ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND EMPLOYEE RESPONSES TO EMPLOYMENT EQUITY

By

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DECLARATION

I declare that "Organisational Justice and Employee Responses to Employment Equity" is my own work and that all the sources I have utilised or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of full references.

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Signature   Date

Wika Esterhuizen

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SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to determine employees' perceptions of the fairness of employment equity practices. It was conducted in an organisation in the Health Services industry, using a Diversity Questionnaire. The sample size was 520 and 245 responses were received, constituting a 47% response rate. Employees' responses were measured along 10 dimensions of employment equity. The unit of analysis was the group according to gender, race, age and job level. Independent t-tests and analysis of variance techniques were used to determine any statistically significant differences in perceptions between groups. Statistically significant differences were found between race groups and job levels. Gender and age did not significantly affect employees' responses. The research concluded that compliance with organisational justice requirements is as important as compliance with legislative requirements. Ultimately, every organisation should adapt its employment equity strategy according to its specific demographic and environmental context.

KEYWORDS

employment equity, affirmative action, organisational justice, fairness perceptions, legal requirements, best practices

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1.   BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

With the inception of the Government of National Unity in 1994, South Africa emerged from isolation and now competes in the global market place (Thomas, 2003). In order to do so successfully, South Africa has embarked on major societal and economic reforms aimed specifically at eliminating discrimination (Greeff & Nel, 2003; Thomas, 2003). In order to facilitate the process of transformation, various anti-discriminatory laws have been passed, specifically in relation to redressing previous inequalities in education and the workplace. These include the Basic Conditions of Employment Act no 75 of 1997, the Skills Development Act no 97 of 1998, the Employment Equity Act (EEA) no 55 of 1998, the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act no 4 of 2000, the Preferential Procurement Act no 5 of 2000, and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act of 2003.

The most significant legislation in terms of workplace reform is the EEA no 55 of 1998 (Greeff & Nel, 2003; Jafta, 1998; Portnoi, 2003). Complying with the regulations of this Act has become a critical issue for most South African organisations because the penalties for non-compliance, such as fines, can be significant (Employment Equity Report, 2003; Maritz, 2002; Pela, 2002; Wadula, 2004).

At this point organisations seem to be focussing on achieving equitable representation of designated groups in all occupational categories and levels as set out by the EEA no 55 of 1998 (Cilliers & Stone, 2005; Human, 1996; Mdladlana, 2000; Pandor, 2005). Currently, this is achieved mainly through numerical goal setting and employment practices such as the recruitment, selection and appointment of people from designated groups in order to meet those goals (Employment Equity Report, 2003).

It has been several years since the promulgation of the EEA (no 55 of 1998). Expectations regarding the establishment of equity in the workplace have been high (Human, 1996; Thomas, 2002) and the debate around the implementation of employment equity is ongoing. On the one hand, equity in the workplace is viewed as fundamental to removing gender and class discrimination (Vavi, 2004). It is also viewed as crucial to the stability, economic and global success of the country (Human, 1996; Mdladlana, 2003; Thomas, 2002). On the other hand, employment equity (EE) and affirmative action (AA) practices have been associated with damaging phenomena such as tokenism and reverse discrimination (Maritz, 2002; Motileng, Wagner and Cassimjee, 2006; Thomas, 2002; Twala, 2004), stress for beneficiaries and the lowering of standards and production (Motileng et al., 2006).

So far, reports have indicated that progress on achieving employment equity has been slow and that many organisations are not achieving their targets (Employment Equity Report, 2003; Healy, 2004; Mdlalana, 2003; Pandor, 2005). Dissatisfaction and frustration among designated groups, linked to a perceived lack of management commitment to the process, prevail (Orr & Goldman, 2001). Organisations tend to play a numbers game and often other fundamental components of the process, such as training and diversity management, are ignored (Human, 2005).

The first part of this dissertation will provide an overview of the rationale for implementing EE legislation in South Africa, specifically the EEA (no 55 of 1998), as the catalyst for organisations to embrace equity and diversity. The purpose of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) and the practical requirements specified by the act will be discussed.

The second part of the dissertation will focus on the dependent variables, namely employees' perceptions of the fairness of EE practices. The factors that may influence employees' perceptions have been identified as age, gender, race, EE category and job level. These factors are the independent variables.

The case organisation is a private company in the health services industry employing approximately 3800 staff. The company's equipment and quality

standards are on par with local and international standards. The company has employment policies in place aimed at fulfilling the EE targets set for each region.

1.2.   PROBLEM STATEMENT

In general, the pace of effecting change and bringing about employment equity is slow (Mdlalana, 2003; Orr & Goldman, 2001; Pandor, 2005). Some organisations are reluctant to comply at all, while others only pay lip service to the need for AA and EE initiatives and look for short-term solutions (Human, 1996; Mdlalana, 2000; Orr & Goldman, 2001). The task now is to identify the barriers to effective implementation of EE and the best way to overcome them.

Some authors suggest that although numerical goal setting is important, organisations should realise that achieving EE success is more than just getting the numbers right (Human, 1996; Thomas, 2003). Most reports on EE fail to capture the qualitative progress that companies are making in the critical aspects that support employment equity target achievement (Thomas, 2003). Aspects that could affect the success of EE include the consultative process, management commitment, employment policies and practices and the organisational culture.

According to Coetzee (2005), the problems surrounding employment equity arise mainly from the manner in which it is implemented and employees' perceptions thereof, rather than the practices themselves. International research has shown that many people tend to evaluate EE and AA plans in terms of fairness judgements (SIOP Committee, 1995). In the USA, the failure of AA programmes (as an aspect of EE) has been attributed to these being implemented inequitably and neglecting to address employees' perceptions of fairness (Coetzee, 2005).

