

THE PERCEPTIONS OF MANAGEMENT AND
WORKERS ON WORKER PARTICIPATION PROGRAMMES

BY
ELLEN MOAKOHI MOKGORO

T960048

200
THE PERCEPTIONS OF MANAGEMENT AND
WORKERS ON WORKER PARTICIPATION PROGRAMMES

BY
ELLEN MOAKOHI MOKGORO 200/700

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE
FACULTY OF COMMERCE & ADMINISTRATION
UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE
IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTERS OF ADMINISTRATION IN
DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

SUPERVISOR: PROF. E THOMSON

DATE: 1 SEPTEMBER 1995

CONTENTS

	Page
Abstract	i
Declaration	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Objective of the study	2
1.3 Hypotheses	3
1.4 Limitations	4
1.5 Structure of Chapters	6
1.6 Conclusion	6
Chapter 2 The Decision Making Process	7
2.1 Introduction	8
2.2 Definition of Decision Making	9
2.3 Programmed & Non-programmed Decisions	10
2.4 The Decision Making Process	11
2.4.1 Problem Recognition	13
2.4.2 Generation of Alternatives	14
2.4.3 Evaluation of Alternatives	15
2.4.4 Selecting an Alternative	16
2.4.5 Implementing the Chosen Alternative	17
2.4.6 Following up & Evaluating the Results	18
2.5 Models of Decision Making	19
2.5.1 The Rational Model (Classical View of Decision Making)	19
2.5.2 The Behavioural Model	20
2.6 Individual versus Group Decision Making	23
2.6.1 Advantages of Group Decision Making	25

2.6.2	Disadvantages of Group Making	27
2.7	Creativity in Group Making	28
2.7.1	Brainstorming	28
2.7.2	The Delphi Technique	30
2.7.3	The Nominal Group Technique	31
2.7.4	Interacting Groups	32
2.8	The Vroom - Yetton Decision Making Model	33
2.8.1	Conclusion	41
Chapter 3	Work Participation in Decision Making Process	43
3.1	Introduction	43
3.2	What is Participation?	44
3.3	Purposes of Participation	51
3.4	Objectives of Participation	52
3.4.1	Ethical or Moral Objectives	52
3.4.2	Socio-Political Objectives	53
3.4.3	Economic Objectives	54
3.5	Power & Participation	55
3.6	Elements of Participation	56
3.7	Levels of Participation	57
3.7.1	Task-centred versus Power-centred Participation	57
3.8	Forms of Participation	60
3.8.1	Direct versus Indirect Participation	60
3.8.2	Direct Forms of Participation	64
3.8.2.1	Job Design	64
3.8.2.2	Suggestion Schemes	68
3.8.2.3	Quality Circles	69
3.8.2.4	Problem - Solving Groups	71
3.8.2.5	Briefing Groups	71
3.8.3	Financial Participation	72
3.8.3.1	Profit sharing scheme	74

	Page
3.8.3.2 Employee share ownership schemes	74
3.8.3.3 Group financial/bonus incentive schemes	77
3.8.3.4 Individual performance incentive payment scheme	78
3.8.4 Indirect forms of participation	78
3.8.4.1 Work Affairs Committees	79
3.8.4.2 Management by objectives	80
3.8.4.3 Workers Committees	81
3.8.4.4 Liaison Committees	82
3.8.4.5 Safety Committees	82
3.8.4.6 Shop Steward Committees	83
3.8.5 Collective Bargaining	83
3.8.6 The Nature of Bargaining	90
3.8.6.1 Collective Bargaining as a Communication Process	90
3.8.6.2 Collective Bargaining as an Economic Process	91
3.8.6.3 Collective Bargaining as a Negotiation Process	91
3.8.6.4 Collective Bargaining as a Trade Union Activity	91
3.8.6.5 Collective Bargaining as a Management Style	92
3.8.6.6 Collective Bargaining as a Conflict Control Mechanism	92
3.8.6.7 Collective Bargaining & Conflict	92
3.8.7 Recognition Agreement	95
3.8.8 Scope of Collective Bargaining	96
3.9 Co-decision on Works Councils	97
3.9.1 Works Councils in Belgium	100
3.9.2 Works Councils in France	101
3.9.3 Works Councils in Denmark	103
3.9.4 Works Councils in Luxemburg	104

3.9.5 Works Councils in the Netherlands	104
3.9.6 Works Councils in South Africa	105
3.10 Co-determination and Worker Director Schemes	106
3.10.1 Federal Republic of Germany	108
3.11 Self-Management	110
3.12 Worker participation programmes in South Africa	115
3.12.1 Volkswagen	116
3.12.2 Cashbuild	118
3.12.3 P.G. Bison Company	119
3.13 Implementation of Worker participation programmes	121
3.14 Benefits of Participation	123
3.15 Limitations of Participation	125
3.16 Trade Union attitudes towards worker participation programmes	126
3.17 Management attitudes toward worker participation programmes	130
3.18 Worker attitudes to worker participation programmes	133
3.19 Conclusion	134
Chapter 4 The Scope of Worker Participation in Trade Unions	137
4.1 Introduction	137
4.2 The Historical Development of Trade Unionism	138
4.3 Reasons for the creation of Trade Unions	140
4.3.1 The condition of the Working Class	140
4.3.2 Divorce of Workers from Owners	141
4.3.3 Poor wages and working conditions	142
4.3.4 Mass production and division of Labour	142
4.3.5 Independence and Discipline	143
4.3.6 Labour as a commodity	143

4.3.7	Economic Insecurity and Dependence	144
4.3.8	The Class System : "Them and Us"	144
4.3.9	Dehumanisation : Hoplessness, Helplessness & Loss of Dignity	145
4.4	Definitions of a Trade Union	145
4.4.1	Different types of Trade Unions	147
4.4.2	Occupational Unions	147
4.4.3	General Unions	149
4.4.4	Industrial Unions	150
4.5	General Policy	151
4.6	Trade Union Objectives	152
4.6.1	Economic Objectives	152
4.6.2	Job Security	153
4.6.3	Social Welfare	153
4.6.4	Job Regulation	154
4.6.5	Socio-political Aims	154
4.6.6	Individual Development	155
4.7	Federal Republic of Germany	156
4.7.1	Trade Union Growth in Germany	156
4.7.2	Structure & Organisation of Trade Unions	157
4.7.2.1	The German Trade Union Federation (DGB)	157
4.7.3	Collective Bargaining & Industrial Relations	158
4.7.4	Developments in Industrial Democracy	159
4.8	United Kingdom	160
4.8.1	Trade Union growth in United Kingdom	161
4.8.2	Structure & organisation of Trade Unions	162
4.8.3	Collective Bargaining & Industrial Relations	163

	Page
4.8.4 Development in Industrial Democracy	164
4.8.5 The role of the State	165
4.9 The United States of America (USA)	165
4.9.1 Trade Union growth in USA	166
4.9.2 Structured & Proganisation of Trade Unions	167
4.9.3 Nature of Industrial Relations	168
4.9.3.1 Developments in Industrial Democracy	169
4.9.3.2 The role of the State	170
4.10 Yugoslavia	171
4.10.1 Trade Union growth in Yugoslavia	171
4.10.2 Industrial Relations System	172
4.10.3 Structure & Organisation of Trade Unions	173
4.10.4 The Role of Trade Unions under Self Management	174
4.11 Poland	176
4.11.1 Historical Background and Development of Polish Trade Unions	176
4.11.1.2 1956-1958	176
4.11.1.3 1970-1971	176
4.11.1.4 1980-1981	177
4.11.1.5 1981-1990	177
4.11.2 Solidarity - Historical Background	179
4.11.3 Solidarity's Achievements	181
4.11.3.1 Health and Safety	181
4.11.3.2 Day to Day Life	181
4.11.4 Self Management in Poland	182
4.11.5 Workers' Control	182
4.12 South Africa	183
4.12.1 Industrialisation & the Creation of the Working Class	183
4.12.2 Origin & Growth of Trade Union	184

	Page
4.12.3 The Growth of Manufacturing & Service Industries 1948 to 1972	190
4.12.4 Apartheid and Trade Unions	190
4.12.5 Post 1979 Developments to date	195
4.12.6 South African Trade Unions : Trade Union Council of South Africa (TUCSA)	197
4.12.6.1 South African Confederation of Labour (SACOL)	198
4.12.6.2 Federation of South African Trade Unions (FOSATU)	199
4.12.6.3 The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU)	200
4.12.6.4 The National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU)	203
4.12.6.5 United Workers Union of South Africa (UWUSA)	204
4.12.6.6 The Federation of Independent Trade Unions (FITU)	206
4.13 The role of Trade Unions in Worker participation programmes	206
4.14 Industrial Relations in the Wider Society	209
4.15 Conclusion	212
Chapter 5 Research Methodology	215
5.1 Introduction	215
5.2 The Research Design	215
5.3 Sampling technique & the description of the sample	216
5.4 Procedure	221
5.5 Research Instruments	222
5.5.1 Biographical Information Form	222
5.5.2 Questionnaire	222
5.6 Statistical analysis of data	224
5.6.1 Factor analysis	224
5.6.2 T-test	226

5.6.3 Pearson's Correlation Co-efficient	227
5.7 Conclusion	228
Chapter 6 The Presentation of Results	229
6.1 Introduction	229
6.1.1 Hypothesis 1	229
6.1.2 Hypothesis 2	230
6.1.3 Hypothesis 3	233
6.1.4 Hypothesis 4	235
6.1.5 Hypothesis 5	236
6.1.6 Hypothesis 6	237
6.1.7 Hypothesis 7	238
6.1.8 Hypothesis 8	239
6.2 Factor analysis : Presentation	241
6.2.1 Vaal Reefs factor structure	241
6.2.2 Ergo Mine factor structure	244
6.3 Conclusion	246
Chapter 7 Discussion of Results	247
7.1 The programme of research	247
7.2 Conclusion	253
Chapter 8 Conclusion	254
8.1 General Remarks	254
8.2 Recommendations	256
8.3 Conclusion	257
Bibliography	259 - 269
Figure 2.1 The Decision Making Process	12
Figure 2.2 The Dimension of Job Relevance as it relates to Degree of Participation	39
5.1 Demographic information by employee category	219

	Page
Table 5.1.1 Sex	219
Table 5.1.2 Age	219
Table 5.1.3 Home Language	220
Table 5.1.4 Length of service in present position	220
Table 5.1.5 Length of service in present organisation	220
Table 6.1 T-test of the difference between managers and supervisors on the participation of workers in decision making at Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines	230
Table 6.2 T-test of the difference between managers and supervisors on the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines	231
Table 6.3 T-test of the difference between the perceptions managers and supervisors on direct participation in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines	234
Table 6.4 T-test of the difference between managers and supervisors on the forms of indirect participation	235
Table 6.5 Pearson r correlation coefficient between biographic variables and decision making in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines	237
Table 6.6 Pearson r correlation coefficient between the perception on trade union and each of the following biographical variables	238

		Page
Table 6.7	Pearson r correlation coefficient between biographic variables and direct participation in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines	239
Table 6.8	Pearson r correlatiion coefficient between biographic variables and indirect participation in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines	240
Table 6.13	Factor structure at Vaal Reefs Mine	243
Table 6.14	Factor structure at Ergo Mine	245

The main objective of this study was to investigate different forms of worker participation programmes and their implementation in selected countries including South Africa. Another objective was to study perceptions of managers and workers on forms of participation at two mining companies in South Africa, namely Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines. The two mines were selected because they had dissimilar characteristics which would affect attitudes differently. Vaal Reefs Mine had a well established trade union movement whereas Ergo Mine was not very strongly unionised.

The study focused on a comparison between the attitudes of managers and supervisors toward worker participation, at both mines. At Ergo Mine there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of managers and supervisors on a large number of variables which was not the case at Vaal Reefs Mine. The results seem to indicate that at Vaal Reefs, supervisors tended to identify with workers on the shop-floor. Workers at Ergo Mine seemed to prefer direct forms of participation whereas the workers at Vaal Reefs Mine seemed to want to participate in management decision through trade union representation and other forms of indirect participation.

The main conclusion was that the form of worker participation in a particular environment depends to a large extent, on historical and prevailing conditions.

DECLARATION

(ii)

I hereby declare that this research report is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Administration (Industrial Psychology) at the University of Durban-Westville, Durban. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other University.

Ellen Mokgoro

This day of1995

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

(iii)

I wish to thank my supervisor Professor Thomson, Head of the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of Durban-Westville for her guidance. Mr Phiroshaw Camay for his support and valuable advice.

I wish to thank my family especially, my dad Theobald, my mom Constance for their constant support and encouragement to be determined to complete all tasks and not forgetting, Aunt Flo and Uncle Sam for being supportive as well.

Mr Mervin Naidoo and Sanjana Brijbal from the Department of Industrial Psychology at the University of Durban-Westville for their advice and guidance in the analysis and interpretation of research data.

Lastly, I wish to thank Dr Xavier Mugisha and Yvonne Collinge for helping me to organise and structure my thesis.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

A growing international interest has developed in the area of worker participation. Worker participation has been proposed to hold the key to the achievement of a wide range of organisational, individual and nation building objectives. Anstey (1990 : 23) states that "increased job satisfaction is proposed as the vehicle for improved motivation and enhanced productivity; a sense of belonging and relevance is proposed to increase organisational loyalty; adjustments of traditional autocratic decision making structures and improved communication channels are mooted as the means to a more meaningful industrial democracy".

Worker participation programmes have been geared towards the achievement of specific goals for the enterprise especially, those of production, efficiency and profitability. As a result, trade unions have rejected the concept of worker participation mainly because participation programmes were seen to serve management's interests. In certain European countries there is a strong trade union support for worker participation programmes. This can be attributed to the fact that worker participation in those countries takes the form of indirect participation through trade union representation.

According to Torres (1991 : 16) "participation in decision making bodies concerned with issues above

the shop-floor level will necessarily imply indirect participation which implies trade union representation because trade unions usually have information needed to handle decisions at these levels of the workplace". The implication is that worker participation programmes should be integrated into the trade union structure to prevent duplication of representation.

However, it seems that other forms of worker participation need to be investigated. In this study, attitudes toward various programmes of worker participation were investigated by looking at two South African gold mines where one had a strong trade union movement while the other did not. It was hypothesized that differences would be observed attributable to the different histories in the programmes of worker participation.

1.2 Objectives of the study

1. To investigate different forms of worker participation programmes and how they are implemented in different companies in selected countries including South Africa.
2. To study perceptions of managers and supervisors on forms of participation at two mining companies in South Africa, namely Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.
3. Concerning attitudes of supervisors and managers at Vaal Reefs and Ergo mine, the study was focused on direct participation, the role of

trade unions in worker participation, worker's involvement in decision making and indirect participation.

4. Finally, to investigate the relationship between personal attributes such as age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation and perceptions on direct participation, the role of trade unions, indirect participation as well as on worker's involvement in decision making at Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.

1.3 Hypotheses

1. There is a significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors on the participation of workers in the decision making process in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.
2. There is a significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors on the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.
3. There is a significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors on the forms of direct participation.
4. There is a significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors on the forms of indirect participation.
5. There is a significant relationship between each of the biographical variables (age, education,

length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation) and decision making in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.

6. There is a significant relationship between the perception on trade unions and each of the following biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position and length of service in present organisation) in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.
7. There is a significant relationship between each of the biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation) and direct participation in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.
8. There is a significant relationship between each of the biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation) and indirect participation in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.

1.4 Limitations

This study was based on a self developed questionnaire as there were no parallel studies conducted elsewhere in the field of worker participation in South Africa. The focus of the study was on attitudes which were measured on a 5 point Likert scale. Since this instrument was new, its performance was not determined according to such criteria as reliability and validity.

These constructs of validity and reliability were not investigated because the study was focusing on broad discrepancies between response patterns among different groups of workers.

It was felt that the study would lead to further hypotheses that could be investigated in subsequent studies in the area of worker participation.

In the sample realization the response rate was 82%; one would have liked a 100% response rate, but this was not possible due to the fact that many questionnaires were wasted as they were incomplete and they could not be used. Perhaps this was due to illiteracy among some workers especially at Vaal Reefs. In addition, it is not clear how well respondents understood the concept of measurement on a Likert scale where items are ranked on an ordinal scale from strongly disagree (+ 1) to strongly agree (+ 5). Furthermore, it was not clear how independent the responses were, seeing that the study was based on a self administered instrument and therefore it was possible that workers got together to complete the questionnaires; unfortunately the extent of such a problem could not be investigated.

Finally, the managers at both mines were numerically smaller than supervisors and therefore it was much easier to get a random sample of supervisors than of managers. Due to the small stratum sizes of managers at both mines, it was decided to include all of them in the survey at the two study locations.

1.5 Structure of chapters

The focus of the study was on worker participation programmes. The second chapter was on the decision making process which was discussed in terms of its models.

Differentiation was made between individual and group decision making. The third chapter focused on participation. The discussion was centred on objectives and purposes of participation as well as its direct and indirect forms. With regards to forms of participation, the discussion was based on the experiences of other countries and South Africa.

Implementation as well as costs and benefits of worker participation were discussed. The fourth chapter focused on trade union growth and development in some European countries and in South Africa. The role of trade unions in worker participation programmes was discussed. Lastly, the chapter dealt with industrial relations in the wider society. The fifth chapter dealt with the research methods used to determine management and worker perceptions of worker participation programmes. Three statistical methods were discussed namely, t-test, Pearson's correlation coefficient and factor analysis. The sixth chapter focused on the presentation of results whilst the seventh one dealt with the discussion of research data.

1.6 Conclusion

This introduction has presented a broad overview of worker participation. The objectives as well as hypotheses of the study were presented. The structure of topics discussed in the study were also presented. The next chapter will be focused on the decision making process.

CHAPTER 2 THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

2.1 Introduction

Participation in the decision making process is an activity that may be used by management of an enterprise in pursuing its goals. The basic idea of participation in decision making is that all members of an organisation are permitted or even encouraged to take an active part in influencing and contributing to discussions.

It is essential to note that participation is a managerial device and as such clarification of the concept is necessary. Participants in decision making are either in management positions or those workers in operating positions; individuals participate in a process when they take part or have shared interests in the outcome. Subordinates are responsible to their supervisors for the performance of designed tasks. In such performance they are participating in the production of the goods or services of the enterprise. Another type of participation which is less frequently encountered involves subordinates and their supervisors on the managerial level of the decision making process. Decisions are made by managers in order to organise, direct or control subordinates to the end that all service contributions be co-ordinated in the attainment of the purpose of an enterprise. Since managers traditionally make decisions, subordinates are directly affected by the direction of the proposed outcome.

Due to the effect of these decisions employees have a vested interest in participating towards the set of objectives (Matteson & Ivancevich 1989 : 487).

Since a substantial proportion of the individual's life is spent in the workplace, it is inevitable that ability and contribution towards decision making are harnessed to benefit all the parties involved.

Employees must be given the right to participate in all those aspects of a company's activities that impinge upon their working lives. They should be given an effective voice in decision making at all levels of the enterprise (Smith 1977 : 64).

According to Mitchell (1982 : 317) employees can participate in various matters:

- * Personnel matters : hiring, firing, job description
- * Job matters : assignments, work methods, deadlines
- * Working conditions : hours, safety, breaks
- * Organisational policy : expansion, profit sharing, layoffs

It is to the advantage of employees to participate in decisions concerning the various elements related to their jobs. Employees who are allowed to participate in problem solving, goal setting and the decision making processes, will gain emotional ownership in the organisation and work towards shared objectives.

2.2 Definition of Decision Making

The decision making activity is central to the effectiveness of any group or institution.

It plays an important role in the overall process of directing and controlling the behaviour of organisational members. Decisions are made that cover the setting of goals, strategic planning, organisational design, personnel actions, individual and group actions (Mitchell & Larson 1987 : 332).

According to Griffin (1990 :125) decision making is the act of choosing one alternative from amongst a set of alternatives. The person making the decision must have recognised a process was necessary and identified the set of feasible alternatives before selecting one. The decision making process includes recognising and defining the nature of a decision situation, identifying alternatives, choosing the best alternative and putting it into practice.

Luthans (1985 : 588) states decision making is the process of choosing between alternatives. It is closely related to all the traditional management functions that is related to planning, organising and controlling.

"Decisions should be thought of as a means rather than an end because they are the organisational mechanisms by which an attempt is made to achieve a desired state. They are, in effect an organisational response to a problem" (Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly 1991 : 576).

2.3 Programmed and Non-programmed Decisions

A decision that recurs often enough results in the development of a rule and is known as programmed decision.

Decision rules are statements that indicate to the person which alternative to choose once they have information about the situation.

Baron (1983 : 350) indicates that a "programmed decision is one that is made repeatedly, on a routine, according to a pre-established set of alternatives". These decisions are common at the lower levels of the organisation structure.

Decisions are non-programmed when they are novel and unstructured. There are no established procedures for handling the problem either because it has not arisen in exactly the same manner before or because it is extremely complex (Baron 1983 : 350).

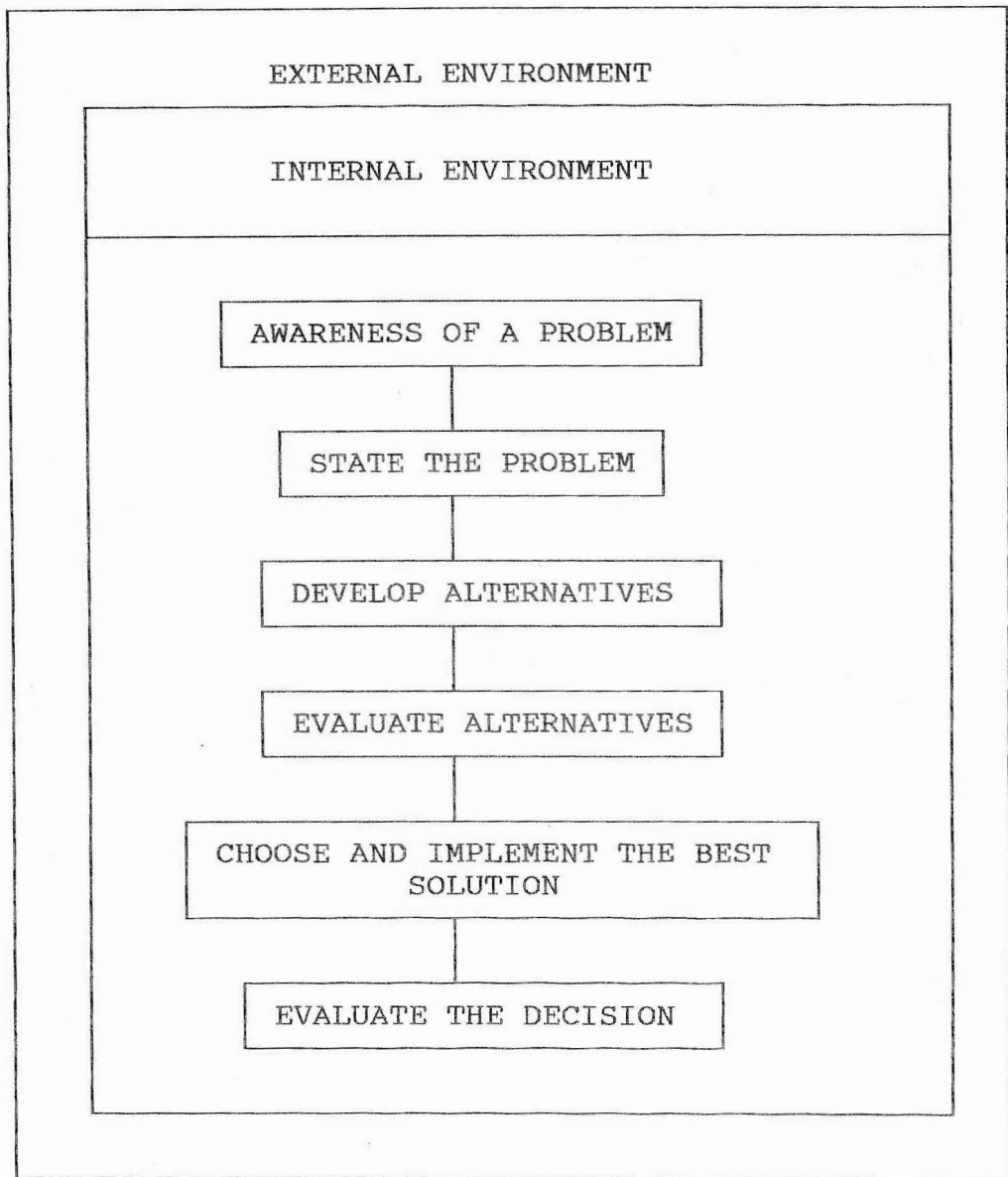
Non-programmed decisions require problem solving techniques. Problem solving is a special case of decision making in which the issue is unique, requiring development and evaluation of alternatives without the use of programmed decision rules. These decisions require the person to exercise judgement and creativity. It is usually management's responsibility to make the difficult, non-programmed decision that determine the long-term effectiveness of the organisation.

2.4 The Decision Making Process

Organisations formulate goals and objectives to ensure survival. In some cases, goals and objectives are not realised and consequently individuals, dependants and organisations fall short of their targets.

Figure 2.1

The Decision Making Process



Source: Mondy, R.W, Holmes, R.E. and Flipppo, E.B. 1983 : 337. Management : Concepts and Practices. Second edition. Boston : Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

As illustrated in Figure 2.1 most decisions are made within the constraints of both the internal and external environments.

It is this discrepancy between what is observed and what is desired that provides the basis of the problem recognition stage of decision making (Mitchell & Larson 1987 : 333).

2.4.1 Problem Recognition

This step involves two activities. In the first instance decision makers must observe and keep track of what is going on. Decision makers must be able to recognise discrepancies when they exist. A problem exists when the actual situation differs from the desired one.

In the second instance, decision makers evaluate the discrepancy by using standards which have been developed by management. The standards may be stated quantitatively or qualitatively. These standards serve to indicate to members of the organisation what is the required performance (Gray & Starke 1984 : 364).

Inherent in the recognition stage is the need to define precisely what is the problem. This is important because the definition plays a major role in subsequent steps. The provision of reliable information play a critical role in this step. Inaccurate information may lead to an unnecessary decision. It is expected of the decision maker to gather information relating to the cause of the problem and also ways to solve it effectively.

There are certain factors which can hinder problem recognition. The first factor is a perceptual problem.

This refers to negative information which may be selectively perceived to distort the true meaning of the problem. The second factor relates to defining problems in terms of solutions. This implies a form of "jumping" to conclusions without having relevant information. The last factor is identifying symptoms as problems. The decision maker may identify the cause of the change in order to find the real problem (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly 1991 : 578).

2.4.2 Generation of Alternatives

Once the decision situation has been recognised and appropriately defined, the second step is to identify alternative courses of action that might be effective. It is useful to develop both obvious, standard, creative and innovative alternatives (Griffin 1990 : 133). For programmed decisions, alternatives are readily available through decision rules. This is not the case for non-programmed decisions because these require the creative part of problem solving (Kreitner & Kinicki 1989 : 40). Generating plausible solution alternatives requires experience, creativity and the ability to integrate complex information.

According to Longenecker (1973 : 138) the decision maker faces certain constraints that limit his task of generating alternatives. The following types of constraints have been suggested as establishing limits to managerial discretion : authoritative constraints, physical, technological, economic and legal restrictions.

2.4.3 Evaluation of Alternatives

The third step of the decision making process is evaluating each of the alternatives generated in the previous steps. Each alternative must be evaluated in terms of its feasibility, the degree of satisfaction generated and its consequences.

Feasibility refers to the realm of probability and practicality. Satisfaction implies the extent to which the alternative will satisfy the conditions of the decision situation. When an alternative has proved both feasible and satisfactory, its probable consequences must still be assessed. Questions may be posed relating to what extent will a particular alternative influence other parts of the organisation? What costs (both financial and non-financial) will be associated with such influences? (Griffin 1990 : 134).

In every decision situation, the objective in making a decision is to select the alternative that will produce the most favourable outcomes and the least unfavourable outcomes. The alternative outcome relationship is based on three possible conditions:

- * Certainty - The decision maker has complete knowledge of the probability of the outcome of each alternative
- * Uncertainty - The decision maker has absolutely no knowledge of the probability of the outcome of each alternative
- * Risk - The decision maker has some probabilistic estimate of the outcomes of each alternative.

It is in evaluation of alternatives under these conditions that statisticians and operations researchers have made important contributions to decision making (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly (1991 : 579)).

2.4.4 Selecting an Alternative

Choosing the best alternative is the real crux of decision making. Several points should be considered when selecting an alternative from those that remain. One approach is to choose the alternative with the highest combined level of feasibility, satisfaction and affordable consequences. The second approach is that of optimization (Griffin 1990 :135).

The purpose in selecting an alternative is to solve a problem to achieve a pre-determined objective.

According to Ackoff (1981) cited in Griffin (1990 : 135) there are three approaches to making choices : optimising, satisfaction and idealizing. Optimising involves solving problems by producing the best possible solution. This approach is based on the assumption that managers:

- * Have knowledge of all possible alternatives
- * Have complete knowledge about the consequences that follow each alternative
- * Have a well organised and stable set of preferences for these consequences
- * Have the computational ability to compare consequences and to determine which one is preferred.

The second approach is satisfaction and this consists of choosing a solution that meets some minimum qualifications. It resolves problems by producing solutions that are satisfactory as opposed to optimal. The last approach is idealizing which consists of changing a situation so the problem no longer exists.

2.4.5 Implementing the Chosen Alternative

Once the solution has been chosen, it needs to be implemented. A decision must be effectively implemented to achieve its objective. In this step the decision maker must convert thoughts into actions. There are two factors that are of importance in this step namely, action planning and the implementation stage. Once the problem has been defined and a solution has been developed to resolve it a specific plan of action must be formulated. Action planning requires that the decision maker develops a systematic plan for actually implementing the decision. This requires the decision makers to think about issues such as:

- * Should employees participate in the implementation plan or should they simply be required to implement the decision?
- * What kind of co-ordination is required between the decision maker and those who will implement the decisions?
- * Who will monitor the implementation to see if it is working properly?
- * What criteria will be used to determine if the proposed solution really solves the problem?

One constraint with regards to implementation is people's resistance to change. The reasons for such resistance include insecurity, inconvenience and fear of the unknown (Griffin 1990 : 196).

2.4.6 Following up and Evaluating the Results

As the final step in decision making process, managers evaluate the effectiveness of their decision and ensure that the alternative chosen has served its original purpose. The decision (solution) must be able to reduce the difference between the actual and desired states that created the problem. If a discrepancy exists, the decision maker may restart the decision making process by setting new goals (Miffin 1986 : 476).

If an implemented alternative appears not to be working, the manager has several potential responses. Firstly, another previously identified alternative that is, the second or third choice could be adopted. Secondly, the manager might recognize that the situation was not correctly defined to start with and begin the decision making process all over again. Thirdly, the alternative chosen can be appropriate but needs to be implemented in a different way (Griffin 1990 : 137).

Measurable objectives are of great importance in this step because they enable the decision maker to compare actual results with planned results. If deviations exist the changes will be made.

Once a decision is implemented, a manager cannot assume that the outcome will meet the original objective, as a result, some systems of control and evaluation is needed to ensure the actual results are consistent with the planned results. A control system must be in place to detect whether the solution has really resolved the problem (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly 1991 : 580).

2.5 Models of Decision Making

2.5.1 The Rational Model (Classical View of Decision Making)

The classical decision model is a prescriptive approach that informs managers how they should make decisions. It is based on the assumption that managers are logical, rational and they always make decisions that are in the best interests of the organisation.

According to the classical view managers go through these steps when making decisions:

- * Decision makers have complete information about the decision situation and possible alternatives
- * They can effectively eliminate uncertainty so as to achieve a decision condition of certainty
- * They evaluate all aspects of the decision situation logically and rationally (Griffin 1990 : 128).

Rational decision makers are assumed to make decisions that maximise their advantages (profits) by systematically searching and evaluating all possible alternatives.

Baron (1983 : 355) states that decision makers rarely have access to perfect information. Knowing all possible alternatives and their consequences is not likely.

One of the major critics of the rational model is Herbert Simon (1957) cited in Baron (1983 : 355) who argues that human limitations make it impossible for people to make complete rational decisions. Downs (1966) cited in Baron states that human decision makers have a limited capability to process information, and they operate in organisational contexts that severely limit the time they can spend on making any one decision.

The major problem with the classical view is that managers are either incapable of or are not motivated to make the kinds of maximised decisions that are assumed by the model. In most cases, personal preferences, attitudes, emotions and motives influence decision making behaviour. Another view of decision making that reflects these subjective considerations is the behavioural or administrative model.

2.5.2 The Behavioural Model

The behavioural model has been proposed as an alternative to the rational model. In the behavioural model, decision makers are assumed to be forced by mental, motivational and organisational limitations to satisfy, when satisfying decision makers choose alternatives that meet or exceed a

predetermined minimum criterion, but they do not expend the energy necessary to find the very best alternative (Gray & Starke 1984 : 360). This model describes how decisions are actually made and holds that managers:

- * Have incomplete and imperfect information
- * Are constrained by bounded rationality
- * Tend to satisfy when making decisions (Griffin 1990 : 130).

The behavioural model was founded by Herbert Simon when he recognised that rationalism and logic do not universally characterise decision making processes. Simon's administrative model assumes that decision makers are limited in the number of solutions and that they are not perfectly aware of the consequences of each alternative solution they consider.

Decision makers operate within conditions which Simon has referred to as bounded rationality. As a result of these conditions, decision makers strive to make decisions that are good enough rather than ideal. Such decisions are referred to as satisfying decisions.

Managers may simply be unwilling to ignore their own motives and therefore not be able to continue searching after a minimally acceptable alternative is identified. The decision maker may be unable to weigh and evaluate large numbers of alternatives and criteria. Further, subjective and personal considerations often intervene in decision situations.

In considering these reasons, satisfying plays a major role in decision making (Griffin 1990 : 131).

