradigm, primary empirical data were collected by distributing 500 questionnaires, which yielded a 48.9% response rate. Data were analysed using the SPSS Statistics 23 software program. The questionnaire was valid and reliable, with an overall scale reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .975$. The findings revealed moderate levels of member satisfaction (56%) with low dissatisfaction (16%), and a significantly high participation rate in union activities (61%), and union effectiveness (80%). That is, the findings revealed that members were generally satisfied with their unions' performance. The findings affirm union instrumentality, union effectiveness, and member participation as antecedents of union commitment, and also confirm unions' performance and effectiveness as significant determinants of members' satisfaction with a union.

Therefore, in a quest to maintain and/or increase their relevance, trade unions must examine their current services and benefits, in order to determine whether they still meet their members' preferences, and, if not, to develop and provide a new service mix that will not only appeal to unionised members, but will also attract non-unionised workers.



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	16
1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.....	16
1.2 PURPOSE STATEMENT AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	17
1.2.1 PURPOSE STATEMENT	18
1.2.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES.....	21
1.3 ACADEMIC VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY.....	23
1.4 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS	24
1.4.1 DELIMITATIONS	24
1.4.2 ASSUMPTIONS.....	25
1.5 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS	25
1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	29
1.6.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM/PHILOSOPHY.....	29
1.6.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	30
1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION.....	31
1.8 CONCLUSION	32
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE ON TRADE UNION JOINING	33
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	33
2.1.1 TRADE UNION IDENTITY AND MOBILISATION	33
2.1.2 THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ELEMENTS OF UNIONISM	33
2.1.3 TRADE UNION IDENTITY THEORY	35
2.2 TRADE UNION CONCEPTS AND UNION JOINING	40
2.2.1 TRADE UNION FUNCTION.....	40
2.2.2 TRADE UNION OBJECTIVES	41
2.2.3 TYPES OF TRADE UNIONS	43
2.2.4 TRADE UNION MODELS	45
2.2.5 TRADE UNION INSTRUMENTALITY AND LOYALTY	47
2.2.6 THEORIES OF UNION-JOINING	48
2.2.7 Trade union membership commitment.....	51
2.2.8 Typology of union members.....	57
2.2.9 Union participation	61
2.2.10 Union effectiveness.....	70

2.2.11	The impact of the closed shop on unionism	74
2.2.12	Why join a union?	77
2.3	CONCLUSION	94
CHAPTER 3: SERVICE QUALITY, SATISFACTION, AND MEMBER LOYALTY		96
3.1	INTRODUCTION	96
3.1.1	SEVQUAL model	97
3.1.2	The exit, voice and loyalty model	102
3.2	CONCLUSION	107
CHAPTER 4: TRADE UNIONISM IN SOUTH AFRICA		109
4.1	INTRODUCTION	109
4.2	HISTORY OF TRADE UNIONISM IN SOUTH AFRICA	109
4.3	LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT	113
4.4	TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA	113
4.5	CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES FACING UNIONS	119
4.6	LEGISLATION GOVERNING LABOUR RELATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA	121
4.6.2	Unionisation of government workers in South Africa	123
4.7	PROFILES OF TRADE UNIONS UNDER CONSIDERATION	127
4.7.1	South African Democratic Teachers Union	128
4.7.2	National Education Health and Allied Workers' Union	129
4.7.3	Public Servants Association	130
4.8	CONCLUSION	133
CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY		135
5.1	INTRODUCTION	135
5.2	DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY'S INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN	136
5.3	SAMPLING DESIGN	137
5.3.1	DELINEATION OF THE TARGET POPULATION	137
5.3.2	Sampling method	138
5.3.3	Sample size	139
5.4	DATA COLLECTION	142
5.4.1	SURVEY method	143
5.4.2	Pre-testing	143

5.5	MEASUREMENT	145
5.6	RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ASSESSMENT	148
5.6.1	Reliability.....	148
5.6.2	Factor analysis.....	151
5.7	DATA ANALYSIS	152
5.7.1	Normality tests	153
5.7.2	Statistical tests of the assumption of normality	154
5.7.3	Interpreting results	154
5.8	RESEARCH ETHICS	155
5.9	CONCLUSION	156
	CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY.....	158
6.1	INTRODUCTION.....	158
6.2	RELIABILITY ANALYSIS.....	158
6.2.1	Data reduction: factor analysis.....	159
6.2.2	Univariate descriptive statistics	170
6.3	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS.....	172
6.3.1	Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the sample.....	172
6.3.2	Background of sample's union membership	185
6.3.3	Services offered by unions and member satisfaction.....	198
6.4	INFERENCE STATISTICS	205
6.5	COMPARATIVE STATISTICS.....	208
6.5.1	Independent t-tests	208
6.5.2	Anova.....	221
6.5.3	Kruskal-Wallis test	238
6.6	CONCLUSION	243
	CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	244
7.1	INTRODUCTION.....	244
7.2	DISCUSSION.....	244
7.2.1	THE MAIN PURPOSE OF THE STUDY	244
7.2.2	THE VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	245
7.2.3	SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS.....	245
7.3	RELATING THE MAIN FINDINGS TO THE LITERATURE.....	254
7.4	MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS.....	260

7.5	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	262
7.6	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	263
7.7	CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	263
	LIST OF REFERENCES.....	264

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Data collection instrument	289
APPENDIX B: Informed consent form	295
APPENDIX C: Letters granting permission	297

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Assumptions of the study	26
Figure 2: Ideological and instrumental union membership framework	54
Figure 3: Typology of union members.....	57
Figure 4: Typology of membership attachment	60
Figure 5: Classification of union activities according to level of involvement.....	64
Figure 6: Employees’ needs, union membership, and union goals and achievement	88
Figure 7: SERVQUAL Model.....	99
Figure 8: Framework for member participation and satisfaction.....	108
Figure 9: Major trade union federations in South Africa	117
Figure 10: Public sector bargaining councils.....	126
Figure 11: Key public sector unions	132
Figure 12: Data analysis flowchart	153
Figure 13: Gender distribution of respondents	173
Figure 14: Age distribution of respondents.....	175
Figure 15: Racial distribution of respondents	177
Figure 16: Marital status distribution of respondents.....	178
Figure 17: Distribution w.r.t. whether the respondents were the breadwinners.....	179
Figure 18: Respondents w.r.t. number of dependants	180
Figure 19: Respondents w.r.t. level of education	181
Figure 20: Respondents w.r.t. job tenure	181
Figure 21: Respondents’ earnings distribution	183
Figure 22: Respondents’ community background distribution	183
Figure 23: Union membership distribution.....	185
Figure 24: Union membership tenure distribution	186
Figure 25: Union membership status distribution	187
Figure 26: Union meeting attendance	188

Figure 27: Participation in union elections.....	188
Figure 28: Reading union material	189
Figure 29: Participation in union activities	190
Figure 30: Fairness of monthly subscription fees	190
Figure 31: Familial background regarding unionism	191
Figure 32: Union membership of spouse/partner	192
Figure 33: Spouses' approval of union membership and related activities.....	192
Figure 34: Reason for joining a union	193
Figure 35: Requested union assistance	194
Figure 36: Union effectiveness in the workplace.....	195
Figure 37: Unions' role in politics	196
Figure 38: Satisfaction with employment conditions, health and safety	199
Figure 39: Satisfaction with workplace economic benefits (intrinsic benefits)	200
Figure 40: Satisfaction with workplace economic benefits (extrinsic benefits)	200
Figure 41: Satisfaction: Job-related issues	201
Figure 42: Satisfaction with representation in individual matters.....	202
Figure 43: Satisfaction with legal assistance.....	202
Figure 44: Satisfaction with education and training.....	203
Figure 45: Satisfaction with member services.....	204
Figure 46: Participation in union-related activities.....	250
Figure 47: Respondents' satisfaction with trade unions' performance	251

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Key abbreviations	29
Table 2: Servicing Union Model and Organising Union Model.....	46
Table 3: Reasons for joining unions.....	88
Table 4: History of trade unionism in South Africa	111
Table 5: Laws, decrees, and commissions that shaped the South African labour relations system	114
Table 6: Trade union membership of public and private sector employees in formal sector	119
Table 7: Public sector trade unions.....	127
Table 8: Biographical characteristics of the respondents ($N = 242$).....	140
Table 9: The Cronbach's α test.....	149
Table 10: Case processing summary.....	149
Table 11: Overall reliability statistics	149
Table 12: The results of the item-total statistics analysis	150
Table 13: Interpretation of the KMO-MSA.....	151
Table 14: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's Test	152
Table 15: Summary of the means, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis	154
Table 16: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: <i>Conditions of employment, health, and safety</i> .160	
Table 17: Eigenvalues: <i>Conditions of employment, health, and safety</i>	160
Table 18: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: <i>Workplace economic issues</i>	161
Table 19: Eigenvalues: <i>Workplace economic issues</i>	161
Table 20: KMO-MSA measure and Bartlett's test: <i>Job-related issues</i>	162
Table 21: Eigenvalues: <i>Job-related issues</i>	163
Table 22: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: <i>Representation in individual matters</i>	164
Table 23: Eigenvalues: <i>Representation in individual matters</i>	164
Table 24: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: <i>Legal assistance</i>	165

Table 25: Eigenvalues: <i>Legal assistance</i>	166
Table 26: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: <i>Education and training</i>	166
Table 27: Eigenvalues: <i>Education and training</i>	167
Table 28: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: <i>Member services</i>	168
Table 29: Eigenvalues: <i>Member services</i>	168
Table 30: Descriptive statistics for the constructs and items measured in the questionnaire	170
Table 31: National population distribution and EAP.....	178
Table 32: Comparison of mean scores of gender groupings.....	211
Table 33: Comparison of mean scores of race groupings.....	211
Table 34: Comparison of mean scores of marital status groupings.....	212
Table 35: Comparison of mean scores of breadwinner status groupings.....	212
Table 36: Comparison of mean scores of union membership status.....	213
Table 37: Comparison of mean scores of employees who voted in the last election to elect union officials.....	213
Table 38: Comparison of mean scores of employees who regularly read union material	214
Table 39: Comparison of mean scores of employees who participate in important union activities.....	214
Table 40: Comparison of mean scores of employees with regard to fairness of the monthly subscription fees.....	215
Table 41: Comparison of mean scores of employees' familial union background.....	215
Table 42: Comparison of mean scores of employees with regard to spouse's or partner's union membership.....	216
Table 43: Comparison of mean scores of employees with regard to approval of union membership by spouse or partner.....	216
Table 44: Comparison of mean scores of employees regarding having requested union assistance during the previous 12 months.....	217
Table 45: ANOVA results for <i>Age</i> and services offered by unions.....	221

Table 46: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of EI2 in relation to <i>Age</i>	222
Table 47: ANOVA results for <i>Number of dependants</i> and services offered by unions....	222
Table 48: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Number of dependants</i> in relation to EI1, EI2	223
Table 49: ANOVA results for <i>Educational qualification</i> and services offered by unions..	224
Table 50: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Educational qualification</i> in relation to LI and ET	225
Table 51: ANOVA results for <i>Job tenure</i> and services offered by unions	226
Table 52: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Job tenure</i> in relation to EI2,.....	226
Table 53: ANOVA results for <i>Salary</i> and services offered by unions	227
Table 54: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Salary</i> in relation to EI2 and RIM.....	228
Table 55: ANOVA results for <i>Community background</i> and services offered by unions ..	228
Table 56: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Community background</i> in relation to ESH,	229
Table 57: ANOVA results for <i>Union membership</i>	230
Table 58: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Union membership</i> in relation to EI1, EI2,	231
Table 59: ANOVA results for <i>Union membership tenure</i> and services offered by unions	231
Table 60: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Union membership tenure</i> in relation to EI1, EI2 and JI, RIM, LI, ET, and MS	232
Table 61: ANOVA results for <i>Frequency of meeting attendance</i> and services offered by unions	233
Table 62: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Frequency of meeting attendance</i> in relation to ESH, EI1, EI2, JI, RIM, LI, ET, and MS	235
Table 63: ANOVA results for <i>Unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics</i> and services offered by unions	236
Table 64: Tukey’s HSD multiple comparison of <i>Unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics</i> in relation to EI2, ET, and MS..	237
Table 65: Ranks: Nominated main reason for union joining.....	238

Table 66: Test Statistics^{a,b}: Nominated main reason for union joining239

Table 67: Ranks: Unions' effectiveness241

Table 68: Test Statistics^{a,b}: Unions' effectiveness.....242

Table 69: Reliability coefficients.....246

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Loyalty is the very raison d'être of Political [Union] Man. Loyalty is the 'why' of nationalism, patriotism, partisanship, identification and alienation, hate and love, greed and generosity, and, in short, the motive of Voice. Without Loyalty, there is no Political [Union] Man nor Polity (Roger Tung, 1981).

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Singh and Chawla (2014: 44) postulate that “unions as organisations are worthy of note, as they are characterised by fascinating paradoxical properties: involuntary & voluntary membership, oligarchy & democracy and movement & bureaucracy at the same time.” They further state that trade unions are age-old institutions for protecting and promoting the interests of workers, and that they are “formally organised coalitions of employees who encourage participation in collective activities as the primary means for achieving their goals” (Singh and Chawla, 2014: 44). In his analysis of trade unions in the United Kingdom, McIlroy (2008) observes that, under the new Labour government, trade unions are seized with a new agenda. He insinuates that trade unions have largely taken a trajectory that resulted in them abandoning their traditional agenda and accepting a role imposed on them by the government, thereby effectively reducing themselves to being a conduit for delivering state policy initiatives, especially in the areas of learning, training, and ‘employability’ (McIlroy, 2008).

Unionisation is a perennial topic of research within the discipline of labour studies. One of the key questions in the study of the trade union movement is why workers join them. In the wake of the deadly strike action at the Lonmin Platinum Mine that led to the death and maiming of scores of workers in Marikana, this question would resonate with most people in South Africa. Haberfeld (1995) notes that “most research addressing this question places a heavy emphasis on either “collective voice” provided to workers by labour unions or the union premium added to workers’ earnings” (1995: 656).

Susan Njani, a SAPA-AFP correspondent, in an article titled *Marikana exposes violent union rivalry* (25 August 2012), aptly observes that the tragic killing of 44 mineworkers

highlighted the depth of inter-union rivalry between the National Union of Mineworkers (NUM) and the Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union (AMCU). NUM incurred the wrath of workers, who accused it of being alienated from everyday shop-floor issues and having a 'cosy' relationship with management. They further asserted that violence and intimidation were used to coerce workers to participate in strikes or join unions. Juxtaposing this assertion with the malaise within many trade unions who are characterised by, amongst others, factional battles, the effects of the global economic downturn on the South African labour market, and the decline in union membership worldwide as younger workers question unions' value proposition, it is clear that the debate surrounding the reasons why workers join trade unions is not about to abate.

Trade unions have traditionally focused on obtaining better wages, conditions of service, and working hours for their members. Many workers have found solace and refuge in being members of a trade union. Member attraction and retention are vitally important to the long-term success and viability of trade unions. Effective recruitment, organising new members, and retaining existing members are critical to the strength, survival, and success of trade unions. Understanding why employees become or desire to become union members is fundamental to the long-term sustainability of the trade union movement. Trade unions need to redeem themselves and ameliorate the trust deficit their members are currently experiencing.

Effective, high-quality services rendered to members are essential to the long-term relevance and sustainability of trade unions as these attract and retain members. Discovering the reasons why employees join and leave trade unions would add to the scholarly corpus of knowledge that currently exists in this area. This is an area of interest, not only to academics, but among policy-makers, trade unionists, and employers alike.

1.2 PURPOSE STATEMENT AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This portion of study is devoted to discussing the purpose statement and research objectives of the proposed study.

1.2.1 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The reasons why workers join trade unions and are loyal to a trade union have received much attention from scholars, and is of great interest to policy-makers, management and union leaders. “Union leaders express an interest in the members’ commitment to the union because their ability to bargain collectively with the management from a position of strength depends heavily on the loyalty of their membership” (Gordon, Beauvais and Ladd, 1984, cited in Johari, 2006: 8-9). “Management is intrigued by and frequently wary of employees’ loyalty to unions, partly because they see this loyalty as a possible diminution of their power to direct the organizations in a way they think is most appropriate” (Johari, 2006: 9). Union commitment is regarded by social theorists, like Barling, Fullagar and Kelloway (1992), as “the mechanism for achieving democracy in the workplace,” whereas, according to Gordon and Nurick (1981), it “is the major variable in any applied psychology approach aimed at understanding unions” (Johari, 2006: 9).

Shein (1980), cited in Johari (2006), describes labour unions or trade unions as utilitarian and normative organisations. As utilitarian organisations, unions provide members with the benefits of collective bargaining (e.g., better work conditions and a living wage). As normative organisations, the existence of trade unions is predicated on members wanting to belong to a union and wanting to fulfil their roles in the organisation, that is, moral involvement in the union (Shein, cited in Johari, 2006). A trade union or labour union is described by Ratna and Kaur as:

[A] combination of workers that have banded together to achieve common goals for its members, where the leader of the trade union bargains with the employer on behalf of union member and negotiates labour contracts (via collective bargaining) with employers which may include negotiation of wages, work rules, complaint procedures, rules governing hiring, firing and promotion of workers, benefits, workplace safety and policies. Thus, the agreements negotiated by the union leaders are binding on the members and the employer and in some cases on other non-member workers as well (2012: 49).

Section 23(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Constitution) 108 of 1996 states that every employee has the right to form and join a trade union, and to participate in the activities and programmes of a trade union. A trade union is defined in Section 213 of the Labour Relations Act No. 66 of 1995, as amended (LRA), as “an association of

employees whose principal purpose is to regulate relations between employees and employers, including any employer's organisations." Of paramount importance is the voluntary nature of membership. Employees are free to join and form trade unions of their own choice and to hold office. "Unions are inherently different from commercial organizations in terms of their historic development, the voluntary nature of their membership, their sources of power, their objectives, and overall social and political position" (Warner, 1975, cited in Johari, 2006: 3).

Trade unions provide their members with a range of workplace services and advice on employment-related matters. The primary functions of trade unions are to engage in collective bargaining with their members' employers and to advance the interests of their members by procuring better work conditions and pay. Unions do, *inter alia*, the following for their members:

- bargain wages and salaries, and attempt to improve employees' conditions of service;
- represent members in disciplinary enquiries and dispute resolution;
- take up grievances on behalf of members;
- give a voice to individuals who would otherwise remain silent;
- unite employees in pursuit of common goals;
- advance members' political aspirations;
- provide members with a broader perspective on employment issues; and
- protect members' pension or provident funds (Fanaroff, 2006; Finnermore 2013).

The business of trade unions is to be purveyors of their member's aspirations, and being effective in this regard is essential to sustaining union members' trust. Failure on the part of the union will result in a trust deficit and prompt members to seek recourse. The *Sowetan* (August 30, 2010) reported that 26 union members had instituted a R66 million lawsuit against their union, the South African Commercial Catering and Allied Workers Union (SACCAWU), seeking redress via the Labour Court, after they accused the union of having 'sold them out' by agreeing to a new salary deal without consulting them to obtain a mandate, and concluding and signing a wage agreement that the workers had rejected. The nub of the employees' argument was that, with the new wage agreement, they were earning less than before, and have therefore suffered prejudice. This view was confirmed

by the Constitutional Court's ruling that a trade union should be held liable for its failure to assist and represent its members, because it has a right to determine its own constitution and rules. The judgment is an important reminder of the responsibility shouldered by trade unions in representing and servicing their members.

This notion of trade unions is supported by Jinadasa and Opatha (1999: 17), who describe a trade union as a formal, voluntary organisation of workers or employees that aims to secure and improve the well-being of members through collective action. Gomes-Mejia, Balkin, and Cardy (2001: 490) define a union as "an organisation that represents employees' interests in negotiations with management on issues such as wages, work hours and work conditions." It is an association of workers operating according to the principles of unity, equality, and security for the betterment of working conditions for its members. Jinadasa and Opatha (1999: 17) further state that "...a trade union engages in, any activities with the main objective of achieving the improvement of well-being of its members." Thus, ideally, the activities of a trade union should revolve around benefitting its members. According to Johari (2006: 4), unions promise a number of benefits in order to solicit members' commitment. These benefits include: maximizing wages and employment of their members, establishing a joint rule-making system that protects their members from arbitrary management actions and allows them to participate in decision-making within the organisation for which they work, and allowing them to express their social cohesion, aspirations, and political ideologies. Trade unions have long played an important role in industry, acting as the vanguard protecting workers' rights and financial livelihood, along with their health and safety (Salamon, 2000).

The perceptions of trade union members regarding the benefits of union membership varies from individual to individual. It depends on the stimuli that led to their joining, which is a perceptual process known as *selective attention* (Onah, 2007). The essence of trade unionism is social upliftment. Fajan (cited in Onah, 2007: 4) asserts that "the labour movement has been the haven for the dispossessed, the despised, the neglected, the downtrodden, and the poor."

1.2.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Despite trade unions having been a perennial research topic, there is a paucity of empirical research studies on trade unions' service levels and members' participation and satisfaction in South Africa. Research studies have been conducted in other countries, amongst others the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia, Malaysia, and Nigeria. However, there is a gap in the theoretical knowledge on trade unions' service levels and the factors that contribute to members participation and satisfaction with trade union in South Africa.

Johari (2006) opines that, despite the significant role that unions play as “worker representatives,” they have to contend with a number of challenges, such as “flagging union membership; the loss of confidence, support and commitment by members; and usurping of the role of unions by other organisations” (Johari, 2006: 6). She accordingly notes that, “these occurrences are of deep concern for trade unions and their leadership, as membership forms the constituency of a trade union and membership involvement is the test of a union’s strength and its capacity to bargain with management” (Johari, 2006: 6).

In the main, the fundamental objective of trade unions is to look after the interests and welfare of their members. As such, they are concerned with fulfilling their members' expectations. Parasuraman (as cited in Weinstein and Johnson, 1999: 70) states that service quality is a measure of the difference between expectations and perceptions of service; therefore, service quality stems from a favourable comparison between what a consumer (in the present study, a union member) feels a service firm (in the present study, a union) should offer and their perception of what the service firm actually offers. Weinstein and Johnson (1999) state that, in order to ensure good service quality, a service firm should either meet or exceed customer expectations. Weinstein and Johnson (1999: 4) further state that “great” companies do not just satisfy the needs of their customers, but, instead, strive to delight and “wow” them by continually creating experiences that exceed customer expectations. Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) developed the following hypotheses:

- **Hypothesis 1:** The service–quality relationship is positive (negative) for favourable (unfavourable) behavioural intentions.
- **Hypothesis 2:** Favourable (unfavourable) behavioural intentions are highest (lowest) for customers experiencing no service problems.

Thus, it is important that trade unions assess members' service expectations and perceptions. Since the emergence of organisations that entice employees under the pretence of offering them services similar to those offered by trade unions, there is a need for trade unions to distinguish themselves from these organisations by being member-centric. The challenge that confronts trade unions is to understand and deliver the range, variety, and quality of services that will ensure that members' expectations are met, with limited resources and despite having to deal with contending requirements.

The proposed study will investigate the relationship between the services and benefits offered by trade unions and the effects thereof on retention of existing members and attraction of new members. This will be done by looking at whether trade unions are fulfilling their service agreement by meeting members' expectations. The proposed study, therefore, intends to address this theoretical lacuna in the South African context through the following research objectives:

- To understand the trade union members' perceptions about the need for a trade union and the impact thereof on membership participation in trade union activities;
- To analyse and explain the factors that correlate with membership participation and satisfaction;
- To identify the services and benefits (both extrinsic/industrial and intrinsic/non-industrial) that trade unions are providing to their members;
- To survey what services and benefits (both extrinsic/industrial and intrinsic/non-industrial) and support members want from trade unions;
- To assess trade unions' effectiveness and performance in terms of the quality of the services and benefits they offer to members, and the effects thereof on workers' decision-making on whether to join or leave a union;

- To assess the relationship between the provision of these benefits and members' commitment and participation; and
- To investigate if there is a significant relationship between the types and quality of services and benefits being offered by trade unions and member satisfaction.

To address the aforementioned research objectives, the research questions (RQs) addressed in this study will be as follows:

- RQ 1: What services, benefits, and support do union members want trade unions to offer?;
- RQ 2: What factors influence workers' decision-making regarding joining or leaving a union?; and
- RQ 3: Are union members are satisfied with the services and benefits they received from their unions?

The findings of the proposed study will hopefully enhance the empirical understanding of trade unions, and be implemented to improve the relationship between trade unions as service providers and the membership as the service recipients. Further, the findings may assist trade unions in understanding the service delivery imperatives that are essential to attracting and/or retaining membership by rendering the kind of services that meet members' expectations, which delivery is material to members' satisfaction.

1.3 ACADEMIC VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE PROPOSED STUDY

The decline in membership in South Africa's post-apartheid dispensation is of great concern, and, as such, this study will assist in understanding union members' expectations and satisfaction requirements, that unions may deliver the required service quality. The significance of the proposed study is both theoretical and practical. The study will be of theoretical significance in that it will contribute to the existing body of knowledge by generating new ideas in this field. Apart from contributing to the existing body of knowledge, the findings will assist unions that wish to evaluate and address their

members' perceptions of the services that they receive from them and their satisfaction in this regard. This will assist trade unions to improve their service and benefit offerings, enhancing members' participation, which will grow their unions through retention of current members and attraction of new ones.

Of interest to the present researcher is that, as an employee relations practitioner, he has observed a continuous decline in both the quantity and quality of services rendered by unions to their members, in favour of political jockeying. The empirical knowledge to be generated in this study will further equip and empower trade unions to confront challenges that threaten their continued existence and relevance, and also to ensure that they are better positioned to meet their members' expectations, thereby retaining existing members and gaining new members. Unions will also be able to enhance their members' commitment and participation. Thus, there is an acute necessity to examine the South African trade union movement especially during the post-1994 period.

Lastly, the findings of this study may serve as a source of reference for scholars, researchers, and policy-makers, and form the basis for similar future studies in this field.

1.4 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

This section is devoted to the delimitations and assumptions of the study.

1.4.1 DELIMITATIONS

The primary purpose of delimitation is to ensure that a study is manageable, focused, and cost-effective, and that it achieves its intended objective. One of the limitations of the proposed study is the number of variables to be studied. Variables that will not be considered in the proposed study could well play a major role. Furthermore, the focus on public sector unions is another major limitation of the study. The knowledge and experience of employees in the private sector may help to draw a comparative analysis. Additionally, the use of a survey research to elicit the satisfaction level of union members may not allow enough control over extraneous or exogenous variables that might have an effect on dependent variables. Another constraint is that the unit of analysis will comprise union members who are, in the main, 'white-collar' workers.

1.4.2 ASSUMPTIONS

Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 5) define an assumption as “a condition that is taken for granted, without which the research project would be pointless.” The assumptions of the present study are:

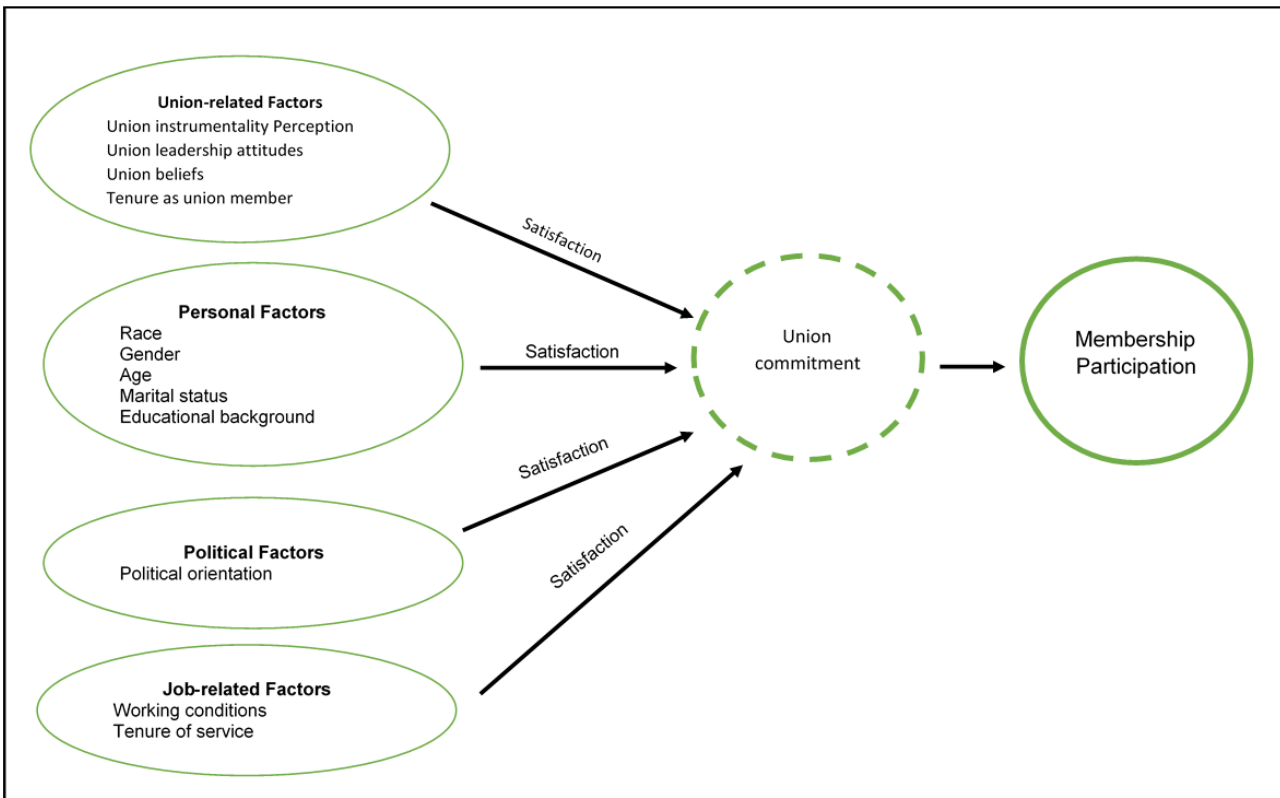
- Union members who are satisfied with the services being offered by their trade union will remain loyal and actively participate in union-initiated activities.
- Union members who are dissatisfied with the services being rendered by their trade union will disengage from union activities or relinquish their membership altogether.
- A quantitative survey research is an appropriate means to explore the level of satisfaction and participation of trade union members.
- A self-administered questionnaire is an appropriate tool to gather the needed data with regard to satisfaction, commitment, and participation.
- The sample drawn would be sufficiently representative of the target population.
- The respondents would be honest when completing the questionnaire.
- The questionnaire would produce reliable and valid data.

The overall assumption of this study is that satisfaction with a union’s services will translate into commitment to the union, which is demonstrated by participation, as depicted in Figure 1. The opposite also holds true. Dissatisfaction leads to a lack of commitment, which is embodied in non-participation.

1.5 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The following key terms and abbreviations will be used in this study, and need to be defined so that the reader understands the context in which they are used. Any reference to a specific gender or race in this study is a reference to that specific gender or race, unless stated otherwise, and no discrimination is intended or implied with the use of words or phrases having a gender or race connotation. The terms *worker* and *employee* essentially have the same meaning, and will be used interchangeably. The same applies to the terms *industrial relations*, *labour relations*, and *employee/employment relations*.

Figure 1: Assumptions of the study



Adapted from: Oikelome (2014: 116)

TRADE UNION

Within the South African context and for purpose of this study, the definition of a trade union is that proffered in Section 213 of the LRA, which defines a trade union as “an association of employees whose principal purpose is to regulate relations between employees and employers, including any employer’s organisation.”

TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP

Trade union membership is defined as “dues-paying membership, that is, all persons whose membership fee has been paid up” (ILO Resolution Concerning the Independence of the Trade Union Movement, 1952).

For the purpose of the present study, a union member is a person who qualifies for membership in terms of the union’s constitution and is a paid-up member; that is, a member in good standing, who holds active National Education Health and Allied Workers’ Union (NEHAWU) or Public Servants Association of South Africa (PSA) or South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) membership.

TRADE UNION OFFICIAL

A trade union official is a remunerated employee of a union, whether in a full-time or part-time capacity (Section 213 of the LRA, 1995).

UNION DENSITY

Union density is defined as “a measure of the membership of trade unions, calculated as a number currently enrolled as members as a proportion of all those employees potentially eligible to be members” (McKay and Allais, 1995: 115).

UNION COMMITMENT

The level of commitment of members to their trade union, for the sake of brevity, is referred to as *union commitment*, and is measured on the Trade Union Commitment Scale. Kuruvilla and Iverson (1993) define union commitment as the extent to which an individual member indicates a desire to remain a member of the trade union, is willing to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the union, and has a firm belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the union. Peat (2001: 12) reconceptualised union commitment as comprising both a process and a relationship, which differs from the concept of individual commitment, in that it:

1. is a collective commitment, a way of thinking that develops through the individuals in the group interacting with each other and opposing groups in situations that are peculiar to workers as employees;
2. is a commitment that has its main point of reference in the situation and objective interest of workers as a group in capitalist society, and not the stated subjective interests of individual workers; and
3. is fundamentally a process, a movement from wherever the group’s commitment is to the level of commitment appropriate to the situation (Peat, 2001: 12).

For purpose of the proposed study, (union commitment) is a union member’s loyalty to the union, inclination to partake in union-initiated activities, and perform work for the union (for example, holding office), and a sense of responsibility towards the union.

UNION EFFECTIVENESS

Union effectiveness is members' perceptions of a union's performance in bargaining for extrinsic benefits (economic), intrinsic benefits (non-economic), and being responsive to its members.

MEMBER SATISFACTION

Member satisfaction refers to the weighted sum of discrepancies between expectations (tangible gains) and perceived union performance on relevant facets (outcomes) of the representation role. It is also influenced by the quality of service received (on both extrinsic and intrinsic issues).

UNION INSTRUMENTALITY

"Union instrumentality is defined as the perceived impact of the union on traditional (e.g., wages, benefits) and non-traditional work conditions (e.g., job satisfaction) that define the employment relationship" (Gordon, Barling, and Tetrick, 1995).

INTRINSIC BENEFITS

These are non-economic value-added or 'nice-to-have' service offered by trade unions to members.

EXTRINSIC BENEFITS

These are economic benefits procured by trade unions, such as improvements in wages, fringe benefits, favourable working conditions, and job security, for the benefit of their members.

SERVICE QUALITY

Service quality is "a function of the magnitude and direction of the gap between expected service and perceived service" (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985: 46).

Table 1 contains the key abbreviations and their meanings that will be used throughout this document.

Table 1: Key abbreviations

Abbreviation	Meaning
BCEA	Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No. 75 of 1997 (as amended)
COSATU	Congress of South African Trade Unions
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Council
FEDUSA	Federation of Unions of South Africa
GPSSBC	General Public Service Sectoral Bargaining Council
LRA	Labour Relations Act, No. 66 of 1995 (as amended)
NACTU	National Council of Trade Unions
NEDLAC	National Economic Development and Labour Council
NEHAWU	National Education Health and Allied Workers' Union
PHWSBC	Public Health and Welfare Sectoral Bargaining Council
PSA	Public Servants Association of South Africa
PSCBC	Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Council
SADTU	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SSSBC	Security Service Sectoral Bargaining Council
UC	Union commitment
UP	Union participation

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A research design may be regarded as a roadmap that outlines the strategy and approach the researcher will use to collect data and attain the objectives of a study. It is a form of planning that needs to be done before embarking on a research project. Research methods are approaches, processes, and techniques used to collate and analyse data in a study.

1.6.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM/PHILOSOPHY

The following descriptors describe the broad research design of the proposed study:

- Empirical research — The current study is classified as an empirical study, as a vast amount of raw primary data will be collected, processed, and analysed. Empirical studies usually involve the obtaining of data from participants by using questionnaires or conducting interviews (Struwig and Stead, 2001).

- Discripto-explanatory research — The study will be both descriptive and explanatory. It will be descriptive, because it will aim to determine members' levels of participation in and satisfaction with both workplace and non-workplace services rendered by unions.
- Primary data — Struwig and Stead (2001) state that primary data is data that the researcher collects from a person for a specific research project. In the current study, data will be collected from respondents identified for the purpose of the study.
- Quantitative data — Quantitative data are amounts or quantities of one or more variables of interest (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). The current study will use survey research in the form of a questionnaire to obtain data, which will be numerically analysed in order to draw conclusions about the studied population.

In view of the above, the current study will follow a quantitative, descriptive approach. Quantitative research is described by Talbot (1995: 87) as “a rigorous, objective and systematic process of obtaining numerical data and using control measures and statistical analysis to eliminate contaminating factors.” According to Babbie and Mouton (2001: 49), most quantitative researchers are of the view that “phenomena such as attitudes of people could best, if not only, be measured through quantitative measurement, using numerical data to quantify perceptions or qualities under study.”

1.6.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Two methods of data collection will be employed in the study. Primary data will be collected through questionnaires completed by respondents, and secondary data will be collected through an extensive review of the extant literature related to the aims and roles of trade unions, and how their performance affects member participation and satisfaction. The sample will consist of public servants who are union members. The study will be confined to union members, as it will examine members' satisfaction and their level of participation in union-related activities. The researcher will attempt to collect vast amount of primary collected from the sample, who will be selected using availability sampling. The

respondents will complete a structured self-completion questionnaire with a fixed set of alternative answers. The study will use a cross-sectional approach or design, due to financial and time constraints. Prior to its deployment, the questionnaire will be piloted or pre-tested, and the test-retest method will be used to estimate its reliability. The data will be analysed using statistical techniques, including, but not limited to, descriptive statistics, inferential analysis, reliability analysis, and factor analysis.

1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

This section provides an overview of the chapters to follow. The dissertation is divided into seven chapters. Chapter 1 set the scene, giving a general introduction to the study, providing, amongst others, the background, problem statement, objectives of the study, significance and academic value of the study, delimitations and assumptions of the study, definitions of key terms, abbreviations and their meanings, and the research methodology.

Chapter 2 contains the literature review on concepts that are pertinent to the discourse on trade unions, theories on trade union identity and mobilisation, theories on union-joining, union commitment, and participation.

Chapter 3 is devoted to the discussion of the concepts of service quality and satisfaction as postulated by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988), and the implications thereof for behavioural intentions, as envisaged by the SERVQUAL Model and Hirschman's Exit, Voice, and Loyalty (EVL) Model.

Chapter 4 is devoted to the genesis and developmental and historical trajectory of trade unionism in South Africa. Also discussed are the contemporary challenges besetting the trade union movement due to globalisation and challenges to unionisation within the South African context. Also discussed is public sector unionisation and the profiles of the public-sector unions that are central to the present study.

Chapter 5 presents the research approach, methodology, and design of the study. The suitability of the selected methodology and design is defended. Also discussed are the population, sampling method, sample size, and response rate. The measuring instrument design and data collection methods are explained. The reliability and validity assessments

are also discussed. This is followed by a discussion of the data- and factor analyses, as well as the ethical considerations.

Chapter 6, the penultimate chapter, presents the empirical findings and interpretation of the data with reference to reliability analysis and frequency distributions. Also presented are the results of inferential statistics, such as the independent t-test, ANOVA, Tukey's HSD multiple comparison, and the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Chapter 7 presents the major research findings. Also discussed in this chapter are the theoretical and practical implications of the study, the value-add of the study, research limitations and recommendations, as well as suggestions for future research.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of the study, including discussions of the purpose, research objectives, delimitations, assumptions, the research design and methodology, as well as the chapter delineation of the dissertation. Chapter 2 contains the literature review.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE ON TRADE UNION JOINING

We believe the time has come for the nation to reassess its implicit and explicit policies toward unionism, such as it has done several times in the past. And we hope that such a reassessment would lead to a new public posture toward the key worker institution under capitalism — a posture based on what unions actually do in the society and on what, under the best circumstances, they can do to improve the well-being of the free enterprise system, and of us all (Freeman and Medoff, 1984: 251).

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter and the next are both theoretical. This chapter will focus on the key literature pertaining to the reasons why employees join trade unions, including a series of interrelated themes pertaining to the concept of a trade union, members' commitment to a union (referred to as *union commitment*), effectiveness of a union, and members' participation in union activities (referred to as *union participation*).

2.1.1 TRADE UNION IDENTITY AND MOBILISATION

Before dealing with the literature on why employees join trade unions, it is apposite to address unions' growth and decline. This will be achieved by surveying literature that discusses the historical, economic, and sectoral challenges that confront the identity of unions and their ability to rally and organise membership in contemporary labour markets. The literature suggests that there exist four perspectives worthy of note when addressing the topic of trade union growth or decline. The theoretical review will, amongst others, focus on the theories of Hyman's economic and social elements of unionism and Kelly's theories of trade union identity and mobilisation (Hyman, 1992 and Kelly, 1998).

2.1.2 THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL ELEMENTS OF UNIONISM

Müller-Jentsch (cited in Hyman, 1992) says unions in the 1980s had to contend with the crises of interest aggregation, loyalty, and representativeness. Hyman (1992) asserts that these are interconnected and linked to a fourth crisis, that of organisational sclerosis.

Similarly, Wahl (2004) asserted that trade unions have become fossilised into institutional arrangements and routines resistant to adaptation. This view is supported by Tope (2007), who says with membership rates at such an anaemic level, organised labour is at an important juncture, where unions members have to be recruited if unions are to recover. Tope (2007) also asserts that three explanations are commonly advanced for unions' shrinking membership, namely large-scale economic and workplace changes, heightened resistance by employers, and ineffective organising tactics of unions. Hyman (1992) is of the opinion that:

For pessimistic (or merely realistic?) analysts, trade unions have become institutionally consolidated on the basis of historically inherited constituencies and projects, and have generated procedural routines and internal systems of vested interests which are resistant to the radical changes which new circumstances require (1992: 150).

Hyman (1992: 150) contends that many of the difficulties that beset trade unions are attributable to the growing diversification or conflict of interests within each national working class. Disaggregation, according to Hyman (1992: 151), denotes a variety of processes, which are perhaps empirically, but not logically, interdependent, and manifest in the following fashion:

- a shift from collectivism to individualism — this is reflected in declining levels of trade-union membership and/or reduced responsiveness to collectively determined policies and disciplines;
- a polarization within the working class — a division between union and non-union members, characterized by core–periphery or insider–outsider relations;
- a growing particularism (amongst workers) in collective identities and projects, as well as in employer, occupation, and economic sector or industry; and
- fragmentation within the organised working classes, which manifests in intra- and inter-union conflict and a weakening national leadership and central confederations.

Hyman (1992) argues that trends in the (de)composition of the working class are commonly employed *post hoc* as explanations of the problems that affect virtually every labour movement: declining membership, influence, and effectiveness; a retreat from traditional solidaristic programmes; and a lack of an integrated policy and strategy

(1992: 151). Hyman (1992: 152) observes that the process of disaggregation and division may be grouped into three broad categories, namely conjunctural problems of economic stagnation and recession; longer-term occupational and sectoral shifts and changes in management policy and the organisation of production; and diffuse cultural, institutional, ideological, and political trends.

2.1.3 TRADE UNION IDENTITY THEORY

As Riley (cited in Kallaste, 2010: 25) observed, literature on union membership theories explaining trade union membership decisions can be differentiated into a number of approaches that are collapsible into three general approaches. The first two approaches are regarded as more empirical in nature, and the last is more theoretical.

2.1.3.1 Structural deterministic approaches

Structural deterministic approaches explain aggregate-level membership figures. They explain fluctuations in membership figures across time or countries, based mainly on environmental factors. The factors affecting trade union membership are divided into three categories: cyclical economic variables (such as inflation and unemployment), structural variables (structural employment), and institutional variables (Schnabel, 2003, as cited in Kallaste, 2010). “Structural deterministic approaches exclude the analysis of personal characteristics and trade union leadership, and different to analyses of individual union-joining decisions” (Kallaste, 2010: 25).

According to Kallaste (2010), the structural deterministic approaches are criticised on several grounds, the main being that the analysis explaining connections between union membership, unemployment, and inflation is a *post hoc* rationalisation of empirically found correlations (Kallaste, 2010: 25). “But also it is argued that it is not possible to take account the role of trade union leadership in these studies, even though this might be a major determinant of trade union membership” (Riley, 1997, as cited in Kallaste, 2010: 25).

2.1.3.2 Individual joining behaviour

Explanations of individual joining behaviour are based on data identifying which characteristics differentiate those who have joined a union (or intend to join) from those who have not (Kallaste, 2010). Kallaste (2010) asserts that empirical approaches to individuals' joining behaviour are usually snapshot studies at a particular time, where several individual, workplace, and industry characteristics are correlated to unionisation indicators (2010: 25). The explanatory variables include a wide set of factors, which have been divided into the following categories by Riley (as cited in Kallaste, 2010: 26):

- demographic and other respondent-specific variables (age, sex, marital status, education, occupation, supervisory status, tenure, seniority, as well as full-time, part-time, or self-employment);
- industry-specific variables (industry unemployment, labour and capital intensity, and workdays lost due to illness or injury);
- company-specific variables (size of establishment and geographical location);
- attitudinal variables (satisfaction with the union, union instrumentality and image, and political and social attitudes); and
- social variables (attitudes of colleagues and parents).

It is noted that many variables have not performed consistently over different analyses, and it is therefore reasonable to believe that factors that influence unionisation might change over time. Kallaste (2010) noted that union instrumentality has had the most consistent relationship with union membership.

2.1.3.3 Conceptual models of trade union joining behaviour

According to Kallaste (2010), even though most trade union membership research studies have been inductive, there are also conceptual frameworks for unionisation decisions. Trade union membership theories are divided into the following (Cregan, cited in Kallaste, 2010: 26):

- individual-based theoretical approaches, which explain the individual's decision whether to join a trade union; and

- the development of group norms and trade unions as social organisations (mobilisation theories).

Trade union behaviour and strategies for engaging members are termed *servicing strategies* or *organising strategies* (Cregan, 2005, as cited in Kallaste, 2010: 26). According to Kallaste (2010: 26), theories of servicing strategies aim to explain trade instrumentality in cost–benefit terms for each member. The trade union is seen as a servicing organisation that offers services to its members. On the other hand, organising theories suggest a trade union strategy to attract new members through the organisational work of union leaders and the mobilisation of new members (Kallaste, 2010: 26).

Mobilisation theory regards trade unions as social movements that engage in struggles against injustice and remedy grievances. Tilly (cited in Kelly, 1997) defines mobilisation as “the process by which a group acquires collective control over the resources needed for action.” According to Kelly (1998), “mobilisation theory involves identifying the conditions and processes of workers’ interest formation, the constructing of collective organisation, the act of mobilisation, opportunity to act, the cost/benefits of action and the action itself” (Kelly, 1998: 28). “It is also necessary for people to believe that their [unjust] situation can be changed by ‘collective agency.’ This is important, because a sense of injustice is arguably the *sine qua non* for collective action” (Kelly, 1998: 28).

Trade union identity theory is predicated on the adversarial stance that unions assume towards employers to link the organisation to the principle of opposition (Rucht, 1991: 364). According to Kelly (1998), both the political economy and industrial relations contexts have been important in creating the underlying conditions that have led to antagonism and strike activity. These conditions have contributed to workers acquiring a sense of grievance due to injustices, their attribution of blame for the sources of their discontent with their employer or government, and the process of ‘social identification,’ whereby they come to define their interests collectively and in opposition to employers or government (Kelly, 1998).

Employee grievances encourage collective action against management by a union (Rucht, 1991: 364). The form that this action will take is influenced by the identity of the union.

Kelly (1997) says the identity of a union emerges out of the interaction between its interests, organisation, power, and agenda. Interests can range from being narrow to broad in scope (from wages and working conditions to training, career progression, and equal opportunities), in much the same way that a union's agenda can be narrow or broad in scope (Kelly, 1997).

Kelly (1997) stipulates that, for a union to effectively defend members' interests and address grievances, union identity must pursue a broader definition of members' interests than in the past, adopt a broader agenda, and use different methods of struggle that are more fitting with the contemporary balance of power within employment relations today. Kelly (1997) maintains that, if a union's identity remains too narrow in scope, it may face a decline in membership. According to Kelly (1997), a sense of injustice or illegitimacy prompts a set of individuals to coalesce or form a social group with a collective interest. Kelly (1997) identifies three vital processes that bring about the formation of a social group (like a union), namely attribution, social identification, and leadership.

- *Attribution*

Kelly (1997: 406) states that "an attribution is an explanation for an event or action in terms of reasons, causes or both." Kelly (1997) postulates that, by convention, attributes are classified into three dimensions. These dimensions are: personal/internal versus external/situational causes; stable versus unstable factors; and controllable versus uncontrollable factors (Kelly, 1997: 406). Mobilisation theorists are of the view that collective action flows from external, controllable attributions, in that workers must blame management for their problems and believe that management could have acted differently (Kelly, 1997: 406).

- *Social identification*

Kelly (1997) argues that attributing blame to a group such as management presupposes that employees belong to and identify with social categories such as 'us' (the employees) and 'them' (management). If social identification with these categories is achieved and the attribution of blame to an opponent leads to collective action, leaders are required to play a role in the process of collectivisation (Kelly, 1997).

- *Leadership*

Gall, Bain, Gilbert, Mulvey, and Taylor (2001: 17) state:

Organisational agency and resources are a critical part of the jigsaw in explaining the presence or absence of the ability to build an alliance of the aggrieved, i.e. a union. Crucial to this process are the agents of organising and organisation — that is the leadership malcontents or opinion-formers, who are *prepared* to carry out the task of organising and representing as well as being *able* to do so. Preparedness concerns personal conviction, determination and effort while ability concerns characteristics like respect from, and profile amongst, co-workers as well as the capability to ‘frame’ issues in a language supportive way of the case.

Kelly’s (1998) refinement of mobilization theory deems the role of agency, namely the leadership role of union representatives and activists, a crucial resource, necessary for collective action. Firstly, leaders help to instil a sense of injustice amongst workers, and, secondly, they promote group cohesion and identity by encouraging workers to focus on their collective interests, and by facilitating negative, stereotypical of management (Kelly, 1997). Thirdly, leaders encourage the workers to take action (Kelly, 1997). Finally, leaders must defend collective action in the face of countermobilizing arguments that it is illegitimate (Kelly, 1997: 407).

Kelly (1997) notes that, unlike Hyman’s disaggregation theory and trade union identity theory, which focus on how structural factors such as the level of unemployment can impact trade unions, mobilisation theory is concerned with injustice, the role of social identity in attributing blame to management, and the role of leadership. Rather than depicting structural factors as being of lesser importance, mobilisation theory emphasises that structural factors, whilst creating a more or less favourable environment for the collectivism of the workforce, do not in themselves generate a sense of injustice or identity (Kelly, 1997). Instead, these outcomes need to be constructed by activists and other opinion-formers (Kelly, 1997).

2.2 TRADE UNION CONCEPTS AND UNION JOINING

2.2.1 TRADE UNION FUNCTION

Crain (2006) posits that, historically, organised labour performed three functions, namely labour recognition, redistribution of economic utility from capital to labour, and providing labour with a voice in business, political, and legal arenas. This view is shared by Rachmawati (2009), who says that, in the workplace, it can be argued that unions have two main functions, namely voice and governance. The collective voice function entails trade unions attempting to establishing desirable working conditions for their members by providing discontented employees a communication channel to resolve the dispute and thus, avoid quitting (or exiting), as the first source of problem-solving (Freeman and Medoff, 1984: 8). Freeman and Medoff (1984: 9) argue that “collective voice would benefit both parties: employees and employers. For employees, collective voice would help them to disclose their true preferences; and put aside fear of dismissal as they are protected by other employees as well as the country’s labour laws” (Freeman and Medoff, 1984: 9). On the employer’s part, “collective voice may prevent them from losing employees as problems and grievances would be reported and thus entail lower recruitment and training costs as well as prevent ‘quiet sabotage’ or shirking by dissatisfied employees” (Freeman and Medoff, 1984: 11).

The governance function was instigated by institutionalists who viewed trade unions as “a part of the governance structure of industry and a vehicle for promoting industrial democracy (or industrial citizenship) in the employment relationship” (Kaufman, 2000, cited in Rachmawati, 2009: 78). “Institutionalists believe that the collective action provided by trade unions is able to determine ‘the rule of the game’ by which the economy operates. Within this function, trade unions are actively involved in collective bargaining with the employer in setting the rules of the game” (Rachmawati, 2009: 78).

Godard (1997) lists five functions of the industrial union model:

- Economic function — the basic role of unions is to maximise both individual and collective benefits related to, e.g., working conditions and job security.

- Workplace democratisation function — through collective bargaining, unions ensure employees' voice and participation in managerial decisions.
- Integrative function — unions are a means for conflict- and dispute resolution. They also give individuals an identity and develop a sense of belonging.
- Social democratic function — unions are not confined to workplace issues, but can play a role in larger social issues outside the workplace, such as shaping public policy.
 - Conflict function — unions are instruments for expressing class conflicts at both the macro level (such as fighting for workers' rights) and the micro level (such as assuring the participation of employees in a strike).

2.2.2 TRADE UNION OBJECTIVES

Closely intertwined with the functions of trade unions are objectives for which trade unions are established. Ratna and Kaur (2012) maintain that trade unions are formed to protect and promote the interests of their members, with a greater focus on their primary function of protecting the interests of workers against discrimination and unfair labour practices. "Trade unions regard themselves as part of the process of changing the existing social order and regard their function as being one of defending and advancing the overall interests of their members not only as producers, but also as consumers and citizens" (Deery, 1989: 75). Unions' major objectives are, *inter alia*:

- Representation — trade unions represent individual workers during dispute-resolution processes, such as grievances and disciplinary hearings.
- Negotiation — trade unions negotiate with employers on behalf of members on matters of collective interests, such as pay and conditions of service.
- Voice in decisions affecting workers — trade unions assist with the evaluation criteria for decisions related to policies such as recruitment and selection, layoffs, retrenchment, promotion, and transfer. The intervention of unions in such decision-making is a way for workers to have a say in the decision-making, in order to safeguard their interests.

- Member services — trade unions have increased the range of services they offer their members. These include education and training, legal assistance, financial welfare benefits, etc. (Ratna and Kaur, 2012: 49-50).

However, a more comprehensive account of trade union objectives is proffered by Pons and Deale (1998), who list, amongst others, the following:

- to organise and unite all workers in all industries covered by its constitution into one, strong national union;
- to protect, advance, and promote the interests and welfare of its members;
- to strive for economic and social justice for all members by regulating relations and negotiating and settling disputes between members and employers;
- to resist retrenchment(s) and to fight for permanent employment;
- to set up effective collective bargaining mechanisms and fora;
- to democratise work processes;
- to oppose any policy, practice, or measure that will cause division or disunity amongst members or workers, and to fight to eradicate all forms of discrimination (e.g., racism and sexism);
- to promote, support, or oppose, as may be deemed expedient, any proposed legislation or other measure affecting the interests of their members;
- to provide legal assistance to members in matters of employment or in furtherance of any of the objectives set out in its constitution, provided it is not inconsistent with any stipulation in its constitution; and
- to do such things as appear to be in the interests of members generally or of the union, and which are not inconsistent with the objects or any other matter specifically provided for in its constitution (Pons and Deale, 1998: 6-7).

It is evident from the above that the main function of a union is to advance and protect the interests of its members, and that its primary objective is to improve their members' social and economic conditions and their standard of living. "The majority of trade union members have a comprehensive range of expectations of the legitimate functions and objectives of their associations, an issue of no less importance is whether orientations to such discrete individual ends are concordant with wider perceptions of the role of unions

as agents of social change in modern society” (Poole, 1981: 46). Poole (1981) posits that this dual identity is best described by Herzberg’s observation that:

A modern labour union is, at one and the same time, (1) a business-like service organisation, operating a variety of agencies under a complicated system of industrial relations; and (2) an express and vehicle of the historical movement of the submerged labouring masses for social recognition and democratic self-determination (Poole, 1981: 46).

2.2.3 TYPES OF TRADE UNIONS

A trade union is defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO) as “an organisation comprising of workers as members from different trades, occupations and professions with the major mandate of representing the members in matters pertaining to their welfare at the place of work or wider society and that it particularly seeks to advance its interest through the process of rulemaking and collective bargaining” (ILO, 2013). Bain and Price (1983: 2) say that, perhaps the most famous definition of a trade union is that given by renowned union theorist Sidney and Beatrice Webb (1921) that a union is “a continuous association of wage-earners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their working lives.”

Gunnigle, Turner, and Morley (1998: 431) state that unionisation may be referred to as an ongoing relationship amongst workers within an organisation. They also submit that this workers’ relationship aims to improve and sustain working conditions and living standards in the workplace, and enjoys a level of recognition from the employer (Gunnigle *et al.*, 1998). Tannenbaum (cited in Thomas, 1988: 18) argues that unions could be defined, not by a formal definition, but by what they do, with their overall goals being to provide workers with economic, social, and psychological benefits, a democratic voice, and a political forum. The major reasons for the existence of unions are the provision of economic benefits for workers and solving local problems (Thomas, 1988).

Chan (2000) states that many a scholar, in an effort to understand the functioning of trade unions, has examined the notion of union character. One such scholar is Blackburn (1965), who postulated that the significance of unionism cannot be understood independently of union character, and introduced the concept of ‘unionateness’ — a

measure of an organisation's commitment to the general principles and ideologies of trade unionism. An organisation is described as more or less unionate "according to the extent to which it is a whole-hearted trade union, identifying with the labour movement and willing to use all the power of the movement" (Chan, 2000: 23). According to Chan (2000), unionateness can be divided into two distinct components:

- Society unionateness refers to those aspects of an organisation's character related to its relationship with other, similar organisations and its behaviour in wider society, such as a willingness to ally with the wider trade union movement. In most instances, trade unions adopt a particular political posture, hence the ideological element.
- Enterprise unionateness refers to those aspects of a trade union's strategy concerned with the pursuit of collective member interests through action such as collective bargaining, while recognising and taking into account the behaviours and importance of other contending parties' interests, such as those of the employer.

In essence, society unionateness is concerned with ideological elements of an organisation, whereas enterprise unionateness is concerned with instrumental aspects. The two concepts have been used to measure the character of an organisation, as well as the attitudes of individuals.

It is widely accepted that trade unions are not homogeneous entities. Jones (2010) asserts that they can differ from one another in many respects, for example, in their historical development, membership, and objects. Affirming this view, Bendix (2010) says that trade unions historically organised themselves according to the type of interest they represented, and that unions were established to represent employees in certain occupations (Bendix, 2010). There are four broad types of trade unions, namely craft, industrial, general, and white-collar. A concise description of each provided below.

- Craft unions are, by their very nature exclusive, and tend to be small, since they draw their membership from skilled employees, e.g., electricians. Due to their exclusive nature, they came to be called the '*labour aristocracy*.'

- Industrial unions are industry-specific, and organise employees irrespective of skill or craft.
- General unions seek to organise all workers, regardless of their job or skills, or the industry. Consequently, they are mass-based.
- Professional unions (also known as *white-collar unions*) are coteries, in that membership is restricted to particular salaried professional occupations, e.g., teachers, and tend to be very small in comparison to the other union types.

2.2.4 TRADE UNION MODELS

In general, a distinction is made between two models of trade unions, namely servicing unions and organising unions. Below are some of the notable characteristics of the servicing model and the organising model.

2.2.4.1 Servicing Union Model

- The Servicing Union Model is based on a transactional relationship, where union services are rendered by union officials in direct exchange for union members' subscription fees, as determined by unions from time to time. Servicing the membership has been, and continues to be, the dominant model embraced by trade unions, as union dues are their primary, if not the only, revenue stream. The servicing model is anchored in the union's role as protector of people's workplace interests and rights. It is assumed that, the more effective a union is at solving members' problems, the stronger the union would be as an institution (Hammer, Bayazit, and Wazeter, 2009).
- The Servicing Union Model takes a third-party approach to the employment relationship, whereby unions who intervene to help members rely heavily on employer co-operation for access to employee information, and relies on full-time union officials to solve members' problems and recruit new members.
- This approach is labour and cost intensive, and, in the face of declining density, becomes unsustainable (Cantrick-Brooks, 2005: 22-23).

2.2.4.2 Organising union model

- With the Organising Union Model, the focus is on the members, rather than union officials (paid or unpaid), undertaking most workplace activities.
- The underlying premise is that, if members are actively involved in the union and taking responsibility for the activities, they will be more committed and actively recruit their co-workers.
- The model tends to address issues on an individual level, where one person may complain to the union and the organiser will attempt to solve the problem, while, with the organising model, the focus is on getting employees to work together to resolve their issues collectively. This is carried out by training the members (as delegates) to undertake more activities (Cantrick-Brooks, 2005: 24).

The Servicing Union Model and the Organising Union Model are summarised in Table 2, below.

Table 2: Servicing Union Model and Organising Union Model

Servicing Union Model	Organising Union Model
The union is seen as a third party; it enters the workplace to increase membership or solve problems	Members own the campaign to unionise their workplace
Unions tell members how they can solve their problems	Members identify own issues and organise to solve these together
Reliance on employers to provide a list of names and workers to union official	Mapping the workplace and staff attitudes is crucial — names and information are provided by the workers
Reliance on workplace access and employer co-operation	Initial organising can be done outside work, in worker's homes and other places
Cold selling of union membership by organisers	Establishing initial contacts and finding natural leaders to help recruit
Membership promoted through services and insurance protection	Workers empowered to address their own issues through education and support
Reliance of full-time officials to recruit and solve problems	An internal organising committee is formed, and workers are encouraged to build the union through one-to-one organising
Recruitment is seen as a separate activity	Recruitment and organising are integrated
Results are achieved, but they are likely to be short-term	Results are obtained through sustained efforts — more likely to be permanent

The union is blamed when desired results are not achieved	Members share decisions and solve problems together with union leaders
Members complain when they pay fees and the union does nothing	Members make a real contribution to union struggles and identify with the union; an attack on the union is an attack on themselves
Organisers resent members for not coming to the meetings or participating	The image of the union is positive and active
Management acts, while the union reacts and it is always on the defensive	The union has its own agenda; members involved, which keeps management off balance

Source: Holland and Hanley (2002: 4)

2.2.5 TRADE UNION INSTRUMENTALITY AND LOYALTY

Kelloway, Francis, Catano, and Teed (2007) describe trade union instrumentality as the perceived effectiveness of collective action. They found that trade union instrumentality and distributive justice significantly predict individuals' intent to participate in protests. According to Clark (2013), general union instrumentality reflects people's evaluation of the labour movement's ability to deliver or to give members value for their money (paid in the form of subscription fees). This might involve the degree to which unions are able to secure higher wages, better working conditions, or favourable legislation, which reflect union efficiency. Clark (2013) states that the efficiency of a union influences the members' perception of the union's instrumentality.