Why should we be interested in determining and improving perceptions of fairness of employment equity practices and outcomes? Because when conditions at work are perceived as unfair, employees will tend to reject and resist them (Coetzee, 2005). Thus, employees' perceptions of the implementation of EE may affect the achievement of EE objectives. In addition, research has linked perceptions of

fairness to key organisational outcomes such as employee turnover, satisfaction, commitment and performance (Coetzee, 2005; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

Research has established that people's perceptions of fairness and justice are largely based on their norms and values (Greenberg, 2001). Concerns about fairness at work are universal in nature (Greenberg, 2001). However, when people have internalised particular norms and values they may have different perceptions of fairness. People internalise different norms and values mainly because they come from diverse cultures (Greenberg, 2001). In general, people agree that justice is important but they often define it differently in practice. Thus, understanding peoples' perceptions of fairness also requires taking into account the norms that prevail in their specific culture (Greenberg, 2001).

Research has also shown that there are differences in how men and women perceive the fairness of organisational practices, including selection, EE and AA procedures (Duweke, 2004; McMillan-Capehart, 2005; SIOP Committee, 1995). Ultimately, the fairness of these procedures matters to both men and women and organisations should attempt to implement them in a just manner (McMillan-Capehart, 2005).

In addition to demographic variables such as race and gender, other individual differences may affect people's responses to affirmative action (SIOP Committee, 1995). These include a factor known as the respondent's role. The respondent's role differentiates between employees who are in a position to make decisions about EE and AA programmes, such as managers, and those who are not, usually non-managerial staff. It also involves the difference between employees who are part of the target or designated group and those who are not. In general, these factors do have an influence on perceptions of fairness and may be worth noting (SIOP Committee, 1995).

The South African workforce consists of men and women from different cultures and on different job levels. Thus, EE could be achieved by evaluating organisational practices and the different groups' perceptions thereof in terms of fairness judgements. Based on these results, recommendations can be made to

change those procedures or alternatively the behaviour of those involved in order to improve perceptions of fairness and related organisational outcomes (Coetzee, 2005; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

1.2.1. Research question

How does the implementation of the requirements of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) affect employees' perceptions of the fairness of EE practices and procedures? To put it another way, do employees experience fairness and non-discrimination in the workplace as a result of EE? This research will attempt to answer the following specific questions:

1) What is the background and rationale for EE legislation in South Africa?

2) How can key concepts such as EE, AA, discrimination, fairness and diversity be defined?

3) What are the current obstacles to and critical success factors in the effective implementation of EE and AA programmes in organisations?

4) How can employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational procedures and practices be conceptualised?

5) What are the factors that influence perceptions of employment equity and affirmative action practices?

6) How do employees currently perceive organisational employment equity and affirmative action practices and outcomes?

7) Do perceptions of fairness differ between groups in the categories of race, gender, and job level?

8) How can organisational procedures and group behaviour be addressed in order to influence positively employees' perceptions of employment equity practices?

1.3. AIM OF THE STUDY

1.3.1. General aim

The general aim of this research is to determine employees' perceptions of the fairness of the procedures used to implement employment equity within a specific organisation.

1.3.2. Specific aims

In terms of the literature review the specific aims are to:

- Describe the background and rationale for employment equity legislation in South Africa.

- Define key concepts such as EE, AA, discrimination, fairness and diversity.

- Identify the obstacles and critical success factors in the effective implementation of EE and AA programmes in organisations.

- Explain the theory of organisational justice that underpins employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational procedures and practices and its effect on key organisational outcomes.

- Describe the factors that influence perceptions of employment equity and affirmative action practices.

In terms of the empirical study the specific aims are to:

- Measure employees' responses to employment equity practices in a specific organisation.

- Describe the differences in responses between groups in the categories of gender, race, and job level.

- Identify specific groups and/or areas of concern where organisational procedures or group behaviour can be improved to increase employees' perceptions of fairness of employment equity practices.

- Compile conclusions and recommendations based on the results of the study.

1.4. PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

This research is conducted within the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology. This discipline has as its basic aim the understanding, explanation, prediction and influence of human behaviour and experience in the work context. This study falls within the sub-field organisational behaviour as it aims to identify behaviour at the individual, group and organisational level (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). The study focuses on behaviour at group level as well as related organisational behaviours.

The research is located within the psychological paradigm of organisational justice theory. Organisational justice refers to how people perceive the fairness of their work-related inputs relative to the outcomes that they receive (Coetzee, 2005; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Organisational justice concepts are appropriate in the working environment as many procedures are implemented and many decisions made about the allocation of outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

Paradigms act as perspectives that provide the rationale for research and commit the researcher to specific methods of data collection and analysis (TerreBlanche & Durrheim, 1999, p 7). In order to investigate the theoretical relationship between employees' perceptions of fairness and the effectiveness of employment equity and affirmative action programmes, the humanistic and open systems paradigms are adopted in the literature review phase. The empirical study focuses on measuring and describing employees' perceptions of the fairness of employment equity practices and takes a positivist approach.

1.4.1. The humanistic paradigm

The humanistic approach maintains that people have the ability for self-direction and do not simply react to instincts or external factors (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1997; Nevid, Rathus & Green, 2003). Individuals have an innate tendency to self-actualisation and to realise their full potential (Nevid et al., 2003). Each person has unique traits and talents that create a unique perspective of life (Nevid et al., 2003). This view holds that human nature is inherently good and conflict or antisocial behaviour manifests only when people become frustrated in striving to reach their full potential (Meyer et al., 1997; Nevid et al., 2003). This implies that by determining the source of frustration and removing it, conflict can be resolved and/or negative behaviour changed.

1.4.2. The open systems paradigm

Organisations are social entities and engage all kinds of people in order to achieve a wide variety of organisational and individual goals and objectives such as making money, achieving power or prestige and experiencing work satisfaction (Werner, 2007). Studying people within organisations is a challenge and it is important to recognise that organisations are complex, open and dynamic systems (Swanson, 2005). As an open system, the organisation (mission, strategy, structure, technology, and human resources) is in continual interaction with multiple external environments (economic, political, and cultural forces) that provide the inputs (people, raw material, capital, and information). It then transforms these inputs into outputs (products or services) that go back into the environment (Cascio, 1998;

Swanson, 2005). There are numerous subsystems (such as groups, departments, and divisions) and parallel processes that work interdependently to achieve the goals of the organisation (Cascio, 1998; Swanson, 2005).

