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Antecedents and Outcome of Union Commitment

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There is an apparent decline in union membership across industries in the Philippines. The study tried to understand this phenomenon by determining factors that lead to union commitment using a framework derived from existing models of union commitment and participation. Survey data were gathered from 194 union members belonging to academic and financial institutions, and pharmaceutical industries. Path analysis was used to analyze the data. The resulting model verified that organization commitment, perceived union instrumentality, pro-union attitude, and union socialization are predictors of union commitment. Furthermore, union commitment leads to union participation. Findings suggest that unions may enhance member commitment and participation in union activities by utilizing informal socialization practices.

Keywords: union, organization, commitment, participation, antecedents, outcome

Traditionally, trade unions have been instrumental in voicing out the opinions, grievances, and demands of workers in organizations and societies. From a legal standpoint, the Labor Code of the Philippines (Presidential Decree no. 442) defines a trade union as a “labor organization or an association of employees which exists, in whole or in part, for the purpose of collective bargaining or for dealing with employers concerning terms and conditions of employment” (as cited in Edralin, 2009, p. 29). As such, most of the benefits workers enjoy up

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to this day are evidence of the success of trade union movements in the past, including the right to organize and enjoy sick leaves, paternity leaves, overtime pay, among others. Through collective bargaining agreements and strike movements, unions have successfully provided workers with the means to secure better working conditions and improved standards of living (Edralin, 2009).

Despite the benefits of trade unionism, there appears to be a decline in union membership and weakening of labor movements in the Philippines (Binghay, 2007). Labor management experts vary in their opinions in terms of what accounts for this decline and offered several explanations including globalization (Binghay, 2007), technological change (Sibal, 2004), and even company-related (e.g., increased resistance of employers to the movements) and union-specific characteristics (e.g., failure of unions to recruit new members and diminishing pro-union attitude) (Baldwin, 2003). Regardless of the causes, the decline in union involvement poses serious threats and challenges to trade unions today.

Amidst these challenges, it can still be said that these unions have not become fully ineffective in acquiring benefits for workers. Indeed, the alarming decline in union membership in the manufacturing industry, the initial base of unionism in the country, might undermine the importance of unions in Philippine society (Sibal, 2004). In some local industries, such as in the service sector, the call for legitimizing worker’s demands for better work life still becomes a concern that can only be addressed through unionism (Sibal, 2004). Despite this, unions seem unattractive to most Filipinos. Statistics show that there remains a decline in union membership signifying the further weakening of the labor movement in Philippine society (Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, 2011).

In order to understand this phenomenon, one may have to look at the psychological factors that influence union commitment. It is therefore the focus of this paper to measure the antecedents of union commitment in order to shed light on the factors that influence one’s loyalty and willingness to stay with the union as well as determine how commitment translates to participation.

Although there is a significant amount of literature on unionism, it can be noted that none of these have focused on union commitment
in the Philippines. In the West, Purcell (1954) and Stagner (1954) were one of the first few who studied the dimensions of union commitment. However, Gordon, Philpot, Burt, Thompson, and Spiller (1980) were considered as the pioneer researchers on union commitment. The scale that they constructed had been adapted by many authors in the West and in Asia (Bamberger, Kluger, & Suchard, 1999; Klandermans, 1986; Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002).

A meta-analysis by Bamberger et al. (1999) and a quantitative study by Tan and Aryee (2002) paved the way for accounting for cultural differences between the West and Asia in terms of the antecedents and outcome of union commitment. The study by Bamberger and colleagues (1999) sought to understand the relationship of union commitment with factors such as job satisfaction, organization commitment, pro-union attitude, union instrumentality, and union participation. Building upon the said study, Tan and Aryee (2002) introduced union socialization as an antecedent because most Asian countries are collectivist in nature (Hofstede, 2001).

Although union commitment has been widely studied in the Asian context, there are limited studies on the said construct in the Philippines. Most of the local studies mainly focused on the issue of collective bargaining agreement (Bitonio, 2012; Edralin, 2009).