In addition to making satisfying decisions the behavioural model assumes that managers attempt to simplify the vast array of complex information by using decision rules called heuristics. A heuristic is a simple rule of thumb approved to making satisfying decisions. Heuristics act as guidelines for decision makers in order to reduce the complexity of large problems and thus make them more manageable.

Limitations to making optimal decisions is imposed by moral and ethical restraints which are referred to as bounded discretion. Decision makers often limit their actions to those falling within the bounds of accepted moral and ethical standards (Baron 1983 : 356).

Four behavioural factors namely, values, personality, propensity for risk and potential for dissonance have an impact on the decision making process. Values are the guidelines a person uses when confronted with a situation in which a choice must be made. Values influence the entire process that is, the establishment of objectives, development of alternatives, choice of alternatives, and lastly implementation of a decision.

Decision makers' personalities are reflected in the choices they make. For instance, one person is not likely to be equally proficient in all aspects of the decision making process.

Some people do better in one part of the process, while others do better in another part. Decision makers vary in their propensity for taking risks. This implies that a decision maker with a low aversion to risk evaluates alternatives differently than a person with a high aversion to risk. With regards to cognitive dissonance, there is often a lack of consistency among an individual's attitudes, beliefs after a decision has been made. Thus, the decision maker may have second thoughts about the choice (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly 1991 : 583). The behavioural model is accepted as a realistic description of how organisational decisions are made.

2.6 Individual versus Group Decision Making

Participation techniques can be applied uniformly on an individual or group basis. Group decision making is similar to individual decision making in that the stages of problem recognition, information gathering, generation and evaluation of solution alternatives and choice all occur. However, group decision making is more complex because it involves a number of people with different backgrounds and personalities.

Individual decision making implies that the manager makes the decision alone. Group decision making utilises democratic techniques. In the democratic form, there is total participation and the group, not the individual manager, make the final decision by consensus or majority vote.

In some organisations, groups such as committees, task forces and quality circles play a major role in decision making.

Managers frequently face situations in which they must seek and combine judgements in group meetings. This is especially true for non-programmed problems which are novel and involve much uncertainty regarding the outcome. This increased complexity of these problems requires specialized knowledge usually not possessed by one person (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly 1991 : 585).

One advantage is that groups possess several individuals who may contribute many good ideas. Group members may stimulate and encourage each other through their mutual interaction so as to achieve the predetermined goal or objective.

Certain factors have to be taken into consideration with regards to the choice between individual and group decision making. These factors are the type of task, knowledge and experience of the people involved and the type of the process.

In tasks that require an estimation, a prediction or a judgement of accuracy, groups perform better because more people contribute to the decision making process. In problem solving tasks groups tend to produce more and better solutions than individuals. Complex problems are more appropriate for groups than for individuals. Group decision making offers opportunities for participation. There is often greater interest in the task when several people participate than when an individual works alone (Griffin 1990 : 482).

There are certain guidelines which may be used by managers to decide whether to use groups or individuals in decision making:

- * If additional information would increase the quality of the decision then the manager should involve those people who can provide the needed information
- * If acceptance is important, managers need to involve those individuals whose acceptance and commitment are important
- * If people can be developed through their participation, managers may want to involve those whose development is important (Kreitner & Kinicki 1989 : 505).

2.6.1 Advantages of Group Decision Making

Group performance is generally superior to that of the average group member for two basic reasons. First, the sum total of the group's knowledge is greater. Each member can be regarded as a potential source of valuable knowledge and information for analysing a particular problem. One may be more knowledgeable than any other individual in the group. However, less informed members may have special knowledge that can fill in certain gaps in understanding.

Second, the group has a much wider range of alternatives in the decision process. In most cases, individuals when faced with a problem tend to analyse it from the way they see it. As a result, it is not uncommon for several people to see the same problem in various ways.

Group decision making facilitates and increases acceptance of the decision by group members, especially when change is implemented. Individuals who participate in making decisions tend to support them. As a result, when people work together in developing solutions, they are usually unified in supporting the solutions they formulate. By contrast, if just one person makes the judgements in a company, he or she alone must sell to others on accepting and implementing them (Rue & Byars 1989 : 156).

According to Gray & Starke (1984 : 382) the group format allows increased participation by a variety of individuals. Group decision making increases member satisfaction since every member contributes his or her ideas to problem solving.

When a decision by a manager needs to be carried out, it must first be relayed to the subordinates. In the process of conveying this information, communication problems can develop. These problems, however, are greatly reduced when the employees who must work to implement the decision also helped to develop it. Therefore, there is a possibility of enhanced communication in group decision making. Through communication, a better mutual understanding is reached about the nature of the decision and its likely outcome (Griffin 1990 : 142 & Miller & Catt 1989 : 219).

2.6.2 Disadvantages of Group Decision Making

There are certain drawbacks which greatly limit the effectiveness of group decision making:

- * The most practical disadvantage is the time required to make decisions. However, this may not be a disadvantage because the extra time that is taken usually results in a better decision
- * A second problem with group decision making is that certain individuals may dominate the discussion. This occurs frequently when people of higher status in the organisation take part in the decision process. Because of the presence of a dominant individual many other members may become inhibited
- * A third problem is the potential for group think, the tendency for group members to suppress critical comments in the interest of maintaining group solidarity and a feeling of togetherness. As a result, majority opinions tend to be accepted regardless of whether they are logical or technically sound
- * Fourthly, group effort frequently results in compromises that are not optimal from an effectiveness perspective
- * Miller & Catt (1989 : 221) stated that it is easier to take risks in a crowd. Sometimes people become bolder and appear more risk orientated when they have the support of others. It is not uncommon to risk in a group discussion than in private

- * Lastly, too much dependence on group decisions can limit management's ability to act quickly and decisively when necessary (Gray & Starke 1984 : 354).

Groups can fail to out-perform individuals if they are not well established and managed. Poor leadership and lack of clarity about group aims can send the group towards disaster.

2.7 Creativity in Group Decision Making

Creativity is the generation of new and useful ways of performing tasks. A creative decision is one that solves a problem and exploits an opportunity in a novel manner. Since groups are better suited to make non-programmed (complex) decisions than individuals, an atmosphere fostering group creativity should be developed (Gray & Starke 1984 : 386). Increasing the creative capability of a group is necessary when individuals from different sectors of the organisation must pool their judgements to create a satisfactory solution. In most cases it is the uncertain, ambiguous problems that are most difficult for groups to handle. Due to these difficulties, a number of techniques have been designed to increase the creativity and effectiveness of groups trying to deal with problems of this nature. The four techniques are brainstorming, the Delphi technique, the nominal group technique and interactive group.

2.7.1 Brainstorming

In group decision making, not everyone is heard because certain people may dominate the discussion.

There is a tendency for group members to prejudge suggestions as they are made, that can inhibit the free flow of ideas. Alex Osborn (1963) cited in Baron (1983 : 365) was the first to propose a technique for facilitating the generation of ideas in a group. He called this technique brainstorming and it is designed to enhance creativity by encouraging free discussion of ideas.

According to Osborn (1960) in Baron (1983 : 365) the basic rules are:

- * Criticism of ideas that are developed is not allowed. It is felt that criticism inhibits creativity and by not allowing group members to make a judgement on the value of someone else's suggestion is thought to encourage creativity
- * No idea is considered too far out. The idea in brainstorming is to encourage people to state publicly any idea that comes to mind
- * Participants are encouraged to build on the suggestions of other group members. The emphasis is on group development and ownership and not on individualism
- * As many ideas as possible are encouraged. The greater the number of ideas, the greater the probability that a useful one will be found.

This technique involves six to ten people to come up with creative solutions to a problem. The brainstorming session is a carefully directed operation around a particular theme, backed by good leadership. Leadership of brainstorming sessions demands both high level conceptual skills and sensitivity.

The leader must detect when individuals are feeling inhibited or threatened and assist in keeping the flow of ideas going in a positive direction. When the ideas are all documented they are then examined systematically to eliminate the absurdities and narrow down the list to manageable proportions. This short list may be refined and further analysed until one or more ideas are identified as worth following up (Leigh 1983 :104).

2.7.2 The Delphi Technique

The Delphi technique attempts to regulate not only the process of idea generating and evaluation but also the making of the decision itself meaning the choice of a preferred alternative. It was developed by N. C. Dalkey in 1950 at the Rand Corporation as a method of systematically gathering the judgements of experts used in developing forecasts. It does not require the physical presence of group members. In order to use Delphi, it is necessary to get a panel of experts to give their opinion on a particular matter.

The Delphi procedure is as follows:

- * The first step is to obtain co-operation of a panel of fifteen to twenty experts
- * Since experts are not brought together, a structured questionnaire is sent to them. The questionnaire requires them to give their responses to question the organisation shows its interest

- * The responses are tabulated and summarised and a report of this information is returned to the respondents. A second questionnaire is also sent to respondents and it is designed to probe any issues that need further clarification and elaboration
- * The feedback report is evaluated and respondents rate the various ideas presented
- * A final summary is developed and is presented to the top management of the organisation where the study is conducted (Mitchell 1982 : 326).

The Delphi technique is useful when experts are physically dispersed, where anonymity is desired or when the participants have difficulty communicating with each other because of severe differences of opinion. This technique eliminates the fruitful results of direct interaction between group members (Griffin & Moorhead 1986 : 497).

Baron (1983 : 368) argues that the process is time consuming because it takes a long time for everyone to respond, for all the ideas to be transcribed and for a general consensus to be reached. As a result, it would not be appropriate for making decisions about an impending crisis.

2.7.3 The Nominal Group Technique

The nominal group technique is similar to the Delphi technique in that it is concerned with the process of idea generating and evaluation as well as the choice of a preferred alternative. A nominal group is simply a paper group.

It is a group in name only because no verbal exchange is allowed between members.

The nominal group technique consists of the following steps:

- * Individuals write down their solutions (ideas) to the problem without discussing them with other members of the group
- * Each idea suggested is then listed on a flip chart, discussed, clarified and evaluated
- * The participants privately rank each of the ideas and the one with the highest ranking is taken as the group's decision (Gray & Starke 1984 : 378).

2.7.4 Interacting Groups

An interacting group is the most common form of group decision making. Either an existing or a newly designated group is asked to make a decision about a matter of concern. Existing groups might be functional department or regular work groups. Newly designated groups can be ad hoc committees or task forces. An advantage of this method is that the interaction between people often sparks new ideas and promotes understanding (Griffin 1990 : 141).

Managers sometimes see decision making as being part of their central function because they must constantly choose what is to be done and occasionally even how it will be done. In using the participative approach, they should consider the degree or extent to which employees will be allowed to participate in the decision making process.

2.8 The Vroom - Yetton Decision Making Model

Managers have a tendency to make unilateral decisions regardless of the type of decision. In most cases, they encounter problems when it comes to the acceptance of decisions. Employees tend to resist the implementation of decisions in which they were not involved. The Vroom - Yetton model enables managers to decide when and how much participation should be employed in the decision making process.

This model characterises leadership in terms of decision making styles. It can be referred to as a situational leadership theory because it prescribes different styles for varying situations that managers encounter.

Vroom and Yetton proposed five different types of decision making which vary according to subordinate influence. These types of decision making range from no participation at all, to consultation and to full participation in which the group as a whole makes the decision. The decision procedures are defined as follows:

A = Autocratic; C = Consultative and G = Group. Vroom and Yetton (1973) in Tossi, Rizzo & Carroll (1990 : 459) developed the model.

- AI - The manager makes the decision alone.
- AII - The manager asks for information from subordinates but makes the decision alone. Subordinates may or may not be informed about the problem.

- CI - The manager discusses the problem with relevant subordinates individually. Then without bringing them together, he or she makes the decision that may or may not reflect their input.
- CII - The manager shares the problem with subordinates in a group meeting, gathering ideas and suggestions. He then makes the decision alone, which may or may not take the input of the group meeting into account.
- GII - The manager and subordinates meet as a group to discuss the problem and the group as a whole makes the decision. The manager functions in the participative style and his role is to provide information and help facilitating the group's determination of its own solution rather than his own input alone.

The Vroom - Yetton model is based on an analysis of how a leader's decision behaviour affects decision quality and subordinate acceptance of the decision, both of which are intervening variables affecting subordinate performance. The best style depends on the following characteristics of the situation in which the problem arises:

* Importance of Decision Quality

According to Schein (1980 : 120) there are three rules that are designed to protect the quality of the decision. The first one is the information rule. It implies that if the quality of the decision is important and if the manager does not have enough information then he cannot solve the problem alone.

As a result AI is eliminated. The second one is the trust rule. This rule means that if the quality of the decision is important and if the subordinates cannot be trusted to solve the problem then they won't be included in the decision making process. Therefore, GII in the model will be eliminated by the manager.

The third rule is the unstructured problem. If the quality of the decision is important, or if the manager does not have enough information and if the problem is unstructured then he will have to collect information from his subordinates. The manager will use methods that involve interaction among subordinates. In this case the manager will resort to CII and GII in the Vroom - Yetton decision making model (Schein 1980 : 120).

* Extent to which the decision maker has necessary information

There are two kinds of information that make an effective decision, namely, preferences of subordinates about alternatives and whether there are valid grounds on which to judge the relative quality of alternatives. When the manager is not aware of subordinates' preferences, participative approaches are one way to obtain such information. If the manager knows subordinate preferences but the problem is such that an individual decision is more likely to produce a better solution than that of a group, then the situation calls for the manager to make the decision alone.

A group is superior when the problem is complex and the members possess diverse as well as relevant talents and skills (Tossi, Rizzo & Carroll 1990 : 499).

* The importance of subordinates acceptance

Acceptance is the degree of subordinate's commitment to implement the decision effectively. With regards to the acceptance of a decision there are four rules namely; acceptance, conflict, fairness and acceptance priority. If acceptance of the decision by subordinates is critical to effective implementation then AI and AII in the model are eliminated. The manager will resort to CI, CII and GII because they provide for interaction among subordinates (Schein 1980 : 121).

If acceptance of the decision is important and subordinates are likely to be in conflict or disagreement over the appropriate solution then AI, AII and CI in the model are eliminated. The manager will choose the method that will enable those in disagreement to resolve their differences with full knowledge of the problem. Therefore CII and GII will be appropriate for this situation.

With regards to fairness rule, if the quality of the decision is unimportant but acceptance is critical and not likely to result from an autocratic decision then AI, AII and CI are eliminated.

GII in the model will be used since it will be fair to share the problem with subordinates as a group. The emphasis is on joint decision making by the manager and subordinates (Schein 1980 : 121).

The acceptance priority rule states that if acceptance is critical and not assured by an autocratic decision then AI, AII and CI in the model are to be eliminated. GII in the model will be used as it provides equal partnership in the decision making process. The focus is on greater acceptance by subordinates without risking decision quality. The subordinates will be committed to the implementation of the decision since they were involved in the decision making process (Schein 1980 : 121).

It is necessary that the manager classifies decision types prior to the process. The first dimension is based on whether the decision is work related and secondly, whether the decision involves organisational policies for instance, personnel policies, pay, benefits, promotions and career development.

The second dimension includes the following:

- * Who has what information?
- * How critical is implementation?
- * How likely are subordinates to share organisational goals and therefore to be motivated to implement the decision?

The third dimension is how capable the subordinates are in solving the problem and how motivated they are to solve it (Schein 1980 : 135).

Figure 2.2 illustrated shows the decision dimension in relation to degrees of participativeness. The purpose of this grid is to aid the manager in diagnosing the various decisions required during the normal course of operations and in deciding how much involvement on the part of subordinates is appropriate for that decision area.

In Figure 2.2 organisational policy decisions tend to be autocratically made because:

- * Owners and managers usually have the right and obligation to define the mission and goals of the enterprise and
- * Owners and senior managers usually possess relevant information and expertise on such problems.

At times, decisions on the policy area may run into implementation problems thereby suggesting a more participative approach. In the past organisational practices have been exploitative of employees therefore, trade unions and labour legislation were used to restrict the owner's or manager's activities.

Figure 2 2 :

The Dimension of Job Relevance as it relates to Degree of Participation

<u>Areas of Participation</u>	<u>Degree of Participation</u> <u>Organisational or</u> <u>Employee Control.</u> <u>Autocratic, Paternalistic</u> <u>Consultative</u>
I Organisational policies Basic mission of organisation Organisation structure Distribution of profits	Industrial Democracy Co-determination issues
II Content of Work Physical environment Social environment	Quality of Work Life issues
III The work itself and production goals Quality requirements Division of tasks	Job Redesign Shop Floor democracy

Schein, E.H. 1980 : 136. Organizational Psychology. Third edition
London : Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Thus where trade unions existed, organisational decisions had to be jointly negotiated rather than unilaterally decided by management of the organisation. In countries like Sweden every policy decision must be presented to workers' councils before it can be implemented. In conclusion, it can be said that the degree to which organisational policies are jointly decided depends largely on the economic and political system within which the organisation exists and what is its basic mission (Schein 1980 : 136 & 137). :

* Subordinate motivation to attain organisational goals

At times the objectives of supervisors and their subordinates are not congruent or are in conflict. In this case, participation in decision making may be more risky than the situations where the two goals are congruent. Thus, participative decision making works best where there is mutual interest in the problem (Tossi, Rizzo & Carroll 1990 : 500).

* Probability that an autocratic decision will be accepted

If a decision is viewed as the exercise of legitimate authority of a manager, it will be accepted by subordinates without participating. This is likely to occur since authority falls within the boundaries of the psychological contract (Tossi, Rizzo & Carroll 1990 : 501).

* Subordinates disagreement over solutions

Subordinates may disagree among themselves over prospective alternatives to a solution. If the decision acceptance is critical, an autocratic decision is not likely to be accepted. As a result there will be disagreement among subordinates in methods of attaining organisational goals. It is imperative that the methods used in solving the problem should enable those in disagreement to resolve their differences (Wexley, Yukl 1977 : 159).

2.8.1 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the process of decision making.

The concept of decision making was defined and types of decisions were discussed in terms of being programmed and non-programmed. The decision making process was explained in detail. The various models of the decision making process were also discussed. Differentiation was also made between individual and group decision making. The four techniques of creativity in group decision making were discussed. The Vroom - Yetton decision making model was discussed in detail.

Participation in decision making allows for active involvement of employees. It stresses their creativity and expertise in solving organisational problems. Participation in decision making rests on the shared authority which holds that managers share their authority with their employees or subordinates.

It does not mean that managers no longer make decisions. Managers are still expected to exercise their authority and make decisions.

The employees have a meaningful input when they participate in decision making and the decision is made as a team. Managers make the decision, after having achieved consensus among the group.

Today more employees than ever are more highly educated and skilled than were those in the past. As a result, they have a higher level of expectations from their job meaning, they expect to be involved in the decision making process. The managers of today must realise these differences in the workforce and should attempt to adopt the human resource approach to management. Participation can be adopted as one of human resource approaches if organisations are to operate effectively and efficiently.

3.1 Introduction

Ever since the early days of industrialisation the demand for fuller democracy in working life has been an important feature of many industrial areas. A great deal has been said about the need to democratise the work place, to improve the quality of working life by providing the worker with greater participation in the decisions involving his work. The core idea has been to increase employee influence in the management of the company. Although it may not always be explicitly stated, reference is generally made to employees at the lower level of the organisational hierarchy.

The term worker participation may refer to certain bodies in the company that is, board of directors and it may equally apply to the different forms that exist for bringing influence to bear on decisions. There are three forms of worker participation which in various ways enable workers to exert control over the decisions. The first one is worker representation particularly parity representation on a company board. Secondly, there is shop-floor participation where management retains responsibility for successful operation of the company but has delegated control of certain activities to individual workers. Finally, there is collective bargaining which involves trade unions. In this case, there has to be joint agreement between trade union members and employees on organisational issues which affect workers.

It is usually assumed that by using participative work practices the employee's interest and co-operation will be aroused. It is hoped that if employees share a greater part in running the company, it will be easier to tap their resources of experience, knowledge and ideas. In the long run this will provide the employees with greater opportunities for personal development and education.

3.2 What is Participation?

The term participation is a misunderstood concept in industrial relations because of the many ways in which it has been interpreted. It is important to make a distinction between worker participation and industrial democracy. "Industrial democracy has a broad focus. It seeks to eliminate or restrict the rights of the dominant party (management) and calls for the expansion of employee rights. It is also directed at exerting political pressures on governments, making them more responsive to employee and trade union views for redesigning the total economy toward more socially oriented goals. Worker participation has a narrow focus in the sense that it deals primarily with the participation of workers in the management of the enterprise" (Jain 1980 : 4).

Monat & Sarfati (1986 : 1) states that through "worker participation, employees and their representatives can influence decisions that affect their working life and sometimes even their life outside work.

In its simplest form, participation starts by management providing information to the workers or their representatives on which they can ask for further clarification or details. At the higher level it may entail joint consultation in which the decision maker seeks the views of the employees who may suggest alternatives; the final decision, however, rests with management. A more fundamental type of participation is co-decision which covers the representation of workers on executive bodies and self management systems".

Worker participation is a practice whereby management involves employees significantly in the running of the enterprise. It is a concept of making employees own the decisions and thus feel committed because they have been meaningful partners in the decision making process. Worker participation is also a recognition that management does not necessarily have all the answers, and that there is a significant store of information and strategic input that is being neglected in companies (UNISA Conference 1989 : 64).

Salamon (1987 : 295) states that the term worker participation does not have a universally accepted meaning but is capable of three different interpretations:

- * As a socio-political concept or philosophy of industrial organisation it may be termed 'workers control' or 'industrial democracy'. "Its central objective is the establishment of employee

self-management within an organisation whose ownership is vested in either the employees or the state and whose management function is exercised ultimately through a group, elected by the employees themselves, which has the authority over all decisions of the organisation including the allocation of profits between wages and reinvestments".

- * As a generic term to encompass all processes and institutions of employee influence within organisations. According to Walker cited in Salamon (1987 : 295) employee participation exists whenever those workers at the bottom of the enterprise hierarchy take part in the authority and management functions of the enterprise.
- * Worker participation as a term denoting a phase in the evolutionary development of traditional joint regulation process envisaging a move beyond traditional collective bargaining, and certainly more information giving and consultation (pseudo - participation) to high levels of shared responsibility and shared decision making (real participation).

Salamon (1987 : 296) defines "employee participation as a style of organisational management which recognises both the need and right of employees, individually or collectively to be involved with management in areas of the organisation's decision making beyond that normally covered by collective bargaining".

Armstrong (1977 : 304) states that participation takes place when management and employees are jointly involved in making decisions on matters of mutual interest where the aim is to produce solutions to problems which will benefit all concerned. It is related to co-operative bargaining where the parties find common interests and solve problems confronting both of them. Participation is more than joint consultation, which is the process by which management seeks the views, feelings and ideas of employees through representatives, prior to negotiating or making a decision. It is also more than communication, which is the process of keeping people informed about intentions, opinions, results or decisions on matters that interest them. Effective communication is necessary to successful participation and joint consultation.

For any process to be termed participative, there must be more than just the receipt of information on the part of employees and their representatives. There must be some capacity for them to influence decisions at least by changing them after they have been made or preferably by jointly determining them with management.

Bendix (1989 :115) defines worker participation as the involvement of the employee in the organisation and planning of the work process, in the establishment of procedures and future processes in the decision making function at various levels and in the management and policy making bodies of the undertaking. Participation could range from mere information sharing and consultation to joint decision making and shared ownership.

According to Rodger and Ussher in the Innes Labour Brief (1990 : 25) participation involves a process of interaction between people in different levels of the organisation and the influence that employees have in the decision making process as a result of this interaction.

Three elements of participation are taken into consideration if employees want to share in decision making. These elements are influence, interaction and information sharing (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 25 & 26).:

- * Participation may increase to the extent that the influence of the parties (workers and managers) in the decision making process approaches an equal balance.
- * Interaction refers to the attempts made by both the manager and workers to reach agreement on action directed towards the achievement of organisational objectives.
- * For two parties to effectively influence decisions, they require information on the issue in question.

If anyone of the three elements is absent, workers are not able to participate in the decision making process of the enterprise.

Participation refers to influence in decision making exerted through a process of interaction between workers and managers based upon information sharing (Wall & Lischeron 1977 : 37 & 38). Anthony (1978 : 3 & 4) defines participative management as the process of involving subordinates in the decision making process.

It stresses active involvement of the people. It uses their expertise and creativity in solving managerial problems. Participative management rests on the concept of shared authority which holds that managers share their managerial authority with subordinates.

Griffin (1990 : 418) views participative management as a planned approach to involve lower level employees in one or more areas of operation previously reserved for management. Such participation is related to decentralisation but is different. Decentralisation focuses on giving middle and lower level managers more decision making power while participation is more concerned with involving lower level managers and operating employees.

Participative managers consult with their followers with regards to problems and decisions. The managers are not autocrats but neither are they free-rein who abandon their management responsibilities. Participative managers still retain ultimate responsibility for the operation of their units, but they have learned to share operating responsibilities with those who perform the work. The outcome is that employees feel a sense of involvement in group goals. Participation is mental and emotional involvement of persons in group situations that encourage them to contribute to group goals and share responsibility for them (Longenecker 1973 : 455).

The foundation of participative management was laid by Douglas McGregor. He outlined two extreme positions on human nature, namely, Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor argued that traditional

management behaviour was inappropriate since it was based on assumptions about employees which he labelled Theory X:

- * Employees are inherently lazy and will avoid work unless forced to do it
- * Employees have no ambition or desire for responsibility, instead they prefer to be directed and controlled
- * Employees have no motivation to achieve organisational objectives
- * They are motivated only by physiological and safety needs.

McGregor believed that Theory X assumptions were outdated and that employees would contribute far more to the organisation if a completely different set of assumptions, which he labelled Theory Y were guiding managerial behaviour:

- * Employees find work as natural as play if organisational conditions are appropriate
- * They seek responsibility since it allows them to satisfy higher order needs
- * They are motivated by higher-order needs such as ego, autonomy and self-actualisation
- * External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort towards organisational objectives. People will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which they are committed
- * The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution of organisational problem is widely, not narrowly distributed in the population.

Based on this belief system, participative management can be practised. Leaders who believe that their subordinates are hard working and co-operative and have positive work habits will treat them accordingly. Such managers will use a participative leadership style.

The assumptions of Theory Y and participative management are that employees want to share in making decisions that affect them. Employees will be able to gain a clearer understanding of the situations, become more committed to successfully implementing the decisions that are made (Baird, Post & Mahon 1990 : 404).

3.3 Purposes of Participation

According to Wallace Bell (1979 :2) there are two basic purposes of worker participation:

- * To improve the quality of working life, and the satisfactions obtained from work
- * To improve the efficiency and productivity of the enterprise.

The effective running of an organisation depends on the willing co-operation of its workforce. That co-operation is more likely when people feel involved and the level of job satisfaction is high. The realisation of employee interests depends on the success of the enterprise itself. It is in the interests of the parties that the purposes be achieved so as to benefit those involved.

Armstrong (1977 : 304) states that the purpose of participation should be to advance the well-being of all concerned; owners, managers and employees. It should be a means of enabling the enterprise to achieve its objectives as long as those goals include acting in a socially responsible way to employees as well as the maximisation of profits. Participation should provide workers with the means of identifying their own interests with those of the enterprise so that both can flourish.

3.4 Objectives of Participation

According to the International Labour Office (1983 :9) objectives of participation can be classified into ethical, socio-political and economic considerations.

3.4.1 Ethical or Moral Objectives

In an ethical or moral context, participation in decision making is designed to promote individual development or fulfilment in accordance with a conception of human rights and dignity. According to the advisory Committee of the Jamaican Government, worker participation as the extension of the individual's human rights at the work place should bring the worker recognition, treatment and attention as a human being rather than as a mere statistical unit of production. In support of this approach it has been pointed out that workers who contribute to the production of goods and services and sometimes risking their lives are entitled to have their point of view taken into consideration as regards operation of their work activities.

Another viewpoint is that the younger generations are increasingly unwilling to accept authority in which they have no share and are also determined to participate in decisions.

3.4.2 Socio-Political Objectives

These objectives can also be presented under the label of industrial democracy. Since in a democratic system workers have the same political rights as other citizens, it seems odd that they should not be entitled a say in decisions which directly concern them. In a report from Switzerland, it was written that political democracy is incompatible with the absence of democracy in economic life, a citizen cannot be regarded as sufficiently mature for political democracy and simultaneously denied democratic rights in economic life (International Labour Office 1981 : 25).

Socio-political objectives seek to implement participatory systems which bring about democracy in the work place or in the broader social context. Participatory forms of decision making may be implemented in the organisation in order to replace autocratic methods of management with more democratic systems. Systems of participation may also be implemented in the work place in order to strengthen political democracy in the broader society. Paterman (1970)cited in Jones & Maree argues that participation in industrial democracy leads to a great awareness of political issues and prepares workers to participate in the broader political arena (Jones & Maree 1989 :4).

3.4.3 Economic Objectives

These objectives relate directly or indirectly to increasing efficiency of the undertaking. By associating workers with the decisions taken, it is hoped to improve the quantity and quality of output and the utilisation of labour, raw materials and equipment, as well as the introduction of new techniques.

According to the International Institute for Labour Studies possible contributions to efficient use of human resources may come about for the following reasons:

- * Workers have ideas which can be useful
- * Effective communication upwards is essential to sound decision making at the top
- * Workers may accept decisions better if they participate in them
- * Workers may work harder if they share in decisions that affect them
- * Workers may work more intelligently if, through participation in decision making, they are better informed about the reasons for and the intention of decisions
- * Worker's participation may foster a more co-operative attitude amongst workers and management, thus raising efficiency by improving team work and reducing the loss of efficiency arising from industrial disputes
- * Worker's participation may act as a spur to managerial efficiency.

In order for workers to participate effectively in decision making they must be empowered. There must be a move from task-centred to power-centred participation. Task centred participation is mainly concerned with the performance of work activities whilst power-centred participation is geared towards managerial authority and policy making processes.

3.5 Power and Participation

The implementation of participative schemes at the enterprise (company) level involves a change in power relationships. The issue of worker participation in decision making involves the distribution of power in organisations. According to Garson (1977 : 26) "any move to secure participation rights that go beyond advice to a share in making decisions would require that those who have been responsible for these decisions must yield at least some share of that power". This implies that managers who have had an exclusive say about how work should be done might have to face worker's representatives on the supervisory or management board of the firm.

Jain (1980 : 14) states that the "participatory organisational model accepts the existence of a variety of interest groups within an enterprise, all of whom are stakeholders in it and have different goals, interests and values. The goals of these stakeholders are always in conflict. For instance, management's goals are geared towards production and profits while those of employees are aimed at wages and job security".

The traditional model assumes that management alone is responsible for planning, organising and controlling work and that worker responsibilities are restricted to the performance of specified tasks. The participatory model acknowledges workers' knowledge and skills towards contribution of decision making. The traditional view of the enterprise ignores the existence of conflicts of interest among members and the fact that workers and their representatives have needs and objectives that are different from those of management (Jain 1980 : 14 & 15).

3.6 Elements of Participation

According to Pateman cited in Jones & Maree (1989 : 3) worker participation involves participation by workers in decision making. She identified three types of participation namely, pseudo participation, partial participation and full participation. Pseudo participation exists where participation in discussion is introduced, but excludes participation in decision making. It is a participative like technique to win workers over to a managerial idea. The essence of pseudo participation is its manipulative character.

Partial participation is defined as a process in which two or more parties influence each other in making of decisions but the final power to decide rests with one party only. The final prerogative of decision making rests with management. Full participation exists where employees are not only able to influence a decision but can determine its outcome.

It refers to decisions that relate to the running of a department or even the enterprise as a whole, for example, decisions relating to production scheduling, time standards, investment and marketing. A demarcation of the levels of participation will be undertaken to show the level of influence at which participation takes place.

3.7 Levels of Participation

According to Bendix (1989 : 116) participation may be instituted at various levels of the organisation depending on whether it is task-centred or power-centred, whether it is aimed at participative work practices or at power sharing.

3.7.1 Task-centred versus Power-centred Participation

A task-centred approach implies that participation will be restricted to the lower levels of the undertaking and will encompass the joint organisation and planning of the work process. Power-centred participation entails the involvement of the employee in the decision making related to his section, department, plant or the entire undertaking (Bendix 1989 : 166).

Salamon (1987) in Maller (1990 : 7) states that task-centred participation involves the transfer of limited authority down the line, but essentially the power structure within the company remains intact, with management determining all major decisions. It does, however, involve control over the labour process, defined in terms of the immediate work environment.

Power-centred participation involves worker influence over the context in which the labour process operates and involves policy making. It focuses on the exercise of management prerogative and the balance of power between management and employees in the organisation's decision making process. According to Towers (1980 : 5) participation that is power-centred aims at extending the bargaining power of the workers within the enterprise and at making management decision makers more accountable either to the unions or directly to the workers.

Task centred participation is regarded as a device likely to increase job satisfaction, and with it productivity and also to improve industrial relations, thereby facilitating the attainment of managerially set goals for the enterprise.

Power-centred participation is concerned with formal institutions such as two-tier boards, works councils and joint consultation. Task-centred approach focuses on briefing groups on consultative meetings between the employees and their supervisor.

The Industrial Society (1974) cited in Armstrong (1977 : 306) classified levels of participation into four areas, namely, job, management, policy making and ownership levels.

Participation at the job level involves the supervisor and his immediate group. The process includes communication of information about work, delegation of authority and interchange of ideas about how work should be done. These processes are informal.

According to Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 28) low level participation is concerned with the tasks of the worker and is aimed at reducing job alienation. Low level participation also takes place when job satisfaction and the extension of the scope and range of tasks are focused upon.

Participation at management level involves sharing information and decision making about issues which affect the way in which work is planned, co-ordinated and controlled, and the conditions under which the work is carried out. At this level, participation becomes more formalised, through consultative committees, briefing groups or other joint bodies involving management and trade unionists (Armstrong 1977 : 306).