1.4.3. The positivist paradigm

The positivist approach "aims to provide an accurate description of the laws and mechanisms that operate in social life" (TerreBlanche & Durrheim, 1999, p 7). The basic assumption of positivism is that objective methods can measure and explain the relationships among variables (Swanson, 2005).

1.5. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design can be defined as the framework or way in which the research is conducted in order to best answer the research questions and achieve the aim of the study (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

The aim of this study is to describe the characteristics of the domain as well as certain aspects of groups and to make comparisons between these groups. Thus, the design of this study is descriptive and involves the use of quantitative methods. Descriptive research uses surveys to gather information and interpret certain aspects of subjects in a quantitative manner (Holton & Burnett, 2005). Quantitative researchers collect data in numerical format and use statistical methods to analyse this data (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Quantitative methods allow for the use of smaller groups, namely samples, in order to make inferences about larger groups (Holton & Burnett, 2005). The unit of analysis in this study is the group. It was a sample of convenience as questionnaires were distributed and only employees who were willing to participate completed the questionnaire.

According to Holton and Burnett (2005, p. 32), "variables are the phenomena that varies depending on the conditions affecting it". There are two types of variables, namely independent and dependent. The independent variable is not dependent on anything else and is manipulated to determine its effects on the dependent variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Employee responses to 10 dimensions of employment equity were measured in this study. These responses were

analysed according to four demographic categories, namely race, gender, age, and job level. These four categories are the independent variables and the responses to the employment equity dimensions the dependent variables.

Measurement validity is established by ensuring that the measuring instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Content validity is established by ensuring that the measurement instrument used represents the dimensions of the domain being studied (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Information on the overall reliability of the original measurement instrument is provided. The internal consistency of the dimensions was estimated by means of calculating Cronbach's coefficient alpha.

For the purpose of this study the unit of analysis is the group. The results were analysed in a quantitative manner with a statistical computer software package. Descriptive statistics regarding the demographic representation of the sample were generated. The following statistical methods were used to analyse the data:

- Frequency distributions
- Measures of central tendency – means and standard deviation
- Differences between groups – T-test
- One way analysis of variance (ANOVA)
- Factorial analysis of variance.

1.6. RESEARCH METHOD

The study was conducted in two phases. The first phase consisted of a literature review and the second phase, an empirical study.

Phase 1 Literature review

Step 1   Background and rationale for the implementation of employment equity legislation in South Africa. Key concepts are defined and an overview of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) and other related laws is provided.

Step 2   The barriers to and critical success factors in the effective implementation of EE and AA programmes in organisations are identified. Models for the effective implementation of EE as presented in the literature are discussed.

Step 3   The principles of organisational justice theory are explained and the factors that influence perceptions of fairness are discussed. The effect of perceptions of fairness on key organisational outcomes is explained to emphasise the need for just organisational procedures.

Step 4   The reasons for principles of organisational justice theory being applicable and appropriate to interpreting employees' perceptions of fairness of employment equity are discussed.

Step 5   Organisational, group and individual aspects that influence employees' perceptions of fairness in employment equity are discussed.

Step 6   A model that integrates both the factors that encourage effective implementation of EE and those that enhance perceptions of fairness is proposed.

Phase 2 Empirical study

Step 1   Description of population and sample
              The population consists of employees in a private company in the health and welfare sector. The sample constitutes those employees who were willing to complete the questionnaire.

Step 2   Measuring instrument
              The selection and adaptation of a suitable questionnaire incorporating aspects of EE that relate to the various forms of organisational justice, is described.

Step 3   Data collection method

                The procedure and method of data collection is explained.

Step 4   Data Analysis

                The statistical analysis of the data is discussed.

Step 5   Reporting and interpretation of results

                Descriptive statistics are presented in graph and table format.
                Statistics of central tendency per dimension are reported in table
                format. Comparative statistics of the results of different groups are
                presented in table format.

Step 6   Discussion of results according to the literature review

                The results of the empirical study are discussed and integrated with
                the findings of the literature review to allow for meaningful
                interpretation of the results.

Step 7   Conclusion

                The results are reviewed in relation to the aims of the study. The
                implications of the results for the case organisation are discussed.

Step 8   Limitations and recommendations

                The limitations of the study are indicated and suggestions made for
                further research. Recommendations for the case organisation are
                formulated, based on the results of both the literature and empirical
                study.

1.7.   DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 2   Overview of the implementation of employment equity legislation in
                South Africa

Chapter 3   Barriers to and critical success factors in the effective implementation
                of employment equity

Chapter 4   Organisational justice and employment equity practices

Chapter 5   Data collection and analysis methods

Chapter 6   Reporting and interpretation of results

Chapter 7   Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.8.   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the background and motivation for this research. The problem statement, aims of the study, paradigm perspectives, research design, and research method were discussed.

Chapter 2 will provide the background to and rationale for the implementation of employment equity practices in South Africa and includes definitions of key concepts. The purpose and requirements of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) will be discussed as well as other relevant employment equity legislation.

CHAPTER 2

OVERVIEW OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EMPLOYMENT EQUITY LEGISLATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Chapter 2 provides the background to and rationale for the implementation of employment equity (EE) practices and legislation in South Africa. Key concepts such as EE, affirmative action, discrimination, fairness and diversity are defined. An overview of the Employment Equity Act (EEA no 55 of 1998), subsequent amendments and codes of good practice is provided. Other employment equity legislation is also discussed.

2.1. BACKGROUND TO AND RATIONALE FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EE IN SOUTH AFRICA

In South Africa, the apartheid regime (1948-1994) was based on the concept of segregation of population groups along racial lines, in residential areas, provision of education and in the reservation of certain jobs for certain groups (Claassen, 1997; Foxcroft, 1997). Owing to apartheid, different groups were not in competition for access to the same educational or occupational opportunities. The ruling party at the time, the National Party, even implemented a job reservation programme in which certain senior positions were reserved for white, Afrikaans-speaking people (Twala, 2004).