In the present study, the main objective of the researchers is to validate the model of Bamberger et al. (1999) and integrate the socialization factor found by Tan and Aryee (2002) given the collectivist and relational nature of Filipinos (Hofstede, 2001). Due to the lack of research on the issue in the Philippine context, the present study will also focus on union commitment. In doing so, union leaders may gain insight on how to enhance commitment, encourage participation, and motivate members to fulfill their roles as members of the organization.

**Union Commitment**

Gordon et al. (1980) conducted one of the landmark studies on union commitment. By administering a self-developed questionnaire to an international union, Gordon and colleagues (1980) were able to conclude that union commitment was composed of four dimensions, namely union loyalty, responsibility to the union, willingness to work
for the union, and belief in unionism. Union loyalty is about having
a sense of pride in one’s union and “the extent to which members
identify with and internalize the goals and beliefs of the union” (Tan
& Aryee, 2002, p. 716). Members’ sense of responsibility to the union
pertains to how willing the members are in doing their duties and
responsibilities for the sake of the union. It is different from their
willingness to work for the union, which is classified as doing more
than what is necessary or asked by the union from its members. Lastly,
belief in unionism refers to the members’ attitude and outlook about
the use of their union (Gordon et al., 1980).

Studies were conducted to test for the findings of Gordon et al.
(1980) and subsequently found support for their definition of union
commitment (Sverke & Kuruvilla, 1995; Thacker, Fields, & Tetrick,
1989). This definition has also been widely and consistently used
in studies regarding union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999;
Bissonnette, 1999; Snape, Redman, & Chan, 2000).

In the succeeding parts of the paper, the different constructs
associated with union commitment will be discussed in detail. Studies
show that job satisfaction, organization commitment, perceived
union instrumentality, pro-union attitude, and union socialization
are antecedents of union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Tan
& Aryee, 2002). Consequently, union commitment seems to predict
union participation (Bamberger et al., 1999).

**Job Satisfaction, Organization Commitment, and Union
Commitment**

Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as the “pleasurable
emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job as achieving
or facilitating one’s job values” (p. 311). To deepen the understanding
of job satisfaction, it must be noted that there have been two common
approaches in measuring the said construct, namely the facet and the
global approach. The facet approach looks at the specific components
of a worker’s job as it assumes that a particular individual may be
satisfied with certain aspects of his job (e.g., pay), but not with other
aspects (e.g., promotion) (Riggio, 2008). The global approach, on the
other hand, considers the overall satisfaction of the workers with their
jobs without regard for the individual aspects (Riggio, 2008). Between these two, the global approach has been seen as more acceptable given that all facets of a job significantly contribute to overall employee satisfaction (Tatsuse & Sekine, 2011).

For a long time, most researches have argued between whether job satisfaction and union commitment were positively or negatively correlated (Bamberger et al., 1999; Gordon et al., 1980). Gordon et al. (1980) believed that job satisfaction and union commitment were positively correlated, which meant that the more people were satisfied with their jobs, the more likely they will become committed to the union and vice versa. In contrast, Fullagar and Barling (1989) found a negative correlation between job satisfaction and union commitment. The explanation behind this is that when individuals are dissatisfied with their work, they would use the union as a means to voice out concerns, therefore increasing union commitment. Due to the inconsistencies in findings, Viswesvaran and Deshpande (1993) conducted studies to validate the findings of Gordon et al. (1980) and Fullagar and Barling (1989). They found support for the former’s study, which strengthened the claim that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment.

On the other hand, organization commitment is defined as the worker’s faith in the company’s values and goals, which translates to support for the organization, such as aligning one’s values to the organization as well as exerting efforts to help the company achieve its objectives (Morgan & Hunt, 2011). Organization commitment has been described as a relationship between an individual and the organization, whereby the workers process and internalize their feelings (e.g., commitment) towards the organization. Commitment is central to any organization because it leads to important outcomes, such as decreased attrition rate (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974) and increased motivation to perform (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981).