According to Fullagar and Barling (1989), perceived union instrumentality influences union participation in several ways. It affects union participation directly by acting as a moderator of the effect of union loyalty on participation. Thus, individuals who are loyal to the union and perceive the union as being instrumental in attaining valued outcomes are more likely to participate in formal union activities (such as attending meetings, holding a union office, and filing grievances) than those who do not see the union as being instrumental. Perceived instrumentality influences union participation indirectly by affecting commitment to the union, which, in turns, affects members' participation in union activities.

According to Barling, Fullagar, and Kelloway (1992), trade union instrumentality is a consistent predictor of collective behaviour. Individuals are more likely to engage in

protest actions if they believed that such actions would bring about the intended changes. Kelloway *et al.* (2007) note that trade union loyalty increases the propensity of individuals to participate in industrial action, and defines loyalty as the extent to which individuals are attached or committed to a group. The authors further note that commitment to a group increases an individual's propensity to embark on protest or individual action, and could be considered an accurate predictor of such action. However, they found that trade union loyalty does not predict employees' intent to participate in protests (Kelloway *et al.*, 2007).

2.2.6 THEORIES OF UNION-JOINING

"The unions are taking an instrumental approach to their new role. Ideological principles such as solidarity and moral strength are no longer sufficient to entice many of today's workers to join a union" (Olney, 1996: 78). In their extensive theoretical and empirical literature on attempts to model the individual's unionisation decision, Wheeler and McClendon (cited in Charlwood, 2001) provide three theoretical models as reasons for joining a union, namely Model A: frustration/dissatisfaction/dissonance; Model B: rational evaluation of the benefits of union membership; and Model C: political/ideological convictions.

2.2.6.1 Model A: Dissonance theories

Dissonance theories are based on the premise that unionisation is triggered by the dissonance between expectations of work (e.g., that work should be enjoyable and rewarding) and the experience of work (e.g., work environment is unpleasant and pay is low). Workers, however, are only willing to unionise if they perceive unions to be effective at remedying their discontent. According to Charlwood (2001), the following two hypotheses can be developed from this theoretical insight:

"Hypothesis 1: An individual who expresses job dissatisfaction will be more likely to be willing to join a union than an individual who is satisfied.

Hypothesis 2: An individual who believes that their pay is low will be more likely to be willing to unionise than an individual who believes that their pay is reasonable or on the high side” (Charlwood, 2001: 5).

2.2.6.2 Model B: Utility theories

Utility theories hold that “the decision to unionise is based on a rational calculation of the costs and benefits of unionisation compared to the costs and benefits of remaining non-union” (Charlwood, 2001: 5-6). According to Charlwood (2001), it is evident that this theory is not incompatible with Model A; however, in Model B, employees may unionise even if they are not dissatisfied. Model B leads to the following hypothesis:

“**Hypothesis 3:** An individual will be more likely to unionise if he or she believes that the presence of a union at their workplace will improve their workplace, and be less likely to unionise if he or she believes that a union would make no difference or make their workplace worse” (Charlwood, 2001: 6).

2.2.6.3 Model C: Political/ideological theories

Model C is markedly distinct from the other two models, in that it is not based on a rational calculation of costs and benefits. It is predicated on altruistic reasons, where individuals unionise “if they have left wing political views which lead them to believe in the necessity of social solidarity between workers” (Adams, 1974, cited in Charlwood, 2001: 6). According to Charlwood (2001: 6), Adams himself rejected this idea as overly simplistic, and subsequent studies have found little evidence to support this view. However, it is possible that political beliefs may cause workers to unionise for reasons that are not altruistic. “Political beliefs will alter an individual’s assessment of the costs and benefits of unionisation. An individual with left wing political views is likely to believe that the benefits of unionisation are higher, and the costs lower, while an individual with right wing political views is likely to believe the opposite” (Kelly, 1998, cited in Charlwood, 2001: 6). Charlwood 2001: 6) opined: “Political views may affect willingness to join a union by altering an individual’s calculation of the utility of union membership, instead of via the more simplistic mechanism of altruism set out in model C.” Model C leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: “An individual with left-wing political views will be more likely to be willing to join a union than an individual with centrist or right-wing political views” (Charlwood, 2001: 6).

According to Charlwood (2001: 6), a theoretically rigorous model that integrates Models A and B and which fits the large body of empirical evidence was developed by Wheeler and McClendon. The fulcrum of this model is that the gap between expectations and achievements is the trigger for unionisation, and also that the form that the gap takes influences the path to unionisation or rejection of unionisation that the individual will ultimately follow.

Newton and Shore (1992: 276) argue that one important distinction to be drawn is that between union membership and union attachment. “Some members may have an affective or instrumental attachment to the union. Other members, however, join because this is required by their union contract” (Newton and Shore, 1992: 276). The authors add that, in instances where membership is coerced through a union shop (what is referred to as a *closed shop* in South Africa) as a condition of employment, members may view the union negatively. These individuals will not be attached to the union, but will remain involved in the union and continue their membership in order to retain their employment.

According to Olney (1996), there is a dire need for unions to involve themselves in research regarding membership developments and attitudinal changes. This they should do to understand what union members want from them, in order to be in a better position to service their members. “Like all those in business who are offering a product, a union must meet the taste of its target market and convince that group that its offerings have in fact what they want” (Olney, 1996: 79). Olney notes that it may be more appropriate to refer to members and potential members as ‘clients,’ and to treat them as “clients who want to be served in a professional way and with services which fulfil their own specific needs” (1996: 79).

2.2.7 TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP COMMITMENT

Research into trade union commitment has largely tapped into previous studies that researched workers' commitment to the organisations that employed them, due to the absence of literature on union commitment.

An understanding of commitment is important, not only for research on trade unions, but also for labour leaders who wish to address the deteriorating levels of trade union participation and increase the democratic involvement of members (Fullagar and Barling, 1987).

Onah (2007: 5) opines that workers can be considered committed to various entities, both inside and outside of the workplace. "Trade union commitment is more than simply the addition of individual calculates. It is something that grows out of the common circumstances, experiences, issues, problems and interests that give life to the collective organization and underpinning work-place trade union activity" (Onah, 2007: 5). According to Mann (1973) as cited in Onah (2007: 5), the members of a trade union "spontaneous source of identity is collective solidarity with each other: each responds almost automatically to what he/she perceives as being to groups' goals even if he/she believes them to be irrational."

Newton and Shore (1992) assert that the organisational commitment literature concerning the relationship of the workers with the employing organisation offers a theoretical base for the development of a model of union membership. According to these authors, "a common theme in the organizational commitment literature has been the distinction between instrumental, or calculative, involvement versus normative, or moral involvement."

According to Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thomson, and Spiller, 1980; Kelloway, Catano, and Southwell, 1992, union commitment is a multidimensional construct made up of four empirical dimensions or factors:

- a) loyalty to the union (attitude) — a feeling of pride due to association with the union, knowledge of the benefits provided by the union, and a willingness to maintain union membership;

- b) willingness to work for the union — a desire to go beyond daily activities and do more for the union;
- c) responsibility to the union — members are willing to protect the union’s interests; and
- d) a belief in unionism.

Kuruvilla and Sverke (1995) define union commitment in terms of two dimensions, namely value/ideological commitment and instrumental commitment, with value/ideological commitment representing a form of support for the union derived from an individual’s identification with the values and ideology of the union, whilst instrumental commitment is a form of attachment derived from the benefits the unions provide for their members. Trade union commitment, according to Hall in Angle and Perry (1981), is a theory laden with numerous conceptualisations and definitions. Thus, any study or investigation of commitment needs to make explicit exactly what it is investigating.

Etzioni (cited in Newton and Shore, 1992) propose that involvement in organisations may be regarded as existing on a continuum ranging from negative (alienation) to neutral (calculative) to positive (moral). “Alienative involvement may occur when the individual feels that the organization is punitive or harmful. With calculative involvement, members adjust their level of involvement to match inducements, whereas moral involvement exists when standards and values are internalized and involvement is relatively unaffected by changes in rewards” (Newton and Shore, 1992: 277).

Wiener (cited in Newton and Shore, 1992) developed a theoretical model that differentiates instrumental motivation (instrumental attachment) from organisational commitment (normative or moral attachment). Instrumental motivation is based on calculative, utilitarian, and self-oriented interests. In contrast, organisational commitment represents a motivation based on value-based or moral grounds. These moral or normative beliefs create internalised pressures to behave in a way that serves the organisation’s goals and interests. Thus, whereas instrumentally motivated acts are self-oriented, normatively motivated acts are organisationally oriented (Newton and Shore, 1992: 277). On the other hand, O’Reilly and Chatman (cited in Newton and Shore, 1992) propose that psychological attachment to an organization is based on three dimensions, namely:

- a) compliance — involvement to obtain specific extrinsic rewards;
- b) identification — based on a desire for affiliation; and
- c) internalisation — based on congruence between individual and organisational values.

“Compliance may lead to an outcome due to purely instrumental perceptions, based on an evaluation of rewards and costs. The latter two dimensions, however, seem to lead to outcomes based on respect and concern for the organization” (Newton and Shore, 1992: 277).

Oft-asked questions are why workers take-up trade union membership and what they expect their union to deliver in turn. According to Gani (1996), Marxist theorists explain membership of a union as due to workers’ dissatisfaction with and disappointment in the present system, as well as their political will to bring down the ‘exploitative order.’ Hartley (1996) posits that the rationale for union membership is often described along an ideological–instrumental continuum. At one end, workers join for predominantly collective motives, for example, ideological commitment to unionism and the protection of the vulnerable employee in the asymmetric employment relationship, while, at the other, the motivation is more individualistic, for instance, access to employment insurance and legal services (Hartley, 1996).

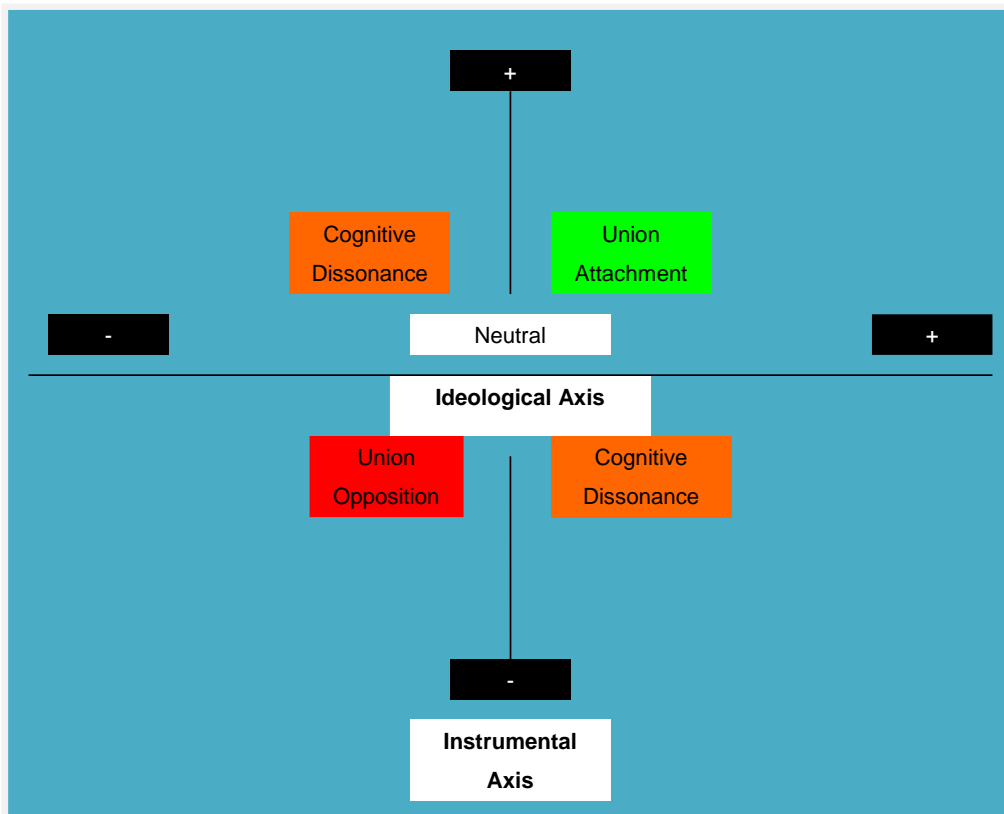
According to Van der Veen (1996), if there has been a general decline in collectivist values and an erosion of occupational ties, one would expect that union members would join for predominantly individualistic motives. Then, one might anticipate that workers would expect their union to deliver more individualised benefits.

Newton and Shore (1992) developed the Ideological and Instrumental Union Membership Framework, which is shown in Figure 2, below. The framework consists of two axes that describe two dimensions according to which union members can assess their relationships with the union: the ideological axis and the instrumental axis. The **ideological axis** ranges from *negative* (-) (alienation) to *positive* (+) (commitment). Alienation represents ideological opposition to the union, while commitment is linked with union support.

Union commitment is defined as “a desire to remain a member of the union, a willingness to put forth effort on behalf of the union, and a belief in and acceptance of the goals of the union” (Gordon *et al.*, cited in Newton and Shore, 1992: 278). According to Newton and Shore (1992), union commitment is the extent to which members identify with and internalise the goals and beliefs of the union.

Trade union commitment, as Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1982) put it, is the relative strength of individuals’ identification with and involvement in a particular union. Peat (2001) defines trade union commitment as the extent to which a trade union member has a strong desire to remain a member of the trade union, is willing to exert high level of effort on behalf of the trade union, and has a belief in and acceptance of the values and goals of the union.

Figure 2: Ideological and instrumental union membership framework



Source: Newton and Shore (1992: 278)

Peat (2001) considers trade union commitment to be both a process and a relationship, which differs from the concept of individual commitment in the three ways:

1. It is a collective commitment, a way of thinking, that develops through the individuals in the group interacting with each other and opposing groups in situation that are peculiar to workers as employees.
2. It is a commitment that has its main point of reference in the situation and objective interests of workers as a group in capitalist society, and not the subjective interests of individual workers.
3. It is fundamentally a process, a movement from wherever group commitment is, to the level of commitment appropriate to its situation.

“...instead of being self-oriented, union support is based on concern and respect for the union. Thus, members support the union not because of the tangible rewards associated with representation but because of a positive and intense orientation toward the union that is based upon a belief in the ideology and values of the union” (Gordon *et al.*, in Newton and Shore, 1992: 278). According to Newton and Shore (1992), similar to commitment, alienation is belief-based. Alienation is an internalised value system through which the union is seen as a negative presence. An individual who has a high level of alienation is likely to be opposed to collective action, believing that either individual negotiation is more appropriate, or that unions are ‘anti-business,’ and therefore not good for society (Fiorito and Maranto, 1987). Newton and Shore (1992) note that alienated members oppose the union, not because of reward system (such as, representation), but because they have an intense negative orientation towards the union, based upon a belief that unions should not be present in the workplace (1992: 278-279).

The **instrumental axis** also ranges from *negative* to *positive*. Newton and Shore (1992: 279) state that “union instrumentality represents a calculative or utilitarian relationship with unions and is based on a cognitive assessment of the costs and benefits associated with union representation.” According to this view of union attachment, “workers feel bound to their unions simply because of the rewards that the union secures for them” (Brett, 1980 cited in Newton and Shore, 1992: 279). Union instrumentality is defined by Gordon, Barling, and Tetrick (1995) as “the perceived impact of the union on traditional (e.g.,

wages, benefits) and non-traditional work conditions (e.g., job satisfaction) that define the employment relationship.” According to Deshpande and Fiorito (1989, as cited in Oikelome, 2014: 48), union instrumentality “refers to the extent to which individuals feel that a given union is able to win tangible gains on behalf of its members.”

“‘Union instrumentality’ reflects people’s evaluations of the labour movement’s ability to deliver or to give members their money’s worth for the dues they pay. This might involve the degree to which unions are able to win higher wages, better working conditions or favourable legislation...” (Oikelome, 2014: 47). “Members have a negative instrumentality perception when they believe the union presence is detrimental to their attainment of desired benefits” (Newton and Shore: 1992: 279). Thus, union instrumentality is an antecedent and a strong predictor of union commitment and union participation.

A more comprehensive elucidation of what constitutes union commitment is that proffered by Fullagar (1986): “Commitment is a crucial facet of organised labour in that it is an important variable predicting the success and effectiveness of the union to impose sanctions and consolidate its bargaining power” (Fullagar, 1986: 38). According to Kanter, 1968, as cited in Fullagar (1986: 38) there are three types of commitment:

Firstly, *continuance commitment* is the individual's commitment to participation in the organisational system and remaining a member. This ensures the organisation’s retention of its members. Secondly, *cohesion commitment* refers to the individual’s commitment to group solidarity, which makes the organisation more resistant to threats. Finally, *control commitment* is commitment to the organisational ideology, and ensures conformity to norms (Fullagar, 1986: 39-40).

According to Fullagar (1986: 41), commitment to a union is the outcome of a calculative involvement with the union and a desire for better economic and working conditions, control over benefits, self-expression, and communication with management. Fullagar (1986) also notes that the concept of union commitment consists of four major constructs:

- (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 the union (1986: 45).

Union loyalty is described by Fullagar (1986) as:

- a sense of pride in the union, together with a perception of the instrumental benefits accruing from membership;
- an exchange relationship; the union member, in exchange for the satisfaction of various needs and the provision of benefits, develops an attitude of loyalty to the union;
- correlating highly with general satisfaction with the union; individuals become attached to unions because they perceive these unions as instrumental to satisfying work-related needs;
- a desire to retain union membership; this supports definitions of organisational commitment that emphasise the wish to remain a member of an organisation (Fullagar, 1986: 45).

2.2.8 TYPOLOGY OF UNION MEMBERS

Closely related to union commitment is what Newton and Shore (2001) referred to as *typology of union members*. Newton and Shore (2001) distinguish eight union member types based on union instrumentality, union commitment, and ideological opposition, as illustrated in Figure 3, below.

2.2.8.1 Union attachment

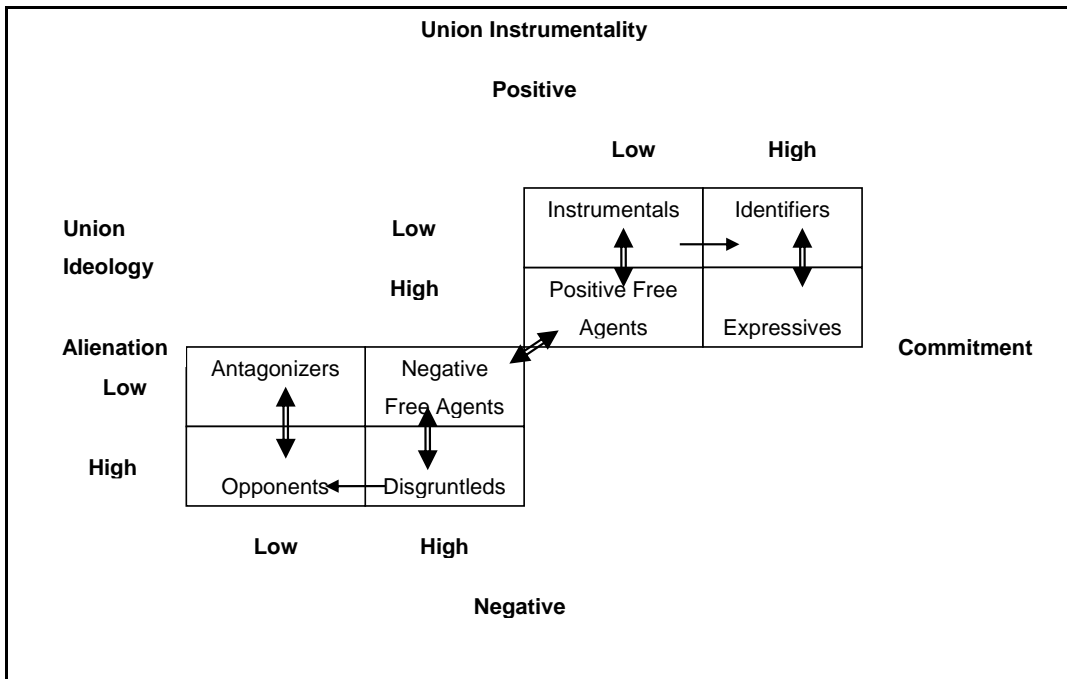
The upper right quadrant of Figure 3 depicts the typology of union membership resulting from the interaction of positive union instrumentality and union commitment. It consists of four categories of members with varying levels of instrumentality and commitment.

- *Positive free agents*

These are members with a more neutral attachment to the union, and who are either detached from or indifferent to the union. Their sense of detachment or indifference is due to their “greater identification with management than with other union members; or a strong identification with a profession as such the union is viewed as inappropriate” (Newton and Shore, 2001: 281). The category also includes new members who are still to

form definite perceptions of or attitudes towards the union. “Because new members have not yet made significant investments — in terms of dues, tenure, or effort — they would have little attachment to the union. Similarly, temporary workers prefer to remain uninvolved with the union” (Newton and Shore, 2001: 281).

Figure 3: Typology of union members



Source: Newton and Shore (1992: 281)

- *Instrumentals*

Members with high instrumentality and low commitment exhibit self-oriented support for the union. They are mostly interested in better wages and working conditions, and less interested in participating in union affairs. They are more likely to take part in union-related activities that involve little time and personal sacrifices, such as joining and maintaining their union membership and lodging a grievance (Newton and Shore, 2001: 281-282).

- *Expressives*

They personally and keenly partake in the activities of the union, and frequently attend union meetings. They have low levels of union instrumentality and high levels of union commitment. This is evident when they “maintain their attachment and support for the union during the time when union’s power to provide benefits is low, such as during a

prolonged strike and they show public and active support of the union” (Newton and Shore, 2001: 282).

- *Identifiers*

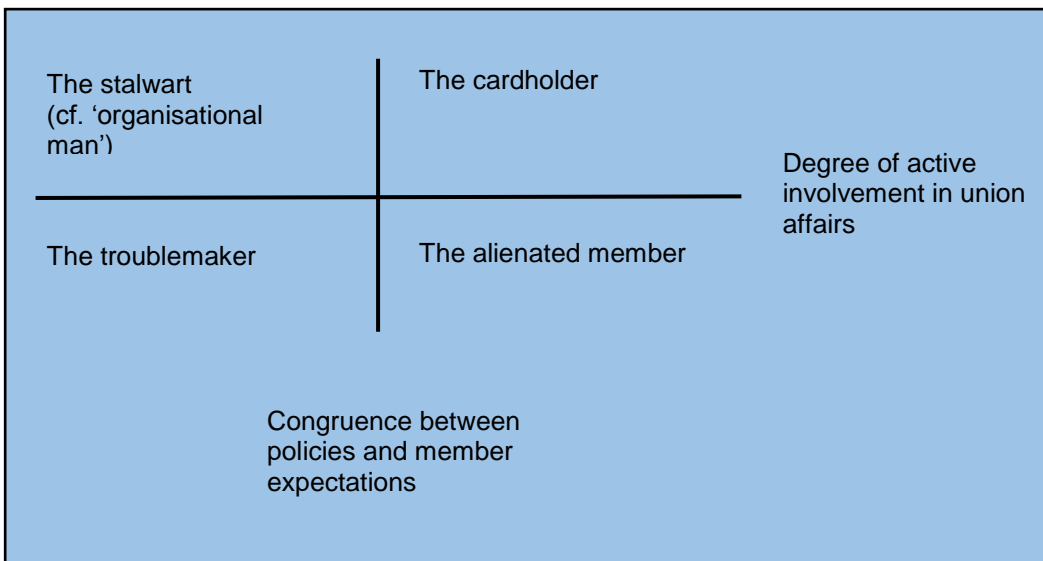
These are workers with high levels of both union commitment and union instrumentality. “Their sense of self is enmeshed in both union ideology and the value of the union in securing rewards” (Newton and Shore, 2001: 282). They are archetypal ‘union men.’ When unions experience difficulties, these members are expected to become expressives, since they are tied to the union owing to their ideological beliefs. They demonstrate public and active support of the union. They are actively involved in union activities, such as reading union newsletters and standing for elections as union officials or shop stewards (Newton and Shore, 2001: 282).

Fullagar (1986) notes that Child *et al.* (1973) suggested a more systematic schema for understanding membership attachment to labour organisations, which consists of two dimensions, namely “the extent of the member's active involvement in union affairs, and the degree of congruence between member expectations and the policies of the union.” Fullagar (1986) further notes four types of members:

- a) The *alienated member* does not identify with the union’s values nor ideology, and is typical of the closed shop member who is coerced into joining the union as part of an employment contract.
- b) The *troublemaker* is highly involved in union affairs, but his or her objectives and ideological standpoint are incongruent with the policies of the union.
- c) The *card-holder* is a member whose commitment is essentially instrumental, and “is maintained in equilibrium by a given degree of effort on the union’s part toward meeting his narrow and specific set of goals.”
- d) The *stalwart* is highly involved in union activities, and has accepted and incorporated the values of the union and unionism (1986: 43).

Figure 4 provides a schematic depiction of the above discussion.

Figure 4: Typology of membership attachment



2.2.8.2 Union opposition

Union opposition is represented in the lower left quadrant of Figure 3, and has two dimensions — alienation and negative instrumentality.

- *Negative free agents*

These are members with low levels of alienation and negative instrumentality. Like their counterparts, *free positive agents*, they are expected to have mild union opposition. They are detached from and indifferent to the union. They show passive involvement in union affairs, and are fairly neutral towards the union (Newton and Shore, 2001: 282-283).

- *Disgruntleds*

These members “have high levels of negative union instrumentality and mild ideological opposition to the union” (Newton and Shore, 2001: 283). They tend to be self-oriented in their relations with the union. “These members might include younger workers who are impatient with union’s delivery of rewards or who are disappointed when they do not receive the union benefits they expected” (Newton and Shore, 2001: 283). Included in the group are members who are dissatisfied due to bad past experiences with the union (e.g., the union’s mishandling of a grievance) that make them sceptical about the union’s competence in successfully resolving disputes in their favour (Newton and Shore, 2001: 283).

- *Opponents and antagonizers*

They are ideologically strongly opposed to their unions. *Antagonizers'* view of union's instrumentality is not as strong as that of *opponents*.

Antagonizers, whose ideological opposition is a driving force, deem union costs as outweighing the rewards of union membership (Newton and Shore, 2001).

2.2.9 UNION PARTICIPATION

Closely related to union commitment is union participation. For trade unions to function at their optimal level and fulfil their intended purpose, membership participation in union activities is vital. Brett (1980) contends that employees wanting a union does not necessarily guarantee union commitment or a willingness to participate in union activities. According to Sayles and Strauss (1952), cited in Bissonnette (1999: 9) and Zinni (2002: 22), "union participation is a behavioural construct, requiring the expenditure of time on union affairs." Tannenbaum and Kahn (1958) define union participation as "the extent to which members involve themselves in and devote energy to the operation of their union" (as cited in Zinni, 2002: 23).

According to Paquet and Bergeron (1996) union participation "occurs when a worker takes part in activities organised or offered by the union or performs union duties" (as cited in Zinni, 2002: 23). Union participation is "the extent of individual's active involvement in, and influence over both formal and informal union activities" (Barling *et al.*, 1992, as cited in Zinni, 2002: 23).

The common thread in these definitions is the willingness on the part of members to get involved in union-initiated activities. "Union participation takes various forms and includes the filing of grievance, engaging in strike-related activities, running for union office, reading union literature, attendance at meetings, or payment of union dues" (Hester, 1997: 21-22). Hester (1997) states that different typologies have been developed to better distinguish between these various forms. For example, Klandermans (1986), as cited in Hester (1997: 22) classifies union participation into four groups:

- 1) membership;

- 2) holding a position in the union or participating in union decision-making;
- 3) participation in union activities; and
- 4) participation in a strike action.

Gallagher, Parks and Wetzel (1986), as cited in Hester (1997: 22) categorise forms of participation into three main types:

- 1) administrative, such as running for office;
- 2) intermittent, such as attending meetings or voting; and
- 3) supportive, such as reading union material.

Fullagar, Barling and Christie (1991) as cited in Hester (1997: 22) suggest a typology for participation as either:

- 1) formal behaviour, such as voting for officers or filing a grievance; or
- 2) informal behaviour, such as talking about the union with friends or reading a union's newsletter.

Parks, Gallagher and Fullagar (1995), in their research, found that participation is composed of three dimensions:

- 1) administrative, where participation is opportunity-based, such as performing activities required of union officials who have been either elected or appointed;
- 2) intermittent, where participation is opportunity-based, and can be engaged in by rank-and-file members on a regular, scheduled basis; and
- 3) supportive, where union members interact with each other on a social basis.

Bissonnette (1999) succinctly captures the union participation discourse as follows:

While the majority of union members will not attend meetings or vote on union issues, the majority of members will vote to have a union in the workplace. This seemingly contradictory attitude emphasises union members' expectancy of union representation without their direct contribution beyond monetary dues. This paradox between membership and participation means that the union is not as strong as it could be. Though it is neither desirable nor practical for the whole membership to participate in certain activities (e.g. not all members can be shop stewards at once), participation is essential to support union activities... Lack of participation not only reduces the union's effectiveness it also reduces its level of democracy (1999: 8).

According to Kelloway *et al.* (1995), union participation has various dimensions, including formal activities such as attending union meetings, voting in elections, and holding union office, and informal activities such as discussing union issues with colleagues, reading union literature, and assisting with union campaigns. According to Anderson (as cited in Oikelome, 2014: 63), participation “encourages majority rule at union meetings, acts as a check on oligarchic tendencies within the union leadership and provides the means of informing union leaders about membership needs.” However, the most authoritative and comprehensive description of union participation is the one provided by Hester (1997):

Union participation is an important consequence of union commitment... While other attitudes and behaviours may also be important, it is participation that has the most direct impact on industrial relations... Union participation is a crucial variable in the effective functioning of unions ... and consists of behaviours by individuals that are deemed necessary for the union to operate in both an effective and democratic manner... When performed by the union membership as a whole, union participation is likely to improve the overall functioning of a union and have an impact on both the union’s effectiveness and its ability to represent its members... Participation is essential to a union’s health and vitality ... and is viewed as both a test of membership support and union democracy ... (Hester, 1997: 3).

According to Klandermans (1986), union members will elect to participate in union activities if the following conditions are present and satisfactorily met: the opportunity for the member to participate is known to that individual; the member possesses the ability to actively participate; and the member has a desire or willingness to participate. Barling *et al.* (1992) classify involvement in union activities into behavioural and psychological involvement. The behavioural dimension consists of actual activities engaged in by the union member, while psychological participation is an agreement between the union members’ values and expectations and the stated policies, goals, and values of the union. There are three forms of union participation, namely negative, neutral, and positive. Negative participation is alienative, neutral participation is calculative, where involvement matches inducements, and positive participation is a moral conviction, where involvement is unaffected by rewards (Srivastava, 2011: 210).

Hester (1997) notes that several different models of union participation have been developed, which include:

- 1) Work dissatisfaction models — where employee participation in union activities is a reaction to dissatisfaction with a work situation;
- 2) Economic models — which view pay as a possible source of employee discontent and utilise other economic variables to enhance predictive power;
- 3) Socialization models — which examine climates both internal and external to the work situation that may impact an employee’s participation decision; and
- 4) Structural models — which emphasis that the structure of both the company and the union may impact the ability of union members to participate (Hester, 1997: 20-21).

Jódar, Vidal, and Alòs (2008: 8) developed a scale demonstrating the gradation of activities (see Figure 5, below), which indicates member activism. These activities exclude those relating to responsibilities within the union.

Figure 5: Classification of union activities according to level of involvement

High ----- (level of involvement) ----- Low					
Union representative/ official	Attend union meetings outside the workplace	Take part in industrial action	Attend meetings inside the workplace convened by the union branch	Attend meetings inside the workplace convened by the works council	Not take part

Source: Jódar *et al.* (2008: 8)

Jódar *et al.* (2008: 8) state that “the hypothetical categorisation assumes that becoming a union representative or official implies a greater degree of union involvement on the part of the member, likewise the attending of meetings outside of the workplace.” The authors note that cognisance should be taken of external factors that may influence involvement. For example, in instances of management hostility, there may be a greater predisposition to attend meetings outside the workplace, as these represent less risk, compared to those held on the organisation’s premises.

Madsen (1996, as cited in Jódar *et al.*, 2008: 8-9), in an analysis of union involvement, considers two types of orientation: *collectivists*, members who tend to be present at all

union activities, and *individualists*, those who attend meetings in the workplace, as these are likely to be about improvements in work conditions.

It is apparent from the discussion above that union participation is the lifeblood of unions and is critical to their survival. Accordingly, Hester (1997) opines that:

Because the survival of organisations depends upon how well the members fulfil their expected roles..., this same emphasis would apply to unions as well. From an organisational perspective, the survival and strength inherent in the union is linked to the motivations, abilities, and the possibilities for individual union members to actively engage in participatory acts and to fulfil these expected roles... As such, participation in union activities is as important to a union's success as the worker productivity is to their employer's success (1997: 3-4).

Hester (1997: 1) postulates that one of the major issues facing trade unions is the perceived apathy of union membership toward their unions and union-related activities. Consequently, unions are called upon to find ways increase the commitment and participation of their membership in order to counteract the apathy and decline. In advancing the discourse of membership apathy, Edwards (2004) argues that the problem associated with membership non-participation, also referred to in literature as *membership apathy*, is not a new one, either for trade unions or academic reflection; many authors have point out that mass non-participation in union affairs is indeed the norm for trade unions. Edwards (2004) states that the question of how to get both women and young members active within unions is a shared concern for the future of British trade unionism. This is highlighted in a Unions 21 discussion document, which states that:

The image that a youthful workforce has of unions needs to be questioned: the television shows mainly old men, younger people and women need a higher profile. The importance of encouraging women and young workers to become active in unions is massive, as within the next ten years it is estimated that almost half of current trade union officials will be of retirement age (Edwards, 2004: 8).

In an endeavour to elucidate the problem besetting trade union with reference to participation, Edwards (2004) highlights some theories of union participation that cover issues of non-participation relating to the disinterested member, the rational strategic member, the disaffected member, and the disconnected member.

- *The disinterested member*

Individualisation thesis suggests that union members today are private consumers of the services offered to them by a union, and that the idea of an active trade union member is therefore something of an anachronism (Edwards, 2004: 9). According to this theory, unions should accept members as passive consumers and concentrate on the services they offer if they are to retain them. Williams (1997) states:

The shift towards a more explicit individualised representational and servicing function, making unions more like organisations that have ‘consumers’ rather than active members, has been encouraged by some writers (Williams, 1997, as cited in Edwards, 2004: 9).

In terms of rational choice theory, an individual’s choice to join a trade union is based on the following:

- The propensity to join a union will vary, depending on the usefulness of the union;
- Joining a union depends on a rational cost–benefit calculation;
- Employers’ opposition increases the likelihood that the costs of joining a union will outweigh the benefits; and
- Individuals evaluate a particular course of action solely in terms of its costs and benefits.

Hanley (2000: 2) submits that “union members are consumers of the services that their union provides and hence, can be regarded as a union’s ‘customers,’ somewhat analogous to the relationship between a supplier and consumer of a given product.” Thus, there is a need for unions to treat their members as consumers of their services (Hanley, 2000). The idea of union members as consumers of services provided by unions is best explained by consumer choice theory, which, according to Levin and Milgrom (2004), postulates that a consumer’s propensity to purchase is based upon that consumer’s rational choice. According to Browning *et al.* (2000), “the consumer choice theory has been applied to collective action in order to understand actions of individuals in groups like trade unions and that collective action is sustainable only through the labour union’s selective incentives” (as cited in Mwale, 2014: 13). Thus, in order to sustain membership, trade unions should ensure that they negotiate better wages and conditions of

employment. The benefits that the workers accrue as a result of the union's negotiating power will attract new members (Browning *et al.*, 2000, as cited Mwale, 2014: 13).

According to Browning *et al.* (2000: 133), "union membership is a rational choice for individuals if a 'closed shop' can be enforced, if pay rises are restricted to union members, or if unions can offer advantageous insurance or legal advice to their members" (as cited in Mwale, 2014: 14). Farber and Western (2003) (as cited in Bryson, 2003: 5) state that, "within a consumer choice theory of union joining behaviour, higher union effectiveness implies higher returns to membership net of costs." In this regard, Bryson (2003) states that a union is not effective unless it is able to deliver to members tangible benefits in terms of better wages, better work and working conditions, and other fringe benefits. Mwale (2014) says it is only logical that union members will remain loyal and committed as long as the union fulfils its mandate effectively. "The members in this regard 'pay' for their membership through monthly subscriptions and hence, they expect to benefit through effective representation" (Mwale, 2014: 14).

Edwards (2004) opines that some of the ideas relating to the process of individualisation can be used to account for the lesser likelihood of younger generations getting involved in trade unions. "Socialised into individualised modes of thinking about work and society, young people lack the collective ethics of a generation before" (Edwards, 2004: 10). However, Edwards (2004: 10) says, the main problem with this theory is that it cannot establish whether more individualised attitudes towards work and work struggles are the result of a social process of individualisation, or just the cumulative effects of economic restructuring and changes in the nature of labour relations, giving younger generations a qualitatively different experience of unionism. According to Edwards (2004), a more convincing argument is the one proffered by Williams (1997), that the political and economic changes since 1979, rather than a cultural shift in concerns, have forced a 'decollectivised' approach to trade unionism on the part of members and union leaders. In this regard, Williams, as cited in Edwards (2004: 10), notes that:

It is important to emphasise that the extensive decollectivisation (and not the individualisation) of employment relations have brought about a situation in which unions have been compelled to focus on some of their more overtly 'individualistic' functions (Williams, 1997: 510).

Edwards (2004: 10) contends that it is perhaps the impact of these kinds of changes that create tensions between younger generations and trade union activism. “Treated like consumers by unions striving to survive political and socio-economic changes, and lacking collective experiences like 1968 that act to cement a ‘political generation’ (Parkin 1968: 140-145), it is perhaps no wonder that younger cohorts of workers are, in general, less attuned to calls for union activism” (Edwards, 2004: 10-11).

- *The rational, strategic member*

According to Edwards (2004: 12), Hirschman (1982) argues that participation in private or public life occurs in waves. Driven by disappointments in private pursuits (such as consumerism), people enter into public action (such as participation in their trade union). Then, the disappointments they experience with public life motivate people to turn back to the concerns of their private lives. There are a number of reasons why participation in trade unions is particularly likely to produce the kinds of disappointments with public action to which Hirschman refers. Many studies stress the demanding nature of union activism in terms of levels of commitment, workload, and the emotional labour it demands of its participants (Edwards, 2004: 12). Trade unions, according to Edwards (2004), are regarded by Franzway (2000) as ‘greedy institutions.’ Needleman (1993) characterises the ‘committed union official’ as:

...a workaholic, eighteen-hour-a-day activist who always puts the union first ... paradoxically few unions have adopted the kind of flexible work arrangements they advocate at the bargaining table... Theirs is not an eight-hour job; the fight for justice is full-time (Edwards, 2004: 12).

The amount of time involved in occupying an official position within a union, together with the associated risk of ‘over-commitment’ associated with it, means that such work is fraught with disappointments. These are not just the vast amounts of time required and the demanding workload, but also the realisation that public life is littered with all the deceptions, manipulations, and annoyances of private relationships and activists who have had to negotiate factional conflicts within the union (Edwards, 2004: 12). Edwards (2004: 13) notes:

...where the member has an ideological commitment to union participation, the disappointments associated with union work may be a factor in 'shifting involvements' elsewhere and driving them to concentrate more on the personal pursuits of their private lives.

- *The disaffected member*

Edwards (2004) notes that the idea of an individual consumer of union services also gives resurgence to theories of participation, which concentrate on the union member as a strategic, rational actor. In this regard, Edwards (2004: 11) notes:

The 'rational' member has an overtly instrumental orientation to the union and decides whether or not to participate through a calculated process of reasoning. This involves weighing up the personal costs and benefits of involvement, such as paying subscriptions in return for free legal advice, help with work problems or financial services".

Consequently, "the 'rational actor' may use a similar cost/benefit calculation to decide upon their level of participation within the union once they become a member," notes Edwards (2004: 11). Edwards (2004: 11) states that Olson (1965) argued that "this poses a considerable problem for 'collective action' in organisations like trade unions, where a great deal of time and effort is expended for gains that every member ultimately enjoys." Thus, in an effort to dissuade 'free riding' and encourage participation, members have to be coaxed into participation through special incentives enjoyed only by those who are active, such as service rewards and special insurance schemes (Edwards, 2004).

- *The disconnected' member*

Edwards (2004) emphasises the importance of networks of recruitment and personal relationships in raising membership participation, with networks treated as resources for participation. According to Edwards (2004), people participate because somebody has asked them to participate. Edwards (2004: 14) says that some studies (such as the one undertaken by Cobble in 1990) suggest that women are more likely to participate where they have contact with existing networks of women activists; the same could be true for young people.

It is evident from the literature that the challenge regarding union participation is as old as unionism, and has always been central to the sustainability of trade unions. Some of the documented ramifications of non-participation of union members in union-initiated activities were captured in an address by the General Secretary of the British National Union of Teachers (NUT) as far back as 1955, who described the effects of apathy on the functioning and operations of trade unions as follows:

First, members are cut off from their representatives and do not know what is being done on their behalf. Secondly, inactive members have no part in influencing, guiding or controlling the policy of the union. The machinery of the union is thoroughly democratic. It enables every member to express opinions and to influence policy. But if members do not attend meetings, discussions and the resolutions which emerge are not truly representative. Thirdly, lethargy in the membership results in officials and representatives being chosen from only a part of the membership (as quoted in Edwards, 2004: 3).

Edwards's (2004) view converges with the earlier view of Fullagar, Gallagher, Gordon, and Clark (1995: 148), who note that union participation has "an impact on union democracy because it increases members' involvement in, and influence on, decision making, implementation of policies and selection of leadership." According to Paquet and Bergeron (1995), as cited in Zinni (2002: 2) poor participation levels are detrimental to the democratic nature of unionism.

From the above deliberation, the conclusion may be drawn that union participation is the lifeblood of trade unions.

2.2.10 UNION EFFECTIVENESS

Clark (2013) asserts that the term *union effectiveness* is significantly more difficult to define, as it is a highly complex and dynamic concept. Bryson (2003) laments the fact that little research on union effectiveness has been undertaken, noting that, what makes union effective in the eyes of employee has not been extensively researched (Bryson, 2003). Bryson (2003) further states that this lack of interest in labour union effectiveness is surprising, given dwindling union membership. Thus, unions need to identify practical methods to improve the perception of employees regarding union effectiveness as one way of recruiting and retaining members (Bryson, 2003). The view of the paucity of

research on union effectiveness is shared by Frege (2002: 53), who say that, in industrial relations, conceptual and empirical analyses of union effectiveness are surprisingly underdeveloped, and that, if union effectiveness is assessed at all, it is usually by examining two quantitative indicators: union density and wage levels. This one-sided evaluation, Frege (2002) notes, overlooks other equally important trade union effectiveness indicators, like members' participation, and the union's ability to bargain and manage crises (Hammer and Wazeter, 1993, as cited in Frege, 2002).

Union effectiveness can be defined and measured in various ways. Traditional measures are union density and wage-bargaining outcomes, but these tell us little about the strength of a union, asserts Frege (2002: 58). According to Frege (2002), goal achievement has been introduced as the criterion for union effectiveness. A union's goals comprise: bargaining, organising, politics, self-help, member solidarity, resource acquisition, membership participation, organisational preparation for bargaining and crisis management, inculcating a union mentality, and effective leadership (Frege, 2002: 58). Yet, Frege (2002) says, defining effectiveness in terms of goal achievement is problematic, in that some goals might be difficult to operationalise (for instance, political goals), and members might also view unions differently.

Attempts have been made by many a scholar to define and describe the concept *union effectiveness*. Below are some of the definitions and descriptions in the literature.

Gordon, Barling, and Tetrick (1995) define union effectiveness as "the perceived impact of unions on traditional (e.g., wages, benefits) and non-traditional (e.g., job involvement) work conditions that define the employment relationship."

Kochan (1979) conceptualised union effectiveness as the belief that unions are able to improve wages, benefits, working conditions, fairness, etc. through collective bargaining and contract administration activities. Members would therefore have a negative perception when they believe the union's presence is detrimental to the attainment of desired benefits.

Chacko (1985) describes union effectiveness as a union's ability to obtain extrinsic and intrinsic benefits for its members, and the union's responsiveness to its members.

Newton and Shore (1992) describe union effectiveness as reflected in members' assessment of the costs and benefits associated with union representation, whether the presence of the union is viewed by the members as improving or lessening their benefits. Frege (2002: 60) relies on Visser's (1995: 53) classification of three potential alternative resources as determinants of union effectiveness, namely economic resources (use of favourable market forces), institutional resources (external sources of support, such as employer associations, public institutions, and other unions), and organisational resources (mobilisation of internal resources).

Burchielli (2004) developed the Union Effectiveness Model, which analyses union effectiveness in terms of three dimensions:

- *Representation*, which encompasses, *inter alia*, meeting members' needs, signing up new members, and realising the main goals;
- *Administration*, which involves, amongst others, union structure and strategies, creativity and innovation, leadership accountability; and
- *Ideology*, which includes social values, compliance, union commitment and active membership participation, and the politicised union environment.

Union effectiveness was divided by Bryson (2003) into two categories. The first is organisational effectiveness, which is used to ascertain the effectiveness of the union in representing its members. The second dimension is the union's ability to deliver improved work and working conditions (Bryson, 2003: 5).

2.2.10.1 Union organisational effectiveness

A union's organisational effectiveness encompasses the factors "which give the union the mandate or ability to represent its members by virtue of its healthy state as an organisation" (Bryson, 2003: 5). It comprises the following seven dimensions:

- the ability to communicate and share information;
- usefulness as a source of information and advice;

- openness and accountability to members;
- responsiveness to members' problems and complaints;
- management taking the union seriously;
- an understanding of the employer's business; and
- the power of the union (Bryson, 2003: 5-6).

2.2.10.2 Union's ability to improve work and working conditions

Bryson (2003) posits that a union's ability to improve work and working conditions can be broken down into the following seven dimensions:

- securing pay increases for members;
- offering protection against unfair treatment;
- promoting equal opportunities;
- making work interesting and enjoyable;
- working with management to improve performance;
- increasing managerial responsiveness to employees; and
- making the workplace a better place to work (Bryson, 2003: 6).

Bryson (2003) states that, "together these two types of effectiveness signal a union that is effective in representing its membership" (Bryson, 2003: 5). Bryson's (2003) view is supported by Singh and Chawla (2014), who say that the effectiveness of a trade union depends, to a large extent, on the degree of participation it generates among its present and potential members. In this regard, Bryson (2003) postulates that:

If the union is perceived as 'effective,' employees are more likely to think they have something tangible to gain from membership, either in terms of better wages, better non-pecuniary terms of employment, or better insurance against arbitrary employer actions. Thus an increase in union effectiveness will increase the individual's propensity to purchase membership (or remain a member) by shifting the individual's perceptions of the benefits relative to the costs (2003: 5).

Bryson (2003: 6) further notes that "difficulties in assessing changes in union effectiveness in delivering for employees arise because so many of the benefits which unionisation confers — such as procedural justice and the establishment of family-friendly policies —

are not easily measured.” Bryson (2003) also posits that unions have been slow to point out these successes, so that these gains have yet to translate into perceived benefits arising from effective union action. There are two measures of the benefits of union membership over time that do help gauge how effective a union has been in improving terms and conditions for employees. The first is the union’s membership wage premium – the degree in which union wages exceed non-union member wages. This arises because unions bargain on members’ behalf for wages that are above the market rate. The second measure is employees’ evaluation of how well the union is doing its job (Bryson, 2003: 7).

Union effectiveness is essential to the continued relevance of a union, and could be determined by the union’s ability to organise new members, the outcomes of its collective bargaining efforts, and the union’s effect on society as a whole. Kochan (1979), is of the opinion that economic issues (such as wages and benefits) according to which members judge union effectiveness may have given way to different expectations, as a result of the dynamics in the employment environment. Unions will therefore need to move from being the ‘old’ or ‘traditional’ bargaining institutions that mostly focus on economic gains, to becoming specialised in articulating the new interests and expectations of labour, thereby ensuring improvements in employee welfare.

2.2.11 THE IMPACT OF THE CLOSED SHOP ON UNIONISM

Closed shop is a generic term meaning “any employment situation in which particular jobs can only be filled, in practice, if the worker is willing to become and remain a member of a specified union or one of a number of specified trade unions” (Stevens, Millward and Smart, 1989: 616). According to Finnemore (2013: 117), “a closed shop is the outcome of an agreement between a union and an employer whereby only union members can be employed in an organisation.” The main argument in favour of a closed shop is that it solves the problem of free riders, where some workers do not pay membership fees because they are not union members, but benefit from unions’ efforts. On the other hand, the main argument against a close shop is that it infringes on individuals’ right to freedom

of association¹. Except for closed-shop unions, where membership is a condition of employment, both labour and commercial organisations depend on voluntary membership.

Fullagar (1986: 35) avers that unions are concerned as about their performance, turnover, and effectiveness, which are associated with organisational commitment. The concept of a “closed shop is the classic perennial and controversial issue in industrial relations” (Zappala, 1991). In an attempt to clarify understanding of what a closed shop entails, Zappala (1991) lists four major closed-shop hypotheses regarding factors that could have an impact on unions. These are discussed below.

- **Hypothesis 1: Closed shops reduce union militancy**

Zappala (1991) says there are four ways in which a closed shop may reduce union militancy. Firstly, if employees are forced to become union members, those members who are apathetic, who are, in most cases, the majority, will tend to dilute the influence of the few militant ones, thereby reducing the strength of the union. This argument is predicated upon “the assumption that a union's strength lies not in numbers, but in the proportion of strongly committed members” (Zappala, 1991: 4).

The second consideration is that, with compulsory union membership, centrally organised unions are inclined to be less militant. “Given that the influence of unions on policy matters within the central organisations tends to depend on their size, and traditionally non-militant unions gain relatively more members through closed shops than do militant unions, then it may be expected that compulsory unionism also leads to less militant central union bodies” (Zappala, 1991: 4).

The third consideration is that a closed shop encourages so-called ‘responsible unionism,’ in that a closed shop allows union organisers to take a long-term view of industrial relations, in an endeavour to ensure organisational survival. This they do by not engaging

¹ A differentiation is made between positive and negative freedom of association. Positive freedom of association relates to the freedom to form and enter into an association. The converse, negative freedom of association, implies that no one can be compelled to form or join an association – individual workers have the right to refuse to join trade unions.

in frequent “industrial action in order to demonstrate their effectiveness to potential members” (Zappala, 1991: 4).

A fourth aspect is that employers often embrace a closed shop in order to conclude collective agreements with less militant unions, thereby excluding more militant rivals. “This was one of the reasons why it was thought management came to 'love the closed shop' in the late 1960s and 1970s” (Zappala, 1991: 4).

- **Hypothesis 2: Closed shops lead to poorer services to union members**

According to Zappala (1991), “this is perhaps one of the more popular propositions regarding the impact of the closed shop on unions. It may also be important for unions themselves to consider, as many unions are looking to becoming more service conscious as a way of stemming membership decline” (Zappala, 1991: 6). Zappala (1991: 6) further states that “the argument is essentially that the threat of union members withdrawing their membership (i.e. the exit vote) is a necessary condition to ensure unions adequately service their membership.” With close shops, unions have a secure and guaranteed membership, and consequently, union officials may lose focus, turning their attention to other goals that may not be in the immediate interests of the rank and file. “The ability of an employee to either willingly join or leave a union thus provides an incentive for the union to 'earn' that member through the provision of services that they may not otherwise receive” (Zappala, 1991: 6). Zappala (1991: 6) adds that “the caveat here is that compulsory unionism may lead to increased financial resources for a union, hence enabling it to provide better services.”

- **Hypothesis 3: Closed shops increase union bargaining power**

Hypothesis 3 is related to Hypothesis 4 apropos membership. Its conjecture is that bargaining power depends on a union's ability to successfully employ collective action against an employer. A closed shop “ensures that union membership will be at a sufficiently critical mass to make collective action effective and by providing a 'discipline function' over the membership” (Zappala, 1991: 7). The rationale of a closed shop is that, if collective action is to succeed, all employees must be union members. Thus, “the threat of exclusion from the union for recalcitrant members, and hence loss of certain privileges and even their job, is seen to strengthen the unions position in taking strike action”

(Zappala, 1991: 7). Unlike Hypothesis 1, this hypothesis regards membership numbers as a significant determinant of union strength, coupled with the ability to summon a great number of member when needed (Zappala, 1991: 7).

- **Hypothesis 4: A closed shops leads to increased union membership**

According to Zappala (1991), compulsory membership increases the ranks of the unionists. This increase is deemed valuable, in that increased membership strengthens the union and offers financial security. This assumption is a departure from Hypothesis 1 (Zappala, 1991: 9).

2.2.12 WHY JOIN A UNION?

Unions do not function in a vacuum, but operate within particular environmental dynamics that have a bearing on union activities. Gani (1996) contends that the quintessence of trade unionism is an individual's decision to join the union. Thomas (1988) opines that there has been much discussion on why people join unions. Brett (cited in Thomas, 1988: 6) found that there are usually two criteria that must be satisfied before people join a union. First, the workers must be dissatisfied with various aspects of their work and feel that they cannot remedy the problems. Second, they must accept the union and feel that the union would be able to ameliorating these problems. "Therefore, the key to unionisation could be dissatisfactions in the work situation, a positive perception of unions, and an individual belief that unions could correct the stressful situation" (Thomas, 1988). Rasmussen (2009) states that, "at the outset, a union is the creation of its individual members. Thus, a useful way of understanding trade unions is to ask why individuals join them" (Rasmussen, 2009: 324). According to Rasmussen (2009: 324), "...the motivation to join (or not to join) a trade union is closely linked to the reasons that people work in the first place, and the extent to which they feel able to satisfy their work goals independently rather than through co-operative action with others."

Trade union members generally have to pay a monthly membership fee to maintain their membership status and be a member in good standing. Komsa (2010) notes the existence of a reciprocal relationship between unions and members, in that concomitant to the union membership fees, unions are able to offer service to their members, such as assistance

with representation in disciplinary and/or grievance inquiries. These services are deemed inducements for workers requiring employment security to join the union. This view is supported by Nel and Holtzhausen (2008), who state that a trade union's primary objective is the protection and promotion of workers' interests. The authors state that "workers' reaction to the trade union membership will be related to their belief that membership will decrease their frustrations and anxiety, improve their opportunities and lead to the achievement of better standard of living" (Nel and Holtzhausen, 2008: 49). This view is confirmed by Ebbinghaus, Göbel, and Koos (2011: 108), who explain trade union membership according to various theoretical frameworks.

Firstly, **economic theory** advances the rational choice explanation that assumes that individuals are utility maximisers, and that their decision to retain trade union membership depends on whether the benefits of membership exceed the opportunity cost of membership (Olson, 1965, as cited in Ebbinghaus *et al.*, 2011). Secondly, a *sociological perspective* is that individuals join trade unions based on instrumental rational motives: to pursue their personal interests, obtain a reputation, and get access to desired goods. Value rationality refers to members seeking solidarity and the identity-forming function of union membership, coupled with ideological convictions. The affectual reason for maintaining membership is an emotional association with the unionised community; and traditional motives are that one's parents were union members, or there is a tradition of unionisation at the workplace. This concept of social capital is based on the principle of trust, and provides a structural element of involvement in networks and associations (Ebbinghaus *et al.*, 2011: 109).

According to Visser (2002: 406), the decision-making process of whether to join a trade union does not take place in a social vacuum. The unionisation process is affected and influenced by significant actors, such as family, friends, colleagues, management, and union representatives. Thus, social pressure can be a catalyst to unionisation. This view is supported by Griffing and Svensen (1996: 2), who say that "political orientation, salary, workplace characteristics and approval of significant others in respect to union membership were also associated with union satisfaction." Griffin and Svensen (1996: 2) note that "earlier models of unionisation were constructed on the assumption that unionisation decisions were driven mainly by macroeconomic and macropolitical

environments.” According to Griffin and Svensen (1996), these models were largely refuted on the basis that they generally have poor predictive validity. To support this assertion, Griffin and Svensen (1996) cite a Dutch study undertaken by van Rij and Daalder (1997), which found that macro-determinants are relatively unimportant in unionisation decisions, compared to micro-level attitudinal and social considerations.

Komsi (2010) posits that there are numerous reasons for joining trade unions, with pecuniary reasons and other benefits offered by unions to its members being the most important. Union membership can also be thought of as an insurance against insecurity, as unions are deemed to bring security to the workplace. Social and political motives are also considered important. Further, unionisation is considered to help the disadvantaged. In this regard, Vaid, 1965 (as cited in Mythily, 2014: 16) opines that workers have a variety of needs. Workers desire to earn wages that are equitable and adequate to maintain themselves and their families; they want work policies that protect employees against arbitrary decisions and provide congenial working conditions; and they want to be heard and respected by management (Vaid, 1965 as cited in Mythily, 2014: 16). Accordingly, Vaid asserts that:

Amongst the several social institutions that function in a workers' environment, the trade union is best suited to encompass all or most of their needs. It is the only social institution that provides within itself the mechanism whereby workers can secure the "respect of other people, creature comforts and economic security, independence and control over their own affairs and understanding of the forces at work in the world, and integrity." If a worker believes that the union can help him in these ways, he is likely to join it. Confronted with a choice, he will join the union that will give him most of what he wants (Vaid, 1965: 209 as cited in Mythily, 2014: 15).

According to Komsi (2010), there are three motives for employees joining a trade union. These are: "to better know workers' rights, the belief in collective action and promoting the interest of oneself and co-workers" (Komsi, 2010: 7). Griffing and Svensen (1996: 4), citing a number of studies, say that union attitudes are influenced by socialisation, particularly the influence of familial attitudes. According to Griffing and Svensen (1996: 4), the first major manifestation of union participation is the decision to become a member. Griffing and Svensen (1996: 2) state that previous research indicates that there are three reasons why workers join unions. These are:

1. instrumental (also referred to as *egocentric*) — employees join because they believe they will benefit personally;
2. ideological (also referred to as sociocentric) perceptions — employees join for reasons related to their social and political beliefs and collective interests; and
3. normative influences (also known to as social control), such as the existence of a closed shop or other interpersonal pressures to join — employees join due to pressure from the social groups to which they belong (Griffing and Svensen, 1996: 4), such family, friends, co-workers, and the media.

Ideological and normative motives represent a collective alignment, while the instrumental motive is related to the individual (Waddington and Whitston, 1997). Griffing and Svensen (1996) say several recent studies were based on the more theoretically and empirically defensible, as well as intuitively appealing, hypothesis of two underlying commitment dimensions:

- instrumentality, which is a cognitive appraisal of the costs and benefits of union membership (sometimes called *calculative* or *utilitarian* behaviour); and
- *ideology*, which tends to be collective in nature, and is chiefly an affective construct that indicates the degree to which a member shares the values of and feels part of a union or the union movement in general (Griffing and Svensen, 1996: 4).

Visser (2002: 406) contends that the two reasons why unions fail to attract members are: “they do not succeed to offer the goods and services that workers need or they fail to maintain the norm or social customs that ensure sufficient level of membership.” Griffing and Svensen (1996: 3) note that Australian unions have failed to recruit sufficient new entrants into the movement and to stem the flow of those leaving. In an attempt to explain these phenomena, they observe that:

Recent changes in Australian industrial relations legislation, including the federal *Workplace Relations Act* of 1996, have criminalised compulsory unionism, placing unions under greater pressure to meet the expectations of members if they are to reverse the downward membership spiral (Griffing and Svensen, 1996: 3).

They pose the question: “But what are those expectations?” Do members merely want better services for their money, or should unions be concentrating on mobilising member participation and build a sense of solidarity? They conclude: “Unions of course should do both, but it would be useful for them to know the relative efficacy of each approach” (Griffing and Svensen, 1996: 3).

Trade unions are, by their very nature, membership-based organisations, and should therefore be preoccupied with the welfare of their members. However, in order to remain relevant and representative, they should not only be concerned about retaining existing members, but also with attracting new ones. Srivastava (2011: 209) says that “attracting and maintaining union membership, along with member involvement, is key to the viability of unions in the future.” New members entering labour organisations bring with them different goals and needs, which they seek to satisfy through trade union membership. As with organisational commitment, initial levels of member commitment may be associated with worker’s perceptions of the congruence between their own goals and those of the union, and the extent to which they perceive the union as being instrumental to the attainment of those goals (Fullagar, 1986: 91).

Snape and Redman (2004) advocate what they term a *covenantal relationship* between trade unions and their members, where union members are intrinsically motivated to help both the union and their fellow employees, which grants the union great freedom in drawing up bargaining agendas directed at employees at large, rather than just their members. This type of relationship differs from the economic exchange relationship in which members are self-interested and trade unions are only service providers (Bamberger, Kluger, and Suchard, 1999).

According to Olson (cited in Komsis, 2010: 9), the two ways by which trade unions can continue to exist are because, “either they have negotiated a closed shop arrangement, meaning that union membership is compulsory, or the union is able to offer some private benefits to its members that induce them to remain in the trade union.”