When South Africa became a democracy in 1994, all segregation laws were abolished and education, training and equitable workplace practices were recognised as critical elements in successful competition for organisations of all sizes and sectors (Mdladlana, 2003). Several new laws, such as the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 75 of 1997, the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998 and the Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998, were promulgated to promote equal opportunity and access to education and any job category. Despite this, competing on equal footing was strictly speaking impossible for Blacks, women and people with disabilities (Twala, 2004). This was mostly owing to the differences in the standard and quality of education under apartheid (Huysamen, 1995). The EEA (no 55 of 1998) was promulgated to speed up the process of redressing the

inequities of the past in the workplace. Section 2 of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) declares the purpose of the act as:

The achievement of equity in the workplace by:

a) promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and

b) implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace.

Given South Africa's history, it was felt that simply changing laws would not ensure equality and that there should therefore be some pressure on organisations to comply (Twala, 2004). In the light of this, further legislation was implemented to speed up the process, including the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act No 5 of 2000 and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act No 53 of 2003.

International debate on the implementation, effectiveness and necessity of EE is ongoing (McMillan-Capehart, 2005). Diverse views on EE exist in South Africa. Some people see it as reverse discrimination and tokenism (Maritz, 2002; Motileng et al., 2006; Twala, 2004), while others regard it as essential to the stability and economic success of the country (Human, 1996; Mdladlana, 2003; Thomas, 2002). It is against this backdrop that organisations are becoming increasingly aware that employment equity must become a business decision (Twala, 2004).

2.2. DEFINING THE KEY CONCEPTS

In discussions of employment equity legislation in SA, a number of key concepts emerge. These terms include employment equity, affirmative action, designated groups, diversity management, unfair discrimination, and employment practices. For the purpose of clarity these are now briefly explained.

2.2.1. Employment Equity (EE)

The terms "employment equity" and "affirmative action" are sometimes used interchangeably. These are, however, two different though related concepts (Human, 1996; Portnoi, 2003).

Employment equity has as its objective the creation of equal opportunities in the workplace and the elimination of unfair discrimination (Uys, 2003). Employment equity is the assumption of equal access for all to participation in the empowerment process and to progression on the basis of merit, ability and potential (Luhabe, 1993). This assumption is further based on the premise that people have the same socio-economic and educational backgrounds and are able to compete on an equal footing. It has already been established that this is not the case in the South African situation: because of apartheid people do not have identical backgrounds and it would take more than the idea of employment equity to achieve equity in the South African workplace.

Equity means a fair outcome based on the ratio of input and resulting outcome, whereas equality means the same opportunity for everyone to experience an outcome (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). In other words, employment equity aspires to create fair outcomes for employees through the provision of equal opportunities to experience these outcomes.

2.2.2. Affirmative Action (AA)

The American President Lyndon B. Johnson originally created the concept of affirmative action (AA) in 1965 by means of an Executive Order (Cropanzano, Slaughter & Bachiochi, 2005). The definition demanded that all employees should be treated equally without regard to race, colour, religion, sex or national origin. In addition, affirmative steps such as recruitment and training were recommended strategies for achieving the overall objective, namely equality. Thus, it seems that the nature of AA provides for preferential treatment that contradicts the concept of equality (Copranzano et al., 2005).

According to Uys (2003), affirmative action is intended as a short-term, specific, corrective measure to systematically address past injustices. For example, this might include the reservation of specific positions for those previously disadvantaged or the introduction of mentoring programmes for women. Affirmative action refers to the process (strategy) while employment equity is the desired outcome (Human, 1996; Portnoi, 2003). In other words, affirmative action measures are implemented as a means of achieving equity in the workplace.

Thus, when employees' responses to employment equity are evaluated this is done not merely to determine whether the overall objective of equity has been achieved. In reality, this is an evaluation of their responses to the particular affirmative action measures, activities and practices used by an organisation in achieving employment equity.

2.2.3. Diversity

Affirmative action measures with the objective of achieving employment equity result in increased diversity in the workforce. However, these concepts do not constitute the management of diversity per se (Uys, 2003).

The approach to diversity management can take two forms (Uys, 2003). The first is generally known as awareness and valuing of diversity. In other words, we acknowledge that there are differences and we implement initiatives to create awareness in order to facilitate understanding and tolerance of these differences. This approach is culturally oriented in the sense that diversity management is viewed as the management (awareness, acknowledgement and tolerance) of cultural differences in traditions, values and beliefs. This is a narrow approach as it implies that other individual differences (gender, age, personality, education, socio-economic background etc.) do not play a role. Placing emphasis on cultural differences only releases people from the responsibility of examining their own prejudices and accepting the need for change from within (Human, 1996; Uys, 2003).

The second approach implies that diversity management is a process which aims to create a supportive organisational environment where every employee, with his/her own similarities and differences, has the opportunity to contribute to the strategic and competitive advantage of the business and where no one is excluded by factors unrelated to performance or productivity (Uys, 2003). At this level, diversity management means the management of individuals irrespective of race, gender, culture, religion, disability, or age.

In this latter approach, diversity management is a competency. Thus, as such, diversity management could be defined as the harnessing of individual differences and contributions in order to enhance morale, productivity and the achievement of organisational goals (Uys, 2003).

The distinction between the awareness and valuing of diversity and the process of actually managing diversity lies mainly in the extent to which differences are viewed either as a liability or as a competitive advantage. One view aims to <u>tolerate</u> and the other to <u>capitalise</u> on a broad spectrum of diversity aspects in order to create a more dynamic and productive work culture (Human, 1996; Uys, 2003).