There has been a general consensus in the existing literature on the relationship between organization commitment and union commitment. This phenomenon has been commonly described as dual commitment or dual allegiance (Purcell, 1954). Dual allegiance is clearly defined as the loyalty or commitment to both the union and the company (Kerr, 1954; Purcell, 1954; Stagner 1954). Specifically, this
was described as the collective belief of the workers in the coexistence of both their organization and union (Purcell, 1954).

Evidence shows that organization commitment mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995). However, the degree to which this mediation takes effect was not well-defined. Iverson and Kurvilla (1995) posited that organization commitment fully mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment. However, some studies have proposed that partial mediation exists because job satisfaction seems to retain its direct effect on union commitment even though it is relatively weak (Bamberger et al., 1999). Given the above findings in previous research, this study asks the following:

1. Do job satisfaction and organization commitment predict union commitment?
2. Does job satisfaction predict organization commitment?
3. Does organization commitment mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment?

**Union Instrumentality, Pro-union Attitude, and Union Commitment**

Union instrumentality represents the member’s perception of the union’s ability to improve the workers’ welfare with regard to both the traditional (e.g., wages) and non-traditional (e.g., job satisfaction) conditions of work (Green & Auer, 2013; Newton & Shore, 1992). To organize the scope of union instrumentality, Morrow and McElroy (2006) provided a framework that describes union instrumentality as having two dimensions: outcome-based benefits and process-based benefits. Perceived outcome-based instrumentality measures the tangible outputs (e.g., wages) in proportion to the amount of input, such as effort and time a particular member gives to the union. Perceived process-based instrumentality, on the other hand, is mostly concerned with the member’s assessment of the procedural benefits (e.g., effectiveness of grievance procedures) the union enabled a member to have (Morrow & McElroy, 2006).

Initial researches in the area show that perceived union
instrumentality (both outcome-based and process-based) has a direct and independent effect on union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Barling, Fullagar, & Kelloway, 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002). Despite some exceptions that introduced the role of mediators, many authors are in agreement that union commitment and union instrumentality are positively correlated (Bamberger et al., 1999; Barling et al., 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002).

Pro-union attitude, on the other hand, was also found to have a direct and independent effect on union commitment (Barling et al., 1992). Pro-union attitude refers to the overall beliefs and perceptions about unions in general (Bamberger et al., 1999). In most studies, pro-union attitude has been consistently shown to explain some of the variance in union commitment because there is often a positive correlation between the two constructs (Bamberger et al., 1999; Barling et al., 1992; Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002). In addition, studies have shown that pro-union attitude also has a direct relationship with union instrumentality (Bamberger et al., 1999; Newton & Shore, 1992; Tan & Aryee, 2002).

Although it was mentioned that both pro-union attitude and union instrumentality are positively correlated with union commitment, some authors considered pro-union attitude as a mediator between union instrumentality and union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999; Newton & Shore, 1992; Tan & Ayree, 2002). Initially, Newton and Shore (1992) thought that pro-union attitude fully mediates the relationship between union instrumentality and union commitment. However, Bamberger et al. (1999) proposed that the mediation of pro-union attitude between the two constructs is merely partial, which meant that both union instrumentality and pro-union attitude maintained their direct effects on union commitment. Other researchers in the Asian context have replicated the study of Bamberger et al. (1999) and confirmed the direct and independent effect of union instrumentality and pro-union attitude on union commitment, as well as the partial mediation of pro-union attitude in the said relationship (Tan & Ayree, 2002). Thus, this research also asks the following:

4. Do perceived union instrumentality and pro-union attitude predict union commitment?
5. Does perceived union instrumentality predict pro-union attitude?
6. Does pro-union attitude mediate the relationship between perceived union instrumentality and union commitment?

Union Socialization, Pro-Union Attitude, and Union Commitment

Due to the collectivist nature of Filipinos (Hofstede, 2001), the present study decided to include union socialization as an important contributor to union commitment. Because Filipinos tend to take into account other people when acting and making decisions, socialization becomes an important factor in organizations. In the union context, the social experiences of members might play an important role in their commitment and participation in activities. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) defined socialization as the “process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role” (p. 211). A condition for union socialization generally requires that individuals be socialized into the union when they are members already, rather than be socialized before becoming accepted as members of the unions.