2.2.12.1 Reasons for union joining

From a conspectus of the literature, it seems that employees join unions for a number of reasons. Haberfeld (1995: 656) says, “one of the key questions in the study of labor unions is why workers join them.” According to Haberfeld (1995), the question why workers join unions has long been a key theoretical and empirical question in the study of American and European industrial relations. According to Haberfeld (1995), the variety of theoretical considerations can be grouped into six categories:

- i. The first, and one of the most prevalent explanations, is the relationship between job dissatisfaction and the decision to join a union. According to this explanation, unions provide workers with a collective voice in communicating with employers to address sources of dissatisfaction.
- ii. The second is a work-related utility consideration. For example, it is suggested that workers join unions in order to obtain job security and better employment conditions. This consideration, whether based on an economic utility model (mainly the expectation of higher wages), or a more general psychological model of instrumentalities, explains the decision to join a union — workers expect that joining a union will bring them greater utility.
- iii. The third consideration can be viewed as a special case within the utility framework. Workers expect union membership to increase their non-work utility. Many unions provide their members with benefits that are not work-related, such as health- and life insurance, credit cards, and legal aid, all at below-market rates. Workers may decide to join such unions because they find these commodities and services attractive.
- iv. The fourth consideration focuses on workers’ political ideology. Workers join unions as a result of their political beliefs. In many countries, labour unions are affiliated with political parties.
- v. The fifth consideration concerns the value workers place on collective action, an outlook that is assumed to be shaped by the socialisation process. Those who believe

in workers' solidarity join unions because they perceive trade unions as an effective instrument for collective action.

- vi. The sixth consideration highlights the role of work-related and individual variables in the decision to join a union. Among the variables are gender, race, education, age, and certain work-related characteristics, such as unit size and industry. It is clear that some of these factors could be integrated with explanations described above. For example, race might serve as a proxy for the need for a collective voice in a hostile or discriminatory work environment (Haberfeld, 1995: 657-658).

In their endeavour to understand workers' motivation for joining unions, Schuler and Youngblood (1986) developed a model that contains three separate conditions that strongly influence an employee's decision to join a union, namely dissatisfaction, lack of power, and union instrumentality. These are discussed below.

- **Dissatisfaction**

Schuler and Youngblood (1986) state that management's behaviour plays an important role in employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Employees' work dissatisfaction is a result of: management's holding unrealistic expectations that cannot be fulfilled by designing jobs that fail to utilise the skills and knowledge of the employees, and fail to satisfy their interests and preferences; discriminative and unfair management practices; and management failing to tell employees that it would prefer to operate without unions, and that it is committed to treating employees fairly and with respect. In this regard, the authors state:

When an individual takes a job, certain conditions of employment (wages, hours, and type of work) are specified in the employment contract. A psychological contract also exists between employer and employee, consisting of the unspecified expectations of the employee about reasonable working conditions, requirements of the work itself, the level of effort that should be expended on the job, and the nature of the authority the employer should have in directing the employee's work. These expectations are related to the employee's desire to satisfy certain personal preferences in the work place. The degree to which the organization fulfils these preferences determines the employee's level of satisfaction (Schuler and Youngblood, 1986: 550).

- **Lack of power**

In the event of an employee being unhappy or dissatisfied with the work situation, attempts to resolve and improve the work situation will be made by the individual employee acting alone. “The degree of success of this individual attempt depends on two features of a job, that is, essentiality — how important or critical the job is to the overall success of the organisation — and exclusivity — how difficult it is to replace the person” (Schuler and Youngblood, 1986: 550).

The authors further note that these two features of a job determine the degree of power the jobholder yields in the organisation (Schuler and Youngblood, 1986). A greater degree of essentiality and exclusivity is tantamount to greater bargaining leverage, which can be used to coerce the employer to change or improve the situation. Low job essentiality and exclusivity will cause the individual attempt to fail (Schuler and Youngblood, 1986). In most instances, the majority of workers are left with no choice but to join trade unions, given their low job essentiality and exclusivity (Schuler and Youngblood, 1986).

- **Union instrumentality**

Schuler and Youngblood (1986) explain union instrumentality as follows:

Just as employees can be dissatisfied with many aspects of a work environment, such as pay, promotion opportunity, treatment by supervisor, the job itself, and work rules, employees can also perceive a union as instrument in removing these causes of dissatisfaction. The more that employees believe that a union can obtain positive work aspects, the more instrumental the union is for the employees. The employees then weigh the value of the benefits to be obtained through unionisation against its costs, for example, the lengthy organizing campaign and the bad feelings. Among supervisors, managers, and other employees who may not want a union when the benefits exceed the costs and union instrumentality is high, employees will be more willing to support a union (Schuler and Youngblood, 1986: 551).

According to Frangi and Barisione (2015), there are two mechanisms or ‘propellers’ that have contributed greatly to explanations for individuals joining, leaving, or never joining unions: instrumental and ideational rationales.

- *Instrumental propeller*

The instrumental propeller functions on a calculative basis, whether economic or social in nature. Frangi and Barisione (2015: 454) state that the union-joining decision is based on individual utility-maximizing decisions. Based on the goods provided by unions, individuals evaluate whether the utility likely to be derived from joining a union would be higher than that of not joining. They note that, since the beginning, unions have typically provided employment benefits to employees, such as better working conditions, higher wages, and protection, essentially through collective bargaining (Frangi and Barisione, 2015: 454).

They further observe that the ability of unions to provide employment benefits has been under pressure since the first effects of globalization were felt in the 1980s, which led to a substantial downturn in membership. However, unions also providing non-employment benefit encourages potential members to join unions, thereby limiting a decline in membership (Frangi and Barisione, 2015: 454). “Therefore, the instrumental propeller achieves higher strength when it is combined with a rational evaluation of the social cost of joining unions” (Frangi and Barisione, 2015: 454).

- *Ideational propeller*

According to Frangi and Barisione (2015), the second propeller is based on value-sharing between unions and employees. Employees who perceive a substantial overlap between personal values and union goals are more attracted to unions, and thus are more prone to becoming members (Frangi and Barisione, 2015: 454):

In contrast to the instrumental rationale, which employs a rational self-enhancement calculus, this propeller involves self-transcendent attitudes Unions’ efforts to diminish the intrinsically asymmetrical relationship between sellers and buyers of labour ... have incited people, motivated by values of fairness and justice, to join unions (Frangi and Barisione, 2015: 454).

The authors argue that people who identify with leftist ideological positions demonstrate a greater likelihood of becoming union members than those with conservative leanings, and that the ideational propeller is stronger when personal values are also supported by political engagement and identification (Frangi and Barisione, 2015: 454-455).

Toubøl and Jensen (2014: 138) postulate that:

The overall framework for understanding trade union membership focuses more specifically on the individual employee and his interest in joining or leaving a trade union and these individual characteristics are used to explain the likelihood of whether different social groups are members of a trade union.

The individual characteristics that are used to explain trends in union membership are, *inter alia*, differences between men and women, between young and old, and between skilled and unskilled workers. “Studies of this type, being more micro-oriented, focus on individual motives for and interest in trade union membership and are often based on individual-level data” (Toubøl and Jensen, 2014: 138-139). According to Toubøl and Jensen (2014), micro-sociological theories of why employees join trade unions can be divided into two types of explanations, namely interest-based and norm-based motives. Firstly, “employees join trade unions because they have an interest in joining. They gain certain benefits by joining that they otherwise would not have. Such benefits include higher wages, greater job security, etc.” (Toubøl and Jensen, 2014: 139). Secondly, “the norms and values have an autonomous influence on employees’ likelihood of joining a trade union” (Toubøl and Jensen, 2014: 139).

Klover (1977) maintains that “labor historians have provided some insight into reasons workers have joined unions” (1977: 17). Karl Marx noted that workers seek to protect themselves by forming labour organisations; John R Commons noted that journeymen organised into unions in order to resist encroachment upon their standards of living; Robert F. Hoxie posited that unions voice the common interpretation of workers’ problems, and seek the means to alleviate the problems, which he called *a functional type of unionism*; and, lastly, Selig Perlman submitted that, when manualists become aware of the scarcity of an opportunity, they band together in unions for the purpose of protecting their jobs and apportioning available employment opportunities on an equal basis.

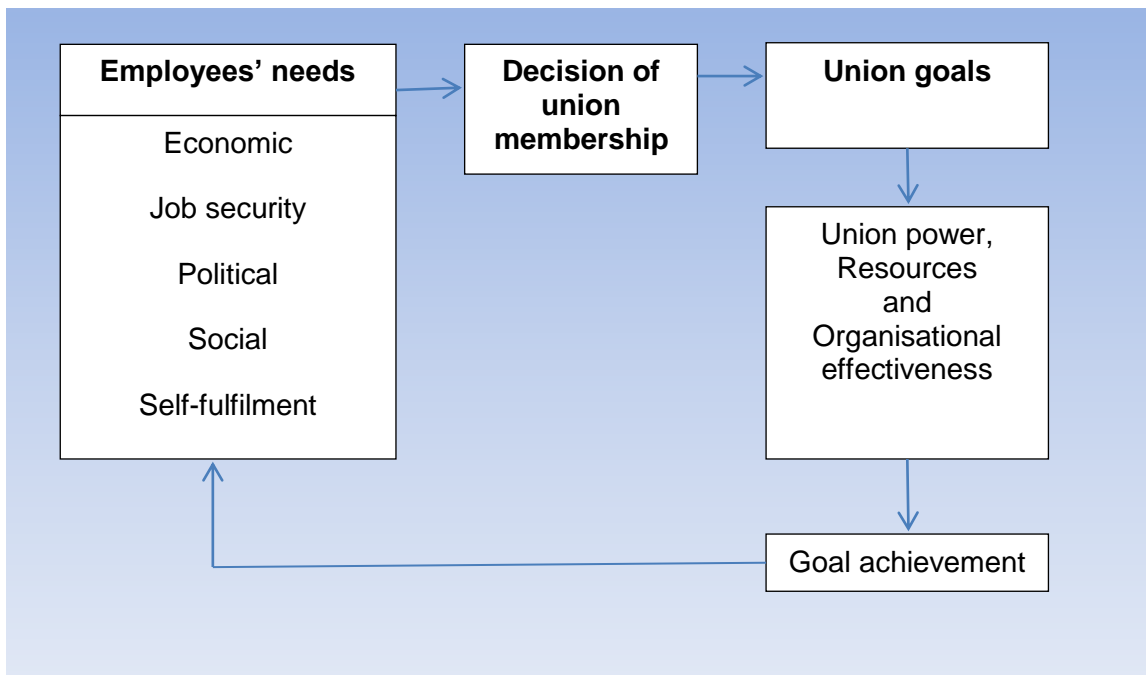
Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert, and Hatfield (2006) state that there is a general agreement among labour experts that certain issues are likely to lead to employees joining a union. This sentiment is shared by Finnemore (2013), who posits that the main reason why workers voluntarily join a union is dissatisfaction due to unfulfilled needs and expectations. According to Finnemore (2013), “together with internal factors, such as an

employee's own value system and needs, there are various external factors that may facilitate the employee's decision to join a union" (Finnemore, 2013: 92). The external factors are, *inter alia*, "the capacity of the union to assist the employee; encouragement or even pressure from co-workers to join; the support that the union enjoys in the broader society; and lack of any other alternatives available to the employee" (Finnemore, 2013: 92).

However, according to Finnemore (2013), "there are also external pressures which may inhibit the employee from joining a union, namely, the cost of union dues; union ineffectiveness (for example, poor recruitment methods); no co-worker support or political intimidation; employer intimidation; and gender-based barriers" (Finnemore, 2013: 92). According to Finnemore (2013), a study on South African farm workers found that workers steeped in a long tradition of paternalism often do not understand the reasons for joining a union. Another reason for inhibited unionisation is the rise in employment of atypical employees or precariat (casual, outsourced, and seasonal workers).

The reasons why employee join a union, set out in Figure 6, below, are: job security, 'bread-and-butter' economic needs (wages and benefits), working conditions, fair and just supervision, mechanism to be heard, a need to belong socially, political ideology, and self-fulfilment.

Figure 6: Employees' needs, union membership, and union goals and achievement



Source: (Finnemore, 2013: 93)

Table 3, below, encapsulates important forces that make the employees join a union, as articulated by Naukrihub.com:

Table 3: Reasons for joining unions

Force	Explanation
Greater bargaining power	The individual employee possesses very little bargaining power, as compared to that of his employer. If he is not satisfied with the wage and other conditions of employment, he can leave the job. It is not practicable to continually resign from one job after another when he is dissatisfied. This imposes a great financial and emotional burden upon the worker. The better course for him is to join a union that can take concerted action against the employer. The threat or actuality of a strike by a union is a powerful tool that often causes the employer to accept the demands of the workers for better conditions of employment.
Minimize discrimination	The decisions regarding pay, work, transfer, promotion, etc. are highly subjective in nature. The personal relationships existing between the supervisor and each of his subordinates may influence the management. Thus, there are chances of favoritisms and discriminations. A



Force	Explanation
	trade union can compel the management to formulate personnel policies that press for equality of treatment to the workers. All the labor decisions of the management are under close scrutiny of the labor union. This has the effect of minimizing favoritism and discrimination.
Sense of security	The employees may join the unions because of their belief that it is an effective way to secure adequate protection from various types of hazards and income insecurity such as accident, injury, illness, unemployment, etc. The trade unions secure retirement benefits of the workers and compel the management to invest in welfare services for the benefit of the workers.
Sense of participation	The employees can participate in management of matters affecting their interests only if they join trade unions. They can influence the decisions that are taken as a result of collective bargaining between the union and the management.
Sense of belongingness	Many employees join a union because their co-workers are the members of the union. At times, an employee joins a union under group pressure; if he does not, he often has a very difficult time at work. On the other hand, those who are members of a union feel that they gain respect in the eyes of their fellow workers. They can also discuss their problem with the trade union leaders.
Platform for expression	The desire for self-expression is a fundamental human drive for most people. All of us wish to share our feelings, ideas and opinions with others. Similarly the workers also want the management to listen to them. A trade union provides such a forum where the feelings, ideas and opinions of the workers could be discussed. It can also transmit the feelings, ideas, opinions and complaints of the workers to the management. The collective voice of the workers is heard by the management and give due consideration while taking policy decisions by the management.
Betterment of relationships	Another reason for employees joining unions is that employees feel that unions can fulfil the

Force	Explanation
	important need for adequate machinery for proper maintenance of employer-employee relations. Unions help in betterment of industrial relations among management and workers by solving the problems peacefully.

Source: Naukrihub.com

Bryson (2003: 5) opines that employees are instrumentalist in their decisions to join trade unions, and that the desire of non-members for union membership, as well as the perception of members' satisfaction with their union, depends on a number of factors, including positive returns, that is, delivery of better salaries and improvement of working conditions, demographic characteristics like age, and employer attitudes to unionism. It is quite evident from the literature that the recurring themes of the reasons why workers join trade unions are: a desire for security, a need to improve their economic situation, and a need to belong.

2.2.12.2 Beyond traditional unionism

Bernard (1998), in critiquing the role of trade unions, enjoins them to go beyond bread-and-butter issues:

Unions, as the self organisation of working people for social and economic justice, must play a crucial role in the fight to extend democracy into the workplace. But unions have many roles to play. One crucial function of unions has always been to achieve decent wages and working conditions for their members (Bernard, 1998: 5).

According to Bernard (1998: 5), if the aims of unions are “to achieve decent wages and conditions, democracy in the workplace, a full voice for working people in society, and the more equitable sharing of the wealth of the nation,” then unions must be more than service organisations for their members. However, unions cannot meet these lofty goals if they are simply a type of business, or if they operate merely as a non-profit insurance company seeking to protect its members (Bernard, 1998: 5). However, Bernard (1998) cautions that unions, like any organisation, will not survive if they do not serve the needs of their members.

2.2.12.3 Types of services offered by trade unions

The provision of friendly-society benefits was important in expanding union membership in 19th-century Britain. Economic theory suggests that, in the absence of coercion or commitment, the provision of such benefits may be a vital incentive to workers to unionise (Booth, 1991: 51). Booth states that British trade unions traditionally had two roles:

The first is the improvement of wages and working conditions above the perfectly competitive level — the union's monopoly role. The improvement in wages and working conditions in Britain is normally a collective good available to all workers in the sector where a union is recognised for pay bargaining, regardless of their membership status (Booth, 1991: 53).

Booth (1991) notes that union coverage has traditionally exceeded union density, as unions preferred higher wages to be collectively applied to all employees, to avoid the possibility of non-members undercutting the union wage, and that it is difficult, if not impossible, to practise exclusion when improving working conditions.

The second role of trade unions, according to Booth (1991), has been the provision of friendly-society benefits such as grievance procedures, and that these benefits are normally 'private' benefits, available only to union members. Booth (1991: 53) also says that, "although it is possible for a worker to 'free ride' on the provision of collective goods, he or she must join the union to receive the private goods." Thus, in the absence of coercion, or where there is a cost to union membership, the private goods may act as an incentive to workers to unionise.

Booth (1991: 54) is of the view that the union's provision of benefits and services may be crucial in obtaining and maintaining its critical membership density in the absence of coercion. According to Booth (1991), the incentive of private goods can be regarded as services provided by the agent (union) to its principal (membership), and states that:

The demand by workers for the services of an agent-union depends on what substitutes are available elsewhere. For example, if firms provide acceptable governance procedures, fringe benefits, and so on, then workers will not need to unionise to obtain these services. Analogously, if the state provides unemployment benefits, accident insurance, and legislation for safety and fair dismissal, then workers will not require these services from their union. Thus, workers' demand for union services cannot be considered in isolation, since it is

likely to be interdependent with employers' personnel policies and the state's welfare policies and labour legislation (Booth, 1991: 55).

Penclave (1971) notes that trade unions offer three types of services/goods to members:

1. Collective goods — these are the outcomes of collective bargaining, which apply to all employees of a company or industry, depending on bargaining coverage, irrespective of their union status, for example, higher wages/salaries. Non-union members also benefitting from such services without paying membership dues gives rise to the so-called *free-riders* problem. Free-riders are broadly described as those who enjoy benefits of group action without contributing to the costs.
2. Semi-collective goods — these are services that are individually consumed but collectively produced under collective agreements. Thus, semi-collective goods are those that should be given equally to union and non-union employees, for example, access to and the utilisation of the grievance procedure. However, in practice, being a union member has the advantage that unions offer higher quality services, given their expertise and resources.
3. Private goods — these include representation of members during grievance and/or disciplinary hearings and dispute resolutions.

For employees to enjoy and benefit from the semi-collective and private goods, they have to join a trade union and be a member in good standing. Furthermore, nothing prevents trade unions from providing non-workplace services. Olney (1996) notes that union services can be divided into two groups. First, those related to “the failure of collective bargaining to achieve material wealth for their members,” which are services to which the union can offer access and which members, on their own, cannot secure, including strike pay, death benefits, and sick benefits. According to Booth (1991), the most common traditional cash benefits offered by trade unions are strike benefits, unemployment and sickness benefits, death and funeral benefits, and accident benefits. Secondly, unions offer “access to various services at a reduced rate, discounts negotiated centrally by unions using the economic weight of a large market to attract preferential rates from suppliers mostly of services but also of goods.” Examples of these are discounted car-

and house insurance, holidays, union credit cards, and loans (Olney, 1996: 80). In an attempt to attract and retain members, trade have unions increased the range of services they offer their members. These include, *inter alia*:

- financial assistance and discounts — provision and administration of financial assistance or relief for members in distress in the form of funeral benefits, short-term insurance, and loans (members can get discounts on mortgages, car rentals, insurance, and hotel bookings);
- legal assistance — advice on employment issues (some unions offer assistance with personal matters like housing, wills, and debt);
- education and training — most unions offer training courses for their members on employment rights, health and safety, and other issues (some unions also assist members and their immediate family members with grants and bursaries to further their studies); and
- welfare benefits — one of the earliest functions of trade unions was to look after members who in financial dire straits (some of the older unions offer financial help to their members during protracted strikes or when they are unemployed).

Olney (1996) observes that:

Trade union bargaining achievements are not always attractive reasons for workers to become union members since workers will often receive the benefits of union negotiations even if they are not members. The offer of extended services may provide the practical incentive necessary to entice workers to become members. It will also encourage them to conserve their membership even when they are no longer in a position to benefit directly from the union's bargaining (1996: 80-81).

Consequently, “workers are now looking for pragmatic reasons to belong to a union, and the provision of wide-ranging services provides benefits that are easily discernible in return for the payment of membership subscription” (Olney, 1996: 81). Taylor (1994: 141) states that, in Britain, “the Department of Employment suggested the trade unions would ‘need to work with the grain’ of changes taking place in the labour market and ‘modernise’ if they are to prosper.” Further, he notes that the Department of Employment counselled that:

[I]ndividuals are free to become members of a union but of course there is no obligation for them to do so. With the ending of closed shops, **joining a union has become a matter of choice and personal preference**. In exercising this choice, individuals do not start out from the assumption that by definition unions are beneficial for them. People are taking an increasingly individualistic attitude and are less inclined to belong to traditional mass organisations like trade unions. It seems likely that **individuals are taking a much more pragmatic attitude when deciding on union membership and are less influenced by traditional allegiances**. They are now influenced by value for money considerations, just as they are when they buy any other service. If they are to attract and retain members, unions will need to demonstrate those areas where their services are beneficial and cannot be supplied more cheaply or effectively by other organisations. In other words, unions will have to sell themselves to individuals more effectively. They will have to focus more on the individual and the individual's requirements at the workplace and, to a lesser extent, elsewhere. This mirrors the increasing emphasis by companies on the individual and the move away from collective bargaining towards more decentralised systems of management.

Value for money will always be a consideration for union members. This means that members or potential members will need to be satisfied that their unions are efficiently run as businesses. Some of the services — legal and pension advice — can be provided from other sources. Individuals will turn to these sources, if they feel that unions are poor providers of services. It has been rare for senior union figures to rise to the top because of their managerial abilities. The impression is given that unions have often been weakly managed and financed on a shoe-string. The modernisation of unions would require the modernisation of their management, as well as the redefinition of their role (Taylor, 1994: 141-142) **[Own emphasis]**.

2.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an outline of the literature on trade unionism. In the main, the corpus of literature shows that the traditional roles and functions of trade unions are to protect, advance, and promote the interests of their members. However, it is also evident from literature that trade unions' activities go beyond traditional workers' interests, and combining these with political interests to bring about fundamental social and political change in society by entering the political arena. This they do by forging relationships with political groupings and community-based organisations, to address broader societal issues.

Whilst the economic issues relate, *inter alia*, to improvements in working conditions and better wages, the political issues are struggles to bring about social and political change. For their continued survival and relevance, trade unions have to develop and adopt strategies and tactics to respond to different conditions and contexts.

It is apparent from literature that the main reasons for employees wanting to unionise are: economic — to better both their living and working conditions; psychological — protection from arbitrary management treatment and participation in management processes; and social — the desire to belong. The literature discussion in this chapter is succinctly summarised by Rasmussen (2009), who states:

Just as jobs can have multiple satisfactions with a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic factors so individual employees can join unions for a variety of motives: these could be instrumental, utilitarian and/or ideological. This indicates that diverse union positions as well as diverse recruitment strategies are necessary. It is, therefore, not surprising that there are many different theories of unionism, different types of unions and a range of union behaviours. Thus, care must be taken when talking about unions, the union's role or union behaviour since there is a huge diversity in all of these. This diversity is a result of the influence of national institutional settings, culture, industry location and historical genesis on union structures and behaviour (Rasmussen, 2009: 306).

This chapter addressed the RQ1 and RQ2, and the next chapter addresses RQ3. The next chapter discusses the concepts of service quality and satisfaction as postulated by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988), and the implications thereof for behavioural intentions, as envisaged by the SERVQUAL Model and Hirschman's Exit, Voice, and Loyalty (EVL) Model.

CHAPTER 3: SERVICE QUALITY, SATISFACTION, AND MEMBER LOYALTY

Quality in service or product is not what you put into it. It is what the client or customer gets out of it (Peter Drucker, 1973)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

It is a universal phenomenon that people desire to continue their association with an organisation when their expectations are met and they derive the desired benefits from that organisation. For trade unions, this distils into two elements, namely the (union) value proposition and the quality of service rendered to members. Janssen (n.d.) avers that a value proposition creates a mutual understanding of the exchange between the customer and the provider of goods or services. She states that, when both parties feel they are partaking in a valuable and mutually beneficial exchange, loyal relationships are established. Further, from a customer's perspective, the value of a product or service is strongly linked to quality, and customers feel they are getting good value when the benefits outweigh the sacrifices (i.e. costs).

It can be said that union members will be satisfied if they perceive their unions as delivering prompt, quality services at the members' points of need. The literature describes a value proposition as a brief and explicit position statement that addresses the following components: *what* is being offered; *who* the target is; *why* they should buy or use the product or service; and *how* the product/service is better or different from that of the competition.

The prevailing economic hardship, characterised by shrinking employment opportunities, has enjoined trade unions to devise measures to mitigate declining union membership. Trade unions are faced with the imperative of retaining their current members and increasing their ranks, as well as ensuring their members remain engaged, loyal, and committed to their union. This requires identifying which retention factors are valued by members.

In an attempt to understand and evaluate the level and quality of services rendered by trade unions and how these are perceived by members, the present researcher employed the Service Quality (SERVQUAL) Model/Scale developed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988). The model is designed for organisations to better understand what type of products and/or services their members desire, and how these should be rendered. Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) posit that delivering superior service quality is a prerequisite for organisational success and sustainability. They argue that service quality differs from goods quality, in that the latter can be measured objectively by such indicators as durability and number of defects, whilst the former is an abstract and elusive construct. Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) state that services are intangible and heterogeneous, and are judged by those who use them. These concepts are defined as follows:

- intangibility — services are performances, rather than objects; therefore, they cannot be counted, measured, inventoried, tested, or verified in advance of their sale in order to assure quality;
- heterogeneity — service performance often varies from producer to producer, from customer to customer, and from day to day; and
- inseparability — production and consumption of services are inseparable. The consumer is usually involved during the delivery of services (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985: 42).

The authors also list a fourth feature — *perishability*. Services are economic activities or performances whose output is not a physical product, and they cannot be stored for future use; they are consumed at the time when they are produced (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1985: 34). Therefore, in the absence of an objective measurement, an appropriate approach to assessing the quality of service is to measure the consumers' perceptions of quality (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988).

3.1.1 SERVQUAL MODEL

Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) note that the conceptual foundation for the SERVQUAL Scale was derived from the works of researchers who examined the meaning of service quality and from a comprehensive qualitative research study on service quality.

3.1.1.1 Definition of service quality

The literature contains numerous definitions and descriptions of the concept *service quality*. Proomprow (2003) assigned a relevant meaning for every letter of the word *service*, as follows: s = satisfaction; e = expectation; r = readiness; v = value; i = interest; c = courtesy, and e = efficiency.

Service quality is defined as the extent to which a service meets the user's needs or expectations, and the quality of the provided service determines the user's degree of satisfaction (Lewis and Booms, 1983; Gronroos, 1984; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988; Palmer, 2005; Oliva and Sterman, 2010). Reeves and Bednar (1994) argue that there is no single universal definition of quality, but suggest four dimensions: (a) quality as excellence, (b) quality as value, (c) quality as conformance to specifications, and (d) quality as meeting or exceeding customers' expectations.

Parasuraman *et al.* (1985: 46) define service quality as "a function of the magnitude and direction of the gap between expected service and perceived service." Thus, when perceptions are higher than expectations, the gap narrows, leading to high levels of satisfaction (PZB, 1985).

3.1.1.2 Dimensions of service quality

The SERVQUAL Model which is widely used to measure the gap between customers' expectations and their experience. Service quality affects particular behaviours that indicate whether customers will remain loyal to or leave an organisation. Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) suggest that perceived service quality is based on multi-dimensional factors relevant to the context. Initially, Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) identified about ten multi-dimensional factors; however, after further analysis, it was found that there were overlaps between the dimensions, which were subsequently refined and collapsed into five generic dimensions or factors. The five dimensions, referred to by the acronym *RATER*, are:

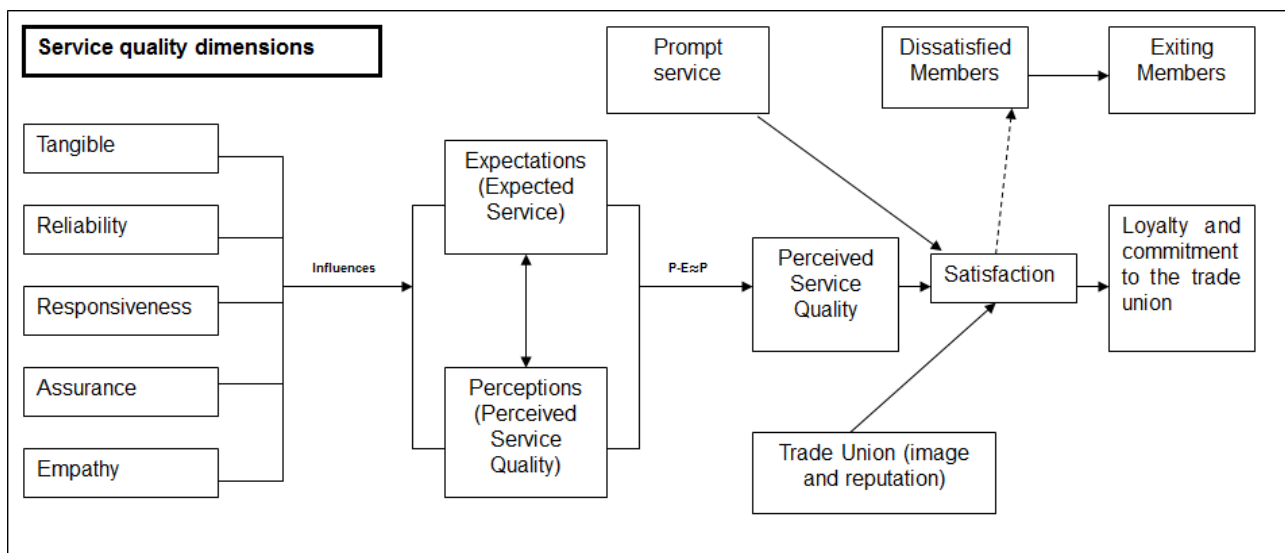
1. **Reliability** — the ability to perform promised service dependably and accurately;
2. **Assurance** — knowledge, courtesy, and the ability to inspire confidence and trust (including competence, credibility, and security);

3. **Tangibles** — physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel;
4. **Empathy** — caring and individualised attention (including access, communication, and comprehension); and
5. **Responsiveness** — willingness to help and provide prompt service.

According to Parasuraman *et al.* (1998), with minor modifications, the SERVQUAL instrument can be adapted to any service organisation, and that information on service quality gaps can help service organisations diagnose where performance improvement can best be targeted. “There are wider service organization agendas than simply service quality: improving access to existing services; equity and equality of service provision; providing efficient and effective services within political as well as resource constraints” (Shahin, 2006: 5).

Figure 7, below, illustrates perceived service quality according to the SERVQUAL Model for members of a union. The five service quality dimensions are presented as antecedents to the overall quality of the services that trade unions offer, and the influence of members’ service expectations and perceptions.

Figure 7: SERVQUAL Model



Source: Adapted from the research model by Nukpezah and Nyumuyo (2009: 3)

The figure indicates that perceived service quality leads to member satisfaction, which, in turn, engenders loyalty and commitment to the trade union. The dotted arrow reflects members who are dissatisfied and eventually exit the trade union. Furthermore, a trade union's image and reputation, as well as prompt service, influence member satisfaction through the pathways shown.

In terms of this model, it is imperative that unions customise their service to satisfy each member's individual needs, as inferior service leads to dissatisfaction, which, in turn, might ultimately lead to exit and difficulty in attracting new members. Members' satisfaction manifests in praise for the union, expressing a preference for the union, paying their dues willingly, saying positive things about the union, making recommendations to others to join the union, and continuing their membership. Conversely, dissatisfaction manifests in eagerness to leave the union, a decrease in participation, and complaints to others outside of the union (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1996).

3.1.1.3 Description of the SERVQUAL measurement

The SERVQUAL instrument measures the customers' perceptions of service quality. Parasuraman *et al.* (1985; 1988) conceptualised service quality (Q) as the difference between perception (P) and expectation (E) of service delivery. It measures customers' expectations before service encounters, as well as the perceptions about the actual service experience (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988: 85). The algebraic equation underpinning the SERVQUAL Model is as follows:

$$Q(\text{quality}) = P(\text{perceptions}) - E(\text{expectations})$$

According to Zeithaml (1990), this formula implies that, if E (expectations) equals P (perceptions), the consumer is satisfied; when perceptions exceed expectations, the consumer is more than satisfied; and when expectations exceed perceptions, the consumer is dissatisfied, and this will be reflected in a negative SERVQUAL score.

Parasuraman *et al.* (1988: 16) originally defined expectations as "desires or wants of customers, i.e., what they feel a service provider should offer rather than would offer."

Faced with mounting criticism, they responded by redefining *expectations* as what customers feel a service provider *would* offer, rather than what they *should* offer. They define *perception* as customers' views on "performance of the firm when providing the services" (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1988: 16). Authors such as Kotler and Keller (2006) and Copley (2004) seem to agree with these definitions, as they respectively describe perception as the process by which an individual selects, organises, and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world (Kotler and Keller, 2006: 185). This is an individual process that depends on internal factors such as a person's beliefs, experiences, needs, moods, and expectations (Copley, 2004: 54).

3.1.1.4 Benefits of superior service quality

It is human nature to derive pleasure and pride from the knowledge that people are satisfied with the type of goods and/or services one offers, as indicated by high approval ratings, repeat usage, and high referral rates. Berry, Bennett and Brown (1989) indicate that good service quality attracts new customers and leads to customer loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, satisfaction, commitment, an enhanced corporate image, reduced costs, and enhanced business performance. Customer loyalty implies a high likelihood of the customers reusing the service, which gives the service provider a competitive advantage over its competitors.

3.1.1.5 Satisfaction

It is important to note that trade unions as organisations, by their very nature, have a distinctive character, compared to other service organisations. Perhaps the most fundamental distinction is that the focus of operations for trade unions is their service to their members, rather than profit-making. The discussion below will cover concepts that are salient to customer service and satisfaction in general and those that are applicable to trade unions.

Fundamental to the success of any organisation (profit-making or non-profit-making) is the quality of service rendered, and whether those who make use of those services derive the desired gratification. According to Kotler (2003: 36), "satisfaction is a person's feelings of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing a product's perceived performance

(or outcome) in relation to their expectations.” Wilton and Nicosia (1986) postulate that satisfaction should be viewed as a judgement based on cumulative experience of a product or service, rather than a transaction-specific phenomenon. Nicholls, Gilbert, and Roslow (1998) support this view, stating that there is a difference between service quality and satisfaction; satisfaction is about the service encounter, while quality is the difference between service expectations and the actual service performance. Another notable definition of satisfaction is the one proffered by Tse and Wilton (1988: 204), who define satisfaction as “the consumer’s response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations and the actual performance of the product or service as perceived after its consumption.” Morgan and Hunt (1994) state that satisfaction is a function of consumers’ belief that they have been treated fairly. In their research, Hon and Grunig (1999) came to the conclusion that the quality of the relationship can best be measured through the satisfaction dimension or attribute — the extent to which each party feels favourably toward the other because positive expectations of the relationship have been reinforced. A satisfying relationship is one in which the benefits outweigh the costs.

Given that satisfaction is a utility, it is evident that the central theme to the above definitions is the overall *ex post facto* (dis)contentment derived from using a service. If the perceived service performance is below their expectations, members will be dissatisfied, and vice versa. This will have an impact on their loyalty and commitment to the union.

3.1.2 THE EXIT, VOICE AND LOYALTY MODEL

Unions have traditionally been the principal agency of voice representation for workers. Voice representation empowers workers by enabling them to bargain effectively and negotiate to their advantage, with the result that their income, employment, and working conditions improve (Freeman, 1980; Booth, 1995, cited in Dasgupta, 2002). Moreover, besides their rent-seeking role (improving their members' income and working conditions), trade unions play a larger role as the collective voice of workers in a democracy (Freeman and Medoff, 1984: 18). According to Bhattacharjee (cited in Dasgupta, 2002), the role of unions as collective voice reinforces the "positive economic, political and social effects [of unionization] in pluralist democracies," which forms the basis of good-quality, dignified employment.

Hirschman's model consists of three elements, namely exit, voice, and loyalty (EVL Model). The EVL Model holds that members have two options to express their discontent: they can exit (withdraw from the relationship), or they can voice — attempt to repair or improve the relationship through communication of the complaint, lodging a grievance, or proposing change. Withdrawing from the relationship (exit) need not be physical; it could manifest in mental or emotional disengagement.

3.1.2.1 Exit

Exit is defined as the decision taken by members to leave an organisation (Hirschman, 1970: 21). According to Choi and Chung (2016), there are three categories of factors associated with turnover, namely economic, individual, and organisational factors. Individual characteristics include age, tenure, gender, education, and minority status. Empirical evidence was found that older employees and those with longer tenure are less likely to quit. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), organisational commitment researchers have suggested that older workers are more committed to their organisations, because of the investments they have made in their jobs and their achievement of a better job fit over time.

The category *organisational factors* comprises job characteristics, work environment, and human resource management (HRM) practices. With regard to job characteristics and work environment, a number of authors postulate that employees with greater workloads have lower levels of job satisfaction (Choi and Chung, 2016: 216). Supervisory status and HRM policies on pay and benefits, family-friendly policies, hiring practices, and professional development and mentoring also have an effect on turnover (Choi and Chung, 2016: 216). Lastly, another factor affecting employee turnover is the labour market. Empirical studies have shown that, when the unemployment rate increases, people are less likely to quit (Choi and Chung, 2016: 216). Lim (2007: 21) notes that:

Underlying Hirschman's concept of exit, then, is the implicit assumption of membership. An individual who is a member of an entity would have a vested interest in the future continuity and quality of an entity, and would actively contribute to its betterment. With exit, an individual ceases to be a member of the entity, and is no longer concerned about the entity's future prospects. Paul Thomas noted that exit occurs when one 'cancels,' 'quits,' 'leaves,' or 'changes'

one's membership. This choice can be more or less extreme in that individuals may choose to (1) partially exit, or (2) totally withdraw from the entity.

3.1.2.2 Voice

Voice is defined as the decision taken by organisational members to communicate their concerns and express their ideas and opinions through either formal or informal methods. Lim (2007: 23) contends that voice is exercised when customers or organisational members bring their dissatisfaction or grievances to the management or authorities. They may also publicly register their unhappiness at the declining quality of the product, service, or organisation by staging protests and demonstrations. According to Hirschman (1970: 34), voice can postpone exit when an individual is not ready to desert the organisation, and could even be a substitute for exit. Individual may also feel that the personal cost of exiting is too high, or they may choose to stay out of loyalty (1970: 38-39). In these instances, exit will be the last resort, after voice has failed.

“What makes voice persuasive is its acknowledgment of human agency, that the individual has the ability to change his or her situation if s/he chooses to” (Lim, 2007: 23). Hirschman (1970) attributes a positive role to voice: it is constructive, seeking a betterment of the entity, while simultaneously acknowledging the legitimacy of the current authorities.

3.1.2.3 Loyalty

According to Hirschman (1970), loyalty is that unexplainable ‘special’ attachment or sentiment that makes even the sharpest critic hesitant to quit and move to another similar — possibly better — product, service, or organisation. Loyalty accounts for what may seem like an irrational decision to remain with a deteriorating entity or product. Hirschman's loyalist, then, is an individual who does not exit, regardless of his or her underlying reasons for staying (Lim, 2007: 24). Andrew Oldenquist (cited in Lim, 2007: 24) concurs, noting that:

When I have loyalty toward something I have somehow come to view it as *mine*. It is an object of non-instrumental value to me in virtue (but not only in virtue) of its being mine, and I am disposed to feel pride when it prospers, shame when it declines, and anger or indignation when it is harmed. In

general, people care about the objects of their loyalties, and they acknowledge obligations that they would not acknowledge were it not for their loyalties.

According to Hirschman (1970: 77), members are loyal because they either want to assist in changing their organisational circumstances, or because they are content to remain passively loyal to their organisation, with the hope that things will improve. The author further states that loyalty has a mediatory effect on exit and on voice: loyalty holds exit at bay and activates voice (Hirschman, 1970: 77). Lim (2007) states that a sense of loyalty is the reason why members believe that their entity has the potential for reform and improve, which would occur from within and with their help. Loyalty is an inherently individualistic attitude, the strength of which depends on a particular individual's level of support for the objects that symbolize the group (Guetzkow, 1955, cited in Lim, 2007: 25). This attachment is particularly valuable to a deteriorating entity, because it gives the authorities the opportunity to bring about improvements before the exodus of consumers or members reaches epidemic proportions and threatens the entity's existence (Lim, 2007: 25).

Hirschman (1970) suggests that there are two types of loyalists: (1) quality-conscious loyalists, who, although aware of the entity's deterioration, remain confident of their ability to bring about positive change, and (2) unconscious loyalists, who, unaware of any deterioration in their environment, "[are] free of any felt discontent" (1970: 91), and, hence, have no reason to leave or to voice their discontent. Hirschman notes that organisations tend to prize unconscious loyalist behaviour more highly, because these individuals "refrain from both exit and voice" (1970: 93).

Lim (2007: 27) argues that a major portion of Hirschman's work revolved around the development of his concepts of exit and voice. In particular, Hirschman regards exit and voice as diametrically opposing alternatives, since choosing one implies forgoing the other, for "whoever does not exit is a candidate for voice," and vice versa. However, the model has a number of critics, who, according to Lim (2007: 28), postulate that exit and voice are two independent, dichotomous variables. In other words, an individual does not choose between whether to exit *or* to exercise voice. Rather, he or she has to choose between two options: (1) whether to exit or stay and (2) whether to exercise his or her voice or remain silent. As such, the individual has four choices:

S/he can choose to exit and voice his or her displeasure

Choice 1: i.e. *Exit + Voice*

S/he can choose to exit and remain silent about his or her displeasure

Choice 2: i.e. *Exit + Silence = Hirschman's traitor*

S/he can choose to stay and voice his or her displeasure

Choice 3: i.e. *No Exit + Voice = Hirschman's conscious loyalist*

S/he can choose to stay and remain silent about his or her displeasure

Choice 4: i.e. *No Exit + Silence = Hirschman's unconscious loyalist +
Withey and Cooper's neglecter*

(Lim, 2007: 28)

Freeman and Medoff (cited in Dundon, Wilkinson, Marchington, and Ackers, 2005: 307) state that:

The dominant theory explaining why employees become union members is the 'exit-voice theory' which views membership as a means by which employees express their complaints about work conditions through the 'voice' of their union, and seek to effect change. This, they do by utilising for example, the grievance procedure to make known the dissatisfactions. Thus, the theory predicts that dissatisfied union members will either use their collective 'voice' or tend to quit.

By using their voice, members will be more likely to remain engaged, evidenced by their active participation in the affairs of their union. According to Hirschman (1970: 30), voice is an attempt to change, rather than escape from, an objectionable state of affairs, with the intention of forcing change in management. By quitting, members exhibit an indifferent attitude towards their union by either quitting yet remain members of the union, or totally relinquishing their membership. The exit-voice theory is summed up by Hirschman (1970: 34) as follows:

The role of voice [union] increases as the opportunities for exit decline, up to the point where, with exit wholly unavailable, voice [union] must carry the entire burden of alerting management to its failings.

Freeman and Medoff (1984) posit that unions have two faces. The first is the 'monopoly face' associated with their monopolistic power to raise wages, and the second is that of their collective voice, related to their representation of employees in an organisation. According to Freeman and Medoff (1984), it is the second face of collective voice that promotes greater efficiency within an organisation. Having a collective voice in their dealings with management, employees are more likely to remain with the organisation than quit, which results in lower levels of turnover, which increases the likelihood of a stable and experienced workforce. The authors add that it is essential for the effectiveness of the workers' voice that it be collective, rather than individual (Freeman and Medoff, 1984). Freeman and Medoff (1984) observe that the collective form of voice is a means of improving the efficiency of engagement between employers and their employees, based somewhat on the old adage of there being strength in numbers.

3.2 CONCLUSION

It is apparent from the above discussion that superior quality service is vital to achieving member satisfaction, which has two elements, namely loyalty and retention.

Von Holdt and Webster (2005) maintain that the main focus of a union is to look after its members and ensure that the members' mandate is carried out. Von Holdt and Webster (2005) observe that, while not all unions appear to have entirely satisfied their membership, they have made their mark by championing workers' rights.

Unions' commitment to offering superior quality will, over time, yield the intended result of heightened member satisfaction, which will, in turn, manifest in, amongst others, attraction of new members, reduced recruitment costs, and improved relationships with members, which will translate into member loyalty and retention. Thus, unions have to be member-centric. Members are the livelihood of unions, and unions have to continually build and maintain relationships predicated on shared values of accountability, honesty, integrity, trust, and transparency.

Brown (2006) states that union membership rates will increase if employees trust the union. Therefore, trade unions must be able to build trust amongst their members, especially during early stages of formation. According to Brown (2006), some of the ways of building trust are: reliability (keeping promises); equitable, fair, and consistent treatment of all union members; sharing information with union members; willingness to help union members; and honesty (including admitting mistakes).

Both the SERVQUAL and EVL Models were used in the present study. They provided a useful template for evaluating the services rendered by trade unions to their members and the members' behavioural intentions. Figure 8 is a visual synopsis of the arguments presented above.

Figure 8: Framework for member participation and satisfaction



This chapter addressed the RQ3. The next chapter will discuss both the historic and neoteric developments of trade unionism in South Africa.

CHAPTER 4: TRADE UNIONISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Thou shall not defraud thy neighbour, nor rob him; the wages of a hired labourer shall not abide with you all night until the morning (Leviticus 19: 13)

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary research objective of this study was to explore whether there is a nexus in the services offered by trade unions and employees' satisfaction. This chapter explores the reasons why employees join trade unions. This will be done in alignment with the literature, with reference to the history and evolution of the trade union movement in South Africa, specifically in the public sector. For the sake of brevity, the historical development of trade unionism and labour legislation is provided in a tabular summary.

4.2 HISTORY OF TRADE UNIONISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa's political past is mirrored in that of its labour market. Conflict and inequality, which characterised the system of apartheid, are also found in the labour market. Bendix (2010: 27) states that the labour relations system operating in a particular society is a product of, and structured by, that society. Such a system comprises the various participants, the processes employed in the labour relationship, as well as the legislative framework. The most important variable shaping a society — and, therefore, its industrial relations system — is the dominant ideology. Apartheid, as the dominant ideology that previously existed in the South African socio-political system, was reflected in the industrial relations system. Augmenting this view, Venter (2003) posits that:

South African labour relations has a long and sordid history. The policy of separate development, which resulted in the massive political, economic, and social inequalities among citizens of the country during much of its early development, was entrenched in the apartheid government's labour market policies for the greater part of the twentieth century (2003: 33).

The South African labour history is characterised by ideological contestation, evident in a struggle against injustices, inequalities, unfair labour practices, and workplace

discrimination, with the aim of securing better working conditions and recognition of employee rights to freedom of association — the right to form and/or join a trade union. Bitter struggles were waged, resulting in many employees losing their jobs and even their lives in a quest to assert their workplace rights.

According to Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, and Tsabadi (2005), the development and history of employment relations in every country is unique. Finnemore and van Rensburg (2002) state that any attempt to outline a brief history of South African labour relations would be difficult. The apartheid regime regulated and controlled workers in a number of diverse ways. It reinforced racial divisions amongst workers by means of discriminatory and repressive legislation, such as the wage- and colour bar. Apartheid was a system predicated on segregation in order to maintain the white minority's domination of the economy. Historically, the accumulation strategy related to capital in South Africa has been based on exploitation and cheap labour, secured through coercion and repression. The South African economy was characterised by systemic racial division, relying on migrant labour and compound systems, coupled with proscription of unions (Collins, 1994: 18).

The history and development of South African labour relations can be broadly classified into five phases (Dibben, 2007; Bendix, 2010). Table 4, below, details the milestones in the evolution of trade unionism in South Africa.

Table 4: History of trade unionism in South Africa

Description	Period	Alliance	Achievements	Reason for demise/failure/absorption/success
Industrial and Commercial Workers Union of Africa (ICU)	1919 to 1930	Leaders were involved in early African nationalist struggle	Organised over 100 000 at its peak	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Government's action-repression, intimidation, racial laws, e.g., Industrial Conciliation Act 1942 (only registered trade unions could participate in industrial councils and most Africans could not participate in such unions), pass laws, masters and servants laws 2. Internal feuding over political strategies and tactics, anti-communism, membership not restricted to workers (e.g., small farmers could join), lack of resources, no democratic structures for members.
Joint Committee of African Trade Unions	1930s to 1940s	Leaders were Trotskyites, but advocated non-political unionism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Industry based unions 2. Organised 25 000 workers 3. Used various aspects of legislation and government's strategy to try and incorporate African unions to control them and fight for wage determinations 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Leaders interned 2. Increased Africanism removed skilled white intellectual leadership that had not reproduced itself among workers 3. Reliance on wage boards
Council for Non-European Trade Unions (CNETU)	1942 to 1950s	Had relationship with political leaders and local population	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. By 1945, had 158 000 workers in 119 unions 2. Won significant pay rises during WWII years 3. Government arbitration system introduced 4. Developed significant depths of leadership, many of whom were political leaders 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Defeat of African Mine Workers Union in 1946 strike 2. Economic recession after WWII 3. Competition for jobs between white and black workers 4. General crack down on black political activity – 1948 National Party election victory and increased action against unions 5. Arrests of many communist union leaders 6. No clear organising and political strategy – no militancy 7. Fragmented membership – 199 unions
South African Council of Trade Unions (SACTU)	1955 to 1990s, but from 1960s essentially underground	Congress Alliance of ANC, COD, NIC, TIP, and CPC	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. First non-racial trade union federation organised 39 000 workers 2. Developed strategy of non-registered unions forcing employers to bargain outside official channels 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Government action against and repression of leaders 2. Political action led by ANC brought measures against the union 3. Focus on political issues led to it being less effective on shop floor issues

			<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Strong emphasis on worker education and training 4. Used consumer boycotts against employers
Federation of South African Trade Unions (FOSATU)	1978 to 1985	Non-aligned	<p>First significant non-racial trade union federation since 1950s Developed many of the activists, leaders, and much of the institutional capacity that became the foundation of COSATU</p> <p>Disbanded to form COSATU</p>
Council of Unions of South Africa (CUSA)	1979 to 1986 – split when COSATU was formed. Those unions that did not join COSATU remained as CUSA and, together with Azanian Congress of Trade Unions (AZACTU), formed NACTU	Significant presence in key sectors such as mining Developed many of the activists, leaders, and much of the institutional capacity that became the foundation of COSATU	Difference over the formation of COSATU, mainly around the adoption of the Freedom Charter; many CUSA unions became part of NACTU
Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU)	1985 to present	Tri-partite alliance of ANC, SACP, and COSATU	Represents almost 2 million workers; participates in all policy processes and institutions
National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU)	1986 to present	Loosely aligned to PAC, AZAPO	Represents about 400 000 workers
The Federation of Unions of South Africa (FEDUSA)	1997 to present	Not politically aligned	26 affiliates, represents about 500 000 mostly white workers
CONSAWU	2005 to present	Formed to be a non-political alliance of unions	27 affiliates, membership unclear, represents across races, but predominantly white

Source: Adapted from Misra (2008: 278-282)

4.3 LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT

Legislation plays a major role in the regulation and recognition of trade unions.

According to Grogan (2014), the Constitution is the foundation of the right to fair labour practices and to bargain collectively. Two significant acts were promulgated in the post-apartheid period. The first is the LRA, which gives effect to and regulates the fundamental rights conferred by Section 27 of the Constitution, and gives effect to obligations incurred by South Africa as a member state of the ILO. The purpose of the LRA is to advance economic development, social justice, labour peace, and the democratisation of the workplace. This is achieved by *inter alia*, codifying and regulating the organisational rights of trade unions, as well as promoting and facilitating collective bargaining by providing a framework within which trade unions and employers can collectively bargain matters of mutual interest. The second is the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA), which gives effect to and regulates the right to fair labour practices conferred by Section 23(1) of the Constitution. The BCEA provides for the establishment and enforcement of minimum working conditions by regulating working hours, leave entitlement, and remuneration.

Table 5, below, tabulates a chronological summary of various pieces of labour legislation and decrees passed, as well as commissions that were key in shaping the labour relations system in South Africa to date.

4.4 TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICA

Trade union membership has been on a downward spiral globally. However, the South African labour movement is an important exception, in that it has retained its mass base. According to Finnemore (2013), South Africa was reputed to have the fastest-growing union movement in the world during the 1980s and 1990s, with registered trade unions' membership peaking at just over four million.

Table 5: Laws, decrees, and commissions that shaped the South African labour relations system

Year	Name of measure	Intent	Aim or impact on African unions
1990	Pass laws	African men had to carry passes to prove they were employed	To prevent any organisation of African workers
1922	Stallard Commission proposal to amend the pass laws	Africans only allowed in 'white' cities to "minister to the needs of the white man"	Removing the possibility that workers may organise or strike against their employer
1924	Industrial Conciliation Act	Separated African unions from white, Coloured, and Indian unions, who were allowed to register and bargain for wages and work conditions	Kept African unions unregistered and illegal
1927	Native Administration Act	Made it a crime to promote hostility between races	To charge union leaders with a crime in the event of a strike
1928	Masters and servants laws	Made it a crime for Africans to desert their employers	Strikers could be labelled as deserters
1929	Riotous Assemblies Act	Gave the Minister of Justice the authority to remove anyone who was causing 'hostilities' from an area	Trade union leaders were removed from their provinces
1931	Riotous Assemblies Act	Gave the Minister of Justice the authority to remove anyone who was causing 'hostilities' from an area, and had an anti-strike clause	Trade union leaders were removed from their provinces; legislation used against striking workers
1945	War Measure 1425	Required special permission for all meetings with over 20 people on mine property	To prevent any organising in the mines and suppress the militancy of CNETU in the 1940s
1945	War Measure 145	Made all strikes by African workers illegal, but did not suppress them	To suppress worker militancy and strikes
1950	Results of 1946 and 1947 Sedition Trials; Suppression of Communism Act	Outlawed communism and the Communists Party, and banned its members, many of whom were trade union leaders	Robbed many trade unions of their leaders
1953	Bantu Labour Settlement of Disputes Act	To establish Factory Work's Committees, government, and Bantu Labour Officers as African workers' only representatives	To eliminate the wage board from negotiation for African workers, and ensure that the board only interacted with labour officials and not workers
1955	Changes to the Wage Act	Gave the Minister of Labour the sole right to order wage board enquiries	Unions could no longer request the wage board to investigate wages or rely on it to make gains
1956	Industrial Conciliation Act changed	Racially mixed unions not allowed to register and barring all Africans from belonging to registered unions	To circumvent the practice of collaboration between registered and non-registered unions, and prevent racial mixing within unions
1960	PAC led anti-pass campaign, resulting in the Sharpeville massacre	ANC and PAC declared illegal	Unions lose leaders and members and are forced underground. SACTU goes

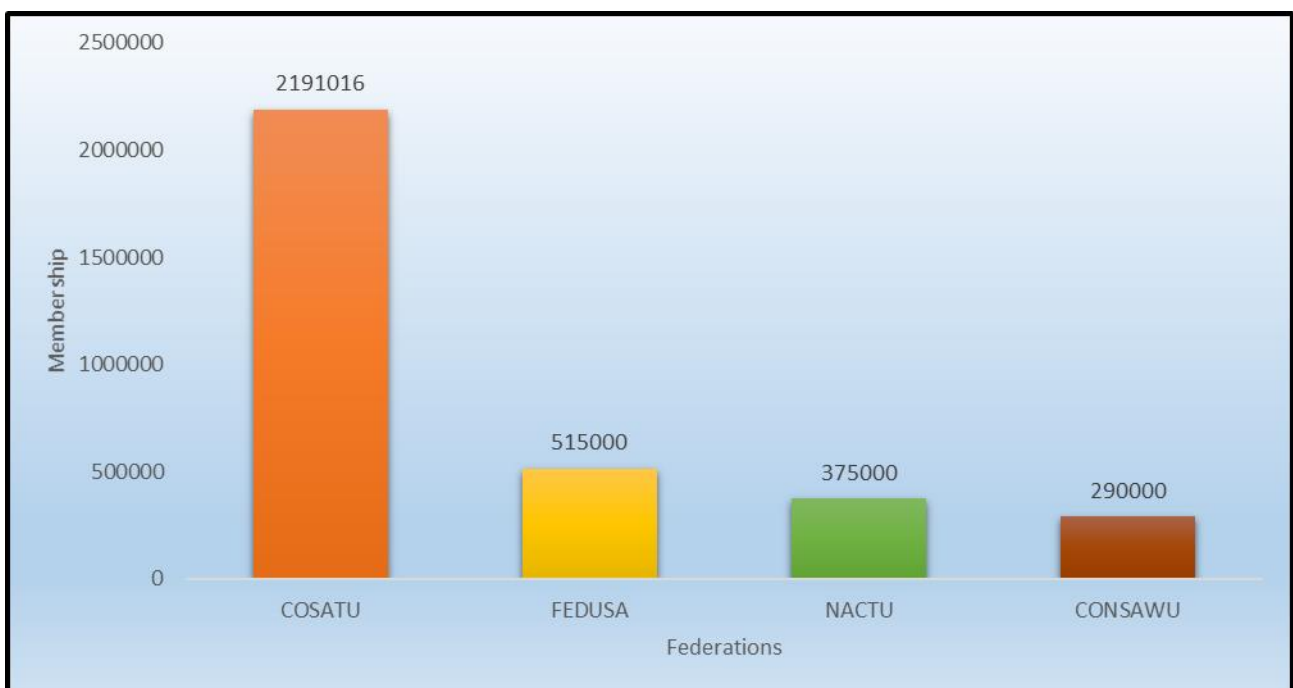
				underground and ceases to function effectively
1973	Black Labour Relations Regulation Act	Limited strike rights, the setting up of new, weaker factory committees and liaison committees, and allowed some worker representatives from these to attend industrial council meetings		Competed with existing unions, created limited avenues for bargaining and engagement between employers and workers, and, because workers had been organised factory by factory to participate in the committees, it unintentionally created a base for later unions
1976	Wiehahn Commission	Created to consider all labour laws administered by Department of Labour		Recommended the registration of black unions, the extension of union rights to categories of workers (migrants and commuters) denied them and the limited removal of job reservation, the setting up of the National Manpower Commission (NMC) – government accepted only some of the recommendations and, instead, increased the powers of the Minister and gave a veto to established unions in a bargaining council over new unions
1979	Industrial Conciliation Amendment Act	Bill passed to implement Wiehahn Commission's proposals		Unions begin to register, impacting on the positions held in the various unions
1980	Industrial Conciliation Amendment Act	Bill passed to define unfair labour practice		
1981	Labour Relations Act	Extended rights of membership, ended ban on mixed unions, removed reference to race and sex in official wage agreements and orders, scrapped provisional registration, and ensured stop order rights of registered unions		Increased powers of the registrar over registered and unregistered unions, increased political limitations, limited the rights to raise funds, and prevented unions from opening offices in the homelands
1990	Laboria Minutes signed	Unions and the then government settled on an agreement that provided for how issues of the labour market would be dealt with in future		Established the principle of consultation and negotiation over issues to do with the labour market and, to a lesser extent, economic policy matters
1992	Public Sector Labour Relations Act	Recognises the rights of public service workers to form and join trade unions		Brought a large number of workers previously excluded into the formal process of bargaining, and allowed for stop order deductions in the public service
1994	Interim Constitution Act	Established the Government of National Unity		Extended basic rights in the constitution to all South Africans and established the procedures and institutions for the first

			democratic elections
1990/1991	National Economic Forum (NEF) established	A non-statutory body made up of government, business, and labour representatives who sought to achieve consensus on socio-economic policy issues	Entrenched the principle of negotiation on key socio-economic policy issues
1995	Labour Relations Act	Put the current labour market dispensation in place	Ensured universal extension of rights to associate, bargain, and participate in processes of negotiation, except for those workers in the intelligence services and armed forces; includes a number of tripartite institutions such as the CCMA; put in place the right to take protected action on a socio-economic matter
1995	National Economic Development and Labour Council Act	Institutionalised the process of negotiation on all matters to do with the labour market, monetary and fiscal policy, trade and industry policy, and development policy	Increased the role of trade unions in policy-making processes in general
1996	Employment Equity Act	Formalised the policy of affirmative action	Ensures the advancement of black workers, women, and people with disabilities in the labour market
1996	Skills Development Act	Set up the tripartite training and skills development structures (SETAs) in sector of the economy	Increased the role of trade unions in all matters to do with skills development, training, and accreditation
1996	Basic Conditions of Employment Act	Sets minimum working conditions governing most employment relationships	Removes the need for unions to fight for basic conditions
1997	Occupational Health and Safety Act	States the standards for health and safety in the workplace for all workers	Removes the need for unions to fight for health and safety standards
1996	Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act	Created the democratic state institutions that currently exist	Ensures protection of workers' rights, the right to associate, the right to strike, the right to be consulted, access to information

Source: Adapted from Misra (2008: 288-292)

Currently, there are four major federations in South Africa, namely Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU), Federation of Unions of South Africa (FEDUSA), National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU), and Confederation of South African Workers' Union (CONSAWU). Figure 9 depicts the four union federations. In 2017, another union federation will be launched — the South African Federation of Trade Unions (SAFTU), with a claimed membership of approximately 700 000. The new federation will be spearheaded by former COSATU leaders who were casualties of ideological and political factional battles (*The Conversation*, 26 April 2017).

Figure 9: Major trade union federations in South Africa



Source: Finnemore (2013: 125)

COSATU is the largest and most influential of the four federations. This may be attributed to its proximity to power; it is in a tripartite alliance with the governing party, the African National Congress (ANC) and the South African Communist Party (SACP). Both FEDUSA and NACTU have adopted a non-political posture. However, it should be noted that, since its inception and until recently, NACTU was politically aligned with the Pan Africanist Congress of Azania (PAC). It has subsequently also become non-politically aligned. NACTU believes that workers join unions because of the conditions at their workplaces, not because of party political preferences. Thus, no workers should be denied trade union membership because of party political affiliation. In addition, NACTU, at its 1990

Congress, took a decision that NACTU office bearers cannot be office bearers of political parties. This, however, does not bar NACTU office bearers from belonging to political parties of their choice and participating in related activities. According to Webster and Buhlungu (2004), the appropriate alternative to the term *non-political* in this context would be *non-ANC-leaning* trade union.