Middle level participation takes places when the worker is involved in the decision making processes of the enterprise. This can be done in cases where company rules and regulations as well as disciplinary procedures should be approved and executed within the enterprise. Participation at this level takes place through a statutory mechanism in the form of a works council (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 28).

At the policy making level, the direction of the business is determined. Total participation implies sharing power to make key decisions on investments, disinvestments, new ventures, expansions and retractions which affect the future well-being of both the company and its employees. These decisions are made by directors who represent the interests of the owners, managers and workers (Armstrong 1977 : 306).

Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 28) state that top-level participation takes place when workers participate in the decision making activity of the board of directors. At the ownership-level participation may imply a share in the equity, which is not meaningful unless the workers have sufficient control through voting rights to determine the composition of the board. Workers' co-operatives play an important role in the sense that individuals, including managers and supervisors are the management and must be involved in joint decision making at board level.

3.8 Forms of Participation

Two forms of worker participation are generally identified in the industrial relations literature namely, direct and indirect worker participation. Direct participation involves practices in which all the members of a work team are able to influence decision making processes. Indirect participation is practised through representatives elected by workers.

3.8.1 Direct versus Indirect Participation

In direct participation, employees themselves are involved in the activity or process, whereas, in the case of indirect participation their involvement occurs through the agency of elected representatives. Direct participation occurs when each worker participates by using the control available to him in his job. Representative or indirect participation occurs when a representative acts on behalf of a group of workers. The workers only participate through him, although they will usually have direct control over his election.

Lammers (1967) cited in Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 29) states that direct worker participation customarily entails that the subordinate participants speak for themselves about work or matters related to work. It is regarded as a process of job enrichment and enlargement where the worker is offered the possibility of extending the depth and width of his work tasks, but without any control over organisational planning or goal setting. For this form of participation to be meaningful, it should include the provision of all information relevant to a job, consultation about changes that may affect a worker, and a personal involvement in the decision making process by the worker himself. Direct participation is usually associated with low-level participation because this is where the worker operates.

According to Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 29) indirect worker participation takes place when in addition to their operational function within the enterprise, workers represent the labour force on, for example, management boards, boards of directors, supervisory boards, works councils and works committees.

Workers become representatives when they are elected by means of a formulated procedure, preferably entrenched in a constitution drawn up by the enterprise or stipulated by a country in statutes.

In direct participation the emphasis falls on interaction between the individual worker and his supervisor, as well as co-workers as a means to influence the way work is carried out.

This form ranges from suggestion schemes to job enrichment programmes and autonomous work groups such as quality circles.

In indirect participation, the interaction is through a joint union management body. This structure acknowledges the power dimension of the work place hierarchy. This form of participation requires rules to govern the interaction and to facilitate the empowerment of the trade union and its representatives, to ensure that the implications of distance inherent in the hierarchical structure is narrowed and balance is achieved. Indirect participation ensures that both the norms of democracy and efficiency can be served (Douwes Dekker 1990 : 254).

The efficiency norm implies inequality on status and a hierarchical structure which allows the company to buy expertise, appoint managers because of skill and competence and motivates them in terms of differential rewards. The democratic norm is based on the principle of equality in status, election of leaders and expression of and respect for opinions (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 12 - 7).

Indirect worker participation acknowledges the essential role of the union. Direct participation acknowledges the individuality of the workers and hence can be successful in obtaining his support and enthusiasm.

According to Salamon (1981 : 300) direct forms, such as the development of formal and regular briefings

or consultative meetings between the employees and their supervisor focus attention on the individual employee or work group and the immediate operational situation. It is thus task-centred. This form may be referred to as descending participation in so far as management initiates the development for its own purposes. Part of the change may transfer authority and responsibility from itself to the employees for a limited range of work related decisions in the form of methods of working and allocation of tasks. This approach is intended to be integrative, to directly motivate the individual employee by increasing his job satisfaction and enhancing his sense of identification with the aims, objectives and decisions of the organisation.

Indirect forms, such as the creation of works councils, the appointment of worker directors focus attention on the exercise of management prerogative and the balance of power between management and employees in the organisation's decision making process. It is thus power-centred. This strategy can be referred to as ascending participation because it seeks to protect the interests of employees by extending their collective influence into a range of decisions at the higher levels of the organisation.

Thus, it is distributive in nature, primarily concerned with extending employee influence through the process of negotiation and joint regulation, into the areas of policy and major organisational planning which previously have been the sole prerogative of management.

3.8.2 Direct Forms of Participation

Direct participation tends to be job orientated involvement in improving efficiency and productivity. These forms of involvement may enhance job satisfaction and organisational loyalty. They seek a greater humanisation of work, but have limited influence on the structures of organisational governance and the distribution of power. Direct forms of involvement could extend sphere of participation in the economic success of the organisation through productivity incentive and profit-sharing schemes (Slabbert 1990 : 2-8). The best known forms of direct participation are autonomous work groups, job design, suggestion schemes, briefing groups, problem-solving groups and financial participation. Job design may often have considerable significance for workers since they imply permanent alterations to working patterns. In this sense they provide a permanent extension of participation.

3.8.2.1 Job Design

Job design is regarded as an approach that assists in increasing productivity. It is the process of altering the nature and structure of jobs for the purpose of increasing productivity. Job design is concerned with the specific tasks to be performed, the methods used in performing the task and how the job relates to other work activities in the organisation (Flipppo 1983 : 335).

Job design attempts to make the work more meaningful and to help employees perceive that their jobs are important and have dignity, worth and status. Some forms of job design are job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment and semi-autonomous work groups.

Job Rotation

Job rotation refers to the practice of changing workers from one job to another. The employee moves through various positions in the organisation thereby gaining more expertise and skills. The monotony of a single job is reduced. Job rotation has little impact on the hierarchy or authority on the firm (Holley & Jennings 1983 : 370).

According to Kreitner & Kinicki (1989 : 528) by rotating employees from job to job, managers believe they can stimulate interests and motivation, while providing employees with a broader perspective of the organisation. Other proposed advantages of job rotation include increased worker flexibility and easier scheduling when employees are on vacation or absent.

Job Enlargement

Job enlargement involves adding more variety into a worker's job by combining specialised tasks of comparable difficulty. This is known as horizontally loading of the job. Proponents of job enlargement claim it can improve employee satisfaction, motivation and quality of production.

Job enlargement does not give the worker more participation in deciding on the manner in which he or she is to carry out the job. It only gives the worker greater freedom in the choice of tasks and greater responsibility for controlling the work (Kreitner & Kinicki 1989 :527 and Jain 1980 : 202).

Job Enrichment

Job enrichment entails giving greater responsibility to workers and enabling them to take decisions that were formerly the prerogative of supervisors. It refers to basic changes in the content and level of responsibility of a job so as to provide for the satisfaction of the employee. The employee is provided with an opportunity to derive a feeling of greater achievement, recognition and personal growth in performing the job (Flippo 1983 : 336). Job enrichment affects the decision making powers of either managers or supervisors.

The essential characteristic of any really effective change in the direction of job enrichment is the delegation of greater responsibility to individual workers and work groups, so that some shop-floor decision making passes from supervisors to the working group (Poole 1979 : 66).

Semi-Autonomous Work Group

The concept of the autonomous work group is similar to job enrichment in many respects, but the focus is on a set of jobs rather on one job, and a measure of interdependence is often sought, so that the group of

workers has to decide how to allocate tasks among its members. The basic aims of the autonomous work group are the same as those of job enrichment, to increase motivation, job satisfaction and productivity. However, autonomous work groups are also designed to make better use of the social system (Guest & Knight 1979 : 71).

Amongst the prominent features of such progress are:

- * The group sets its own output goals
- * It may do its own purchasing, inventory and quality control
- * Vacancies are filled by group decision
- * All start at the same pay
- * Pay increases are determined by the number of skills learned
- * Job rotation is practised and members are expected to learn all jobs
- * An effort is made to integrate interesting and routine tasks
- * The group may elect a group leader to communicate with management.

The members are grouped according to product rather than by specialised function (Flippo 1976 : 77). Semi-autonomous work group is based on the theory that organisations are only likely to be successful in achieving their major goals if they take account of both the social and technical requirements within the organisation. These work groups attempt to achieve balance between the technical aspects of production and human relations.

3.8.2.2 Suggestion Schemes

According to Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 30) participation by suggestion involves individual workers who try to influence employer decision making directly. This procedure of participation is concerned with decisions which are of immediate relevance to a worker's job. It is an example of direct work participation where the individual worker is involved in low level participation within the enterprise.

Through a suggestion scheme employees communicate their ideas to management. The types of issues which are normally discussed are technological improvement of machinery, increases in work efficiency, improved communication and supervisory practices, scheduling of tasks on a more equitable basis (McCullum 1987 : 47).

Armstrong (1977 : 313) states that suggestion schemes provide a valuable means for employees to participate in improving the efficiency of the company. These schemes can help to reduce feelings of frustration where people have good ideas but cannot get them considered because there are no recognised channels of communication.

The basis of a successful suggestion scheme should be an established procedure for submitting and evaluating ideas, with tangible recognition for those which have merit and an effective system for explaining to employees without discouraging them that their ideas cannot be accepted.

The most common arrangement is to use suggestion boxes with possibly a special form for entering a suggestion. Alternatively, employees can be given the name of an individual or a committee to whom suggestions should be submitted. It is desirable to have a suggestion committee consisting of management and employee representatives to review suggestions in the light of the comments of any specialist functions or executives who have evaluated them. This committee should be given the final power to accept or reject suggestions but could, if necessary call for additional information or opinion before making its decision.

The suggestion scheme is rather limited in that it does not lead to:

- * Redistribution of power or income
- * Can be effective only if it is linked to other forms of participation
- * May be effective if there are other forms of consultation to follow suggestions

3.8.2.3 Quality Circles

Barra (1983 : 65) defines "a quality circle as a group of between four and ten employees performing similar work who volunteer to meet regularly, in company time, to identify the causes of on the job problems and to propose solutions to management". It is a carefully structured forum that encourages employees to participate in decisions. A quality circle is based on the premise that people who perform the task (job) everyday know more about it than anyone else.

They are in the best position to think through a problem and come up with a workable solution, particularly when quality is involved. Quality circles is one of the techniques of group involvement which has been used successfully in Japan.

Quality circles enable workers to participate in improving their jobs. This builds pride and a sense of belonging to the organisation. Quality circles enable managers to discover that there is a reservoir of talent hidden away in the minds of the employees. A few absolute requirements must be met for the quality circle programme to succeed.

- * As a humanistic management style that cares about people and their feelings. Good human relations must be considered as important as accumulating the funds that permit continued progress of the organisation
- * Installing the quality circle programme requires some financial investment. The costs of the program should be considered a long-term investment in human development
- * The implementation of a quality circle programme requires thorough training of key individuals
- * Quality circle is a voluntary programme. No one should be forced or even urged to participate.

Maller (1990 : 7) states that "quality circle programmes are inherently limited because the issues that can be tackled by participants relates very strictly to productivity and quality problems experienced by a particular work station or department".

The "participants of these programmes are not given the freedom to change their working environments unless they can cost out the financial savings of the company. Thus permission must be sought for the implementation of any suggested changes and is granted according to financial considerations" (Maller 1987 : 18).

3.8.2.4 Problem - Solving Groups

This is a direct form of participation in which workers are involved in the identification, analysis and solution of a range of job related problems. The central aim of a problem - solving group is to provide a forum for communication, problem identification and discussion so that varying points of view may be better understood and a climate created in which problem resolution is tackled constructively. The focus is usually on shop floor problems which make the worker's job more difficult and less satisfying. This is based on the assumption that the individual who carries out a job is in a good position to comment about it (Guest & Knight 1979 : 63).

3.8.2.5 Briefing Groups

Maller (1992 : 10) states that "briefing groups are simply interactive ways of communicating decisions that have already been taken at the highest levels of management, downwards through the hierarchy". They do not allow workers to influence decisions in any way.

Briefing groups serve an important goal of communicating in particular important information to employees. These groups are based on the assumption that effective communication is central to the maintenance of morale and satisfaction. Effective communication means face - to - face communication between supervisor and his subordinates as well as regular and controlled transmission of information.

These groups become more significant when communication becomes two-way, not just in terms of shop floor reaction to management information but also as a vehicle for suggestion, ideas and requests for information initiated by the shop floor (Guest & Knight 1979 : 66).

3.8.3 Financial Participation

According to Salamon (1987 : 138) financial forms of participation may be grouped into two types. Firstly, there are supplementary financial participation schemes which involve payments to employees based on the organisation's performance and are additional to the employees' normal remuneration. Under this scheme, there are profit sharing, individual and group bonus incentive schemes.

Secondly, there are share ownership schemes which distribute the employee's portion of the profits in the form of shares either directly to each individual employee or indirectly into a trust which may hold the shares on behalf of all employees. Employee share ownership schemes fall in this category.

Financial schemes are aimed at giving employees a sense of identification with the company and at encouraging employees to co-operate and feel involved in improving company performance. The main weakness of this form of participation is that financial schemes merely share money and not power, authority or decision making within the organisation. If these schemes are implemented on their own that is, without any associated joint regulation of management decision making then they represent a very dilute form of industrial democracy (IPM Journal 1991 : 3).

Maller (1989) cited in Anstey (1990 : 103) states that the goals of financial participation are "aimed at the co-optation of workers into a management ethos using management techniques to seduce commitment away from the pursuit of class interests and trade unionism toward the organisational goals of productivity and efficiency".

Secondly, the stake holder thesis states that if employees are given a genuine stake in the prosperity of the company then they are likely to benefit from its success. The implication is that wealth creation can only be facilitated by employees who are committed to organisational goals.

Thirdly, "financial participation as an individual - based form of participation is based on the willing consent of the individual employee. It has little to do with the distribution of power and governance of organisations. Financial participation has little to do with the idea of industrial democracy, since workers' influence is limited as minority shareholders" (Anstey 1990 : 104).

3.8.3.1 Profit Sharing Scheme

According to Poole (1988) cited in Anstey (1990 : 110) profit sharing is most prevalent in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom. "Profit sharing is considered by many employees as preferable to share ownership schemes, as effort and reward are measurable. The share of profits fluctuates with the economic performance of the firm". The implication is that profit sharing may not provide a stable level of income over time.

Bendix (1989 121) states that the introduction of "profit sharing schemes shifts the emphasis from a share in decision making to a share in the financial rewards earned by employers and employees". These schemes provide for a fixed proportion of company profits to be paid to all employees either individually or to a fund established for the benefit of employees. Profit sharing schemes may act as an incentive to employees to cut costs and increase productivity and could result in greater co-operation arising from the perception of mutually created goals. If profit sharing is not accompanied by other participative practices, it is unlikely that the employees will gain greater control over their working life.

3.8.3.2 Employee Share - Ownership Schemes

Employee share ownership schemes (ESOPS) are present in the United States, United Kingdom and South Africa.

According to Kurland (1988) cited in Slabbert (1990 : 12-13) ESOPS are regarded as a tool for broadening participation of employees in company profits and decision making. These schemes aim to increase an employee's stake and commitment to the prosperity of the business. It is believed that these schemes encourage workers to identify more with the aims of the firm.

An ESOP can combine several elements. These include employee benefits, incentive and productivity schemes, service and retirement benefits. It may be offered as a reward system with a basic salary supplemented with cash bonuses and equity shares linked to the proceeds of a company. It is a two-way interactive process between management and employees and a means for individuals to participate both as workers and as shareholders in contributing towards company goals. ESOPS can bring capital gain to the worker, as a means by which people without savings and ownership become shareholders of new wealth (Slabbert 1990 : 12-13, 12-14).

ESOPS are aimed at linking the profitability of the company to the financial interests of individual employees by naming them part-owners as well as employees. Under these schemes employees are encouraged to buy shares or are granted shares in the company. It is believed that share ownership encourages commitment to the organisation and eradicates employer - employee conflict. It is also argued that the position of shareholder allows the employee to participate in decision making at the highest level.

In theory, an employee may become a member of the board of directors but in practice it is not possible because:

- * Share ownership does not bring about immediate concrete results in the form of improved standard of living. This is likely to occur where employees perceive themselves as economically deprived, the preference may be for direct, economic rewards rather than for intangible investments
- * The inability of employees to perceive in share ownership any increased opportunity for employee participation in decisions or for control of the work situation. If employees hold only a minority of the total shares, it is unlikely that they could influence the decisions which affect their lives by attending shareholders' meetings
- * Employees may not accept shareholder schemes because they were seen as a promotion vehicle of the capitalistic system and is contrary to their ideological beliefs (Bendix 1989 : 121).

The ESOP idea has received interest in South Africa In a 1989 survey Maller estimated that about 120 companies had introduced some form of shareholding scheme in South Africa. The most highly publicised schemes include Anglo American, Pick 'n Pay and Cashbuild.

Trade unions have been critical of ESOP schemes in South Africa because of lack of consultation. Trade unions gave these reasons for rejecting ESOPS:

- * The number of shares workers are allowed to have is insignificant. It will not allow them to have a meaningful say in the decision making processes of the company
- * Payment of dividends may be used as a substitute for salary increases
- * Whereas salary can be negotiated, the amount of dividends cannot
- * Wage increase covers all employees whereas dividends will cover only the worker shareholders
- * When there is a depression, there is always the possibility that dividends will not be paid (UNISA Conference 1989 : 46).

Duncan Innes in Finance Week (1991 : 15) argues that "if people want to sell ESOPS, they have got to be a means to empower workers". He also stated that ESOPS without worker participation on the shop floor will not enhance productivity. He believes that a long road has to be travelled before ESOPS can offer meaningful empowerment in South Africa. He favours profit sharing schemes, since "unlike dividends, workers and management can negotiate the profit share".

Maller (1987 : 14) argues that "ESOPS remain a management strategy designed to retain the status quo, while increasing worker loyalty and motivation".

3.8.3.3 Group Financial/Bonus Incentive Schemes

According to Anstey (1990 : 111) "these schemes occur largely in the manufacturing sectors including unionised firms in the United Kingdom, Scandinavian countries, Northern Europe and Australia.

The main purpose of bonus incentive schemes is to enhance economic performance and motivation by financial reward".

3.8.3.4 Individual Performance Incentive Payment Scheme

These schemes occur in non-union or partially/weakly unionised firms at all employee levels, predominantly in the United States. Elsewhere they occur mainly at executive management levels and for sales functions (Anstey 1990 : 112).

3.8.4 Indirect Forms of Participation

Indirect participation is concerned with the collective interests of employees and has its origins in a class struggle between the powerful and the not so powerful. The powerful refers to management and those who are not the workers. Representative participation includes co-determination, worker directors, works councils, joint consultative committees, safety committees and production committees. These committees are usually initiated by management. Joint consultative committees have been a characteristic feature of formal management - worker discussions in many British companies. In several instances, management has drawn a clear distinction between consultation and decision making, the former involving frank and open discussions within advisory committees and the latter being the prerogative of management alone.

The following points are worth making with regards to these committees:

- * First, most formal consultative schemes are instigated by management. An investigation by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology revealed that nearly three quarters of the joint consultative schemes had been set up by management alone
- * There is a great variety of types of committees ranging from the purely advisory with agendas deliberately designed to avoid discussions of wages and related issues, to those in which shop stewards' organisation form the nucleus of workers' representatives and in which almost any matter may be brought up and concluded
- * Joint consultative committees have been particularly prominent during periods when the organisational power of workers has been well developed and the climate of opinion favourable to co-operation rather than conflict
(Poole 1978 : 77-78).

3.8.4.1 Work Affairs Committees

McCullum (1987 : 44) defines a work affairs committee as a body which facilitates consultation and participation between management and employee representatives on matters of mutual interests. It is a two-way communication system that involves an attempt to influence the decision making process of management.

In a work affairs committee system, the responsibility for decision making remains with management. Management is, however, committed to seek employee's opinion before making the decisions.

This committee is based on the following steps:

- * Management places items on the agenda. Therefore management briefs the employees concerned
- * The employees contact their committee representatives to discuss their opinions and ideas
- * The representatives meet with management to discuss the issue at hand. After the meeting, management goes through the issues and takes a decision.

3.8.4.2 Management by Objectives

Management by objectives is a comprehensive planning, evaluation, development and control system based on quantifiable objectives that are participatively set.

According to Odiorne (1965) cited in Hersey & Blanchard (1982 : 120) it is basically a process whereby the superior and the subordinates of an enterprise jointly identify common goals, define each individual's major areas of responsibility in terms of the results expected of him, and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and for assessing the contribution of each member.

Participation ideally fosters personal ownership of objectives that are mutually agreeable to both superior and subordinate. Both superior and subordinate participate in the subordinate's review and in any other evaluation that takes place. It has been found that objectives that are formulated with each person participating seem to gain more acceptance than those imposed by an authority figure in the organisation. Management by objectives may become a powerful tool in gaining mutual commitment and high productivity for the organisation (Hersey & Blanchard 1982 : 120).

3.8.4.3 Workers' Committee

Workers' committees are comprised mainly of representatives elected by employees. The range of issues covered by a workers' committee is determined by its constitution. There is no onus on management to take cognisance of the suggestions, decisions and demands of such a committee. On the other hand, there are instances where agreements between management and employees or the law, obliges management to consult with these committees before taking decisions on certain major issues. A decision on the part of management in the face of objections from the workers' committees might then have legal implications. In these instances committees perform a more truly participative function. Workers' committees which have the support of the entire workforce could exert a certain amount of pressure on management. The effectiveness of workers' committees depends on management's true commitment to participation practices and the perceptions employee representatives hold of their roles (Bendix 1989 : 118 & 119).

3.8.4.4 Liaison Committee

Bendix (1989 : 118) states that liaison committees consist equally of management and employee representatives and are consultative in nature. They are intended to promote interaction between management and employees, but, since management has a fifty per cent vote, it is unlikely that any decision not favoured by management would be taken by a committee of this kind. This implies that the influence that employees on such committees could exercise is very limited.

The range of issues covered by these committees is determined by the constitution. The type of issues could range from physical and hygiene related matters to conditions of work, workplace procedures and future organisational plans. Management is not obliged to agree to the requests or demands of the employee representatives. This limits the effectiveness of liaison committees as participative structures. Yet these committees serve some purpose in that employees are granted the opportunity to bring forward their interests to the attention of management.

3.8.4.5 Safety Committees

Safety committees are made up of management and workers' representatives. Their main concern is health and safety matters. It is generally accepted that health and safety is a real concern for all employees and that they are entitled to be represented.

In many societies the law regulates the establishment of safety committees and prescribes the power of worker representatives. In some instances worker representatives act merely in a consultative capacity while in others they have extensive decision making powers (Bendix 1989 : 119).

3.8.4.6 Shop Steward Committees

Shop stewards have a dual role to play because they are trade union appointees at a plant and are also the elected representatives of the majority of employees. Where there is strong shop steward presence, management tends to consult with the shop stewards committee before taking major decisions. If plant level bargaining is prevalent, shop stewards will be engaged in collective bargaining, but they will also present employees grievances and problems to management for discussion and joint problem solving. Thus they tend to act in a dual capacity as collective bargaining and participative agents (Bendix 1989 : 119).

3.8.5 Collective Bargaining

Collective bargaining represents the most significant area of worker participation and control. Jain (1980 : 82) states collective bargaining is related to worker participation in management in two ways. Collective bargaining can be an instrument for introducing worker participation schemes. This is best exemplified by the practice followed in the Scandinavian countries which have a long tradition of collective bargaining.

In these countries, works councils or production committees were first introduced by collective agreements between employer association and unions. Second, the actual process of negotiating the collective agreement at the plant or enterprise level, as well as the extension of bargaining is itself the process by which participative management is implemented.

According to Cordova (1982) cited in Anstey (1990 : 5 & 6) collective bargaining may be carried on under different circumstances and by different means, and even under certain restrictions. But it remains one of the few forms of worker participation which cuts across ideological and national boundaries and can be found almost anywhere in the world. It is in this area of bargaining that the major development in South Africa labour - management relations have taken place.

Collective bargaining exerts an indirect, yet decisive influence on managerial decision making because management is up against the institutional form of workers' collective power. Hyman (1975) in Maller (1990 : 8) states that trade unionism is the institutional form through which workers can exercise control over employment conditions and the work situation.

Collective bargaining represents the employees' desire to have some input into the decisions that affect their employment relationships.

Instead of management unilaterally determining wages, hours, vacation policies, discipline, and other factors in employment, the employees through the trade union share in this process. Collective bargaining also provides employees with protection against arbitrary and capricious management actions. The union contract serves as a set of rules or policy which govern the employment relationship. Each side (trade union and management) is expected to abide by the rules. Thus, the contract acts as a participative link between the organisation and the employee, reflecting the employee's participative role in dealing with management (Anthony 1978 : 57 & 58).

According to the National Labour Relations Act, collective bargaining can be defined as the performance of the mutual obligation of the employer and the representatives of the employees to meet at reasonable times and to confer in good faith in respect of wages, hours and other terms and conditions of employment or the negotiation of an agreement and the execution of a written contract incorporating any agreement reached or requested by either party (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 90).

Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 91) state that collective bargaining is a process in which representatives of labour and representatives of the enterprise meet in an attempt to reach an agreement, expressed in terms of a contract which specified the extent of the worker management relationship. The collective concept indicates that the representative speaks for a group.

Bargaining is a process of meeting, presenting demands, proposals, convincing and in many cases threatening, until agreement is reached.

Webbs cited in Bendix (1989 : 77) described collective bargaining as one method whereby trade unions could maintain and improve their members' terms and conditions of employment. Collective bargaining is a two-way process in which there is pressure and counterpressure from both sides. Just as the union might wish to elicit concessions from management, so too, might management wish to gain concessions from the trade union. It is a co-operative process since its purpose is to contain conflict and even to promote co-operation between labour and management.

Salamon (1987 : 266) defines collective bargaining as a "method of determining terms and conditions of employment which utilises the process of negotiation and agreement between representatives of management and employees". The collective bargaining process provides a formal channel through which the differing interests of management and employees may be resolved on a collective basis.

The process of collective bargaining is the means by which the conflicting interests between employers and employees are accommodated. It does not seek to avoid conflict but to ensure in so far as it is possible that relationships are conducted on the basis of mutual consent (Miller Roome & Staude 1985 : 203).

According to the Donovan Commission in Britain, collective bargaining is the most effective means of giving workers the right to representation in decisions affecting their working lives, a right which is or should be the prerogative of every worker. It is regarded as one of the most important approach to greater participation. Brandeis (1934) cited in Chamberlain & Kuhn (1986 : 49) states that collective bargaining is the means of establishing industrial democracy that is, the means of providing workers in industry the sense of work, of freedom and of participation that democratic government promises them as citizens.

The term collective bargaining can be explained in terms of marketing, governmental and industrial relations. The marketing concept looks upon collective bargaining as a means of contracting for the sale of labour. The collective agreement historically has been a statement under which a company's employees collectively are willing to work. This agreement provides for the terms under which services are rendered. The collective bargaining process determines the terms under which employees will continue to supply their labour to a company and which newly hired workers will accept.

The money exchange is the important basis of the agreement. Workers' representatives negotiate on behalf of their members that management agree to raise wages by a certain percentage. If the parties do not reach agreement on the price of labour, no sale is made, the employees sell their labour only on terms collectively determined.

Collective bargaining as a marketing process assume that individual workers possess too little bargaining power separately to be able to adequately protect themselves (Chamberlain & Kuhn 1986 : 49 & 50).

The governmental concept views collective bargaining as a constitutional system in industry that sets forth the principles by which the parties govern their relationships. The bargaining relationship may be viewed as a continuing "constitution" in which the collective agreement is a body of law, determined by the management/union negotiators as the legislature and executive authority is vested in management who must exercise it in accordance with terms of the constitution. Workers' representatives seek to establish and administer rules, regulations or laws that are mutually acceptable. Managers, no longer claim a prerogative to promulgate such laws and to exercise such control because the power and control are partly shared through the collective bargaining process. The sharing of sovereignty involves joint participation of trade union and management but not intervention or control by others. Both management and trade union oppose third-party intervention in the settlement of their own industrial problems (Chamberlain & Kuhn 1986 : 57).

The industrial relations concept views collective bargaining as a functional relationship. The presence of trade unions allows workers, through their representatives to participate in the determination of the policies that guide and rule their work lives. The bargainers who negotiate the agreement exercise final and binding authority in those areas which are of concern to them.

Trade union representatives meet with management to reach joint decision and incorporate them in a written agreement. The decisions cannot be overruled or rescinded for the period of agreement, except by another joint conference possessing similar authority.

Trade union representatives are powerless to modify the terms of the agreement and the same applies to management representatives. It is subject to change only by mutual agreement of these two groups or representatives. The agreement thus becomes a set of directive orders, a guide for administrative action within the firm (Chamberlain & Kuhn 1986 : 66).

Davey (1982 :2) defines collective bargaining as a continuing institutional relationship between an employer entity (government or private) and a labour organisation (trade union or association representing exclusively a defined group of employees) concerned with the negotiation, administration and enforcement of written agreements covering wages, salaries, hours of work and other conditions of employment.

Collective bargaining involves organised group relationships rather than individual dealings. The agreement or contract sets forth the procedures whereby the continuing relationship between management and trade union is carried forward.

Flanders (1986) cited in Jackson (1977 : 119) highlighted a number of differences between collective and individual bargaining:

- * Individual bargaining stipulates in detail the terms and conditions of trade, whereas collective bargaining does not involve the buying or selling, it is merely an agreement on the conditions under which buying and selling will take place
- * Individual bargaining is a market activity whereas collective form is a political activity; a strike or lockout is a diplomatic use of power
- * Collective unlike individual bargaining is not restricted to a discussion of economic matters, but is concerned with other issues such as workers' rights and the control of industry.

3.8.6 The Nature of Collective Bargaining

According to Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 92) collective bargaining as a process usually occurs either when an existing agreement is terminated and the management union relationship must be reviewed, or when conflict of interest happen and the existing agreement ceases because of a dispute or grievance.

Collective bargaining is usually referred to as a process because it involves human behaviour. The collective bargaining process can be viewed in terms of communicating, economics, negotiating, trade union activity, management style or technique and a conflict control mechanism.

3.8.6.1 Collective Bargaining as a Communication Process

During the bargaining process the groups inform each other of their needs, wants as well as their attitudes.

As such they are involved in transferring information and knowledge. Collective bargaining as a communication process is dependent on the vehicle of language to be effective.

3.8.6.2 Collective Bargaining as an Economic Process

One of the major objectives of collective bargaining is to improve wages and conditions of service. Collective bargaining as an economic process is mainly concerned with buying and selling a product and negotiating about the price. It is seen as the sale of labour for maximum economic gain (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 93).

3.8.6.3 Collective Bargaining as a Negotiation Process

Collective bargaining can be viewed as a method of negotiating primarily aimed at economic aspects of the worker - employer relationship. As a negotiating tool, collective bargaining serves to improve the working conditions of workers.

3.8.6.4 Collective Bargaining as a Trade Union Activity

Collective bargaining almost from inception has been related to the growth and development of trade unionism. It is based on the fact that where the trade union represents the workers and acts on their behalf it will become the collective bargaining agent (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 94).

3.8.6.5 Collective Bargaining as a Management Style

It is seen as the mechanism for participation and consultation but employees are only interested in matters that directly affect them. There are certain factors which indicate that collective bargaining is not a management style:

- * Managers are compelled to follow certain rules in handling personnel with regard to promotion, wages and overtime
- * Managers are obliged to act reasonably, to be just and not to decide arbitrarily; they must consider and preferably consult with their employees
- * Collective bargaining prohibits certain accepted behaviour modes, such as withholding wages as a form of discipline (Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 94 & 95)).

3.8.6.6 Collective Bargaining as a Conflict Control Mechanism

The view of the bargaining process as a conflict control mechanism is based on the principle of participation and the regulation of the work place relationship. Collective bargaining is a means of alleviating tension between workers and management through participation.

3.8.6.7 Collective Bargaining and Conflict

Conflict is generated by economic, ideological, socio-cultural and personal differences between people.

Collective bargaining as an interactive process has an element of conflict because any human relationship has a certain conflict potential. According to Dubin (1957) cited in Nel & van Rooyen (1985 : 95) collective bargaining will never serve to eliminate conflict but it will only restrict it by controlling the intensity or degree of conflict that exists between the different interacting parties.

Bargaining would not take place if there were no point of common interest between the employer and employee. If it were not necessary for the parties to work together to produce goods and services and in the long term to ensure the future of the enterprise and the economy as a whole, there would be no need for them to come together to sort out any differences they might have.

Just as the parties to the labour relationship would not agree to bargain if there were no common interest, so there would be no necessity for bargaining if there were no conflict of interests. Since each party will pursue his own goals, in the light of his interests and values and possibly at the cost of the other party, conflict necessarily arises. If such conflict reached destructive proportions it would negatively affect both parties.

The modern view holds that a certain amount of conflict will stimulate growth, innovation and bring about improvement in the organisation.

provided it remains manageable (Bendix 1989 : 79). The most common source of conflict between employers and employees is to be found in arguments concerning scarce resources like money. Management not only has responsibility towards its employees, but it also needs to consider shareholders, to expand and develop the business and to satisfy customers. The manager may decide to grant a higher dividend to shareholders or to offer a vast sum for the expertise of a particular individual. This may not meet with the approval of employees and trade unions, who could be of the opinion that certain percentage of money should have been allocated to wage increases.

Employers and employees come into conflict because they have different needs, goals and interests. An employer's primary goal may be to raise profit margins and to develop the organisation whereas the objective of employees is to earn as much as possible for the work they perform.

Another source of conflict lies in the fact that traditionally employers have believed that they possess the right to exercise full control over employees and that decision making rests entirely in the hands of management. This assumption has been challenged by employees, trade unions and even by government legislation. Conflict can be promoted in cases where communication structures are ineffective and this can be attributed to poor organisational structure and management style (Bendix 1989 : 81).

3.8.7 Recognition Agreement

The collective bargaining relationship always starts with the recognition of a trade union by the management of an enterprise. Recognition is preceded by a decision of the employees that they will seek union representation or a trade union decision that a non-union enterprise must be organised or a manager's decision that a unionised operation is the best way to run the newly established business (Beal & Begin 1982 : 177).