Across studies, results have shown that there is a positive correlation between union socialization and union loyalty, which is a dimension of union commitment. Fullagar and Barling (1989) and Gordon et al. (1980) reported similar results where members who had positive experiences with socialization had higher loyalty and commitment to the union, as compared to those who had negative experiences of socialization. Further studies have been conducted to see if there was a predictive relationship between the two variables. Specifically, Tan and Aryee (2002) found that experiencing union socialization led to union commitment.

Although some studies have established that union socialization directly predicts union commitment, some researchers also found that this relationship was partially mediated by pro-union attitude (Newton & Shore, 1992; Stagner, 1954; Tan & Aryee, 2002). Given the above findings, this study likewise asks the following:

7. Do pro-union attitude and union socialization predict union
commitment?
8. Does union socialization predict pro-union attitude?
9. Does pro-union attitude mediate the relationship between union socialization and union commitment?

Union Commitment and Union Participation

Studies generally show that union commitment leads to union participation (Bamberger et al., 1999; Snape et al., 2000; Tan & Aryee, 2002). Studies done in the West proposed different models and definitions of union participation. One study particularly suggested that members may participate in their unions through “formal (e.g., participation in union meetings and rallies) and informal (e.g., helping another member to know about the union) activities” (Green & Auer, 2013, p. 143). In several studies, there are contradicting views on whether union participation is a one-dimensional or a multidimensional concept. Spinrad (1960) was the first to present findings showing union participation as a cumulative dimension or a single-item measure. Further studies have supported this notion of a one-dimensional construct (Kelloway & Barling, 1993; Kolchin & Hyclak, 1984).

Regardless of the debate on the dimensionality of union participation, several studies have shown that there is typically a positive correlation between union commitment and union participation (Bamberger et al., 1999; Fullagar & Barling, 1989; Gordon et al., 1980; Tan & Aryee, 2002). It is notable among these studies that union commitment is considered as an attitude whereas union participation is the corresponding concrete and observable behavior, which is based on one’s attitude towards the union. As Snape et al. (2000) best put it, “commitment is necessary to provide the necessary motivation to participate” (p. 215). It is therefore in this light that this study asks:
10. Does union commitment predict union participation?

Based on findings from related literature, the researchers hypothesize the following:
1. Job satisfaction and organization commitment will predict union commitment.
2. Job satisfaction will predict organization commitment.
3. Organization commitment will partially mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and union commitment.
4. Perceived union instrumentality and pro-union attitude will predict union commitment.
5. Perceived union instrumentality will predict pro-union attitude.
6. Pro-union attitude will partially mediate the relationship between perceived union instrumentality and union commitment.
7. Pro-union attitude and union socialization will predict union commitment.
8. Union socialization will predict pro-union attitude.
9. Pro-union attitude will partially mediate the relationship between union socialization and union commitment.
10. Union commitment will predict union participation.

Figure 1 summarizes the integrated model.

Figure 1. Hypothesized model.
METHOD

The research employed a correlational design and used survey questionnaires in gathering data. Path analysis was conducted to test the relationships between the literature-based antecedents and outcome of union commitment in the Philippines.

Participants

Participants consisted of union members from the educational, financial, and pharmaceutical sectors. Of the 410 questionnaires initially distributed to the participants, only 210 were returned producing a response rate of 51%. After cleaning the data, 194 participants were included in the study. The participants were rank-and-file employees ranging from low to middle socio-economic backgrounds, with age range from 21 to 59 years old (usual age of working Filipinos), are members of workers’ unions, and have undergone some form of union socialization during the course of their union membership. A pilot study was first conducted among 30 union members of a university before the final survey was distributed to the actual participants.

Materials

The researchers gathered survey instruments from different studies in order to operationalize the constructs studied. Below are the said constructs, their respective questionnaires, and how they were scored. The researchers made sure that the following tests are applicable to the Asian context by finding scales that were either constructed or used in an Asian setting. The tests were created in the English language but the researchers employed the help of a student who was taking his Master’s degree in Filipino to translate each item into the Filipino language. Each Filipino translation was placed below the corresponding English item so that participants were able to understand the items of the questionnaire by picking the language they are more comfortable with.