Rossouw, in an article, *Union grows through white-collar members* (in *Mail & Guardian*, 2-9 July 2011), reports that COSATU's membership has grown by 3.8% since 2007, but that its secretariat report shows that this was mainly due to an increase in the membership of its public service unions. Lynley Donnelly, in a newspaper article, *Cosatu rules over a shrinking pool*, states that union membership is declining, but that public servants are swelling the federation's ranks (*Mail & Guardian*, 25-31 January 2013). In the same article, Loane Sharp, a labour economist, notes that unionisation of government employees has reached saturation point — 76%, or roughly 2.15 million registered union members out of a workforce of 2.83 million.

City Press (18 August 2013) reported that much of COSATU's growth since the end of apartheid has been due to the attraction of civil servants, teachers, doctors, and police officers. The same article also notes that, in 1991, only 7% of COSATU's 1.2 million members were employed by the state, and that, by 2012, that proportion had swelled to 39%. The South African Institute of Race Relations, in a press statement (4 March 2013), *Unionisation buoyed by public sector*, reported that, in the previous 12 years, the rate of unionisation in South Africa increased by 12%, from 26% in 2000 to 29% in 2012, with the community, social services, and utilities sector (dominated by public sector employees) being the most unionised sector. The rise in union membership within the public sector is captured by the Adcorp Employment Index released in May 2013:

In fact, if it were not for the public sector, where union membership has nearly doubled since 2000 — from 1.0 million to 1.7 million — union membership would have been essentially static over the period. Since 2000, union membership in the private sector declined from 1.79 million to 1.76 million. There are now more union members in the public sector than in the private sector as a whole.

Table 6 shows the unionisation figures of employees in the public and private sector. The proportion of the public sector's formal workforce who are union members — the public sector's union density — rose from 55% in 1997 (834 000 workers) to almost 70% in 2013 (1.4 million workers).

Table 6: Trade union membership of public and private sector employees in formal sector

Year	<u>Private sector</u> Number of union members	Union members as per cent of workers	<u>Public sector</u> Number of union members	Union members as percentage of workers
1997	1 813 217	35.6	835 795	55.2
2001	1 748 807	30.6	1 070 248	70.1
2005	1 925 248	30.1	1 087 772	68.4
2010	1 888 293	26.3	1 324 964	74.6
2013	1 868 711	24.4	1 393 189	69.2

Source: Bhorat *et al.* (2016: 22)

The swelling of COSATU ranks by white-collar workers was not coincidental; it was the result of a conscious decision, concerted efforts, and a well-crafted strategy adopted by its leadership. This is evidenced by the speech delivered at the NUM congress by Willie Madisha, the erstwhile president of COSATU, in which he said, "Our militancy attracted in the past those wearing the smallest shoe, which is blue-collar workers. That is our base. But we must now ensure that we find ways to organise white collar and white workers into our ranks" (Madisha, 2003: 1). The federation has close to 850 000 members in the state and municipal sectors — about 41% of its total membership.

Naidoo (2003: 5) contends that most of the growth in union membership since 1994 has been in the public sector, where the right to join a union has been a more recent development. However, at the same time that the public-sector unions have been growing, there has been a decline in membership in sectors such as mining and manufacturing.

4.5 CONTEMPORARY CHALLENGES FACING UNIONS

Notwithstanding the significance gains made by trade unions since South Africa became a democracy, trade unions have been plagued by a number of organisational challenges in

their endeavours to perform and fulfil their core responsibilities towards their members. Zwelinzima Vavi, the erstwhile General Secretary of COSATU, in his address to the NUM Collective Bargaining Conference in February 2013, outlined a number of challenges afflicting COSATU-affiliated unions.

- **1. Trade union membership and density** — despite the federation having grown enormously, to nearly 2.2 million members, this number is way off the 2015 target of 4 million members.
- **2. Service to union members** — unions are underserving their members, as demonstrated by marginal satisfaction levels, with members saying that unions have to improve in all areas of service.

Labour Minister Mildred Oliphant accused unions of having abandoned the workers. She notes that the bulk of the complaints stem from the lack of service to members, and that union leaders are not doing their jobs, as many workers nowadays represent themselves before the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) and other dispute-resolution platforms. Because workers have no idea how these processes work, they end up losing strong cases. Had they had the benefit of proper representation, they would have been successful (Fin24, 5 June 2015)

- **3. Trade union representation and democracy** — about 65% of the surveyed unions' members indicated the infrequent election of shop stewards in their workplaces.
- **4. Corruption** — union members decry the lack of financial accountability and transparency and the pervasive corruption within unions' ranks, which have resulted in a trust deficit.

To address these challenges, COSATU unions should, amongst others, make leadership more visible and interactive; combat divisive and undemocratic conduct in unions, which has the effect of undermining worker unity and the creation of splinter unions; and

organising the disorganised workers in rural and small towns, who are particularly vulnerable (Vavi, 2013).

4.6 LEGISLATION GOVERNING LABOUR RELATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Legislation aimed at upholding employee rights in the workplace in accordance with the Constitution includes, *inter alia*, the LRA. The LRA, through its codification of the freedom of association, entrenches the right of employees to join together and use their collective power to pursue their interests. Freedom of association is central to the collective bargaining model, as it allows bargaining to take place on a strength to strength basis. A trade union is defined in Section 213 of the LRA as: “an association of employees whose principal purpose is to regulate relations between employees and employers, including any employers’ organisations.” The registration of trade unions, employers’ organisations, and bargaining councils is a legal requirement in terms of the LRA. Collective bargaining helps workers to ensure decent pay and working conditions. Therefore, high membership is important for unions’ power.

4.6.1.1 Statutory organisational rights of representative trade unions

Hereunder is a summary of some of the statutory organisational rights extended to representative trade unions (i.e. unions with a majority membership — 50%+1) in terms of the LRA.

Trade union access to workplace

Section 12 makes provision for access to the workplace for the purpose of recruiting members and/or to communicate with members and serve members’ interests.

- **Trade union membership fees**

Section 13 makes provision for stop-order facilities for the collection of union subscription fees or levies. The direct deduction of union dues relieves trade unions of a considerable administrative burden, and ensures their financial viability.

- **Trade union representatives and leave for trade union activities**

Section 14 provides for the election of trade union representatives, and Section 15 provides that such representatives are entitled to take reasonable leave for the purpose of performing union functions.

- **Disclosure of information**

Section 16 provides for disclosure of all relevant information that will allow trade union representatives to perform their functions effectively.

The LRA places, amongst others, the following obligations on trade unions:

4.6.1.2 Duties of trade unions in terms of the LRA

- **Section 98: Accounting records and audits**

Unions must keep financial records and prepare annual audited financial statements, which should be made available to their members for inspection.

- **Section 99: Duty to keep records**

In addition to the records required by Section 98, trade unions are obliged to keep a list of its members and minutes of its meetings, and ballot papers must be kept for at least three years.

- **Section 100: Duty to provide information to the registrar**

Trade unions must annually provide the Registrar of Labour Relations at the Department of Labour with a statement by the secretary of the trade union, indicating membership numbers as at 31 December. A certified copy of the audited reports must be submitted within 30 days of receipt of the report, and the names and work addresses of the trade union's national office-bearers should be submitted within 30 days of their election or re-election.

4.6.2 UNIONISATION OF GOVERNMENT WORKERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Similar to the experiences of their counterparts in the private sector, government workers, prior to 1984, were not allowed to unionise; only staff associations were recognised. Section 2(2) of the 1956 LRA specifically excluded persons employed by the State, and persons who taught, educated or trained others at any educational institution from its ambit. The Public Service Labour Relations Act (PSLRA) provided for the formation of staff associations as a mechanism for managing employer–employee relations through a joint committee system. It was under the auspices of the 16-member Public Service Joint Advisory Council (PSJAC). According to Van Niekerk (cited in Reddy and Sing, 1988: 87), the PSJAC was a forum where matters affecting public servants, such as salaries, services, bonus, grievances, and service conditions, were discussed. Staff associations had to make their recommendations to the Council, and the Commission consulted the Council on legislation and service conditions (Van Niekerk, 1995 in Reddy and Sing, 1988).

According to Wiehahn, 1979 (cited in Reddy and Sing, 1988: 88), public sector employees in most Western industrialised nations belonged to trade unions which that negotiated on their behalf with public sector management. Wiehahn (1979), however, commenting on the South African public sector employment relationship, observed that:

[A] very important characteristic of the employer-employee relationship in the public service was that of paternalism, the employer determined the salaries and conditions of service of those employees without their having much of a say in the form of collective bargaining in such a determination (cited in Reddy and Sing, 1988: 87).

Wiehahn, 1979 (cited in Reddy and Sing, 1988) noted that the South African government began to support collective bargaining mechanism for public sector employees in 1986, mainly for the following reasons:

- South Africa was moving away from the paternalism prevalent in most relationships, and people wanted to share in decisions that may affect them.
- Job security in the public sector was almost as vulnerable as in the private sector.
- The honour of working for the state was losing its cachet.

- Government at all levels had shown an appreciation of the value of negotiations in labour relations, and thus demonstrated a willingness to consider developments in that direction (Wiehahn, 1979 cited in Reddy and Sing, 1988: 88).

The period beyond 1986 is characterised by the rise of public sector unionism. It was only in the early 1990s that the state engaged with the emerging unions, and also with the existing staff associations that had begun to transform themselves into trade unions (Finnemore, 2013). Public sector unions represent workers in public services such as education, safety and security services, and health and social services. According to Finnemore (2013), public sector trade unions, compared to those in the private sector, operate under certain constraints. Members of these unions must moderate their wage demand due to budget constraints (government is a non-profit-making organisation), and operate under certain legal constraints — many divisions of the public service are designated as *essential services*² (essential services employees are not allowed to strike).

The LRA provides for the establishment of a bargaining council for the public service as a whole — the Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Council (PSCBC).

4.6.2.1 The Public Service Co-ordinating Bargaining Council

The PSCBC is an independent organisation, established in terms of Section 35 of the LRA, read with Sections 36 and 37. The PSCBC is a statutory body, set up to co-regulate stable and productive employment relations within the public service, and is responsible for the facilitation of institutionalised dialogue between the state as an employer and organised labour. Its scope of operation covers the entire public service, excluding uniformed members of the South African National Defence Force, the National Intelligence Agency, the South African Secret Service, and the South African National Academy of Intelligence.

The main objective of the PSCBC is to maintain sound labour relations in the public service. This is achieved through a process of dispute prevention and resolution. The

² Essential service means “(a) a service the interruption of which endangers the life, personal safety or health of the whole or any part of the population...” (Section 213 of the LRA).

PSCBC is mandated to conclude and enter into collective agreements between an employer and one or more registered trade unions. Collective agreements are reached through the process of collective bargaining. A collective agreement may include provisions regarding wages, leave, working hours, working conditions, health insurance, and fringe benefits. Collective agreements concluded by the PSCBC are referred to as *Resolutions*; for example, the first collective agreement signed by the PSCBC is referred to as Resolution No. 1 of 1998.

The powers and functions of the PSCBC are described in Section 28 of the LRA. The PSCBC provides a platform for the parties — the state as employer (represented by the Department of Public Service and Administration) and the public service unions representing approximately over 1.3 million employees spanning both national and provincial departments — to:

- negotiate resolutions on transverse matters (of mutual interest), including terms and conditions of the employment of public servants;
- prevent and resolve disputes through mediation and arbitration;
- facilitate hearings to resolve disputes that arise in the public service (over which the PSCBC has jurisdiction); and
- promote good governance, inclusive of research and strategic partnerships.

The PSCBC is composed of a 50% representation of both government and trade unions. This composition ensures that the PSCBC remains impartial, independent, and unbiased. In terms of Section 37 of the LRA, the PSCBC as an umbrella body may designate a sector of a public service for the establishment of a separate bargaining council. The four designated sectors and their respective scope of operations are:

1. the **General Public Service Sectoral Bargaining Council (GPSSBC)**, which covers employees employed in terms of the Public Service Act 103 of 1994 (as amended);
2. the **Public Health and Social Development Sectoral Bargaining Council (PHSDSBC)**, which encompasses employees who are in the public health and social development sector;

3. the **Safety and Security Sectoral Bargaining Council (SSSBC)**, which mainly covers employees employed by the South African Police Service and the Department of Correctional Services; and
4. the **Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC)**, whose scope covers employees employed in terms of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 — educators, excluding those employed by the School Governing Body.

The public sector bargaining councils and their respective areas of jurisdiction are depicted in Figure 10.

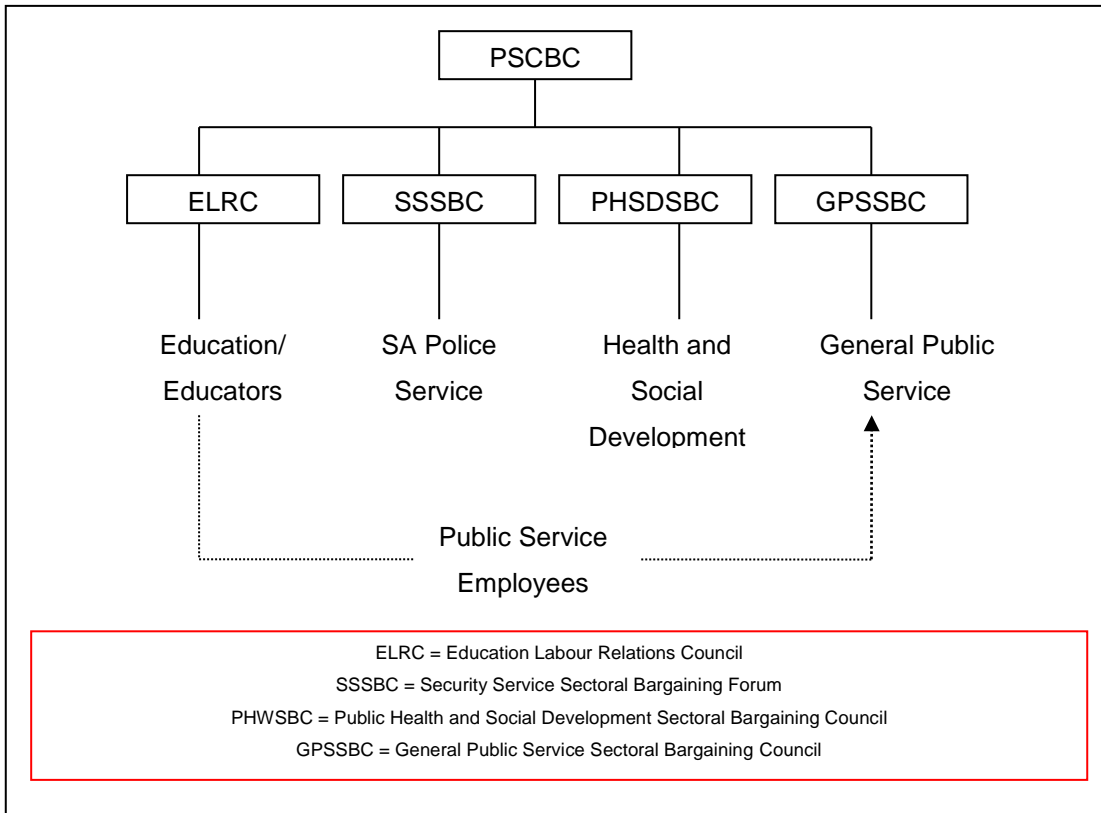
Trade union membership and admission requirements of the PSCBC are set out in Clauses 7.1 and 7.2 of the PSCBC Constitution (date), which provides that a trade union's admission as a member to the PSCBC is contingent upon the following:

- any single trade union party may apply for admission to the Council if it meets the threshold requirement of 50 000 members and has been admitted to a sectoral council; or
- any two or more trade unions acting together as a single party (referred to as a *combined trade union party*) may apply for admission to the Council if their combined membership meets the threshold requirement of 50 000 members, and each constituent party of the combined trade union party, on its own or acting together (as a single party), has been admitted to a sectoral council.

The LRA empowers bargaining councils to establish and administer a fund to be used for the functioning of the organisation. The state as the employer and employees who are members of the bargaining council are levied an equal contribution on a monthly basis. The employer collects the fees on behalf of the PSCBC, who then apportions these according to the vote weights of the trade unions. The vote weights of trade unions admitted to respective sector councils are determined on the basis of actual membership

within the specific sector in proportion to the membership of all trade unions admitted to the sector council.

Figure 10: Public sector bargaining councils



Source: Own construction (2016)

4.7 PROFILES OF TRADE UNIONS UNDER CONSIDERATION

This section profiles the three unions that form the subject of this research. It provides an overview of their evolution, organisational character, and ideological orientation. As background to the discussion, Table 7, below, lists some of the trade unions that function within the public sector, together with their respective membership figures.

Table 7: Public sector trade unions

Union	Membership
National Union Public Service Allied Workers (NUPSAW)	30 000
National Public Service Union (NPSWU)	8 100
South African Parastatal and Tertiary Institutions Union (SAPTU)	1 000
National Education, Health and Allied Workers' Union (NEHAWU)	200 000

Public Servants Association of South Africa (PSA)	205 000
South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU)	240 000
Police and Prison Civil Rights Union (POPCRU)	145 000
South African State and Allied Workers Union (SASAWU)	8 500
Public and Allied Workers Union of South Africa (PAWUSA)	19 000
National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa (NAPTOSA)	50 000
South African Medical Association (SAMA)	7 900

Source: (Naledi, 2011)

SADTU, NEHAWU, and PSA command large membership support, and are thus the most influential unions in the public sector. Their backgrounds are briefly discussed below, together with their aims and objectives.

4.7.1 SOUTH AFRICAN DEMOCRATIC TEACHERS UNION

4.7.1.1 Background

SADTU was formed on 6 October 1990. Its formation brought together a range of racially divided teacher organisations into a unitary structure with a progressive vision. These organisations ranged from the so-called conservative teacher associations, such as the Teacher Association of South Africa (TASA), to the more militant teacher unions, such as the National Education Union of South Africa (NEUSA). Today, the union is the largest teachers' union in the country, and boasts a membership of 240 000 members, spread across the nine provinces of South Africa. It ranks amongst the largest unions affiliated to COSATU.

4.7.1.2 Aims and objectives

Amongst others, the aims and objectives of SADTU are:

- to seek and to maintain itself as a union to be recognised by the education authorities and to negotiate on behalf of its members, to advance their individual and collective interests by entering into collective bargaining relations with the education authorities for the purposes of negotiating and entering into collective agreements;
- to promote and further the interests of its members and to voice collectively their opinions on matters pertaining to education;

- to promote and advance the education, cultural, and social interests of workers and working-class communities in South Africa, Africa, and the world;
- to eradicate discrimination based on gender, sexism, and the sexual harassment of teachers and learners;
- to establish affirmative action programmes for women, and to maximise participation of women at all levels of the union and the education system as a whole;
- to promote or oppose, as the case may be, any laws and administrative procedures that affect the interests of the members in particular and education in general;
- to institute legal proceedings on behalf of the union or its members in pursuance of the objectives of the union, and to render, where appropriate, legal assistance to members in matters relating to education and employment.

4.7.2 NATIONAL EDUCATION HEALTH AND ALLIED WORKERS' UNION

4.7.2.1 Background

NEHAWU was founded in 1987, and is affiliated to COSATU. NEHAWU was born of a merger between three unions: the South African Allied Workers' Union (SAAWU), the Health and Allied Workers' Union (HAWU), and the General and Allied Workers' Union (GAWU). Two years after the establishment of NEHAWU, the Transport and General Workers' Union (TGWU) dissolved and joined NEHAWU. The objective of the dissolution of TGWU and the merger of SAAWU, HAWU, and GAWU was to establish one formidable union that would service five different sectors. The five sectors in which NEHAWU operates are:

- tertiary education — all employees, irrespective of occupation;
- public health sector — all employees in provision of health care in public institutions;
- private health sector — all employees in provision of health care in private health care institutions;
- state administration sector — all employees in all government departments, research institutions, and utilities subsidised by government, as well as parastatals;
- social development sector — all employees in retirement homes, children's homes, places of safety, and non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

4.7.2.2 Aims and objectives

The aims and objectives of NEHAWU are:

- to ensure that fair labour practices are built into collective agreements;
- to strive for better wages and conditions of employment;
- to promote democracy in the workplace by ensuring that workers participate in decision-making processes;
- to fight discrimination on grounds of race, sex, religion, sexual orientation, disability, or personal beliefs, and for the right to equal opportunities; and
- to fight for job security, to advance the employment prospects of workers.

NEHAWU, with a membership figure of about 240 400, is the second-largest affiliate of COSATU. It draws its membership from all occupations and levels of qualification, across both the public and private sector. As such, it is a typical general union, which may be regarded as a social movement union, as it balances community- and workplace struggles. It is one of the largest and most influential unions in the public sector. It is politically active, and has a strategy to deploy and support its members as political activists.

4.7.3 PUBLIC SERVANTS ASSOCIATION

4.7.3.1 Background

The PSA was founded in 1920, and is a union that, until recently, represented mainly white public servants. The PSA prides itself on having successfully transformed into a trade union that represents the full spectrum of the South African population. It was not affiliated to any union federation until recently when it rejoined FEDUSA (Business Day, 25 May 2017). The PSA is the largest politically non-affiliated, fully-representative union in the public service. With a history of decades of service to its members, the PSA represents more than 200 000 public servants, public service pensioners, and employees of parastatal institutions. The PSA's growth is attributed to commitment towards its members.

As a registered Section 21 (non-profit) company, the PSA has to comply with both the stringent legal and financial requirements of the Companies Act, and also all requirements

for trade unions under the LRA. This ensures sound management of the financial affairs of the PSA.

4.7.3.2 Aims and objectives

As a registered trade union, the PSA's principal purpose is to regulate the relationship between employers and employees. Its main objective is the protection and promotion of the collective and individual rights and interests of its members at their respective workplaces. The PSA creates collective bargaining leverage for its members, and, according to its statute, the PSA's objectives, amongst others, are:

- to promote and protect the rights and interests of its members;
- to represent its members in all negotiations with their employers;
- to provide legal assistance to its members in employment matters;
- to secure a well-paid, efficient, and contented public service that adequately serves the needs of the state;
- to take such steps as are deemed necessary to secure and maintain cordial relations and full co-operation with government and the general public in matters affecting the public service, with a view to promoting efficiency and economy, combined with the well-being of employees, provided that the PSA shall not endeavour to secure advantages for members by exercising political or other undue influence;
- to suggest, promote, support, or oppose legislation or other measures affecting the interests of its members;
- to advise government on all matters it refers to the PSA;
- to issue literature for the information and enlightenment of its members and the public;
- to affiliate or co-operate with any association or union with the same or similar objectives as the PSA;
- to affiliate with and participate in the affairs of any international workers' organisation or the ILO; and
- to conduct any lawful business in furtherance of the objectives of the PSA and to secure special advantages in any mutual benefit, co-operative, or other concerns for members.

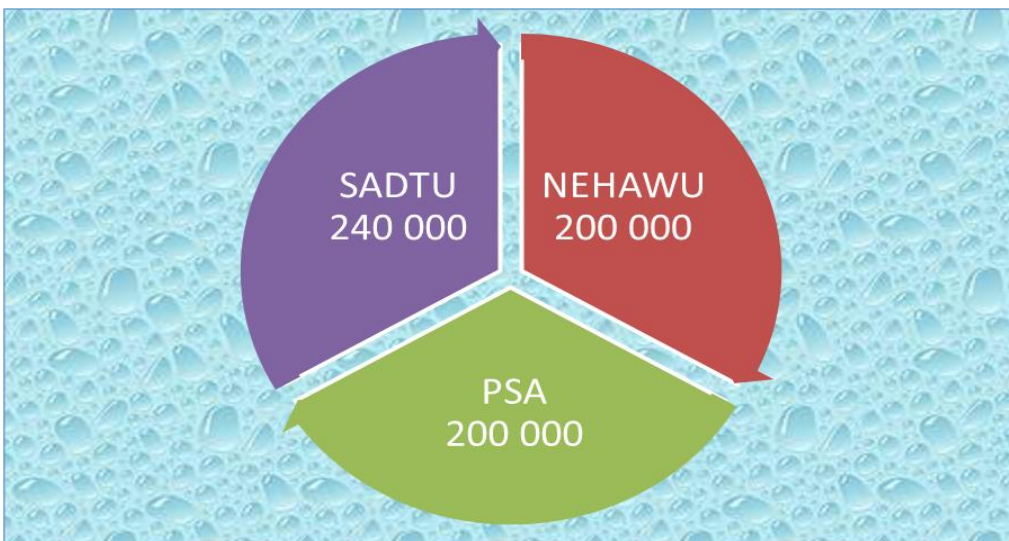
The PSA is the only union in the public service that caters for the needs of public service pensioners. The PSA is regarded as a business union, as it relies on its benefit- and service offerings to attract and retain members.

4.7.3.3 Summary

The common characteristic of these three unions is that they are all white-collar unions; their membership is largely drawn from educated professionals. Song (1999: 14) asserts that white-collar unions are distinct in three respects. First, they are occupational unions whose members hold similar jobs, with no distinction between the private and public sectors. Occupational unions can easily penetrate the public sector. Second, they have a strong preference for industrial unionism, because of the similarity of the members' occupations. Third, it is highly likely that their economic interests are associated with social and political reform, as their members are mainly employed in the public services sector. The leadership of white-collar unions, unlike that of blue-collar unions, whose members are largely illiterate or poorly educated, is endogenous. Furthermore, white-collar unions are financially sound. Of the three unions under consideration, only the PSA has a strike fund for remunerating workers during a strike.

The three unions under consideration, SADTU, NEHAWU, and PSA, are major players in the public sector, given their aggregate membership of approximately 640 000, as depicted in Figure 11, below.

Figure 11: Key public sector unions



4.8 CONCLUSION

The overarching theme in this chapter regarding trade unionism in South Africa is captured in what Murray and Wood (1997) call *coterminous unionism*. The underpinning assumption is that trade unions combine democratically established and strong shop-floor structures with national institutionalised structures to facilitate and champion union input into policy formulation. The coterminous theory suggests that input emanating from the shop floor is carried to the policy-making arena at a national level, to national bargaining structures. The trade union movement in South Africa played a leading role in the liberation and emancipation of South Africa from apartheid and colonialism. Today, the trade union movement continues to play a major advocacy role in both workplace and non-workplace issues. Bezuidenhout (2000) states that the South African labour movement, including unions, was instrumental in ending apartheid. However, since South Africa became a democracy, public opinion about the labour movement has changed considerably (Bezuidenhout, 2000). Ceronie (2007) argues that there has been a loss of ideological support for unions since South Africa became a democratic society. The establishment of democracy had the effect that a huge driving gear to belong to a union was lost. He further states that the so-called survival struggle for rectification of the labour market reached its end with the first democratic elections. It no longer meant that much to workers who had supported the struggle to belong to unions, and, consequently trade union membership declined (Ceronie, 2007).

The three unions under consideration, played a vital role in the history of public sector unionism. It is evident from the preceding discussion that a number of forces shaped and spurred the development of public sector unionism. However, Jones noted that public sector employees should not be characterised as a homogeneous entity, stating:

Public workers differed dramatically in what they did, the skills and education that their duties required, and even the class status they held. The contrast between school teachers and librarians on the one hand and garbage workers and plumbers on the other brings into sharp relief the social gulf that sometimes separates public sector workers. At the same time, public employees have several related characteristics in common. They provide essential public services where neither a profit motive nor competition exist and they derive their income from the tax base of the governmental jurisdictions for which they work (Jones, 2010: 6).

Chapter 5 will discuss the results and their interpretation, and provide conclusions of the research questions as formulated in chapter 1.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Everywhere, our knowledge is incomplete and problems are waiting to be solved. We address the void in our knowledge and those unresolved problems by asking relevant questions and seeking answers to them. The role of research is to provide a method for obtaining those answers by inquiringly studying the evidence within the parameters of the scientific method (Leedy, 1997).

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the research strategy and methodology used in the present study, and explains why these were the most appropriate for this study. The discussion includes the design of the study, research questions, description of variables, population and sample selection, data collection instruments, statistical techniques used, data analysis procedure, and limitations of the study. This chapter also elaborates on the methods and methodology used to answer the research questions. Bailey (1994: 26) made a distinction between method and methodology. The former refers to the research technique or tool used to gather data, whilst the latter refers to the philosophy of the research process. The choice of methodology of a study is based on the aims a study seeks to achieve. The aim of the present study was to determine the perceptions, experiences, expectations, and level of satisfaction of union members regarding the services rendered by their unions.

This chapter has the following focal areas:

- the method deemed most suitable for data generation and collection, in order to provide sufficient numerical data to correctly analyse and interpret the data;
- the sampling method followed, with the aim of ensuring a sufficiently representative sample;
- a description of the data collection method and measurement instrument(s), as well as their appropriateness;
- the respondents — the population and sample selection; and
- an overview of the statistical techniques used in interpreting and analysing the data. The Statistical Package for the Social Science 23 (SPSS) was used to analyse and

describe the data, using frequency distributions, charts (bar and pie), and histograms. Descriptive statistics, such as frequencies and percentages, was used to describe the data, and inferential statistics, such independent t-tests, ANOVAs, and the Kruskal-Wallis H tests, was employed to investigate if there is a significant difference between perceptions of union members about the services that unions offer. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine reliability.

5.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY'S INQUIRY STRATEGY AND BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is defined as:

- the plan for collecting and utilizing data so that the desired information can be obtained with sufficient precision from the research participants (Welman and Kruger, 2001: 46);
- a blueprint that guides the planning and implementation of a study (Burns and Grove, 1999: 39); and
- an overall plan, designed to elicit answers to the research questions and address all other related specific aspects, in order to ensure quality of the study (Polit and Hungler, 1995: 713).

Cantrick-Brooks (2005) studied the perceptions of unions held by call centre staff, and how these perceptions influence the union-joining decision, and deemed Crotty's constructivist/interpretive epistemological basis as apt for her research. She notes that:

A constructivist outlook and an interpretist methodology offer the opportunity to explore call centre staff perceptions of unions and how they fit with the construction of their reality as it applied to the employment relationship. In other words the ways they interpret their information about unions, and concomitant affect on their perceptions of unions. This in turn may shed some light on the underlying factors relating to the union joining decision of the respondents (Cantrick-Brooks, 2005: 53).

Cantrick-Brooks (2005) says constructivism based on Crotty's interpretation seeks to understand the relationship between the subject (call centre staff) and the object (unions). "This relationship is formed by the construction of the subjects' perception of the object's

usefulness in terms of helping the subject move from where they perceive they are now to where they want to be in the future (goals and related values)”(2005: 53).

The kernel issue explored in the current study was the decision-making by employees regarding whether to join a trade union, whether to exit a trade union, and the ways in which their perceptions of trade unions inform and/or influence their decision to retain their union membership or quit the union. This aim was similar to that of Cantrick-Brooks’s study; therefore, the epistemological basis of the present research was also Crotty’s positivism. The aim of the present study was to understand the relationship between the services offered by trade unions and how these affect the members’ level of satisfaction, which, in turn, will have an impact on their behavioural intentions — to retain membership or quit.

5.3 SAMPLING DESIGN

The aim of the current study was to gain a deeper understanding of trade unions’ service levels and how these impact membership participation and satisfaction. The research was undertaken in the South African public service, and considered unions operating within the ambit of the public sector bargaining councils. The LRA provides for the establishment of a bargaining council for the public service as a whole, the PSCBC. The PSCBC may designate a sector of a public service for the establishment of a separate bargaining council. The designated sectors are education, police service, health and welfare, and general public service.

5.3.1 DELINEATION OF THE TARGET POPULATION

Generalisations about populations from data collected using any probability sampling is based on statistical probability (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 217). Saunders *et al.* (2009: 217) state that the larger the sample size is, the lower the likelihood is that an error will occur in generalising to the population.

The purpose of sampling is to select, from the population, a set of elements that accurately depict the total population from which the elements were selected (Babbie, 2001: 185). The population in the present study consisted of all public-sector employees on Salary

Levels (SL) 1–12 or Post Level (PL) 1 who were also members of a trade union. The sample unit and unit of analysis in the present study were the same. The unit of analysis was permanent employees employed in the public service. Thus, the research scope was limited to employees covered by the bargaining councils, which were on SL 1-12 and teachers who fell within the General Classroom Teacher (PL 1) category. For practical reasons, the research was limited to members of large unions.

Table 7 above tabulated some of the trade unions that function within the public sector, as well as their respective membership figures. It is apparent that SADTU, NEHAWU, and PSA have large memberships, and are thus the most influential unions in the public sector. Thus, for purpose of this study, individual members of SADTU, NEHAWU, and PSA constituted the subject of the research.

The research sites selected for primary data collection were national departments situated within the vicinity of Pretoria and schools in and around Mamelodi that fell within the Gauteng North District, per the demarcation of the Gauteng Provincial Department of Education. The selection of the sites was largely based on the following factors: the presence of dominant and influential public sector unions, the proximity and convenience of the research site, non-contrived settings, and the familiarity of the researcher with the site.

5.3.2 SAMPLING METHOD

Sampling is used when it is impractical for researchers to survey an entire population, or when budget or time constraints prevent researchers from surveying an entire population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 212). A representative sample implies, firstly, a well-defined population, secondly, an adequately chosen sample, and, thirdly, an estimate of how representative of the whole population the sample is; that is, how well, in terms of probability, the sample statistics conform to the unknown population parameters (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995: 87). For the purpose of the present study, availability sampling was used as the sampling technique. Probability sampling is most commonly associated with survey-based research strategies where the researcher needs to draw conclusions

from a sample about a population to meet certain research objectives (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 214).

5.3.3 SAMPLE SIZE

For the purpose of the present study, individual employees were the unit of observation, and a representative sample was selected. Regarding a sufficient sample, Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 213) state that, if the population size is around 500, 50% should be sampled. In the case of the present study, the population in the public service was approximately 1.3 million individuals spread across 32 national departments, nine provincial administrations, and 91 provincial departments. It would be almost impossible to reach them all, given the geographical dispersion of public sector employees and the large population. As a result, it was essential to select a sample size that was manageable. For purpose of this study, a practical and manageable sample size of 500 was deemed appropriate.

5.3.3.1 Response rate

A total of 500 self-administered questionnaires requesting voluntary participation and containing the rationale for the study, as well as confidentiality undertakings, were distributed. Of these, 100 were distributed amongst teachers. A total of 247 completed questionnaires were collected from respondents. Five of these questionnaires were discarded, as they were either completed by respondents who were not union members of the three designated unions or missing too much data. Therefore, 242 questionnaires were found to be usable for the purpose of the study ($N = 242$) — a response rate of 48.9%.

$$\text{Response rate} = \frac{\text{Number of usable responses (242)}}{\text{(Total sample (500) - unusable response (5))}} \times 100 = 48.89\%$$

According to Gallagher and Strauss (1991), the return rate for union surveys is reported to be 15% to 25%. Thus, the response rate of 48.9% of the present study was deemed satisfactory.

In each case of the analyses, the total sample size reported represents the number of usable responses for the analysis in question, out of a possible 242 respondents.

5.3.3.2 Respondent profile

The respondents' profile contains their biographical and demographic details. These variables are, *inter alia*: gender, age (in years), race, marital status, family responsibility (the breadwinner or not, and number of dependants), qualification (measured as the level of education completed), tenure of service (in years), and community background. This is in line with previous studies, as articulated by Toubøl and Jensen (2014), who say that demographic factors such as gender and age are often used as variables in studies of trade unionism.

The salient biographical characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 8, below, and are discussed in detail in the ensuing chapter. From Table 8, it is clear that the gender distribution was even, showing good representation of men — 46.3% (n = 112) and women — 53.7% (n = 130). The age distribution of the respondents is evenly spread, forming a symmetrical bell curve. The racial distribution is skewed in favour of blacks (a term encompassing Africans, Coloureds, and Indians), who made up 87.2% of the respondents, compared to 12.8% whites.

Table 8: Biographical characteristics of the respondents (N = 242)

Biographical	Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Male	112	46.3	46.3
	Female	130	53.7	100
Age	18 – 29	56	23.1	23.1
	30 – 39	91	37.6	60.7
	40 – 49	62	25.6	80.4
	50+	33	13.6	100
Race	Black African	165	68.2	68.2
	Coloured	27	11.2	79.3
	Indian	19	7.9	87.2
	White	31	12.8	100
Marital status	Single	116	47.9	47.9
	Married	72	29.8	77.7
	Divorced	44	18.2	95.9



	Widowed	10	4.1	100
Breadwinner	Yes	179	74.0	74.0
	No	63	26.0	100
Number of dependants	0 – 2	130	53.7	53.7
	3 – 5	60	24.8	78.5
	6+	52	21.5	100
Educational qualifications	Matric or below	57	23.6	23.6
	Post-matric diploma/certificate	95	39.3	62.8
	Degree	65	26.9	89.7
	Postgraduate	25	10.3	100
Tenure of service (years)	0 – 4	45	18.6	18.6
	5 – 9	57	23.6	42.1
	10 – 19	61	25.2	67.4
	20 – 29	50	20.7	88.0
	30 – 50	29	12.0	100
Salary notch (per annum)	R25 000 – R99 000	26	10.7	10.7
	R100 000 – R199 000	90	37.2	47.9
	R200 000 – R399 000	86	35.5	83.5
	R400 000 – R499 000	27	11.2	94.6
	R500 000+	13	5.4	100
Community background	Urban	98	40.5	40.7
	Peri-urban	61	25.2	66.0
	Rural	82	33.9	100

The marital status of the respondents was evenly distributed, with 47.9% indicating that they had never married, compared to 52.1% indicating that they were married or were once married. A large number of respondents, 74%, indicated that they were the breadwinners of their household. The qualifications of respondents were fairly evenly distributed between all the qualifications, with 10.3% of the respondents holding a postgraduate qualification. The job tenure of the respondents was evenly distributed, with 70% of the respondents having five to 29 years' tenure in the public service. Not surprisingly, the respondents' earnings per annum were found to be evenly distributed, with 10.7% and 5.4% falling within the lowest and highest earning percentiles respectively. With regard to their community backgrounds, the respondents were evenly distributed as follows: urban (40.5%), peri-urban (25.2%) and rural (33.9%).

The reason for examining the socio-demographic details of the respondents was to determine the influence thereof on their propensity to unionise.

5.4 DATA COLLECTION

Two types of data were collected: primary and secondary, with the latter collected from previous studies, newspapers, magazines, journals, and online resources. Primary data within the quantitative research paradigm formed the basis for the empirical investigation of this study. Data were collected at the research sites falling within the jurisdiction of the seven public service departments, with the aid of a self-completion questionnaire with a fixed set of alternative answers. Fixed answers ensure uniformity of the responses, which are more easily processed. The completion of the questionnaire took place within the natural working environment of the respondents. With the assistance of the designated contact persons within departments, the questionnaires were distributed to eligible employees via electronic mail. In instances where respondents had limited or no access to electronic mail, like at schools, respondents were issued with printed hard copies of the questionnaire. Once the questionnaires had been completed, they were immediately collected by the researcher from the liaison person(s) at the respective research sites. This was done to maximise the response rate.

It was envisaged that it would take respondents between 20 and 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It was emphasised that participation was voluntary. The respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality, and that their responses would be used for research purposes only. Further, respondents were encouraged to answer all questions, as there were no correct or incorrect answers — the researcher was interested in their opinions.

Data were gathered from a sample in a cross-sectional design, due to financial and time constraints. Saunders *et al.* (2009) recommend a data collection duration of two to six weeks for respondents to complete a questionnaire. In the present study, the respondents were allowed four weeks to complete the self-administered questionnaire. Minor and surmountable data collection obstacles or challenges were encountered. The main challenge was the availability of the liaison persons within the identified departments, due to their demanding duties. This was compounded by reluctance of respondents to participate in the study. These were obviated through persistent communication and

reminders to the liaison persons, together with respondents being urged that their participation was of vital importance to the study.

5.4.1 SURVEY METHOD

The inquiry strategy that was used in the present study was survey research. Survey research involves the structured collection of data from a sizeable population (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 601). It is a practical and confidential way to obtain the necessary information. “Survey research involves acquiring information about one or more groups of people — perhaps about their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous experiences — by asking them questions and tabulating their answers” (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010: 187). Surveys allow the collection of a large amount of data from a sizeable population in an economical manner (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 144). Furthermore, surveys are usually quantitative in nature, and are used to gain a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population (Mouton, 2001: 152).

Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 187) explain that a survey is fairly straightforward in design: the researcher poses certain questions to agreeable respondents, sums up their responses with percentages, frequency counts, or more sophisticated statistical indexes, and then draws conclusions about a particular population from the responses of the sample.

Survey research was deemed the appropriate inquiry strategy for the current study, because the respondents’ could remain anonymous.

5.4.2 PRE-TESTING

Mouton (2001: 55) says questionnaire pre-testing is essential, as it identifies questions that respondents may have difficulty understanding or which they interpret differently from what the researcher intended. The validity and reliability of instruments used for the measurement of variables have been issues of concern to researchers.

- **Validity**

Validity refers to “the extent to which you can generalise the results of a study to other populations” (Struwig and Stead, 2001: 136). Saunders *et al.* (2009), Leedy and Ormrod (2010), and Grosf and Sardy (1985) agree that validity is the extent to which data collection methods measure what they were intended to measure.

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010), external validity refers to generalisability, that is, whether the findings can be generalised across persons, settings, and times. Internal validity refers to the extent to which the instrument allows inferences about the casual relationships between data elements (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). There are various types of internal validity, namely content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity, of which the first two are relevant to the present study.

Content validity was addressed by ensuring that there were adequate questions to comprehensively cover all the relevant aspects identified from the literature review. Construct validity was addressed by means of piloting the questionnaire. This was to ensure that the constructs were clear and unambiguous, and did not result in bias due to phrasing. Due consideration was given to developing and selecting each construct, to add value to the survey and ensure convergence with the literature review.

- **Reliability**

Reliability is “the extent to which test scores are accurate, consistent or stable” (Struwig and Stead, 2001: 130). Reliability can also be defined as the extent to which a data collection technique will yield consistent findings (Saunders *et al.*, 2009: 600). Thus, reliability addresses consistency. An instrument is reliable if its measurements are “consistent and predictable,” as well as “accurate and precise,” or, more specifically, “if the random or error variance of the measurement is small compared to the total variance” (Grosf and Sardy, 1985: 159). The coefficient obtained from the ratio between these two variances reflects the reliability of the measure. The greater the reliability coefficient is, the smaller the standard error of measurement will be. In the present study, before analysing the obtained data, reliability analysis of the questionnaire was carried out.

The initial questionnaire was administered in a pilot study to a small sample of knowledgeable experts and practitioners within the employee relations domain, consisting of four employee relations managers and four shop stewards. With the assistance of my research promoter, the questionnaire was administered to a fellow student within the department. The aim of the pilot study was to determine:

- the time spent on completion;
- the ease with which the instructions were understood;
- the clarity of questions;
- items or dimensions that seemed incomplete;
- the user-friendliness of the questionnaire; and
- any other helpful comments (Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

The initial questionnaire was piloted to determine the appropriateness of the questions and how well these were understood by the respondents. The comments and advice emerging from the pilot test were of great help, and were incorporated in the final questionnaire.

5.5 MEASUREMENT

The questionnaire items were divided into three sections. Each section contained information and/or directions on how to complete that section.

Section A consisted of dichotomous and nominal questions relating to biographical information or socio demographic background (ten items) including, *inter alia*, gender, age, race, educational qualification, family responsibility, marital status, tenure of service, and community background. The questions were closed-ended, and respondents were required to choose a single option. In the main, this section was made up of independent variables.

Section B sought to elicit information regarding the respondents' background as union members (15 items). It contained both independent and dependant variables. The closed-ended items were largely informed by literature and drawn from dimensions of McShane's (1986) Union Participation Scale and the Union Commitment Participation

Scales developed by Gordon *et al.* (1980), Sverke and Kuruvilla (1995), Kelloway *et al.* (1995), and Bagraim (2004). Thus, it is a hybrid of the Scale of Union Commitment (with Cronbach alpha score of .88) and Scale of Union Participation (with a Cronbach alpha score of .80). Amongst others, the questions pertained to the reasons for joining a union and participation in union activities. Other information collected included union effectiveness in resolving workplace-related issues and whether unions should concentrate more on workplace issues and less on politics. In hindsight, Questions 9 and 10 should have had a third option: *Not applicable*.

Section C contained a list of statements regarding the main services that unions provide to their members (34 items), measured on a five-point Likert scale. These were dependant variables. The 34 items were adapted from or styled along those of Parasuraman *et al.* SERVQUAL Model/Scale, and sought to measure various facet of perceived union instrumentality and union satisfaction. This is similar to Fiorito *et al.*'s Facet Discrepancy Model. "The facet discrepancy approach views a member's overall union satisfaction as the weighted sum of discrepancies between expectations and perceived union performance on relevant facets (outcomes) of the representation role" (Jarley, Kuruvilla, and Casteel, 1990: 128). Frenkel and Kuruvilla (1999: 545) note that:

the difference between a member's expectations about union performance in winning wage increases and that member's evaluation of actual union performance constitutes the member's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the union in terms of that facet of representation, i.e. winning wage increases.

Jarley *et al.* (1990) state that, to enhance comparability, they constructed indices measuring the same facets of union satisfaction as those identified by Fiorito *et al.* (1988) The constructed facets are: *Bread-and-butter issues* (focused on satisfaction with union efforts to obtain better wages, fringe benefits, and job security for members), *Member-union relations* (satisfaction with internal union communication, handling of grievances, and the influence of the rank and file on union policy formation and implementation), and *Quality of work life* (the union's ability to compel management to improve the intrinsic value of the work) (Jarley *et al.*, 1990: 129).

The present study used a hybrid scale with *Very satisfied* (5) and *Very dissatisfied* (1) as anchor points. A high score indicated high satisfaction with a service being offered. Respondents had to choose the answer most applicable to them.

Five-point Likert Agreement Scale				
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very satisfied
[] ¹	[] ²	[] ³	[] ⁴	[] ⁵

According to Connolly and Connolly (2005), a five-point Likert scale is the most common scale in attitudinal research, and is widely considered to represent the ‘natural’ number of opinion plateaus or levels. They also discourage the use of an even-numbered scale, such as 4 points or 6, as, without the neutral category, people typically choose the more positive rating.

The 34-items were clustered into seven broad constructs or themes for logical classification and tabulation of data later. The seven categories/constructs were: *Conditions of employment, health, and safety* (three items); *Workplace economic issues* (five items); *Job-related issues* (five items); *Representation in individual matters* (four items); *Legal assistance* (two items); *Education and training* (four items); and *Member services* (11 items).

Hinkin (1998) advises that item development for a questionnaire must adhere to the following guidelines:

- Statements should be concise;
- The language should be appropriate for the audience;
- Items should focus on a single issue
- Items should not be leading questions; and
- Wording should not be negative.

These guidelines were adhered to during the item development phase in the present study.

Hinkin (1998) further advises that the measure should be short and efficient, with four to six items per construct.

For assessment of content validity, Worthington and Whittaker (2006) suggest that items be reviewed by groups of knowledgeable individuals, to ensure that items reflect the content. This process serves as a pre-test. Van der Westhuizen (2008) notes that, having experts review the items can either confirm or invalidate the phenomenon. In the present study experts were consulted during the development phase. The data collection instrument used in this study is attached hereto, marked **Appendix A**.

5.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY ASSESSMENT

SPSS was used to assess both the reliability (consistency) and validity (accuracy of the measure) of the questionnaire. This entailed, amongst others, the generation of descriptive statistics to determine the normal distribution of the questionnaire.

5.6.1 RELIABILITY

An exploratory analysis aimed at assessing validity and reliability was carried out by means of Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach's α) — a measure of internal consistency reliability, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group, which is considered a measure of scale reliability. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2010: 137) describe Cronbach's α as a measure of the internal consistency reliability of the items in a multiple rating scale (sometimes referred to as a *scale reliability coefficient*) that measures the degree to which responses across a set of multiple measures of a construct are consistent (highly correlated) with the generally acceptable level of 0.70. However, it is not a measure of homogeneity or unidimensionality. Cronbach's α ranges from 0.00 to 1.00, with $\alpha = 0.00$ indicating no consistency in measurement and $\alpha = 1.00$ indicating perfect consistency. With the aid of SPSS, Cronbach's α test was computed to measure the internal consistencies of the factors used in the questionnaire. The commonly accepted descriptions of internal consistency are as follows:

Table 9: The Cronbach's α test

Cronbach's α	Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

Source: Mayers (2013: 565)

In the current study, a total of 242 valid cases were analysed, as indicated in Table 10.

Table 10: Case processing summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	242	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	242	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure

Per Table 11, hereunder, the internal validity for the standardized items for the listwise deletion based on all variables (34 items) in the procedure was .975 (= 97.5%). This highlights that the internal reliability for the factors used to measure the variables was good and consistent (that is, the items had relatively high internal consistency). Thus, the reliability coefficient ($\alpha = .975$) for the questionnaire for the perceptions of union members was statistically significant high, and may therefore be interpreted as confirming the reliability of the scale.

Table 11: Overall reliability statistics

Cronbach's α	Cronbach's α Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.975	.975	34

Also computed was the item-total statistics analysis of the items in the questionnaire (also known as the *reliability analysis scale*); the results are presented in Table 12, below. The correlations of Items 1 and 31 are .44 and .33, while all other items correlate at .63 or

better. If either of these two items were to be deleted, the reliability of the scale would be about 0.92. However, based on the obtained results, it was decided that any item deletion was not warranted with a view to increasing the overall reliability of the questionnaire.

Table 12: The results of the item-total statistics analysis

Variable	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-total Correlation	Cronbach's α if Item Deleted
Item 1	7.77	3.338	.436	.915
Item 2	7.71	2.844	.738	.593
Item 3	7.68	2.726	.740	.584
Item 4	7.45	3.394	.753	.813
Item 5	7.49	3.255	.791	.778
Item 6	7.79	3.385	.707	.856
Item 7	3.75	1.559	.654	
Item 8	3.84	1.154	.654	
Item 9	14.63	13.454	.632	.870
Item 10	14.45	13.519	.771	.842
Item 11	14.79	12.712	.767	.838
Item 12	15.10	12.342	.747	.843
Item 13	14.62	12.667	.658	.866
Item 14	11.78	7.187	.737	.827
Item 15	11.70	7.363	.819	.802
Item 16	11.87	7.199	.744	.824
Item 17	12.41	6.775	.630	.882
Item 18	3.09	1.382	.873	
Item 19	3.07	1.447	.873	
Item 20	8.70	12.437	.806	.917
Item 21	8.85	12.173	.846	.904
Item 22	8.99	11.611	.917	.880
Item 23	8.65	11.859	.778	.929
Item 24	36.28	82.068	.714	.938
Item 25	36.19	81.315	.784	.935
Item 26	36.04	82.545	.757	.937
Item 27	35.92	82.908	.772	.936
Item 28	35.95	82.180	.817	.934
Item 29	36.25	80.756	.820	.934
Item 30	36.31	79.444	.859	.932
Item 31	36.70	90.051	.327	.954
Item 32	36.52	83.217	.711	.938
Item 33	36.30	81.090	.864	.932
Item 34	36.15	79.943	.872	.932

5.6.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS

Hatcher (1994) recommends that exploratory factor analysis (EFA) be used when attempting to determine the number and contents of factors measured by an instrument. EFA follows with a three-step method that involves: computing of a matrix of correlations between items; subjecting the correlation matrix to a factor analysis; and deciding on the number of factors (dimensions) to be extracted. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), factor analysis determines the validity of variables, in that the items that make up the variable must converge onto one factor, whilst discriminating against all others.

With the aid of the SPSS, two statistical test were carried out to investigate if the subscales were suitable for factor analysis.

5.6.2.1 Sampling adequacy

The first test was the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA), which examines sample adequacy/sufficiency, which should be greater than 0.7 to proceed with exploratory factor analysis. High values — close to 1.0 — are generally indicative of factor analysis as a useful instrument for data analysis, whilst values of less than 0.5 are not desirable. Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) propose the following guidelines in interpreting the KMO-MSA.

Table 13: Interpretation of the KMO-MSA

KMO-MSA value	Degree of common variance
0.90 – 1.00	Marvellous/Outstanding
0.80 – 0.89	Meritorious
0.70 – 0.79	Middling
0.60 – 0.69	Mediocre
0.50 – 0.59	Miserable
0.00 – 0.49	Unacceptable

5.6.2.2 Sphericity

Sphericity means that the data are uncorrelated. Bartlett's test of sphericity examines the strength of the relationship and/or inter-independency among variables of the scale. It measures the absence (or presence) of correlation between variables. A high chi-square value with a low p -value ($p < 0.0001$) indicates a significant relationship between the items, which, in turn, indicates that the data are suitable for factor analysis (Morgan and Griego, 1998).

Table 14: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.938
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. chi-square	8854.901
	df	595
	Sig.	.000

In the present study, the KMO-MSA was .938, as shown in Table 14, above. The degree of common variance among the 34 variables was "*Marvellous*"; therefore, the sample data set was suitable for factor analysis. The result of Bartlett's test of sphericity was highly significant; its associated probability was $p < 0.001$. Based on the results of the KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test, which showed that the data set was large enough to carry out factor analysis, and the chi-square result (8854.901), the items were highly correlated; thus, the data were suitable for factor analysis.

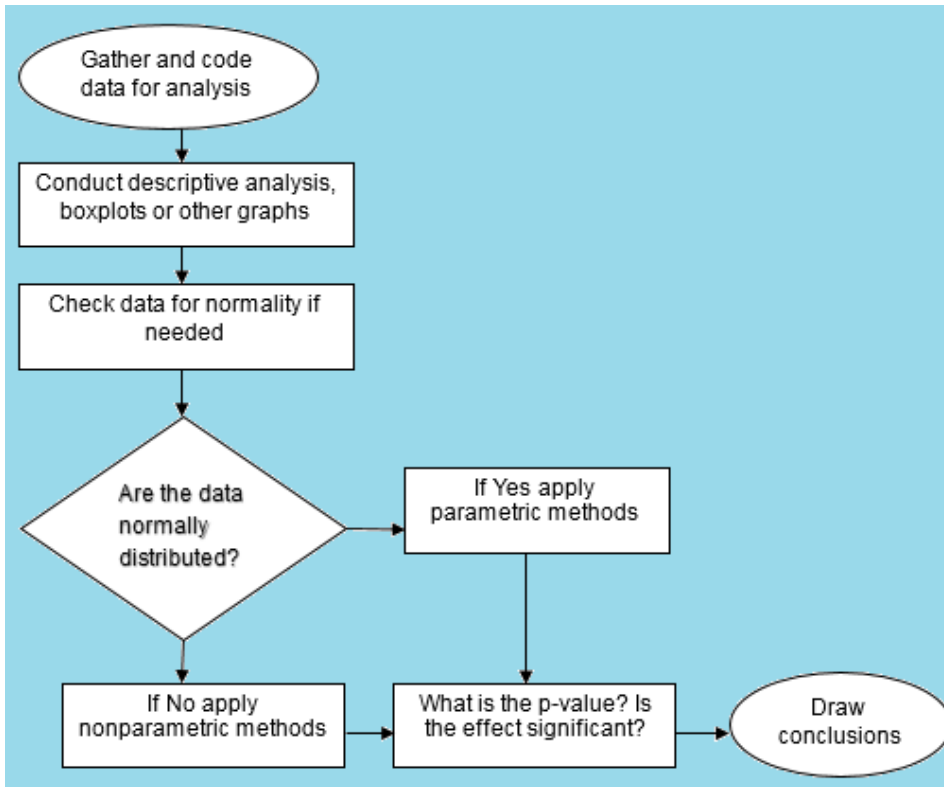
5.7 DATA ANALYSIS

The questionnaires were coded for *ex post facto* analysis. Each question was coded, which made data capturing and processing easy. Once collected, the raw data contained in the questionnaires were processed and stored in a data repository — the researcher's own computer — for further statistical analysis.

Saunders *et al.* (2009: 414) opine that quantitative data in raw form have very little meaning to most people, and that data need to be processed to render useful information. SPSS Statistics 23 was used in the present study to tabulate and statistically process and

convert the raw data into information in the form of descriptive and inferential statistics. The data were processed with the assistance of a qualified statistician. According to Leedy and Ormond (2010: 230), statistics have two major functions, namely to describe what data look like, and to help the researcher to draw inferences from the data.

Figure 12: Data analysis flowchart



5.7.1 NORMALITY TESTS

A test for normality was carried out by visually inspecting the generated histograms. To augment this old-fashioned method, with the aid of the SPSS, data normality was tested by means of skewness (which describes the symmetry of the curve) and kurtosis (which describes the peak of the curve).

5.7.2 STATISTICAL TESTS OF THE ASSUMPTION OF NORMALITY

Again, with the assistance of SPSS, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests were carried out to test assumptions of normality. The normality test hypotheses posit that:

H₀: The observed distribution fits the normal distribution.

H_a: The observed distribution does not fit the normal distribution.

If we accept the **H₀**, we assume normality.

If we reject the **H₀**, we do not assume normality.

5.7.3 INTERPRETING RESULTS

Table 15, below, is the summary of maximum and minimum scores, means, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis for the predictor and criterion variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) state data is normal when the skewness and kurtosis values fall within the range of 2 to -2. The skewness and kurtosis values in the present study fell within the stipulated range; therefore, the variables were found to be normally distributed.

Table 15: Summary of the means, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis

		ESH	EI1	EI2	JI	RIM	LA	ET	MS
N	Valid	242	242	242	242	242	242	240	237
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	5
Mean		3.8609	3.7893	3.7955	3.6802	3.9804	3.0806	2.9323	3.6237
Median		4.0000	3.6667	4.0000	3.6000	4.0000	3.0000	3.0000	3.7273
Std. Deviation		.81899	.88590	1.05674	.88586	.87133	1.15082	1.14226	.90470
Skewness		-0.722	-0.532	-0.461	-0.494	-0.680	-0.100	.080	-0.644
Std. Error of Skewness		.156	.156	.156	.156	.156	.156	.157	.158
Kurtosis		1.153	.255	-.550	.171	-.118	-.542	-.593	.196
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.312	.312	.312	.312	.312	.312	.313	.315
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00

For datasets $n > 2000$ and $n < 2000$, the K-S and S-W tests respectively are used. The current study had a dataset of 242 elements, thus the S-W test was used. In Table 15, it can be seen that:

- *Employment, health and safety (ESH)* had a mean of 3.8609, with a standard deviation of 0.81899; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5;
- *Economic issues (EI1)* had a mean of 3.7893, with a standard deviation of 0.88590; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5;
- *Economic issues (EI2)* had a mean of 3.7955, with a standard deviation of 1.05674; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5;
- *Job-related issues (JI)* had a mean of 3.6802, with a standard deviation of 0.88586; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5;
- *Representation in individual matters (RIM)* had a mean of 3.9804, with a standard deviation of 0.87133; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5;
- *Legal assistance (LA)* had a mean of 3.0806, with a standard deviation of 1.15082; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5;
- *Education and training (ET)* had a mean of 2.9323, with a standard deviation of 1.14226; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5; and
- *Member services (MS)* had a mean of 3.6237, with a standard deviation of 0.90470; individual scores ranged from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 5.

It is evident from the above that *ET*, with the lowest mean score of 2.932, had highest agreement, whilst *ESH*, with the highest mean score of 3.861, had the lowest agreement.

5.8 RESEARCH ETHICS

For any research to be ethically grounded, it must be conducted according to the generally accepted rules of conduct. One of the cardinal rules is that research should not cause harm to subjects. According to Ruane (2005: 17):

Any research activity that harms or poses unreasonable risk to subjects is incompatible with fundamental ethical obligations to safeguard the physical, psychological and emotional well-being of participants and research that carries

the risk of subjects' harm without offering any clear benefits is ethically untenable.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) refer to four categories of ethical issues that need to be considered when undertaking research. These are: protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy, and honesty with professional colleagues. The underpinning research principle of beneficence guided the present researcher, who endeavoured to observe it at all times.

Firstly, this study was ethically cleared by the University Ethics Committee. Informed consent of the respondents was sought. "The principle of informed consent is about the right of individuals to determine for themselves whether or not they want to be part of a research project" (Ruane, 2005: 19). Informed consent refers to the right of research participants to be fully informed about all aspects of a research projects that might influence their decision to participate. Freedom of choice and self-determination are at the heart of the principle of informed consent.

In the present study, the preamble to the questionnaire made respondents aware that their participation was voluntary, and that they could withdraw at any time, without penalty. Further, the respondents were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. All data were handled with utmost confidentiality and without disclosure of the respondents' identity. Regard for anonymity and respect for confidentiality encourage participation and honesty in responses. The Informed Consent Form is hereto attached, marked **Appendix B**.

In addition, prior written permission was sought and obtained from the departments identified as potential research sites. The researcher complied with the conditions set by each department. The letters granting permission by the concerned departments are attached hereto, marked **Appendix C**.

5.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the methods and processes used to execute the study. It provided a description of the research design, the population, the unit of analysis, and the

sampling method. The data collection method was described, including the survey instrument, followed by the analysis methods employed. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the ethical considerations.

In the following chapter, Chapter 6, the results and empirical findings of the study are reported and interpreted.

CHAPTER 6: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

For the scripture says, “Do not muzzle an ox while it is treading out the grain” and “The worker deserves his wages” — 1 Timothy 5: 18 (NIV).

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the empirical findings based on the statistical analyses are presented. These analyses include reliability analyses and descriptive statistics of the demographic characteristics of the sample (utilising frequencies, histograms, bar graphs, and pie charts, and percentages). Instances where percentages do not add-up to 100% are due to missing values.

6.2 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

It is recommended that a new questionnaire be checked for internal reliability or homogeneity. Internal reliability is concerned with the correct clustering of items designed to measure the same constructs. To measure the internal consistency of the measurement used in the present study, reliability analysis was carried out with the aid of the SPSS. McDaniel and Gates (2001: 254) define reliability as “the degree to which measures are free from random error and therefore provide consistent data.” The authors add that a measure shows reliability if it does not show change when the concept measured remains constant. McDaniel and Gates (2001: 255) identify three ways in which reliability may be assessed:

1. test-retest reliability — use the same instrument a second time, under as near the same conditions as possible;
2. equivalent forms reliability — use two instruments that are as similar as possible to measure the same object during the same time period; and
3. internal consistency reliability — compare different samples of items that are used to measure a phenomenon within the same period of time.