Recognition in the modern South African industrial relations context means the recognition of a trade union by an employer. This description implies that:

- * Firstly, it involves the recognition of a trade union that is independent of management
- * Secondly, recognition involves a trade union - employer relationship that does not involve the state.

It does not mean that the state as an employer cannot recognise a trade union. If the state recognises a trade union then it loses its character and becomes an employer (Piron 1988 : 24 & 25).

According to Piron (1988 : 29) the main aim of the recognition agreement is the promotion of a harmonious relationship between the company and the trade union. Recognition involves respect on the part of the trade union for certain decision making functions vested in management and a commitment to a sound relationship.

It involves not only the negotiation of an agreement, but the establishment of a relationship and a commitment from all concerned that they will try to make a success of the relationship.

3.8.8 Scope of Collective Bargaining

The scope of collective bargaining varies from one bargaining relationship to another and from system to system. Bargaining agreements commence with negotiations concerning the procedures to be adopted in regulating the relationship between the parties.

The agreement will include procedures for meetings, for negotiations and for the settlement of disputes between the parties concerned. Provision will also be made for the winding up of the relationship, should either party so desire. The main focus of the bargaining relationship is usually on economic matters.

The first collective agreements, concluded about a century ago tended to cover weekly wages and hours of work. Wages have always been at the top of the list but in modern times they are just one of a long list of negotiable items. Trade unions may demand a say in the establishment of grievance, disciplinary and retrenchment. They may furthermore demand to be consulted before new technology is introduced or on any decision which will directly or indirectly affect employees (Piron 1988 : 30).

Political and social issues may be carried into the bargaining arena. Management will besides bargaining on trade union demands raise issues of its own.

These may include matters such as productivity, training, salary and wage structures, worker commitment and even a possible decrease in wages in times of financial difficulty. The scope of collective bargaining can be extended to include all areas of conflict in the labour relationship (Bendix 1989 : 89).

The tendency in recent years has been for the negotiable issues to increase in number. They include job security, the introduction of new technologies and their social consequences, social security schemes and workers' welfare.

The best way to extend collective control of people over their work situation will be strengthening of trade union organisation and the widening of the scope of collective bargaining. Extension may be through the area of joint control and limited unilateral management decision making. Trade unions, in some instances, should continue to press for joint control over non-wage areas through the extension of collective bargaining as part of the approach to extend industrial democracy.

3.9 Co-decision on Works Councils

Works councils are joint labour management bodies that operate mostly at the plant or enterprise level. Their objectives are to promote co-operation in the undertaking, to encourage greater productivity and to give employees a say in matters that concern them. They are called works councils in Germany and Italy, enterprise councils in Belgium and Netherlands, mixed committees in Luxemburg and safety committees in Ireland (Jain 1980 : 50).

In many countries works councils have been set up by legislation. That is the case, for instance in Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Spain, Iraq, Zaire and Zambia in Africa, Tanzania and Sudan (International Labour Office 1981 : 134). In other countries such as Denmark and Norway work councils have been established by agreements between the association of workers and employers' organisation.

In certain countries works councils have been set up by collective agreements between particular industries or directly between management of an undertaking and its workers represented by their trade union. Arrangements of this kind are found for instance, in Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Canada, the United States, Ireland, the United Kingdom and Switzerland and in some developing countries, including India, Cyprus, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Jamaica (International Labour Office 1981 : 135).

Works councils do not constitute an integral part of the trade union hierarchy. Their existence is a rule provided for by law. They are made up of all employees other than senior staff and are legally obliged to represent the interests of everyone without distinction. According to the International Labour Office (1981 : 138) the powers of works councils may be classified under four main headings: information, consultation, co-decision and direct autonomous management of some of the activities of the undertaking like welfare.

The works council has a right to information on manpower planning, economic as well as financial matters and technology change. In industrialised countries, there has been a trend towards including information on investment, rationalisation, the introduction of new methods or processes, cut-backs in production and changes in the structure of the undertaking. The employer has to indicate measures that he will take to avoid or to soften the impact of unfavourable consequences for their personnel. The works council's aim is to come up with alternatives with regards to planned action.

In a number of countries including France, the United Kingdom and the Scandinavian countries, legislation has been adopted in the past few years to improve general conditions of work and the working environment through subcommittees of works councils namely, health and safety. Recent laws in Norway and Sweden even allowed the health and safety representatives to halt production when it is being carried out under dangerous conditions.

Smith (1977 : 36) states that works councils provide the opportunity for the shop floor to exert a degree of control over day-to-day operation of the company. Works councils were first given legal status in Germany in 1916 although they did not become really effective until 1920. In that year, works council law was passed which gave workers the legal right to determine with employers their working conditions and wages. The works councils were entitled to rights of consultation over such things as recruitment and dismissal, the regrouping and transfer of employees.

They were given access to company records and were provided with a quarterly briefing by management on the trading position of the company.

Employers must obtain the approval of works councils before taking any individual measure affecting staff including their appointments, re-employment, job classification, efficiency measurement and job evaluation. The works councils must be consulted about all changes in establishment which could result in personal hardship.

3.9.1 Works Councils in Belgium

Works councils in Belgium must, by law be established in every enterprise employing more than 150 people, including managerial staff. The Belgium works councils are joint bodies, with the employers providing up to half the councillors. The elections for the works councils are controlled by trade union (Reese 1991 : 67).

In Belgium workers are entitled to a wide range of information about the company for which they work. Co-decision rights are limited to the determination of work rules and welfare matters. When agreement is not reached between the employer and the employees, management is at liberty to proceed with its own proposals.

The works council's main role is in an advisory capacity, where it informs management of its views on working conditions, productivity measures, redundancies, and dismissal procedures.

The range of information about companies which works councils are entitled to receive has been extended. Previously the only right to information was in respect of general financial and economic data but now the list includes:

- * The company's competitive position with profit margins by product, cost and selling price of units, general market position and sales patterns
- * Costings and budgets for the whole enterprise including a breakdown of costs by major product groups
- * Details of production
- * Information on salaries and wages, including managerial pay
- * The financial structure of the company, with a five-yearly comparison of accounts accompanied by an explanation of the accounting methods used
- * Details of any long-term projects and forecasts.

The works councils must receive an up-to-date summary of this basic information at the end of every financial year. Furthermore, any event or decision with important consequences for the company must be communicated to the works council (Smith 1977 : 38 & 39).

3.9.2 Works Councils in France

In France, legislation lays down the rules by which labour representatives are to be elected and prescribes the fields of their activities. In France, production committees were set up by workers spontaneously at the end of the Second World War.

These committees were made official in a decree of 1945, although they were given no real powers other than the right to information on certain subjects. They were to be consulted in such matters as work procedures, administration of business and its general trading position. The worker representatives have regular contact with management and protects workers from victimisation, if what they do in the course of their duties proves unpopular with management.

In France a 1966 Act extended the rights of consultation for the committees and provided for a greater degree of disclosure of company information. These committees have consultative powers over production programmes, investment proposals, changes in production techniques and on any proposal that is likely to affect working conditions or employment prospects within the enterprise (International Labour Office 1981 : 138).

The French committees also have a unique function of formulating the profit-sharing schemes. Profit-sharing was made compulsory in all firms employing 100 people through an ordinance in 1967. A worker participation reserve fund was to be created out of company profits, which was then distributed according to the scale of wages or salaries of each individual worker (International Labour Office 1981 :139).

3.9.3 Works Councils in Denmark

In Denmark works councils were first introduced in 1947 in the form of joint production committees as part of a national agreement between the Danish Employers Association and the Trade Unions Federation. The agreement provided for the establishment of the committees in all firms employing over twenty-five people but assigned to them only a consultative function concerning operation and production methods of the firm (International Labour Office 1981 : 140).

The provisions were amended by an agreement of October 1964 which changed the criteria governing the establishment of committees from twenty-five to fifty employees. It defined the objective of the committees as being the discussion and promotion of efficiency, rationalisation, vocational training, welfare provisions and incentive wage payments. This state of affairs changed significantly through another agreement in 1970 which led to the establishment of co-operation committees in all firms with more than fifty workers (Smith 1977 : 40 & 41).

According to the International Labour Office (1981 : 145) the committees comprised of an equal number of both management and employees. In Denmark the agreement on committees lists among their duties participating in the taking of decisions concerning conditions of work, safety, welfare and personnel policy. The parties must endeavour to come to an understanding and an agreement reached carried joint responsibility of management and workers' representative for ensuring that the agreed principles are applied in practice.

3.9.4 Works Councils in Luxemburg

In Luxemburg works councils were only introduced in 1974. They are known as mixed committees and are composed equally of employee and employer representatives. They are required in all private sector companies employing at least 150 people.

The committees are primarily consultative but they do have powers of decision with management over matters such as health and safety regulations, recruitment, dismissal, promotion and transfer of employees. They must be consulted in advance of any decision which might affect the structure of the enterprise or the employment prospects of those people who work on it. The mixed committees are entitled to receive certain information which includes a twice-yearly report on the economic and financial development of the company (Smith 1977 :41).

3.9.5 Works Councils in the Netherlands

In the Netherlands, works councils first appeared informally immediately after the end of the Second World War in 1945. They were legally established, but were not compulsory. The works councils acted as consultative bodies and had four main functions. They transmitted complaints and grievances of employees to the management; they supervised the administration of employment and factory legislations; they made suggestions about the efficiency and operating methods of the firm. They also consulted with management over holidays and shift working (Smith 1977 : 42).

The new law introduced, stated that works councils should be furnished with information necessary for their proper functioning and this includes data on recruitment, training, salaries and wages, economic performance of the company (Smith 1977 : 43).

3.9.6 Works Councils in South Africa

In South Africa works councils are also referred to as liaison committees.

Liaison committee's functions are:

- * To consider matters of mutual interest to the company and its Black workers
- * To make recommendations to the co-ordinating liaison committee, if one existed
- * To negotiate and enter into agreements with the company on wages and other conditions of employment (Reese 1991 : 71).

The functions of the co-ordinating liaison committee are:

- * To co-ordinate the activities of the liaison committee
- * To consider any matter affecting the interests of the company and its Black workers
- * To negotiate and enter into agreements with regards to employment conditions (Reese 1991 : 71).

Works councils and worker directors represent a form of high level worker participation.

The main difference is that works councils occur at enterprise level whereas worker directors takes place at industry level and in most cases are trade union-centred.

3.10 Co-determination and Worker Director Schemes

Bendix (1989 : 120) states that the principle of co-decision making by employees on supervisory boards or those of directors is a common practice in a number of Western European countries. This form of participation allows for worker directors, elected by employees or trade unions to be appointed to supervisory boards or boards of directors. These boards decide on general policy for the enterprise and its management team but are not involved in the actual day-to-day running to the enterprise.

In countries where there are no two tier-board structure, in the form of a boards of directors and a management board and where one body fulfils both the policy-making and executive functions, there is a general resistance to the appointment of worker directors. It is feared that, if worker directors are involved also in the management function, there will be continual confrontation between employee and managerial representatives and urgent decisions may be delayed (Bendix 1989 : 121).

Representation on supervisory boards is rarely on an equity basis. Employee representatives constitute one third of the board and the other two-thirds being made up of directors elected by the shareholders.

The appointment of worker directors to supervisory boards does bring about employee participation at the highest decision making level of the enterprise.

A more balanced perspective is achieved and more equitable decisions may be taken, since worker directors are able to represent the interests of employees at this level and to put forward alternatives to management proposals. In essence, such worker directors share in controlling and supervising the functions and policies of management. In terms of the International Labour Office (1981 : 89) a distinction must be made between cases in which workers' representatives on the boards are equal in number to those of shareholders and cases in which they are in minority. The Green Book on participation (1975) states that in the case of minority representation, there is no fundamental shift in the ultimate balance of power as regards decision making. On the other hand a situation of parity results in such a shift.

Another distinction must be made between representation on a supervisory board, a board of directors and a management board. The supervisory board appoints and can dismiss the management board or management team, lays down the general policies of the undertaking. According to the Green Book (1975) cited in International Labour Office (1981 : 89), the existence of a separate supervisory body facilitates the drawing of a sharp distinction between the function of management on the one hand and the supervision and control of management on the other.

The managers can then be left free to manage. The supervisory board makes management accountable to the interests it is supposed to serve.

Workers representatives on boards of directors or supervisory board though usually having the same rights and obligations as shareholders representatives are in a minority on those boards. Usually, a fixed number of seats is reserved for workers' representatives.

Normally there is no express provision for the workers to participate directly in the profits of the undertaking. When workers have parity representation on boards, their representatives will influence the undertaking's general policy, including decisions on distribution of profits.

Arrangements for workers' participation on the boards of directors or supervisory boards vary according to whether they apply in both public and private undertakings or in public undertakings only. In the industrialised countries attention has been paid to workers' representation on boards of directors or supervisory boards in the private sector than in the public sector. In the developing countries, interest in this form of participation is greater in government or nationalised undertakings.

3.10.1 Federal Republic of Germany

Federal Republic of Germany has one of the best known forms of workers' participation in decision making. Under Federal Republic law participation is characterised by a two-tier management structure.

A supervisory board elected by the shareholder's general meeting, has the duty of general policy guidance for and supervision of the activities of the company, in accordance with the articles of association. It approves decisions of major importance such as, the closure of establishments, the opening of new factories, major production changes and investments. This board elects management board which is responsible for the conduct of business.

The year 1951 saw the passing of the most notable legislation on co-determination. This applied only to companies engaged in the production of iron and steel and also the mining of iron ore. Under this arrangement, there is a clear division between the supervisory board which consists of shareholders and employee representatives, and the managing board usually made up of commercial, technical and labour directors. An additional member known as the labour director is appointed jointly by the two parties. The labour director has administrative responsibilities for a whole range of personnel and social policies including recruitment, hiring and firing, employee transfers, training of managerial personnel on human relations practices, pension, insurance funds, wages and salaries. Although commercial and technical matters are outside his jurisdiction, he clearly has ultimate control over many areas on the shop floor (Poole 1978 : 148).

Under the Co-determination Act of 1976, workers are entitled to equal representation rights on the supervisory boards of all companies employing more than 2000 work people.

This new act is not extensive as that applicable in the mining, iron and steel industries since it is not obligatory for the labour director on the managing board to come from the employees or the trade union's side (Poole 1978 : 149).

In Germany the operation and practical effects of the system of participation at board level and of parity system have given rise to much research. It seems participation bodies have been operating satisfactory in terms of the statutory provisions in almost all the undertakings. In the supervisory boards of the mining, iron and steel industries decisions have been taken unanimously. In practice, the management board anticipates the stand that would be taken by the various parties on the supervisory board and itself attempts to find a compromise, by consulting the works council. It has been noted that workers' representatives on supervisory boards, having at their disposal information supplied by shareholders' representatives, tend to see problems not only from their own point of view but also from that of the shareholders and thus become inclined to compromise (International Labour Office 1981 : 90).

Co-determination and self management form part of power-centred participation. Co-determination involves the presence of worker representatives on the board of directors. Self-management is made of workers' council which has decision making right over the resources of the undertaking.

3.11 Self-Management

Systems based on self-management represent the most far reaching attempts at direct involvement of the

workers in decision making and management responsibilities. Self-management can be defined as the management of undertaking by their workforce.

The main features common to these systems are the following:

- * They are based on general legislation applicable to undertakings in the public sector in which management but not ownership rights have been transferred to the workers
- * The right to participate is granted to the whole workforce, whether manual or non-manual
- * The workforce exercises its right through an elected body known as a workers council
- * Self-management bodies have the right to dispose partly or wholly of the profits or net income of the undertaking, reinvesting certain sums, allocating others for social or cultural activities or distributing sums directly in the form of bonuses (International Labour Office 1981 : 49).

The best known example of self-management is the Yugoslavian system. Under this system the management of public undertaking was handed over to the workers. Yugoslavian system basic principle is the requirement that all workers shall participate in all decisions concerning their work.

A necessary condition for this democratic form of decision making is social ownership of the means of production and in Yugoslavia over 80 per cent of firms are publicly owned.

This extensive social ownership prevents exploitation of the workers and ensures that production is used for the satisfaction of social needs (Cooper & Mumford 1979 : 327).

According to International Labour Office (1962) cited in Poole (1978 : 153) the principal organs for the Yugoslavian system were the workers' council, the management board and the enterprise director. In each workplace, a workers' council elected by the entire labour force was to be given overall responsibility for policy and entrusted with the legal obligation to determine the general economic activity of the enterprise. As regards day-to-day management, the workers' council has broad powers of supervision, decision and is responsible for seeing that the workers are properly informed. The workers' council appoints an executive committee and other specialised committees to which it delegates consultative powers. It is the workers' council which elects the general manager and other top managers for renewable terms of four years. The council has the right to terminate their appointments. The management's task is to help co-ordinate and execute decisions taken.

Poole (1978 : 158) states that Yugoslavian authorities had to overcome the problems arising from the increasing power of senior management at the expense of the workers' councils by a major restructuring aimed at involving the shop floor worker. This was done by the formation of "Basic Organisations of Associated Labour" or BOAL. BOALS were to be founded on groupings of workers seen to

have similar interests and who contributed to the production of marketable output. Each Boal had to elect its own workers' council and subdivide its activities through a series of workers' meetings.

According to Cooper & Mumford (1979 : 329) Basic Organisations of Associated Labour (BOAL) form part of larger work organisations and their creation requires that certain conditions be fulfilled:

- * The group must take responsibility for a complete and integrated production or service process. The members must be linked together through their work. Their productivity will be a consequence of their co-operative use of common facilities
- * The value of their output must be expressed both in terms of its contribution to the profitability of the larger work organisation and its value on the market. This condition is met when the BOAL is able to realise a gross and earn a net income
- * The workers in basic organisation must be able to achieve their socio-economic and other self-management rights. This condition is met if they can manage the activities of their basic organisation. The workers must be able to share their labour and resources with other workers, manage the income they earn, regulate labour relations, play a role in self-managing communities and participate in the management of local and socio-political communities.

Workers in basic organisations make decisions through the personal expression of their views in workers' assemblies, through referenda.

The most frequently used forum for decision making in a basic organisation is the workers' assembly which consists of all the people employed in that organisation. Through referenda workers are able to take decisions on: self-managing agreements concerned with the use of labour in the basic organisation, changes in the structure of the basic organisation, the distribution of income among workers and members of the community. According to Poole (1978 : 158) "the reforms of the Yugoslav system were aimed at redressing the imbalance caused by the declining significance of workers' councils in the face of a particular configuration of power and values in the day-to-day operation of the industry". Yugoslavia provides a good example of the dynamic character of participation in decision making.

"Worker participation is a widespread phenomenon internationally, appearing in various forms in the political economies of most industrialised nations. The experiences of other countries provide a rich base of models, experiences and approaches to collecting bargaining and worker participation from which to learn and academics have investigated many of these in the search for a South African 'model'" (Anstey 1990 : 1). South African business has been learning some of the lessons of the United Kingdom, the USA, and Japan focusing on quality circles and also employee share ownership schemes. In South Africa worker participation programmes are still in their infancy but attention has been directed at limited decision making on the factory floor.

3.12 Worker participation programmes in South Africa

Worker participation in South African companies is task centred. Task centred participation involves the transfer of limited authority down the line, but essentially the power structure within the company remains intact, with management determining all major decisions. The forms of worker participation programmes that are being used are joint health and safety committees, employee trustees on pension fund, briefing groups, quality circles, suggestion schemes, profit sharing schemes and employee share ownership schemes (Maller : 1992 : 11).

In the 1970's liaison and works committees were used as forms of participation. After some years liaison committees were replaced by works councils. All these forms of worker participation are shop floor structures. In South Africa participation programmes are usually initiated and controlled by management. With the exception of the Volkswagen company, trade unions have been excluded from the formulation, design and development of worker participation programmes. (Maller 1992 : 12) states that the active participation of shop floor workers in the affairs of the company needs to be negotiated by representatives and to move towards high forms of participation and thus be power centred.

Collective bargaining can be regarded as the dominant form of worker participation that has been used by South African companies. Employee share ownership scheme does guarantee worker participation in decision making.

Quality circles serve to increase worker job control but the worker does not have the opportunity to influence the company as a whole. The discussion on worker participation programmes in South Africa will be centred on the following:

Volkswagen, Cashbuild and P.G. Bison.

3.12.1 Volkswagen

Worker participation programme of Volkswagen is a joint committee made up of trade union and management representatives. The Volkswagen example illustrates the power of the trade union to influence decisions on production, discipline and employment conditions.

Worker participation at Volkswagen is based on two levels. The first level is that of the trade union with a high level of shop steward involvement. The second level is the shop floor where there is direct worker involvement. This implies that the worker is addressed as an individual rather than as part of a collective relationship between management and a trade union.

Worker participation programmes were introduced because of labour unrest at the Volkswagen plant. The company is situated in Uitenhage in the Cape Province. Black workers are in the majority as compared to Coloureds and Whites. Almost half of the workforce belong to a trade union. Two trade unions operate at Volkswagen that is, NUMSA (National Union of Metal Workers of South Africa) and the South African Iron Steel and Allied Industries Union. NUMSA represents Black workers and the other union represents Whites only (Anstey 1990 : 231 & 232).

The most advanced form of participation that has been introduced is the joint committee. The aim of this committee is to promote co-operation on issues of common interests between management and workers. It deals with changes in production strategy for instance, new car models, financial and operational report backs and community based projects. Through the participation of shop stewards, the trade union can influence company policy (Maller 1991 : 129 & 130).

At the next level, there is a human resources committee. This committee is made up of managers from the human resources department and full time shop stewards. The focus of this committee is on issues like training, advancement, recruitment, health and safety matters. There are departmental committees which deal with hours of work and changes in production schedule. At the shop floor level, there are weekly meetings. These meetings focus on performance of each department, target production for the week, working hours as well as overtime requirements. The finance and marketing review is attended by all shop stewards where a full financial and market presentation of the company is presented. Lastly, there is a Volkswagen Community Trust which caters for community affairs and projects (Anstey 1990 : 239 & 240; Maller 1992 : 130).

Other forms of worker participation were set up to supplement participation in joint committees. Workers have been appointed to health and safety committees. Quality circles have been implemented in non-production areas. Lastly, there is team talks in the morning at the start of production.

There is a possibility that worker representation at board level as well as profit sharing schemes will be introduced in the near future (Maller 1992 : 137).

3.12.2 Cashbuild

Cashbuild is a cash and carry wholesaler of building materials. It is located mainly in the former homelands or near Black residential areas.

Worker participation programmes at Cashbuild arose out of a profitability crisis. This necessitated the company to introduce Cashbuild Care Groups. The idea centred on these groups was that the company does care about its people and the people must care for the company.

In each Cashbuild branch care presidents were elected to represent workers. Their function was to provide a forum for workers to voice grievances and articulate problems. The Venturecomm which is central to the company's participation system operates at the shop floor level. This committee deals with matters such as, improving working conditions, hiring of staff, disciplinary action, workload, productivity as well as financial information on sales and stockholding. The Venturecomm has limited rights especially with regards to decision making in profit levels and returns on investment. This committee serves the purpose of a trade union because it provides a structure of representation of workers' interests and grievances. It serves as a communication channel between management and workers at the shop floor level (Maller 1992 : 60 & 61).

3.12.3 P.G. Bison Company

P.G. Bison Company has two manufacturing divisions, one which produces and upgrades raw boards and the other one which manufactures decorative surfacing. The company also runs a chain of Timber City Stores. Almost 80 per cent of the workforce are members of two trade unions at the company.

Worker participation programmes at P.G. Bison arose out of low levels in company's performance. Low levels of production were attributed to the style and structure of management which was not efficient. There was also a major communication gap between Blacks and Whites on the shop floor level.

The Total Productivity and Quality concept was introduced to resolve production crisis. According to Evans (1992 : 41) the concept is centred on the notion "that the person doing the job understands it better than anyone else, therefore there is a need to ensure the devolution of authority and power to lower levels".

The company was divided into eight strategic business units (SBUs) in order to facilitate the implementation of the Total Productivity and Quality programme. The Strategic Business Units were made up of workers at all levels of the organisational hierarchy that is, workers, supervisors and managers. From each Strategic Business Unit groups of workers attended workshops which allowed them to share perceptions of each other as well as aspects of the history of Black resistance in South Africa.

The Total Productivity and Quality Programme was aimed at getting different racial groups working together as a team. Some important issues like health, literacy and working conditions have been discussed by management and workers. The programme gave workers a chance to participate democratically and to take part in open debate with other racial groups (Evans 1992 : 45).

Another form of participation that is being used is collective bargaining. Collective bargaining takes place at company and branch levels. In the near future, collective bargaining will take place at the industrial council level. This would be to facilitate negotiations between management and the four trade unions representing workers at P.G. Bison. The performance reward system has been introduced to supplement other forms of participation.

This is based on performance of teams of workers. If their production is above the target then they qualify for a performance reward. The performance reward system has been structured in such a way that the lower grades often receive rand amounts greater than those in higher paid positions. There are also national negotiating forums which deal with literacy, community involvement, housing, health and safety. It has been possible for workers to be involved in the appointment of managers and peers. An agreement has been reached between management and trade unions to allow trade unions to have a say in aspects of the day-to-day business such as, training programmes and evaluation of performance of workers.

In the near future, trade union representatives on the board of directors as well as worker share ownership schemes will be introduced (Evans 1992 : 51).

Worker participation programmes are implemented because of the increasing demand by workers for a better quality of work life. Participatory forms of decision making are implemented in order to replace autocratic methods of management with more democratic systems. Implementation of worker participation is essential since participation is claimed to have a positive effect on the morale, motivation and psychological well-being of the worker.

3.13 Implementation of Worker participation programmes

The task of undertaking a workers' participation experiment requires commitment from top management. Without commitment and active support of management, any form of participation is doomed to failure. It is crucial that management evaluates the impact of participation in all areas of the organisation.

According to Salamon (1987 : 235) "commitment of employee participation must not only exist in a formal statement of corporate philosophy and principles, but be seen to be applied in the decisions that managers make".

Before any participative programme can evolve, a trusting relationship must exist among the parties concerned. It is impossible to expect true and open participation when the parties do not trust each other.

Within unionised organisations, trade unions should be included in the formulation, design and development of worker participation programmes.

Worker and management representatives should be trained and be well informed. Successful participation programmes require additional knowledge and new skills. A training needs analysis will have to be done in order to determine the training needs of the participants. Anthony (1978 : 66) states that courses and seminars on basic management skills such as planning, organising, controlling, communications and decision making serves as a foundation for worker participation training programmes. Managers will have to learn human relations skills.

This will enable them to understand how people relate to one another and also how to co-ordinate employees' efforts in a more productive and participative manner. Managers are expected to acquire leadership skills, communication skills, goal setting, guidance and counselling skills.

Training will help people define their new work role especially among those who feel most threatened for instance, supervisors. The organisational culture should be made conducive to participation programmes. This will enable the participants to adjust to their new roles.

Douwes Dekker (1990 : 258) regards collective bargaining agreements as essential for the implementation of worker participation programmes.

He states that the parameter of the participation programme should be outlined in the recognition agreements. Consideration should be given to issues which would either allow joint decision making or consultation between the parties concerned. Worker participation programmes do not serve the purpose of replacing collective bargaining but instead serve to augment or supplement bargaining agreements.

For a worker participation programme to be successful, it has to be monitored constantly and the participants have to be encouraged to make it work. If the participation programme is successfully implemented then it would result in improved quality, reduced scrap and wastage, less disciplinary action as well as co-operative relationship between management and workers.

3.14 Benefits of Participation

"Worker participation has been proposed to hold the key to the achievement of a wide range of organisational, individual and nation - building objective. Increased job satisfaction is proposed as the vehicle for improved motivation and increase in production. A sense of belonging and relevance is proposed to increase organisational loyalty" (Anstey 1990 : 23).

Employee's self-esteem, job satisfaction and co-operation with management may also improve. The results are reduced conflict and stress, more commitment to goals and better acceptance of change.

There may be reduced turnover and absenteeism because employees may realise that they have a better place at work. The act of participation by itself establishes better communication as people mutually discuss work problems.

According to Armstrong (1979 : 605) the benefits of participation are:

- * It satisfies the individual's basic need for involvement in affairs that affect him
- * It makes better use of the skills and capacities available in the enterprise
- * It gives people the opportunity to influence decisions that impact on their present, future prosperity and security.

Bendix (1989 : 122) states that "participation can be regarded as a means of overcoming basic employer conflict and as a step towards co-operation and coalition between employers, employees or trade unions".

Participative management can improve the quality of managerial decisions because a wide range of alternatives and their consequences are brought to bear on the process. The other benefit is the improved teamwork that results from participative management. Teamwork is essential in resolving the complex problems faced by most of today's organisations (Anthony 1978 : 27).

Adam (1980 : 2) states that the powerful case for participation is that in the larger organisations management has lost control of what happens in the production area. By getting joint agreement on what needs to be done, how and when it should be done, it is hoped that control can be regained.

Managers must weigh the costs and expected benefits in using worker participation programme prior to adopting the approach. They must also periodically assess the costs and benefits of participation programmes. In some organisations the benefits for worker participation programme will far outweigh its costs. But this does not mean worker participation is necessarily the most appropriate approach for each and every organisation.

3.15 Limitations of Participation

Management objects to participation on the grounds that shared decision making leads to lack of control and efficiency may be detrimentally affected. Armstrong (1979 : 605) states that the board of directors must exercise direction and control, management must manage; managers cannot be effective unless they are allowed to exercise their authority with minimum of interference. Direction and management are specialised skills which are not shared amongst all employees. The extent to which workers' representative at board level make a real contribution is limited.

Power sharing implies information sharing and therefore the necessarily confidential nature of top management decision making would be seriously impaired if workers were involved.

Participation may drive key decisions under cover if directors or managers form secret committees or starve workers' representatives of the information they need to make proper contribution.

If urgent decisions have to be made, time cannot be spared for group participation. The manager will decide on what action to take. Should management decide to change from a practice of autocracy to one of increased participation, some time for adjustment on the part of both parties will be required. In addition, participation requires time for the subordinate to learn to handle this new found freedom and time for the supervisor to learn to trust subordinates.

Whether greater involvement in decision making can be developed largely depends on the ability and interest of the participants subordinates as well as managers. If the subordinate has neither knowledge of nor interest in a subject, there is little need to consult. It should be noted that not all employees are equally desirous of participation. Managers must face the fact that some workers do not seek more responsibility and greater involvement in their job (Mondy, Holmes & Flipppo 1983 : 422).

3.16 Trade Union attitudes towards worker participation programmes

Jain (1980 :9) states that it is difficult to generalise about the attitudes of the trade union movement toward worker participation programmes.

West Germany trade unionists believe that they can protect the interests of their members by participating in decision making bodies at the highest level of the enterprise at board level. In other countries like America and United Kingdom, trade unions play a role of bargaining with management as equal partners. These trade unions do not wish to assume any responsibility for the administration of the enterprise. Through the bargaining process, the trade unions will be able to establish a fair balance between the demands of their members and the overall interests of the enterprise (Jain 1980 : 10).

Trade unionists are fearful that worker participation programmes will draw loyalty of workers away from the trade union and closer to management. These trade union leaders prefer to remain aloof, having freedom to express disagreement with management and to extend a challenge at any time. Another view held by trade union leaders is that participation gives them an opportunity to express their viewpoints before decisions are made (Davis 1981 : 193).

According to Guest & Knight (1979 : 253) the "trade union role is seen as being to consider, contest and oppose managerial decisions. It is not the responsibility of workers to manage the enterprise, it is essential that trade unions retain their independence". It can be seen that these trade union leaders are opposed to participation at board level.

Poole (1978 : 119) states that some trade union leaders support plant based systems of trade union

representation since these ensure that agreements are honoured at local levels and that arbitrary decisions of management are opposed. Worker participation programmes which are initiated by management have been rejected because they serve to duplicate channels of workers' representation and consequently weaken workers' inclinations to join trade unions. Trade union leaders believe that worker participation must be closely identified with the trade union organisation. Another view held by trade union leaders is that worker participation programmes should be extended at all levels of management.

The Trade Union Congress (TUC) argues that the role of trade unions is to exert pressure on management to obtain maximum benefits for its members. Thus, trade unions must not be associated with decisions which might adversely affect their independence. Collective bargaining rather than participation is seen as the key to industrial democracy. The TUC argues that collective bargaining is and will continue to be the central method of joint regulation in industry.

In South Africa, worker participation programmes have not been negotiated with trade unions. As a result, the trade unions' response to any form of participation has been negative. This is mainly because worker participation in decision has been task centred rather than power centred. Task centred participation refers to the performance of the operational work while power centred implies participation in policy making.

According to Horwitz (1992 : 12) "trade unions tend to view a company as a pluralistic organisation with competing interests that need to be regulated. Participation is a means of sharing power or extending worker rights and control". Participation as a tool can be used by management to gain greater productivity without a commensurate increase in employee benefits. In this case, participation can be used by management to manipulate workers.

Maller (1987 : 16) states that worker participation programmes has become associated with managerial attempts of increasing production and greater worker loyalty. This is clearly seen in reasons given by managers prompting them to introduce worker participation programmes:

- * Improve company's business efficiency
- * Improve worker performance
- * Attract and retain staff.

In South Africa, the trade unionists' attitude to employee share ownership schemes has been negative. According to Rodger & Ussher (1990 : 31) "trade unions feel that employee share ownership schemes represent insignificant profit sharing without any additional say in the running of the organisation. They are often viewed as attempts to reduce the incentive to strike the reasoning being that workers would be reluctant to damage their own stake in the organisation".

The employee share ownership schemes (ESOPs) were rejected because of the following reasons:

- * ESOPs were seen as an attempt to co-opt workers to a management ideology, which might compromise trade union strength
- * ESOPs mean participation in capitalist forms of ownership which are seen as fundamentally unequal
- * Limited equity is being offered to workers which does not represent any effective advance in extending workers influence over the decision making process
- * ESOPs were seen as an attempt to appease international pressure groups
- * Workers have little understanding of the complexities of the share market and seldom do educational campaigns accompany employee share allocations (Rodger & Ussher 1990 : 31 & Maller (1987 : 17)).