Union commitment. As defined by Gordon et al. (1980), union commitment is characterized by four dimensions, namely union
loyalty, responsibility to the union, willingness to work for the union, and belief in unionism. The researchers tested this definition through the survey created by Keser, Yilmaz, and Kose (2014). In the current study, the final test had a total of 30 items with a reliability of $\alpha = .88$. Participants of the study were asked to rate these items using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Items include “I feel little loyalty toward this union” and “It’s every member’s duty to support or help another worker use the grievance procedure.”

**Job satisfaction.** This construct is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job performance (Locke, 1969). The scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983) was used by the researchers to measure this construct. The global scale was originally a 3-item test but due to low reliability, one item was deleted. The reliability of the total scale in this test is $\alpha = .67$. Participants were asked to rate their responses in each of these aspects using a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (disagree very much) to 7 (agree very much). Questions include “All in all, I am satisfied with my job” and “In general, I like working here.”

**Organization commitment.** This construct refers to the worker’s faith in the company’s values and goals, which then translates to support for the organization (Morgan & Hunt, 2011). The 18-item organization commitment scale created by Allen and Meyer (1990) was used to measure the said construct. The said scale has been consistently reliable. In this study, the reliability is $\alpha = .74$. The participants were asked to rate their responses in questions such as “I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own” and “I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer” using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

**Pro-union attitude.** Bamberger et al. (1999) refers to pro-union attitude as the overall beliefs and perceptions about unions in general. The researchers used the scale developed by Deshpande and Fiorito (1989) that had 10 items in order to quantify this given definition. For the present study, participants were asked to respond to a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items included “Unions work to get legislation that helps all working people, whether they are union members or not” and “Most employees
today don’t need unions to get fair treatment from their employers.”
This scale’s reliability is $\alpha = .75$.

**Perceived union instrumentality.** This construct represents the member’s perception of the union’s ability to improve workers’ welfare with regard to both the traditional (e.g., wages) and non-traditional (e.g., job satisfaction) working conditions (Green & Auer, 2013; Newton & Shore, 1992). Twelve items that came from the scale of Tetrick, Shore, McClurg, and Vandenberg (2007) were used to measure union instrumentality. The scale’s reliability is $\alpha = .94$. Sample items from the test included phrases such as “wages,” “promotions,” “job satisfaction,” and “treatment of employees.” Participants were asked to rate these items based on a 5 point-Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very negative impact*) to 5 (*very positive impact*) depending on the degree to which they felt that the union had an effect on each phrase.

**Union socialization.** Van Maanen and Schein (1979) defined socialization as the “process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role” (p. 211). The present study used merged and abbreviated versions of the two distinct scales used by Gordon et al. (1980) and Tan and Aryee (2002) in measuring union socialization. For the present study, the two distinct scales were combined and transformed into a single scale on union socialization with two facets: (a) experiences of union members in their first year taken from Tan and Aryee (2002) and (b) social situations taken from Gordon et al. (1980). For the first facet, the researchers used three of the eight items culled from existing literature. Participants were asked to rate their responses to the items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 5 (*very accurate*). For the second facet, the researchers constructed items based on literature and asked at least two experts on organization psychology or organization behavior to establish face validity. For this study, the combined scale has a reliability of $\alpha = .88$. Sample questions included “During my first year of membership in the union, I was personally invited to a union meeting” and “During my first year of membership in the union, I was provided assistance in settling a grievance.”

**Union participation.** Green and Auer (2013) defined the construct as participation in formal and informal union activities.
Union participation was measured by the researchers through a revised six-item questionnaire from a study by Bissonnette (1999). Participants were asked to respond to a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (always) to 5 (never). The reliability of this scale is $\alpha = .84$. To ensure that the choices were exhaustive, the researchers added the option “not applicable” for each item in the questionnaire. Furthermore, two new items which the researchers derived from the item, “Do you read the union newsletter?” were asked in order to account for the different materials used by the union (e.g., letters and announcements).