6.2.1 DATA REDUCTION: FACTOR ANALYSIS

In the present study, EFA was conducted, using principal axis factoring extraction and promax rotation to determine the (uni)dimensionality of each of the identified seven constructs. In EFA, it is widely accepted that items with factor loadings of less than 0.30 and items with high factor loadings (more than one factor) should be discarded from the model (Yong and Pearce, 2013). It is also accepted that variables that have a large number of low correlation coefficients ($r < \pm.30$) should be removed, as they indicate a lack of patterned relationships. Furthermore, correlations that are above $r = \pm.90$ indicate that the data may have the problem of multicollinearity (Yong and Pearce, 2013: 88). In the present study, the number of factors that accounted for the majority of the variances in the data set was calculated using eigenvalues. The eigenvalue of a factor explains the amount of the total variance in the data set that was represented by that factor. Eigenvalues above 1 were considered significant.

Items for each of the seven constructs were measured and, unless otherwise mentioned, responses were anchored on a five-point scale, ranging from *Very dissatisfied* (1) to *Very satisfied*. A simple principal components analysis was carried out on the following constructs: *Conditions of employment, health, and safety* was measured with three items; *Workplace economic issues* and *Job-related issues* were each measured with five items; *Representation in individual matters* was measured with four items; *Legal assistance* was measured with two items; *Education and training* was measured by four items; and *Member services* was measured by 11 items.

Below is a short discussion of each of the seven constructs that provided the items' factor loading the relevant Cronbach's α for the specific construct measured in the study.

6.2.1.1 **Conditions of employment, health and safety**

As indicated in Table 16, the KMO-MSA was 0.605, which was above the recommended threshold of 0.5, indicating that the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(3) = 347.55$; $p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the three items of *Conditions of employment, health, and safety*, indicating that factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 16: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: *Conditions of employment, health, and safety*

KMO-MSA		.605
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	347.549
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were 0.208 and 0.854 respectively, with all scores above the minimum threshold of 0.3, except Item C1 (“*My union makes sure the workplace is safe and healthy to work in*”). The average of communalities after extraction was 0.632.

As shown in Table 17, the analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct *Conditions of employment, health, and safety*, as the analysis identified only one factor, based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 63.133% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 17: Eigenvalues: *Conditions of employment, health, and safety*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.148	71.611	71.611	1.894	63.133	63.133
2	.695	23.170	94.780			
3	.157	5.220	100.000			

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Conditions of employment, health, and safety	C1	0.456	0.787
	C2	0.913	
	C3	0.924	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Conditions of employment, health, and safety* was 0.787. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

6.2.1.2 Workplace economic issues

As indicated in Table 18, the KMO-MSA was 0.748, which was above the recommended threshold of 0.5, indicating that the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2(10) = 565.33.55; p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the five items of *Workplace economic issues*, indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 18: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: *Workplace economic issues*

KMO-MSA		.758
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	565.334
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were 0.585 and 0.812 respectively, with all scores falling above the minimum threshold 0.3. The average of communalities after extraction was 0.681.

As shown in Table 19, for the construct *Workplace economic issues*, two sub-constructs were generated with Items C4, C5, and C6, which loaded on the first factor, and Items C7 and C8 on another. The analysis did not confirm the unidimensionality of *Workplace economic issues*, as the analysis identified two factors based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 68.144% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 19: Eigenvalues: *Workplace economic issues*

Total Variance Explained							
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.013	60.252	60.252	2.704	54.073	54.073	2.493
2	1.033	20.652	80.904	.704	14.071	68.144	1.937
3	.387	7.748	88.652				
4	.338	6.760	95.411				
5	.229	4.589	100.000				

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Workplace economic issues	C4	0.817	0.869
	C5	0.914	
	C6	0.755	
	C7	0.825	0.786
	C8	0.783	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Workplace economic issues* was 0.869 for the first three items and 0.786 for the last two. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

The reason for the two sub-constructs may be attributed to the fact that the first three items related to core workplace services or benefits that are rendered by unions to members (extrinsic benefits), whilst the last two relate to value-added or 'nice-to-have' services, which are intrinsic.

6.2.1.3 Job-related issues

As indicated in Table 20, the KMO-MSA was 0.828, which was above the threshold of 0.5, indicating that the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(10) = 664.680$; $p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the five items of *Job-related issues*, indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 20: KMO-MSA measure and Bartlett's test: *Job-related issues*

KMO-MSA		.828
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	664.680
	df	10
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were 0.454 and 0.716 respectively, with all scores falling above the minimum threshold 0.3. The average of communalities after extraction was 0.605.

As shown in Table 21, the analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct *Job-related issues*, as the analysis identified only one factor based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 60.505% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 21: Eigenvalues: *Job-related issues*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.404	68.074	68.074	3.025	60.505	60.505
2	.609	12.189	80.263			
3	.469	9.377	89.640			
4	.320	6.402	96.042			
5	.198	3.958	100.000			

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Job-related issues	C9	0.673	0.878
	C10	0.837	
	C11	0.846	
	C12	0.817	
	C13	0.699	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Job-related issues* was found to be 0.878. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

6.2.1.4 ***Representation in individual matters***

As indicated in Table 22, the KMO-MSA was 0.726, which was above the threshold of 0.5, indicating that the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(3) = 640.07$; $p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the four items of *Representation in individual matters*, indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 22: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: *Representation in individual matters*

KMO-MSA		.726
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	640.068
	df	3
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were 0.438 and 0.862 respectively, with all scores falling above the minimum threshold 0.3. The average of communalities after extraction was 0.656.

As shown in Table 23, the analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct *Representation in individual matters*, as the analysis identified only one factor based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 65.588% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 23: Eigenvalues: *Representation in individual matters*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.940	73.505	73.505	2.624	65.588	65.588
2	.619	15.478	88.983			
3	.325	8.116	97.100			
4	.116	2.900	100.000			

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Representation in individual matters	C14	0.846	0.869
	C15	0.928	
	C16	0.779	
	C17	0.662	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Representation in individual matters* was found to be 0.869. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

6.2.1.5 Legal assistance

As indicated in Table 24, the KMO-MSA was 0.500, which was equal to the threshold of 0.5, indicating the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(1) = 343.37$; $p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the two items of *Legal assistance*, indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 24: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: *Legal assistance*

KMO-MSA		.500
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	343.373
	df	1
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were both 0.872, with all scores falling above the minimum threshold 0.3. The average of communalities after extraction was 0.872.

As shown in Table 25, the analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct *Legal assistance*, as the analysis identified only one factor based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 87.182% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 25: Eigenvalues: *Legal assistance*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.873	93.634	93.634	1.744	87.182	87.182
2	.127	6.366	100.000			

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Legal assistance	C18	0.934	0.932
	C19	0.934	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Legal assistance* was found to be 0.932. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

6.2.1.6 *Education and training*

As indicated in Table 26, the KMO-MSA was 0.832, which was above the threshold of 0.5, indicating the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(6) = 832.05$; $p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the four items of *Education and training*, indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 26: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: *Education and training*

KMO-MSA		.832
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	832.046
	df	6
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were 0.652 and 0.950 respectively, with all scores falling above the minimum threshold of 0.3. The average of communalities after extraction was 0.775.

As shown in Table 27, the analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct *Education and training*, as the analysis identified only one factor based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 77.518% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 27: Eigenvalues: *Education and training*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.314	82.841	82.841	3.101	77.518	77.518
2	.345	8.637	91.478			
3	.225	5.635	97.113			
4	.115	2.887	100.000			

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Education and training	C20	0.843	0.929
	C21	0.888	
	C22	0.975	
	C23	0.808	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Education and training* was found to be 0.929. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

6.2.1.7 Member services

As indicated in Table 28, below, the KMO-MSA was 0.925, was above the recommended threshold of 0.5, indicating that the data were sufficient for EFA. Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2(55) = 2353.17$; $p < 0.001$) showed that there were patterned relationships for the 11 items of *Member services*, indicating that a factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 28: KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test: *Member services*

KMO-MSA		.925
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approx. chi-square	2353.168
	df	55
	Sig.	.000

The computed minimum and maximum communalities were 0.114 and 0.815 respectively, with all scores falling above the minimum threshold 0.3, except Item C31 (*“Leaders/Officials are more preoccupied with political issues than workplace issues”*). The average of communalities after extraction was 0.629.

As shown in Table 29, the analysis confirmed the unidimensionality of the construct *Member services*, as the analysis identified only one factor based on the eigenvalue criterion (eigenvalue greater than 1), and the factor explained 62.850% of the cumulative/total test variance.

Table 29: Eigenvalues: *Member services*

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.232	65.748	65.748	6.913	62.850	62.850
2	.917	8.339	74.088			
3	.752	6.833	80.921			
4	.552	5.019	85.940			
5	.348	3.160	89.100			
6	.322	2.929	92.029			
7	.268	2.440	94.470			
8	.207	1.878	96.347			
9	.167	1.522	97.869			
10	.134	1.219	99.088			
11	.100	.912	100.000			

The factor loadings after rotated factor matrix are shown below.

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	Cronbach α
Member services	C24	0.737	0.942
	C25	0.810	
	C26	0.778	
	C27	0.796	
	C28	0.846	
	C29	0.845	
	C30	0.883	
	C31	0.337	
	C32	0.742	
	C33	0.888	
	C34	0.903	

Using Cronbach's α , the internal consistency (reliability) for the scale measuring *Member services* was found to be 0.942. As this value was above the threshold of 0.70, it was deemed satisfactory. Factor-based scores were subsequently calculated as the mean score of the variables included in each factor.

For all seven factors, both the KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test confirmed that the data were suitable for factor analysis. All constructs' item-analysis loaded strongly onto one factor, with the exception of the *Workplace economic issues*, which loaded onto two factors (i.e. it showed the presence of two factors). Also, all seven factors had a Cronbach α coefficient higher than the recommended $\alpha > 0.70$. Pursuant to the inter-item correlation conducted, the results indicated that all the items within a specific construct correlated significantly with each other, meaning that all items had a lot in common. Only one item (Item C31 = 0.337) yielded a factor loading of less than 0.50. Nonetheless, its inconsequentiality meant that this did not affect the internal reliability of the scale. It is safe to conclude that, overall, the factor loading was successful, and that all seven constructs have an acceptable internal consistency reliability. Therefore, the items measured what they were intended to measure.

Overall, the internal reliability coefficient for the entire construct were satisfactory, as all Cronbach α coefficients were higher than 0.7. All the constructs showed a Cronbach α

value of more than 0.7, which indicated that the measurement scales of the constructs were stable and consistent in measuring the constructs.

Thus, it can be concluded that the present study's research instrument was valid, internally consistent, and reliable.

6.2.2 UNIVARIATE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The univariate descriptive statistics for the composite scale scores and individual items in the questionnaire were computed. This was done by calculating the composite score for each of the seven identified constructs. Firstly, the mean of the answers by each respondent across all the items in a scale for each of the seven construct was calculated, followed by the average of these mean scores across all the respondents. The constructs investigated in the present study were all measured using a five-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = *Very dissatisfied* and 5 = *Very satisfied*. Table 30 below depicts the seven constructs of the study and provides the mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*) for each of the scale items.

Table 30: Descriptive statistics for the constructs and items measured in the questionnaire

Constructs and items measured in the study	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Conditions of employment, health and safety (ESH)</i>	242	3.86	0.819
Makes sure the workplace is safe and healthy to work in	242	3.81	1.029
Negotiates for better conditions of service	242	3.87	0.933
Ensures that the employer complies fully with labour legislation	242	3.90	0.970
<i>Workplace economic issues (EI1/Extrinsic)</i>	242	3.80	0.886
Plays an important role in negotiating better wages/salaries	242	3.92	0.978
Strives for longer leave (e.g., annual/sick/maternity)	242	3.88	0.990
Strives for a reduction in working hours	242	3.57	1.017
<i>Workplace economic issues (EI2/Intrinsic)</i>	242	3.80	1.057
Has a funeral benefit scheme for its members	242	3.84	1.074
Negotiates discounts with service providers for its members	242	3.75	1.248
<i>Job-related issues (JI)</i>	242	3.68	0.886
Assists in opposing redundancies/retranchments	242	3.77	1.079



Constructs and items measured in the study	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Protects employees against abuse by management	242	3.95	0.925
Provides workers with a say in management decisions	242	3.61	1.058
Has a say in the implementation of new technologies in the workplace	242	3.30	1.139
Ensures that the recruitment process (appointments/promotions) is fair	242	3.78	1.184
<i>Representation in individual matters (RIM)</i>	242	3.98	0.871
Represents its members during grievance and disciplinary hearings	242	4.14	1.002
Represents its members during dispute resolution at the CCMA/Labour Court	242	4.22	0.896
Provides union-related information on a frequent basis	242	4.05	0.993
Offers personal, family and financial-related advices to its members	242	3.51	1.199
<i>Legal assistance (LA)</i>	242	3.08	1.151
Assists members in drafting a will	242	3.07	1.203
Provides its members with general legal advice	242	3.09	1.176
<i>Education and training (ET)</i>	240	2.93	1.142
Organises in-service training activities (e.g., workshops) for its members	240	3.03	1.222
Offers study bursaries/grants for its members and immediate family members	240	2.88	1.222
Provides personal training and developmental programmes	240	2.74	1.237
Promotes health awareness programmes (e.g., HIV/AIDS)	240	3.08	1.345
<i>Member services (MS)</i>	237	3.62	0.905
Has operating hours and locations convenient to all its members	237	3.58	1.200
Delivers its services promptly	237	3.67	1.158
Keeps its members informed with regard to union activities/meetings/decisions	237	3.82	1.110
Consults its members and gets a mandate with regard to negotiations	237	3.95	1.066
Has members' best interests at heart	237	3.91	1.062
Leaders/Officials are honest, transparent, and accountable to members	237	3.61	1.150
Leaders/Officials have competence and skills to deal with members' issues	237	3.55	1.187
Leaders/Officials are more preoccupied with political issues than workplace issues	237	3.16	1.212
Leaders/Officials perform the service right the first time	237	3.34	1.122
Leaders/Officials are courteous to members	237	3.57	1.078
Leaders/Officials satisfy my expectations	237	3.71	1.140

As mentioned above, in each analysis, the total sample size reported represents the number of usable responses for the analysis in question, out of a possible total of 242 respondents. The sample size ($N = 242$) was consistent across the first five constructs, whilst the sample sizes for the sixth and seventh constructs were $n = 240$ and $n = 237$ respectively. The construct *Representation in individual matters* had the highest total

score ($M = 3.98$; $SD = 0.871$), while the construct *Education and training* had the lowest total score ($M = 2.93$; $SD = 1.142$) as shown in Table 30.

Table 30, also indicates that the mean scores, out of a possible maximum score of 5, are *ESH* ($M = 3.86$); *EI1* ($M = 3.79$); *EI2* ($M = 3.80$); *JI* ($M = 3.63$); *RIM* ($M = 3.98$); *LI* ($M = 3.08$); *ET* ($M = 2.93$), and *MS* ($M = 3.62$), showing that there was a positive trend in all constructs in the sample groups.

6.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 30) state that descriptive statistics sum up the broad nature of the data; for example, how certain measured characteristics are “on average,” how much variability exists among different pieces of data, how strongly two or more features are interrelated, and so forth. Struwig and Stead (2004: 158) state that descriptive statistics provides summaries of data, and the purpose of these statistics is to give an overall, coherent, and clear picture of a large amount of data.

In this section, the quantitative data that were collected by means of the self-administered questionnaire are graphically displayed, followed by a concise description and discussion. The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The sections are discussed in the order in which these were in the questionnaire.

6.3.1 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Section A of the questionnaire comprised questions that sought to elicit information regarding the biographical background and demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. The results provided are based on the responses of 242 respondents. The characteristics are delineated into demographic characteristics (personal factors or individual characteristics) and socio-economic characteristics (job-related factors or job characteristics). Personal factors are, race, age, gender/sex, education, marital status, family responsibility (breadwinner and number of dependants),

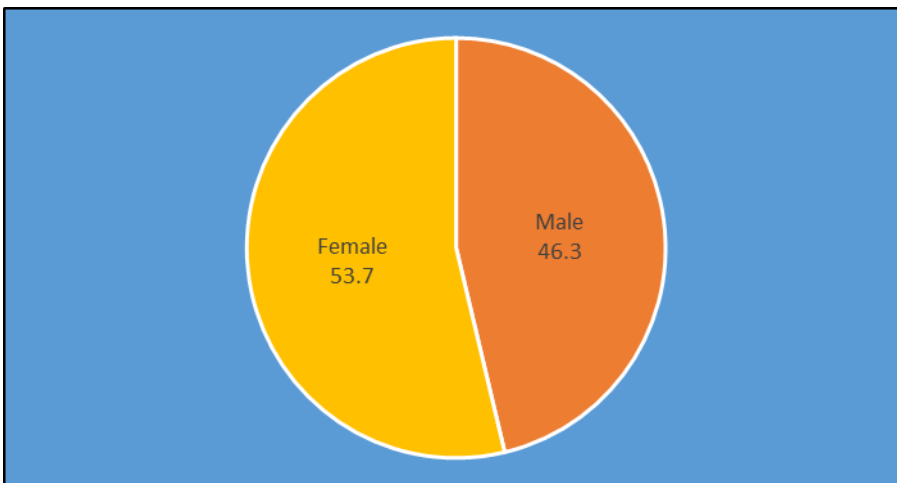
and community background. Job-related factors were job tenure and salary. Following hereunder is the collated demographic characteristics of the sample.

6.3.1.1 Gender distribution of respondents

For the purpose of this study, the collated data on gender of the respondents was deemed important for evaluating gender dynamics and -mainstreaming in the trade union movement. Further, this aspect of the study was important in exploring if there was a causal link between gender and union participation behaviour. This was an independent categorical variable — respondents were either female or male. From the descriptive analysis of the 242 respondents who responded to the question about gender, it was found that 53.7% ($n = 130$) were female, whereas 46.3% ($n = 112$) were male. The gender distribution of respondents is presented in Figure 13, which shows that the unionisation of female employees in relation to their male counterparts is high. These figures were disproportionate, as Statistics South Africa pegs the overall trade union density at about 29%, with 31.2% men and 26.3% women.

The fact that the majority of respondents were women did not surprise, as, in South Africa, in the trade union movement, like in most organisations (for example, churches), women are the majority, but have a ‘male face.’ Notwithstanding that there were more female than male respondents (7%), it can be said that the difference between the men’s and the women’s union representation was insignificant.

Figure 13: Gender distribution of respondents



This implies that women are increasingly joining unions and participating in union activities. This could be attributed to the conscious and deliberate gender mainstreaming and/or affirmative action programmes undertaken in the public service. It could also be ascribed to the number of women who are forsaking the traditional role of being homemakers and entering the labour market as breadwinners for their households. This is in accordance with the findings of Newton and Shore (1992), who observe that women are more committed to their union than their male counterparts, because they perceive unions as being instrumental in satisfying their demands. Sinclair (1996) notes that, notwithstanding a significant growth in women's representation in unions since the early 1960s, unfortunately, women's level of union participation has not increased in proportion to their union membership. Sinclair (1996) says this could largely be attributed to women's status in the workplace and the entrenched union culture, which discourages women from taking part in union activities. The author, however, contends that not much should be read into the feminisation of the labour movement. This view is supported by Olney (1996: 15), who says that, "unionisation among women tends to be considerably lower than among men, although surveys have indicated that '[w]omen express greater propensity to unionise than do more unionised men.'".

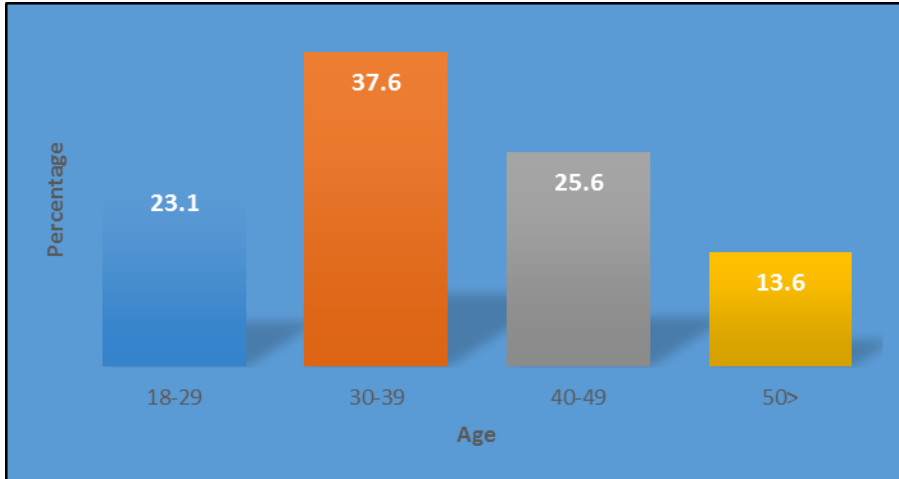
According to Olney (1996), women are now often a specific target for recruitment by unions, thus raising new union issues. According to Schnabel and Wagner (as cited in Toubøl and Jensen, 2014), when women work in the public sector, they often have a higher propensity to become a member of a trade union than men. However, Toubøl and Jensen (2014) state that the observed higher recruitment rate of women in the public sector might be due to the high proportion of women, and not due to any specific public sector characteristic.

The recognition that women have particular needs that must be reflected in union bargaining policies and recruitment strategies has become important for the survival of some unions (Olney, 1996: 16). Some of the issues that must be dealt with because of their specific impact on women are, *inter alia*, underrepresentation in higher-grade jobs, precarious contracts, social security benefits (e.g., longer, paid maternity leave), discrimination, sexual harassment, and the fact that they continue to bear the majority of household and caring responsibilities (Olney, 1996: 16).

6.3.1.2 Age distribution of respondents

This was a categorical variable, in that the respondents were required to indicate, in one of four categories, the age range within which they fell.

Figure 14: Age distribution of respondents



The age distribution was calculated with the aim to confirm or to debunk the notion that young employees are not attracted to or interested in trade unionism. The age distribution of the union respondents who participated in the present study is depicted in Figure 14.

In this study, the definition of a youth or a young employee in terms of age was the one customarily used by Statistics South Africa. The concept *youth* is regarded to mean persons within the age range of 15 to 35 years. For the purpose of this study, three age categories were used, namely 29 years or younger, 30 to 39 years, and older than 39 years.

Approximately two-thirds (60.7%) of the respondents in this study fell within the age category 18–39 years. Thus, contrary to popular opinion, union membership of older employees was meagre, compared to that of young employees, whose union membership uptake is on the rise. This begs the question whether the ‘millennialisation’ of the trade union movement translates into a changed institutional character and memory erosion.

According to Olney (1996):

A number of the confederations have expressed concerns that unions are losing members among young people. If youths are disenchanted with unions upon entering the workforce, the likelihood is that they will not join the union in their careers. The trade union movement can have no future if it cannot rely on the youths of today to provide them with support for tomorrow (1996: 25-26).

It is contended that unions generally have a poor image in the eyes of young people, and that they are difficult to recruit because they view a trade union as a hierarchical establishment run by middle-aged men (Olney, 1996). This assertion is supported by Toubøl and Jensen (2014), who say that, when taking a look at the membership profile of trade unions, younger employees generally seem to be less frequently unionised than older ones. According to Olney (1996: 28), “the importance of youth recruitment and retention in the union has become a focal point of union concern, precipitating the implementation of numerous initiative.” This sentiment is shared by Lebohang Khumalo, who describes herself as an avid participant in the Young Workers Structures within COSATU, when she says:

Many young workers are reluctant to join trade unions and most trade unions have not done much to organise young entrants into the labour market and have failed to retain those already in existence. Most young workers are not given enough space to function within unions, yet there are no young workers’ forums to address specific issues relating to young workers. There is a lot of gate-keeping, especially from long serving leaders who often fear for their positions. It is important that trade unions recognise young workers as they are the future leaders of the trade union movement (2016: 42).

Toubøl and Jensen (2014), with regard to age, state that they have observed that younger people are more likely than older ones to join a union. They further say that, “this is as expected, as most people enter the labour market at a young age and are faced with the decision of whether or not to join a union. In addition, if you do not choose to join a union early on in your career, the probability of changing this decision as you grow older is low” (Toubøl and Jensen, 2014: 150). The authors add the following:

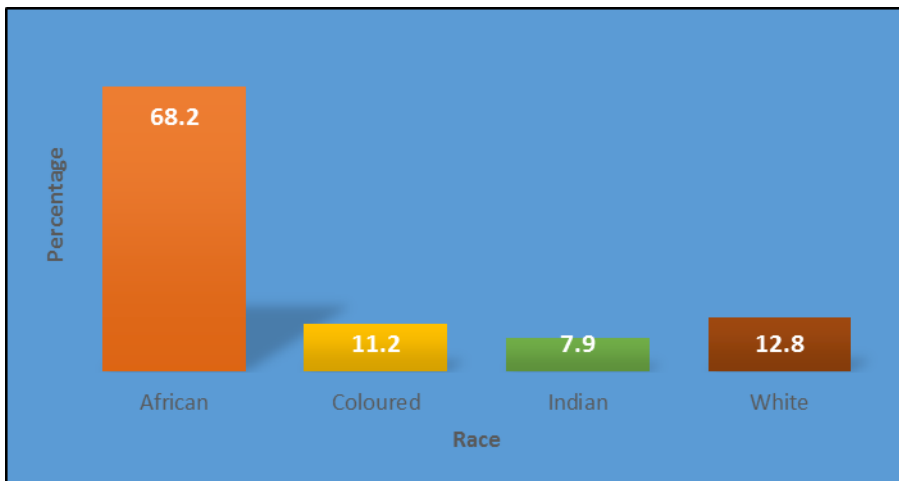
‘In general, the relation between age and unionisation is expected to be concave: membership tends to be low among younger workers, increases with age and falls when employees exit from work’... However, despite the overall union density being lower among young employees, we would expect the event

of joining a union to be more frequent among young employees than older ones because people are faced with the decision whether or not to join a union when young and entering the labour market (Toubøl and Jensen, 2014: 146).

6.3.1.3 Racial distribution of respondents

The respondents were asked how they defined themselves in terms of race by indicating one of four racial categories. The racial profile of the respondents was imperative for comparative analysis of the role that race plays in an individual's decision to join a trade union. The responses are depicted in Figure 15, below.

Figure 15: Racial distribution of respondents



The majority of the respondents were black Africans (68.2%) of the respondents, whilst the remaining respondents were distributed as follows: 12.8% white, 11.2% Indian, and 7.9% Coloured. These distributions are in accord with both the national population statistics and the comparative labour market figures of the economically active population (EAP), as shown in Table 31, below, and reflect the concerted efforts to change the racial profile of the public service through affirmative action measures.

Table 31: National population distribution and EAP

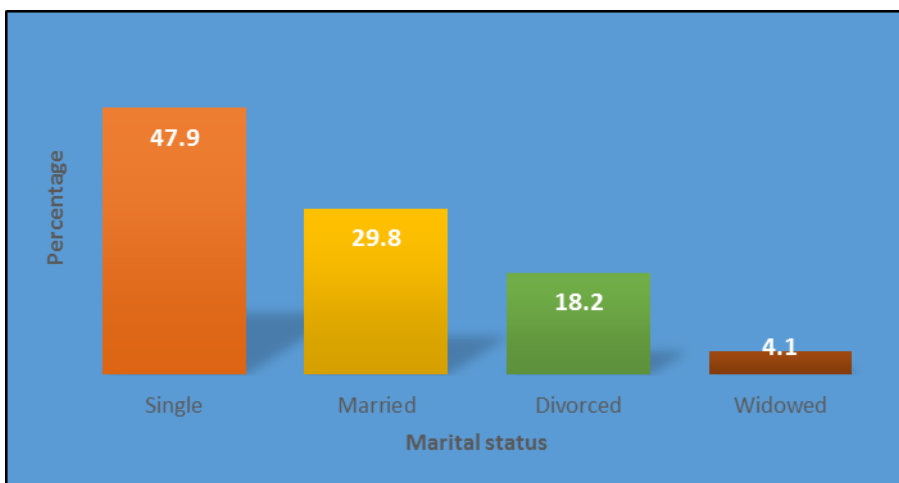
	National mid-year population estimates (2014)			National Economically Active Population (2015)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Black African	39.2%	41.0%	80.2%	42.1%	35.3%	77.4%
Coloured	4.3%	4.6%	8.9%	5.4%	4.6%	10.0%
Indian	1.3%	1.2%	2.5%	1.7%	1.0%	2.7%
White	4.1%	4.3%	8.4	5.6%	4.3%	9.9%
Total	48.8%	51.2%	100%	54.8%	45.2%	100.0%

6.3.1.4 Marital status distribution of respondents

This was a categorical variable aimed at establishing the marital status of the respondents by asking them to indicate one of four categories. The aim of this question was to establish if marital status had any bearing on union-joining.

The responses, shown in Figure 16, below, were as follows: 47.9% were single, 29.8% were married, 18.2% were divorced, and 4.1% were widowed. That most of the respondents were single was not surprising, as it may be regarded as a reflection of the public service embracing and prioritising the employment of young people.

Figure 16: Marital status distribution of respondents

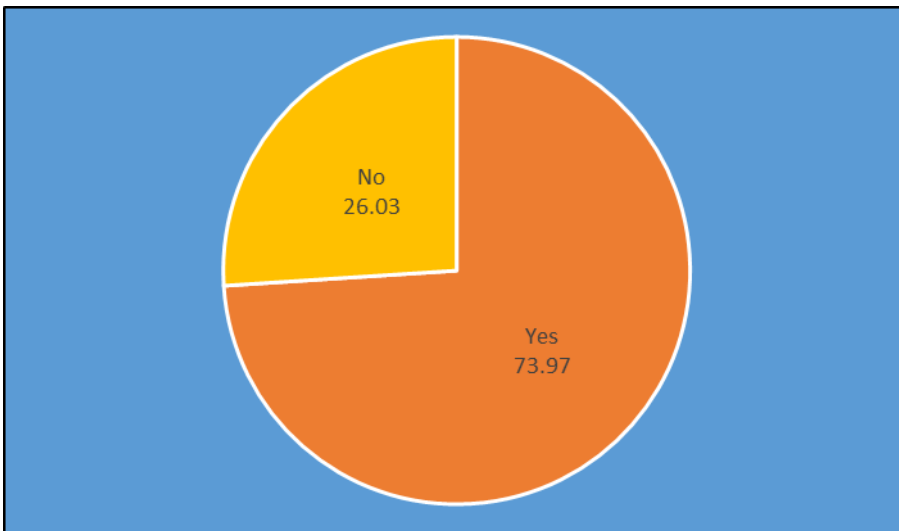


It should, however, be noted that the present study concerned itself with employees occupying salary levels 1 to 12, with most of these being entry-level and non-managerial positions. Thus, it is not surprising that the majority of the respondents who participated in this study were single and may be categorised as young adults (youths).

6.3.1.5 Distribution with respect to whether respondents were the breadwinners

This question sought to establish the family responsibility of the respondents by asking them to indicate whether they were breadwinners in their respective households. For the purpose of this study, a breadwinner is a person who earns money to support a family. The respondents had to indicate whether they were breadwinners by choosing “Yes” or “No.” The aim with this question was to establish whether there was a correlation between being a breadwinner and an affinity for trade unionism.

Figure 17: Distribution w.r.t.³ whether the respondents were the breadwinners



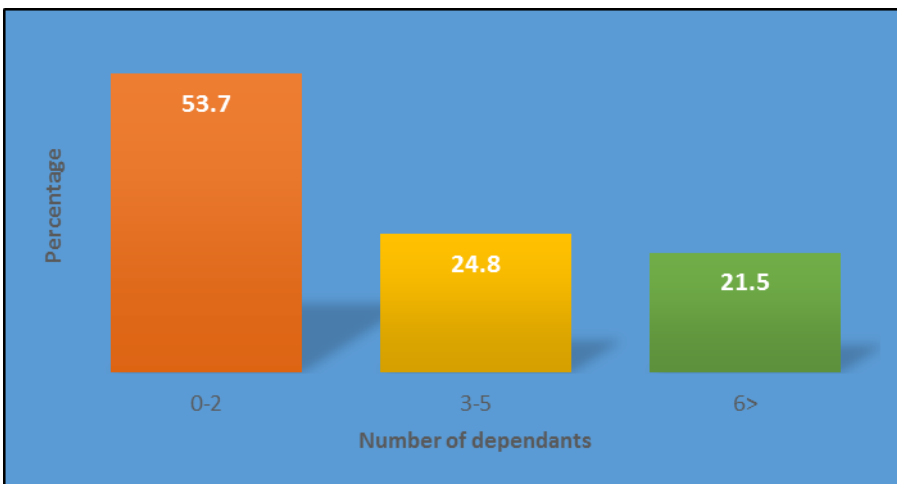
The overwhelming majority (73.97%) of the respondents who responded to this question indicated that they were the breadwinners of their households, compared to only 26.03% who indicated otherwise. This is shown in Figure 17, above. Given the prevailing labour market conditions and socio-economic climate, characterised by unemployment and underemployment, the results are not surprising. The upward trend of single-income families is a characteristic of many a household in South Africa.

³ With regard to

6.3.1.6 Distribution with respect to number of dependants

The respondents were asked to indicate their family responsibility in as far as the number of people who depend solely on them for their livelihood. For purposes of this study, *household dependants* means all household members who live under the same roof as the respondent. This aspect of economic dependency was critical, as it indicated the ability to save money for the future while meeting immediate financial obligations. The majority (53.7%) of the respondents indicated that they had 0–2 dependants, 24.8% indicated that they had 3–5, whilst 21.5% indicated that they had six or more dependants. Figure 18 depicts the distribution of the respondents’ number of dependants.

Figure 18: Respondents w.r.t. number of dependants

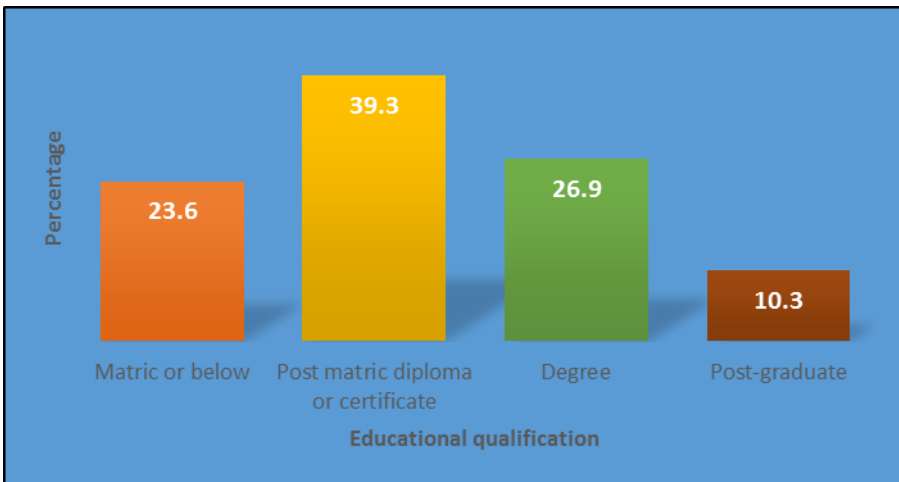


6.3.1.7 Respondents with respect to their highest educational qualifications

Respondents were asked to indicate their highest educational qualifications in one of four categories. This question sought to establish if educational attainment played any significant role employees deciding to join a trade union.

The general perception is that employees who are highly qualified have greater leverage when bargaining on their own, rather than as part of a collective. Of the respondents in the present study, 23.6% had attainment matric or below; 39.3% held a post-matric diploma or certificate; 26.9% held a three-year degree, and 10.3% in were possession of a postgraduate qualification. This is shown in Figure 19, below.

Figure 19: Respondents w.r.t. level of education

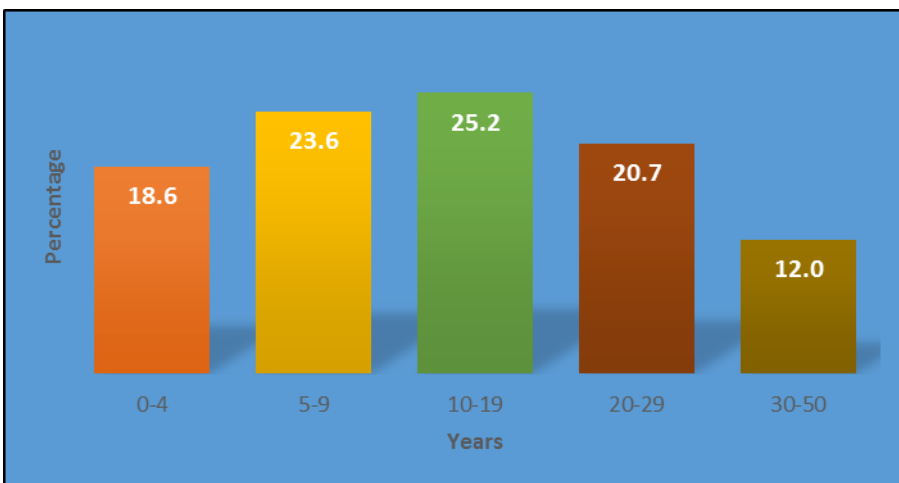


Toubøl and Jensen (2014) postulate that education and occupational position can also be expected to influence the likelihood of an employee being a member of a trade union. It would be expected that employees with a high level of education would most likely be disinclined to become union members, compared to those with a low level of education.

6.3.1.8 Respondents with respect to job tenure

In this study, tenure is the length of time (measured in years) that employees have been with their current employer. This was treated as a categorical variable, in that respondents were asked to tick the appropriate category to indicate the appropriate number of years employed in the public service.

Figure 20: Respondents w.r.t. job tenure



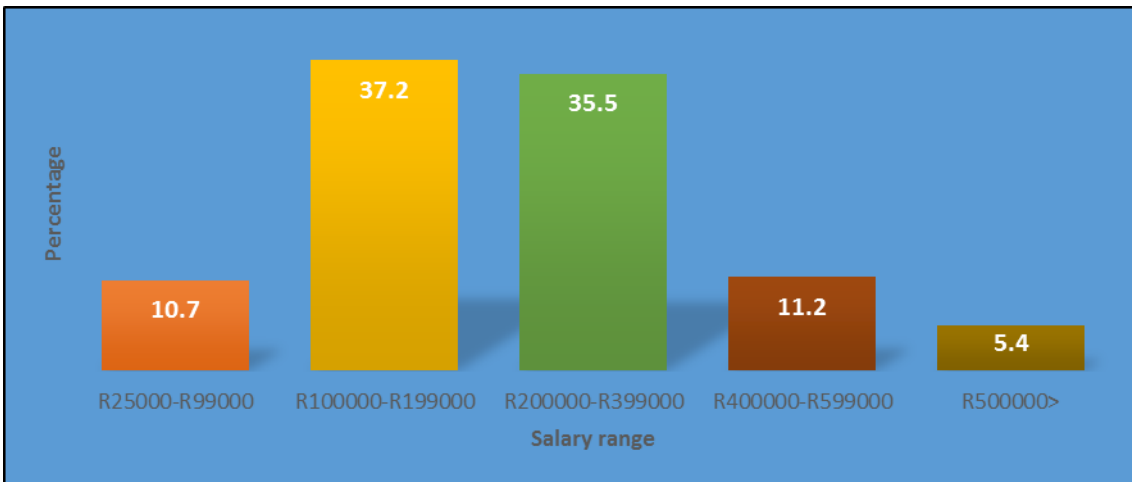
The aim with this item was to establish if there was a link between job tenure and union membership. Figure 20, above, shows the distribution of the respondents with respect to the job tenure. For purpose of this study, job tenure was delineated into three categories, namely formative years (defined as 0–9 years), intermediate years (defined as 10–19 years), and advanced years (defined as 20 years or more). More than two-thirds (67.4%) of the respondents fell within the formative years (42.2%) and intermediate years (25.2%) categories, whilst about 32.7% fell within the advanced years category — twenty years' tenure or more. According to Statistics South Africa, “job tenure is an important indicator of the flexibility in the labour market, with higher job tenure normally associated with older workers, managerial positions as well as union membership” (2014: 29).

6.3.1.9 Respondents' earnings distribution

The respondents were asked to indicate their salary range by choosing the category within which their gross income per annum fell. The aim was to perform a comparative analysis of the union membership of high-income, medium-income, and low-income. One of the reasons employees join unions is to increase their earnings. The respondents were asked to indicate their salary notch range by choosing one of five options. For ease of reporting, the earnings distribution is collapsed into three categories, namely low income (defined as earnings of R 25 000–R 199 000), medium income (defined as earnings of R200 000–R 399 000), and high income (defined as R 400 000 and over). The respondents who responded to this question indicated their earnings as follows: 47.9% were in the low earnings category, 35.5% were in the medium earnings category, and 16.6% were in the high earnings category. Figure 21, below, shows the distribution of the respondents' annual earnings.

The general perception is that employees who earn less are more likely to join a union than those who earn more. According to Toubøl and Jensen (2014), the higher a person's income is, the lower the likelihood of joining a union will be, which is in line with the findings of other studies of union membership.

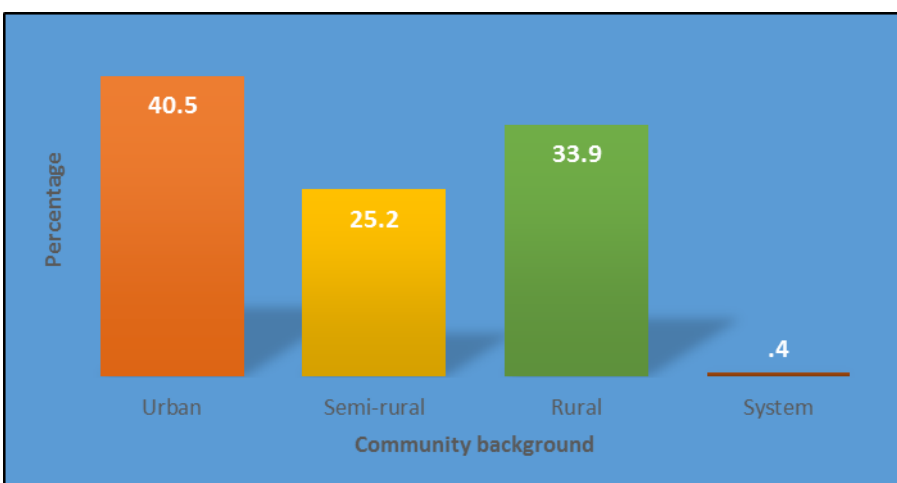
Figure 21: Respondents' earnings distribution



6.3.1.10 Community background

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of area in which they were brought up, the aim being to establish if social or community background plays a role in employees joining a union. The three variable categories that respondents had to choose from were: urban, peri-urban, and rural. The general perception is that people who grew up in rural areas are less likely to join a union, due to their lack of exposure to trade union activism, whilst their urban counterparts are likely to exhibit a radical posture. Thus, a comparative analysis in this regard was deemed necessary.

Figure 22: Respondents' community background distribution



Of the 241 respondents who responded to this question, 40.5% indicated that they were born and raised in an urban area, in comparison to 25.2% and 33.9% who indicated their

community background or upbringing as semi-urban and rural respectively, as shown in Figure 22.

One respondent (0.4%) did not respond to the question. The marginal differences in the number of respondents' from the different backgrounds make it clear that this is inconsequential. This is contrary to the popular notion that employees from urban areas are politically enlightened and, as such, are more likely to become union members.

6.3.1.11 Summarised descriptive data: Biographical characteristics

According to Ebbinghaus *et al.* (2011), trade union membership is affected by individual characteristics such as age, gender, political orientation, and education. For example, they found that highly skilled and better educated individuals possess higher individual bargaining power and are more aligned to management. Therefore, highly skilled and better educated individuals are less inclined to join a trade union than their lesser educated colleagues. This finding is supported by D'Art and Tuner (2008), who posit that employees in higher-levels occupations with job autonomy and higher levels of remuneration are less likely to join a trade union. Pernicka and Lücking (2012: 580) assert that knowledge workers are assumed to draw on their primary and structural power, rather than on associational power (such as provided by trade unions or professional associations) to further their interests. However, it is contended by Pernicka and Reichel (2014: 238) that a common explanation for an increase in trade union membership or propensity to join a trade union amongst white-collar or highly skilled workers is due to proletarianisation and deprofessionalisation of labour, formalisation, bureaucracy, and division of professional work by employers.

To a larger extent, the findings of the present study regarding the biographical characteristics of the respondents are in line with those of previous studies. Klandermans (1986) states that demographic factors such as age, seniority, education, and race account for little of the variance in union commitment. According to Statistics South Africa⁴, younger and less educated workers are more likely to change jobs, and belonging

⁴ Labour Market Dynamics in South Africa, 2014

to a trade union and being employed on a permanent basis significantly increases the chances of their remaining with an employer.

A study carried out by McShane (1986) established that education, age, and employment status relate to participation in administrative union activities. Kelloway and Barling (1993) contend that union participation shows a significant correlation with union tenure, as opposed to age and education. Overall, the literature indicates that vulnerable employees form a disproportionate percentage of trade union membership.

6.3.2 BACKGROUND OF SAMPLE'S UNION MEMBERSHIP

Section B of the questionnaire comprised questions that sought to elicit background information regarding trade union activism of the respondents. Following hereunder is the collated trade union activism background information of the sample.

6.3.2.1 Union membership

Respondents were asked to indicate to which trade union they belonged by choosing either NEHAWU, PSA, or SADTU. Of the respondents, the majority were members of the PSA (41.7%); 31.8% and 26.4% were members of NEHAWU and SADTU respectively.

Figure 23: Union membership distribution

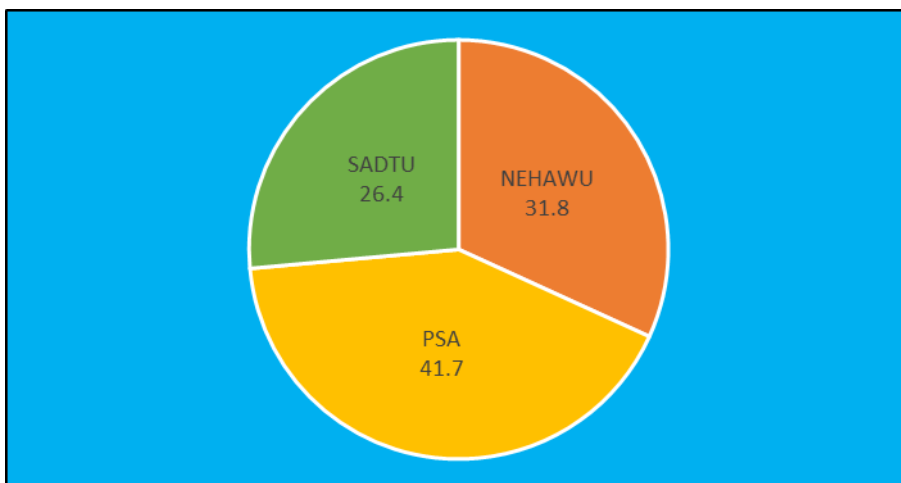
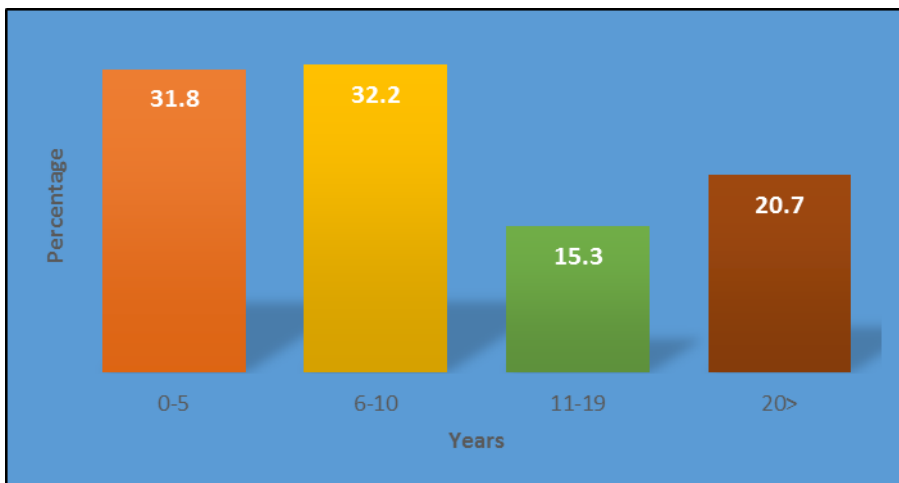


Figure 23, above, shows the distribution of respondents with respect to their union membership. It should be noted that membership of NEHAWU and SADTU, which are COSATU affiliates, collectively account for 58.2% of the respondents' membership. This, therefore, affirms COSATU as the dominant trade union federation.

6.3.2.2 Union membership tenure

Union membership tenure was a categorical variable; respondents were required to choose the appropriate category indicative of their union membership tenure. Figure 24, below, shows the distribution of respondents with respect to years of union membership.

Figure 24: Union membership tenure distribution



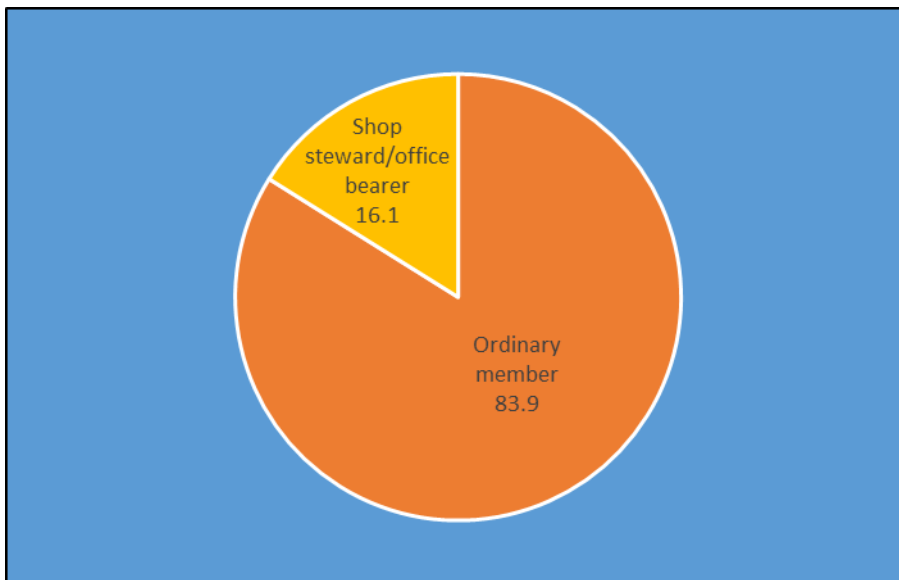
For purposes of reporting, union membership tenure is categorised as follows: junior (defined as 0–10 years), senior (defined as 11–19 years), and stalwart (defined as 20 years and more). Of the respondents, 64.1% fell within the junior membership category (0–10 years of membership), compared to 15.3% who were categorised as senior members. The remaining 20.7% were stalwarts (membership for 20 years or more). Approximately 80% of the respondents had less than 20 years of union membership, compared to 20.7% who were stalwarts. This was not surprising, as it is expected that, in organisations such as unions, core membership will consist of a small group of oligarchs with whom both the historical and institutional memory vest by virtue of the length of their association.

Tetrick, Shore, McClurg, and Vanderberg (2007), in their study, found that union tenure is not significantly related to either union support or union loyalty; that is, union tenure is negatively related to instrumentality. This is confirmed by Griffin and Svensen (1996), who also found that union tenure is not significantly associated with union satisfaction.

6.3.2.3 Union membership status

Respondents were requested to indicate their current union membership status by selecting between being an ordinary union member and holding a union position — shop steward or office bearer. Most (83.9%) indicated that they were ordinary union members, with 16.1% holding a position in a union, as shown in Figure 25, below.

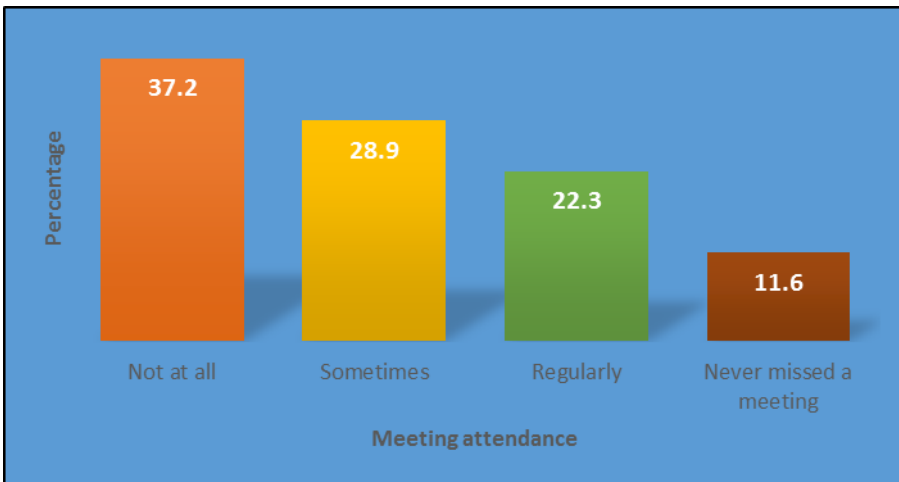
Figure 25: Union membership status distribution



6.3.2.4 Union meeting attendance

This question sought to establish the rate of attendance of formal union meetings by the respondents. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they had attended union meetings during the previous 12 months. Figure 26, below, shows the responses. Of the respondents, 37.2% indicated that they had not attended meetings at all, 28.9% indicated that they had sometimes attended meetings, 22.3% indicated that they had regularly attended meetings, and 11.6% indicated that they had never missed a meeting.

Figure 26: Union meeting attendance

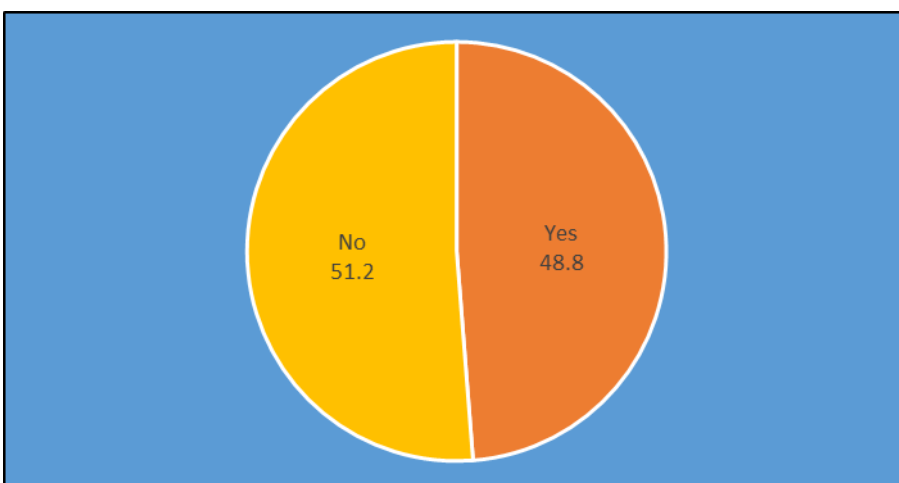


That as many as 37.2% of the respondents had not attended a union meeting during the previous 12 months is cause for concern for unions, as this has a direct bearing on union members' levels of participation and commitment.

6.3.2.5 Participation in union elections

Respondents were prompted to indicate whether they had voted in the last election to elect officer bearers. As depicted in Figure 27, below, of the respondents, 51.2% said they had not voted in the last election, compared to 48.8% who affirmed that they had.

Figure 27: Participation in union elections



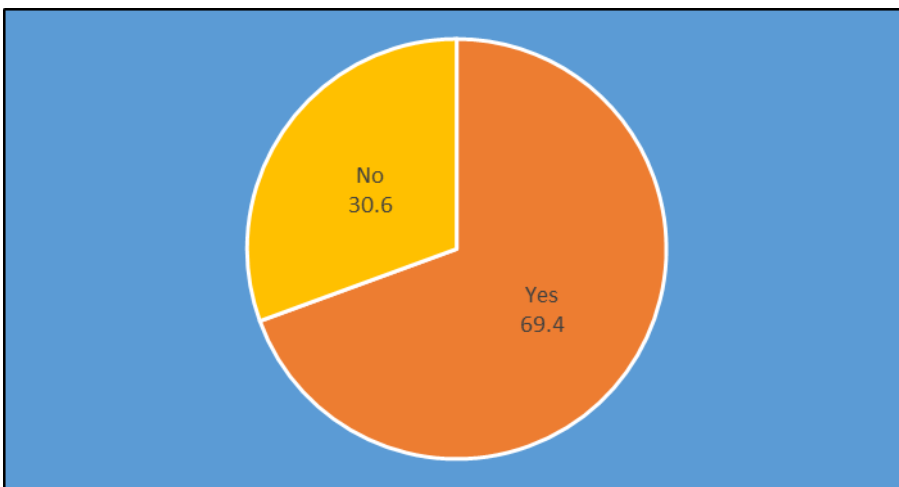
Notwithstanding that there is a small difference between those who voted and those who did not, it should be of concern to unions that over 50% of their respondents were not

participating in union elections, which are critical to the functioning of unions. The fact that over 50% of respondents had not taken part in electing offices bearers should be a cause for concern for unions.

6.3.2.6 Reading union material

As shown in Figure 28, below, 69.4% of the respondents claimed that they regularly read union material, compared to 30.6% who indicated otherwise.

Figure 28: Reading union material



Union material could be in the form of newsletter, literature, or pamphlets containing information that is worth noting by union members. Unions should take advantage of social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter to communicate with their members. For union members to be up to date with developments within the union, it is imperative that they endeavour to regularly read union material.

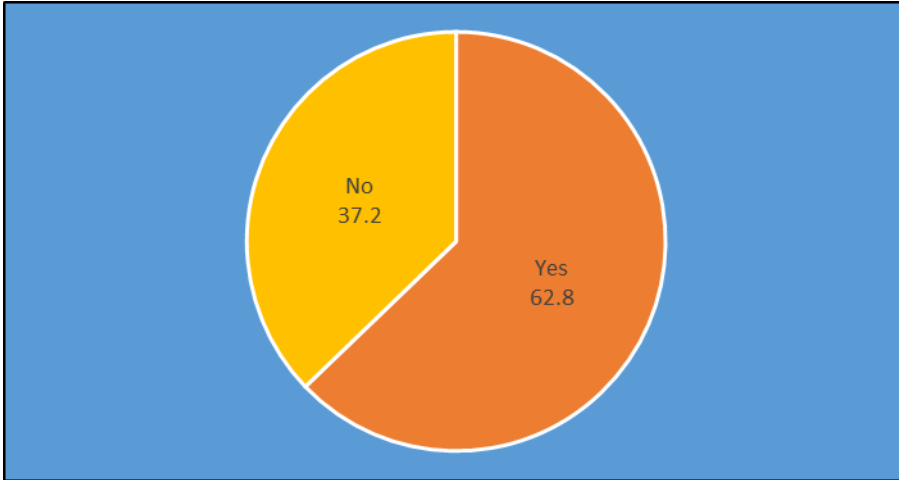
Given the high percentage of union members who claimed to regularly read union material, unions should take advantage of this and ensure effective communication platforms and strategies.

6.3.2.7 Participation in union activities

Respondents were asked if they participated in important union-initiated activities, such as strikes. Of those who responded, the majority (62.8%) indicated that they participated in

important union activities, whilst 37.2% stated that they did not. The responses are shown in Figure 29, below.

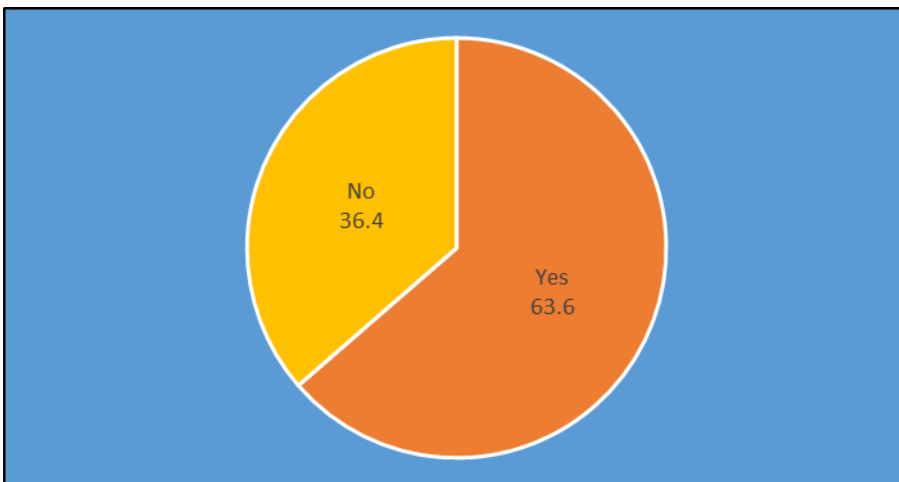
Figure 29: Participation in union activities



6.3.2.8 Union subscription fees

The aim was to ascertain if respondents were satisfied with the amount of the monthly subscription they had to pay. Respondents were asked if they deemed the monthly subscription fees exacted by their unions to be fair, referring to affordability and/or value for money. As shown in Figure 30, below, 63.6% of the respondents who responded to the question were of the opinion that the monthly subscription fees were fair.