According to Bendix (1989 : 123) "trade unions may regard worker participation programmes as a management ploy to co-opt workers and detract from union independence. On the practical level, trade unionists fear that the introduction of participation schemes will eradicate the traditional boundaries between trade unions and management".

3.17 Management attitudes toward worker participation programmes

Management's role in business is to satisfy the needs of various stakeholders that is, customers, employees, shareholders, government and the local community which the enterprise is designed to serve.

Management is concerned with the financial and organisational well being of the enterprise. The emphasis is on production of goods and services at a profit. This calls for teamwork and loyalty on the part of managers and workers in increasing the efficiency and productivity of the enterprise. Management's role is that of negotiating acceptable working arrangements between various stakeholders.

Management's objection to sharing authority with workers or their representatives is based on the fear that their lack of technical knowledge and expertise as well as their limited perspective will jeopardise the viability of the enterprise. According to British law, the board of directors which represents shareholders is deemed to be accountable only to management. Thus, there is no responsibility on the part of the board of directors to its employees or to consult with trade union representatives (Jain 1980 : 11).

In European countries, employers have been in favour of voluntary schemes of joint consultation, such as joint labour management committees at the shop floor level. Employers in general:

- * Favour participation programmes that are voluntary rather than legally imposed, as well as those that do not discriminate between union and non-union members
- * Prefer to deal with their own forms of participation rather than with trade unions

- * Give preference to direct shop floor democracy over representative programmes of industrial democracy
- * Accept representation of worker representatives on the company board in a minority position
- * Believe in participation programmes that integrate workers in the firm and give workers more responsibility for their work, as long as these programmes do not lead to a change in power relationships within the company (Jain 1980 : 13).

According to Horwitz & James (1992 : 8) "management views of worker participation programmes are based on a perception of common interest. The purpose is to achieve greater commitment of all employees to the definition and attainment of the firm's objectives". Worker participation helps to improve the technical quality of decisions and increases acceptability of decisions. Participation encourages employees' identification with the firm's success and improves the job satisfaction of employees. This will result in the improvements of organisational stability, efficiency and productivity.

Bendix (1989 : 122) states that management objects to worker participation programmes on the grounds that shared decision making leads to lack of control and that it is a time consuming process. This can result in managerial efficiency being detrimentally affected. Another problem is that management and workers have different objectives and it is unlikely that employees place their preference for economic benefits above the long term interest of the company.

When workers are involved in participation programmes, managers feel threatened:

- * They feel their power base and prerogative may be eroded
- * The process infringes on what has traditionally been their domain
- * Employees need and request access to data which may be sensitive
- * Employees may come up with better ideas than managers and this could be threatening to managers (Rodger & Ussher 1990 : 29).

3.18 Worker attitudes to worker participation programmes

According to Jain (1980 : 8) workers evaluate participation programmes in terms of a perceived personal pay off. 'What do I get out of it'? If workers do not see any personal pay off in a participation programme then it is perceived as a management instrument used to manipulate workers.

It has been shown that in general, workers prefer to participate in decisions that are likely to affect their interests, especially their working conditions. Anthony (1978 : 41) states that being asked to participate and not knowing how to do it can be a threatening and frightening experience for many workers. Some workers may not desire to participate because they view it as simply more work and responsibility. Others do not have the subject matter or knowledge needed for participation. At times people are asked to participate in areas in which they have no knowledge.

It is management's responsibility to ensure that employees have the knowledge and skills to participate in their area of work. Management should also provide training and education for workers who are interested in worker participation programmes (Anthony 1978 : 42).

3.19 Conclusion

This chapter focused on participation in a very wide sense. The concept of participation was defined in detail. The objectives as well as purposes of participation were discussed. In terms of levels, differentiation was made between task centred and power centred participation. Direct and indirect forms of participation were presented. Collective bargaining as a form of indirect participation which has been used for quite a long time in South Africa, was discussed in detail. A discussion was made on work councils and on how they are being practised in several countries including South Africa. The focus on co-determination was directed at the Federal Republic of Germany. The discussion on self-management was based on Yugoslavia.

The attitudes of trade unions, employers and employees toward worker participation programmes were discussed. The procedure to be followed during the implementation of worker participation programmes was discussed. Lastly, benefits as well as limitations of worker participation were presented.

This chapter indicated that there are possible benefits if people who are managed should have some say about the decisions that affect them.

Employees could exercise some degree of influence in the decision making process by participating. Participation by workers could lead to a significant increase in efficiency and major improvement in the quality of decision making. However, worker participation is not a panacea for all organisational problems. It is not without limitations which will be pointed out later on.

But worker participation is an approach to management which, if properly understood and practised, provides substantial advantages for improving organisational effectiveness. Worker participation can increase productivity, improve morale, reduce industrial strife between management and workers, increase employee commitment to the organisation and improve communication. All of these benefits are valued assets for any organisation and these have to be taken into consideration when worker participation programmes are to be implemented. There are barriers which block the effective use of worker participation programmes. These barriers lie with the organisation itself, its management and workers. Organisational culture and fear by managers as well as lack of competency on the part of workers, can be barriers to effective implementation of worker participation programmes. It is important that the costs and benefits in using worker participation programmes are weighed prior to adopting them. For most organisations the benefits for these programmes will far outweigh costs. But this does not mean worker participation is necessarily the most appropriate approach for each and every organisation.

Only each manager and each organisation can determine its usefulness in their particular situation. The next chapter will be focused on the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes.

CHAPTER 4 THE SCOPE OF WORKER
PARTICIPATION IN TRADE UNIONS

4.1 Introduction

Trade unions play an important role in worker participation programmes. Trade unions help to ensure that agreements are honoured at local levels and that arbitrary decisions of management are effectively opposed. Indirect participation acknowledges the essential role of the trade union. Indirect participation is when trade union members influence the decision making process by taking part. A trade union is regarded as a means of expression for the workers' views on matters of interest to them. Trade unions act on behalf of their members beyond the limits of the company, in social life as well.

According to Nel and van Rooyen (1985 : 35) "worker representation from outside the enterprise enables workers to participate in the decision making processes of the enterprise through workers' organisations, i.e. trade unions". Trade unions are one of the most influential pressure groups in many countries. They are able to command attention of the media and governments over a range of social, political and economic matters.

This form of worker representation involves the process of unionising workers, negotiation, interpretation of collective agreements covering wages, hours of work, condition of employment and engaging in dispute settling procedures.

Trade unionists participate in the decision making process of the enterprise through the collective bargaining process. Workers join trade unions in order to inject more justice and orderliness at the workplace. Trade unions enable workers to express their dissatisfaction with wages and other working conditions as well as their degree of participation. Through trade unions management can be persuaded to accept the right of workers to have a greater say in decisions.

4.2 The Historical Development of Trade Unionism

The trade union movement evolved from the Industrial Revolution in England when the rise of the factory system separated employer and employee from each other. Trade unions came into being as a response to capitalism. Capitalism refers to the state where the object of production is the competitive pursuit of profit in a free market and where the majority, excluded from owning the means of production are compelled to sell their labour in order to survive. Trade unions take the stage in order to redress the bargaining imbalance between the employer and employee, replacing individual competition for jobs by collective organisation as a means to protect wage levels, conditions and security of employment (McIlroy 1988 : 1).

According to Salamon (1987 : 330) trade unionism may be regarded as a social response to the advent of industrialisation and capitalism. Prior to the Industrial Revolution there had been in Britain,

trade guilds which to a limited extent protected the interests of craftsmen and apprentices, but these guilds also represented the interests of employers and did not engage in bargaining. The agrarian, semi-feudal society relied primarily on trade guilds to provide limited protection for peasants and artisans. The development of a new society based on the principle of a paid contractual relationship between employer and employee, the emergence of a range of industrially based wage earning classes required employees to create new institutions for their collective protection.

The Industrial Revolution brought with it a loss of independence and poor working conditions, as well as a belief in the freedom of contract and the operation of market forces. All these beliefs necessitated some form of protection for workers, and at the same time led to the birth of the working class.

Feather (1971 : 12) states that the actual beginning of trade unionism in Britain are to be found in the Friendly Societies of the late 18th century. These Societies were established by craftsmen, who contributed a small amount of their wages each week in return for benefits in case of sickness, retirement, unemployment or death. They also provided a forum for discussing wages and other employment conditions. After the passage of the Combination Act, the Societies had to operate in secret. As such, societies lacked power and failed to make an impression on employers. The Combination Act made it illegal for any group of workmen to combine together for any purpose relating to employment.

Nevertheless, workmen did protest and resist. Many were prosecuted, savage punishments followed convictions. It was not until 1824 that the Combination Laws were repealed. The repeal was followed by an Act which gave legal recognition to the right to associate for collective bargaining and the right to strike. At this stage the State took its first steps towards instituting some form of protection for workers starting with certain prohibitions on the use of child labour and extending these to the employment of women on the mines. The 1825 Act marked the beginning of the legal history of trade unions in Britain, although it was still difficult for a trade union to go about its normal business without coming into conflict with the law.

4.3 Reasons for the creation of Trade Unions

The trade union forms an integral part of the labour relations system and provides a means of expression for the workers' views on matters of society. A trade union as the organisation of workers is geared towards the establishment of collective power by workers in industrial relations.

4.3.1 The condition of the Working Class

Trade unions came into existence as a counter balancing influence against the injustices perpetrated upon workers by exploitative management during the Industrial Revolution. Trade union development is based on the belief that workers would maintain and improve their conditions only by organising together to form a body that could speak for them adequately and from strength.

After the Industrial Revolution the old manufacturing methods could not meet the challenge and were replaced by the factory system. This led to a change in the living standards and working patterns of ordinary people and provided a spur in trade union development (Slabbert, Prinsloo, & Backer 1991 : 4-6).

4.3.2 Divorce of Workers from Owners

The need to produce greater values of output at a faster rate resulted in the end of the small workshops as large number of workers and machines were grouped together to form a factory. Factories were owned by wealthy masters but financed by the shareholders. The shareholders were entitled to receive annual dividends based on profits. Management was appointed to ensure the day-to-day running of the factory. Management's role was to act on behalf of shareholders since they were scattered all over the country.

Under the new working system, the closeness between master and worker disappeared. The owners were geographically scattered and remote while management was harsh, uncaring and only interested in profits. Management showed little or no interest in individual workers' problems and grievance. Workers realised that as long as they acted individually, they were powerless but if they banded together and with one voice, then management could not ignore them (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-7).

4.3.3 Poor wages and working conditions

The Industrial Revolution was a period of appalling conditions as workers toiled long hours in the factories, mills and mines for low wages. There were no hospitals, clinics, schools, only the most primitive forms of sanitation were provided. As a result of these bad conditions cholera, smallpox and typhoid were common causes of death. Children became wage earners at an early age and were carried to work by their parents working twelve hours a shift. Discipline was harsh in the sense that workers were frequently fined by management for offences in the workplace and this led to low wages.

Management was more concerned with higher production, cost reductions, profit maximisation and was reluctant to spend money on safety precautions. As a result workers contracted industrial diseases such as, black lung. It was against this background that the trade unions began to grow (Feather 1971 : 12; Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-8).

4.3.4 Mass production and division of Labour

The factory system led to the concept of mass production. Under the old system, the craftsman would fashion the item from raw materials to finished product although the work was slow, he took pride in his work. Division of labour was practised in order to make the work easier for the worker. This resulted in monotony since the worker would perform only one task on a product.

The new manufacturing methods were more efficient in speeding up the flow of production, keeping costs down hence accumulating profits. The profits were either distributed to the shareholders or ploughed back into the company and were not directly received by the workers. This led to discontent among workers. As a result workers affected by similar problems came together as a collective entity in order to make themselves heard. This was done by forming and joining trade unions (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-9).

4.3.5 Independence and Discipline

Under the old system in small workshops, there was security, freedom and independence. Workers had great independence in organising their own work. Under the new system, security, freedom and independence were replaced by insecurity, subordination and discipline as well as management's desire to produce goods cheaply so as to maximise profits (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-9).

4.3.6 Labour as a commodity

Since the interests of the industrialist and workers differed, this resulted in conflict. Workers had to maximise wages in order to survive. The industrialist viewed wages as a cost of production which he attempted to minimise in order to increase profits. Labour became a commodity to be bought and sold and if its price was too high then it was replaced by machinery.

Labour's survival was threatened by both low and high wages. Low wages in the sense that workers had the responsibility of providing for their families like feeding and educating their children. If high wages were negotiated then labour could be replaced by machinery at a lower cost (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-10).

4.3.7 Economic Insecurity and Dependence

The old way of life had offered workers a fair degree of security and independence. Under the new system, they were forced to sell their labour at the highest price they could obtain in order to survive, but the price they obtained was barely sufficient. State social welfare legislation was not in existence. Accordingly, workers who were ill or were unable to work as a result of an industrial accident or disease could not find work, were left to starve by the system. At times workers had to rely on the charity of friends and relatives. Workers could not afford savings because their wages were low (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-11).

4.3.8 The Class System : "Them and Us"

Workers and the industrialist were not affected in the same way by the results of the Industrial Revolution. The owners and managers were seen to be enjoying the 'fruits' (profits) or the system whilst workers received the 'crumbs' (wages) (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-11).

Jackson (1977 : 15) states that trade unions were a reaction to the development of capitalism.

An economy based on capitalism leads to a division between those who own the means of production and those who have to sell their labour. Capitalism resulted in the development of a community of interests between those who have to sell their labour in order to survive and the establishment of trade unions to represent and defend workers.

4.3.9 Dehumanisation : Hopelessness, Helplessness and Loss of Dignity

According to (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-11) factories were places where people labour to earn a living. The life style of workers was characterised by helplessness and hopelessness of being trapped in a situation that they were powerless to change. Workers were dehumanised by the nature of their work. Workers' abilities were not utilised to the maximum because skill and variety were taken out of their jobs (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-12).

The trade union which forms an integral part of the labour relations system will be defined in the next section.

4.4. Definitions of a Trade Union

Trade unions can be described as "organisations of workers set up to improve status, pay and condition of employment of their members' (Salamon 1987 : 57). They are associations of workers who by means of collective bargaining endeavour to improve their working conditions as well as social and economic positions.

Trade unions are an expression of the fundamental right of workers to organise themselves in order to protect and promote their interests by collective action.

Perrins (1985 : 3) views a "trade union as a group of workers who have associated together with the common purpose of improving their working lot by negotiating with their employer as a group in order to obtain better terms and conditions of employment". A trade union may be defined as an organisation of workers who by collective action strive to defend and advance their interests. A trade union can be defined as an association of wage earners formed for the purpose of maintaining and improving their working lives (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1989 : 39).

Richardson (1965) cited in Salamon (1987 : 57) regards trade unions as associations of manual and/or non-manual workers formed to safeguard and improve the working conditions of their members and also to raise their status and promote their vocational interests.

In terms of the South African Labour Relations Act No. 28 of 1956 a trade union is viewed as any number of workers in a particular enterprise, industry, trade or profession who are invited for the purpose of organising relations between them and their employers. The definition of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions as cited by Du Toit (1976 : 1) regards a trade union as a continuing permanent organisation created by the workers to

protect themselves at their work, to improve the conditions of their lives and to provide a means of expression for the worker's views on matters of society.

4.4.1 Different types of Trade Unions

Trade unions can be grouped into different types according to their nature and character. They are broadly classified into occupational, industrial and general unions.

4.4.2 Occupational Unions

This type of trade union seeks to unite all workers of a particular craft, trade, occupation or grade of skill, irrespective of the industry in which they happen to be engaged. These trade unions include craft, promotion, unskilled and semiskilled and white collar unions.

Craft Unions

Originally craft unions were characterised by three basic principles : they were exclusively for skilled men; they were for manual trades and there was to be one union organised to cover each separate trade for instance, electricians; boiler-makers and plumbers. These trade unions concentrated on recruiting apprentices to their trade, controlling the number of apprentices indentured and regulating their training. Membership to craft unions is no longer restricted to skilled men since it has been extended to cover semiskilled as well as unskilled working in

that line of work associated with a particular trade. White collar workers are also allowed to be members of craft unions. The principle of one union for one trade has been eroded as separate unions have amalgamated into larger entities (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-18; Bendix 1989 : 44).

Promotion unions recruit workers with a particular skill which is achieved by on-the-job training and promotion rather than by an apprenticeship, as in the case of an established craft. Promotion unions are mostly based in cotton, iron and steel industries. Members of these trade unions achieve their skilled position by being promoted through various intermediate positions to senior skilled position. In other words they acquire knowledge through practice on-the-job and skilled status through promotion based on merit, competence and leadership (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-19).

White Collar Unions or Non-manual

According to Jones (1985 : 5) white collar unions seek to organise only white collar workers. Membership usually includes office workers in general, computer staff, management grades, scientists, technicians, bank and insurance officials.

Originally white collar workers enjoyed status and economic benefits that were superior to that of blue collar workers. However, changes in work processes and the growth of blue collar trade unions have led to the progressive erosion of their position:

- * The work of many white collar workers has become increasingly computerised and mechanised thus leading to considerable de-skilling of certain jobs and down grading within the pay structure
- * Rapid development and competition in the service industries resulted in changes being made, often unilaterally to employment conditions
- * As blue collar have achieved economic gains for their members, so differentials in wages and fringe benefits between white and blue collar workers have subsequently been eroded
- * With the growing status of the blue collar shop stewards, the authority and control of supervisors and managers has been challenged (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1989 : 50).

The growth of the modern business corporation created large bureaucratic institutions manned by white collar workers. The composition of these large units has been responsible for the alienation of the employer. Closeness to management has disappeared, individual promotion and advancement have become remote. These developments have pulled white collar workers together in a group which realises the need for group security. Accordingly, they have turned to trade unionism to provide the protection they need as a threatened group (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-21).

4.4.3 General Unions

These unions are to organise all workers irrespective of industry, area or occupation. The problem with these unions is that, while they may develop a large

membership, it may not sufficiently concentrate in a particular company or industry, thus lacking a real power base (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1989 : 49).

The theory supporting general unionism indicates that workers feel an affinity to the working class movement in general and to the common unity of interests of workers rather than to specific trades or industries. These trade unions have the largest membership of all since they recruit both manual and white collar workers (Jones 1985 : 4).

4.4.4 Industrial Unions

The purpose of an industrial union is to represent all workers in a certain industry, or at least, as many workers as possible in a particular industry. Industrial unions seek to organise all workers in a single, well defined industry regardless of the job that is actually being performed. The theory behind industrial unions is that workers have more in common with those who work in the same industry than with those who perform similar jobs.

The advantages of an industrial union are:

- * It leads to stronger unions
- * Helps to eliminate inter-union competition
- * Reduces the number of unions with which an employer has to bargain
- * Brings about correspondence between trade union organisation and employer organisation and leads to improved industrial planning

- * The union's power base, through its ability to strike an entire industry, is greatly enhanced (Bendix 1989 : 45).

4.5 General Policy

The main activity of a trade union is to maintain and improve the living standards of its members. It will become involved in the consideration of all those factors which affect prices such as indirect tax which may be levied by a government on foodstuffs or a direct tax on wages and salaries. A trade union must have something to say about this since its members' living standards will be affected one way or another. Therefore, the trade union cannot ignore the effect of such taxes. In addition to wages and prices, those government policies which contribute to full employment or unemployment must be a concern of a trade union. If there is unemployment or short-time working in an industry then obviously the standard of living of the members will be altered (Feather 1971 : 35).

In modern society it is difficult for trade unions to distance themselves from politics; however, to perform its function it is essential to be informed of government's activities and make representations to the State. A trade union should avoid becoming dominated by any political party, because the fundamental objective of acting where and when it can in the interests of its own members becomes secondary to the interests of the political party. Whatever government may be in power, trade unions must be free to follow their collective policies, independently.

The policy of a trade union must not be determined on whether it suits one political party or another (Feather 1971 : 38).

Trade unions which are independent that is, where decisions are made only by their membership, free of domination by employers, governments and political parties have a better chance of settling their members' grievances than attending election manifestos. This could lead towards the establishment of the improved standards through high wages, shorter hours and these would result in better housing, more educational facilities, proper health and social security provisions (Feather 1971 : 39).

4.6 Trade Union Objectives

The objectives of trade unions centre around the economic and social well being of the workers. A major objective of all trade unions is to negotiate tangible benefits for their members. The objectives of trade unions can be classified as: economic, job security, social welfare, job regulation, socio-political and individual development.

4.6.1 Economic Objectives

According to Bendix (1989 : 48) the main objective of a trade union is maintenance or improvement of the economic status of its members.

Mulvey (1976) cited in Salamon (1987 : 77) states that a trade union in carrying out its economic regulation function is seeking to maximise some aspect of the wage/employment relationship.

The objective of trade union wage policy is to secure the maximum real wage consistent with full (or high) employment of a union's membership.

The trade union's economic function has two important aspects:

- * It has tended to stabilise wage variations by eroding or eliminating personal differentials within groups of employees and by reducing occupational or industrial differentials
- * Whilst economic factors may support and strengthen trade union wage bargaining during periods of economic growth, trade union strength may mitigate the impact of these market forces during times of recession.

4.6.2 Job Security

The trade union ensures security of employment and income for its members. Another role with regards to job security is to ensure that members are not subjected to unfair dismissal. Compensation packages are usually negotiated for members who are to be retrenched (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-35).

4.6.3 Social Welfare

Trade unions provide services such as, benefits for illness, death, funerals, accidents, pension and pregnancy. They also improve the physical working environment through their efforts to improve safety.

4.6.4 Job Regulation

Trade unions attempt to establish a joint rule making system which both protects their members from arbitrary management actions and allows them to participate in decision making within the organisation for which they work.

According to Salamon (1987 : 81) the trade union seeks on behalf of its members to limit management's power by not only challenging their decisions and actions but also, wherever possible, establishing joint regulation. In so doing the power and authority structure within the organisation based on management prerogative is replaced by a system of jointly determined rules, particularly procedural which regulates not only the employer/employee relationship but also the organisational relationship between the company and the trade union.

The job regulation role of the trade union has been supported by legislation in a number of areas, for example, the provision requiring management to consult trade unions in a redundancy or in cases where workers are retrenched.

4.6.5 Socio-political Aims

Workers have a stake in the social and political systems which dominate their lives and trade unions have to represent the interests of their members in these spheres. Trade unions could influence the government to change legislation (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 4-36).

4.6.6 Individual Development

The last objective of a trade union is to promote the moral, physical and intellectual well being of each member. This is achieved through workers becoming members of a trade union and can count on support of other members during their hardship.

At times, trade unions offer other facilities for their members such as social gathering and opportunities for education and training (Bendix 1989 : 50).

According to Salamon (1987 : 86) the importance of the trade union, in terms of individual self-fulfilment lies in its role in decision making:

- * The trade union's own internal system of government wherein the member is encouraged to attend the branch meeting and become involved in the administration of the organisation as well as participate in the discussion and decision making associated with the development of trade union policy on a range of social and political issues as well as economic and industrial matters
- * The collective bargaining system in taking decisions which affect the members' terms and conditions of employment.

The individual member may become actively involved in these systems by being appointed or elected to positions of responsibility and authority such as shop stewards, branch officials, delegate to local or national committees.

There are wide differences in the methods and strategies adopted by various trade union movements to attain their objectives, as there are in their organisation and structure. The differences, however, lies in the means rather than ends and are attributable to historical and traditional factors.

Industrial democracy has long been an objective of trade unions. It implies giving workers a bigger say in and control over the management of their industrial working lives. The discussion on various countries will show how trade unions have succeeded to a greater or lesser degree in making progress towards their goal of democratising the workplace by using worker participation programmes.

4.7 Federal Republic of Germany

4.7.1 Trade Union Growth in Germany

According to Smith (1981 : 178) the long term growth of German trade unions displayed four basic features. Firstly, the degree of disunity within the movement. Secondly, the negative attitude of employers towards the trade union movement. Thirdly, the active role played by the State and Law. Fourthly, developments on industrial democracy and co-determination.

Trade unions were strongly opposed by the State and employers during Germany's Imperial era, but won significant social and political roles in the post - 1918 Weimer Republics. The trade unions were all abolished by Hitler in 1933. The divisions within

trade unions were caused by political and religious differences. As a result, trade unions formed later were based on the principle of independence of political parties. At the same time, the traditional system of craft unions was abandoned and trade unions were organised into 16 industrial unions representing each major industry. The unified structure of German trade unions facilitated negotiations between employer and trade unions (Vollmer 1973 : 466).

4.7.2 Structure and Organisation of Trade Unions

The Federal Republic of Germany has four major union confederations namely: the German Trade Union Federation (DGB), the Confederation of German Civil Service Officials (DBB), the German Salaried Employees Union (DAG) and the Confederation of Christian Trade Unions of Germany (GB). A smaller confederation caters for senior executives.

4.7.2.1 The German Trade Union Federation (DGB)

The German Trade Union Federation exercised a greater national authority and influence over its affiliated trade unions. In 1949, this federation adopted a policy, stressing demands for full employment and maximum efficiency in the use of national resources, co-determination with management, nationalisation of key industries, a fair share in the national economic product and help for the elderly, the sick and the disabled.

The trade unions participated actively in adult education activities through their well equipped training centres.

The DGB maintained good relations with the employers' organisation responsible for labour and social matters. The federation and its affiliated trade unions claimed to be independent of any political party, though they are primarily social democrat in outlook (Stewart 1974 : 103).

4.7.3 Collective Bargaining and Industrial Relations

Under German law, the worker was guaranteed freedom of association. The implication was every employee had the right to form associations for the preservation and advancement of employment conditions. The law also recognised the individual's right not to belong to a trade union and the closed shop principle was illegal.

The Federal Republic of Germany had a dual system of collective bargaining : trade union bargaining and works council. Collective agreements between trade unions and employers were normally negotiated at a local, regional or federal level. The agreements laid down minimum wages and working conditions. By law, collective agreements between trade unions and employers were legally binding. During the period covered by wage agreements, both sides had to maintain absolute peace, neither strikes or lockouts were permitted. Anyone breaking the agreement would be liable to costly damages.

The right to strike was recognised by the German constitution. All trade unions in Germany however, regarded this right as an ultimate weapon to be used only in extreme circumstances. Each strike must be approved by the executive council of the trade union.

In cases where a strike was planned, the trade union had to take into account the business circumstances of the industrial group concerned and also the general economic situation. The trade union would also weigh the necessity of a strike with the demands of public welfare. A strike must be directed at the employer concerned as sympathy strikes were prohibited (Vollmer 1973 : 46).

4.7.4 Developments in Industrial Democracy

The Federal Republic of Germany adopted two forms of worker participation that is works councils and co-determination. The German system of participation ensured that management kept close touch with its employees mainly by informing them of its major plans and listening to their ideas, wishes and suggestions (Cullingford 1976 : 22). Works councils had to be consulted on all social, personnel and industrial matters which could affect workers.

The works council system was beneficial to industrial relations in Germany in three ways:

- * It tended to create or at least favoured a democratic balance of power between employers and workers
- * It secured friendly co-operation between management and works councils as representative of all workers of the enterprise
- * It aimed at promotion of industrial peace on the shop floor.

Through their works councils, workers in Germany achieved such influence and power that they participated with management in all social, personnel and economic matters (Vollmer 1973 : 471).

One of the main pillars of the German trade union's philosophy was their belief in co-determination. The purpose of the system of 1951 was to ensure that every citizen would participate on a basis of full equality in every economic, cultural and political decision affecting the country.

In 1976, the system of co-determination was extended to all German companies with more than 2000 employees. Workers were given a share in making economic and industrial decisions thus establishing democratic control and management of the economy (Stewart 1974 : 108).

According to Vollmer (1973 : 471) co-determination had substantial advantages for workers. Workers had come to know that their interests were watched and promoted in both the supervisory and management boards. This led to substantial improvements in occupational pensions, health schemes and other social amenities offered by employers. Through their representatives workers could obtain full information about financial situations and other company plans. In wage negotiations they had a very clear idea of what type of effect pay rises would have on their company.

4.8 United Kingdom

4.8.1 Trade Union growth in United Kingdom

Since industrial relations began in Britain, trade unions have older traditions in that country than elsewhere. The earliest trade unions were formed by skilled craftsmen. Widespread unionisation of semiskilled and unskilled workers began in the late nineteenth century. White collar unions only emerged after the Second World War. British trade unions could be classified as craft, general, industrial and white collar.

Trade union expansion, militancy and success characterised the two decades prior to the First World war. During the years 1900 to 1926 trade union leaders revolted against the reduction in real wages by the government. The next two waves of militancy culminated in the collapse of the Triple Alliance of Railway, Transport and Mineworkers in 1921, followed by the abject failure of the General Strike called by the Trade Union Congress in 1926. On these occasions, the whole trade union movement supported the miners' attempts to prevent reduction in money wages (Smith 1981 : 124).

The Trade Disputes Act of 1927 severely curtailed trade union power. In the late 1920's and early 1930's employers and trade unions drew close together. Both parties were confronted with falling prices and the economy was in bad shape. The change in attitude among the leadership of both sides of industry was followed by rising prices, declining unemployment and a revival of the downward trend in trade union membership in the year 1933.

In the 1940's there was an improvement in real wages. During the Second World War average earnings increased more rapidly than prices. Both the government and the Trade Union Congress endorsed the doctrine of full employment for the post-war period. The gains of the Labour government included the repeal of the Trade Disputes Act, which enabled trade unions to re-affiliate to the Trade Union Congress.

Price control, rationing and food subsidies were continued at a time when physical shortages of materials and food as well as improving the balance of payments, dominated government policy. A programme of nationalisation was also undertaken. In 1951 when the Conservatives returned to office, they reversed the reform process which was initiated by the Labour Party (Smith 1981 : 125).

In 1971 the Conservatives introduced the Industrial Relations Act. The shop stewards were adversely affected by this Act. When the Labour party came to power in 1974, it repealed the Industrial Relations Act and enacted its own Trade Union and Labour Relations Employment Protection Act. Some of the features of the Employment Protection Act were in turn repealed by the Conservatives Employment Act of 1980 (Smith 1981 : 130).

4.8.2 Structure and organisation of Trade Unions

The combined effects of trade union growth and amalgamations produced a complex structure. This structure led to multi-unionism in Britain that is evident in private sector manufacturing industry.

The problem of inter-union disputes was solved by having multi-union negotiating committees both at workplace and industry levels. Britain's main union confederation is known as the Trade Union Congress (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 36).

The Trade Union Congress was originally set up in 1868. One of its main functions was to elect the general council, which acted as a governing body and spokesman for the trade unions.

According to Bamber & Lansbury (1987 : 38) the Trade Union Congress had no direct role in collective bargaining and could not implement industrial action. Through the Trade Union Congress the trade unions sought direct representation in Parliament. This led to the formation of the Labour party in 1906. Individual trade unions could affiliate to the Labour party and had to support candidates in government elections.

4.8.3 Collective Bargaining and Industrial Relations

Collective bargaining is the most important method of pay determination in Britain. For workers in the less organised industries, there was a network of wage councils responsible for determining minimum remuneration and holidays. These councils were composed of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives and an additional number of independent members. The content of collective agreements was for the parties to determine, although they were basically concerned with terms and conditions of employment.

Collective agreements were not legally enforceable, backed only by the relative power of the bargaining parties and their wish to maintain mutual goodwill (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 44).

The closed shop principle was an important feature of British industrial relations. According to Smith (1981 : 148) there were two basic kinds of closed shop. By a pre-entry closed shop, the trade union aimed at controlling the supply of labour by restructuring entry to the trade union and by insisting that jobs be offered only to individuals who were already trade union members.

In a post-entry closed shop the employer was given recruitment autonomy but new appointees had to join the trade union as a condition of employment. Many employers agreed to the closed shop principle to ensure that shop stewards represented the workforce and as a means of stabilising industrial relations for example, by controlling trade union activities in the workplace.

4.8.4 Development in Industrial Democracy

One of the distinguishing feature of the British system of industrial relations was the role of shop stewards. Shop stewards were elected at the workplace and represented all workers in a particular industry. Their function was to act as a spokesman for all workers on all conditions of employment. They negotiated on piece work rates, hours of work and many other workplace issues in bargaining practices.

Shop stewards were incorporated into the formal company level bargaining machinery (Stewart 1974 : 198 & Doeringer 1981 : 155).

4.8.5 The role of the State

The British State intervened in labour relations by acting as a third party in employer-employee relations. Conciliation and arbitration services were formerly provided by a government department. Later these services became independent of the government and were then offered by private sector. The Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service was governed by a tripartite council consisting of employer, trade union nominees and government nominated academics.

The Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service served to advise employers and trade unions on all aspects of industrial relations and employment policies (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 43-44).

Trade unions in Britain accepted legislative intervention only to the extent that their rights could be established and increased. They were, however, unprepared to accept restraints on their bargaining positions except in incomes policy situation. They were unwilling to accept intervention in enforceability of contracts, especially where this had connotation that the trade union had to accept legal responsibility for actions of its members (Doeringer 1981 : 164; 167).

4.9 The United States of America (USA)

4.9.1 Trade Union growth in USA

The industrialisation of the United States of America which was somewhat later than that of Britain, began in the period 1810-1840. From the mid 1820's to 1860 manufacturing developed in a broad range of industries, with textiles being among the most significant. Prior to 1850 production was mainly in workers' homes. The origins of American trade unions could be traced to the end of the eighteenth century with the appearance of a skilled craftsmen's organisations.

In 1869 the Knights of Labour emerged and managed to organise a broader range of workers. The Knights were against the prevailing system of industrial relations that is, the wage system and wanted to return to the old system of small-scale independent craftsmen, farmers and merchants. The popularity of the Knights declined and craft unions were formed in the 1950's (Smith 1981 : 155).