This is a competency required both by employees in general and managers in particular (Uys, 2003). For example, an employee who is prejudiced against people from a specific group is unlikely to interact effectively or to participate in team efforts with members of that group. This may have an adverse influence on the performance of the team. In similar fashion, a manager who is prejudiced against a specific group is unlikely to manage those people effectively or to develop their particular strengths and talents. This may have a negative effect on the performance of the department.

2.2.4. Discrimination

"Unfair discrimination" implies that discrimination against an employee, in any employment policy or practice, may not take place in an unfair manner because of race, gender, age, religion, marital status, pregnancy, disability or anything else that is not an inherent requirement of the job (EEA, 1998, Chapter 2, Section 5).

Guion (as quoted in Cascio, 1998, p 122) states: "Unfair discrimination exists when persons with equal probabilities of success on the job have unequal probabilities of being hired for the job." Figure 2.1 illustrates the two main forms of illegal discrimination. Cascio (1998, p 13-14) describes the two broad forms of the complex issue of discrimination as follows:

- Unequal treatment / direct discrimination

This form of discrimination is based on the *intention* to discriminate unfairly and also the intention to *retaliate* against any person opposing the discrimination. There are three sub-theories within this theory, namely:
  - Discrimination based on <u>direct evidence</u> such as the open expression of hatred or disrespect towards a certain group and covert exclusionary policies that deliberately exclude an individual whose disability (e.g. a paraplegic) has nothing to do with the requirements of the job (e.g. a call centre position).
  - Discrimination based on <u>circumstantial evidence</u> such as statistical evidence of systematic discrimination against certain groups.
  - Discrimination based on <u>mixed-motives</u> that include direct evidence of the intention to discriminate as well as circumstantial evidence of the intention to discriminate unfairly.
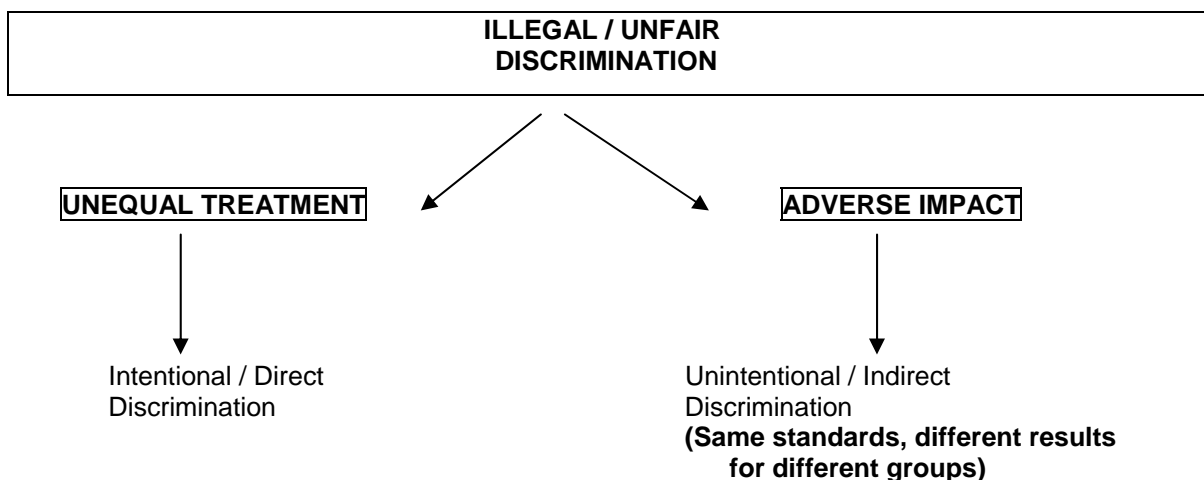
Figure 2.1. Two major forms of illegal discrimination

Source: Cascio (1998, p 14)

- Adverse impact / indirect discrimination

Adverse impact occurs when the same standards are applied seemingly fairly to everyone, leading nonetheless to a substantial difference in employment outcomes for members of a specific group, unrelated to success on the job. For example, height requirements for acceptance into a police college will have an adverse effect for women. Thus, although the same criteria are applied across the board, fewer women will be accepted and employers will need to show that being over a certain height is essential to performing the job.

According to the EEA (Section 5, 1998), employers must remove unfair discrimination from all their policies and procedures. However, it is not unfair to discriminate when affirmative action measures are applied or to exclude or prefer people based on the inherent requirements of the job (Section 6, 1998). For example, it is not unfair discrimination to exclude blind people from being hired as bus drivers. In addition, when two applicants have the same merit for a job the black person could be chosen over the white person without constituting unfair discrimination if this is part of the EE strategy (Maritz, 2002). However, all employment equity and/or AA practices should be tested for both direct and indirect discrimination (Deane, 2006).

2.2.5. Fairness

The issue of fairness is by far the most challenging aspect of this legislation. It is difficult to define the concept of fairness as it is not a psychometric property and cannot be statistically or objectively determined (Cascio, 1998). Research has established that people's perceptions of fairness and justice are largely based on their norms and values (Cascio, 1998; Greenberg, 2001; Huysamen, 1995; Potgieter & Van der Merwe, 2002). What people believe to be fair depends on their repeated exposure to specific standards and instilled expectations that form the basis of fairness assessments. If behaviour complies with these expectations it is considered fair, whereas a violation of these expectations is considered unfair (Beugre, 2005; Greenberg, 2001).

The perception of a fair outcome should not be confused with a favourable outcome (Cropanzano et al., 2005). A favourable outcome is in the individual's best interests and a fair outcome is consistent with moral standards and norms. The outcome of employment practices may be unfavourable, i.e. the person may not get a promotion because of AA, but it is still perceived as fair because the person who was appointed is suitably qualified. Ultimately, AA practices could be more or less favourable to some but they should not be more or less fair (Cropanzano et al., 2005). In other words, the employment practices of an organisation could be as unbiased, favourable and well planned as is possible and yet still be perceived as unfair.