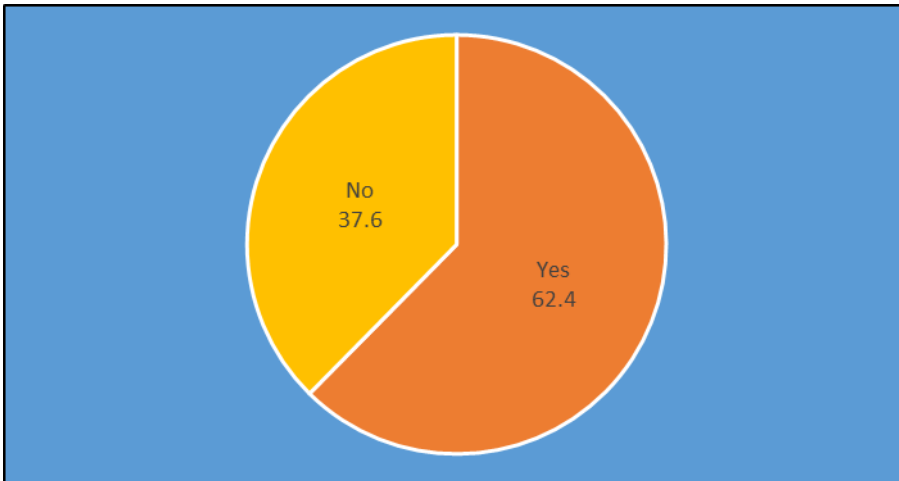
Figure 30: Fairness of monthly subscription fees



6.3.2.9 Effect of familial background

This question sought to establish if the respondents were first-generation union members in their families and, as such, had not in any manner been influenced to join a union by the fact that trade unionism was entrenched in their family history. The question sought to establish what effect a familial background of unionism had upon workers' decision to join unions. Per Figure 31, below, 62.4% answered in the affirmative, indicating that their parents were or had once been union members. This is a clear indication that trade unionism is historically embedded in families' culture and traditions. Those respondents who indicated that they were first-generation union members in their families amounted to 37.6%.

Figure 31: Familial background regarding unionism

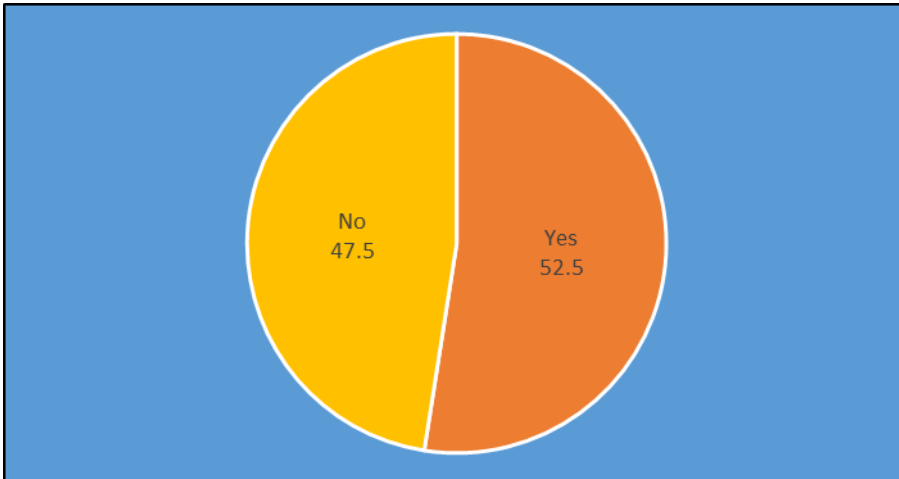


Barling, Fullagar, and Kelloway's (1992) research suggests that family socialisation exerts a direct influence on the formation of job-related work beliefs, including one's attitude to union membership. The findings of the present study find resonate with those of the studies carried out by, amongst others, Barling *et al.* (1992), who suggest that parental participation in union activities is positively related to individuals' perception of their parents' attitude towards unions, and that these parental attitudes are positively related to individuals' own attitudes in this regard.

6.3.2.10 Union membership of spouse or partner

Respondents were asked to indicate if their spouses or partners were members of a union.

Figure 32: Union membership of spouse/partner

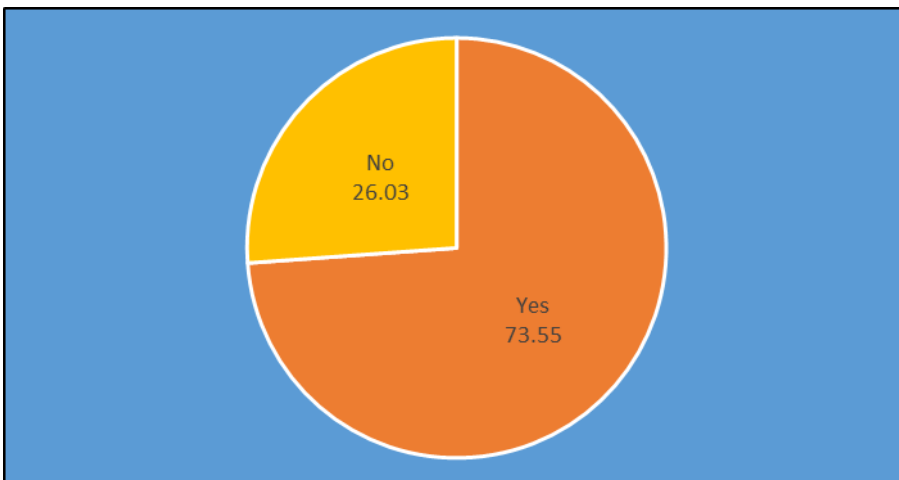


Of the respondents, 52.5% claimed that their spouses or partners were members of a union. The results (as depicted in Figure 32, above) suggest that there was no statistically significant difference between those whose spouses or partners were union members and those whose spouses or partners were not.

6.3.2.11 Approval of union membership and related activities

Respondents were asked if their spouses or partners approved of their union membership and related activities. The responses are shown in Figure 33, below. The majority (73.55%) indicated that they had the approval of their significant others, compared to 26.03% who indicated that they did not.

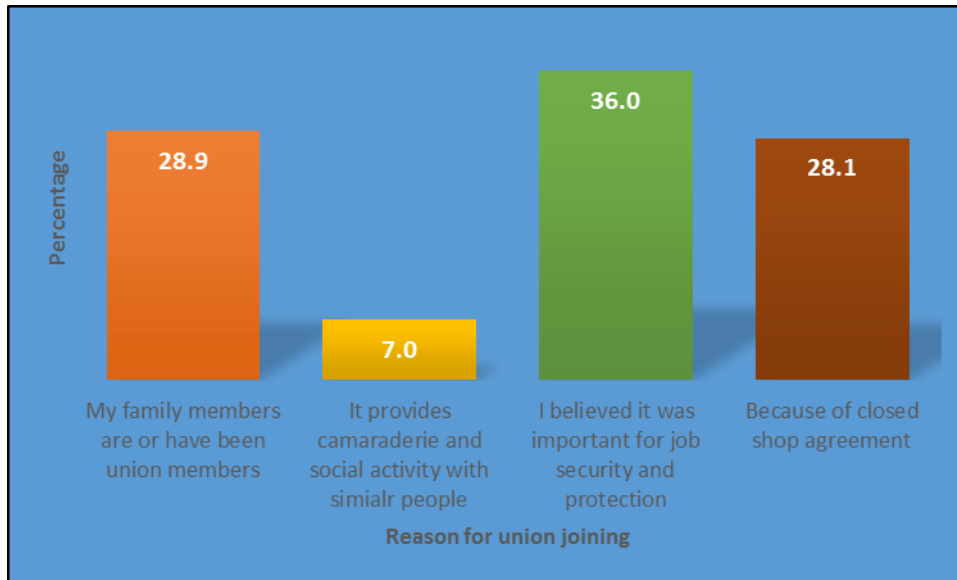
Figure 33: Spouses' approval of union membership and related activities



6.3.2.12 Reason for joining a union

Respondents were asked why they had joined a union. They were presented with a list of four possible reasons, from which they had to choose one.

Figure 34: Reason for joining a union



Per Figure 34, of the respondents, 28.9% indicated “*My family members are or have been union members*” (ideological reason) as the reason why they joined a union; 7.0% indicated “*It provides camaraderie and a social activity with similar people*” (normative reason); 36.0% indicated “*I believe it is important for job security and protection*” (instrumental reason); and the remaining 28.1% indicated “*Because of a closed shop agreement*” (normative reason).

In light of the prevailing economic climate, characterised by high unemployment, it was expected that a substantial percentage of respondents would have joined a union to gain job security and protection.

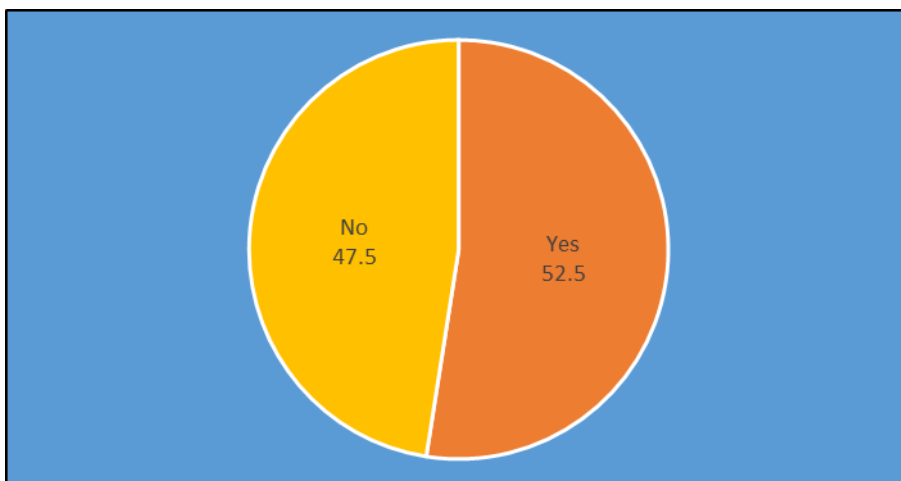
The findings of this study with regard to reasons for joining a trade unions mirror those of the 1989 British Social Attitudes Survey, whose findings in this regard were as follows: protection at work (93%); pay and working conditions (80%); members’ benefits (71%); principle (55%); workmates are members (55%); condition of job (\pm 40%); and family tradition (\pm 15%) (Taylor, 1994: 23-24).

As alluded to above, the reason for joining a union may be characterised as instrumental, ideological, or normative. Based on the results, 36% may be classified as instrumental union members, 35% as normative, and 28.9% as ideological. This finding is consistent with that of the study undertaken by Griffing and Svensen (1996: 8), who found the reasons for union a joining to be as follows: 995 instrumental, 526 normative, and 387 ideological. Griffing and Svensen (1996) assert that it would be expected that persons who are union members for mainly normative reasons would have significantly lower levels of satisfaction with their unions than other members, as it would not be easy for dissatisfied normative members to exit the union.

6.3.2.13 Requested union assistance

The respondents were asked if, during the previous 12 months, they had sought the assistance on their unions regarding an individual matter, for example, assistance with resolution of a grievance or a disciplinary matter. Figure 35, below, depicts the elicited responses. Of the respondents, 52.5% indicated that they had requested union assistance in individual cases, while 47.5% stated that they had never sought the union's assistance. Thus, it is safe to conclude that the collated data showed no statistically significant difference between those who sought union assistance and those who did not.

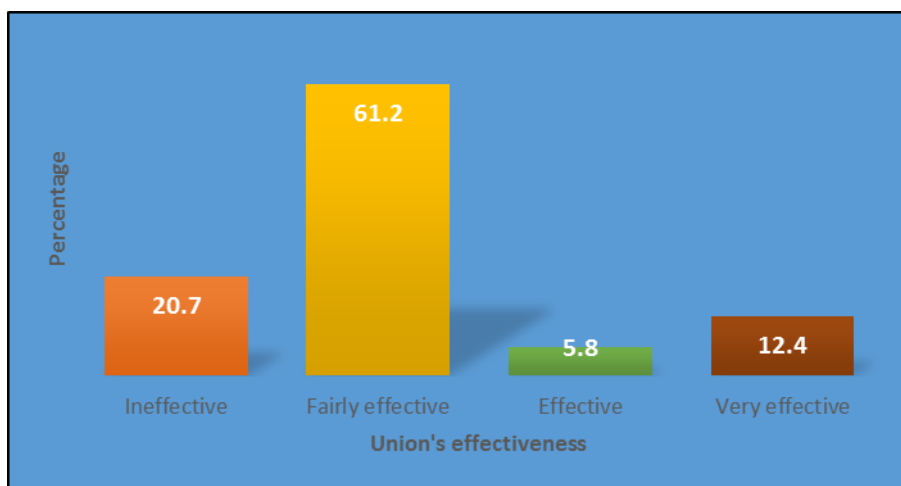
Figure 35: Requested union assistance



6.3.2.14 Effectiveness of union in the workplace

“Union effectiveness has several dimensions, including administrative efficiency, bargaining capability and the capacity to organize new members. One direct measure of union effectiveness is member satisfaction with union representation” (Frenkel and Kuruvilla, 1999: 539). The concept of union effectiveness is defined by Kochan (as cited in Fullagar, 1986: 38) as “substantive achievements in bargaining, and the correspondence of these achievements with the personal goals and priorities of members.”

Figure 36: Union effectiveness in the workplace



Freeman and Medoff (1984) state that for, workers’ voice to be effective in influencing managerial behaviour, it must be a union voice. Fullagar (1986) submits that there are additional dimensions of union effectiveness that would have to be considered in any investigation of unions. “These would include such characteristics as the ability of the union to attract and maintain a membership, the extent and degree of union democracy and commitment, and the development of an effective union leadership and an administrative system to provide services for members and to enforce their rights” (Fullagar, 1986: 38-39).

The respondents were asked to rate their union’s effectiveness in resolving workplace-related issues. Figure 36, above, depicts the results. Approximately 80% of the respondents gave a positive rating (61.2% indicated “*Fairly effective*”; 5.8% indicated “*Effective*”; and 12.4% indicated “*Very effective*”), in contrast to about 20% who regarded

their unions as ineffective. Thus, the unions under study are meeting their members' expectations to a great extent.

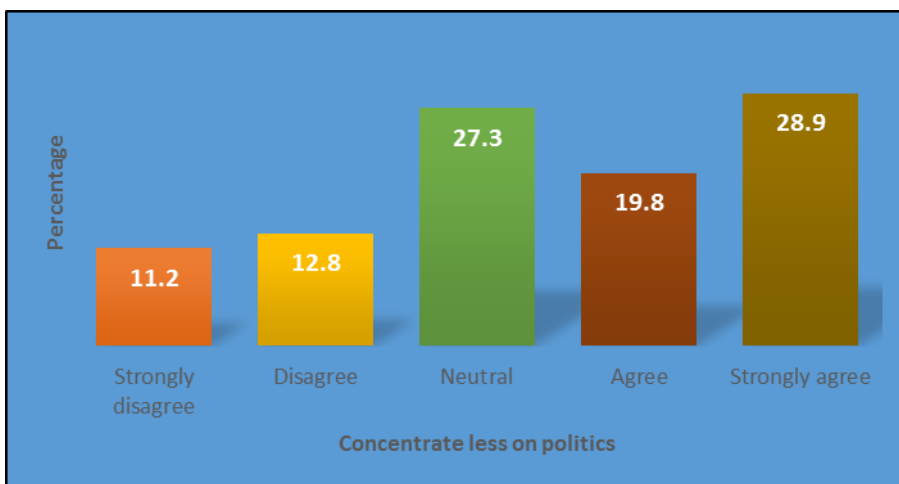
Chacko (1985) established that members' perceptions of their union's effectiveness in obtaining both extrinsic (wages, job security) and intrinsic (having a say, control) benefits, as well as the unions' responsiveness to members, were significantly related to member participation in union activities — voting in union elections, attending meetings, and lodging grievances. According to Chacko (1985), this belief fits the expectancy–instrumentality framework.

6.3.2.15 Unions' role in politics

Unions have, of late, tended to dabble in politics at the expense of attention to workplace-related issues. Therefore, the respondents in the present study were asked if unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics.

Of the respondents, 48.7% agreed that unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics, whilst 24% disagreed. A sizable 27.3% expressed a neutral opinion. Thus, it is imperative that unions heed their members' wishes and concentrate more on workplace-related issues, in order to avert member exit. Figure 37, below, depicts the elicited respondents' responses.

Figure 37: Unions' role in politics



6.3.2.16 Summarised descriptive data: Union membership

It is common cause that unions rely on the support and participation of their members in core activities. These activities include, *inter alia*, voting in elections of union representatives, holding office, attending union meetings, participating in important union activities such as strikes, and reading union material.

Pateman (1970) argues that, while attitudes and behavioural intentions of members are useful in understanding the normative expectations of union members, it is member participation in a variety of union activities that determines whether the democratic culture is primarily participatory or representative. This view is supported by Hirschsohn (2011), who asserts that participation in union activities builds loyalty to trade unions through socialisation and service delivery. The participation of members in industrial action represents a further measure of engagement in union activities (Hirschsohn, 2011).

From the data in the present study, it is noteworthy that the overall level of members' participation in union activities was relatively high, which seems to suggest a high degree of satisfaction. The findings of current study accord with the empirical findings of Gallagher, Parks, and Wetzel (1986), cited in Gallagher and Strauss (1991), and those of Gallagher and Strauss (1991) themselves. The study conducted by Gallagher, Parks, and Wetzel (1986) identified three main types of participation: administrative activities (such as serving as an officer or steward, running for office, and helping a member file a grievance); intermittent activities (in which members engage only on special occasions, such as voting and attending and speaking at union meetings); and supportive activities (relatively passive, non-time-consuming activities, such as discussing and encouraging support for union positions and reading the collective agreement).

In their study, Toubøl and Jensen (2014) established that instrumental motives created by workplace social customs seem to carry more weight than value-rational motives when employees decide whether to join a union. In answer to the article's question, 'Why do people join trade unions?', they conclude that people join trade unions primarily because it is expected of them by their colleagues, and, to a secondary extent, because they identify with the ideals, symbols, and values of trade unions (Toubøl and Jensen, 2014). In sum,

the perceptions and attitudes the members have of their union seem to influence their behaviour within it (Chacko, 1985: 372).

6.3.3 SERVICES OFFERED BY UNIONS AND MEMBER SATISFACTION

Section C of the questionnaire comprised items modelled along the Parasuraman *et al.* SERVQUAL Scale, and sought to measure various facets of perceived union instrumentality and satisfaction. These are perceptual factors. In an attempt to determine their level of satisfaction, respondents were asked to rate the services offered by their union. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of satisfaction for each of the 34-items regarding services rendered by unions to their members on a five-point Likert scale. These were dependant variables. The scale ranged from “*Very satisfied*” (5) to “*Very dissatisfied*” (1) as anchor points.

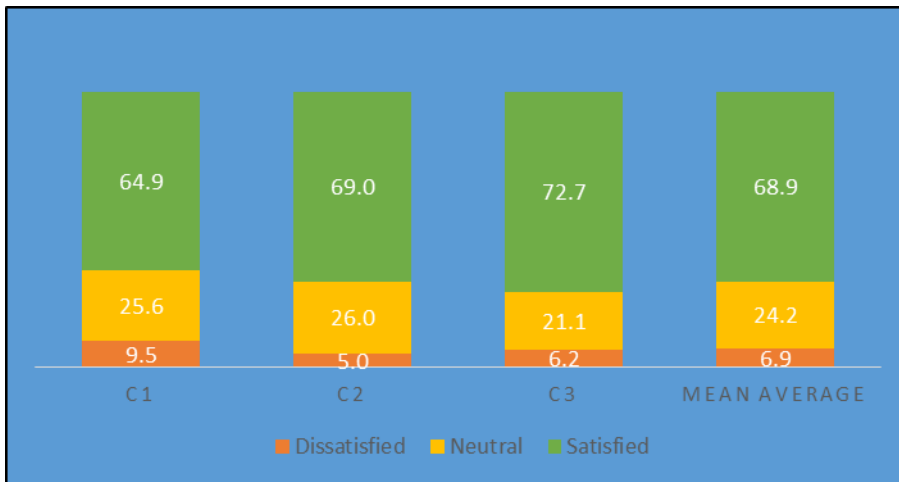
For ease of reporting, the results for “*Very satisfied*” and “*Satisfied*” were collapsed into one group, as were those for “*Very dissatisfied*” and “*Dissatisfied*.” Thus, respondents’ levels of satisfaction will be presented according to three groupings: satisfied, neutral and dissatisfied. Also, the results will be presented in terms of averages.

The 34-items were clustered into seven broad constructs or themes, which are discussed hereunder. The key for interpreting the results regarding level of satisfaction is: solidly satisfied or dissatisfied (60% or greater), moderately satisfied or dissatisfied (59–50%), and slightly satisfied or dissatisfied (49% or below).

6.3.3.1 Employment conditions, health, and safety

A total of 69% of the 242 respondents indicated that they are solidly satisfied with the service, compared to only 6.9% who indicated that they are slightly dissatisfied. The remaining 24.2% were indifferent (neutral), as depicted in Figure 38, below.

Figure 38: Satisfaction with employment conditions, health and safety



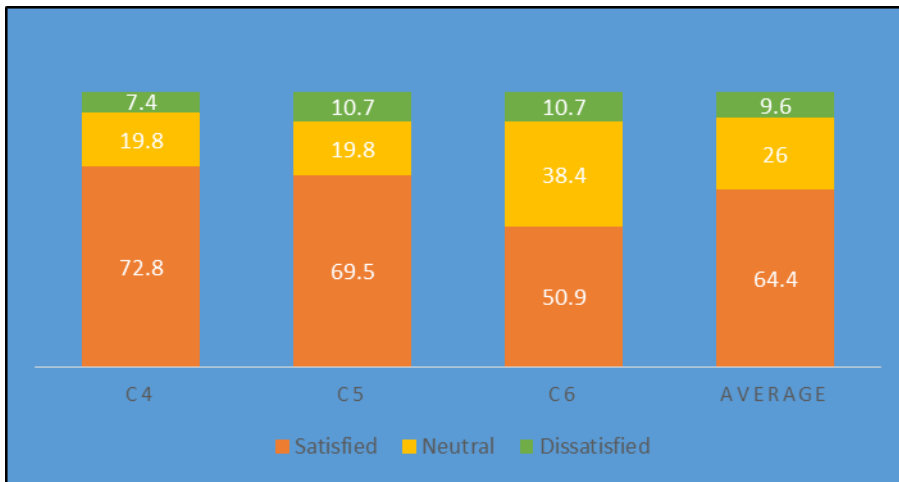
Working hours, health, and safety were deemed to be important during the earlier years of unions, and continue to be so today.

6.3.3.2 Workplace economic benefits

The *Workplace economic benefits* construct consisted of five items. As discussed earlier, the factor analysis generated two sub-constructs. The reason for the two sub-constructs may be the fact that the first three items related to core workplace-based services or benefits that are rendered by unions to members — intrinsic benefits, whilst the last two were value-added services — extrinsic benefits.

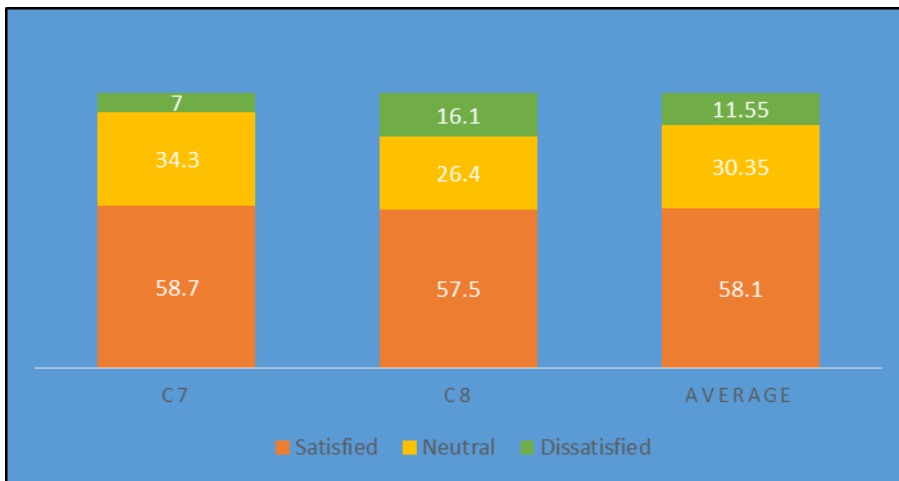
As depicted in Figure 39, below, with regard to workplace economic benefits, 64.4% of the 242 respondents indicated that they were solidly satisfied with the service they received from unions, whilst 9.6% indicated dissatisfaction. A total of 26% were neutral. This aspect of economic benefits is associated with intrinsic benefits — direct monetary compensation, which is necessary to sustain employees’ standard of living. This could be one of the main reason why employees become union members. It is evident from the results that that unions were credited for offering and improving workplace-related benefits.

Figure 39: Satisfaction with workplace economic benefits (intrinsic benefits)



Regarding the value-add services, 58.1% of the 242 respondents indicated that they were moderately satisfied, in contrast to a mere 11.5% who registered their slight dissatisfaction, and 30.35% who were neutral. These services are supplementary that is, extrinsic benefits. The respondents' levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with regard to workplace economic-related benefits are shown in Figure 40, below.

Figure 40: Satisfaction with workplace economic benefits (extrinsic benefits)



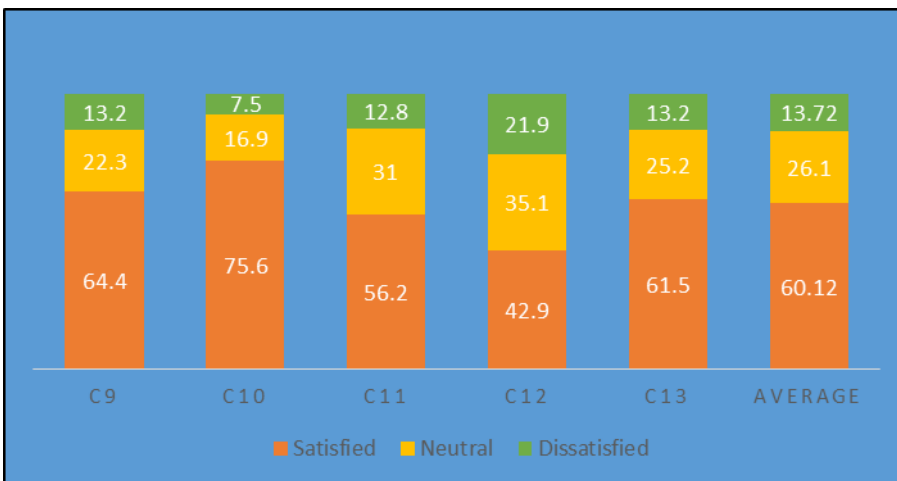
Overall, it is evident that economic benefits were a major reason for joining a union. This is the traditional reason for joining unions. Many a labour historians have noted the importance of economic factors (such as wages, and fringe benefits) in prompting unionisation of workers. Members are more likely to participate in union activities (such as voting in union elections, attending meetings, and pursuing grievances through a union) if

they perceived that union to be effective in obtaining both intrinsic and extrinsic benefits for their members, with the latter appearing to be the more powerful discriminant (Chacko, 1985). Chacko (1985) states that this belief is in line the expectancy instrumentality elucidated in the behavioural literature.

6.3.3.3 Job-related issues

Five items measured satisfaction in this regard, and 60% of the 242 respondents indicated that they were solidly satisfied with the services being render by their unions. Those who indicated dissatisfaction amounted to 13.72%, and 26.1% were neutral. These results are illustrated in Figure 41, below.

Figure 41: Satisfaction: Job-related issues

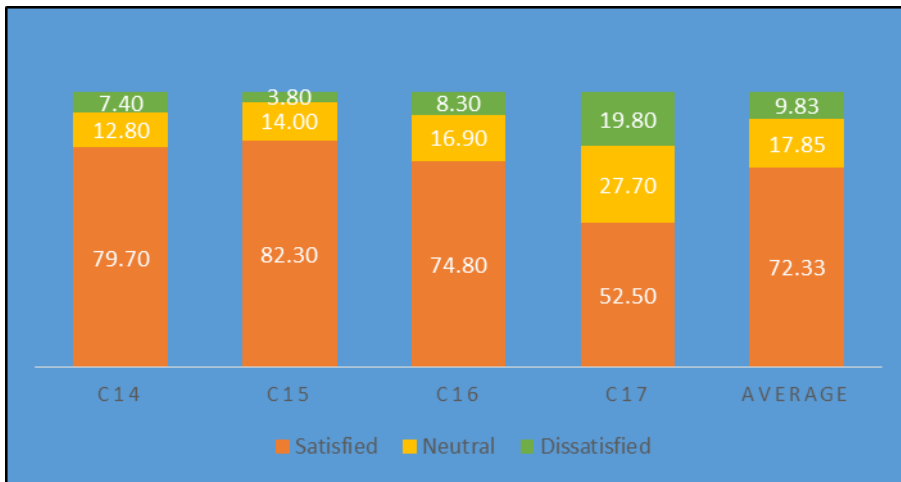


6.3.3.4 Representation in individual matters

Figure 42, below, depicts respondents' levels of satisfaction regarding representation by unions in individual matters (such as grievances). The construct contained four items.

A substantial majority (72.3%) of the respondents indicated that they were solidly satisfied with the service being rendered by their union. Of the remaining respondents, 9.8% were dissatisfied, while 17.85% were neutral. Oikelome (2014: 48) is of the opinion that union satisfaction shares some similarities with instrumentality, as it also represents a member's feelings concerning the representation a member receives from the union.

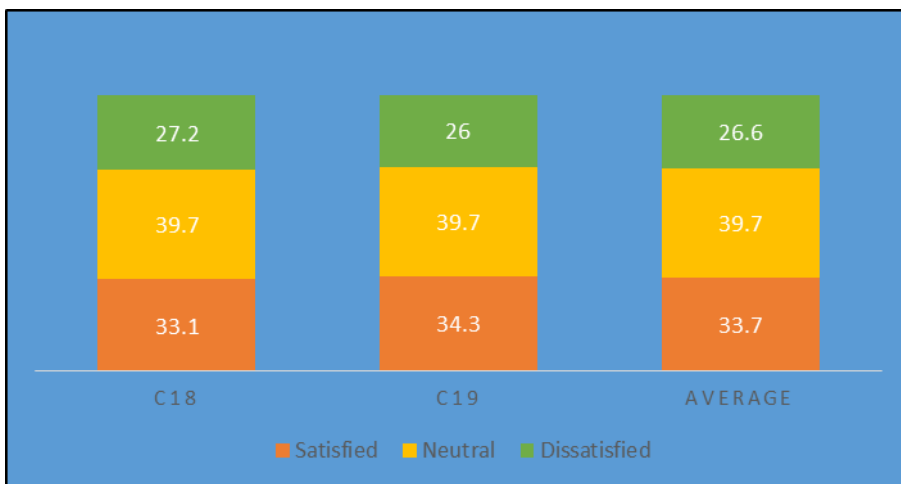
Figure 42: Satisfaction with representation in individual matters



6.3.3.5 Legal assistance

The construct was measured by two items. Of the 242 respondents, 33.7% indicated that they were slightly satisfied, and 26.6% indicated that they were slightly dissatisfied, as shown in Figure 43, below.

Figure 43: Satisfaction with legal assistance

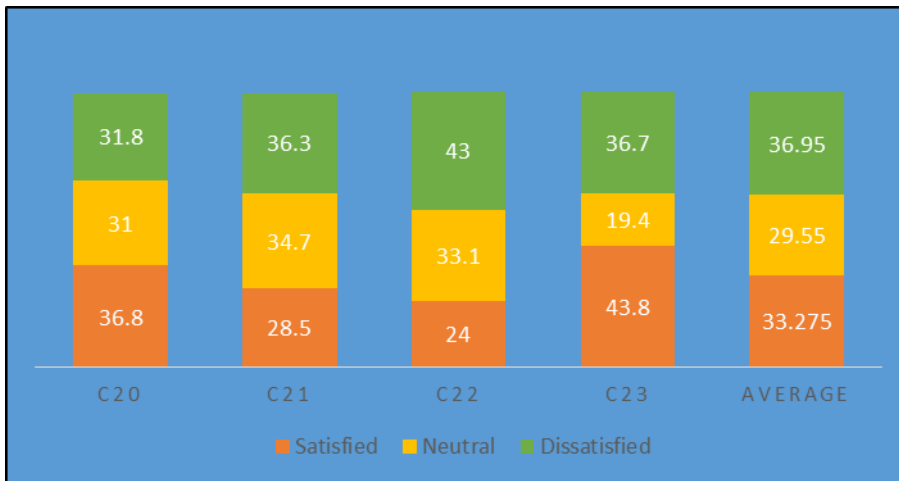


This finding deserves urgent attention from unions. About 40% of respondents were neutral. The reason for these low levels of satisfaction may be that unions do not deem legal assistance to members a core function or essential service.

6.3.3.6 Education and training

This construct was measured by three items. A total of 37% of the respondents indicated slight dissatisfaction, in contrast to 33.3% who indicated slight satisfaction. The remaining 29.55% were neutral. The results are shown in Figure 44, below.

Figure 44: Satisfaction with education and training



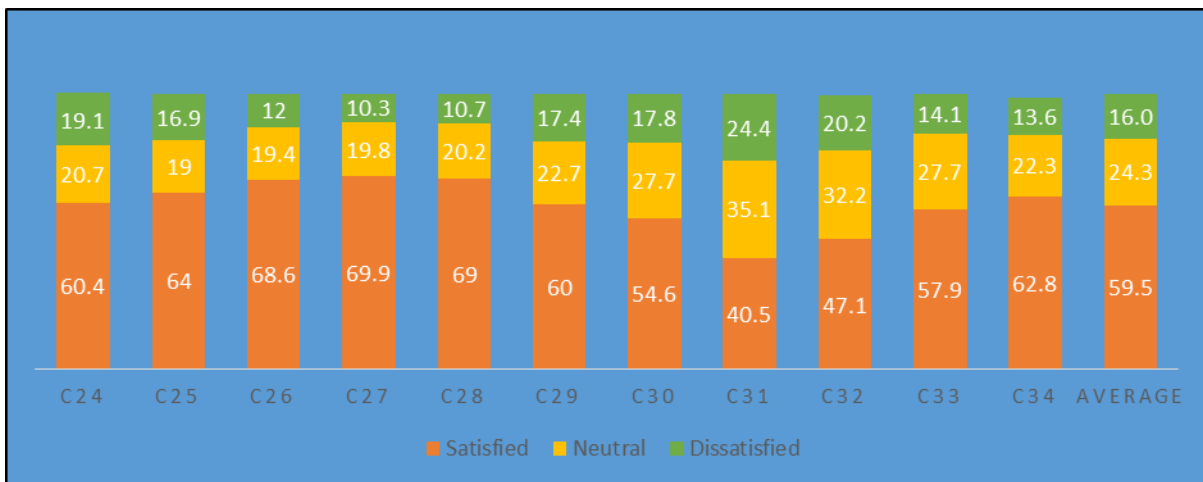
6.3.3.7 Member services

The *Member services* construct was made up of 11 items related to a union’s core functions and essential services.

A total of 60% of the respondents indicated that they were solidly satisfied. On the other hand, 16% were slightly dissatisfied, while about 24% were neutral. These results are depicted in Figure 45, below.

Oikelome (2014: 48) postulates that member satisfaction is not simply a matter of unions delivering tangible gains at the bargaining table, but also involves the extent to which the union’s leadership keeps members informed, gives them a say in running the union, and is responsive to their concerns.

Figure 45: Satisfaction with member services



6.3.3.8 Discussion and concluding summary

The study examined whether respondents were satisfied with the performance of the trade unions to which they belonged. It is evident from the above that employees join a union to, *inter alia*, ameliorate their working conditions (e.g., leave) and compensation (wages/salaries and attendant benefits); safeguard against dismissal (job security and stability); ensure legislative compliance (e.g., affirmative action); and ensure fair and equitable recruitment processes. In their study, Jarley *et al.* (1990: 132) found that “collective bargaining gains on bread-and-butter issues are hardly inconsequential to the rank and file’s evaluation of the union, but it is clear that members consider union feedback, democracy, and the delivery of union services as critical.” They also state that a union’s handling of internal relations plays a major role in how rank-and-file members assess their union.

According to Whitston and Waddington (1994: 38), two reasons for joining a union that stand out above all others are support in the event of a problem at work and improved pay and conditions. Therefore, employees join trade unions because they believe that unions will, through collective effort and bargaining power, represent them in negotiating with employers regarding wage or salary increases, as well as other benefits (e.g., bonuses, medical aid, and housing allowances). Should unions succeed in negotiating substantial increases and better working conditions, employees will perceive the trade union as strong and powerful, which will, in turn, have a positive impact on the union–member trust relationship and support. In addition, new employees will seek to join such unions. On the

other hand, perceived failure will deepen the trust deficit, resulting in membership despondency and/or disengagement, and the unions will be deemed weak and ineffective.

Unions' obligations are composed of what members perceive they can expect from unions. Bacon and Hoque (2012) observe that trade unions have had a significant impact, most recently in terms of promoting fair treatment at work and advancing the interests of disadvantaged workers.

The researcher contends that unions must at all times endeavour to meet their members' expectations, as there is a nexus between satisfaction and member participation and commitment. A low level of member satisfaction will result in increased turnover and alienation. Lastly, unions should heed Shindondola-Mote and Otto (2012: 62), who state that "servicing should be a continuous process through which unions must nurture and nourish the relationship between themselves, current members, potential members and ex-members".

According to Kochan (1979) economic issues (e.g., wages and benefits), by which members have judged union effectiveness, may have given way to different expectations, which are the result of dynamics in the employment environment.

The empirical results of the present study indicate that the majority of the respondents, regardless of socio-demographic background, had had instrumental reasons for joining their unions.

6.4 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 31) state that inferential statistics helps the researcher to make decisions about the data regarding, for instance, the significance of differences and/or correlations between certain groups in an experiment. Further, they aver that "inferential statistics allow us to make inferences about large populations by collecting data on relatively small samples" (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010: 260). To this end, the following inferential statistical analyses were performed in the present study:

- **Independent t-test (comparing two different groups)**

According to Pallant (2011), the independent t-test is a comparison between the mean scores of two different groups of people or conditions. The t-test analysis was used to determine the significance of differences in mean scores of the respondents' biographical characteristics, such as gender.

- **One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)**

Pallant (2011) states that the aim of ANOVA is to test for significant differences or variances between means of different groups. Per Leedy and Ormond (2010: 282), ANOVA was used to look for differences among means by comparing the variances both within and across groups. According to Pallant (2011), ANOVA can be used to conclude whether there is a difference between groups on a variable. In instances where the overall F-value was significant ($F < 0.05$), a *post hoc* test was performed. In determining the statistical differences between groups (that is, pairwise), Tukey's HSD *post hoc* multiple comparison test technique was used. Also, an effect size of the significant pairs was calculated, using the formula below:

$$ES = \frac{\bar{X}_i - \bar{X}_j}{\sqrt{MS_w}}$$

Where $\bar{X}_i - \bar{X}_j$ is the mean difference of pairs under consideration
 MS_w is the within Group's Mean Square

In the present study, ANOVA was used to determine or test the effect of the mean scores of respondents' biographical characteristics, such as age, race, marital status, educational qualifications, number of dependants, tenure, salary range, and community background.

The calculated t-value was compared to the critical t-value, and, in both instances, a confidence interval level of 95% was used to determine statistical significance. Where a P value is less than 0.05, that is, if the $P < 0.05$, one is inclined to conclude that the results are statistically significant.

- **Practical significance**

Practical significance reflects the size of the difference, and the measures of effect size quantify the practical significance of a finding. The practical significance differences (d) where t-test were used, were calculated as the difference between the means of the two groups, divided by the pooled standard deviation.

$$d = \frac{\bar{X}_a - \bar{X}_b}{S_p}$$

Where:
 \bar{X}_a = mean of the first group
 \bar{X}_b = mean of the second group
 S_p = pooled standard deviation

Source: Mayers (2013: 82)

There are several methods to measure effect size, but the most commonly used are Pearson's r and Cohen's d (Mayers, 2013). For purpose of the present study, Cohen's d was used. To interpret the different effect sizes, Cohen (1998) recommends the following cut-off points for the correlation coefficients:

$d = <0.25$	small/low effect
$d = 0.25 - 0.4$	medium/moderate effect
$d = 0.4 - \infty$	large/high effect

Source: Mayers (2013: 82)

The biographical variables were analysed to assess whether various groups responded similarly for each scale variable. The t-test was used in instances where the variables consisted of two groups, and ANOVA was used for variables with more than two groups.

- **Kruskal-Wallis H (K-W) test**

The K-W test (also known as *one-way ANOVA on ranks*) is a rank-based NPar test that evaluates whether the population medians for a dependent variable are the same across all levels of a factor. It can be used to determine if there are statistically significant differences between two or more groups of an independent variable on a continuous or ordinal dependent variable. A statistically significant difference exists when the K-W test's chi-square p -value is less than 0.05. It is considered the NPar alternative to the one-way ANOVA, and an extension of the Mann-Whitney U test, allowing the comparison of more than two independent groups.

6.5 COMPARATIVE STATISTICS

6.5.1 INDEPENDENT T-TESTS

As mentioned above, the t-test is the most appropriate and commonly used method to determine statistical differences in means in instances of an independent variable with two categories. In order to analyse the mean differences of gender, race, and marital status groups (the data sets for *Race* and *Marital status* were both collapsed into two categories), the independent sample t-test was carried out.

Because *Gender*, *Race*, and *Marital status* each had two categories, t-tests of group means were calculated, in order to compare *Male* and *Female*; *Black* and *White*; and *Married* and *Unmarried* on the constructs. The results of the t-test are presented in Tables 48 to 60.

6.5.1.1 Gender

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 32, indicated that *Male* and *Female* differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *EI2* ($p = .033$) and *ET* ($p = .002$). According to the mean scores, women ($M = 3.6615$; $SD = .94192$) were less satisfied with the provision of *EI2* than their male counterparts ($M = 3.9509$; $SD = 1.13304$). Similarly, regarding *ET*, women ($M = 2.7267$; $SD = 1.15305$) were less satisfied than men ($M = 3.1712$; $SD = 1.10961$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .28$) for *EI2* and ($d = .40$) for *ET* respectively suggested a moderate/medium practical significance.

6.5.1.2 Race

The *Race* variable was collapsed into two categories, *Black* (generic term inclusive of black Africans, Coloureds, and Indians) and *White*. The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 33, indicated that there were statistically significant differences between blacks and whites with regard to *ESH* ($p = .023$). The mean score results indicated that blacks ($M = 3.9065$; $SD = .80885$) responded significantly higher, compared to their white counterparts ($M = 3.5484$; $SD = .83244$), to the question regarding *ESH*. Cohen's effect size values ($d = .40$) suggested a moderate/medium practical significance.

6.5.1.3 Marital status

The *Marital status* variable was collapsed into two categories, *Single* (inclusive of divorced and widowed) and *Married*. The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 34, indicated that there were statistically significant differences between singles and their married counterparts with regard to *MS* ($p = .038$). The mean score results indicated that the respondents who were married ($M = 3.8081$; $SD = .78286$) responded significantly higher, compared to the respondents who were single ($M = 3.5433$; $SD = .94395$) to the question regarding *MS*. Cohen's effect size values ($d = .30$) suggested a moderate/medium practical significance.

6.5.1.4 Breadwinner status

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 35, indicated that those who were the breadwinners of their households and those who were not differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *EI2* ($p = .030$), *RIM* ($p = .018$), *LI* ($p = .040$), *ET* ($p = .002$), and *MS* ($P = .009$). According to the mean scores, those who were not breadwinners ($M = 3.5476$; $SD = .97018$) were less satisfied with the provision of *EI2* than those who were the breadwinners ($M = 3.8827$; $SD = 1.07457$). Similarly for *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS*, those who were not breadwinners ($M = 3.7579$, $SD = .82668$; $M = 2.8254$, $SD = 1.20201$; $M = 2.5437$, $SD = 1.07907$; $M = 3.3651$, $SD = .87947$) were less satisfied than those who were the breadwinners ($M = 4.0587$, $SD = .87533$; $M = 3.1704$, $SD = 1.12193$; $M = 3.0706$, $SD = 1.13504$; $M = 3.7153$, $.89816$). Cohen's effect size values: ($d = .32$) for *EI2*; ($d = .35$) for *RIM*; ($d = .30$) for *LI*; ($d = .47$) for *ET*; and ($d = .39$) for *MS* suggested a moderate/medium to high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.5 Union membership status

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 36, indicated that ordinary members (rank and file) and those who held office (shop steward or office bearer) differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = 0.000$), *EI1* ($p = 0.000$), *EI2* ($p = 0.001$), *JI* ($p = 0.000$), *RIM* ($p = 0.000$), *LI* ($P = 0.004$), *ET* ($p = 0.002$), and *MS* ($p = 0.000$). According to the mean scores, ordinary members ($M = 3.7241$, $SD = .78663$; $M = 3.6700$, $SD = .83580$; $M = 3.6995$, $SD = 1.06745$; $M = 3.5606$, $SD = .82895$; $M = 3.8830$, $SD = .85026$; $M = 2.9877$, $SD = 1.04056$; $M = 2.8308$, $SD = 1.01550$; and $M = 3.5272$, $SD = .87005$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS* than those who held office ($M = 4.5726$, $SD = .58714$; $M = 4.4103$, $SD = .89004$; $M = 4.2949$, $SD = .84851$; $M = 4.3026$, $SD = .92209$; $M = 4.4872$, $SD = .81100$; $M = 3.5641$, $SD = 1.53546$; $M = 3.4551$, $SD = 1.56322$; and $M = 4.1292$, $SD = .92580$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = 1.12$) for *ESH*; ($d = .88$) for *EI1*; ($d = .58$) for *EI2*; ($d = .88$) for *JI*; ($d = .72$) for *RIM*; ($d = .51$) for *LI*; ($d = .56$) for *ET*; and ($d = .69$) for *MS* suggested a moderate/medium to high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.6 Voting in the last election to elect union officials

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 37, indicated that those who had voted in the last election to elect union officials and those who did not vote differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($P = 0.000$), *EI1* ($p = 0.000$), *EI2* ($p = 0.000$), *JI* ($p = 0.000$), *RIM* ($p = 0.000$), *LI* ($p = 0.000$), *ET* ($p = 0.000$), and *MS* ($p = 0.000$). According to the mean scores, those who did not vote in the last election to elect union officials ($M = 3.5618$, $SD = .76788$; $M = 3.5349$, $SD = .89242$; $M = 3.5000$, $SD = 1.08388$; $M = 3.3758$, $SD = .90332$; $M = 3.7056$, $SD = .93815$; $M = 2.6815$, $SD = 1.07699$; $M = 2.5471$, $SD = 1.04512$; and $M = 3.3782$, $SD = .93041$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET* and *MS* than those who had voted ($M = 4.1751$, $SD = .75323$; $M = 4.0565$, $SD = .79922$; $M = 4.1059$, $SD = .93565$; $M = 4.000$, $SD = .74650$; $M = 4.2691$, $SD = .68886$; $M = 3.5000$, $SD = 1.07814$; $M = 3.3305$, $SD = 1.10500$ and $M = 3.8713$, $SD = .80914$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .81$) for *ESH*; ($d = .62$) for *EI1*; ($d = .60$) for *EI2*; ($d = .75$) for *JI*; ($d = .68$) for *RIM*; ($d = .76$) for *LI*; ($d = .73$) for *ET*; and ($d = .57$) for *MS* suggested a high/large practical significance.

Table 32: Comparison of mean scores of gender groupings

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means							Practical significance d
							t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
					F	Sig						Lower	Upper	
ESH	112	4.0179	.80891	.07643	.909	.341	2.807	240	.005	.29222	.10411	.08713	.49730	
	130	3.7256	.80638	.07072			2.806	234.515	.005	.29222	.10414	.08706	.49738	
EI1	112	3.8631	.92842	.08773	.571	.450	1.205	240	.230	.13745	.11411	-.08732	.36223	
	130	3.7256	.84599	.07420			1.196	226.761	.233	.13745	.11490	-.08895	.36386	
EI2	112	3.9509	.94192	.08900	2.970	.086	2.140	240	.033*	.28935	.13524	.02295	.55576	0.28
	130	3.6615	1.13304	.09937			2.169	239.708	.031*	.28935	.13340	.02656	.55215	
JI	112	3.7464	.88998	.08409	.013	.908	1.080	240	.281	.12335	.11417	-.10155	.34825	
	130	3.6231	.88173	.07733			1.080	234.076	.281	.12335	.11425	-.10173	.34843	
RIM	112	4.0513	.87902	.08306	.004	.950	1.177	240	.240	.13211	.11224	-.08900	.35322	
	130	3.9192	.86334	.07572			1.175	233.433	.241	.13211	.11239	-.08933	.35355	
LI	112	3.2188	1.16785	.11035	.823	.365	1.741	240	.083	.25721	.14775	-.03383	.54825	
	130	2.9615	1.12687	.09883			1.736	232.031	.084	.25721	.14814	-.03466	.54908	
ET	111	3.1712	1.15305	.10944	.520	.472	3.057	238	.002*	.44443	.14536	.15806	.73079	0.40
	129	2.7267	1.09618	.09661			3.046	228.734	.003*	.44443	.14592	.15691	.73194	
MS	109	3.7323	.87546	.08385	.001	.975	1.712	235	.088	.20103	.11743	-.03033	.43238	
	128	3.5312	.92220	.08151			1.719	232.214	.087	.20103	.11694	-.02938	.43143	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 33: Comparison of mean scores of race groupings

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means							Practical significance d
							t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
					F	Sig						Lower	Upper	
ESH	211	3.9068	.80885	.5568	.288	.592	2.296	240	.023*	.35841	.15615	.5080	.66601	0.44
	31	3.5484	.83244	.14951			2.246	38.793	.030*	.35841	.15954	.3565	.68117	
EI1	211	3.8025	.87799	.06044	.173	.677	.607	240	.544	.10360	.17062	-.23251	.43971	
	31	3.6989	.94812	.17029			.573	37.950	.570	.10360	.18070	-.26221	.46942	
EI2	211	3.7749	.99297	.06836	7.994	.005	-.790	240	.431	-.16060	.20342	-.56132	.24011	
	31	3.9355	1.43028	.25689			-.604	34.375	.550	-.16060	.26583	-.70061	.37940	
JI	211	3.6957	.88637	.06102	.266	.606	.713	240	.477	.12154	.17057	-.21446	.45754	
	31	3.5742	.88956	.15977			.711	39.271	.481	.12154	.17103	-.22431	.46740	
RIM	211	3.9586	.86520	.05956	.084	.772	-1.017	240	.310	-.17050	.16758	-.50063	.15962	
	31	4.1290	.91258	.16390			-.978	38.351	.334	-.17050	.17439	-.52343	.18243	
LI	211	3.0616	1.13641	0.7823	1.787	.183	-.668	240	.505	-.14807	.22161	-.58462	.28849	
	31	3.2097	1.25681	.22573			-.620	37.563	.539	-.14807	.23890	-.63186	.33575	
ET	209	2.9127	1.16508	.08059	.691	.407	-.690	238	.491	-.15184	.22009	-.58540	.28173	
	31	3.0645	.98100	.017619			-.784	43.591	.437	-.15184	.19375	-.54242	.23874	
MS	206	3.6041	.90587	.06312	.112	.738	-.857	235	.392	-.14952	.17438	-.49307	.19404	
	31	3.7537	.90063	.16176			-.861	39.695	.394	-.14952	.17363	-.50053	.20149	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 34: Comparison of mean scores of marital status groupings

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means							Practical significance d
							t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower	Upper	
ESH	170	3.8882	.78106	.5990	.566	.453	.798	240	.426	.09194	.11525	-.13608	.31896	
	72	3.7963	.90479	.10663			.752	117.954	.454	.09194	.12231	-.15026	.33414	
EI1	170	3.7471	.91704	.07033	1.605	.206	-1.139	240	.256	-.14183	.12449	-.36706	.10340	
	72	3.8889	.80491	.09486			-1.201	151.310	.232	-.14183	.11809	-.37515	.09149	
EI2	170	3.7088	1.04863	.08043	.067	.796	-1.971	240	.050	-.29118	.14771	-.58214	-.00021	
	72	4.0000	1.05483	.12431			-1.967	133.080	.051	-.29118	.14806	-.58403	.00168	
JI	170	3.6271	.91508	.07018	1.861	.174	-1.436	240	.152	-.17850	.12429	-.42333	.06634	
	72	3.8056	.80490	.09486			-1.513	151.000	.132	-.17850	.11800	-.41164	.05465	
RIM	170	3.9191	.90307	.06926	2.548	.112	-1.687	240	.093	-.20588	.12205	-.44631	.03456	
	72	4.1250	.77822	.09171			-1.791	154.030	.075	-.20588	.11493	-.43292	.02116	
LI	170	2.9882	1.15122	.08829	.345	.557	-1.929	240	.055	-.31038	.16091	-.62736	.00660	
	72	3.2986	1.12794	.13293			-1.945	136.321	.054	-.31038	.15958	-.62595	.00520	
ET	168	2.8393	1.17078	.09033	1.894	.170	-1.938	238	.054	-.31002	.15998	-.62517	.00513	
	72	3.1493	1.04969	.12359			-2.025	149.032	.045	-.31002	.15308	-.61251	-.00753	
MS	165	3.5433	.94395	.07349	2.557	.111	-2.087	235	.038*	-.264483	.12688	-.51480	-.01486	-0.28
	72	3.8081	.78286	.09226			-2.245	161.521	.026*	-.26483	.11795	-.49775	-.03191	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 35: Comparison of mean scores of breadwinner status groupings

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means							Practical significance d
							t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower	Upper	
ESH	179	3.8790	.84851	.06342	.157	.692	.578	240	.564	.06943	.12014	-.16723	.30610	
	63	3.8095	.73254	.09229			.620	124.696	.536	.06943	.11198	-.15220	.29106	
EI1	179	3.8007	.92173	.06889	1.385	.240	.339	240	.735	.04413	.13002	-.21199	.30025	
	63	3.7566	.78106	.09840			.367	127.042	.714	.04413	.12012	-.19357	.28183	
EI2	179	3.8827	1.07457	.08032	3.002	.084	2.181	240	.030*	.33506	.15361	.03247	.63766	0.32
	63	3.5476	.97018	.12223			2.291	119.348	.024*	.33506	.14626	.04547	.62466	
JI	179	3.7184	.89734	.06707	.548	.460	1.133	240	.258	.14701	.12969	-.10848	.40249	
	63	3.5714	.84994	.10708			1.163	114.073	.247	.14701	.12635	-.10330	.39731	
RIM	179	4.0587	.87533	.06543	.553	.458	2.379	240	.018*	.30072	.12643	.05168	.54977	0.35
	63	3.7579	.82668	.10415			2.445	114.380	.016*	.30072	.12300	.05708	.54437	
LI	179	3.1704	1.12193	.08386	.365	.546	2.060	240	.040*	.34499	.16746	.01511	.67488	0.30
	63	2.8254	1.20201	.15144			1.993	102.494	.049*	.34499	.17311	.00166	.68833	
ET	177	3.0706	1.13504	.08531	.088	.767	3.205	238	.002*	.52697	.16442	.20307	.85087	0.47
	63	2.5437	1.07907	.13595			3.283	114.208	.001*	.52697	.16050	.20902	.84492	
MS	175	3.7153	.89816	.06789	.110	.741	2.653	235	.009*	.35022	.13203	.09011	.61034	0.39
	62	3.3651	.87947	.11169			2.679	109.182	.009*	.35022	.13071	.09116	.60928	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 36: Comparison of mean scores of union membership status

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
							t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	203	3.7241	.78663	.05521	2.054	.153	-6.398	240	.000*	-.84851	.13262	-1.10976	-.58726	1.12
	39	4.5726	.58714	.09402			-7.782	67.224	.000*	-.84851	.10903	-1.06612	-.63090	
EI1	203	3.6700	.83580	.05866	.152	.697	-5.013	240	.000*	-.74031	.14767	-1.03120	-.44941	0.88
	39	4.4103	.89004	.14252			-4.803	51.687	.000*	-.74031	.15412	-1.04962	-.43099	
EI2	203	3.6995	1.06745	.07492	4.195	.042	-3.287	240	.001	-.59536	.18111	-.95213	-.23860	0.58
	39	4.2949	.84851	.13587			-3.837	63.516	.000*	-.59536	.15516	-.90537	-.28536	
JI	203	3.5606	.82895	.05818	1.001	.318	-5.026	240	.000*	-.74197	.14763	-1.03278	-.45116	0.88
	39	4.3026	.92209	.14765			-4.675	50.487	.000*	-.74197	.15870	-1.06066	-.42329	
RIM	203	3.8830	.85026	.05968	.886	.347	-4.094	240	.000*	-.60417	.14759	-.89491	-.31344	0.72
	39	4.4872	.81100	.12986			-4.227	55.279	.000*	-.60417	.14292	-.89056	-.31779	
LI	203	2.9877	1.04056	.07303	22.015	.000	-2.909	240	.004*	-.57642	.19816	-.96677	-.18606	0.51
	39	3.5641	1.53546	.24587			-2.247	44.936	.030*	-.57642	.25649	-1.09303	-.05981	
ET	201	2.8308	1.01550	.07163	33.911	.000	-3.183	238	.002*	-.62428	.19616	-1.01071	-.23786	0.56
	39	3.4551	1.56322	.25032			-2.398	44.421	.021*	-.62428	.26036	-1.14887	-.09970	
MS	199	3.5272	.87005	.06168	.121	.728	-3.868	235	.000*	-.60201	.15562	-.90860	-.29541	0.69
	38	4.1292	.92580	.15018			-3.708	50.265	.001*	-.60201	.16236	-.92806	-.27595	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 37: Comparison of mean scores of employees who voted in the last election to elect union officials

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
							t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	118	4.1751	.75323	.06934	.688	.408	6.269	240	.000*	.61331	.09784	.42058	.80605	0.81
	124	3.5618	.76788	.06896			6.272	239.776	.000*	.61331	.09779	.42067	.80595	
EI1	118	4.0565	.79922	.07357	.308	.580	4.781	240	.000*	.52155	.10909	.30665	.73645	0.62
	124	3.5349	.89242	.08014			4.794	239.130	.000*	.52155	.10879	.30724	.73587	
EI2	118	4.1059	.93565	.08613	.781	.378	4.645	240	.000*	.60593	.13045	.34897	.86290	0.60
	124	3.5000	1.08388	.09734			4.662	237.777	.000*	.60593	.12997	.34989	.86198	
JI	118	4.0000	.74650	.06872	3.320	.070	5.844	240	.000*	.62419	.10682	.41378	.83461	0.75
	124	3.3758	.90332	.08112			5.871	235.424	.000*	.62419	.10632	.41474	.83365	
RIM	118	4.2691	.68886	.06341	12.275	.001	5.303	240	.000*	.56342	.10624	.35415	.77270	0.68
	124	3.7056	.93815	.08425			5.343	225.695	.000*	.56342	.10545	.35563	.77121	
LI	118	3.5000	1.07814	.09925	.015	.902	5.907	240	.000*	.81855	.13858	.54556	1.09153	0.76
	124	2.6815	1.07699	.09672			5.907	239.380	.000*	.81855	.13858	.54555	1.09154	
ET	118	3.3305	1.10500	.10172	.137	.711	5.644	238	.000*	.78338	.13880	.50995	1.05681	0.73
	122	2.5471	1.04512	.09462			5.639	236.127	.000*	.78338	.13893	.50968	1.05707	
MS	118	3.8713	.80914	.07449	.902	.343	4.353	235	.000*	.49319	.11330	.26997	.71641	0.57
	119	3.3782	.93041	.08529			4.355	231.073	.000*	.49319	.11324	.27008	.71630	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 38: Comparison of mean scores of employees who regularly read union material

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	168	3.9583	.84074	.06486	.581	.447	2.829	240	.005*	.31869	.11264	.09680	.54058	0.40
	74	3.6396	.72519	.08430			2.996	160.441	.003*	.31869	.10637	.10863	.52875	
EI1	168	3.9048	.87102	.06720	.122	.728	3.111	240	.002*	.37773	.12143	.13852	.61695	0.44
	74	3.5270	.86889	.10101			3.114	139.943	.002*	.37773	.12132	.13788	.61759	
EI2	168	3.9494	1.08285	.08354	7.484	.007	3.493	240	.001	.50346	.14413	.21955	.78737	0.49
	74	3.4459	.90874	.10564			3.738	164.706	.000*	.50346	.13468	.23753	.76938	
JI	168	3.8345	.85387	.06588	.006	.939	4.225	240	.000*	.50479	.11949	.26941	.74018	0.59
	74	3.3297	.86226	.10024			4.209	138.398	.000*	.50479	.11995	.26763	.74196	
RIM	168	4.1488	.80149	.06184	2.254	.135	4.728	240	.000*	.55084	.11652	.32131	.78036	0.66
	74	3.5980	.90737	.10548			4.505	125.329	.000*	.55084	.12227	.30886	.79282	
LI	168	3.2262	1.18222	.09121	2.275	.133	3.015	240	.003*	.47619	.15793	.16508	.78730	0.42
	74	2.7500	1.00768	.11714			3.207	162.276	.002*	.47619	.14846	.18302	.76936	
ET	167	3.0928	1.18044	.09135	3.084	.080	3.363	238	.001*	.52775	.15692	.21862	.83688	0.47
	73	2.5651	.96017	.11238			3.644	166.959	.000*	.52775	.14482	.24183	.81366	
MS	168	3.7516	.90977	.07019	1.787	.183	3.475	235	.001*	.43937	.12643	.19030	.68844	0.50
	69	3.3123	.81796	.09847			3.633	139.945	.000*	.43937	.12093	.20029	.67845	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 39: Comparison of mean scores of employees who participate in important union activities

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	152	4.1009	.73795	.05986	.506	.477	6.396	240	.000*	.64532	.10090	.44657	.84407	0.85
	90	3.4556	.79236	.08352			6.280	176.459	.000*	.64532	.10276	.44253	.84811	
EI1	152	4.0307	.85554	.06939	.350	.554	5.881	240	.000*	.64922	.11039	.43177	.86667	0.79
	90	3.3815	.78462	.08271			6.013	199.995	.000*	.64922	.10796	.43633	.86211	
EI2	152	4.0658	.95023	.07707	.708	.401	5.474	240	.000*	.72690	.13280	.46530	.98850	0.73
	90	3.3389	1.07533	.11335			5.303	169.027	.000*	.72690	.13707	.45631	.99749	
JI	152	3.9382	.83030	.06735	.004	.951	6.350	240	.000*	.69371	.10925	.47851	.90892	0.85
	90	3.2444	.80603	.08496			6.399	191.430	.000*	.69371	.10842	.47987	.90756	
RIM	152	4.2089	.81554	.06615	.162	.688	5.629	240	.000*	.61444	.10915	.39943	.82945	0.75
	90	3.5944	.82922	.08741			5.605	184.473	.000*	.61444	.10962	.39817	.83070	
LI	152	3.2993	1.19361	.09681	3.381	.067	3.958	240	.000*	.58823	.14861	.29549	.88097	0.53
	90	2.7111	.97433	.10270			4.168	216.629	.000*	.58823	.14114	.31004	.86642	
ET	150	3.1867	1.19640	.09769	6.045	.015	4.641	238	.000*	.67833	.14615	.39042	.96625	0.62
	90	2.5083	.90368	.09526			4.972	225.594	.000*	.67833	.13644	.40947	.94720	
MS	149	3.8048	.91627	.07506	2.949	.087	4.144	235	.000*	.48761	.11767	.25580	.71942	0.56
	88	3.3171	.80052	.08534			4.290	202.465	.000*	.48761	.11365	.26352	.71170	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 40: Comparison of mean scores of employees with regard to fairness of the monthly subscription fees