The American trade unions could not achieve recognition because of the role played by the State. The State regarded trade unions as conspiracies in restraint of trade. Three aspects of law were disadvantageous to the growth of trade unions. One aspect was to prevent an employer's business from being damaged by industrial action for instance, strikes and lockouts. The second aspect was the use of yellow dog contract by which employers could require of their new employees that they would not join trade unions, and any trade union organiser seeking to organise such employees could then be charged with inducement of breach of contract.

The third aspect was the use of antitrust legislation to control trade unions (Smith 1981 : 158).

In 1932 the yellow dog contract was outlawed by the passage of the Norris Law Guardian Act. The National Industrial Recovery Act of 1933 protected the rights of workers to join trade unions. In 1935 the Wagner Act was passed which encouraged the practice of collective bargaining and created fair labour practices to prevent employers interfering with employee rights and to make them bargain in good faith.

It was during the Great Depression of the 1930's that American trade unions penetrated mass production industry and organisation of large numbers of factory workers. Deteriorating working conditions, a changed political environment and the strategy of mass organising campaigns led to the unionisation of cars, steel, rubber and coal industries (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 :58).

4.9.2 Structure and Organisation of Trade Unions

The three levels of trade union organisations were local, national and federation. The local union in America was more powerful and better organised than its counterparts elsewhere. The local unions performed the day-to-day work (duties) of the labour movement. They conducted bargaining over terms of new agreements.

The national union was the strongest single entity in the system. It is controlled by the national convention.

The convention made decisions with regards to policy issues, changes in the constitution and disciplinary proceedings (Smith 1981 : 168).

The American Federation of Labour Congress of Industrial Organisations (AFL-CIO) was a federation of national unions. Since the American Federation of Labour was craft based some trade unions favouring individual principle of organisation broke away from it to form the Congress of Industrial Organisations in 1935. The American Federation of Labour (AFL) was forced to respond to the challenge of Congress of Industrial Organisations by becoming more aggressive in its organising and changing its structure.

In 1955 the American Federation of Labour (AFL) and the Congress by Industrial Organisations (CIO) merged to form one body the AFL - CIO. The Federation served as the chief political and public relations voice for the American labour movement. It resolved jurisdictional disputes among its members and enforced codes of ethical practices and policies against racial and sex discrimination (Smith 1981 : 169 -170; Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 67).

4.9.3 Nature of Industrial Relations

According to Bamber & Lansbury (1987 : 60) the industrial relations system in the United States of America was made up of two distinct sectors; unionised sector and non-union sector. The unionised sector was characterised by adverse relations between labour and management. Both trade unions and management performed functions of serving rather discrete and fundamentally opposed interests.

The non-union was characterised by broad management discretion and control over the terms and conditions of employment. Management in this sector argued that the firm had to offer favourable conditions of employment to employees. A unity of interests between managers and employees thus made trade unions to be unnecessary.

4.9.3.1 Developments in Industrial Democracy

Collective bargaining which determined the outcomes of the unionised sector was highly developed in the United States of America. Collective agreements covered wages, hours of work, holidays, pensions, health insurance, life insurance and the handling of grievances (Bamber & Lansbury 1982 : 71).

In the non-union sector employers devised a set of personnel management practices to determine pay and working conditions.

With respect to conditions of work, non-union employers established job design in two principle ways. Firstly, the conventional management theory based in Taylor's approach was used on which jobs were standardised. Jobs were designed in such a way as to maximise efficiency. Secondly, the behavioural science approach looked at motivation of workers to provide efficient and high quality production. It aimed at designing jobs in such a way that a worker could achieve his goals and the employer's goals at the same time (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 70).

In the 1980's there was discussion on development of worker participation for the purpose of improving productivity and product quality. Most firms established quality circles to serve this purpose. Interest also developed in the concept of quality of working life. The programmes ranged from flexible working hours to benefit programmes where an individual worker chose schemes for worker participation in decision about how work was to be done (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 72).

4.9.3.2 The role of the State

According to Bamber & Lansbury (1987 : 67) the State's role in industrial relations was the direct regulation of terms and conditions of employment, regulation of the manner in which organised labour movement relate to each other and as an employer. The direct regulation of terms and conditions of employment were in the areas of worker safety, unemployment compensation, minimum wages, hours of work and retirement. Since 1964 the state prohibited discrimination in employment on the grounds of race, colour, sex, religion, national origin or age. The government addressed problems of worker safety through the Federal Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970, State health and safety laws and worker's compensation laws. The Federal Occupational Safety and Health Act mandated a safe workplace, by imposing a general duty of safety on employees and by providing a detailed set of regulations for each industry. Employers violating safety and health standards could be fined. Worker's compensation laws provided for medical care and income protection for workers injured on the job.

Through the National Labour Relations Act of 1935, as amended in 1947 and 1959, government provided a structure of rules governing employee rights with respect to collective action. These rights were made effective through the establishment of an election process for workers to choose whether they would like a trade union representative and the prohibition of certain unfair labour practices on the part of employers and trade unions (Bamber & Lansbury 1987 : 69).

4.10 Yugoslavia

4.10.1 Trade Union growth in Yugoslavia

Self management as a form of worker participation in Yugoslavia had its own real social base in the liberation movement. Self management was not only the voluntary act of the political elite but was a transformation of the liberal movement, based on political participation and economic participation of those employed.

The period of liberalisation was characterised by the decentralisation of State management, the transformation of imperative planning into indicative planning and the development of the market. The results of liberalisation were manifested in rapid economic growth and increasing regional and social differentiation (International Research Group 1981 : 219).

4.10.2 Industrial Relations System

The self management system of the Republican and Community Assemblies was clearly manifested in the Chamber of Associated Labour. These Chambers made decisions concerning labour relations, labour protection, regulating the growth of regional economy and the quality of production and services. In other matters such as economic plan, fiscal policy the Chamber of Associated Labour consulted with other Chambers and Republican Assembly.

The second system of regulating the relations between economic organisations and social services was based on Self Management Associations of Interest (SMAI). The SMAI's were required by law in the fields of education, health, social security service and cultural activity at the community and republican level. They were administered by delegates from economic organisations which financed social services and by delegates employed in other social services. In this way the work organisations, through their own delegates had a direct influence on the development of social services and social environment.

The third system was that of social compact and self managements. Social compacts were contracted between government organs, economic chambers and trade unions. The compacts were concerned with policies like procuring, personal incomes, employment and planning.

The fourth aspect of industrial system was that of Courts of Associated Labour. These courts arbitrated all controversies concerned with labour relations in

work organisations resolving them through the social attorney of self management included in the composition of associated labour (International Research Group 1981 : 228).

4.10.3 Structure and Organisation of Trade Unions

The current design of trade union organisation reflected the major steps taken to redesign the self management system embodied in the 1974 constitution and the 1976 Law on Associated Labour. The legislation stressed that the foundation of workers' control over economic, social and political affairs should rest on the self management bodies established within enterprises in the basic organisations of associated labour.

Most Yugoslav enterprises were associations of basic organisations of associated labour termed work organisations. At times, larger enterprises joined a number of work organisations from different sections to form complex or composite organisations of associated labour.

Yugoslav trade unions were organised on a territorial basis within the overall framework of the Confederation of Trade Unions of Yugoslavia. At the Federal and Republics level the trade unions were differentiated by industry and at the commune and work organisation level they were unified meaning all employees in a work organisation belong to the same trade union (Pravda & Ruble 1986 : 198).

The Confederation of Trade Unions of Yugoslavia

The Confederation of Trade Unions in Yugoslavia was formed in 1919. This confederation played an important role in the Yugoslavia trade union movement. It could make a direct input into the formulation of government policy and federal level's.

The Confederation of Trade Unions urged the case for inflation control in Yugoslavia to be achieved by reducing excessive investment and public expenditure and not by restraining incomes and consumer spending.

The Confederation attempted to highlight the severe problems of the lowest paid workers whose living standards had fallen sharply. To this end, the Confederation pressed strongly for a more active social policy to be introduced in Yugoslavia to support those most in need (Pravda & Ruble 1986 : 213).

4.10.4 The Role of Trade Unions under Self Management

The role of trade unions within the self management system was to ensure the participation of workers in self management and that workers played a role in social responsibilities. Trade unions had to guard against dominance within the enterprise by managers and technical experts at the expense of workers (Trade Unions of the World 1989 : 427).

At the enterprise level, trade unions were responsible for the establishment of basic organisations of associated labour, work

organisations and composite organisations of associated labour. Trade unions supervised the elections when workers elected representative on workers councils, executive boards and disciplinary commission. On issues of particular importance to workers such as job description, work practices and incomes, no decision could be reached by workers' council without consulting the trade union and seeking its opinion.

Certain arrangements and legislative requirements were used by trade unions to monitor an enterprise. Firstly, trade union could request the publication of all relevant information relating to business performance. Secondly, trade unions were obliged to participate in the negotiation of self management agreements which regulated internal relations within basic organisation of associated labour and enterprises. Thirdly, trade unions were to make contributions to the work of workers' supervisory committees within the enterprise. (Pravda & Ruble 1986 : 203, 205).

The trade unions monitored the total income of the enterprise and that allocations were made according to self management agreement. This was done by allocating proportions of income to investment, joint consumption, expenditure in social fields and personal incomes. With regards to personal incomes, trade unions were to protect the living standards of the lowest paid. This was done by raising the income levels of the lowest paid or by pressing enterprises to subsidise meal and transport costs (Pravda & Ruble 1986 : 207).

4.11 Poland

4.11.1 Historical background and Development of Polish Trade Unions

Polish trade unions had a long and militant tradition going back well before World War 1. By the 1930's almost a fifth of the labour force was unionised. The trade unions were based on industrial, religious and political divisions. The development of Polish trade unions were mared by four major crises : 1956-1958; 1970-1971; 1980-1981 and 1981-1990.

4.11.1.2 1956-1958

In 1956 there was worker's riot at Poznan. This resulted in fifty workers being killed. The bureaucracy of the central union apparatus, the lack of power of local branches and their dependence on management and communist party all came under fire during discussion on trade union reform. Steps were taken toward internal democratisation and consequently workers participation was promoted through the establishment of workers' councils.

4.11.1.3 1970-1971

The 1970 strikes on the Baltic Coast brought the trade union issue to the fore. The strike committee called for the resignation of the entire Central Trade Union Council and the creation of independent trade union that would defend and support the working class. The main weaknesses of the trade union movement were union bureaucracy, inefficiency and timidity in the face of management and government.

Consequently, trade union had to change their consultation style by concentrating on defending and representing their members' interests (Pravda & Ruble 1986 : 127).

4.11.1.4 1980-1981

There was disappointment among workers because trade union reforms could not be implemented. However, the disappointment was softened by the increase in real wages and living standards. There was economic decline which resulted in protests by workers. It was during these protests that efforts were made to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the trade union movement. In August 1980 worker's solidarity movement was born in Poland. It came about in a wave of protests and strikes by workers against the hardships and oppression of Stalinist's socialism (Pravada & Ruble 1986 : 128).

4.11.1.5 1981-1990

In 1981 the Prime Minister of Poland ordered the arrest of all regional and national leaders of solidarity movement. In 1982 the solidarity movement was banned by government. The government wanted to crush solidarity but the plan did not work because workers had underground structure for their organisations at factory regional and national levels. There was communication breakdown and this led to divisions among members. At that time solidarity leaders were seen to be distant from workers and to be more close to conservative intellectuals.

For instance, leaders no longer talked about worker control; instead they were interested in market reform and to follow models of western capitalism (Workers' World 1991 :8).

In 1986 Solidarity leaders were released from prison. An alliance was formed by the government, the church, the international bank and Solidarity leaders to take Poland down the road of market reform. In 1987 a referendum on market reform and political democracy was held. Even though a low percentage of the population voted for the support of these reforms, the Prime Minister implemented reforms and turned the economy towards capitalism. Foreign capitalists started investing while State enterprises were privatised. These reforms, resulted in escalation of prices, wages being frozen and workers threatened with unemployment. Consequently, there was a wave of strikes from one place to another.

Lech Walesa who was the leader of the solidarity movement offered peace to the government and support for market reform if solidarity was unbanned. The government conceded to Walesa's plan. In 1989 Solidarity leaders were invited to take part in negotiations at the Round Table Talks. At these talks it was decided that Solidarity would be unbanned, Poland would follow market reform and that elections to new Parliament would be held in June 1989. A new government led by Solidarity movement was formed. By the end of 1990 the Solidarity government with its reform policy had made life harder than ever for the Polish people.

Industrial production dropped and millions of people were faced with unemployment. Polish capitalism resulted in greater inequality and hardship among people. In December 1990 Lech Walesa was elected President, he offered no new policy that would bring relief to Polish people instead he promised more capitalist reforms (Workers' World 1991 : 10).

4.11.2 Solidarity - Historical Background

Touraine (1981 : 2) regarded solidarity as more than a trade union. Solidarity was a workers' movement born in the factories where it was fighting repression but it was also a national movement and a struggle for the democratisation of society. Solidarity was devoted to defend and extend the well being of its members, their families and the community in which they live. Power and control came from members at the grass roots level. The task of the leadership was to co-ordinate the decisions and actions of members (Workers' World 1991 : 6).

The Structure and Organisation of Solidarity

The way a trade union is structured in any given country reflects its origin, its policies and sometimes the nature of the employers that it has to deal with. In Poland there was the Central Council of Trade Unions (CRZZ) and under that was Metal Worker's Union, Railwayman's Union and Printer Worker's Union. Before 1939, Polish trade unions were a mixture of socialist, communist, catholic and jewish unions; in addition they were craft and industrial linked. This structure did not provide a model for Solidarity to follow (MacShane 1981 : 67).

Solidarity's organisation was based on a regional structure. The official Solidarity structure showed a three-tier level. At the bottom level it is the plant or factory followed by the region and lastly by the national level. This structure was based on a system of direct and indirect democracy. At the factory level, 500 or more employees could establish a Solidarity structure and elect the office bearers. In small enterprises, inter-factory Solidarity branch could be elected (Pravda & Ruble 1986 : 151).

The inter-factory branch were to elect regional delegates. These branches dealt with matters concerning health and safety, holidays, home allocations sports and social facilities as well as finance. Weekly meetings of work section representatives were held, while office bearers were approachable in the rooms set aside for Solidarity inside factories (MacShane 1981 : 76).

At the regional level, Solidarity representatives were brought together for regular discussions. The purpose of these discussions was to keep members in touch of what was happening at plant, regional and national levels, the committee consisted of all representatives at the regional level. The debates at the National Committee were recorded on cassette recorders so as to be played by regional representatives for their constituencies (MacShane 1981 : 75).

4.11.3 Solidarity's Achievements

The main aim of a trade union is to defend and improve living standards of its members through the mechanism of securing wage increases, holidays and shorter working hours. Workers were consulted about changes in the plants or factories. In some cases pressure from Solidarity led to the dismissals of inefficient managers.

4.11.3.1 Health and Safety

The major complaint of Polish workers was poor level of health and hygiene standards in factories. Workers were exposed to dangerous machinery, fumes, dust and mineral fibres. They were protected against these dangers only when there was trade union pressure or government legislation. The accident rate decreased when Solidarity structures were established at the plant level. (MacShane 1981 : 80).

4.11.3.2 Day to Day Life

In most factories there were joint Solidarity management committees responsible for housing allocation, medical care, pensions as well as sports and recreation club. In communist societies more emphasis was placed on providing services or facilities via the workplace rather than external community organisations. MacShane (1981 : 84) stated that Solidarity changed and improved the quality of life in ways which wage rises could not express. The existence of Solidarity forced changes in the workplace and social relations.

4.11.4 Self Management in Poland

The question of what form of self management was to be created in order to democratise economic enterprise and administrative structures throughout Poland dominated policy consideration in 1981. This mainly came about because the economy was in bad shape and reforms were needed to correct the situation. Staple foods like mealies, butter, sugar, cooking oil and flour had to be rationed because they were in short supply. Exports slumped while industrial production declined considerably. Consequently investments came to a halt due to the unstable political situation. All these factors had an impact on Solidarity (MacShane 1981 : 86).

A joint commission constituted of the government and Solidarity was set up to discuss economic reform. Solidarity defined economic reform in this manner : "There should be a high degree of independence in price and labour policy of enterprises, which should be allowed to combine together on a voluntary basis. Self management of the enterprise should be through the creation of workers' councils, which would be independent of Solidarity. Price reform should aim at creating the production of goods based on a greater sensitivity to market forces" (MacShane 1981 : 89).

4.11.5 Workers' Control

Solidarity members were divided on the issue of workers' control of plants or factories. Some argued workers and trade unions must stay aloof from

economic and management decision making and act to defend worker's interests when they were under threat. Others argued that workers should be involved in the decision that impacted on their lives before those decisions were made, and not merely to react against management decisions when it was too late.

Workers' councils were legislated in 1945. They failed mainly because they had a double role as co-managers of the plant and problem solvers for workers.

These councils were again set up in 1956 but lasted for little more than twelve months. The main problem was that they lacked power and could be incorporated into management and thus be rendered impotent. (MacShane 1981 : 90-91).

4.12 South Africa

4.12.1 Industrialisation and the Creation of the Working Class

South Africa as an undeveloped country was dominated by an agrarian economy whereby a large majority of its people were engaged in agricultural activities.

There were merchants and craftsmen to supply services needed by various communities, but there was no industrial activity although machinery in the form of printing presses was used to print newspapers. Employment relationships that existed at that time were individualistic and paternal and they were governed by the Master and Servants Act of 1941.

Worker representation was non-existent especially between Black workers and White employers (Bendix 1989 : 286).

The Master and Servants Act was amended in 1856 to provide for harsh punishment of Black servants who defaulted in their work. This Act provided for tightening up of the measures concerning employer - employee relations. Employees could be imprisoned for failing to commence work at an agreed date, for being absent from work and also for improperly performed work (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 45).

4.12.2 Origin and Growth of Trade Union

The first trade unions in South Africa catered for skilled workers. The main objective of these trade unions was to represent skilled White workers and to protect their status in the mining industry. The first documented trade union was the Carpenter's and Joiners Union founded in 1891. The establishment of other branches of British trade unions soon followed and they immediately emphasised the colour bar and identity of the English worker, by excluding Afrikaans speaking workers and Blacks.

Some of the trade unions that were established at that period were: White South African Mine Workers' Union in 1902; Witwatersrand Trades and Labour Council in 1902; Transvaal Federation of Trades in 1909; Cape Federation of Labour Unions in 1913; South African Industrial Federation in 1914; Building Workers' Industrial Union in 1917; Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union in 1918 and the South African Council of Organised Workers in 1920.

All these trade unions excluded Blacks because they were regarded as providing cheap and unskilled labour (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-4).

Skilled workers kept their labour scarce by limiting trade union membership, thereby maintaining job standards which prevented job fragmentation. While skilled labour for the mines could be provided by overseas recruitment, there was no pool of unskilled labour to draw on as the majority of Black peasants were still subsisting on land, it was thus necessary to import Indian labour to work on the sugar plantations in Natal. With the opening up of the diamond fields, there were Black peasants willing to go to mines for a short duration in order to earn money to purchase guns (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1989 : 14).

Black workers who had been imported to work on the mines, were paid far less than the rest of the labour force. With increased mechanisation, it was discovered that skilled jobs could be broken down and be performed by cheaper Black, unskilled or semi-skilled labour. This posed an enormous threat to the skilled White work force.

As a result, the first regulation instituting an industrial colour bar was introduced in 1897. This was followed by the Mines and Workers Act of 1911 which reserved most jobs for White mine workers (Bendix 1989 : 287).

Laws were passed which regulated the movement of Blacks to different towns. In order to ensure that the labour supply remained cheap, the pass laws compelled Blacks to look for jobs in specific districts where employers mostly wanted labour.

The economic situation of Blacks was further worsened by the fact that the Chamber of Mines agreed upon a maximum wage to be paid to Black workers. Other controls over Black workers were implemented by means of the compound system which ensured a social division between White and Black workers (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1989 : 15).

The Anglo Boer War which took place in 1899 till 1902 drove many Whites to towns. As a result of the war, a new class of poor, unskilled and dispossessed White emerged. These Whites also posed a threat to skilled workers. At that time, mine management was also working on ways of reducing the high cost of skilled labour. The work procedure had to be restructured to accommodate the new supply of White labour. The response was a militant struggle by White labour to maintain the differential skilled and unskilled labour (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-5).

In 1884 South Africa had its first taste of violence on the mines when five workers were killed and forty injured at the Kimberley Diamond Fields. The strike arose out of a refusal by White workers to be searched for illegal diamonds at the end of their shift, a practice already applicable to Black workers.

Another strike started at the Deep Mine which spread across the Witwatersrand area. It resulted from unsatisfactory economic and social conditions on the mine. It was after the 1907 strike that the government recognised the need to pass further legislation dealing with employer - employee relations. Legislation was promulgated by way of the Industrial Disputes Prevention Act 19 1909. This enactment failed to achieve its objectives because White trade unions attempted to exert pressure on the Government to persuade it to pass laws to protect White workers.

The number of strikes by Black workers between 1901 and 1907 compelled the government to promulgate legislation pertaining specifically to them. The Black Labour Regulations Act of 1911 was promulgated to regulate Black labour matters in a changed labour environment. This act recognised the rights of Blacks and employers and offered protection for Blacks working on mines. One main weakness of this Act was that it made no provision for collective bargaining and negotiation between employers and Black workers.

From 1910 White trade unions became aware that they might achieve their objectives by actively participating in the political system. As a result many of these workers joined the newly formed South African Labour Party and later the Afrikaner Nationalist Party. This party in turn pressurized the government to accept the demands of White trade unions (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 49).

The trade union movement suffered severe setbacks as a result of the events emanating from the general strike of 1922. In order to understand the results of the 1922 strike it is necessary to review its historical antecedents. After the First World War the world experienced an economic crisis which severely affected the gold price. In 1921 the gold price declined sharply and manufacturing firms faced competition while White unemployment increased dramatically due to factories being closed. The strike was caused by the Chamber of Mines when it notified White trade unions that wages had to be reduced (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-7).

The Industrial Conciliation Act of 1924 was promulgated mainly for two reasons, the first reason being labour oriented and the second one being politically oriented. The Act aimed at making provision for the prevention and settlement of disputes between workers and employers. It formed part of the overall policy of providing preferential employment opportunities to White workers as opposed to Blacks in an attempt to alleviate the poor White problem.

This Act provided the necessary machinery for settling disputes in industry by means of the establishment of a system of individual councils and the registration of White trade unions and employer organisations. Section 24 of the Act was of particular importance, since the term employee was defined to exclude a person whose contract of service or labour was regulated by any Black Pass Laws and regulations or by the Black Labour Regulation Act of 1911.

In terms of the definition of an employee, the majority of Black male workers were excluded from membership of any trade unions. Black females were not compelled to carry passes. It was clear that Blacks were excluded from collective bargaining (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 52).

Bendix (1989 : 290) states that the primary purpose of the Industrial Conciliation Act was to prevent Industrial unrest, by providing machinery for collective bargaining and for conciliation should a dispute arise. The Act and subsequent amendments provided for conciliation boards and industrial councils and placed a sanction on strike action. It also provided for mediation and arbitration, the latter being compulsory in essential services. The Industrial Conciliation Act provided a sound basis for the more orderly conduct of the labour relationship between employers and White employees. However, no trade union representing Blacks could register under the Act, since the definition of employee excluded pass bearing Blacks.

The Wage Act of 1925 was passed aimed at establishing machinery for the formulation of conditions of service and minimum wage levels for workers when they were unorganised. The Wage Act allowed for the establishment of minimum wage rates for all employees, irrespective of race, in industries where collective bargaining structure were not sufficiently developed. It could be concluded that this Act was aimed at Black workers since White trade unions had well developed collective bargaining structures (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 52).

4.12.3 The Growth of Manufacturing and Service Industries 1948 to 1972

The prosperity engendered by the gold mining industry had resulted in rapid growth in the manufacturing and service sectors. Unionisation of employees in these industries had already occurred. The South African Trade Union Congress formed an umbrella body which encouraged the development of industrial unions.

During the 1930's there were divisions between English and Afrikaans speaking Whites. This led to the formation of the Afrikanerbond now known as the Broederbond. The aim of the body was to capture a share of the wealth of the country for the Afrikaner nation. The following trade unions were formed in opposition to the existing trade unions namely, the Afrikanerbond van Mynwerkers and Afrikanerbond van Klerewerkers. This trade movement promoted the development of a cohesive Afrikaner group by stressing race rather than class.

The movement transformed the White workers' perception of the role of a trade union into that of a protector of White worker security rather than an expression of working class ideology (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 209).

4.12.4 Apartheid and Trade Unions

The first trade union organising Blacks appeared as early as 1917, followed by the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union of Africa in 1919. In South Africa the factors that led to the formation of Black trade unions were different from those of White

workers. In most cases Black trade unions came about due to the effects of the First World War, but prior to it Blacks made little effort to organise themselves in the face of hostility from White capital, labour and the State. Another factor which facilitated the unionisation of Black workers was the rate of strikes and consumer boycotts which highlighted worker grievances and the need for a mechanism for organising these protests. The strikes created a conducive climate for the formation of trade unions (Ncube 1985 : 26, 28).

During the 1930's some Black trade unions affiliated to the White dominated South African Traders and Labour Council (SATLC) while other Black trade unions joined the council of Non-European Trade Unions. However, Black trade union activity was suppressed after the National Party came to power in 1948; in addition the South African Traders and Labour Council was disbanded in 1954 and replaced by the Trade Union Council of South Africa (TUCSA) (Trade Unions of the World 1989 : 330). The National Party appointed the Botha Commission to investigate the labour legislation.

Bendix (1989 : 295) stated that the Botha Commission argued that if parity representation was granted to Black employees in the industrial sector, it would lead to equality between races. This would put White supremacy at stake. As a result, the commission recommended separate bargaining bodies for Black and that Black Trade Unions should be subjected to stringent conditions and that their strike action be made illegal.

The Trade Union Council of South Africa which was formed in 1954 excluded Black trade unions from affiliation. In response to this exclusion former South African Traders and Labour Council (SATLC) members formed the South African Congress of Trade Unions (SACTU) in 1955 and merged with the Council of Non-European Trade Unions in the same year. The South African Congress of Trade Unions developed as the highly politicised organisation arm of the African National Congress (ANC). In 1962 the South African Congress of Trade Unions (SACTU) was crushed by the government and as a result operated underground. Black trade unionism had made little organised expression by the end of the 1960's (Trade Unions of the World 1989 : 330).

The Black Labour Relations Regulation Act was passed in 1953 and its main objective was to avert trade unionism among Blacks, by allowing for the establishment of workers' committees. The statutory industrial relations structure for Black workers was made up of the central labour board, regional committees, works committees and liaison committees. A Central Labour Board consisted of White officials appointed by the Minister of Labour.

Their functions were to advise the Minister on the settlement of disputes and conditions of employment. The Regional Committees consisted of Blacks appointed by the Minister under the chairmanship of the White labour officer. The functions of the regional committees were to maintain contact with employees and labour inspectors and to assist in the settling of disputes as well as to represent the interests of employees.

The works committee was intended to be a front line communication channel between African workers on the one hand and their employer on the other. This committee was made up of worker representatives only. They were to be established in any firm employing more than twenty workers. The main functions of a works committee were:

- * To communicate the wishes, aspirations and requirements of the employees in the establishment
- * To represent the employees in negotiations with the employers (Maree 1987 : 130)

Liaison committees consisted of representatives from both the employer and employees. The chairman of this committee was to be designated by the employer. The functions of a liaison committee were:

- * To consider matters which are of mutual interest to the employer and employees
- * To make recommendations concerning conditions of employment and any other matters affecting employees (Maree 1987 : 130).

The committee system remained the only legitimised form of Black worker representation until 1979. A major short coming of the committee system was that Black workers were still not being represented by trade unions in the industrial council system.

In 1956 the Industrial Conciliation Act No. 28 which repealed the Industrial Conciliation Act No. 36 of 1937 was passed.

This act became the new basis for labour legislation relating to collective bargaining. It introduced far reaching discrimination into labour affairs because Black workers were excluded from registered trade unions and the Act also included a prohibition on the registration of new mixed trade unions. The Act introduced a system of job reservation whereby a particular occupation could be legally reserved for a particular race. The legislative reforms of 1953 and 1956 showed that South Africa practised a truly dualistic system of worker representation. Statutory Black representation was only possible with the committee system and was impossible through the trade union structure. Whites, on the other hand could use the trade union structure for representation (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 56 & 59).

In 1977 the Black Labour Relations Amendment Act No. 84 was promulgated which amended Act No. 48 of 1953 and sought to improve the position of Black workers, particularly the negotiation machinery. In terms of the Act it became possible for Blacks to fill jobs previously held by Whites. In 1977 the government appointed the Wiehahn Commission to investigate the labour legislation (Nel & van Rooyen 1985 : 62).

According to Ncube (1985 : 115) the reasons for conducting the investigation were:

- * As a consequence of the rapid economic growth and the scarcity of skilled manpower amongst White to meet the market demands of the economy, increasingly semi-skilled and unskilled Blacks had to be trained

- * The dualistic industrial relations structure of industrial councils at industry level and works committees at factory level without a connecting link, was causing problems for registered trade unions as well as management
- * Due to the alarming rate of strikes there was an increasing fear that labour conflicts might escalate and effective structures for institutionalising these conflicts were required
- * The unprecedented proliferation of unregistered Black trade unions was also a cause for concern, particularly in view of the fact that these trade unions were receiving moral and financial support from foreign political and labour organisations which regarded them as agents of change.

4.12.5 Post 1979 Developments to date

The aspects of the Wiehahn Commission's recommendations had important implications for employers in so far as trade unions were concerned. They were extensions of trade union rights to all employees in South Africa regardless of race or colour. These recommendations provided for the cancellation of statutory job reservation and the creation of the industrial court, taken in conjunction with the proposed enactment of Fair Employment Practices legislation.

The Wiehahn Commission's major recommendations were:

- * Granting of freedom of association to all workers irrespective of race and status as migrant or commuters

- * Autonomy of trade unions in deciding membership criteria (as a result mixed trade unions be allowed)
- * Provisional registration for new trade unions
- * Abolition of job reservation
- * Continuation of the closed shop practice
- * Apprenticeships to be open to all races
- * Appointment of a National Manpower Commission
- * Restructuring of the industrial tribunal into an industrial court to adjudicate on disputes of rights and interests (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1989 : 20-21).

According to Ncube (1985 : 117) the Wiehahn Commission recommended that fundamental worker rights embodied in the International Labour Organisation (ILO) conventions should be enshrined in labour legislation and be applicable to all workers. The rights consisted of : the right to work, the right to training, the right to freedom of association, the right to collective bargaining and the right to protection. The recommendations of the Wiehahn Commission were regarded as a milestone in South Africa's labour reform which moved away from the traditional practice of racial segregation to an intergrated, unitary labour relations system.

Further reforms of labour legislation were introduced by the government in the 1980's. There was rapid growth of both registered and unregistered trade unions which were politically inclined. With the increase in the rate of strikes, Blacks became more militant. As a result of these developments the government amended the Industrial Conciliation Act in 1981 and renamed it the Labour Relations Act.

The Act abolished the dual system of individual relations in South Africa by deleting all references to race and repealing the Black Labour Relations Regulation Act (Maree 1987 : 21).

Works councils were introduced in the 1980's. These councils were made up of workers and employer representatives. Liaison committees could be changed to works councils whilst works committees could not serve any purpose as they did not have management representatives (Maree 1987 : 163).

In the absence of any real participation in the central government of South Africa, Black resorted to trade unions as articulators of their interests and grievances. The South African environment made it inevitable that Black trade unions confront broader political issues. They had to fight for increases or increment in wages and improvement in working conditions as well as the removal of discriminatory legislation system based on race.

4.12.6 South African Trade Unions : Trade Union Council of South African (TUCSA)

The Trade Union Council of South Africa was founded in 1954 and ceased to exist in 1986. It responded weakly as the apartheid state introduced racial segregation into the trade union movement during the 1950's and 1960's.

The Trade Union Council of South Africa assumed a vacillating position regarding Black worker membership in that it initially excluded unregistered trade unions, thereby excluding Blacks.

In 1954 this council out rightly excluded Black trade unions and were again invited to affiliate in 1959. This change could be attributed to international pressure and the council was interested in portraying an image of a multi-racial and sympathetic body which represented Black trade unions (Ncube 1985 : 104).

The Trade Union Council of South Africa (TUCSA) was committed to:

- * The promoting and advancing the dignity, rights, socio-economic and cultural well-being of all workers in South Africa, through responsible and recognised collective bargaining
- * To furthering the economic, social and cultural advancement of all workers
- * To resisting all attempts by any political party to exploit the trade union movement for political ends
- * To opposing all forms of discrimination
- * To opposing forced labour and exploitation of cheap labour
- * To the belief that the future prosperity of South Africa and all other nations depends on the widest recognition of workers as equal partners in the field of socio-economic development (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-23; 2-24).

4.12.6.1 South African Confederation of Labour (SACOL)

The White-only confederation was founded in 1957. This federation merged from a split in the South African Trades and Labour Council because of the Council's intention to admit Black workers.

Its role was that of protector of White supremacy and exclusivity. One of its main aims was the preservation of jobs and opportunities for Whites and the prevention of Black worker participation in industrial relations (Bendix 1989 : 321).

The South African Confederation of Labour was committed to:

- * Furthering and protecting the position, identity and interests of the worker
- * Preserving White culture, traditions and identity
- * Acting as a pressure group to influence state policy by representing workers on various state - initiated boards and committees, both nationally and internationally.

The South African Confederation of Labour was closely allied to the State. This alliance was mainly for ensuring protection and preservation of the White worker's economic position. This federation was opposed to skilled and unskilled Black workers advancement, regarding that as a threat to the White worker's security of employment, wages and socio-economic well-being. It was a major critic of the Wiehahan Commission's recommendation which advocated free trade union rights to all races and de-racialisation of the South African labour legislation (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-30).