**Procedures**

The researchers recruited participants through purposive sampling. This was accomplished through tapping union leaders from the different universities and point persons from the financial and pharmaceutical institutions. The researchers then asked them for their permission to have their union members participate in the study. A cover letter explaining the content and objectives of the research was given to each point person. Once these point persons agreed, the participants were gathered for a union meeting and instructed to complete the survey instruments. Prior to giving them the actual survey instruments, participants were briefed on the research objectives and the contents of the survey, and were asked to sign consent forms. These consent forms assured the confidentiality of responses and anonymity of the participants. After briefing the participants, they were given around 30 minutes to complete the questionnaires, which they then handed back to the researchers. Some participants were unable to finish the questionnaires at the designated time so they kept the surveys and returned them after a few days instead.

**Data Analysis**

In order to analyze the data, the researchers mainly used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and a multivariate software for path analysis called EQS. Path analysis is an extension of multiple regression where
correlations are the basis of hypothesizing predictions among two or more variables (Lleras, 2005). The statistical tool is also a generalized version of SEM where factor analysis, which is a major step in SEM, is not considered. Variables are differentiated into endogenous and exogenous. Endogenous variables are described as having both direct and mediating effects on the outcome variable, which is called the exogenous variable (Lleras, 2005, p. 25). The model testing approach of path analysis allows for assumption of predictions based on current theory or observation. Despite making various mediations and predictions, the law of parsimony applies to path analysis (Streiner, 2005). Parsimony states that the simplicity of models and figures will help researchers better understand the variables at hand, as opposed to when there are complex additions such as mediations (Streiner, 2005; Valeri, 2012). In connection, complex models may increase confounding for the whole model when more and more predictions are added (Valeri, 2012).

For the pilot test, the researchers conducted reliability analyses on the responses of the participants so the researchers could check for internal consistency. Once internal consistency was established, the researchers administered a revised questionnaire for actual testing. Upon obtaining the scores of the participants in the actual testing, the researchers once again conducted reliability analysis using SPSS. In addition to this, the researchers checked for assumptions of normality. Because the data were skewed, robust estimates were conducted in order to correct for non-normality in EQS. Afterwards, the responses of the participants were subjected to path analysis in order to understand the relationship of all the different factors on union commitment.

Another round of path analysis was conducted on the same variables, but this time the researchers took into account the sensitivity of path analysis with EQS modeling (Streiner, 2005; Valeri, 2012). As with the law of parsimony, mediations were removed and all antecedents were run as exogenous variables of union commitment, which was then ran as the exogenous variable of union participation. The researchers determined the acceptability of the resulting model by applying the recommendations of Jaccard and Wan (1996) to have at least one acceptable fit for each index under the absolute, relative, and
RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 1. The means for all constructs are within the upper half of the scores per survey test. This shows that participants have positive attitude and opinions about the union and their organization.

Except for job satisfaction, all other variables are significantly related to each other. Job satisfaction was found to be uncorrelated with union socialization, perceived union instrumentality, and union participation. In contrast, strongest positive associations were found between union commitment and pro-union attitude ($r = .63$) as well as union commitment and union participation ($r = .63$).

Model 1

Path analysis was used to test the predicted relationships among variables. Jaccard and Wan (1996) suggested that for path analysis to be significant, at least one fit index per category should have acceptable values. The first model provided an acceptable fit with one fit index falling within the accepted ranges of two categories ($x^2 = 12.98; df = 6; CFI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.08$), as shown in Figure 2. However, the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA; 90% confidence interval lower bound = 0.013, higher bound = 0.136) for the adjusted category failed the recommended acceptable range.