2.2.6. Employment Practices

All organisational employment policies or practices as defined in the EEA (Chapter 1.1 Definitions) are affected. These include but are not limited to the following:

- Recruitment procedures, advertising and selection criteria
- Appointments
- Job classification and grading
- Remuneration, employment benefits, terms and conditions of employment
- Job assignments
- The physical working environment and equipment
- Training and development
- Performance evaluation and management systems
- Promotion
- Transfer
- Demotion
- Disciplinary measures other than dismissal
- Dismissal.

Employment equity initiatives may include special actions related to various employment practices. Examples of actions include diversity training, special recruitment efforts, succession planning and so on.

2.2.7. Numerical goal setting

"Numerical goal setting" refers to the process of determining the current representation and/or under representation of each EE group in each occupational category and level. Targets are set to improve the representation of the various groups in occupational categories. Thus, there are two aspects to consider, namely *demographic representation of groups* and *representation in all occupational categories and levels*.

2.2.7.1. Demographic representation

Table 2.1 provides the national demographic data on race and gender and the economically active population. The distribution of these two populations provides essential information when setting numerical goals for employment equity.
The ultimate aim is that the employment profile should mirror the demographics of the economically-active population (Commission for EE Report, 2006). This population refers to people between 15 and 65 years old who could be employed or unemployed but excludes those not seeking to be employed, e.g. scholars (Commission for EE Report, 2006).

Table 2.1 indicates that Africans constitute the largest group (79%) in the National Population Distribution (NPD), followed by Whites (9.6%), Coloureds (8.9%) and Indians (2.5%). In terms of gender distribution, females constitute 52.2% and males 47.8% of the national population in South Africa.

Africans also constitute the largest group (74.1%) in the economically active population (EAP), followed by Whites (12.6%), Coloureds (10.3%) and Indians (3.1%). Gender-wise, males (54.3%) and females (45.7%) are relatively evenly distributed. While Whites are virtually all economically active, Africans are the only group where the EAP is lagging behind the NPD. In terms of gender, African and Indian females' EAP lags behind the NPD.

TABLE 2.1 Distribution of the National Population and the Economically Active Population by race and gender (Source: Commission for EE report, 2006)

Population Group	National Population Distribution (Census 2001)			Economically Active Population (LFS 2005)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
African	16 887 830	18 528 336	35 416 166	6 667 000	5 746 000	12 413 000
	37.7%	41.3%	79.0%	39.8%	34.3%	74.1%
Coloured	1 920 426	2 074 079	3 994 505	933 000	780 000	1 713 000
	4.3%	4.6%	8.9%	5.6%	4.7%	10.3%
Indian	545 050	570 417	1 115 467	326 000	197 000	523 000
	1.2%	1.3%	2.5%	1.9%	1.2%	3.1%
White	2 080 734	2 212 905	4 293 639	1 165 000	931 000	2 096 000
	4.6%	5.0%	9.6%	7.0%	5.6%	12.6%
Total	21 434 040	23 385 737	44 819 777	9 091 000	7 654 401	16 745 401
	47.8%	52.2%	100%	54.3%	45.7%	100%

2.2.7.2. Representation in occupational categories and levels

Form EEA2 of the EEA (no 55 of 1998), as amended, sets out the various occupational categories and occupational levels. Table 2.2 provides a summary of these occupational categories and occupational levels.

Table 2.2 Occupational categories and occupational levels (Source: Form EEA2)

Occupational Categories
Legislators, senior officials and managers
Professionals
Technicians and associate professionals
Clerks
Service and sales workers
Skilled agriculture and fishery workers
Craft and related trades workers
Plant and machine operators and assemblers
Elementary occupations
Occupational Levels
Top management
Senior management
Professionally qualified and experienced specialists and mid-

management
Skilled technical and academically qualified workers, junior management, supervisors, foremen, and superintendents
Semi-skilled and discretionary decision making
Unskilled and defined decision making

2.2.8. Suitably qualified

"Suitably qualified" refers to a person as described in section 20 (3 and 4) of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) and is determined on the basis of the person's ability to acquire, within a reasonable time, the ability to do the job. Although "within a reasonable time" could probably warrant a debate in its own right, it refers basically to having "potential" (Huysamen, 2002).

When determining whether a person is suitably qualified for the job, the employer must consider any or a combination of the following factors: the person's formal qualifications, prior learning, relevant experience, or capacity to acquire, within a reasonable time, the ability to do the job (Section 20, EEA no 55 of 1998). Employers may not discriminate solely on the grounds of a person not having relevant experience.

2.2.9. Designated groups

"Designated groups" is the collective term used to refer to Blacks, women and people with disabilities (EEA no 55 of 1998). People with disabilities are defined as people who have a long-term or recurring physical or mental impairment that significantly limits entry to or advancement in employment. As per Chapter 1, Section 1 of the EEA (no 55 of 1998), the term "Blacks" is a generic term that indicates African, Indian and Coloured people collectively.

2.3. OVERVIEW OF THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT 55 0F 1998

In order to establish what the implementation of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) implies for organisations it is necessary to review the Act and its requirements. As stated in

Chapter I of Section 2 of the EEA (No 55 of 1998), the main purpose of the Act is to achieve equity in the workplace. Chapter II of the Act determines the prohibition of unfair discrimination. Chapter III deals with the duties of designated employers, namely workplace analysis, consultation, compiling an EE plan and reporting to the Department of Labour. Chapter IV outlines the establishment, composition and functions of the Commission for Employment Equity. Chapter V prescribes the procedures for monitoring and enforcing the provisions of the Act and Chapter VI outlines general provisions in terms of Codes of Good Practice and the liability of employers. Four schedules form part of the Act, namely maximum possible fines that may be imposed for contravening the act, laws that have been repealed, transitional arrangements, and the turnover threshold applicable to designated employers.

2.4.   AMENDMENTS TO THE EEA 55 OF 1998

The regulations of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) have been amended by Government Notice R 1360 in Government Gazette 20626 of 23 November 1999, Notice R 955 in Government Gazette 21583 of 2 October 2000 and Notice R 480 in Government Gazette 28858 of 26 May 2006. The most recent amendments to the employment equity regulations were published in Government Notice R 841 in Government Gazette 29130 of 18 August 2006. These amendments replace all other amendments published in previous Government Notices. These amendments pertain to certain general administrative regulations and several forms and annexure to be used in the reporting process.