4.12.6.2 Federation of South African Trade Unions (FOSATU)

The Federation of South African Trade Unions was established in 1979 as an independent, non-racial

federation despite its Black trade union roots. FOSATU believed that workers in general had a common problem and that racial divisions would weaken their solidarity. It formulated the policy of organising semi-skilled and unskilled workers who were predominantly Black, although the leadership of FOSATU was mixed and elected on the basis of capability as opposed to race (Ncube 1985 : 120).

According to Maree (1987 :229) FOSATU's objective was that of building effective organisational base for workers to play a major role in the political arena. The federation aimed at contributing to the wider liberation struggle and ensuring that workers were able to further their interests.

FOSATU's aims were:

- * To secure social justice for all workers
- * To strive towards a united labour movement independent of race, colour, creed or sex
- * To bring together all craft and small trade unions into industrial unions
- * To secure decent standards of living, social security for all members of affiliated trade unions and the working class as a whole
- * To comment on, advance or oppose any policy of any authority or institution affecting worker interests (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-31).

4.12.6.3 The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU)

COSATU was launched on 30 November 1985. It represented the largest trade union federation in

South Africa. From the outset, COSATU set itself a dual economic and political role. The economic role concerned lower wages being paid to workers. This economic problem in turn developed into a political issue. It was argued that the struggle of workers on the shop floor could not be separated from the wider struggle for liberation.

COSATU's aims were:

- * To organise the unorganised workers and build effective trade unions based on the democratic organisation of workers in factories, mines, shops, farms and other workplaces
- * To strive for the building of a united working class movement regardless of race, colour, creed or sex
- * To understand how the economy of the country affects workers and to formulate clear policies as to how the economy would be restructured in the interest of the working class
- * To work for a restructuring of the economy which will allow the creation of wealth to be democratically controlled and fairly shared
- * To strive for just standards of living, social security and fair conditions of work for all
- * To facilitate and co-ordinate education and training of all workers so as to further the interests of the working class (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1992 : 221).

COSATU was committed to the development of strong national unions which were democratic, representative and accountable.

The principle of worker control and worker democracy was central to the leadership role of the working class.

COSATU as a trade union federation is closely allied to the African National Congress (ANC). Most trade unionists in COSATU see their task as supporting, strengthening and democratising the ANC. COSATU trade unionists believe the liberation movement (ANC) is extremely important for the development for the union federation. According to Naidoo as cited in South African Labour Bulletin "The alliance is a very important vehicle for us to achieve our ends. The forces against us are very powerful - big business, imperialism and a powerful state. We ourselves will need a powerful state orientated towards the working class, the ANC has to be strong" (von Holdt 1991 : 18).

According to Mayekiso as cited in the South African Labour Bulletin, in order for the trade union movement to change society it needs to influence other organisations like political organisations. He states that the federation needs a strong ANC which is biased towards the poor and the working class. For this to materialise, workers should strengthen the ANC both through its alliance with COSATU and through joining and working within it (von Holdt 1991 : 27).

Most trade unionists in COSATU believe that the ANC is the only political organisation which can lead the struggle against apartheid and lay the foundations for a democratic South Africa.

This will mean strengthening the alliance between the ANC and COSATU (von Holdt 1991 : 29).

4.12.6.4 The National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU)

The National Council of Trade Unions was formed in 1986. It was the amalgamation of the Council of Unions of South Africa (CUSA) and the Azanian Confederation of Trade Unions (AZACTU). Its founding principles of worker control were based on non-racialism; Black working class leadership and financial accountability within trade unions (Baskin 1991 : 158).

The major difference between NACTU and COSATU were in the part played by Black leadership in the liberation struggle and participation of Whites within the labour movement. NACTU was aimed at the development of Black leadership. Although NACTU denied being a Black consciousness body it was linked to the Pan African Congress (PAC) and the Azanian People's Organisation (AZAPO). Members of the federation were encouraged to participate in the wider struggle for liberation (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-49).

There is a move towards restructuring NACTU to meet its future needs and this could be facilitated by moving closer to unity in action with COSATU.

There are certain problems which need to be resolved for this unity to materialise. The main issue is that of politics. NACTU, as a working class organisation, is not officially aligned to any political organisation as is COSATU, which is aligned

to the ANC. NACTU claims to support a political platform that is in the interests of the working class. The implication is that NACTU retains its own independence enabling it to criticise any political organisation which might affect the interests of the working class (Zikalala 1991 : 48).

According to Ngcukana as cited in South African Labour Bulletin "a trade union federation can be a parliament of the working people coming from various ideological backgrounds. It is only in such a federation that we can adopt a political programme which will defend our interests. This will also safeguard our independence, since we will not be aligned to any political organisation (Zikalala 1991 : 48).

4.12.6.5 United Workers Union of South Africa (UWUSA)

UWUSA was the first trade union movement to be formed directly by a political body, despite its claims of non-involvement from Inkatha. In line with the Inkatha policy, UWUSA supported the free enterprise system and opposed sanctions against South Africa. This made it more acceptable to some employers (Bendix 1989 : 345).

UWUSA's aims were:

- * To unite all workers of South Africa regardless of race, colour, creed or sex in the pursuit of economic justice in the country of their birth as their contribution to the liberation of South Africa

- * To ensure that workers have a democratic right to direct their trade union leaders to express attitudes, values and aspirations
- * To support members in their demands that management recognise sound industrial relations which can be achieved only within the framework of sound human relationships which are fostered by fair treatment and conditions of employment
- * To promote leadership proficiency in their skills to achieve standards of living, social security and acceptable working conditions for the country's working class.

UWUSA is committed to the following principles:

- * A totally free and democratic South Africa in which every individual, regardless of colour, creed or sex has full rights to participate in the formation of the government of the country and freedom of political expression
- * A campaign to liberate and free the enterprise system from racist apartheid control and make it a vehicle for the country's working class
- * The promotion of business by both the public and private sectors and investment by foreign investors in a broader commitment to ensure that the country's economy is strengthened so that poverty and disease are banished
- * A fair political, economic and social structure within South Africa, in which freedom, democracy and the need for self-determination and expression are safeguarded and in which there is no form of discrimination (Slabbert, Prinsloo & Backer 1991 : 2-50).

4.12.6.6 The Federation of Independent Trade Unions (FITU)

The Federation of Independent Trade Unions was formed in 1991. The federation claimed to offer an alternative to the existing federations as its principles and objectives were different. FITU claimed to be the only truly integrated multiracial federation in South Africa as its office bearers were representatives of all race groups.

FITU's objectives were:

- * To improve members' standard of living
- * To provide job security
- * To help rebuild the economy so as to create wealth
- * To fight unemployment
- * To create jobs for its members (Finnemore & van der Merwe 1992 : 233 & 234).

4.13 The role of Trade Unions in Worker participation programmes

The essence of worker participation lies in two factors : workers influence and decision making. The question needs to be asked whether worker participation refers to worker's influence on decision making without workers being part of a decision making body or whether it refers to worker's influence through their decision making involvement. In the first case there is room for consultation and in the second there is no consultation.

Indirect participation as a form of worker participation acknowledges the essential role of the trade union. Trade unions are regarded as protective organisations of the exploited workers which improve both the economic conditions and security of the workers. This implication is that trade unions can play an important role in democratising the workplace by extending the degree of workers' participation in the workplace. In many countries where workplace democratization has taken place, the participation of workers in decision making has a strong trade union support and often takes the form of indirect participation through trade union representatives. Collective bargaining which is being used by trade unions as a form of worker participation can be regarded as a channel for labour influence to satisfy different needs and degrees of conflicting interests between employers and employees (Torres 1991 : 3 & 4).

In most cases, trade unions would be unlikely to support worker participation programmes if they are seen to promote management goals of productivity, efficiency and profitability. According to Torres (1991 : 13) "as long as workplace participation has been implemented to a large extent with the purpose of decreasing trade union support, trade unions have a natural interest in opposing it. Management's approach stating that participation is primarily a means towards achieving greater efficiency which should not lead to changes in the control of companies are obviously opposed but trade unions whose interests lie exactly in increasing worker control".

Botsman (1989 : 137) states that "if management alone is allowed to control the development of workplace participation, it will be used primarily for productivity purposes and not for creating a more democratic work life. Unless unions start approaching the concept of workplace participation, the power and initiative will be with employers who will develop employee participation and share ownership schemes designed to exclude unions".

If trade unions decide to formulate a policy concerning workplace participation, the participation by trade union representation may counter the decreased importance of trade unions at the local level as a potential result of national strategies thereby reducing the danger of oligarchy within the trade unions.

By sharing in worker participation programmes, trade unions will gain indirectly by a more active membership as a consequence of the learning process their members experience in the workplace. Trade unions will have limited gains by supporting worker participation if this is confined to the lowest level in the workplace. They will furthermore have limited gains if worker participation is confined to communication and consultation with management without any involvement in the making of decisions (Torres 1991 : 16).

It has been argued that participation at all levels within the workplace will not only increase the workers influence over decisions that affect their lives, but will also directly increase the influence and power of trade unions as organisations.

Trade unions should demand to be the workers' representative in decision making bodies at all levels of the enterprise (Torres 1991 : 16).

4.14 Industrial Relations in the Wider Society

Industrial relations is based on the daily interaction of people at work. The three main actors involved are employers, managers, workers, their representatives and lastly officials of the State. All these actors tend to shape the institutional arrangements in which they operate.

There are three frames of reference in industrial relations : the uniontarist approach, the pluralist perspective and the radical change of view. In terms of the uniontarist approach, the various groups in the business enterprise are assumed to share common interests and objectives. The pluralist approach views the enterprise as a coalition of individuals and groups with different aspirations and perceptions. Conflict is seen as normal in industrial society. In this case, trade unions are seen as legitimate pressure groups within a democratic, free enterprise and as having significant value as partners in the exercise of regularising relations between people in industry. "From this perspective industrial relations is defined as the regulation of relationship between shareholder and employer on the one hand and trade unions and other working groupings on the other, where consultation and negotiation take place on conditions of employment" (Institute of Industrial Relations Information Sheet 1984 : 4).

The radical change perspective views both the uniontarist and pluralist approaches to industrial relations as being conservative. Hyman (1975 : 12) states that industrial relations should be approached in broader processes of social inequality and class struggle. He argues that "industrial relations is the study of processes of control over work relations and among these processes, those involving collective worker organisation and action are of particular action".

Hyman (1975 : 87) states that trade unions do not confine their objectives to solely economic issues, they have often proclaimed far more radical aims : the reconstruction of the social order; the abolition of the dominating role of profit; the establishment of worker's control of industry; the humanisation of work; the elimination of gross inequalities in standards of living and conditions of life; the transformation of cultural richness from the privilege of a minority to the prosperity of all".

The following policies namely : economic, public and legal and political tend to impact on the industrial relations system. The wider structure of the economy impact upon industrial relations. Rates of inflation, unemployment, economic growth and the degree of industrial concentration also impact on industrial relations. A high rate of inflation is conducive to trade union growth and militancy. That is, threats to living standard stemming from a high rate of inflation encourage large number of employees to seek protection through collectivism.

High levels of unemployment tend to reduce union power and enhance managerial attempts to regain control over shop-floor decisions. Industrial concentration can influence density of unionisation and the degree of formalisation of procedures for handling dispute (Poole 1986 : 23 & 24).

"Income policies impact in large measure upon bargaining relationships and restrict the scope of plant based management and union representatives. These policies tend to enhance the role of the State in industrial relations system and the formation of centrally organised bodies of employers and trade unions (Poole 1986 : 21).

Public and legal policies basically refer to interventionist strategies by governments in the employment relationship and the opinions of the broad majority of people. The economic structures of particular societies are related to their political forms. Industrial relations in this case will be explained in terms of liberal democratic, authoritarian, populist and totalitarian systems.

With regard to industrial relations, in "liberal democratic societies, there are likely to be independently organised trade unions and extensive voluntarism in the employment relationship. Under authoritarian - population, independent organisations of labour are not encouraged but limited types of employee participation frequently emerge. Authoritarian - oligarchic regime may be conducive to the emergence of labour organisations but typically in the form of centralised structures which

have little rank and file participation. Finally, under totalitarianism, the organs of labour usually become part of the machinery of State administration: (Poole 1986 : 25).

In developing societies, the role of the State in industrial relations is pronounced, the prospects for advanced personnel and human resourcing techniques are enhanced resulting in improved relations among all actors in industrial relations.

4.15 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the role played by trade unions in industrial relations particularly, in worker participation programmes. A trade union was viewed as a body of workers designed to perform functions to help the workers obtain collectively, better terms of employment and service than they could have expected to get if each individual had to make a private bargain. Trade unions are mainly geared towards protecting and promoting of interests and goals of groups of workers.

The basic needs of workers namely; economic, social and psychological, security are best catered for by a trade union. Worker participation through a trade union provides workers with sufficient leverage through the power of collectivity to compel employer to take cognisance of workers' needs. In this case the trade union is regarded as a source of social support. There are four basic types of social support, namely, emotional, appraisal, informational and instrumental support.

Emotional support can be given to trade union members in the form of friendships with the other members, caring and listening to other members' problems, building morale and co-operation amongst members. Trade unions offer instrumental support every time an agreement is reached on wages and improvement of conditions of its members. The trade union offers informational support in that it can collect information from its members and deliver to management enabling managers to improve the operation of the workplace and the production process. Appraisal support refers to the positive and negative feedback one might give or receive. The trade union is seen as being ideally placed to offer social support to its members (van Duyn & Bleun 1991 : 25 & 26).

This chapter focused on the historical development and creation of trade unions. Different types of trade unions and the purposes they serve were discussed. Trade union growth and development was discussed in terms of the following: Germany, United Kingdom, the United States of America, Yugoslavia, Poland and South Africa. As workers' organisations, the trade unions put across the workers point of view regarding their needs, expectations and satisfaction. It can be stated that workers in a trade union seek a realistic medium through which they can express their feelings and satisfy their needs.

The next chapter will describe a survey that was conducted at two gold mines in South Africa regarding management and workers' perception of worker participation programmes.

CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research methods used to determine management and worker perception of worker participation programmes will be presented. The sample that was used will be discussed and the procedures used to obtain the sample will be described. In order to determine the perception of management and workers, a questionnaire was developed and administered to management and supervisors. The process of developing the research instrument and the statistical techniques used to analyse the data will be described.

5.2 The Research Design

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- (i) To investigate different forms of worker participation programmes and how they are implemented in different companies in selected countries including South Africa.
- (ii) To study perceptions of managers and supervisors on forms of participation at two mining companies in South Africa, namely, Vaal Reefs Gold mine and Ergo mine.
- (iii) Concerning attitudes of supervisors and managers at Vaal Reefs and Ergo mine, the study was focused on direct participation, the

role of trade unions in worker participation, workers' involvement in decision making and on indirect participation.

- (iv) To investigate the relationship between personal attributes such as age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation and perceptions on direct participation, the role of trade unions, indirect participation as well as on workers' involvement in decision making at Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines.

In the context of these objectives, tests of hypothesis were formulated and a structured questionnaire was constructed for purposes of measuring attitudes of worker participation and to relate those attitudes to a selected group of biographical variables.

5.3 Sampling technique and the description of the sample

Kerlinger (1986 : 110) defines sampling "as taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe".

According to Dane (1990 : 289) "sampling is the process of selecting participants for a research project". Sampling ensures that the sample has approximately the characteristics of the population relevant to the research in question.

In this study purposive sampling as an example of non-probability sampling was used to select two mines.

"Non-probability sampling refers to any procedure in which elements have unequal chances of being included" (Dane 1990 : 302). In purposive sampling, units are selected because they possess certain desirable characteristics or because they are important or rare or because they are thought to be representative of an entire group (Warwick & Lininger 1975 : 74).

Two gold mines namely, Vaal Reefs and Ergo, were selected purposively and a few employees from each of the related mines were chosen. The two mines were selected because they had dissimilar characteristics which were thought to influence attitudes differently. Firstly, at Vaal Reefs, there was a history of a strong trade union movement, but this was not the case at Ergo Mine. Secondly, Vaal Reefs had operations spreading over a wide geographical area stretching from Klerksdorp in the Transvaal to Viljoenskroon in the Orange Free State, whereas Ergo Mine was concentrated over a limited geographical area on the East Rand. In theory, this meant that the total workforce at Ergo Mine could be more easily brought together for discussion of management issues than at Vaal Reefs, or one could argue that communication between management and workers at Ergo Mine was easier than at Vaal Reefs.

Thus it was hypothesized that attitudes towards worker-management relations and worker participation programmes would be different at the two mines. The research design was therefore intended to assist in the isolation of a few factors that tend to affect attitudes towards worker participation programmes in different situations.

Two categories of mine employees, namely, managers and supervisors were singled out for comparisons. Managers control the day-to-day running of the enterprise and therefore they identify with employers than with workers whereas supervisors engage in activities that are directly related to the shop-floor environment.

This would then lead one to assume that supervisors identify more closely with workers than with employers. Moreover, supervisors were selected because their general level of literacy was better than that of labourers under their control, which made supervisors more suitable subjects for answering attitudinal questions ranked on a Likert scale.

The purpose for selecting two groups of employees at each mine, was to compare the attitudes between those who identified with employers and those who identified with the workers on the shop-floor.

The subjects involved in the research satisfied the following conditions:

- * They were informed of the nature of the study
- * They voluntarily completed the questionnaires. No restrictions were placed on the variables of sex, race, educational qualifications, levels of management experience or managerial position. Table 5.1 gives a breakdown of the realised sample according to selected variables.

5.1 Demographic information by employee category (N=99)

Table 5.1.1

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>(%)</u>
Male	21	68	89	(89,9)
Female	4	6	10	(10,9)
Total	25	74	99	(100%)
(%)	(25,25)	(74,75)	(100%)	

Table 5.1.2

<u>Age</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>Total</u>
			<u>(%)</u>
20-30 years	3	12	15,15
31-40 years	13	41	54,55
41-50 years	9	15	24,24
51-60 years	0	5	5,05
60-65 years	0	1	1,01

Table 5.1.3

<u>Home Language</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>Total</u> (%)
Xhosa	2	24	26,26
Zulu	0	7	7,07
Sotho	0	9	9,09
Setswana	0	2	2,02
Tsonga	0	1	1,01
Siswati	0	1	1,01
Ndebele	0	1	1,01
English	9	8	17,17
Afrikaans	9	11	20,20
Dutch	1	0	1,01
Not stated*	4	10	14,14

Table 5.1.4 (in present position)

<u>Length of service</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>Total</u> (%)
Less than 2 years	6	17	23,23
3-10 years	18	42	60,61
11-15 years	1	11	12,12
16-20 years	0	4	4,04

Table 5.1.5 (in present organisation)

<u>Length of service</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Supervisors</u>	<u>Total</u> (%)
Less than 5 years	15	13	28,28
5-10 years	7	24	31,31
11-15 years	2	26	28,28
16-20 years	1	6	7,07
21-30 years	0	2	2,02
31-40 years	0	3	3,03

* Questionnaires were incomplete.

5.4 Procedure

Having consulted the manpower resources managers of the selected mines and having explained the nature of the research, the questionnaires were then distributed to the managerial staff only. Access to the supervisor sample was obtained via the worker organisations as well as through management.

At each of the selected mines a type of stratified sample was drawn. In a stratified sample the whole population is first divided into two or more parts called strata. In this case the population was divided into management and supervisors. Due to their small numbers, all managers at the two selected mines were included in the sample. However, the supervisor sample was randomly selected using the following procedure. Trade unions were approached to find which supervisors belonged to them and a list was compiled. As for supervisors outside the trade unions, the comparable list was obtained from manpower resource managers. The actual supervisor sample was obtained using a table of random numbers; proportional allocation was used in selecting unionized and non-unionized supervisors according to the size of their groups.

Subjects who participated in the study were made aware of the purpose of the investigation and were asked to answer all the questions as honestly as possible. The anonymity of participants was stressed and ensured by not asking for a respondent's names.

A total of 120 questionnaires were administered, but 21 could not be used in the study due to incomplete responses. Consequently, the research was based on a sample of 99 subjects. The questionnaire will be described in the following section.

5.5 Research Instruments

The research instrument used in the study was a questionnaire divided into sections and it consisted of the following:

- * Biographical information
- * Attitude questions based on worker participation.

5.5.1 Biographical Information Form

Biographical data which was asked for, included the subject's age, sex, home language and education qualifications.

Subjects were asked to indicate their position, length of service in present position and length of service in present organisation. They were also asked to indicate whether they were members of any trade union and also to state the name of the trade union.

5.5.2 Questionnaire

Items for the questionnaire were derived from a review of the literature concerning worker participation programmes. The purpose of the

questionnaire was to establish management and worker attitudes toward worker participation programmes and to determine to what extent workers have been included in the decision making process.

The questionnaire was developed along the lines of a summated rating or Likert type scale. According to Black and Champion (1976 : 186 - 187) the Likert type scale is "by far the most popular of all measurement methods".

The questionnaire consisted of 41 statements which were concerned with worker participation programmes. The aspects included were:

- * Decision making
- * Direct participation
- * Indirect participation
- * Structures of participation
- * Trade Union
- * Benefits of participation.

In the questionnaire five response alternatives were presented for each item. These alternatives ranged from strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree and strongly agree and were weighted from a score of 1 (strongly disagree) to a score of 5 (strongly agree).

According to Dane (1990 : 272) "Likert scale consists of items reflecting extreme positions on a continuum with which people are likely to agree or disagree".

According to Kerlinger (1973) the ability to offer five response choices and thus provide for differing degrees of attitude expression, is the main advantage of summated rating scale. This is because such a variety of choices provides "an opportunity for a greater variance of results".

In an effort to summarize and reduce the data to a limited number of factors, and to analyse the associations between variables, various statistical procedures were utilized. These procedures will be described in the next section.

5.6 Statistical analysis of data

Three statistical procedures were used to analyse the data revealed by the questionnaire. The following techniques were used:

- * Factor analysis : this procedure was aimed at the summarization and reduction of data to a limited number of dimensions or factors
- * T-test: was used to determine whether there was a difference in the means between two groups
- * Pearson's correlation co-efficient: was used to assess the relationship between variables.

5.6.1 Factor analysis

"Factor analysis is a category of multivariate statistical methods. The purpose of a factor analysis is to reduce a set of variables or measures to a small number of hypothetical variables" (Suen & Ary 1989 : 184).

Weiss (1976 : 328) cited in Dunnette states that multivariate procedures can be helpful since they can provide an organising function. "Procedures of factor analysis are designed to reduce a large number of variables into a small number which are more easily comprehensible to the observer".

Factor analysis is the appropriate method for multivariate covariation analysis if the objective is to study the structure of a set of variables or to generate or refute hypotheses about structure. In using factor analysis, the investigator is concerned with determining whether there are underlying, unobservable (factors) variables which account for the observed covariation among variables. "The distinguishing characteristic of a factor analysis is that the variance of each variable is broken up into its underlying sources and distributed among a new set of variables which are the factors" (Dunnette 1976 : 350).

Kerlinger (1983 : 568) defines a factor as a "construct, a hypothetical entity, a latent variable that is assumed to underlie tests, scales, items and indeed, measures of almost any kind".

According to Nunally (1978) cited in Suen & Ary (1989 : 184) "factor analysis is a method that would produce evidence of content, criterion related as well as construct validity. Hence, factor analysis is most frequently associated with construct validation".

The factors were extracted using the orthogonal factor model. The orthogonal factor model "leads to easier interpretation since it is not necessary to take into account the relationships among factors in generating descriptive hypotheses for the factors" (Weiss in Dunnette 1976 : 355).

The method of rotation used was the varimax method. According to Weiss cited in Dunnette (1976 : 355) "varimax rotations yield orthogonal factors which approximate simple structure but do so by simplifying the description of each factor in the factor matrix".

Varimax rotation is suitable for interpreting the underlying factors or understanding the factor composition of the set of variables.

5.6.2 T-test

Usually, one of the purposes of research is to generalize, that is, to relate the findings gathered from the research situation to other situations. Generalization requires the use of inferential statistics based on a given sample of qualities or quantities existing in a larger group of individuals (Dane 1990 : 235 & 237).

T-test is one type of inferential statistics used to analyse descriptive research data. The principle underlying t-test is the assumption that both groups whatever they may be, represent samples from two normal populations with equal variances. The t-test method is most commonly used to determine whether there is a difference between two means.

Essentially a two-sample t-statistic is the difference between two means divided by the corresponding estimated standard error, that is, a t-statistic is the difference between two means calculated in standard units; the smaller the absolute t-value, the greater is the evidence concerning the equality of the two corresponding population means, and vice versa.

5.6.3 Pearson's Correlation Co-efficient

The final statistical procedure that will be used is the Pearson product moment correlation co-efficient commonly known as Pearson's r. Pearson's r is a parametric statistical procedure which is more powerful than its non-parametric counterparts and is ideally suited for situations where variables are continuous.

Correlations estimate the extent to which the changes in one variable are associated with changes in the other variable. The correlation co-efficient itself represents the degree of association (Jaccard & Becker 1990: 402).

Pearson's r will be used to measure the degree of linear association between variables. The Pearson's product moment correlation co-efficient can take on values between - 1 and + 1. A value of 0,00 suggests that there is no linear relationship between the two variables.

A large positive correlation coefficient indicates that large values of one variable are associated with large values of the other variable, whereas a large but negative correlation coefficient, suggests that the variables tend to move in contrary directions.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter the research methodology used to determine the perceptions of managers and supervisors on worker participation programmes, was discussed. The sample that was used in the research was described and the procedures used to obtain the sample were discussed. The statistical methods that were used to analyse the data and the relationship among variables were also described. The results of this analysis will be presented in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6 THE PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results of the statistical investigation used to assess management and worker perceptions of worker participation programmes will be presented. The relationship between variables as determined by Pearson's correlation co-efficient will be presented as well. Similarly, the results of the factor analysis procedure whose purpose was to reduce and summarize the data into a limited number of factors, will be presented. The T-test procedure was used to compare the means of two groups of respondents.

6.1.1. Hypothesis 1

There is a significant difference in the perception of managers and supervisors on the participation of workers in the decision making process in Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines.

The "participation of workers in the decision making process" was measured by adding the scores on the following items:

- (i) Worker participation implies joint management by workers and managers.
- (ii) Managers seek workers' opinions.
- (iii) Managers consult workers on routine matters.
- (iv) Briefing groups improve worker participation.
- (v) Non-managerial workers are involved in the participative process.

- (vi) Semi-skilled workers are involved in the participative process.

The results for Vaal Reefs and Ergo mine on participation of workers are presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 T-test of the difference between managers and supervisors on the participation of workers in decision making at Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.

Mine	Group	No	Mean	Standard deviation	t	Probability
Vaal Reefs	Managers	13	18,38	3,404	3,668	0,0006*
	Supervisors	38	14,08	3,730		
Ergo	Managers	12	19,08	4,522	1,463	0,1502
	Supervisors	36	16,72	4,937		

* $P < 0,05$

A comparison of the managers and supervisors at Vaal Reefs indicates a significant difference between the mean scores on participation of workers in decision making ($t = 3,668$, d.f. = 49, $p = 0,0006$); however at Ergo mine, a similar comparison revealed no significant difference in the perception of managers and supervisors ($t = - 1,463$, d.f. = 46, $p = 0,1502$).

6.1.2 Hypothesis 2

There is a significant difference in the perception of managers and supervisors on the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.

The "role of trade unions" was measured by adding scores on the following items:

- (i) Indirect participation is practised through trade unions.
- (ii) Worker participation is closely identified with trade union activity.
- (iii) Trade unions enable workers to control employment conditions.
- (iv) Trade unions are legitimate for handling labour disputes.
- (v) There should be trade union representation at board level.
- (vi) Workers are satisfied with indirect participation through trade unions.

Table 6.2 T-test of the difference between managers and supervisors on the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines

Mine	Group	No	Mean	Standard deviation	t	Probability
Vaal Reefs	Managers	13	18,92	2,253	-6,274	0,000*
	Supervisors	38	24,82	3,109		
Ergo	Managers	12	19,67	3,143	0,0737	0,9416
	Supervisors	36	17,78	3,432		

*P< 0,05

Table 6.2 summarizes the results on the perception of managers and supervisors regarding the role of trade unions at Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines. The results indicate that, at Vaal Reefs, supervisors perceive the role of trade unions to be very important as compared to managers contrary to the situation at Ergo Mine where the difference between mean scores of managers and supervisors is not statistically significant (Vaal Reefs: $t = - 6,274$, d.f. = 49, $p = 0,000$; Ergo mine: $t = 0,0737$, d.f. = 46, $p = 0,9416$).

6.1.3 Hypothesis 3

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors regarding direct participation of workers.

"Direct participation" was measured by adding the scores on the following items.

- (i) Direct participation should be confined to on-the-job matters.
- (ii) Direct participation and trade unions is a better combination for workers.
- (iii) Workers are satisfied with direct participation.
- (iv) Worker participation is meaningful when information is shared with workers.
- (v) Briefing sessions improve worker participation in management.
- (vi) Quality circles offer opportunities for participation.
- (vii) Employee share ownership schemes play an important role in decision making.

Table 6.3 T-test of the difference between the perceptions managers and supervisors on direct participation in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines.

Mine	Group	No	Mean	Standard deviation	t	Probability
Vaal Reefs	Managers	13	19,92	3,067	3,956	0,0002*
	Supervisors	38	16,26	2,816		
Ergo Mine	Managers	12	20,67	2,936	-0,7089	0,4820
	Supervisors	36	28,14	5,260		

*P < 0,05

From Table 6.3 it is apparent that at Vaal Reefs, the difference in mean scores of perception on direct participation of workers between managers and supervisors is statistically significant. However, at Ergo mine, a similar t-test did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of managers and supervisors on direct participation of workers (Vaal Reefs: $t = 3,956$, d.f. = 49, $p = 0,0002$; Ergo mine: $t = -0,7089$, d.f. = 46, $p = 0,4820$).

6.1.4 Hypothesis 4

There is a significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors on the forms of indirect participation.

In this study "indirect participation" by workers in management was measured by adding the scores on the following items:

- (i) Indirect participation is practised through trade unions.
- (ii) Workers are satisfied with indirect participation through trade unions.

Table 6.4 T-test of the difference between managers and supervisors on the forms of indirect participation.

Mine	Group	No	Mean	Standard deviation	t	Probability
Vaal Reefs	Managers	13	5,23	1,301	-1,776	0,082
	Supervisors	38	6,16	1,717		
Ergo mine	Managers	12	5,58	1,782	-1,026	0,3104
	Supervisors	36	6,17	1,682		

On Vaal Reefs mine as well as Ergo mine, there is no significant difference in the perceptions of managers and supervisors regarding indirect participation. (Vaal Reefs: $t = -1,776$, d.f. = 49, $p = 0,082$; Ergo mine: $t = -1,026$, d.f. = 46, $p = 0,3104$).

6.1.5 Hypothesis 5

There is a significant relationship between each of the biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation) and decision making in Vaal Reefs and Ergo Mines.

In this study "decision making" was measured by the total score on the following items.

- (i) Consultation involves workers in decision making.
- (ii) Shop steward system facilitates decision making for trade unions.
- (iii) Worker participation implies that workers and management are jointly involved in decision making.

The strength of the relationship between demographic variables and decision making was measured by the Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, r . Table 6.5 summarises the results.

Table 6.5 Pearson r correlation coefficient between biographic variables and decision making in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines.

Mine	Biographic variables	Correlation r with decision making (probability in brackets)
Vaal Reefs	Age	0,1126 (0,4313)
	Education	0,4683* (0,0005)
	Length of service in present position	-0,1827 (0,1993)
	Length of service in present organisation	-0,0855 (0,5511)
Ergo mine	Age	-0,0383 (0,7962)
	Education	0,1666 (0,2574)
	Length of service in present position	0,1840 (0,2106)
	Length of service in present organisation	0,1945 (0,1852)

* $p < 0,05$

The relationship between age and decision making was not significant. The relationship between education and decision making was significant at Vaal Reefs but not at Ergo mine. At both mines the relationship between length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation and decision making, was not significant.

6.1.6 Hypothesis 6

There is a significant relationship between the perception on trade union and each of the following biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position and length of service in present organisation).

Table 6.6 Pearson r correlation coefficient between the perception on trade union and each of the following biographical variables.

Mine	Biographic variables	Correlation r with perception on trade union (probability in brackets)
Vaal Reefs	Age	-0,0758 (0,5970)
	Education	-0,5824* (0,0001)
	Length of service in present position	0,3028* (0,0308)
	Length of service in present organisation	0,3178* (0,0230)
Ergo	Age	-0,2264 (0,1219)
	Education	0,0845 (0,5679)
	Length of service in present position	-0,0231 (0,8763)
	Length of service in present organisation	-0,0477 (0,7475)

* $P < 0,05$

At Vaal Reefs mine, the relationship between age and perception on trade union was not significant (Table 6.6). The relationship between education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation and perception on trade union were significant. At Ergo mine all the demographic variables were not significantly related to perception on trade union.

6.1.7 Hypothesis 7

There is a significant relationship between each of the biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation) and direct participation.

Table 6.7 Pearson r correlation coefficient between biographic variables and direct participation in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines.

Mine	Biographic variables	Correlation r with direct participation** (probability in brackets)
Vaal Reefs	Age	0,0730 (0,6110)
	Education	0,4633* (0,0006)
	Length of service in present position	-0,2195 (0,1217)
	Length of service in present organisation	-0,1904 (0,1809)
Ergo mine	Age	0,0399 (0,7877)
	Education	0,0690 (0,6410)
	Length of service in present position	0,1616 (0,2724)
	Length of service in present organisation	0,0836 (0,5721)

* $P < 0,05$

** For a measure of direct participation, see under Hypothesis 3 in this Chapter.

At both mines there was no significant association between the biographical variables and direct participation, except for education and direct participation at Vaal Reefs ($r = 0,4633$, $p = 0,0006$).

6.1.8 Hypothesis 8

There is a significant relationship between each of the biographical variables (age, education, length of service in present position, length of service in present organisation) and indirect participation.

Table 6.8 Pearson r correlation coefficient between biographic variables and indirect participation in the Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines.