The hypothesized model was replicated with the exception of job satisfaction directly predicting union commitment. In addition, there were four paths added to the model as shown in Figure 2. The following paths were significant: (a) union socialization directly predicting union participation ($\beta = .31$) and (b) perceived union instrumentality predicting organization commitment ($\beta = .15$). However, two other paths suggested by EQS to increase the model’s goodness of fit were not significant: (a) union socialization directly and individually predicting organization commitment and (b) job satisfaction predicting pro-union attitude.
Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Union Commitment</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.88</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>6.26</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.15*</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Organization Commitment</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.34**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Pro-Union Attitudes</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.27**</td>
<td>0.26**</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Union Instrumentality</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.58**</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>0.21**</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Union Socialization</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.52**</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.22**</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>0.42**</td>
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<td>7. Union Participation</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.63**</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.17*</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
<td>0.40**</td>
<td>0.57**</td>
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Note. N = 194 (two-tailed tests). *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01
Figure 2. The revised and suggested model with estimated path coefficients.
Note: N = 194, p < .05.
Model 2

Taking into consideration that path analysis through EQS is sensitive to endogenous and exogenous variables, the model depicted in Figure 3 was produced. The model provided a good fit with one fit index per category falling within the accepted ranges (χ² = 1.64; df = 3; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = 0.00). The resulting chi-square for the absolute category resulted in a nearing ratio between χ²:df with 2:1. The CFI for the relative category was reported to be in between the accepted range (.97 ≤ CFI ≤ 1.00) while the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA; 90% confidence interval lower bound = 0.000, higher bound = 0.096) for the adjusted category was within 0 and 0.05.

![Diagram of Model 2](image)

*Figure 3. The revised and suggested model with reduced mediations. Note: N = 194, p < .05.*
All hypothesized paths directly predicting union commitment, with the exception of all mediators and job satisfaction, are statistically significant: union participation is directly predicted by union commitment ($\beta = .34$); and union commitment is directly predicted by pro-union attitude ($\beta = .42$), perceived union instrumentality ($\beta = .31$), union socialization ($\beta = .21$), and organizational commitment ($\beta = .12$).

In addition, there were two paths added to the model: union participation predicted by both union socialization ($\beta = .32$) and pro-union attitude ($\beta = .19$).

It is interesting to note that job satisfaction does not significantly predict union commitment. The antecedents of union commitment explains 59.20% of the variance in union commitment while 48.8% of union participation is explained by union commitment. Also, the strongest predictive capacity was found in union commitment and union participation as outcome ($\beta = .34$).

Fit indices of both models were compared and showed that Model 2 provided for a better outcome as compared to Model 1 as shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$X^2/df$</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>12.98</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISCUSSION**

Results of the study partially validated the model proposed by Bamberger et al. (1999), and Tan and Aryee (2002). Notwithstanding that some mediations as predictions were removed under the law of parsimony, the present study confirmed all sets of hypotheses with the exception of job satisfaction directly predicting union commitment. In
accordance with literature, it was shown that workers are more likely to become committed to their union if they meet at least one of the following descriptions: (a) they are committed to the company they work for, (b) have positive attitude about their respective unions, (c) feel that the union is able to voice out their concerns effectively, and (d) have been socialized with other union members in an informal and casual setting. Consequently, this commitment to the union leads to enhanced participation of workers in union activities.

The current study introduced two new additional predictions that were not present in the models of Bamberger et al. (1999), and Tan and Aryee (2002). As will be discussed further, findings show that both pro-union attitude and union socialization independently predict union participation. The findings pertaining to union socialization highlight the role of culture in developing union commitment and participation. The implications of this in research and practice will likewise be discussed.

**Job Satisfaction and Union Commitment**

The hypothesis that job satisfaction directly predicts union commitment was not supported. As mentioned earlier, there is a weak direct effect of job satisfaction on union commitment (Bamberger et al., 1999). Thus, this may not have been reflected in the findings due to the limited number of participants that were included in the study. Another explanation is that another factor called industrial relations climate moderated the effect of job satisfaction on union commitment, as seen in several studies (Iverson & Kuruvilla, 1995; Tan & Aryee, 2002). Industrial relations climate refers to “the degree to which relations between management and employees are seen by participants as mutually trusting, respectful and cooperative” (Snape & Redman, 2012, p. 11). For example, in the case of a union worker employed in a school setting, it would not matter a lot for him whether or not he is satisfied in his job because this would not considerably affect his commitment to the union. Instead, an example of a factor that could interfere with the worker being satisfied and therefore committed to the union would be how cooperative the atmosphere is in the workplace. A cooperative atmosphere could enable workers to
improve their conditions (e.g., low wages paid by the school and unsafe working conditions) because management might cooperate with them.