2.5.   CODES OF GOOD PRACTICE

According to Section 54 of the EEA (55 of 1998), the Minister of Labour may, on the advice of the Commission for EE, issue a code of good practice in terms of the provisions of the Act. The purpose of issuing codes of good practice is to complement the Act in correcting past imbalances. The following codes of good practice have been released:

2.5.1. Disability in the workplace

This code provides guidelines for employers and employees in promoting equal opportunities and fair treatment for people with disabilities.

2.5.2. Preparation, implementation and monitoring of employment equity plans

This code provides guidelines for good practice in the preparation, implementation and monitoring of employment equity plans as per Section 20 of the EEA.

2.5.3. Integration of employment equity into human resources policies and practices

This code provides guidelines to enable employers to ensure that their human resources policies and practices are not based on discrimination but reflect EE principles. The first step would be to remove any barriers (i.e. policies and procedures that limit the opportunities of employees) and then to implement comprehensive strategies to advance designated groups. It also identifies key areas of human resources that can be used to advance equity objectives. These include recruitment and selection, performance management, skills development and promotions.

2.5.4. Key aspects of HIV/AIDS and employment

This code provides guidelines for employers, employees and trade unions to ensure that people infected with HIV are not unfairly discriminated against in the workplace. This code is accompanied by the Technical Assistance Guidelines on managing HIV/AIDS in the workplace, which provide more detail on the implementation of policies, including strategies to accommodate the needs of small businesses and the informal sector.

2.5.5. Handling of sexual harassment cases in the workplace

This code provides guidelines on how to deal with and eliminate sexual harassment in the workplace. It aims to promote the implementation of policies and procedures that will lead to workplaces that are free of sexual harassment, where employers and employees respect each other's integrity, dignity, privacy and right to equity.

2.6. IMPLEMENTING THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE EEA (55 OF 1998)

The main implications of the implementation of the requirements of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) for organisations, and specifically designated employers, are set out in Chapter III – Designated employers. According to Section 13, designated employers must implement affirmative action measures for people from designated groups (Section 15). In order to do this, employers must consult with employees (Section 16), conduct a workplace analysis (Section 19), prepare an employment equity plan (Section 20), and report to the Department of Labour on the progress made in implementing the employment equity plan (Section 21).

2.6.1. The consultation requirement

According to Section 16 of the EEA (no 55 of 1998), employers must consult with employees regarding EE and AA practices. Consultation must take place with a representative trade union and/or representatives of the employees nominated by the employees. Employees or nominated representatives must reflect the interests of employees across all occupational categories and levels, employees from designated groups and those who are not from designated groups.

The consultation requirement is essential to the eventual realisation of the goal of achieving equity in the workplace. It is important, therefore, that employers make use of the process in good faith and do not simply go through the motions (Deane, 2006).

2.6.2. The analysis requirement

Section 19 of the EEA requires that designated employers analyse employment practices, policies, procedures and the working environment to identify any obstacles facing people from designated groups. This analysis must include a profile of the designated employer's workforce according to each occupational category and level to determine the representation or under representation in each category and level.

Numerical targets can be achieved by affirmative action measures and by appointing suitably qualified people from the designated groups (Section 15). Quotas are explicitly excluded by the Act and this eases the pressure on employers as they are able to set their own targets without being constrained by externally set numerical goals (Deane, 2006).

This analysis is not only a legal requirement but provides the information necessary to draft an effective employment equity plan (Deane, 2006). The analysis will identify any employment barriers and discriminatory practices that the organisation needs to eliminate.

2.6.3. The employment equity plan requirement

Section 20 stipulates the requirement of compiling an employment equity plan. The purpose of the plan is to outline the practical steps that a designated employer will implement to achieve reasonable progress towards employment equity (Deane, 2006).

According to Chapter III – Section 20, the employment equity plan must include the following:
- Objectives for each year of the plan;
- The affirmative action measures that will be implemented;
- The numerical goals and strategies to achieve equitable representation from designated groups;
- A timetable for achievement of goals;

- The duration of the plan, which may not be less than one year and not more than five years;
- The procedures that will be followed to monitor and evaluate achievement of the plan;
- The internal dispute resolution procedures that will be abided by; and
- The people responsible, including managers, for monitoring and implementing the plan.

2.6.3.1. *Affirmative action measures requirement*

It is necessary to elaborate on the affirmative action measures that should be included in the plan as these play a central role in the achievement of employment equity (Deane, 2006).

Section 15 describes the purpose and type of affirmative action measures that may be included in the employment equity plan. The purpose of affirmative action measures is to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal opportunities and are equitably represented in the workforce. Affirmative measures include identifying and eliminating employment barriers that impact adversely on designated groups, measures designed to further diversity in the workplace, reasonable accommodation for people from designated groups, and measures to retain and develop people from designated groups such as training and skills development.

These measures may include preferential treatment of people from designated groups and achieving numerical goals. However, it excludes quotas and employers are not required to take any decisions or measures that would establish an absolute bar to the employment or advancement of people who are not from designated groups (Deane, 2006).

Affirmative action measures are not designed to ensure the automatic advancement of unqualified persons (Deane, 2006). The provisions of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) are not so much to promote positive discrimination of those who were

previously disadvantaged but rather to promote the positive uplifting and affirmation of these groups (Deane, 2006).

In addition, employers are required to recognise diversity and promote tolerance of diversity amongst employees (Deane, 2006). This can be achieved by creating awareness, for example through workshops, of matters such as differences in beliefs, traditions, religions and languages.

2.6.4. The reporting requirement

Section 21 of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) stipulates that employers with fewer than 150 employees must submit a report within 12 months of becoming an employer and thereafter once every two years. A designated employer (more than 150 employees) must submit a report within six months of becoming such an employer and thereafter once a year. The reports must contain the prescribed information and be signed by the chief executive officer of the company. These reports are considered to be public documents.