Mine	Biographic variables	Correlation r with indirect participation* (probability in brackets)
Vaal Reefs	Age	0,0566 (0,6931)
	Education	-0,2230 (0,1157)
	Length of service in present position	0,1852 (0,1932)
	Length of service in present organisation	0,1738 (0,2226)
Ergo	Age	-0,1645 (0,2640)
	Education	-0,0490 (0,7411)
	Length of service in present position	-0,0802 (0,5878)
	Length of service in present organisation	-0,0643 (0,6643)

* Indirect participation as measured in this study, see Hypothesis 4 of this Chapter.

Table 6.8 shows that, all the demographic variables including age, education, length of service in present position and present organisation, were not significantly related to indirect participation at both mines.

6.2 Factor analysis : Presentation

Six factors were extracted both for Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines data on the grounds that at least 56% of the total variance was explained (Ergo mine 56% was explained whereas at Vaal Reefs 75% of variance was explained by the six factors). In both cases the Principal Component method with varimax rotation were used in the extraction of the factor loadings.

In the two cases, the factor structures were not identical (Table 6.13 and 6.14). We first present the Vaal Reefs and then afterwards present the results for Ergo mine. In Table 6.13 and 6.14 factor loadings less than 0,5 in absolute value, were not shown.

6.2.1 Vaal Reefs factor structure

The first factor at Vaal Reefs accounted for 37% of total variance. As it is dominated by items describing what worker participation (WP) can do, this factor could be called "benefits of worker participation" (Table 6.13).

Factor 2 could be described as "facilitation of worker participation" and this factor accounted for approximately 15% of total variance.

Factor 3, accounting for approximately 8% of total variance could be described as "shop-floor participation".

Factor 4 could be described as "benefits of share-ownership schemes" although item S31 on direct participation is not congruent with this definition.

The fifth factor which accounts for 5% of total variance could be interpreted as "processes of ensuring worker participation".

The sixth factor has loadings on items that define trade union activity as well as items on structures which facilitate worker participation. This factor accounts for approximately 5% of total variance.

The following symbols were used in Tables 6.13 and 6.14.

KEY to understanding Tables 6.13 and 6.14

Brd = Board
Comb = combination
Comm = communication
CR = conflict resolution
DM = decision making
DP = direct participation
Emply = Employment
ESOPS = Employee share ownership scheme
Hndlg = handling
IP = indirect participation
Mgmt = management
Mgr = manager
Ogr = organisation
PM = participative management
TU = trade union
Wkrs = workers
WP = worker participation

Table 6.13 Factor structure at Vaal Reefs mine

Factor and Percent variance						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	36,6%	14,7%	7,6%	6,2%	5,0%	4,6%
S1 WP improves industrial relations	0,92					
S2 WP provides open forum for CR	0,92					
S3 WP raises level of wkr satisfaction	0,90					
S4 WP contributes to improved work life	0,90					
S5 WP encourages workplace democracy	0,89					
S6 WP enables decisions to be accepted wkrs	0,89					
S7 WP improves quality of decisions made	0,87					
S8 TU and DP is a better comb. for wkrs	0,87					
S9 WP ensures that wkrs have a say in mgmt	0,82					
S10 Semi-skilled are involved in FM	0,81					
S11 WP reduces wkrs resistance to change	0,74					
S12 Non-managerial are involved in FM	0,64					
S13 Suggestions are encouraged		0,81				
S14 Newsletters inform wkrs speedily		0,76				
S15 IP is practised through TU's		0,75				
S16 Wkrs air their views on production matters		0,73				
S17 Wkrs are satisfied with IP through TU's		-0,70				
S18 Consultation involves wkrs in DM		0,63				
S19 WP helps skill acquisition by wkrs		0,62				
S20 WP is identified with TU org.		0,59				
S21 WP is meaningful when information is shared		-0,58				
S22 Mgmt trains wkrs for FM		0,55				
S23 Wkrs exercise imagination & creativity		0,52				
S24 Noticeboard informs wkrs on developments		-0,52				
S25 Safety committees are a form of WP			0,83			
S26 WP implies joint mgmt by wkrs			0,66			
S27 Quality circles offer an opportunity for WP			0,63			
S28 Mgr seeks wkrs opinions			0,50			
S29 Esops gives wkrs a feeling of partnership				0,81		
S30 Esops play important role in DM				0,80		
S31 DP is confined to on-the-job matters				-0,57		
S32 WP is meaningful if wkrs influence decisions					-0,83	
S33 There is TU representation at brd level					0,79	
S34 Steward system facilitates DM for TU's					0,67	
S35 Ogr structure encourages WP in DM					0,60	
S36 TU enables wkrs control of emp'y conditions						
S37 TU is legitimate for hndlg labour disputes						0,68
S38 Briefing improves WP						0,64
S39 Comm system encourages comm between wkrs & mgr						0,52

6.2.2 Ergo Mine factor structure

Factor 1 which accounts for approximately 18% of total variance could be described as the "role of management in worker participation programmes".

Factor 2, accounting for approximately 12% of total variance is much easier to interpret as "benefits of worker participation". This factor resembles the most dominant factor at Vaal Reefs mine (Table 6.13).

Factor 3 could be described as "forms of worker participation", as it combines both aspects of direct and indirect participation. It accounts for approximately 8% of total variance.

The fourth factor could be regarded as forms of communication in worker participation programmes and accounts for approximately 7% of total variance.

Factor 5, accounting for approximately 6% of total variance could be interpreted as "interaction with management".

Factor 6 does not lend itself to easy interpretation due to a combination of items on trade union activity and forms of worker participation.

In comparing Tables 6.13 and 6.14 it became clear that the factor structures of Vaal Reefs and Ergo mine are not identical.

Table 6.14 Factor structure at Ergo Mine

Factor and percent variance						
	1	2	3	4	5	6
	17,9%	11,9%	7,8%	6,8%	5,8%	5,4%
S1 Semi-skilled are involved in PM	0,79					
S2 Non-managerial are involved in PM	0,78					
S3 Mgr seeks wkrs opinions	0,69					
S4 Esops play important role in DM	0,63					
S5 Mgr consults wkrs on routine matters	0,56					
S6 Comm system encourages comm between mgmt & wkrs	0,54					
S7 WP provides open forum for CR		0,84				
S8 WP improves industrial relations		0,69				
S9 WP helps skill acquisition by wkrs		0,62				
S10 WP improves quality of decisions made		0,58				
S11 WP enables decisions to be accepted by wkrs		0,57				
S12 WP contributes to improved work life		0,57				
S13 WP is identified with TU			0,72			
S14 IP is practised through TU's			0,71			
S15 Steward system facilitates DM for TU's			0,66			
S16 TU enables wkrs control of emp'y conditions			0,65			
S17 Esops gives wkrs a feeling of partnership			0,63			
S18 Noticeboard informs wkrs on developments				0,70		
S19 Newsletters inform wkrs speedily				0,68		
S20 There is TU representation at brd. level				0,62		
S21 WP ensures that wkrs have a say in mgmt				0,53		
S22 Wkrs are satisfied with DP				0,51		
S23 Suggestions are encouraged					0,78	
S24 Wkrs air their views on production matters					0,74	
S25 Mgmt trains wkrs for PM					0,66	
S26 Org structure encourages WP in DM					0,59	
S27 Quality circles offer an opportunity for WP						0,66
S28 Wkrs exercise imagination & creativity						0,62
S29 Safety committees are a form of WP						0,58
S30 TU is legitimate for hndlg labour disputes						-0,52

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the presentation of results. Firstly, hypotheses were re-stated and presented together with corresponding t-test results. With regards to Vaal Reefs mine there were differences in mean scores on the following variables: decision making, the role of trade unions in worker participation and on direct participation, between managers and supervisors. As far as Ergo mine is concerned, the t-test did not reveal any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of managers and supervisors. Pearson correlation coefficients were presented to indicate the degree of linear association between variables. It was noticeable that while some of Vaal Reefs correlation coefficients were significant, none were significant at Ergo mine. Lastly, the patterns of perception were analysed and summarised by means of factor analysis. Six factors were extracted both for Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines; their structures were not identical. The next chapter will focus on the discussion of results.

CHAPTER 7 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 The programme of research described above aimed at discovering patterns in attitudinal responses to a questionnaire that was designed to measure attitudes on worker participation programmes at two mines in South Africa. Two groups of workers were singled out for comparison and these groups were managers and supervisors. It was found that at Ergo mine, response patterns for managers and supervisors were close to each other in terms of mean response as revealed by the t-test values which were not statistically significant on a large number of variables including direct participation, indirect participation, worker's involvement in decision making and the role of trade unions in worker participation, (Table 6.1, 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4).

Similarly personal attributes of workers at Ergo mine did not correlate strongly with scores on decision making, direct participation and indirect participation and the perception on trade union (Tables 6.5, 6.6, 6.7 and 6.8).

However, Vaal Reefs indicated statistically significant differences in mean scores between managers and supervisors on the following variables: participation of workers in the decision making process (Table 6.1), the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes (Table 6.2), as well as on direct participation (Table 6.3).

Moreover educational level of respondents at Vaal Reefs was significantly correlated with the score on decision making and direct participation (Tables 6.5 and 6.6). Thus, the workers who were more educated perceived the role of workers in decision making more than those who were less educated. It could be said that education gives greater awareness of the need to participate.

In contrast, at Vaal Reefs mine, education was significantly negatively correlated with perception on the role of trade union in worker participation programmes, that is, workers with higher education perceived less the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes. Perhaps this is a result of the possibility that trade union activity at Vaal Reefs is associated with the less educated workers who are probably numerous and therefore find greater strength by joining a trade union. But does this imply that the more educated workers perceive trade unions as a threat or as ineffective?

At the same mine, it was found that length of service (in present position as well as in present organisation) were both significantly positively correlated with the perception on trade unions. Perhaps those workers at Vaal Reefs who had been long in their present stations, were frustrated and they saw the trade union as a vehicle for voicing their grievances.

The background information collected on Vaal Reefs indicated that the trade union movement was very strong there. From the literature survey there was a lot of evidence to indicate that trade unions in South Africa tend to be militant and political. According to Maree (1987 : 21), with the increase in the rate of strikes in the 1980's, Blacks became more militant and there was rapid growth of both registered and unregistered trade unions which were politically inclined. On the role of trade unions in worker participation, managers and supervisors at Vaal Reefs got significantly different results, with supervisors showing a higher mean score than managers. This could be interpreted to mean that supervisors were more enthusiastic about the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes than managers.

At Ergo mine on the other hand, the difference between managers and supervisors was not statistically significant when mean scores on the perception of the role of trade union in worker participation were compared. This seems to indicate that managers and supervisors were more or less in agreement regarding the role of trade unions in worker participation. But since employers tend to go against trade unions in general it might mean that trade union activity at Ergo mine was not a threatening phenomenon to management. According to Botsman (1989 : 137) if trade unions do not play a role in the development of worker participation then management will develop employee participation and share ownership schemes designed to exclude trade unions. Thus, the implication is that worker participation programmes designed by management mainly serve the purpose of decreasing trade union support.

Workers at Vaal Reefs had significantly different mean scores on direct participation with managers showing a greater disposition towards this form of participation than supervisors. This shows that managers at Vaal Reefs perceive a higher degree of direct participation among workers than supervisors do. This result is consistent with the evidence from Cashbuild concerning trade union involvement in worker participation where, by introducing direct participation so that workers could voice their grievances, management did not consider the involvement of trade unions (Maller 1992 : 60).

Comparing the two situations at Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines it would seem that the main difference between the attitudes of supervisors and managers is due to the differences in the level of trade union activity. This might mean that if one was to influence workers' attitudes towards greater participation one would have to look at the strategy of increasing trade union interest and awareness amongst workers. This is consistent with studies in Europe which indicate that trade unions are a very important instrument in worker participation programmes. In Yugoslavia the role of trade unions within the self management system was to ensure the participation of workers in self management activities (Trade Unions of the World 1989 : 427).

It was observed that the more educated the workers were at Vaal Reefs the greater was the perceived role of worker participation in management and through the role of trade unions (Tables 6.3 and 6.6). This could be because highly educated workers tend to be aware of the needs to control their situation at work and therefore they demand a greater say in the decision making processes of their company, either directly or through trade unions.

What is surprising though, is the fact that education was not significantly associated with direct or indirect participation at Ergo mine. The immediate question becomes : is it possible that management could have involved the educated personnel in various structures which made direct participation as well as indirect participation a reality for them? But this point needs to be systematically investigated.

The results of factor analysis indicated that the patterns in the perceptions concerning worker participation programmes at Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines were not the same. Table 6.13 revealed that for Vaal Reefs, the perceptions tended to cluster around the following dimensions : benefits of worker participation programmes (Factor 1), facilitation of worker participation (Factor 2) and shop-floor participation (Factor 3). As far as Ergo mine was concerned, the structure of perceptions tended toward the role of management in worker participation programmes (Factor 1), benefits of worker participation (Factor 2) and forms of worker participation (Factor 3).

Vaal Reefs being more unionised would probably focus mostly on benefits that accrue to workers through participation; but with Ergo mine where supervisors and managers were more or less in agreement regarding many issues (such as direct participation (Table 6.3), decision making (Table 6.1), it is not surprising that perceptions tended to cluster around the role of management in worker participation programmes. Similar to Vaal Reefs, the Ergo mine factor structure also revealed a dimension toward benefits of worker participation programmes. In this sense, there was a similarity between the perceptions patterns at the two mines.

7.2 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the discussion of results of the two mining companies namely, Vaal Reefs and Ergo. At Ergo mine the pattern of responses were consistent in that managers and supervisors were close to each other in terms of mean response on a number of variables: however, at Vaal Reefs there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of managers and supervisors on a number of variables.

Managers and supervisors at Ergo mine seemed to be in agreement with regards to most items and this was not the case at Vaal Reefs where managers differed from supervisors on some items. It was found that the factor structures of Vaal Reefs and Ergo mines were not identical with the exception of one factor on the benefits of worker participation programmes. It would appear that supervisors at Ergo mine tended to identify with management whereas at the Vaal Reefs supervisors were more inclined to identify with workers on the shop-floor. The next chapter will conclude this research on management and worker's perceptions of worker participation programmes.

CHAPTER 8 CONCLUSION

8.1 General Remarks

The research topic was management and worker perceptions of worker participation programmes. The aim of the study was to investigate different forms of worker participation and their implementation in different companies in selected countries including South Africa. It aimed at studying perceptions of managers and workers on the forms of participation. Another objective focused on attitudes of supervisors and managers towards the following variables: direct participation, indirect participation, worker's involvement in decision making and the role of trade unions in worker participation programmes. Lastly, the relationship between different forms of worker participation and personal attributes such as age, education, length of service in present position and length of service in present organisation, were examined.

The decision making process was discussed in terms of its models and differentiation was made between individual and group decision making. Worker participation was discussed in terms of its purposes, objectives and a distinction was made between direct and indirect forms. Worker participation programmes were discussed in countries like Belgium, France, Denmark, Netherlands, Germany, Yugoslavia and South Africa. The discussion on trade union growth and development was based on the following countries: Germany, United Kingdom, United States of America, Yugoslavia, Poland and South Africa.

A survey was conducted at two mines namely, Vaal Reefs and Ergo to evaluate the perceptions of managers and supervisors toward worker participation programmes. It would seem that in the mining sector a trade union is regarded as a participative instrument which gives workers a chance to participate in determining their conditions of work. The results seem to indicate that trade unionism is a very significant factor in influencing worker attitudes towards various forms of worker participation. In particular, the more unionised Vaal Reefs mine showed greater demand for worker participation than Ergo mine which did not have a history of trade unionism.

In South Africa most trade unionists have been fearful of workers' participation introduced by management because this was seen to draw worker's loyalty away from the trade union and closer to management. Some trade union leaders believe that active participation by workers in these programmes tends to weaken their collective challenge to management action.

8.2 Recommendations

In South Africa with a new government, it is important that democratic rights be extended to the industrial arena as well. This study has showed differences in the perception of workers at two selected mines, one which had a history of trade unionism and the other more participative programmes for worker involvement. It would be logical to conclude that no single arrangement is sufficient to address the issue of worker participation in South Africa. Perhaps more attitudinal studies, along the present study, need to be carried out to determine the correct forms of worker participation programmes at different workplaces in our new nation.

The trade union movement in South Africa is more militant and political with a strong emphasis on democratic structures and practices. It is important for trade unions to be independent of political organisations. If trade unions are politically inclined then they pose a problem for workers who would like to be members of that trade union, but do not support policies of that political organisation. With South Africa's readmittance to the International Labour Organisation, more can be expected in the labour relations field in years to come. South African trade unions need to take part in development of worker participation so that goals are not only directed at production but also at creating a more democratic work life.

This study has indicated that at Ergo mine, where the trade union movement was not well established, the perception of supervisors and managers were nearly the same which would imply harmonious working relations at the mine. The conclusion from this is that trade unionism may not be the only means in South Africa to address problems of worker participation.

8.3 Conclusion

In conclusion it can be said that excellence can only be achieved if the full potential of the human resources is utilised. It has been argued that this will only happen when an individual can identify with the organisation and that the organisation allows him to do so.

"All workers participate in industry by virtue of producing the substance of man's material existence, but since the advent of the industrial revolution all but a few have been consistently denied an effective voice in the management of the firm in which they are employed and at a higher level in the framing of policies on the allocation of resources". (Poole 1978 : 1). In the South African context, workers would like change in the workplace to match the political changes that have taken place in the country. It would seem a substantial redistribution of power and wealth is needed away from the managers who control the economy and workplace towards the workers and their unions. Industrial democracy would have to be practised to empower workers and allow them to have a voice in the company's decision making process.

Poole (1978 :3) stated that participation has been handled on theoretical grounds as the most appropriate solution to the problems of alienation in modern industrial societies, as the best method of facilitating the development of socially aware and public spirited people, as a stepping stone to the fulfillment of certain higher echelons of needs which are deemed to be common to all men.

Worker participation has been regarded as a means of overcoming basic employer - employee conflicts and as a step towards co-operation and coalition between worker and management on trade unions. This co-operation is also seen as bringing about greater commitment and involvement on the part of employees and thereby greater motivation and higher productivity. Worker participation can be viewed as an extension of employee influence at the workplace as a means of power sharing and eventually control of the production system. In conclusion it can be said that a successful worker participation programme not only contributes to quality of work life but also to a stable working environment which would benefit both management and worker.

This study has not only defined and demonstrated the diverse forms of worker participation programmes operating in various parts of the world, but it has also attempted to highlight the fact that no single form of worker participation exists. The differences in attitude between managers and supervisors at two gold mines in South Africa recorded in this study, emphasize the need to look at circumstances which are peculiar to a specific working environment before deciding on a form of worker participation programme.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, R. 1980. Training for Participation : London : Associated Business Press.
- Anstey, M. 1990. Worker Participation : South African Options and Experiences 1990. Kenwyn : Juta and Co., Ltd.
- Anstey, M. Industrial Relations in Transition : Challenges for South Africa. IPM Journal October 1990.
- Anthony, W. P. 1978. Participative Management. London : Addison Wesley Publishing Company.
- Armstrong, M. 1977. A Handbook of Personnel Management Practice. Third Edition New York. McGraw-Hill.
- Baglions, G. and Crouch, C. 1990. European Industrial Relations : The Challenge of Flexibility. Sage Publications. London.
- Baird, L. S.; Post, J.E. & Mahon, J.F. 1990. Management : Functions and Responsibilities : New York : Harper & Row Publishers.
- Bamber, G.J. & Lansbury, R.D. 1982. International and Comparative Industrial Relations : A study of Developed Market Economies : London : Allen & Unwin.
- Bamber, G.J. & Lansbury, R.D. 1987. International and Comparative Industrial Relations : A study of Developed Market Economies. London : Allen & Unwin.
- Banks, J.A. 1974. Trade Unionism : Themes and Issue in Modern Sociology. London : Collier - Macmillan Publishers.
- Barra, R. 1983. Putting Quality Circles to Work : A practical strategy for boosting productivity and profits. New York : McGraw-Hill Book Company.

- Baron, R.A. 1983. Behaviour in Organizations : Understanding and Managing the Human side of Work. Boston : Allyn & Becon, Inc.
- Baskin, J. 1991. Striking Back : A history of COSATU. Johannesburg : Ravan Press.
- Beal, E.F. & Begin, J.P. 1982. The Practice of Collective Bargaining. Sixth edition. Homewood Illinois : Richard, D. Irwin Inc.
- Bendix, S. 1989. Industrial Relations in South Africa. Cape Town : Juta & Company Ltd.
- Bendix, W. 1988. South African Industrial Relations of the Eighties. Cape Town : IPC Publishers.
- Black, J.A. & Champion, D. 1976. Methods and Issues in Social Research. New York : Wiley & Son.
- Chamberlain, N.W. & Kuhn, J.W. 1986. Collective Bargaining. Third edition. New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Clarke, R.O; Fatchett, D.J. and Roberts, B.C. 1972. Workers' Participation in Management in Britain. London : Heinemann Educational Books Ltd.
- Cooper, C. & Mumford, E. 1979. The Quality of Working Life in Western & Eastern Europe. London : Associated Business Press.
- Cullingford, E.C.N. 1976. Trade unions in West Germany. London : Wilton House Publications.
- Dane, F.C. 1990. Research Methods. California : Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Davey, H.W. 1982 Contemporary collective bargaining Fourth edition. New Jersey : Prentice - Hall, Inc.
- Davis, K. 1981. Human Behaviour at Work : Organisational Behaviour. New York : McGraw-Hill.

- Derber, M. 1970. The American Idea of Industrial Democracy 1865-1965. London : Illinios Press.
- Doeringer, P.B. 1981. Industrial Relations in International Perspective. London : Macmillan Academic and Professional Ltd.
- Douwes Dekker, L. 1990. Industrial Relations for a changing South Africa. Johannesburg : Lex Patria Publishers.
- Dunnette, M.D. 1976. Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Chicago : McNally College Publishing Company.
- Du Toit, M.A. 1976. South African Trade Unions : History Legislation Policy. Johannesburg : McGraw-Hill.
- Ergo (East Rand Gold and Uranium Company Limited : 21st Annual Report. 31st March 1992.
- Evans, G. Worker Participation at P G Bison South African Labour Bulletin Vol 16 No 3 January 1992.
- Feather, V. 1971. The essence of Trade Unionism. London : The Bodley Head.
- Finnemore, M & van der Merwe, R. 1989. Introduction to Industrial Relations in South Africa : Second edition. Johannesburg : Lexicon Publishers.
- Finnemore, M. & van der Merwe, R. 1992. Introduction to Industrial Relations South Africa : Third Edition : Johannesburg : Lexicon Publishers.
- Flippo, E.B. 1976. Personnel Management. Fifth edition. Tokyo : McGraw-Hill.
- Flippo, E.B. 1983. Personnel Management. New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Fox, A. 1974. Man Mismanagement. London : Hutchinson & Co. Ltd.

- Freeman, A.G. & Bendahmane, D.B. 1987. Black Labour Unions in South Africa. (Report of a symposium). New York : Foreign Service Institute.
- Garson, G.D. 1977. Worker Self-Management in Industry. : The West European experience. New York : Praeger Publishers.
- Gibson, J.L; Ivancevich, J.M & Donnelly, J.H. 1991. Organizational Behaviour : Structure and Processes. Homewood Illinois Irwin.
- Government White Paper and Congress Resolution. 1978. Industrial Democracy. London : MacDermott and Chant Ltd.
- Gray, J.L. & Starke, F.A. 1984. Organizational Behaviour : Concepts and Applications. Third edition Columbus : Bell & Howell Company.
- Griffin, R.W. & Moorhead, G. 1986 Organizational Behaviour. Boston : Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Griffin, R.W. 1990. Management. Third edition Boston : Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Guest, D & Knight, K. 1979. Putting participation into practice. England : Gower Press.
- Hawkins, K. 1979. A handbook of Industrial Relations Practice. London : Kogen Page.
- Heckman, J.R. & Suttie, L. 1977. Improving Life at Work : Behavioural Science Approaches to Organisational change. California : Goodyear Publishing Company Inc.
- Hellriegel, D. & Slocum, J.W. 1989. Management. Fifth edition. New York : Addison Weseley Publishing Company.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. 1982. Management of Organizational Behaviour : Utilizing Human Resources. Fourth Edition. New Jersey : Prentice-Hall, Inc.

- Holley, W.H & Jennings, K.M. 1983. Personnel Management : Functions and Issues. New York : CBS College Publishing.
- Horwitz, F.M. & James, D. Actual and Preferred Worker Participation : A Study of the propensity of Managers and Workers to participate. Journal of Labour Relations. Vol. 16. No.2. June 1992.
- Hunt, J. 1979. Managing people at Work. London : McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Hutchins, D. 1985. Quality Circles Handbook. London : Pitman Publishing Limited.
- Industrial Democracy in Europe International Research Group 1981. European Industrial Relations. New York : Caledon Press.
- Innes, D. Control or co-option : Is there Black empowerment in ESOPS? Finance week June 27 - July 3 1991.
- Institute of Industrial Relations Information Sheet, August 1984 : The relevance of ideology to industrial relations practice. Editorial Feature.
- International Labour Office. 1981. Workers' participation in decisions within undertakings. Geneva : International Labour Organisation.
- Jaccard, J. & Becker, M. 1990. Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences. Bel Mont : Wadsworth.
- Jackson, J.H. & Morgan, C.P. 1978. Organization Theory : A macro persepective for management. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Jackson, M.P. 1977. Industrial Relations. Second edition. London : Croom Helm Ltd.
- Jackson, M.P. 1988. Trade Unions. Second edition. London : Longman.

- Jain, H.C. 1980. Worker Participation : Success and Problems. New York : Praeger Publishers.
- Jones, R.A. 1985. Collective Bargaining in South Africa. Johannesburg. Macmillan.
- Jones, G. & Maree, J. Worker Participation and Industrial Democracy. Industrial Relations Journal of South Africa Vol. 9 No 2, 1989.
- Kerlinger, F.N. 1973. Foundations of Behavioural Research. Second edition. New York. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Kerlinger, F.N. 1986. Foundations of Behavioural Research. Third edition. New York. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Kreitner, R. 1989. Management. Fourth edition. Boston : Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. 1989. Organizational Behaviour. Homewood Illinois : Richard D, Irwin, Inc.
- Leigh, A. 1983. Decisions, Decisions : A Practical management guide to problem solving and decision making. London : Gower Publishing Company Limited.
- Longenecker, J. G. 1973. Principles of Management and Organisation Behaviour. Third edition. Columbus Ohio : A Bell Howell Company.
- Luthans, F. 1985. Organisational Behaviour. Fourth edition. New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Luthans, F. 1992. Organizational Behaviour. Sixth edition. New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Macshane, D. 1981. Solidarity : Poland's Independent Trade Union. Nottingham. Russell Press Ltd.
- Maller, J. 1990. Worker Participation : Is there a progressive potential? Paper Presented at Economic Service Groups Conference, Paarl.

- Maller, J. 1992. Conflict and Co-operation : Case studies in worker participation. Braamfontein. Ravan Press (Pty) Ltd.
- Maree, J. 1987. The Independent Trade Unions 1974-1984. Johannesburg : Ravan Press.
- Martin, B & Kassalow, E.M. 1980. Labour Relations in Advanced Industrial Societies : Issues and Problems. New York : Carnegie Environment for International Peace.
- Mason, E.J. & Bramble, W.J. 1989. Understanding and Conducting Research : Applications in Education and the Behavioural Sciences. New York : McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Matteson, M.T & Ivancevich, J.M. 1989. Management and Organisational Behaviour Classics. Fourth edition. Irwin Homewood, Illinois.
- McCullum, P.A. Management Initiated Worker Participation. Industrial Relations Journal of South Africa. Vol. 7. No. 2. 1987.
- McFarland, D.E. 1974. Management : Principles and Practices. Fourth edition. New York : Macmillan Publishing Co. Inc.
- McIlroy, J. 1988. Trade Unions in Britain Today. New York : Manchester University Press.
- Miller, D.S & Catt, S.E. 1989. Human Relations : A contemporary approach. Homewood, Illinois : Richard D, Irwin, Inc.
- Miller,, P.A; Roome, W.B. and Staude, G.E. 1985 Management in South Africa. Second edition. Cape Town : Juta and Co. Ltd.
- Mitchell, T.R. 1982. People in Organisations : An Introduction to Organisational Behaviour. Second edition. New York : McGraw-Hill Book Company.

- Mitchell, T.R. & Larson, J.R. 1987. People in Organisations : An Introduction to Organisational Behaviour. Third edition. New York : McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Monat, J. & Sarfati, H. 1986. Workers Participation : A voice in Decisions 1981 - 1985. Geneva. International Labour Office.
- Mondy, R.W.; Holmes, R.E. and Flippo, E.B. 1983. Management : Concepts and Practices. Second edition. Boston : Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Nadler, D.A.; Hackman, J.R. & Lawler, E.E. 1979. Managing Organizational Behaviour. Boston Toronto : Little Brown and Company
- Ncube, D. 1985. The influence of apartheid and capitalism on the development of the Black Trade Unions in South Africa. Johannesburg : Skotaville Publishers.
- Nel, P.S. & van Rooyen P.H. 1985 Worker representation in practice in South Africa. Pretoria : Academica.
- Nel, P.S. & van Rooyen, P.H. 1989. South African Industrial Relations : Theory and Practice. Pretoria : Academica.
- Nutzinger, H.S. & Backhaus, J. 1989. Codetermination : A discussion of different approaches. Germany : Springer-Verlag.
- Parker, S.R.; Brown, R.K.; Child, J. & Smith, M.A. 1977. The Sociology of Industry. Third edition. London : George Allen and Unwin.
- Perrins, B. 1985. Trade Union Law. London : Butterworths.
- Piron, J. 1988. Recognitio or rejection? : Trade union recognition in South Africa. South Africa : Southern Book Publishers.

- Poole, M. 1986. Industrial Relations : Origins and Patterns of National Diversity. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul
- Poole, M. 1978. Workers' Participation in Industry. London : Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Pravda, A. & Ruble, B.A. 1986. Trade Unions in Communist States. Boston : Allen & Unwin, Inc.
- Reese, K. 1987. Labour Relations : Challenges and Opportunities. First edition. Durban : Trident Publishing.
- Reese, K. 1991. Trade Unions and Management : Hesistant Partners in Business Prosperity. Johannesburg : Lexion Publishers.
- Rodger, B. & Ussher, P. Putting Participation into practice. The Innes Labour Brief Vol. 2. No 2, 1990.
- Rue, L.W. & Byars, L.L. 1989. Management : Theory and Application. Fifth edition. Homewood Illinois : Irwin.
- Sacks, S.R. 1983. Self-Management and Efficiency large corporations in Yugoslavia. London : George Allen and Unwin.
- Salamon, M. 1987, Industrial Relations Theory and Practice. London : Prentice-Hall.
- Schein, E.H. 1980. Organizational Psychology. Third edition. London : Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Siegel, L. & Lane, I.M. 1982. Personnel and Organisational Psychology. Homewood, Illinois : Richard. D. Irwin, Inc.
- Slabbert, J.A.; Prinsloo, J.J. & Backer W. 1991. Managing Industrial Relations in South Africa. Pretoria : Digma Publications (Pty) Ltd.
- Smith, C. 1977. Industrial Participation. London : McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Smith, E.O. 1981. Trade Unions in the developed economics. London : Croom Helm.

- Smith, M.A.; Brown, R.K. & Parker, S.R. 1977. The Sociology of Industry. Third edition. London : George Allen & Unwin.
- Stephenson, G.M. & Brotherton, C.J. 1979. Industrial Relations : A Social Psychological Approach. New York : John Wiley & Sons.
- Stewart, M. 1974, Trade Unions in Europe. Britain : Gower Press.
- Suen, H.K. & Ary, D. 1989. Analyzing Quantitative Behavioural Observation Data. New Jersey : Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Tifflin, J. & McCormick, E.J. 1971. Industrial psychology. London : George Allen & Unwin Ltd.
- Torres, L. Is there a purpose of workplace participation? Industrial Relations Journal of South Africa. Vol. 11. No. 2. 1991.
- Tossi, H.L.; Rizzo, J.R. & Carroll, S.J. 1990. Managing Organisational Behaviour. New York : Harper & Row.
- Touraine, A. 1981. Solidarity : Poland 1980-81. London : Cambridge University Press.
- Towers, B. Worker Participation in Management : An appraisal and some comments. South African Journal of Labour Relations Vol 4 No 1 March 1980.
- Trade Unions of the world 1989-90. Second edition. 1989. Longman Group, UK Limited. United Kingdom.
- Unisa Conference on Worker Rights and Worker Participation. Presented by The Institute of Foreign and Comparative Law together with the Herbert Quandt Foundation. Munich, West Germany 1989.
- Vaal Reefs 48th Annual Report. 31 December 1991.
- Vaal Reefs Profile of a Gold Mine.

- Van den Berg, H. Participation Management : The Toyota Experience. IPM Journal September 1997.
- Van Duyn, D. & Bluen, S.D. The Trade Union as a source of social support. IPM Journal November 1991.
- Von Holdt, K. The COSATU/ANC alliance : What does COSATU think? South African Labour Bulletin. Vol 15. No. 8 June 1991.
- Vollmer, R. Codetermination and Worker Participation. Industrial and Commercial Training Journal. Vol. 5. No. 1. 1973.
- Wallace Bell, D. 1979. Industrial Participation. London : Pitman Publishing Limited.
- Warwick, D.P. & Lininger, C.A. 1975. The Sample survey : The Theory and Practice. New York : McGraw-Hill.
- Wexley, K.N. & Yukl, G.A. 1977. Organizational Behaviour and Personnel Psychology. Homewood Illinois. Richard, D, Irwin Inc.
- Wigham, E.L. 1969. Trade Unions. Second edition. New York : Oxford University Press.
- Workers' World No 4 May 1991. Who does Solidarity belong to?
- Zikalala, S. NACTU : Restructuring to meet the future. South African Labour Bulletin. Vol. 16. No. 2. October/November 1991.