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	154	4.0801	.75461	.06081	.650	.421	5.879	240	.000*	.60281	.10253	.40083	.80480	0.79
	88	3.4773	.78913	.08412			5.808	174.571		.000*	.60281	.10380	.39795	
EI1	154	4.0584	.79040	.06369	.022	.883	6.818	240	.000*	.74026	.10858	.52637	.95415	0.91
	88	3.3182	.85008	.09062			6.683	170.527		.000*	.74026	.11076	.52162	
EI2	154	3.9838	1.05474	.08499	1.226	.269	3.766	240	.000*	.51786	.13750	.24699	.78872	0.51
	88	3.4659	.98201	.10468			3.840	192.052		.000*	.51786	.13484	.25190	
JI	154	3.9831	.73099	.05891	2.497	.115	7.879	240	.000*	.83312	.10573	.62483	1.04140	1.06
	88	3.1500	.88733	.09459			7.476	154.362		.000*	.83312	.11143	.61299	
RIM	154	4.2938	.70255	.05661	4.817	.029	8.405	240	.000*	.86201	.10256	.65999	1.06404	1.13
	88	3.4318	.86994	.09274			7.934	151.931		.000*	.86201	.10865	.64735	
LI	154	3.4156	1.09336	.08811	.026	.871	6.480	240	.000*	.92127	.14217	.64121	1.20132	0.87
	88	2.4943	1.00999	.10767			6.622	193.256		.000*	.92127	.13912	.64688	
ET	152	3.2697	1.13768	.09228	3.221	.074	6.516	238	.000*	.92031	.14125	.64205	1.19856	0.88
	88	2.3494	.89180	.09507			6.946	217.122		.000*	.92031	.13249	.65918	
MS	154	3.9309	.72869	.05872	4.351	.038	8.020	235	.000*	.87726	.10939	.66176	1.09277	1.10
	83	3.0537	.92666	.10171			7.469	137.574		.000*	.87726	.11745	.64503	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 41: Comparison of mean scores of employees' familial union background

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	151	3.9956	.73835	.06009	7.045	.008	3.366	240	.001*	.35822	.10643	.14857	.56788	0.45
	91	3.6374	.89808	.09414			3.207	162.117		.002*	.35822	.11168	.13768	
EI1	151	3.9470	.84336	.06863	1.048	.307	3.659	240	.000*	.41955	.11466	.19369	.64541	0.49
	91	3.5275	.89727	.09406			3.603	180.623		.000*	.41955	.11644	.18980	
EI2	151	3.9205	1.02971	.08380	.032	.858	2.395	240	.017*	.33262	.13888	.05904	.60620	0.32
	91	3.5879	1.07392	.11258			2.370	183.551		.019*	.33262	.14034	.05573	
JI	151	3.8728	.81273	.06614	1.091	.297	4.532	240	.000*	.51241	.11307	.28968	.73514	0.60
	91	3.3604	.91371	.09578			4.402	172.725		.000*	.51241	.11640	.28266	
RIM	151	4.1589	.84729	.06895	1.335	.249	4.250	240	.000*	.47487	.11174	.25475	.69500	0.57
	91	3.6841	.83320	.08734			4.267	192.317		.000*	.47487	.11128	.25539	
LI	151	3.2748	1.18278	.09625	2.512	.114	3.459	240	.001*	.51659	.14936	.22236	.81083	0.46
	91	2.7582	1.02297	.10724			3.585	211.188		.000*	.51659	.14410	.23254	
ET	150	3.1283	1.18000	.09635	1.908	.168	3.513	238	.001*	.52278	.14881	.22962	.81593	0.47
	90	2.6056	.99998	.10541			3.661	211.609		.000*	.52278	.14281	.24127	
MS	147	3.8083	.81138	.06692	1.290	.257	4.150	235	.000*	.48606	.11713	.25531	.71682	0.56
	90	3.3222	.97066	.10232			3.976	163.227		.000*	.48606	.12226	.24465	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 42: Comparison of mean scores of employees with regard to spouse's or partner's union membership

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	127	4.0157	.79666	.07069	1.134	.288	3.148	240	.002*	.32589	.10353	.12196	.52983	0.41
	115	3.6899	.81257	.07577			3.145	236.624						
EI1	127	3.8740	.92956	.08248	1.788	.182	1.569	240	.118	.17836	.11369	-.04560	.40232	
	115	3.6957	.82901	.07731			1.578	239.948						
EI2	127	3.8425	1.03260	.09163	.018	.894	.727	240	.468	.09904	.13616	-.16918	.36726	
	115	3.7435	1.08491	.10117			.726	234.794						
JI	127	3.7827	.93809	.08324	2.784	.097	1.902	240	.058	.21572	.11342	-.00770	.43914	
	115	3.5670	.81345	.07585			1.915	239.563						
RIM	127	4.0276	.93554	.08302	8.369	.004	.885	240	.377	.09930	.11221	-.12174	.32034	
	115	3.9283	.79525	.07416			.892	239.068						
LI	127	3.0591	1.29807	.11518	12.268	.001	-.305	240	.760	-.04529	.14842	-.33766	.24707	
	115	3.1043	.96767	.09024			-1.310	231.671						
ET	127	2.9783	1.26461	.11222	8.704	.003	.661	238	.509	.09782	.14789	-.19353	.38916	
	113	2.8805	.98996	.09313			.671	234.297						
MS	122	3.6535	.91786	.08310	2.186	.141	.521	235	.603	.06141	.11777	-.17060	.29342	
	115	3.5921	.89343	.08331			.522	234.754						

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 43: Comparison of mean scores of employees with regard to approval of union membership by spouse or partner

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	178	3.9419	.81941	.06142	.265	.607	2.628	239	.009*	.31232	.11885	.07819	.54645	0.39
	63	3.6296	.78542	.09895			2.682	113.091						
EI1	178	3.8221	.91999	.06896	1.236	.267	.792	239	.429	.10252	.12951	-.15260	.35764	
	63	3.7196	.91999	.09695			.862	129.032						
EI2	178	3.8483	1.10445	.08278	6.555	.011	1.175	239	.241	.18165	.15463	-.12296	.48626	
	63	3.6667	.89803	.11314			1.296	132.818						
JI	178	3.7539	.89209	.06687	.001	.971	2.103	239	.037*	.27139	.12906	.01715	.52563	0.31
	63	3.4825	.84597	.10658			2.157	114.211						
RIM	178	4.0435	.88888	.06662	1.771	.185	1.750	239	.081	.22211	.12692	-.02792	.47214	
	63	3.8214	.79620	.10031			1.844	120.548						
LI	178	3.0702	1.23250	.09238	8.398	.004	-.148	239	.883	-.02501	.16918	-.35829	.30826	
	63	3.0952	.89288	.11249			-.172	149.935						
ET	177	2.9703	1.20877	.09086	6.753	.010	.923	237	.357	.15582	.16889	-.17689	.48854	
	62	2.8145	.93425	.11865			1.043	137.166						
MS	173	3.6684	.94403	.07177	4.599	.033	1.131	234	.259	.15038	.13293	-.11151	.41227	
	63	3.5180	.77941	.09820			1.236	132.328						

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

Table 44: Comparison of mean scores of employees regarding having requested union assistance during the previous 12 months

Constructs	N	Mean	Std deviation	SE Mean	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for Equality of Means						Practical significance d	
					F	Sig	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) P	Mean differences	SE differences	95% Confidence interval of the difference		
												Lower		Upper
ESH	127	3.9685	.78391	.06956	.045	.833	2.165	240	.031*	.22647	.10463	.02037	.43258	0.28
	115	3.7420	.84358	.07866			2.157	233.059		.032*	.22647	.10501	.01959	
EI1	127	3.9003	.94310	.08369	5.458	.020	2.062	240	.040*	.23360	.11327	.01046	.45673	0.27
	115	3.6667	.80447	.07502			2.078	239.167		.039*	.23360	.11239	.01220	
EI2	127	4.0079	.96770	.08587	1.485	.224	3.355	240	.001*	.44700	.13322	.18457	.70944	0.43
	115	3.5609	1.10451	.10300			3.333	227.925		.001*	.44700	.13410	.18278	
JI	127	3.7748	.92204	.08182	5.537	.019	1.754	240	.081	.19915	.11354	-.02452	.42282	
	115	3.5757	.83567	.07793			1.763	240.000		.079	.19915	.11299	-.02343	
RIM	127	4.1142	.85086	.07550	.040	.842	2.539	240	.012*	.28156	.11091	.06308	.50005	0.33
	115	3.8326	.87341	.08145			2.535	236.261		.012*	.28156	.11106	.06277	
LI	127	3.2323	1.21954	.10822	4.785	.030	2.172	240	.031*	.31924	.14701	.02965	.60883	0.28
	115	2.9130	1.04977	.09789			2.188	239.401		.030*	.31924	.14592	.03178	
ET	126	3.0774	1.18341	.10543	1.081	.299	2.083	238	.038*	.30545	.14663	.01659	.59431	0.27
	114	2.7719	1.07751	.10092			2.093	237.989		.037*	.30545	.14594	.01795	
MS	127	3.7316	.92176	.08179	1.607	.206	1.984	235	.048*	.23239	.11711	.00168	.46311	0.26
	110	3.4992	.87221	.08316			1.992	233.146		.048*	.23239	.11664	.00258	

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

6.5.1.7 Regular reading of union material (newsletter/literature)

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 38, indicated that those who regularly read union material and those who did not differed statistically significantly ($P < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .005$), *EI1* ($P = .002$), *EI2* ($P = .001$), *Jl* ($p = .000$), *RIM* ($P = 0.000$), *LI* ($P = .003$), *ET* ($p = .001$), and *MS* ($p = .001$). According to the mean scores, those who did not regularly read union material ($M = 3.6396$, $SD = .72519$; $M = 3.5270$, $SD = .86889$; $M = 3.4459$, $SD = .90874$; $M = 3.3297$, $SD = .86226$; $M = 3.5980$, $SD = .90737$; $M = 2.7500$, $SD = 1.00768$; $M = 2.5651$, $SD = .96017$; and $M = 3.3123$, $SD = .81796$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *Jl*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS* than those who regularly read union material ($M = 3.9583$, $SD = .84074$; $M = 3.9048$, $SD = .87102$; $M = 3.9494$, $SD = 1.08285$; $M = 3.8345$, $SD = .85387$; $M = 4.1488$, $SD = .80149$; $M = 3.2268$, $SD = 1.18222$; $M = 3.0928$, $SD = 1.18044$; and $M = 3.7516$, $SD = .90977$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .40$) for *ESH*; ($d = .44$) for *EI1*; ($d = .49$) for *EI2*; ($d = .59$) for *Jl*; ($d = .66$) for *RIM*; ($d = .42$) for *LI*; ($d = .47$) for *ET*; and ($d = .50$) for *MS* suggested a moderate/medium to high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.8 Participation in important union activities

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 39, indicated that those who did not participate in important union activities and those who did participate differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .000$), *EI1* ($p = .000$), *EI2* ($p = .000$), *Jl* ($p = .000$), *RIM* ($p = .000$), *LI* ($p = .000$), *ET* ($p = .000$), and *MS* ($p = .000$). According to the mean scores, those who did not participate in union activities ($M = 3.4556$, $SD = .79236$; $M = 3.3815$, $SD = .78462$; $M = 3.3389$, $SD = 1.07533$; $M = 3.2444$, $SD = .80603$; $M = 3.5944$, $SD = .82922$; $M = 2.7111$, $SD = .97433$; $M = 2.5083$, $SD = .90368$ and $M = 3.3171$, $SD = .80052$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *Jl*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS* than those who did participate in important union activities ($M = 4.1009$, $SD = .73795$; $M = 4.0307$, $SD = .85554$; $M = 4.0658$, $SD = .95023$; $M = 3.9382$, $SD = .83030$; $M = 4.2089$, $SD = .81554$; $M = 3.2993$, $SD = 1.19361$; $M = 3.1867$, $SD = 1.19640$; and $M = 3.8048$, $SD = .91627$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .85$) for *ESH*; ($d = .79$) for *EI1*; ($d = .73$) for *EI2*; ($d = .85$) for *Jl*; ($d = .75$) for *RIM*; ($d = .53$) for *LI*; ($d = .62$) for *ET*; and ($d = .56$) for *MS* suggested a high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.9 Fairness of monthly subscription fees

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 40, indicated that those who believed that the monthly subscription fees were not fair and those who believed that these were fair differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .000$), *EI1* ($p = .000$), *EI2* ($p = .000$), *JI* ($p = .000$), *RIM* ($p = .000$), *LI* ($p = .000$), *ET* ($p = .000$), and *MS* ($P = .000$). According to the mean scores, those who believed that the monthly subscription fees were unfair ($M = 3.4773$, $SD = .78913$; $M = 3.3182$, $SD = .85008$; $M = 3.4659$, $SD = .98201$; $M = 3.1500$, $SD = .88733$; $M = 3.4318$, $SD = .86994$; $M = 2.4943$, $SD = 1.00999$; $M = 2.3494$, $SD = .89180$; and $M = 3.0537$, $SD = .92666$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS* than those who believed that the monthly subscription fees were fair ($M = 4.0801$, $SD = .75461$; $M = 4.0584$, $SD = .79040$; $M = 3.9838$, $SD = 1.05474$; $M = 3.9831$, $SD = .73099$; $M = 4.2938$, $.70255$; $M = 3.4156$, $SD = 1.09336$; $M = 3.2697$, $SD = 1.13768$; and $M = 3.9309$, $SD = .72869$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .79$) for *ESH*; ($d = .91$) for *EI1*; ($d = .51$) for *EI2*; ($d = 1.06$) for *JI*; ($d = 1.13$) for *RIM*; ($d = .87$) for *LI*; ($d = .88$) for *ET*; and ($d = 1.10$) for *MS* suggested a high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.10 Familial union background

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 41, indicated that those without a familial union background and those with a familial union background differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .001$), *EI1* ($p = .000$), *EI2* ($p = .017$), *JI* ($p = .000$), *RIM* ($p = .000$), *LI* ($p = .001$), *ET* ($p = .001$), and *MS* ($p = .000$). According to the mean scores, those without a familial union background ($M = 3.6374$, $SD = .89808$; $M = 3.5275$, $SD = .89727$; $M = 3.5879$, $SD = 1.07392$; $M = 3.3604$, $SD = .91371$; $M = 3.6841$, $SD = .83320$; $M = 2.7582$, $SD = 1.02297$; $M = 2.6056$, $SD = .99998$; and $M = 3.3222$, $SD = .97066$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS* than those with a familial union background ($M = 3.9956$, $SD = .73835$; $M = 3.9470$, $SD = .84336$; $M = 3.9205$, $SD = 1.02971$; $M = 3.8728$, $SD = .81273$; $M = 4.1589$, $SD = .84729$; $M = 3.2748$, $SD = 1.18278$; $M = 3.1283$, $SD = 1.18000$; and $M = 3.8083$, $SD = .81138$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .45$) for *ESH*; ($d = .49$) for *EI1*; ($d = .32$) for *EI2*; ($d = .60$) for *JI*; ($d = .57$) for *RIM*; ($d = .46$) for *LI*; ($d = .47$) for *ET*; and ($d = .56$) for *MS* suggested a moderate/medium to high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.11 Spouse's or partner's union membership

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 42, indicated that those whose spouses or partners were not union members and those whose spouses or partners were union members differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .002$). According to the mean scores, those whose spouses or partners were not union members ($M = 3.6899$, $SD = .81257$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH* than those whose spouses or partners were union members ($M = 4.0157$, $SD = .79666$). Cohen's effect size value ($d = .41$) for *ESH* suggested a high/large practical significance.

6.5.1.12 Approval of union membership by spouse or partner

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 43, indicated that those who did not have the approval of their spouse or partner to hold union membership and those who did have such approval differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .009$) and *Jl* ($p = .037$). According to the mean scores, those who did not have the approval of their spouses or partners to hold union membership ($M = 3.6296$, $SD = .78542$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH* than those who had such approval ($M = 3.9419$, $SD = .81941$). Similarly, with *Jl*, those without the approval of their spouses or partners to hold union membership ($M = 3.4825$, $SD = .84597$) were less satisfied, compared to those who had such approval ($M = 3.7539$, $SD = .89209$). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .39$) for *ESH* and ($d = .31$) for *Jl* suggested a moderate/medium practical significance.

6.5.1.13 Requested union's assistance during the previous 12 months

The t-test results and mean scores, presented in Table 44, indicated that those who had requested their union's assistance during the previous 12 months and those who had not differed statistically significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *ESH* ($p = .031$), *EI1* ($p = .040$), *EI2* ($p = .001$), *RIM* ($p = .012$), *LI* ($p = .031$), *ET* ($p = .038$), and *MS* ($p = .048$). According to the mean scores, those who had not requested their union's assistance ($M = 3.7420$, $SD = .84358$; $M = 3.6667$, $SD = .80447$; $M = 3.5609$, $SD = 1.10451$; $M = 3.8326$, $SD = .87341$; $M = 2.9130$, $SD = 1.04977$; $M = 2.7719$, $SD = 1.07751$; and $M = 3.7316$, $SD = .87221$) were less satisfied with the provision of *ESH*, *EI1*, *EI2*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS* than those who had requested their union's assistance ($M = 3.9685$, $SD = .78391$; $M = 3.9003$,

SD = .94310; M = 4.0079, SD = .96770; M = 4.1142, SD = .85086; M = 3.2323, SD = 1.21954; M = 3.0774, SD = 1.18341; and M = 3.7316, SD = .92176). Cohen's effect size values ($d = .28$) for *ESH*; ($d = .27$) for *EI1*; ($d = .43$) for *EI2*; ($d = .33$) for *RIM*; ($d = .28$) for *LI*; ($d = .27$) for *ET*; and ($d = .26$) for *MS* suggested a moderate/medium practical significance.

6.5.2 ANOVA

One-way ANOVAs were used to assess the differences between groups with three or more variables or categories — age, number of dependents, highest educational qualification, job tenure, salary (income), community background, union membership, union membership tenure, frequency of attending meetings, and whether unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics. In instances where the overall F-value was significant ($F < 0.05$), a *post hoc* test was performed. The results of the ANOVAs and the associated Tukey's HSD multiple comparisons are presented in Tables 45 to 64.

6.5.2.1 Age

Table 45 displays the results obtained when services rendered by unions and age were compared. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Age (groups)* regarding *EI2* ($p = .042 < .05$).

Table 45: ANOVA results for Age and services offered by unions

<i>Services rendered by unions</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig (Pr > F)</i>
Employment conditions, health and safety (ESH)	3	.351	.520	.669
Economic benefits1 (EI1)	3	.268	.339	.797
Economic benefits2 (EI2)	3	3.031	2.774	.042
Job-related issues (JI)	3	.348	.440	.724
Representation in individual matters (RIM)	3	.643	.845	.470
Legal assistance (LI)	3	.061	.046	.987

Education and training (ET)	3	1.791	1.379	.250
Member services (MS)	3	.884	1.081	.358

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences for *EI2* were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 48 depicts the results of the post-hoc test for *EI2* and *Age*. Table 46 shows that there were no pairwise that differed statistically significantly, with a mean difference of $-.61499$ and p -value of $.069$ at the 5% level of significance, with an effect size for the significant pairwise difference of 0.35 .

Table 46: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *EI2* in relation to *Age*

Dependent Variable (I) A2	(J) A2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
<i>EI2</i>	18-29	30-39	-.30563	.17753	.399	-.8055	.1942
		40-49	-.41215	.19270	.209	-.9547	.1304
		50>	-.61499	.22939	.069	-1.2609	.0309
	30-39	18-29	.30563	.17753	.399	-.1942	.8055
		40-49	-.10652	.17213	.944	-.5912	.3781
		50>	-.30936	.21240	.549	-.9074	.2887
	40-49	18-29	.41215	.19270	.209	-.1304	.9547
		30-39	.10652	.17213	.944	-.3781	.5912
		50>	-.20283	.22523	.847	-.8370	.4313
	50>	18-29	.61499	.22939	.069	-.0309	1.2609
		30-39	.30936	.21240	.549	-.2887	.9074
		40-49	.20283	.22523	.847	-.4313	.8370

6.5.2.2 Number of dependants

Table 47 displays the results obtained when services rendered by unions were compared to the respondents' number of dependants. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Number of dependants (groups)* regarding the following dependent variables: *EI1* ($p = .004 < .05$), *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$), *JI* ($p = .000 < .05$), *RIM* ($p = .000 < .05$), *ET* ($p = .000 < .05$), and *MS* ($p = .001 < .05$).

Table 47: ANOVA results for *Number of dependants* and services offered by unions

Services rendered by unions	DF	Mean Square	F-value	Sig (Pr > F)
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	2	3.096	4.759	.009*
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	2	4.252	5.626	.004*

Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	2	9.203	8.772	.000*
Job-related issues (<i>JI</i>)	2	7.127	9.740	.000*
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	2	8.497	12.236	.000*
Legal assistance (<i>LI</i>)	2	6.518	5.089	.007*
Education and training (<i>ET</i>)	2	15.574	13.150	.000*
Member services (<i>MS</i>)	2	5.917	7.635	.001*

* Correlation is significant at .05

The statistical differences between the six dependent variables (*EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *ET*, and *MS*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 48 depicts the results of the *post hoc* tests for the six dependent variables and *Number of dependants*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different, with mean differences and *p*-values at the 5% level of significance and effect sizes (*ES*):

- *EI1* (3-5/6): $M = -.54786$; $p = .004$, with $ES = 0.27$;
- *EI2* (0-2/6): $M = -.69615$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.23$;
- *JI* (0-2/6): $M = -.46385$; $p = .005$, with $ES = 0.17$;
- *JI* (3-5/6): $M = -.70385$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.26$;
- *RIM* (0-2/6): $M = -.60577$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *RIM* (3-5/6): $M = -.70577$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.24$;
- *ET* (0-2/6): $M = -.69531$; $p = .001$, with $ES = 0.18$;
- *ET* (3-5/6): $M = -1.03750$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.26$;
- *MS* (0-2/6): $M = -.53294$; $p = .002$, with $ES = 0.22$; and
- *MS* (3-5/6): $M = -.58479$; $p = .003$, with $ES = 0.24$.

Table 48: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Number of dependants* in relation to *EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *ET*, and *MS*

Dependent Variable	(I) A6	(J) A6	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EI1	0-2	3-5	.20556	.13569	.319	-.1287	.5398
		6>	-.34231	.14265	.058	-.6937	.0091
	3-5	0-2	-.20556	.13569	.319	-.5398	.1287
		6>	-.54786	.16472	.004	-.9536	-.1421
	6 >	0-2	.34231	.14265	.058	-.0091	.6937
		3-5	.54786	.16472	.004	.1421	.9536
EI2	0-2	3-5	-.29359	.15985	.187	-.6873	.1002
		6>	-.69615	.16806	.000	-1.1101	-.2822
	3-5	0-2	.29359	.15985	.187	-.1002	.6873
		6>	-.40256	.19406	.119	-.8806	.0754
	6 >	0-2	.69615	.16806	.000	.2822	1.1101
		3-5	.40256	.19406	.119	-.0754	.8806
JI	0-2	3-5	.24000	.13350	.201	-.0888	.5688

	6>		-.46385	.14035	.005	-.8096	-.1181
	3-5	0-2	-.24000	.13350	.201	-.5688	.0888
	6>		-.70385	.16207	.000	-1.1030	-.3047
	6 >	0-2	.46385	.14035	.005	.1181	.8096
		3-5	.70385	.16207	.000	.3047	1.1030
RIM	0-2	3-5	.10000	.13006	.744	-.2204	.4204
		6>	-.60577	.13674	.000	-.9426	-.2690
	3-5	0-2	-.10000	.13006	.744	-.4204	.2204
		6>	-.70577	.15789	.000	-1.0947	-.3169
	6 >	0-2	.60577	.13674	.000	.2690	.9426
		3-5	.70577	.15789	.000	.3169	1.0947
ET	0-2	3-5	.34219	.17027	.135	-.0772	.7616
		6>	-.69531	.17897	.001	-1.1362	-.2545
	3-5	0-2	-.34219	.17027	.135	-.7616	.0772
		6>	-1.03750	.20619	.000	-1.5454	-.5296
	6 >	0-2	.69531	.17897	.001	.2545	1.1362
		3-5	1.03750	.20619	.000	.5296	1.5454
MS	0-2	3-5	.05185	.13835	.932	-.2890	.3927
		6>	-.53294	.14772	.002	-.8969	-.1690
	3-5	0-2	-.05185	.13835	.932	-.3927	.2890
		6>	-.58479	.17014	.003	-1.0039	-.1656
	6 >	0-2	.53294	.14772	.002	.1690	.8969
		3-5	.58479	.17014	.003	.1656	1.0039

6.5.2.3 Educational qualification

Table 49 displays the results obtained with regard to services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' highest educational qualifications. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Educational qualification (groups)* regarding *LI* ($p = .011 < .05$) and *ET* ($p = .005 < .05$).

Table 49: ANOVA results for *Educational qualification* and services offered by unions

<i>Services rendered by unions</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig (Pr > F)</i>
Employment conditions, health, and safety (ESH)	3	.626	.932	.426
Economic benefits1 (EI1)	3	.065	.081	.970
Economic benefits2 (EI2)	3	2.301	2.089	.102
Job-related issues (JI)	3	.425	.539	.656
Representation in individual matters (RIM)	3	1.259	1.672	.174
Legal assistance (LI)	3	4.835	3.777	.011*
Education and training (ET)	3	5.555	4.441	.005*
Member services (MS)	3	1.680	2.080	.104

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences between *LI* and *ET* were further analysed using *post hoc* tests. Table 50 depicts the results of the post-hoc tests for *LI* and *ET* and *Educational qualification*.

Table 50: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Educational qualification* in relation to *LI* and *ET*

Dependent Variable (I) A7	(J) A7	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
LI	Matric or below	Post matric diploma or certificate	.35263	.18956	.328	-.1811	.8864
		Degree	-.24980	.20531	.687	-.8279	.3283
		Postgraduate	.05789	.27141	.997	-.7063	.8221
	Post matric diploma or certificate	Matric or below	-.35263	.18956	.328	-.8864	.1811
		Degree	-.60243	.18213	.013	-1.1152	-.0896
		Postgraduate	-.29474	.25432	.719	-1.0108	.4213
	Degree	Matric or below	.24980	.20531	.687	-.3283	.8279
		Post matric diploma or certificate	.60243	.18213	.013	.0896	1.1152
		Postgraduate	.30769	.26627	.721	-.4420	1.0574
	Post-graduate	Matric or below	-.05789	.27141	.997	-.8221	.7063
		Post-matric diploma or certificate	.29474	.25432	.719	-.4213	1.0108
		Degree	-.30769	.26627	.721	-1.0574	.4420
ET	Matric or below	Post-matric diploma or certificate	.40264	.18879	.211	-.1289	.9342
		Degree	-.22383	.20390	.752	-.7980	.3503
		Postgraduate	-.06768	.26900	.996	-.8251	.6898
	Post-matric diploma or certificate	Matric or below	-.40264	.18879	.211	-.9342	.1289
		Degree	-.62647	.18041	.008	-1.1345	-.1185
		Postgraduate	-.47032	.25166	.324	-1.1789	.2383
	Degree	Matric or below	.22383	.20390	.752	-.3503	.7980
		Post matric diploma or certificate	.62647	.18041	.008	.1185	1.1345
		Postgraduate	.15615	.26319	.950	-.5849	.8972
	Postgraduate	Matric or below	.06768	.26900	.996	-.6898	.8251
		Post-matric diploma or certificate	.47032	.25166	.324	-.2383	1.1789
		Degree	-.15615	.26319	.950	-.8972	.5849

The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 10% level of significance:

- *LI* (Degree/Post-matric diploma or certificate): $M = .60243$; $p = .013$, with $ES = 0.27$; and
- *ET* (Post-matric diploma or certificate/Degree): $M = -.62647$; $p = .008$, with $ES = 0.27$.

6.5.2.4 Job tenure

Table 51 displays the results obtained with regard to services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' job tenure. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Job tenure* regarding *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$); *RIM* ($p = .002 < .05$); *ET* ($p = .000 < .05$) and *MS* ($p = .003 < .05$).

Table 51: ANOVA results for *Job tenure* and services offered by unions

Services rendered by unions		DF	Mean Square	F-value	Sig (Pr > F)
Employment conditions, health, and safety (ESH)		2	.311	.462	.630
Economic benefits1 (EI1)		2	2.348	3.042	.050
Economic benefits2 (EI2)		2	11.726	11.407	.000*
Job-related issues (JI)		2	1.553	1.995	.138
Representation in individual matters (RIM)		2	4.703	6.476	.002*
Legal assistance (LI)		2	3.695	2.833	.061
Education and training (ET)		2	11.276	9.238	.000*
Member services (MS)		2	4.720	6.012	.003*

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences between the four dependent variables (*EI2*, *RIM*, *ET*, and *MS*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 52, below, depicts the results of the post-hoc test for the four dependent variables and *Job tenure of service*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 5% level of significance:

- *EI2* (0-9/20 >): $M = -.71358$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *RIM* (0-9/20 >): $M = -.44577$; $p = .002$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *RIM* (10-19/20 >): $M = -.36195$; $p = .036$ with $ES = 0.17$;
- *ET* (0-9/20 >): $M = -.71244$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *ET* (10-19/20 >): $M = -.45559$; $p = .043$, with $ES = 0.14$; and
- *MS* (0-9/20 >): $M = -.46751$; $p = .002$, with $ES = 0.22$.

Table 52: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Job tenure* in relation to *EI2*, *RIM*, *ET*, and *MS*

Dependent Variable	(I) A8_3G	(J) A8_3G	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EI2	1.00	2.00	-.44246*	.16410	.020	-.8295	-.0554
		3.00	-.71358*	.15195	.000	-1.0719	-.3552
	2.00	1.00	.44246*	.16410	.020	.0554	.8295
		3.00	-.27111	.17281	.261	-.6787	.1364

	3.00	1.00	.71358*	.15195	.000	.3552	1.0719
		2.00	.27111	.17281	.261	-.1364	.6787
RIM	1.00	2.00	-.08382	.13793	.816	-.4091	.2415
		3.00	-.44577*	.12772	.002	-.7470	-.1446
	2.00	1.00	.08382	.13793	.816	-.2415	.4091
		3.00	-.36195*	.14525	.036	-.7045	-.0194
	3.00	1.00	.44577*	.12772	.002	.1446	.7470
		2.00	.36195*	.14525	.036	.0194	.7045
ET	1.00	2.00	-.25684	.17949	.327	-.6802	.1665
		3.00	-.71244*	.16630	.000	-1.1047	-.3202
	2.00	1.00	.25684	.17949	.327	-.1665	.6802
		3.00	-.45559*	.18831	.043	-.8997	-.0115
	3.00	1.00	.71244*	.16630	.000	.3202	1.1047
		2.00	.45559*	.18831	.043	.0115	.8997
MS	1.00	2.00	-.19484	.14395	.367	-.5344	.1447
		3.00	-.46751*	.13484	.002	-.7856	-.1495
	2.00	1.00	.19484	.14395	.367	-.1447	.5344
		3.00	-.27267	.15232	.175	-.6320	.0866
	3.00	1.00	.46751*	.13484	.002	.1495	.7856
		2.00	.27267	.15232	.175	-.0866	.6320

6.5.2.5 Salary

Table 53 displays the results obtained for services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' salary per annum. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Salary* regarding *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$) and *RIM* ($p = .001 < .05$).

Table 53: ANOVA results for *Salary* and services offered by unions

<i>Services rendered by unions</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig (Pr > F)</i>
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	2	.020	.029	.971
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	2	.638	.812	.445
Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	2	9.030	8.596	.000*
Job-related issues (<i>Jl</i>)	2	1.690	2.174	.116
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	2	5.201	7.203	.001*
Legal assistance (<i>LI</i>)	2	3.329	2.546	.081
Education and training (<i>ET</i>)	2	6.635	5.266	.006
Member services (<i>MS</i>)	2	4.045	5.114	.007

* *Correlation is significant at .05 level*

The statistical differences between the two dependent variables (i.e. *EI2* and *RIM*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 54 depicts the results of the post-hoc test for

the two dependent variables and *Salary*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 5% level of significance:

- *EI2* (Low income/Medium income): $M = -.76466$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.26$; and
- *RIM* (Low income/Medium income): $M = -.58944$; $p = .001$, with $ES = 0.26$.

Table 54: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Salary* in relation to *EI2* and *RIM*

Dependent Variable	(I) A9_ADJ	(J) A9_ADJ	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EI2	1.00	2.00	-.30593	.14584	.092	-.6499	.0380
		3.00	-.76466 [*]	.18793	.000	-1.2079	-.3214
	2.00	1.00	.30593	.14584	.092	-.0380	.6499
		3.00	-.45872	.19616	.053	-.9213	.0039
	3.00	1.00	.76466 [*]	.18793	.000	.3214	1.2079
		2.00	.45872	.19616	.053	-.0039	.9213
RIM	1.00	2.00	-.18610	.12091	.275	-.4713	.0991
		3.00	-.58944 [*]	.15581	.001	-.9569	-.2220
	2.00	1.00	.18610	.12091	.275	-.0991	.4713
		3.00	-.40334 [*]	.16262	.037	-.7869	-.0198
	3.00	1.00	.58944 [*]	.15581	.001	.2220	.9569
		2.00	.40334 [*]	.16262	.037	.0198	.7869

6.5.2.6 Community background

Table 55 displays the results obtained when services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' community background. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Community background (groups)* regarding *ESH* ($p = .020 < .05$), *EI1* ($p = .012 < .05$), *Jl* ($p = .036 < .05$), and *RIM* ($p = .030 < .05$).

Table 55: ANOVA results for *Community background* and services offered by unions

<i>Services rendered by unions</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig (Pr > F)</i>
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	2	2.608	3.987	.020 [*]
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	2	3.466	4.528	.012 [*]
Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	2	2.785	2.516	.083
Job-related issues (<i>Jl</i>)	2	2.597	3.362	.036 [*]
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	2	2.654	3.567	.030 [*]
Legal assistance (<i>LI</i>)	2	3.492	2.664	.072
Education and training (<i>ET</i>)	2	3.927	3.049	.049

Member services (MS)	2	1.622	1.991	.139
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* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences between the four dependent variables (i.e. *ESH*, *EI1*, *JI* and *RIM*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 56 depicts the results of the *post hoc* test for the four dependent variables and *Community background*.

Table 56: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Community background* in relation to *ESH*, *EI1*, *JI*, and *RIM*

Dependent Variable	(I) A10	(J) A10	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ESH	1.00	2.00	-.19003	.13191	.322	-.5011	.1211
		3.00	-.33997 [*]	.12105	.015	-.6255	-.0545
	2.00	1.00	.19003	.13191	.322	-.1211	.5011
		3.00	-.14994	.13675	.517	-.4725	.1726
	3.00	1.00	.33997 [*]	.12105	.015	.0545	.6255
		2.00	.14994	.13675	.517	-.1726	.4725
EI1	1.00	2.00	-.35486 [*]	.14269	.036	-.6914	-.0183
		3.00	-.33773 [*]	.13095	.028	-.6466	-.0289
	2.00	1.00	.35486 [*]	.14269	.036	.0183	.6914
		3.00	.01713	.14794	.993	-.3318	.3660
	3.00	1.00	.33773 [*]	.13095	.028	.0289	.6466
		2.00	-.01713	.14794	.993	-.3660	.3318
JI	1.00	2.00	-.33198	.14333	.055	-.6700	.0061
		3.00	-.26665	.13153	.108	-.5769	.0436
	2.00	1.00	.33198	.14333	.055	-.0061	.6700
		3.00	.06533	.14860	.899	-.2851	.4158
	3.00	1.00	.26665	.13153	.108	-.0436	.5769
		2.00	-.06533	.14860	.899	-.4158	.2851
RIM	1.00	2.00	-.33832 [*]	.14067	.044	-.6701	-.0066
		3.00	-.26605	.12909	.100	-.5705	.0384
	2.00	1.00	.33832 [*]	.14067	.044	.0066	.6701
		3.00	.07227	.14584	.874	-.2717	.4162
	3.00	1.00	.26605	.12909	.100	-.0384	.5705
		2.00	-.07227	.14584	.874	-.4162	.2717

The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 5% level of significance:

- *ESH* (Urban/Rural): $M = -.33997$; $p = .015$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *EI1* (Urban/Peri-urban): $M = -.35486$; $p = .036$, with $ES = 0.19$;
- *EI1* (Urban/Rural): $M = -.33773$; $p = .028$ with $ES = 0.18$; and
- *RIM* (Urban/Peri-urban): $M = -.33832$; $p = .044$, with $ES = 0.21$.

6.5.2.7 Union membership

Table 57 displays the results obtained or services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' union membership. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Union membership* groups towards *EI1* ($p = .040 < .05$), *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$), *RIM* ($p = .032 < .05$), and *MS* ($p = .029 < .05$).

Table 57: ANOVA results for *Union membership*

<i>Services rendered by unions</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Sig (Pr > F)</i>
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	2	1.949	2.953	.054
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	2	2.513	3.262	.040*
Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	2	12.462	12.197	.000*
Job-related issues (<i>JI</i>)	2	.305	.386	.680
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	2	2.599	3.495	.032*
Legal assistance (<i>LI</i>)	2	.994	.749	.474
Education and training (<i>ET</i>)	2	1.409	1.081	.341
Member services (<i>MS</i>)	2	2.869	3.582	.029*

* *Correlation is significant at .05 level*

The statistical differences between the four dependent variables (*EI1*, *EI2*, *RIM*, and *MS*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 58 depicts the results of the *post hoc* test for the four dependent variables and *Union membership*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 5% level of significance:

- *EI2* (NEHAWU/PSA): $M = -.75518$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *EI2* (NEHAWU/SADTU): $M = -.44105$; $p = .038$, with $ES = 0.13$;
- *RIM* (NEHAWU/PSA): $M = -.32288$; $p = .049$, with $ES = 0.20$; and
- *MS* (NEHAWU/PSA): $M = -.36613$; $p = .029$, with $ES = 0.22$.

Table 58: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Union membership* in relation to *EI1*, *EI2*, *RIM*, and *MS*

Dependent Variable	(I) B1	(J) B1	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EI1	NEHAWU	PSA	.26698	.13278	.135	-.0601	.5941
		SADTU	-.05005	.14846	.945	-.4157	.3156
	PSA	NEHAWU	-.26698	.13278	.135	-.5941	.0601
		SADTU	-.31704	.14023	.080	-.6624	.0284
	SADTU	NEHAWU	.05005	.14846	.945	-.3156	.4157
		PSA	.31704	.14023	.080	-.0284	.6624
EI2	NEHAWU	PSA	-.75518*	.15293	.000	-1.1319	-.3785
		SADTU	-.44105*	.17098	.038	-.8622	-.0199
	PSA	NEHAWU	.75518*	.15293	.000	.3785	1.1319
		SADTU	.31412	.16150	.153	-.0837	.7119
	SADTU	NEHAWU	.44105*	.17098	.038	.0199	.8622
		PSA	-.31412	.16150	.153	-.7119	.0837
RIM	NEHAWU	PSA	-.32288*	.13048	.049	-.6443	-.0015
		SADTU	-.30017	.14588	.123	-.6595	.0592
	PSA	NEHAWU	.32288*	.13048	.049	.0015	.6443
		SADTU	.02270	.13779	.987	-.3167	.3621
	SADTU	NEHAWU	.30017	.14588	.123	-.0592	.6595
		PSA	-.02270	.13779	.987	-.3621	.3167
MS	NEHAWU	PSA	-.36613*	.13679	.029	-.7031	-.0291
		SADTU	-.20183	.15249	.418	-.5775	.1738
	PSA	NEHAWU	.36613*	.13679	.029	.0291	.7031
		SADTU	.16430	.14452	.525	-.1917	.5203
	SADTU	NEHAWU	.20183	.15249	.418	-.1738	.5775
		PSA	-.16430	.14452	.525	-.5203	.1917

6.5.2.8 *Union membership tenure*

Table 59 displays the results obtained when services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' union membership tenure. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Union membership tenure (groups)* regarding *EI1* ($p = .001 < .05$), *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$), *JI* ($p = .000 < .05$), *RIM* ($p = .000 < .05$), *LI* ($p = .004 < .05$), *ET* ($p = .000 < .05$), and *MS* ($p = .000 < .05$).

Table 59: ANOVA results for *Union membership tenure* and services offered by unions

Services rendered by unions	DF	Mean Square	F-value	Sig (Pr > F)
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	2	1.964	2.977	.053
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	2	5.269	7.050	.001*
Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	2	15.870	15.978	.000*
Job-related issues (<i>JI</i>)	2	6.301	8.530	.000*
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	2	9.443	13.754	.000*

Legal assistance (LI)	2	7.299	5.727	.004*
Education and training (ET)	2	22.726	20.219	.000*
Member services (MS)	2	10.078	13.632	.000*

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences between the seven dependent variables (*EI1*, *EI2*, *JI*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 60 depicts the results of the *post hoc* test for the seven dependent variables and *Union membership tenure*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 5% level of significance:

- *EI1* (0-10/20 >): $M = -.52624$; $p = .001$, with $ES = 0.23$;
- *EI2* (0-10/20 >): $M = -.91194$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.23$;
- *EI2* (11-19/20 >): $M = -.59162$; $p = .018$, with $ES = 0.15$;
- *JI* (0-10/20 >): $M = -.56000$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.22$;
- *RIM* (0-10/20 >): $M = -.70500$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.23$;
- *RIM* (11-19/20 >): $M = -.47797$; $p = .023$, with $ES = 0.16$;
- *LI* (0-10/20 >): $M = -.57000$; $p = .006$, with $ES = 0.21$;
- *ET* (0-10/20 >): $M = -1.08948$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.23$;
- *ET* (11-19/20 >): $M = -.66919$, $p = .011$, with $ES = 0.14$;
- *MS* (0-10/20 >): $M = -.74077$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.23$; and
- *MS* (11-19/20 >): $M = -.44979$; $p = .047$, with $ES = 0.14$.

Table 60: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Union membership tenure* in relation to *EI1*, *EI2* and *JI*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS*

Dependent Variable	(I) B2_3G	(J) B2_3G	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EI1	1.00	2.00	-.17507	.15817	.511	-.5481	.1980
		3.00	-.52624 ^a	.14060	.001	-.8578	-.1947
	2.00	1.00	.17507	.15817	.511	-.1980	.5481
		3.00	-.35117	.18746	.149	-.7933	.0909
	3.00	1.00	.52624 ^a	.14060	.001	.1947	.8578
		2.00	.35117	.18746	.149	-.0909	.7933
EI2	1.00	2.00	-.32031	.18235	.187	-.7504	.1097
		3.00	-.91194 ^a	.16209	.000	-1.2942	-.5297
	2.00	1.00	.32031	.18235	.187	-.1097	.7504
		3.00	-.59162 ^a	.21612	.018	-1.1013	-.0819
	3.00	1.00	.91194 ^a	.16209	.000	.5297	1.2942
		2.00	.59162 ^a	.21612	.018	.0819	1.1013
JI	1.00	2.00	-.29081	.15725	.156	-.6617	.0800
		3.00	-.56000 ^a	.13977	.000	-.8896	-.2304



	2.00	1.00	.29081	.15725	.156	-.0800	.6617
		3.00	-.26919	.18637	.320	-.7087	.1703
	3.00	1.00	.56000	.13977	.000	.2304	.8896
		2.00	.26919	.18637	.320	-.1703	.7087
RIM	1.00	2.00	-.22703	.15161	.294	-.5846	.1305
		3.00	-.70500	.13476	.000	-1.0228	-.3872
	2.00	1.00	.22703	.15161	.294	-.1305	.5846
		3.00	-.47797	.17968	.023	-.9017	-.0542
	3.00	1.00	.70500	.13476	.000	.3872	1.0228
		2.00	.47797	.17968	.023	.0542	.9017
LI	1.00	2.00	-.41081	.20656	.117	-.8980	.0763
		3.00	-.57000	.18360	.006	-1.0030	-.1370
	2.00	1.00	.41081	.20656	.117	-.0763	.8980
		3.00	-.15919	.24481	.792	-.7365	.4182
	3.00	1.00	.57000	.18360	.006	.1370	1.0030
		2.00	.15919	.24481	.792	-.4182	.7365
ET	1.00	2.00	-.42029	.19423	.080	-.8784	.0378
		3.00	-1.08948	.17270	.000	-1.4968	-.6822
	2.00	1.00	.42029	.19423	.080	-.0378	.8784
		3.00	-.66919	.22991	.011	-1.2114	-.1269
	3.00	1.00	1.08948	.17270	.000	.6822	1.4968
		2.00	.66919	.22991	.011	.1269	1.2114
MS	1.00	2.00	-.29099	.15753	.157	-.6625	.0806
		3.00	-.74077	.14340	.000	-1.0790	-.4025
	2.00	1.00	.29099	.15753	.157	-.0806	.6625
		3.00	-.44979	.18898	.047	-.8955	-.0040
	3.00	1.00	.74077	.14340	.000	.4025	1.0790
		2.00	.44979	.18898	.047	.0040	.8955

6.5.2.9 Frequency of meeting attendance

Table 61 displays the results obtained when services rendered by unions in comparison to the respondents' frequency of meeting attendance. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Frequency of meeting attendance (groups)* regarding *ESH* ($p = .000 < .05$), *EI1* ($p = .000 < .05$), *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$), *JI* ($p = .000 < .05$), *RIM* ($p = .000 < .05$), *LI* ($p = .000 < .05$), *ET* ($p = .000 < .05$), and *MS* ($p = .000 < .05$).

Table 61: ANOVA results for *Frequency of meeting attendance* and services offered by unions

Services rendered by unions	DF	Mean Square	F-value	Sig (Pr > F)
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	3	6.392	10.678	.000
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	3	5.630	7.779	.000
Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	3	6.178	5.868	.000
Job-related issues (<i>JI</i>)	3	9.801	14.604	.000
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	3	5.379	7.674	.000
Legal assistance (<i>LI</i>)	3	13.095	11.135	.000

Education and training (ET)	3	16.479	14.821	.000*
Member services (MS)	3	7.112	9.645	.000*

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences between all eight dependent variables (*EI1*, *EI2*, *Jl*, *RIM*, *LI*, *ET*, and *MS*) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 62 depicts the results of the *post hoc* test for the eight dependent variables and *Frequency of meeting attendance*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 10% level of significance:

- *ESH* (Not at all/Regularly): $M = -.39630$; $p = .033$, with $ES = 0.16$;
- *ESH* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.85265$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.34$;
- *EI1* (Not at all/Regularly): $M = -.88042$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.37$;
- *EI1* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.63333$; $p = .013$, with $ES = 0.27$;
- *EI2* (Not at all/Regularly): $M = -.64630$; $p = .005$, with $ES = 0.26$;
- *EI1* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.67738$; $p = .027$, with $ES = 0.27$;
- *Jl* (Not at all/Regularly): $M = -.47778$; $p = .011$, with $ES = 0.15$;
- *Jl* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -1.14127$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.37$;
- *RIM* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.85933$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.37$;
- *RIM* (Sometimes/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.59821$; $p = .018$, with $ES = 0.26$;
- *RIM* (Regularly/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.56118$; $p = .043$, with $ES = 0.26$;
- *LI* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -1.33492$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.37$;
- *LI* (Sometimes/Never missed a meeting): $M = -1.12143$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.31$;
- *LI* (Regularly/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.92196$; $p = .005$, with $ES = 0.26$;
- *ET* (Not at all/Regularly): $M = -.49194$; $p = .040$, with $ES = 0.12$;
- *ET* (Not at all/Sometimes): $M = -.52596$; $p = .041$, with $ES = 0.13$;
- *ET* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -1.50281$; $p = .002$, with $ES = 0.37$;
- *MS* (Not at all/Sometimes): $M = -.46628$; $p = .012$, with $ES = 0.17$;
- *MS* (Not at all/Regularly): $M = -.49627$; $p = .012$, with $ES = 0.18$; and
- *MS* (Not at all/Never missed a meeting): $M = -.89731$; $p = .000$, with $ES = 0.34$.

Table 62: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Frequency of meeting attendance* in relation to ESH, EI1, EI2, JI, RIM, LI, ET, and MS

Dependent Variable	(I) B4		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
	(J) B4					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ESH	Not at all	Sometimes	-.05026	.12330	.983	-.3974	.2969
		Regularly	-.39630 [*]	.13318	.033	-.7713	-.0213
		Never missed a meeting	-.85265 [*]	.16742	.000	-1.3240	-.3812
	Sometimes	Not at all	.05026	.12330	.983	-.2969	.3974
		Regularly	-.34603	.14013	.110	-.7406	.0485
		Never missed a meeting	-.80238 [*]	.17301	.000	-1.2895	-.3153
	Regularly	Not at all	.39630 [*]	.13318	.033	.0213	.7713
		Sometimes	.34603	.14013	.110	-.0485	.7406
		Never missed a meeting	-.45635	.18018	.096	-.9637	.0510
	Never missed a meeting	Not at all	.85265 [*]	.16742	.000	.3812	1.3240
		Sometimes	.80238 [*]	.17301	.000	.3153	1.2895
		Regularly	.45635	.18018	.096	-.0510	.9637
EI1	Not at all	Sometimes	-.24709	.13558	.347	-.6288	.1346
		Regularly	-.30370	.14644	.234	-.7160	.1086
		Never missed a meeting	-.88042 [*]	.18409	.000	-1.3987	-.3621
	Sometimes	Not at all	.24709	.13558	.347	-.1346	.6288
		Regularly	-.05661	.15408	.987	-.4905	.3772
		Never missed a meeting	-.63333 [*]	.19023	.013	-1.1689	-.0977
	Regularly	Not at all	.30370	.14644	.234	-.1086	.7160
		Sometimes	.05661	.15408	.987	-.3772	.4905
		Never missed a meeting	-.57672 [*]	.19812	.039	-1.1345	-.0189
	Never missed a meeting	Not at all	.88042 [*]	.18409	.000	.3621	1.3987
		Sometimes	.63333 [*]	.19023	.013	.0977	1.1689
		Regularly	.57672 [*]	.19812	.039	.0189	1.1345
EI2	Not at all	Sometimes	-.30952	.16352	.313	-.7699	.1509
		Regularly	-.64630 [*]	.17663	.005	-1.1436	-.1490
		Never missed a meeting	-.67738 [*]	.22204	.027	-1.3026	-.0522
	Sometimes	Not at all	.30952	.16352	.313	-.1509	.7699
		Regularly	-.33677	.18585	.352	-.8600	.1865
		Never missed a meeting	-.36786	.22945	.464	-1.0139	.2782
	Regularly	Not at all	.64630 [*]	.17663	.005	.1490	1.1436
		Sometimes	.33677	.18585	.352	-.1865	.8600
		Never missed a meeting	-.03108	.23896	.999	-.7039	.6417
	Never missed a meeting	Not at all	.67738 [*]	.22204	.027	.0522	1.3026
		Sometimes	.36786	.22945	.464	-.2782	1.0139
		Regularly	.03108	.23896	.999	-.6417	.7039
JI	Not at all	Sometimes	-.33556	.13055	.088	-.7031	.0320
		Regularly	-.47778 [*]	.14101	.011	-.8748	-.0807
		Never missed a meeting	-1.14127 [*]	.17727	.000	-1.6404	-.6421
	Sometimes	Not at all	.33556	.13055	.088	-.0320	.7031
		Regularly	-.14222	.14837	.821	-.5600	.2755
		Never missed a meeting	-.80571 [*]	.18318	.000	-1.3215	-.2900
	Regularly	Not at all	.47778 [*]	.14101	.011	.0807	.8748
		Sometimes	.14222	.14837	.821	-.2755	.5600
		Never missed a meeting	-.66349 [*]	.19078	.008	-1.2006	-.1263
	Never missed a meeting	Not at all	1.14127 [*]	.17727	.000	.6421	1.6404
		Sometimes	.80571 [*]	.18318	.000	.2900	1.3215
		Regularly	.66349 [*]	.19078	.008	.1263	1.2006
RIM	Not at all	Sometimes	-.26111	.13343	.283	-.6368	.1146
		Regularly	-.29815	.14412	.236	-.7039	.1076
		Never missed a meeting	-.85933 [*]	.18117	.000	-1.3694	-.3492
	Sometimes	Not at all	.26111	.13343	.283	-.1146	.6368
		Regularly	-.03704	.15164	.996	-.4640	.3899
		Never missed a meeting	-.59821 [*]	.18721	.018	-1.1253	-.0711
	Regularly	Not at all	.29815	.14412	.236	-.1076	.7039
		Sometimes	.03704	.15164	.996	-.3899	.4640
		Never missed a meeting	-.56118 [*]	.19498	.043	-1.1102	-.0122
	Never missed a meeting	Not at all	.85933 [*]	.18117	.000	.3492	1.3694
		Sometimes	.59821 [*]	.18721	.018	.0711	1.1253
		Regularly	.56118 [*]	.19498	.043	.0122	1.1102
LI	Not at all	Sometimes	-.21349	.17282	.677	-.7001	.2731
		Regularly	-.41296	.18667	.183	-.9385	.1126
		Never missed a meeting	-1.33492 [*]	.23466	.000	-1.9956	-.6742
	Sometimes	Not at all	.21349	.17282	.677	-.2731	.7001
		Regularly	-.19947	.19641	.794	-.7525	.3536
		Never missed a meeting	-1.12143 [*]	.24249	.000	-1.8042	-.4387
	Regularly	Not at all	.41296	.18667	.183	-.1126	.9385
		Sometimes	.19947	.19641	.794	-.3536	.7525
		Never missed a meeting	-.92196 [*]	.25254	.005	-1.6330	-.2109
	Never missed	Not at all	1.33492 [*]	.23466	.000	.6742	1.9956



	a meeting	Sometimes	1.12143 [*]	.24249	.000	.4387	1.8042
		Regularly	.92196 [*]	.25254	.005	.2109	1.6330
ET	Not at all	Sometimes	-.49194 [*]	.16914	.040	-.9682	-.0157
		Regularly	-.52596 [*]	.18189	.041	-1.0381	-.0138
		Never missed a meeting	-1.50281 [*]	.22848	.000	-2.1462	-.8595
	Sometimes	Not at all	.49194 [*]	.16914	.040	.0157	.9682
		Regularly	-.03402	.19158	.999	-.5735	.5054
		Never missed a meeting	-1.01087 [*]	.23627	.001	-1.6762	-.3456
	Regularly	Not at all	.52596 [*]	.18189	.041	.0138	1.0381
		Sometimes	.03402	.19158	.999	-.5054	.5735
		Never missed a meeting	-.97685 [*]	.24556	.002	-1.6683	-.2854
Never missed a meeting	Not at all	1.50281 [*]	.22848	.000	.8595	2.1462	
	Sometimes	1.01087 [*]	.23627	.001	.3456	1.6762	
	Regularly	.97685 [*]	.24556	.002	.2854	1.6683	
MS	Not at all	Sometimes	-.46628 [*]	.13950	.012	-.8591	-.0735
		Regularly	-.49627 [*]	.14813	.012	-.9134	-.0791
		Never missed a meeting	-.89731 [*]	.18607	.000	-1.4213	-.3733
	Sometimes	Not at all	.46628 [*]	.13950	.012	.0735	.8591
		Regularly	-.03000	.15757	.998	-.4737	.4137
		Never missed a meeting	-.43103	.19368	.178	-.9764	.1144
	Regularly	Not at all	.49627 [*]	.14813	.012	.0791	.9134
		Sometimes	.03000	.15757	.998	-.4137	.4737
		Never missed a meeting	-.40103	.19998	.262	-.9642	.1621
	Never missed a meeting	Not at all	.89731 [*]	.18607	.000	.3733	1.4213
		Sometimes	.43103	.19368	.178	-.1144	.9764
		Regularly	.40103	.19998	.262	-.1621	.9642

6.5.2.10 Unions should concentrate on workplace-related issues and less on politics

Table 63 displays the results obtained when services rendered by unions were compared to whether unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics. Using one-way ANOVA, it was determined that there was a statistically significant difference between the covariate *Unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics (groups)* regarding *EI2* ($p = .000 < .05$), *ET* ($p = .033 < .05$), and *MS* ($p = .016 < .05$).

Table 63: ANOVA results for *Unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics* and services offered by unions

Services rendered by unions	DF	Mean Square	F-value	Sig (Pr > F)
Employment conditions, health, and safety (<i>ESH</i>)	2	.039	.058	.943
Economic benefits1 (<i>EI1</i>)	2	1.084	1.385	.252
Economic benefits2 (<i>EI2</i>)	2	9.136	8.705	.000
Job-related issues (<i>Jl</i>)	2	1.564	2.010	.136
Representation in individual matters (<i>RIM</i>)	2	2.205	2.952	.054
Legal assistance (<i>LI</i>)	2	1.503	1.136	.323

Education and training (ET)	2	4.417	3.455	.033*
Member services (MS)	2	3.338	4.188	.016*

* Correlation is significant at .05 level

The statistical differences between the three dependent variables (EI2, ET, and MS) were further analysed, using *post hoc* tests. Table 64 depicts the results of the *post hoc* test for the three dependent variables and *Unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics*. The following pairs of groups were found to be statistically significantly different at the 10% level of significance:

- EI2 (Neutral/Strongly agree): $M = 58571$; $p = .028$, with $ES = 0.19$; and
- MS (Neutral/Agree): $M = 55372$; $p = .032$, with $ES = 0.30$.

Table 64: Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of *Unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics* in relation to EI2, ET, and MS

Dependent Variable	(I) B15	(J) B15	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EI2	Strongly disagree	Disagree	.26822	.27025	.912	-.5708	1.1073
		Neutral	.20370	.23454	.944	-.5245	.9319
		Agree	-.35880	.24697	.716	-1.1256	.4080
		Strongly agree	-.38201	.23258	.610	-1.1041	.3401
	Disagree	Strongly disagree	-.26822	.27025	.912	-1.1073	.5708
		Neutral	-.06452	.22354	.999	-.7585	.6295
		Agree	-.62702	.23656	.138	-1.3614	.1074
		Strongly agree	-.65023	.22149	.075	-1.3379	.0374
	Neutral	Strongly disagree	-.20370	.23454	.944	-.9319	.5245
		Disagree	.06452	.22354	.999	-.6295	.7585
		Agree	-.56250	.19475	.083	-1.1671	.0421
		Strongly agree	-.58571*	.17614	.028	-1.1326	-.0388
	Agree	Strongly disagree	.35880	.24697	.716	-.4080	1.1256
		Disagree	.62702	.23656	.138	-.1074	1.3614
		Neutral	.56250	.19475	.083	-.0421	1.1671
		Strongly agree	-.02321	.19239	1.000	-.6205	.5741
	Strongly agree	Strongly disagree	.38201	.23258	.610	-.3401	1.1041
		Disagree	.65023	.22149	.075	-.0374	1.3379
		Neutral	.58571*	.17614	.028	.0388	1.1326
		Agree	.02321	.19239	1.000	-.5741	.6205
ET	Strongly disagree	Disagree	.36708	.29632	.820	-.5529	1.2871
		Neutral	.53241	.25832	.376	-.2696	1.3344
		Agree	-.12905	.27079	.994	-.9698	.7117
		Strongly agree	.21098	.25501	.953	-.5808	1.0028
	Disagree	Strongly disagree	-.36708	.29632	.820	-1.2871	.5529
		Neutral	.16532	.24632	.978	-.5995	.9301
		Agree	-.49614	.25937	.456	-1.3014	.3092
		Strongly agree	-.15611	.24285	.981	-.9101	.5979
	Neutral	Strongly disagree	-.53241	.25832	.376	-1.3344	.2696
		Disagree	-.16532	.24632	.978	-.9301	.5995
		Agree	-.66146	.21493	.053	-1.3288	.0059
		Strongly agree	-.32143	.19468	.605	-.9259	.2830
	Agree	Strongly disagree	.12905	.27079	.994	-.7117	.9698
		Disagree	.49614	.25937	.456	-.3092	1.3014
		Neutral	.66146	.21493	.053	-.0059	1.3288
		Strongly agree	.34003	.21095	.628	-.3149	.9950
	Strongly agree	Strongly disagree	-.21098	.25501	.953	-1.0028	.5808
		Disagree	.15611	.24285	.981	-.5979	.9101
		Neutral	.32143	.19468	.605	-.2830	.9259



MS	Agree		-.34003	.21095	.628	-.9950	.3149
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	.18620	.23606	.960	-.5468	.9192
		Neutral	.24901	.20329	.826	-.3822	.8803
		Agree	-.30471	.21407	.731	-.9694	.3600
		Strongly agree	-.01821	.20329	1.000	-.6495	.6130
	Disagree	Strongly disagree	-.18620	.23606	.960	-.9192	.5468
		Neutral	.06281	.19594	.999	-.5456	.6712
		Agree	-.49091	.20710	.233	-1.1340	.1522
		Strongly agree	-.20441	.19594	.896	-.8128	.4040
	Neutral	Strongly disagree	-.24901	.20329	.826	-.8803	.3822
		Disagree	-.06281	.19594	.999	-.6712	.5456
		Agree	-.55372	.16880	.032	-1.0779	-.0295
		Strongly agree	-.26722	.15491	.563	-.7482	.2138
	Agree	Strongly disagree	.30471	.21407	.731	-.3600	.9694
		Disagree	.49091	.20710	.233	-.1522	1.1340
		Neutral	.55372	.16880	.032	.0295	1.0779
		Strongly agree	.28650	.16880	.579	-.2377	.8107
	Strongly agree	Strongly disagree	.01821	.20329	1.000	-.6130	.6495
		Disagree	.20441	.19594	.896	-.4040	.8128
		Neutral	.26722	.15491	.563	-.2138	.7482
	Agree	-.28650	.16880	.579	-.8107	.2377	

6.5.3 KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST

The K-W test was used to determine if there were statistically significant differences between two or more groups of independent variables on a continuous or ordinal dependent variable. Sheskin (1997: 400) posits that, where the chi-square (χ^2) value of the items is equal to or greater than the tabled critical χ^2 value, the null hypothesis may be rejected. In the present study, this covered questions relating to reasons for union joining and how their unions' effectiveness was rated by the respondents, since these variables contain ranked data. The results of the K-W tests are presented in Tables 65 to 68.