**Pro-Union Attitude and Union Participation**

Findings revealed that a person’s belief about his union will affect how likely he will participate in his union activities. This may be explained by the theory of reasoned action by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), which states that a person’s attitude can influence behavior. In the union setting, a worker’s attitude about membership goals, leadership, and many other factors involving the union can influence how they actually behave towards or against the ideals of their union (Gallagher & Strauss, 1991). For example, a worker who has good beliefs about the union will more likely participate through filing for grievance or running for a position in the union. In this manner, the belief of the worker towards his union is reflected through his concrete actions toward the union.

**Union Socialization and Union Participation**

Results showed that the more the worker socialized with union members, the more likely he will participate in union activities. This is in accordance with the findings by Fullagar, Gallagher, Gordon, and Clark (1995) wherein they focused on individualized socialization practices rather than institutionalized socialization practices as a predictor of union participation. The difference between individualized socialization and institutional socialization practices is that the former is focused on the informal experiences of the worker. It deals with those activities that are not required by the union whereas the latter is composed of formal sessions specifically hosted by the union uniformly and collectively for the members (Fullagar et al., 1995). This is not to say that institutionalized practices (i.e., formal orientations in unions) are not important. It just seems that, based on the findings, people are more likely to participate in the union when they are socialized through more individualized or interpersonal means such as when a worker has personally talked to them regarding the union. In effect, both types of union socialization practices must be taken into account because
both of them might have different effects on union participation.

The effect of individualized socialization practices on union participation may be rooted in the highly relational and collectivist culture of Filipinos (Hofstede, 2001). For example, they would eat meals together as workers of the same organization and it is likely that topics would occasionally involve union activities. When one expresses intention to participate in activities, his coworkers would also be more inclined to be more active in union activities especially due to “pakikisama” (Macapagal, Ofreneo, Montiel, & Nolasco, 2013).

**Limitations and Implications**

The present study has a number of limitations. First, due to time constraints, the researchers used cross-sectional data and not longitudinal methodology, which limits the ability to infer causality. In a longitudinal study, which is higher in validity as compared to cross-sectional data, researchers may be able to find connections between the constructs, which could not be observed in a short period of time. Second, aside from considering a longitudinal design, future studies may gather data from other sources (like records of attendance or participation in union activities to measure union participation) to avoid common method variance. Lastly, participants of the study mostly belonged to academic and financial institutions, and pharmaceutical industries, and therefore the findings of the study may not be applicable to workers in other industries.

Aside from considering a longitudinal design and multiple sources of data to measure the different variables, future research may consider a qualitative or mixed methods study in order to better understand the relationship between the constructs in the model. More so, future research may attempt to examine how the concept of union socialization has affected participation in union activities. Subsequent studies may explore specific individualized socialization practices that engender positive union attitude and behaviors.

In conclusion, the present study contributes to the lack of research on union commitment and union participation in the Philippines and in the Asian context. Findings might help unions gain more understanding of how workers’ perceptions and attitude toward
the organization and the union influence member commitment and participation. Union commitment might be more difficult to develop among members given that union membership in some Philippine organizations is automatic upon employment and not because of individual volition. Thus, the findings might help unions in devising activities and projects that will help enhance pro-union attitude and perceived instrumentality.

It was interesting to validate that organization commitment likewise enhance union commitment. Thus, organization commitment can be a shared goal between the union and the organization (company/institution). Having this shared goal may also improve labor-management relationships.

It is also interesting to note the role of socialization in union commitment and participation. This demonstrates how culture plays an important role in workers’ involvement in labor organizations, which may be looked into in future research. While the traditional and primary purpose of unions lies on its instrumentality in terms of obtaining better working conditions for its members, the results suggest that unions must give equal importance to member socialization. This means providing avenues for informal interactions to enhance relationships among members and encouraging leaders to use personalized ways of communicating to members.

**AUTHORS’ NOTE**

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