6.5.3.1 Nominated main reason for union joining

The respondents were presented with a list of four choices, and had to choose the main reason why they had joined a trade union. Tables 65 and 66 display the computed K-W test results.

Table 65: Ranks: Nominated main reason for union joining

Nominated main reason for union joining		N	Mean Rank
ESH	My family members are or have been union members	70	124.54
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	104.24
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	109.57
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	137.94
	Total	242	



E11	My family members are or have been union members	70	135.83
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	97.15
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	103.41
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	135.98
	Total	242	
E12	My family members are or have been union members	70	121.79
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	108.29
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	106.03
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	144.29
	Total	242	
JI	My family members are or have been union members	70	125.16
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	104.91
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	104.89
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	143.13
	Total	242	
RIM	My family members are or have been union members	70	130.34
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	86.74
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	109.66
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	136.24
	Total	242	
LI	My family members are or have been union members	70	123.09
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	103.74
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	115.60
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	131.85
	Total	242	
ET	My family members are or have been union members	69	122.57
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	96.35
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	86	104.50
	Because of closed shop agreement	68	144.68
	Total	240	
MS	My family members are or have been union members	69	125.25
	It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people	17	94.88
	I believed it was important for job security and protection	87	100.47
	Because of closed shop agreement	64	143.86
	Total	237	

Table 66: Test Statistics^{a,b}: Nominated main reason for union joining

	ESH	E11	E12	JI	RIM	LI	ET	MS
Chi-square	7.719	14.021	12.653	12.681	11.009	3.375	15.086	17.493
df	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	.052	.003	.005	.005	.012	.337	.002	.001

a. Kruskal Wallis test

b. Grouping variable: Reason for union-joining

The K-W test results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the medians of the nominated main reason for union joining (i.e. where the chi-square p -value was less than 0.05):

- *ESH*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 7.719; p = .052$, with a mean rank of 124.54 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 104.24 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 109.57 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 137.94 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.
- *EI1*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 14.021; p = .003$, with a mean rank of 135.83 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 97.15 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 103.41 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 135.98 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.
- *EI2*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 12.653; p = .005$, with a mean rank of 121.79 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 108.29 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 106.03 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 144.29 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.
- *Jl*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 12.681; p = .005$, with a mean rank of 125.16 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 104.91 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 104.89 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 143.18 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.
- *RIM*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 11.009; p = .012$, with a mean rank of 130.34 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 86.74 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 109.66 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 136.24 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.
- *ET*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 240) = 15.086; p = .002$, with a mean rank of 122.57 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 96.35 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 104.50 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 144.68 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.

- MS: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 237) = 17.493; p = .001$, with a mean rank of 125.25 for *My family members are or have been union members*; 94.88 for *It provides camaraderie and social activity with similar people*; 100.47 for *I believed it was important for job security and protection*; and 143.86 for *Because of closed shop agreement*.

6.5.3.2 Unions' effectiveness in resolving workplace-related issues

The respondents were asked to rate their unions' effectiveness in resolving workplace-related issues. Tables 67 and 68 display the computed K-W test results in relation to how respondents rated their unions' effectiveness in resolving workplace-related issues (such as grievances).

Table 67: Ranks: Unions' effectiveness

Unions' effectiveness		N	Mean Rank
ESH	Ineffective	50	86.05
	Fairly effective	148	115.48
	Effective	14	161.32
	Very effective	30	191.68
	Total	242	
E11	Ineffective	50	99.07
	Fairly effective	148	116.69
	Effective	14	119.14
	Very effective	30	183.70
	Total	242	
E12	Ineffective	50	124.20
	Fairly effective	148	113.94
	Effective	14	120.11
	Very effective	30	154.95
	Total	242	
JI	Ineffective	50	100.98
	Fairly effective	148	116.05
	Effective	14	117.39
	Very effective	30	184.52
	Total	242	
RIM	Ineffective	50	109.50
	Fairly effective	148	115.01
	Effective	14	111.00
	Very effective	30	178.40
	Total	242	
LI	Ineffective	50	114.73
	Fairly effective	148	118.01
	Effective	14	101.86
	Very effective	30	159.17
	Total	242	
ET	Ineffective	50	116.25
	Fairly effective	146	118.45
	Effective	14	89.71
	Very effective	30	151.92
	Total	240	
MS	Ineffective	50	109.94
	Fairly effective	144	112.82
	Effective	13	112.38
	Very effective	30	166.62
	Total	237	

Table 68: Test Statistics^{a,b}: Unions' effectiveness

	ESH	EI1	EI2	Jl	RIM	LI	ET	MS
Chi-square	50.409	30.211	9.083	29.901	23.294	11.083	9.306	16.675
Df	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.028	.000	.000	.011	.025	.001

a. Kruskal-Wallis test

b. Grouping variable: Union's effectiveness

From the test statistics table, the K-W test results of the analysis indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the medians of *Unions' effectiveness* (i.e. where the chi-square p -values was less than 0.05):

- *ESH*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 50.409$; $p = .000$, with a mean rank of 86.05 for *Ineffective*; 115.48 for *Fairly effective*; 161.32 for *Effective*; and 191.68 for *Very effective*.
- *EI1*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 30.211$; $p = .000$, with a mean rank of 99.07 for *Ineffective*; 116.69 for *Fairly effective*; 119.14 for *Effective*; and 183.70 for *Very effective*.
- *EI2*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 9.083$; $p = .028$, with a mean rank of 124.20 for *Ineffective*; 113.94 for *Fairly effective*; 120.11 for *Effective*; and 154.95 for *Very effective*.
- *Jl*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 29.901$; $p = .000$, with a mean rank of 100.98 for *Ineffective*; 116.06 for *Fairly effective*; 117.39 for *Effective*; and 184.52 for *Very effective*.
- *RIM*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 23.294$; $p = .000$, with a mean rank of 109.50 for *Ineffective*; 115.01 for *Fairly effective*; 111.00 for *Effective*; and 178.40 for *Very effective*.
- *LI*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 242) = 11.083$; $p = .011$, with a mean rank of 114.73 for *Ineffective*; 118.01 for *Fairly effective*; 101.86 for *Effective*; and 159.17 for *Very effective*.
- *ET*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 240) = 9.306$; $p = .025$, with a mean rank of 116.25 for *Ineffective*; 118.45 for *Fairly effective*; 89.71 for *Effective*; and 151.92 for *Very effective*.
- *MS*: $\chi^2(df = 3; N = 237) = 16.675$; $p = .001$, with a mean rank of 109.94 for *Ineffective*; 112.82 for *Fairly effective*; 112.38 for *Effective*; and 166.62 for *Very effective*.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the results and findings of the empirical investigation undertaken to investigate trade unions' service levels and respondents' level of satisfaction. The results of various statistical procedures were analysed and reported.

It is apparent from the findings of this study that unionisation is influenced by a range of factors, including personal factors, job factors, and perceptual factors. The first two factors have a significant influence on membership participation in union activities and union commitment. The researcher is of the belief that perceptual factors also have a significant bearing on membership participation. Unions, in their endeavours to retain their current members and attract new ones, should earnestly and frankly assess their performance using the findings of this study, the results of which could provide them with an advantage. Lastly, the level of dissatisfaction among members can be ameliorated and/or mitigated by effective and open channels of communication between unions and their members. This will also be helpful in addressing the trust deficit, thus contributing towards the narrowing of the social distance between union officials and their members.

This concludes the analysis of the statistical tests performed. The next chapter summaries the main findings and makes recommendations for future studies.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

[T]rade unionism is not a tradition, but an idea; one which requires no antiquity or arcane ritual to be adopted at any time by any group of persons ... the core tenet of its creed [is] collective action for defence of common interests... (O'Connor, 1992: 3).

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, and conclusions are provided according to the empirical findings. Also discussed are the limitations of the study and recommendations for unions, so that they may be more effective in servicing their members. Recommendations for future studies are also made.

7.2 DISCUSSION

7.2.1 THE MAIN PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of the study was to determine the effects of the types and quality of services offered by trade unions on their members' level of satisfaction. The study's objectives were:

- to understand trade union members' perceptions about the need for a trade union and the impact thereof on membership participation in trade union activities;
- to analyse and explain the factors that correlate with membership participation and satisfaction;
- to assess the relationship between the provision of these benefits on the core trade union activities and the effects thereof on members' commitment and participation; and
- to investigate if there is a significant relationship between the types and quality of services and benefits being offered by trade unions and member satisfaction.

Overall, the study aimed to investigate and established whether there is a significant relationship between the types and quality of services being offered by unions and the effect thereof on members' level of satisfaction and the existing members' behavioural intention regarding retaining or relinquishing their membership and the attraction of new members. Union performance and effectiveness were found to be significant determinants of member satisfaction.

7.2.2 THE VALUE AND CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The present study makes a theoretical contribution in a field where there is limited research and knowledge regarding the South African context. The study furthers understanding of the perceptions of union members regarding the services being offered by trade unions and whether these meet their expectations, as well as the impact thereof on their participation.

The findings will assist trade unions in repositioning themselves and renewing their relevance in the changing work environment. The study will empower trade union leaders with in-depth knowledge and understanding of what services they should offer with a view of enhancing their members' satisfaction, which will translate into membership retention and the attraction of new members.

7.2.3 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

A summary of the findings is presented hereunder. The first part deals with the inferential analysis, whilst the subsequent parts deal with respondents' socio-demographic factors and a deliberation of union membership, while the last part is devoted to the services rendered by unions and members' satisfaction levels.

7.2.3.1 Data collection

The method of primary data collection for this study was a self-completion questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of a total of 49 items, spread over three sections. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed, and 247 questionnaires were received back, of which

five were discarded because they were incomplete and therefore unusable. This yielded a good response rate of 48.9%. All statistical analyses were done using SPSS.

7.2.3.2 Inferential analyses

A reliability test was performed to determine the stability and consistency with which the research instrument measured the constructs, and to determine the significance of the relationship between individual items in the scale. According to Hair *et al.* (2010), validity is a test to see whether items or variables are measuring what they are supposed to measure, whereas reliability refers the consistency of the responses. Using SPSS, an EFA was done to determine the factorial validity of the research instrument, and an index of 0.938 was achieved for the KMO-MSA, indicating that factor analysis was appropriate, and that each variable was 'marvellously' predicted, without error from other variables.

With the aid of SPSS, the internal reliability of the seven constructs was computed, using the Cronbach α for the 34 items. Table 69 shows the reliability coefficients.

Table 69: Reliability coefficients

Variable / Construct	N of Items	N of Cases	Cronbach α
Conditions of employment, health, and safety (ESH)	3	242	0.787
Economic issues (EI1/Extrinsic)	3	242	0.869
Economic issues (EI2/Intrinsic)	2	242	0.786
Job-related issues (JI)	5	242	0.878
Representation in individual matters (RIM)	4	242	0.869
Legal assistance (LI)	2	242	0.932
Education and training (ET)	4	240	0.929
Member services (MS)	11	237	0.942

The overall internal validity reliability coefficient for the entire construct was 0.975. All the variables/constructs had a Cronbach's α reliability coefficients above the 0.7 threshold, which indicated that the measurement scales' internal reliability of the constructs variables was stable and consistent in measuring the constructs — the scales had high reliabilities. The Cronbach α values indicated that respondents had answered the items within each scale in a somewhat uniform manner.

The results of both the exploratory factor analysis and the internal reliability coefficient indicated that the research instrument was reliable as a data collection instrument.

7.2.3.3 Socio-demographic factors

From the results presented in the preceding chapter, the following can be observed regarding the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics and factors (personal and organisational) that influence employees to join a union.

- The demographic variables included in the study were analysed in order to assess whether the groups responded similarly for each scale variable. Despite the differences in the respondents' biographical detail categories, no significant relationships were found between socio-demographic factors and unionisation rate. Thus, biographical factors are not important in an employee's propensity to join a union.
- From the differences in the levels of union membership for the various socio-demographic variables, it can be concluded that the findings are inconclusive as to whether there is a causal nexus between socio-demographic factors and unionisation.
- The challenge facing trade unions is maintaining group cohesion of members from diverse generations and backgrounds with differing needs. It is imperative that unions incorporate inter-generational, gender-mainstreaming, and diversity programmes as part of their recruitment strategy and membership induction. Due regard must also be given to opening effective and well-managed communication channels. Above all, unions must endeavour to meet the needs of each generation.

7.2.3.4 Union membership characteristics

Descriptive analysis revealed the following characteristics with regard to union membership and participation in union-related activities.

Of the respondents ($N = 242$), 41.7% were members of the PSA, while 31.8% and 26.4% were members of NEHAWU and SADTU respectively. With regard to union membership tenure, 64.1% were categorised as juniors (0–10 years), 15.3% as seniors (11–19 years), and 20.7% as stalwarts (20 years and more).

A total of 83.9% of the respondents indicated their union membership status as ‘ordinary member,’ while 16.1% held elected positions within their respective unions.

In terms of union meeting attendance, 37.2% of the respondents indicated that they had “*Not attended a meeting at all*” during the previous 12 months, in contrast to 28.9% who indicated “*Sometimes*”, 22.3% who indicated “*Regularly*,” and 11.6% who indicated “*Never missed a meeting.*” Therefore, during the previous 12 months, the attendance rate had been 62.8%.

In terms of participation in union elections, 51.2% of the indicated that they had not voted in the last election to elect union officials, compared to 48.8% who indicated that they had taken part.

Of the respondents, 69.4% indicated that they regularly read union material (newsletters, pamphlets), whereas 30.6% indicated otherwise.

Regarding participation in union-related activities, the majority (62.8%) indicated that they participated in important union activities such as strikes and picketing, while 37.2% indicated that they did not participate.

Of the respondents, 63.6% were of the opinion that the monthly subscription fees were fair, while 36.4% regarded them as unfair.

Regarding a familial history of union membership, 62.4% of the respondents indicated that their parents were or had once been union members, in contrast to 37.6% who indicated that they were first-generation union members in their families.

A total of 52.5% of the respondents indicated that their spouses or partners were also union members, while 47.5% indicated otherwise. The majority of the respondents (73.6%) indicated that they had the approval of their significant others regarding their union membership and participation in related activities, compared to 26.0% who indicated that they did not enjoy such approval.

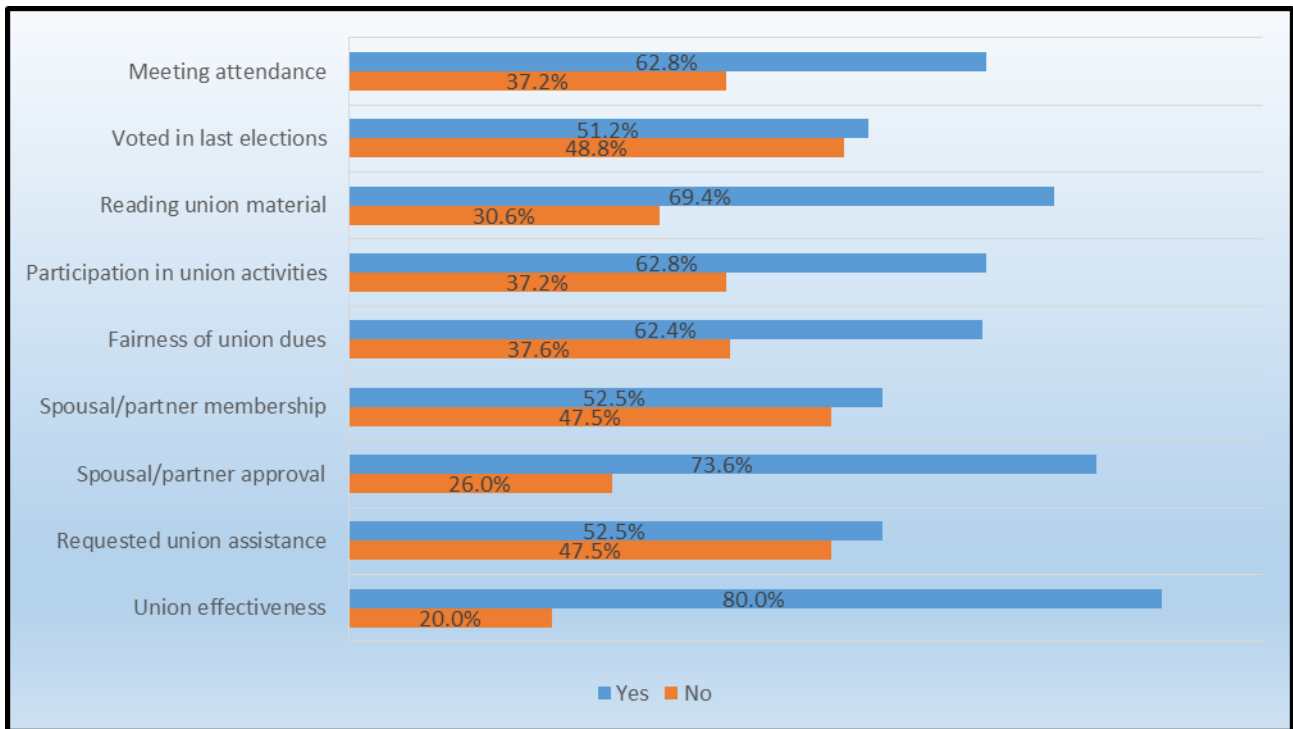
With regard to the main reason for joining a union, 28.9% indicated “*My family members are or have been union members*”; 7.0% indicated “*It provides camaraderie and a social activity with similar people*”; 36.0% indicated “*I believe it is important for job security and protection*”; and the remaining 28.1% attributed their joining the union to “*Because of closed shop agreement*”.

Of the respondents, 52.5% indicated that they had requested their union’s assistance in individual matters during the previous 12 months. On the other hand, 47.5% stated that they had never sought their union’s assistance.

With regard to their unions’ effectiveness, approximately 80% of the respondents rated their union as effective in resolving workplace-related issues (61.2% indicated “*Fairly effective*”, 5.8% indicated “*Effective*”, and 12.4% indicated “*Very effective*”), in contrast to about 20% who regarded their unions as “*Somewhat ineffective.*” Regarding unions’ role in politics, of the respondents, 48.7% indicated that unions should concentrate more on workplace-related issues and less on politics, whilst 24% disagreed. A sizable 27.3% indicated a neutral position.

It is evident from Figure 46 that respondents’ participation in union-related activities was significantly high, with an average of about 61% of respondents indicating participation. Similarly, the perceived union effectiveness (80%) was significantly high. Thus, it can be inferred that respondents are satisfied with their unions, and are therefore willing to participate in union-initiated activities.

Figure 46: Participation in union-related activities



According to Hester (1997), there is growing support for the view that unions have to focus on finding ways to enhance their members’ level of commitment and participation, as the two constructs are the foundation of a strong and well-functioning organisation. In this regard, Hester (1997) notes “...it is even more imperative on them to increase their efforts to find innovative ways to increase their members’ loyalty and commitment to the goals and missions of the unions because this will also lead to their membership increasingly becoming involved in union-related activities” (1997: 64).

7.2.3.5 Trade unions’ performance in relation to meeting members’ needs

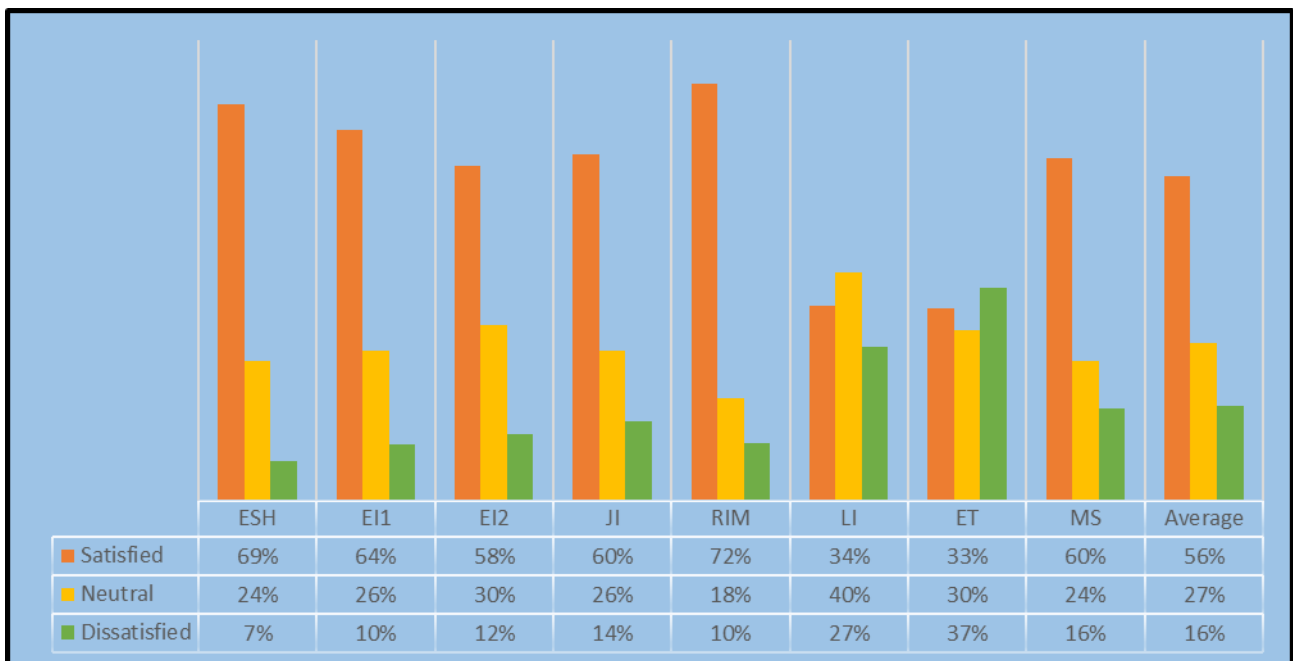
The aim of the present study was to examine the performance of trade unions in terms of the benefits extended to members, and whether these met members’ needs. This was achieved by asking respondents to indicate if they were satisfied with their union’s performance, according to constructs that encapsulated these services.

It is evident from the findings that the three unions under study provide their members with a variety of services and benefits that meet their expectations and, therefore, satisfy them. From the descriptive analysis, it was also evident that the respondents ($N = 242$) drawn

from three unions, namely NEHAWU, PSA, and SADTU, are, overall, reasonably satisfied with the services and benefits rendered by their respective unions.

The overall satisfaction levels of the respondents are depicted in Figure 47, below. Overall, 56% of respondents indicated that they were satisfied, and 16% indicated that they were not. With the exception of legal assistance (only 34% were satisfied) and education and training (only 33% were satisfied). A total of 55% of the respondents were satisfied with the services and benefits, while less than 40% were dissatisfied. Unions should heed these results and ensure that they become service-orientated and meet the expectations of their members.

Figure 47: Respondents' satisfaction with trade unions' performance



“Membership satisfaction is based, in part, on how well the union meets expectations with regard to traditional collective bargaining ‘bread-and-butter’ issues” (Gallagher and Strauss, 1991: 20). In this regard, Fiorito *et al.* (1988: 294) state:

Overall union satisfaction is specified as a function of union members' expectations concerning union efforts and the perceived outcomes of union performance on bread and butter issues (such as wages and benefits); quality of work issues (such as job interest and workers' voice in the employing organization); and member-union relations (such as the quality of communication between union leaders and members).

The results of their study indicated that internal member-union relations and bread-and-butter-issues are much more important than quality-of-work-life issues in determining members' satisfaction with their union (Fiorito *et al.*, 1988: 294).

From the above, it can be concluded that there exists a correlation between members' satisfaction and perceived union instrumentality, which leads to members' affective commitment, which, in turn, has an effect on their commitment. Behavioural commitment manifests in participation in union activities.

7.2.3.6 Major findings

The present study examined whether there exists a relationship between the quality of services and benefits (as encapsulated in the seven constructs) being offered by unions to their members and members' satisfaction. All seven constructs yielded significant values (sig = 0; $p < 0.05$). Thus, based on the results, it has been proven that the relationship between all seven constructs and member satisfaction is significant. There are many reasons why workers join a trade union. The primary reasons may be clustered as economic and psycho-social reasons. The commercial rationale for workers joining trade unions is that, through the union's collective efforts, they are able to obtain economic advantages in the form of higher wages, greater benefits, and healthier and safer working conditions. With regard to the psycho-social reason, workers join trade unions because they offer workers protection from harassment and victimisation, as well as from threats related to job security. It is apparent from the findings that some of the reason why workers join unions are:

- unions bargain or negotiate for better extrinsic and intrinsic benefits;
- unions have much influence on the amelioration of members' working conditions, enhancing health and safety;
- unions have a significant impact on members' job security;
- unions protect and members from arbitrary actions by employers;
- unions represent their members in grievances and disciplinary hearings; and
- members trust their union to better their work lives.

The present study's major finding is that the majority of the respondents (56%) are satisfied with the performance and effectiveness of their unions in realising the above. The performance and effectiveness of trade unions are significant determining factors of members' satisfaction with their union. The findings resonate with those of Clark and Gallagher (1989) and Gordon and Fryxell (1993), who agree that the relationship between union members and their unions is affected by members' satisfaction with the delivery of union services. Therefore, trade unions should strive to ensure that they not only offer services and benefits of exceptional quality, but also that they attend to members' queries promptly and efficiently. Enhancing the quality of services and benefits will increase members' satisfaction, which, in turn, will have a positive effect on members' loyalty. This view is shared by Griffing and Svensen (1996), who postulate that members' satisfaction with their union may, in part, be influenced by the quality of the services received.

Satisfaction is the result of one's expectations being met or exceeded, and enhances retention. Satisfaction has a significant and strong direct relationship with loyalty. Member loyalty manifests in commitment and participation. In the present study, the relationship between perceived union effectiveness, union commitment, and participation was found to be significant. Satisfaction with union's performance and effectiveness enhances unionisation rates; not only will it significantly contribute towards member retention, but also assist in the recruitment of new members.

The present study established is that the respondents were satisfied with the types of services and benefits they derived from their union membership. They also indicated that their unions improved their working conditions and offered them protection. This finding supports the view of Freeman and Medoff (1984), who posit that "workers covered by collective bargaining have higher wages, better fringes, better seniority protection, better grievance systems and greater voice in determining the conditions of their employment than do other workers" (1984: 136). Thus, unionised employees who perceive their unions to be offering them protection and better working conditions, amongst others, are more likely to retain their membership and remain committed to the union, demonstrated by their continual participation in union-initiated activities. Thus, for unions an important major finding is the positive attitudes to unions among members.

The research questions, set out in the first chapter, have therefore been answered.

7.3 RELATING THE MAIN FINDINGS TO THE LITERATURE

In the main, the findings of the present study are consistent with those of previous empirical studies and the literature. Many previously undertaken studies have been inconclusive, in that they found no relationship between demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and level and union participation (Anderson, 1979; Huszczo, 1983; Chacko, 1985). For example:

- According to Pevahouse (1997: 53), in general, demographics do not contribute to the prediction of attitudes towards unions (Barling *et al.* 1991). According to Pevahouse (1997: 53), however, the demographic characteristics of typical active union members are more likely to be: older and married (Perline and Lorenz, 1970), male (Fiorito and Greer, 1982), black African (Bolton, Bagraim, Khan, Mohamed, Witten, and Zvobgo, 2007), long job tenure (McShane, 1986), from urban areas (Sayles and Strauss, 1953), senior job (Strauss, 1977); high educational level (Strauss, 1977), and family members who were union members (Purcell, 1953).
- Barling *et al.* (1992) hypothesise that most unions recognise and reward seniority in the workplace, and these workers will tend to be more favourably disposed towards the union. On the hand, they note that a competing hypothesis is that workers with less seniority will favour unions because they offer job security.
- A study by Wetzel *et al.* (as cited in Zinni, 2002: 60) found no differences related to gender with regard to union loyalty and responsibility to the union. The current study also found no significant differences related to gender.
- Research by Peline and Lorenz (1970) (as cited in Zinni, 2002) indicates that active union members are more likely to be married, older, and blue-collar workers.

- Zinni (2002) found that education has a negative but significant effect on beliefs, suggesting that those with lower levels of education have stronger instrumental beliefs regarding union participation than those who have higher levels of education.
- Bolton *et al.* (2007) examined the relationship between union participation and union commitment among blue-collar workers in South Africa. The results of the study showed that union participation is a predictor of union commitment, after it accounted for about 43% variance in union commitment. The study recorded black respondents exhibiting significantly higher levels of commitment and participation than white respondents. Similar to these findings, the findings of the present study revealed a 61% union participation rate. They says that, union participation means the collective involvement of members in union related activities which are closely related to the effective functioning of the union (Bolton *et al.*, 2007). Thus, it can be concluded that union participation is a predictor or antecedent of union commitment.
- In his study, Chacko (1985: 372) found that a union being responsive to its membership is significantly related to member participation. Chacko (1985) observes that:

When unions were perceived to be less responsive to the membership, members were less likely to attend union meetings, to vote in union elections, to be elected to office, and to pursue grievances through the union. This reaction is typical, in that people tend to be unsupportive of organizations that do not seem to care about their members. It may be possible that the results are reflecting an apparent disinterest in the union processes. Workers remain members of unions as a condition of employment and not necessarily because they are committed to the principles and ideologies of unionism. These conditions seem to create a Pygmalion effect, in that those unions that are perceived to be ineffective in obtaining benefits and in being responsive are vulnerable to member apathy while effective unions experience member involvement and participation. This confirms Strauss's (1977) payoff hypothesis, which implies that members participate if they perceive and expect positive outcomes. In sum, the perceptions and attitudes the members have of their unions seem to influence their behavior within it (Chacko, 1985: 372).

- Carillon and Sutton (1982), in a study to investigate the relationship between union effectiveness and the quality of members' work life, found that members perceive union effectiveness in terms of outcomes in their work life. The study also revealed

that collective bargaining is one of the most vital services that trade unions provide. Another noteworthy finding was that a positive relationship exists between how the members perceive union effectiveness and participation in and influencing decision-making. The study also revealed that trade unions should provide services that enhance their members' well-being.

Thus, it can be concluded that perceived union effectiveness is significantly related to members' participation, and therefore an antecedent of commitment to a union.

- Fullagar (1986) hypothesises that an 'expressive' or 'compensatory' relationship exists between life satisfaction and union commitment. In other words, high satisfaction with aspects of one's life will lead to low union commitment, whereas dissatisfaction with one's standard of living, state of health, education, family- and social life, coupled with broader political issues, will lead to greater commitment to a union (Fullagar, 1986: 97-98). A prevalent explanation of the process of unionisation is that workers join unions because of perceived deprivations and dissatisfaction with the conditions of their employment (Fullagar, 1986: 101). The general conclusion that can be drawn is that the process of unionisation is related to dissatisfaction with both intrinsic and extrinsic (e.g., pay and working conditions) factors. Jobs that have low motivating potential and which engender greater dissatisfaction with the work environment should evoke greater commitment to the union amongst workers (Fullagar, 1986: 103).

Further, the findings of the current study are similar to those of the studies cited hereunder:

- The study undertaken by Waddington and Whitston, 1997 (as cited in Karle, 2013: 35) found that the key reason reported by members for joining a union was support if they had a problem at work, which suggests that unions' performance has an important bearing on members' commitment. If a union is seen to be ineffective, potential members will not believe that the union would be able to help them with problems.

- Glick, Mirvis, and Harder (1977), in their study, found that members' satisfaction with a union is strongly associated with member–union relationships and members' evaluation of the effectiveness of the union's leadership.
- The study by Kochan (1979) highlights the significance of trade unions improving their ability to handle and resolve members' grievances, the amount and frequency of feedback given to members, and the role that members have in influencing the union's administrative affairs.
- The study undertaken by Klandermans (1986) found that dissatisfaction with the services provided by their union plays an important role in members' decision to quit the union.
- In their study, Kochan *et al.* (1986) found a correlation between union performance and members' participation, whereas Leigh (1986) found that dissatisfaction with the union's performance has an adverse impact on the desire to join a union.
- Fiorito *et al.* (1988) found that union participation is a positive and statistically significant determinant of member participation. They also found an inverse relationship between job tenure and satisfaction with a union.
- The findings of the study conducted by Shirom and Kirmeyer (1988) were that union members who experience less stress in their workplace tended to rate the union's performance highly in almost all respects. This is supported by the study carried out by Lowe and Northcott (1995), who established that stressful working conditions could lead to members' dissatisfaction with their union. Further, Shirom and Kirmeyer (1988) found that effective unions provide members with instrumental and emotional coping resources in the form of member–union voice.
- In their study, Jarley *et al.* (1990) established that member–union relations are a major determinant of overall satisfaction with the union, and also that effective handling of bread-and-butter issues is an important determinant of overall member satisfaction.

They also found the General Attitude Toward Unions Index to be statistically significant, whilst quality-of-work-life issues are statistically insignificant determinants of members' satisfaction.

- The study by Kuruvilla, Gallagher, and Wetzel (1993) produced the following significant findings: beliefs about union instrumentality are significantly related to members' satisfaction; socialisation into the union is related to satisfaction for Swedish, but not for Canadian unionists; extrinsic job satisfaction has a positive relationship with union satisfaction; intrinsic job satisfaction has a negative relationship with union satisfaction for Swedish unionists, a positive relationship with satisfaction for Canadian unionists; and, lastly, fellow employees' attitudes towards the union are positively associated with the members' satisfaction with the union.
- Waddington and Kerr (1999, as cited in Karle, 2013: 35), in a study that examined the reasons why workers leave a trade union, found that around a quarter of those who quit trade union membership do so because they are dissatisfied with some aspect of the trades union's policy or effectiveness concerning employee welfare issues.
- Bryson (2003), in a study that investigated the effectiveness of trade unions in the United Kingdom, based on the 1998 Workplace Employee Relations Survey (WERS), found that effective information-sharing was important to the respondents; most union members regarded their trade unions to be responsive to their problems and complaints; a great percentage of employees regarded the union's ability to negotiate for increased wages as one of the most important priorities for their unions; an overwhelming majority (about 85%) of unionised employees regarded protection of workers against unfair treatment as a very important priority for unions, with only 13% disagreeing; and 68% of employees regarded promotion of equal opportunities as a very important priority for their unions.
- Mohamed, Shamsudin, and Johari (2010) conducted a study of union members in a manufacturing company in Malaysia. Data were gathered from 415 respondents. The study considered the organisational effectiveness of unions, that is, how the structures of the unions affected their performance. The study found a positive relationship

between union delivery effectiveness and union organisation; there was a higher coefficient between communications within the union and union delivery effectiveness, as it cultivated relationships within the union and afforded members the opportunity to have a say on workplace issues.

- Hammer and Wazeter (1992) carried out a research study on 511 local union associations to determine the dimensions of union effectiveness. The study found that leadership is a vital and highly visible issue, and that effective leadership is highly correlated with dimensions of effectiveness. When the union leader is perceived to be active and effective in furthering the interests of the members, the union organisation is considered healthier and stronger. The study further revealed that internal health indicators of the union has a substantially stronger impact on members' assessment of union effectiveness than traditional effectiveness measures.
- Frege (2002), in a research survey involving 173 respondents from unionised companies in the metal and electrical industries in Hungary and Slovenia, found that the most vital determinants of union effectiveness is trust, rather than reciprocity of feelings between the trade union and the members.
- According to Sinclair and Tetrick (1995), traditional industrial relations thinking suggests that members' perception of their unions is of primary importance to member attachment to the union, and that union members' day-to-day experience of the union and its agents (e.g., union stewards) leads to the development of members' perceptions of support. The authors aver that the perception of a good relationship between union leaders and their members is vital in establishing and maintaining members' commitment to the union.
- According to Bryson (2003), a positive perception of union effectiveness has an impact on an individual's decision to take up membership or remain a member, by shifting the individual's perceptions of the benefits relative to the costs. "It is obvious that existing union members as well as probable union members are now more instrumental in their union joining decisions than in the past. This means that members expect unions to offer 'value for money.' Unions should be seen to be offering an array of services

appropriate to the needs of the member” (Karle, 2013: 4). According to Ranganathan (as cited in Karley, 2013: 5), when trade unions are aiming at attracting and retaining members, active involvement in quality-of-work-life issues may increase membership.

- Lastly, in a study similar to the present one, conducted by Ratna and Kaur (2012), titled *Measuring impact of trade unions on workmen satisfaction in a manufacturing unit*, the objectives were, *inter alia*, to determine the correlation between the parameters of the trade union and the satisfaction of workers. The study found a positive relationship between workmen’s satisfaction and membership services offered. The study also found a high degree of correlation between members’ satisfaction and accountability of union officials (Ratna and Kaur, 2012: 53-54).

7.4 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study have implications for both trade union leaders and their members. Trade union leaders must realise that the *sine qua non* for their existence is delivering satisfactory services to their members. The study by Ghazali and Johari (2011) found that members’ loyalty to a union is the product of the union’s commitment to its members, which is evidenced by the union acknowledging members’ needs and considering their well-being, as well as valuing their ideas and contributions towards the administration of the union.

Instrumentality plays a crucial role in ensuring that members participate in union activities. Thus, it is imperative that unions are seen to improving the working conditions and economic benefits of their members. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made to union leaders.

- There is a need to improve unions’ ability to promptly deliver superior-quality services and benefits to its members.
- Trade unions should secure, deliver, and strive for even better intrinsic and extrinsic benefits aimed at improving the work, working conditions, and livelihoods of their members.

- The trust relationship between union leaders and members should be improved by implementing training and capacity-building programmes to enhance the professional competencies of union leaders.
- The trade unions should implement education programmes to create awareness amongst members of the rights and benefits they get from being union members.
- To retain membership and attract new members, unions need to be innovative in terms of its service offerings. To this end, unions need to conduct needs assessments amongst their members to determine their needs. There is also a need to improve unions' marketing strategies to increase membership.
- Trade unions should carry out surveys amongst their members to determine the aspects and areas with which they are not satisfied, and determine what improvements they would like to see.
- Trade unions must, at all times, deal with members in an honest, transparent, and accountable manner. This will go a long way in overcoming the trust deficit. It is therefore imperative that unions deliver on promises made to their members.
- Trade unions should exercise good governance by, *inter alia*, publishing audited financial reports on a regularly basis.
- Trade unions need to implement an effective communication strategy for efficient dissemination of information.
- Trade unions should implement systems to monitor and evaluate the quality of services rendered to members.

Brown (2006), in a study on the changing role of trade unions in management of labour, posits that, in order for trade unions to attract more members, they should redouble their promotion strategies. The promotion strategy should include the rationale for becoming a

union member, what assistance is provided to members, and accounts of success in protecting employees. Trade unions should not shy away from promoting their organisations to employees to strengthen their relationship with members in order to gain their confidence and support. Unions should demonstrate that membership of a trade union benefits all members. Nurse (2004) succinctly and meticulously captures the deliberations and findings of this study when he said:

Unions are said to pursue two basic types of objectives that are in themselves interrelated – membership-oriented as well as institutionally-driven, self-interest objectives. The first set of objectives includes matters that are of immediate concern to workers, such as improved compensation and conditions of service, protection from arbitrary treatment, justice, job security and so on. Success in accomplishing any of these objectives depends, inter alia, on the financial and organisational strength of the union, its security and independence as a workers' organisation, and its ability to exercise clout in dealing with employers and government. Unions that are financially weak and dependent, poorly organised and unable to influence public policy or effectively challenge anti-worker practices are ill-equipped to meet the interests of their members. How well the union succeeds in accomplishing its interrelated objectives is likely to influence membership attitudes to commitment and participation (Nurse, 2004: 122).

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study has a number of limitations. These are discussed below.

- A major limitation of this study is that the respondents were all union members employed in the public service, whose unions fell within the purview of white-collar unions. Thus, it is not possible to generalise the findings of the present study to unions outside the public service or to blue-collar unions. Further, due to a closed-shop agreement, union membership was not voluntary; therefore, the unions under study had not experienced membership attrition.
- In hindsight, the quantitative data collected through the survey method should have been augmented with qualitative data collected through focus-group discussions. This would have allowed the exploration of participants' experiences and perceptions of particular topics (Social Science Research, 2006).

- Lastly, due to financial and time constraints, the study was conducted only in Pretoria and vicinity.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The research on trade unions' service levels within the South African context is in its infancy, and, thus, there is a need for further studies to broaden and deepen the body of knowledge in this field. It is recommended that future studies incorporate the aspects discussed below.

- This study was limited to a relatively small sample ($N = 242$) and confined to unionised white-collar employees in the public service. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies include non-unionised employees and members of blue-collar unions. Consideration should also be given to increasing the sample size, and to include both public sector and private sector unions, as well independent and smaller unions, and if possible use a probability sampling technique.
- Secondly, in addition to survey research within the quantitative paradigm, used in the present study, other research methodologies, like focus group discussions and/or interviews, within the qualitative paradigm, should be considered, with a view to enriching and supplementing the data, to provide a more in-depth understanding of the issues under study. A mixed-method approach will allow triangulation of the data.

7.7 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The present chapter provided the conclusions drawn from the findings and related these to literature. It also provided recommendations that unions could use to increase their members' satisfaction. The chapter further outlined the limitations of the study, and provided recommendations for future research.

In conclusion, it is hoped that the findings of this study will prove useful to trade union leaders, employment relations practitioners, academics, and scholars.

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APPENDIX A

- Data collection instrument -



For office use only
Questionnaire No.:

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent

I am Leslie Seth Kgapola, a PhD (Labour Relations Management) student at the University of Pretoria. This questionnaire forms part of an academic study attempting to determine trade unions members' level of satisfaction with the type of services rendered by trade unions. I have been granted permission to conduct the research in your Department. The questionnaire has three sections and should take between 20 – 30 minutes to complete. This is an anonymous and confidential questionnaire and you are assured that all collated data will be kept confidential at all times. You cannot be identified and the answers you provide will be used for research purposes only. **Please answer all the questions.** There are no correct or incorrect answers – the researcher is interested in **your** opinion.

Should any additional information be required in this regard, please do not hesitate to contact myself at 083 286 5242 or my supervisor, Dr Paul Smit, 012 420 3392. **Your participation is voluntary and can be withdrawn at any time without penalty.** Your assistance in making this research possible is highly appreciated.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS (please tick [✓] or write in the appropriate block)

1. What is your gender? []¹ Male []² Female
2. What is your age range? []¹ 18 – 29 []² 30 – 39 []³ 40 – 49 []⁴ 50+
3. What is your race? []¹ African []² Coloured []³ Indian []⁴ White
4. What is your marital status? []¹ Single []² Married []³ Divorced []⁴ Widowed
5. Are you the breadwinner of your household? []¹ Yes []² No
6. How many dependants other than yourself do you have? []¹ 0 – 2 []² 3 – 5 []³ 6+
7. What is the highest educational qualification you have received?
[]¹ Matric or below []² Post matric diploma or certificate []³ Degree []⁴ Post-graduate
8. How many years have you been employed in the Public Service
[]¹ 0 – 4 []² 5 – 9 []³ 10 – 19 []⁴ 20 – 29 []⁵ 30 – 50
9. What is your salary notch range per annum?
[]¹ R 25 000 – R 99 000
[]² R 100 000 – R 199 000

- ³ R 200 000 – R 399 000
 ⁴ R 400 000 – R 499 000
 ⁵ R 500 000+

10. In which area were you born and bred? ¹ Urban ² Semi-urban ³ Rural

SECTION B: QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR BACKGROUND AS A UNION MEMBER (please tick [✓] or write in the appropriate block)

1. What is your union membership? ¹ NEHAWU ² PSA ³ SADTU
2. How many years have you been a union member? ¹ 0 – 5 ² 6 – 10 ³ 11 – 19 ⁴ 20+
3. What is your current position in the union? ¹ member ² shop steward/office bearer
4. During the last twelve (12) months, how often did you attend union meetings?
 ¹ Not at all ² Sometimes ³ Regularly ⁴ Never missed a meeting
5. Did you vote in the last election to elect union officials? ¹ Yes ² No
6. Do you regularly read union material (newsletter/literature)? ¹ Yes ² No
7. Do you participate in important union activities (e.g. strikes)? ¹ Yes ² No
8. Do you believe that the monthly subscription fees of the union are fair? ¹ Yes ² No
9. Are/were your parents union members? ¹ Yes ² No
10. Is your spouse/partner a union member? ¹ Yes ² No
11. Does your spouse/partner approve your union activities/membership? ¹ Yes ² No
12. Why did you join the union (choose the most appropriate reason from the following)?
 ¹ My family members are or have been union members
 ² It provides camaraderie and a social activity with similar people
 ³ I believed it was important for job security and protection
 ⁴ Because of closed shop agreement
13. During the last (twelve) 12 months, have you requested your union's assistance ¹ Yes ² No with an individual matter (e.g. assistance with a grievance or disciplinary)?
14. How would you rate your union's effectiveness in resolving workplace-related issues?
 ¹ Ineffective ² Fairly Effective ³ Effective ⁴ Very Effective
15. Unions should concentrate more on workplace related issues and less on politics.
 ¹ Strongly Disagree ² Disagree ³ Neutral ⁴ Agree ⁵ Strongly Agree

SECTION C: SERVICES OFFERED BY UNIONS

The following questions ask about the services offered by your unions. Please take a moment to rank the following on a five-point Likert scale to reflect your feelings about your union and the extent to which you agree or disagree it provides these services. Place a [✓] in the column that reflects your feelings. []¹ ‘**Very Dissatisfied**’ and []⁵ means ‘**Very Satisfied**’. The term “**union**” in questions of the questionnaire is to be considered as the union that you are a member of.

Five-point Likert Agreement Scale				
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
[] ¹	[] ²	[] ³	[] ⁴	[] ⁵

Conditions of employment, safety and health

My union...

- 1. Makes sure the workplace is safe and healthy to work in. []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 2. Negotiates for better conditions of service []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 3. Ensures that the employer complies fully with labour legislation (e.g. LRA/EEA/BCEA). []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Economic issues

My union...

- 4. Plays an important role in negotiating better wages/salaries. []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 5. Strive for longer leaves (e.g. annual/sick/maternity) []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 6. Strive for a reduction in working hours. []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 7. Has a funeral benefit scheme for its members. []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 8. Negotiates discount rates with service providers for its members (e.g. car hire/holidays) []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Issues of job

My union...



9. Assists in opposing redundancies/retrenchments []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
10. Protects employees against management abuse []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
11. Provides me with a say in management decisions []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
12. Has a say in the implementation of new technologies in the workplace []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
13. Ensures that the recruitment process (appointments/promotions) is fair []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Representation on individual matters

My union...

14. Represents its members during grievance and disciplinary hearings []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
15. Represents its members during dispute resolution at the CCMA/Bargaining Council/Labour Court []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
16. Provides union-related information on a frequent basis []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
17. Offers personal, family and financial-related advices to its members []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Legal assistance

My union...

18. Assists members in the drafting of a last will and testament. []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
19. Provides its members with general legal advice. []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Education and training

My union...

20. Organises in-service training activities (workshops, seminars, courses) to help its members be more knowledgeable []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵



- 21. Offers study bursaries/grants for its members and immediate family members []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 22. Provides personal training and developmental programmes []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 23. Promotes health awareness programmes (e.g. HIV/AIDS) []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Member services

My union...

- 24. Has operating hours and location convenient to all its members []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 25. Delivers its services promptly at the time it promises to do so []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 26. Keeps its members informed with regard to union activities, meetings and decisions []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 27. Consults its members and get mandate with regard to decisions pertaining to negotiations []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 28. Has members' best interest at heart []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 29. Leaders/officials are honest, transparent and accountable to members []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 30. Leaders/officials have the necessary competencies and skills to deal with members' issues []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 31. Leaders/officials are preoccupied with political issues than workplace issues []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 32. Leaders/officials perform the service right the first time []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 33. Leaders/officials are courteous to members []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵
- 34. Leaders/officials satisfy my expectations []¹ []² []³ []⁴ []⁵

Thank you for your valuable time and participation in this study



APPENDIX B
- Informed consent form -



Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Department of Human Resource Management

TRADE UNIONS SERVICE LEVEL AND MEMBER SATISFACTION

Research conducted by:

Mr L S Kgapola (21320871)

Cell: 082 642 4322

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Leslie Seth Kgapola, a Doctoral student from the Department of Human Resource Management at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to determine the level of participation and satisfaction of trade union members in respect of both the workplace and non-workplace services which are rendered by trade unions.

Please note the following:

- This study involves an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences. I understand that there will be no direct benefit to myself but the results of the study may help to improve the functioning and services, which are rendered by trade unions.
- Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than 30 minutes of your time.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Dr P Smit at 012 420 3797 and/or paul.smit@up.ac.za if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

Respondent's signature

Date



APPENDIX C
- Letters granting permission -



labour

Department:
Labour
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Enquiries: Chuma Shadrack
Tel Direct: 012 309 4579

Date: 21 January 2015

RE: REQUEST TO COMPLETE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRES

Mr Kgapola LS is currently a registered student for a PHD(Labour Relations Management) at the University of Pretoria. He has been granted permission to conduct research in the Department of Labour: Head Office, Compensation Fund and Unemployment Insurance Fund on “ **Trade unions service level member satisfaction**” as part of the requirements to complete his qualification.

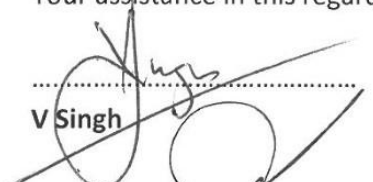
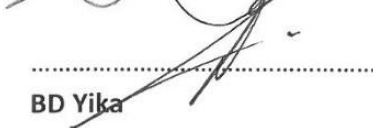
All employees affiliated with Nehawu and PSA on salary levels twelve(12) and downwards are requested to complete and submit the attached questionnaire to the Sub-Directorate HRD office number 416 or email address Shadrack.chuma@labour .gov.za. or Leslie.Kgapola@neotel.co.za.

The deadline for the submission of the questionnaires is the **13 February 2015**.

Attachments:

- A letter of permission to conduct a research from the Director-General: Labour.
- The electronic MS word version of the research questionnaire.

Your assistance in this regard will be highly appreciated.


.....
V Singh

.....
BD Yika

22.01.2015
.....
Date

22/01/2015
.....
Date



labour

Department.
Labour
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X117, PRETORIA, 0001. Laboria House, 215 Schoeman Street, PRETORIA
Tel: (012) 309 4000, Fax: (012) 320 5129, www.labour.gov.za

Enquires : V. Singh
Telephone : (012) 3094611
Date : 31 July 2011

Mr L S Kgapola
7111 Section U
Mamelodi West
0122

Dear Sir

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Your letter dated 19 July 2011 refers.

Please be advised that your request to access information from the Department of Labour for the purpose of your research is approved.

Please be advised that you will treat the information derived from your research at the Department of Labour for the execution of your research as completely anonymous and confidential. Furthermore the information will not be used for the purposes of victimising the Department of Labour in any way. In addition, you must at all times be obliged to safeguard the confidential information in pursuant of your research. You must also prevent the use, reproduction, disclosure, or other dissemination of any such information to any organ of state, firm, corporation, person, including third parties, except with the express prior consent of the Department of Labour.

It is recorded that you may have access to the information as per your request specific for the purpose of your research. Furthermore you must not modify the data, merge it with any other data, use it for any commercial purpose or do any other thing that may in any manner whatsoever, affect the integrity, security or confidentiality of such data. You are further not to permit any third party to read, copy or use the data other than may be specifically required in terms of your request.

You are further not allowed to publish articles in any journal or book or the like based on your research without the final approval of the Department of Labour.



You must sign the attached undertaking in order that effect is given to the Department of Labour's approval.

We trust that the above is in order.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Lp' followed by a large, stylized 'A' or 'M' shape.

DIRECTOR GENERAL:LABOUR



UNDERTAKING

I, Leslie Seth Kgapola undertake to:

1.

Confine the research to the Department of Labour: Head Office, Compensation Fund and Unemployment Insurance Fund.

2.

Restrict the research to the determination of services rendered to trade unions and the impact thereof on their members' participation in union activities and the satisfaction level.

3.

Restrict the research to employees who are members of NEHAWU and PSA.

4.

Treat the information derived from the research as completely anonymous and confidential.

5.

Disallow the use of the information derived from the research at the Department of Labour for the purposes of victimising the Department of Labour in any way.

6.

Prevent the use, reproduction, disclosure or other dissemination of any such information to any other organ of state, firm, corporation, person, including third parties except with the prior consent of the Department of Labour.



7.

Not modify the data, merge it with any other data, use it for any commercial purpose or do any other thing in any manner whatsoever to affect the integrity, security or confidentiality of such data.

8.

Not permit any third party to read, copy or use the data other than may be specifically required in terms of my request.

9.

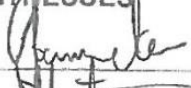
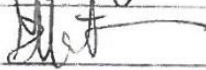
Not publish articles in any journal or book or the like based on this research without the final approval of the Department of Labour.

Signed at MIDRAND on this 14 day of JANUARY 2015

Leslie Beth Gapola


LESLIE BETH GAPOLA

WITNESSES

1.  (Full Name) Jayson Jannet
2.  (Full Name) Ashibe Maben



basic education

Department:
Basic Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X895, Pretoria, 0001, Sol Plaatje House, 222 Struben Street, Pretoria, 0002, South Africa
Tel.: (012) 357 3000, Fax: (012) 323 0601, www.education.gov.za

Mr LS Kgapola
University of Pretoria
Department of Human Resources Management
Postgraduate Programmes
PRETORIA
0001

Email: lkgapola@sars.gov.za

Dear Mr Kgapola

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Your letter requesting approval to conduct research with Departmental officials has been reviewed and permission has been granted.

The following guidelines apply:

1. The contact person within the Department is Ms G. Thani. You can contact Ms Thani at thani.t@dbe.gov.za, Tel: 012 357 3790.
2. You are required to provide a succinct work plan outlining the research activities with timeframes in advance to Ms Thani.
3. You are responsible for the data collection resources i.e. no survey forms will be printed using departmental resources.
4. We request that there be minimum disruption in the work environment during the data collection process.

The research process should be governed by ethical guidelines, which includes confidentiality and participants' right to withdraw from the study.

Since participation is voluntary, we request that this be borne in mind at all times.

Please contact the following principal union members to assist with the selection of participants for the focus group interviews.

Mr. Donald Malebye
Secretary, PSA DBE Branch
Tel: 012 357 3161
Email: Malebye.D@dbe.gov.za

Mr. Joseph Matjeni
Secretary, NEHAWU DBE Branch
Tel: 012 357 3132
Email: Matjeni.J@dbe.gov.za

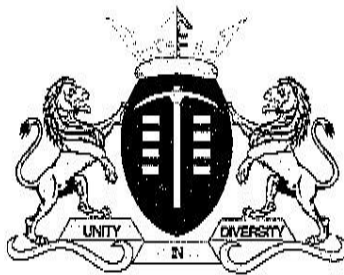


The above members will also assist with the distribution and collection of self-administered questionnaires.

Kind regards

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'P. B. Soobrayan', with a long horizontal line extending to the right.

MR P.B. SOOBRAYAN
DIRECTOR-GENERAL
DATE: 09/08/2011



education

 Department: Education
GAUTENG PROVINCE

 For administrative use:
 Reference no. D2012/64

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	27 May 2011
Name of Researcher:	Kgapola L.S.
Address of Researcher:	Unit 17; Wonderpark Estate
	First Avenue
	Karen Park
	0118
Telephone Number:	012 422 6871 / 082 642 4322
Fax Number:	086 540 4686
Email address:	Lkgapola@sars.gov.za
Research Topic:	Trade Unions service level and member satisfaction
Number and type of schools:	SIX Secondary Schools
District/s/HO	Tshwane South

Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researcher/s has/have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*
2. *The District/Head Office Senior Manager/s must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.*
3. *A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher/s have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.*

Making education a societal priority

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
 P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
 Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
 Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za



4. A letter / document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGBs and District/Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively.
5. The Researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and co-operation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district/head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher/s may carry out their research at the sites that they manage.
7. Research may only commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.
8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.
9. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his/her own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the offices visited for supplying such resources.
11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
12. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director: Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Cover bound and an electronic copy of the research.
13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.
14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

Shadrack Phele MIRMSA

[Member of the Institute of Risk Management South Africa]

CHIEF EDUCATION SPECIALIST: RESEARCH COORDINATION

27 May 2011

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

9th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
 P.O. Box 7710, Johannesburg, 2000 Tel: (011) 355 0506
 Email: David.Makhado@gauteng.gov.za
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Custodian of Good Governance

**OFFICE OF THE PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA**

Head Office: Private Bag X121, Pretoria, 0001, Tel: 012 328 7690 / 012 352 1000, Fax: 012 325 8382
Commission House, Cnr Hamilton & Ziervogel Streets, Arcadia, Pretoria, 0083

MS L HUMAN

(012) 352-1115

S 3/1/2

**Mr LS Kgapola
7111 Section U
Mamelodi West
0122**

Dear Mr Kgapola

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT


Thank you for your letter dated 20 May 2011 with regard to the above-mentioned matter.

You are hereby informed that your request to conduct research amongst employees who are members of NEHAWU and the PSA in the Office of the Public Service Commission (OPSC) has been approved. However, the following conditions will have to be adhered to:

- Employee's participation must be voluntarily;
- The availability of employees to complete the questionnaire will be based on the service delivery requirements of the OPSC; and
- An employee from the Directorate: Human Resource Management and Development will be nominated to co-ordinate and facilitate the research process.

Please contact Ms T Makuya on Tel: (012) 352-1108, to make the necessary arrangements.

Kind regards


13 DIRECTOR-GENERAL
DATE: 13/06/2011



REGIONAL OFFICES:

Free State T: (051) 448 8696 F: (051) 448 4135
Gauteng T: (011) 833 5721 F: (011) 834 1200
North-West T: (018) 384 1000 F: (018) 384 1012

Eastern Cape T: (043) 643 4704 F: (043) 642 1371
Northern Cape T: (053) 832 6222 F: (053) 832 6225
Western Cape T: (021) 421 3980 F: (021) 421 4060

KwaZulu-Natal T: (033) 345 1621 F: (033) 345 8505
Mpumalanga T: (013) 755 4070 F: (013) 752 5614
Limpopo T: (015) 291 4783 F: (015) 291 4683



External : Research
in the dept.



agriculture, forestry & fisheries

Department:
Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

From: Chief Director: Human Resources Management & Development
Tel: (012) 319-7333 Fax: (012) 319-7163 e-mail: CDCS@daff.gov.za

08 June 2011

Mr. L S Kgapola (Student no. 21320871)
c/o Department of Human Resources Management (Postgraduate)
University of Pretoria
Pretoria
0002

Dear Mr. Kgapola

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT

Your letter dated 20 May 2011 refers.

Permission is hereby granted to include our department as a research site for the purposes of your research, on the following conditions:

- (i) the research work will not interfere with or compromise the work and work hours of our employees;
- (ii) the results/findings of the research will only be used for academic purposes;
- (iii) our department will be provided with a copy of the research findings after the completion of your study. The copy should be sent to the writer.

Wishing you every success in your studies.

Yours sincerely

pp. DIRECTOR-GENERAL

Letter signed by: N I Miti
Chief Director: Human Resources Management & Development

cc: Chief Director: Operations Support
Act. Director: Employee Relations



the dpsa

Department:
Public Service and Administration
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
Private Bag X916, Pretoria, 0001 Tel(012) 3361000

Inquiry : Ms Mano Reddy-Yule
Telephone : 012-3361096
Email address : mreddy@dpsa.gov.za
File : S11/3

Mr. L Kgapola
LKgapola@sars.gov.za


Your letter requesting permission to use the Department to conduct research has reference in this matter.

The Department has considered your application and grants approval to your request with the following provision:

1. That you shall treat all information obtained from the department in the strictest confidence.
2. That you submit the final research paper to DPSA before it is submitted to the University.

The Department takes this opportunity to wish you well in your studies. Please contact Ms M Reddy-Yule at mreddy@dpsa.gov.za or 0123361096 for any further assistance required.

Kind regards


B J HENDRICKS (Ms)
ACTING CHIEF DIRECTOR: CORPORATE RESOURCE MANAGEMENT
DATE: 18 / 7 / 2011



higher education & training

Department:
Higher Education and Training
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X174, PRETORIA, 0001, 123 Schoeman Street, PRETORIA, 0002, South Africa
Tel: (012) 312 5911, Fax: (012) 321 6770
Private Bag X9192, CAPE TOWN, 8000, 103 Plein Street, CAPE TOWN, 8001, South Africa
Tel: (021) 469 5175, Fax: (021) 461 4761

Mr LS Kgapola
7111 Section U
Mamelodi West
0122

e-mail: lkgapola@sars.gov.za

Dear Mr Kgapola

Request for Permission to Conduct Research in the Department of Higher Education and Training

I acknowledge receipt of your letter, dated 20 May 2011, requesting permission to conduct research activities as part of your studies towards a PhD (Labour Relations Management) at the University of Pretoria in the Department of Human Resource Management.

The Department has evaluated the request and supports the research project on *Trade unions service level and member satisfaction* and hereby grants you permission to undertake this research within the department, with the proviso that there is no disruption of normal work activities of the participants of the study.

The Department requests that you submit a copy of the final report and data to Ms Letho upon completion of your research activities. For assistance with the logistical arrangements for the research activities and any other matters related to your research, please contact Ms Mapaseka Letho in the Monitoring and Evaluation Unit of the Department of Higher Education and Training (letho.m@dhet.gov.za 012 312 6212).

I wish you all of the best with your studies.

Yours sincerely

Mr GF Qonde
Acting Director General

Date: 15/07/2011