2.7. OTHER EQUITY LEGISLATION

The EEA (no 55 of 1998) is not the only legislation aimed at the redress of past imbalances nor does it function in isolation. Thus, other equity legislation must be briefly reviewed as optimal success depends on aligning all equity policy and legislative provisions (Commission for EE Report, 2006).

2.7.1. The Skills Development Act no 97 of 1998

The Skills Development Act (SDA) no 97 of 1998, as amended by the Skills Development Amendment Act no 31 of 2003, aims to develop the skills of the South African workforce in order to improve quality of life, productivity, the delivery of social services, and to promote self-employment. The SDA (no 97 of 1998) aims to address the past poor quality of education and the lack of investment in and financing for training. It focuses specifically on the improvement of employment

prospects for previously disadvantaged persons through education and training (Van Dyk, Nel, Van Zyl Loedolff & Haasbroek, 2001).

According to Chapter 1 Section 2 of the SDA (no 97 of 1998), the purpose of the Act is to:

a) Develop the skills of the South African workforce to –
- i) Improve the quality of life of workers, their prospects of work and labour mobility;
- ii) Improve productivity in the workplace and the competitiveness of employers;
- iii) Promote self-employment; and
- iv) Improve the delivery of social services.

b) Increase the levels of investment in education and training in the labour market and to improve the return on that investment;

c) Encourage employers to –
- i) Use the workplace as an active learning environment;
- ii) Provide employees with the opportunities to acquire new skills;
- iii) Provide opportunities for new entrants to the labour market to gain work experience; and
- iv) Employ persons who have difficulty finding employment.

d) Encourage workers to participate in learnerships and other training programmes;

e) Improve the employment prospects of persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress those disadvantages through training and education;

f) Ensure the quality of education and training in and for the workplace;

g) Assist –
- i) Work-seekers to find work;
- ii) Retrenched workers to re-enter the labour market; and
- iii) Employers to find qualified employees.

h) Provide and regulate employment services.

The SDA (no 97 0f 1998) provides for the establishment of a National Skills Authority (NSA), Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETA'S) and the

National Skills Fund (NSF). Two types of learning programmes are identified, namely learnerships (Chapter 4) and skills programmes (Chapter 5). Learnerships involve structured training and workplace experience that leads to a nationally registered qualification. Skills programmes are not learnerships but must meet certain quality and relevance criteria in order to qualify for grants from SETAs or the NSF (Van Dyk et al., 2001)

2.7.2. The Promotion of Equity and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act no 4 of 2000

This Act was brought into being in terms of Section 9 of the Constitution that allows for the implementation of national legislation to prevent or prohibit unfair discrimination and to promote equality. Its main purpose is to prevent and prohibit unfair discrimination or harassment, to promote equality and eliminate unfair discrimination, and to prevent and prohibit hate speech and other related matters.

According to Chapter 1 – Section 2 of the Act, its objectives are to:
a) Enact legislation required by Section 9 of the Constitution;
b) Give effect to the letter and spirit of the Constitution and in particular the
   i) Equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms by every person;
   ii) Promotion of equality;
   iii) Values of non-racialism and non-sexism contained in Section 1 of the Constitution;
   iv) Prevention of unfair discrimination and protection of human dignity;
   v) Prohibition of advocacy of hatred based on race, ethnicity, gender or religion, that constitutes incitement to do harm;
c) Provide for measures to facilitate the eradication of unfair discrimination, hate speech and harassment, particularly on the grounds of race, gender and disability;
d) Provide for procedures for the determination of circumstances under which discrimination is unfair;
e) Provide measures to educate the public and raise public awareness on the importance of promoting equality and overcoming unfair discrimination, hate speech and harassment;

f) Provide remedies for victims of unfair discrimination, hate speech and harassment and persons whose rights to equality have been infringed;

g) Set out measures to advance persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination;

h) Facilitate further compliance with the obligations of international law.

2.7.3. The Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act no 5 of 2000

The Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act no 5 of 2000 and the Preferential Procurement Regulations Government Notice R275 published in Government Gazette 22549 of 10 August 2001 outline the preferential procurement policies of organs of state. They specify a preference-points system that must be adhered to when accepting tenders and contracts.

Points are awarded to a tender according to specific goals and criteria such as price and functionality. The contract must then be awarded to the tender that scores the highest points. Contracting with an HDI (Historically Disadvantaged Individual), that is, persons or categories of persons who have been historically disadvantaged by unfair discrimination on the basis of race, gender or disability is also one of the specific goals that must be considered when awarding points. Preference points stipulated must also include those for equity ownership by HDI's.

2.7.4. The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003

The Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) Act no 53 of 2003 is a legislation inaugurated to underwrite equal access to economic opportunities. "Broad-based black economic empowerment" is defined in Section 1 of the BBBEE Act (no 53 of 2003) as the economic empowerment of all Black people, including women, workers, youth, people with disabilities and people in rural areas, through diverse but integrated socio-economic strategies. These strategies may include but are not limited to:

- Increasing the number of Black people who own, manage and control enterprises;

- Facilitating ownership and management of enterprises and productive assets by communities, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises;
- Human resource and skills development;
- Achieving equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels;
- Preferential procurement;
- Investment in enterprises owned or managed by Black people.

According to Section 2, the objectives of the BBBEE Act (no 53 0f 2003) are to facilitate broad-based Black economic empowerment by:

a) Promoting economic transformation in order to enable meaningful participation of Black people in the economy;

b) Achieving a substantial change in the racial composition of ownership and management structures and in the skilled occupations;

c) Increasing the extent to which communities, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage enterprises, and increasing their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training;

d) Increasing the extent to which Black women own and manage enterprises and increasing their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training;

e) Promoting investment programmes that lead to broad-based and meaningful participation of Black people in the economy in order to achieve sustainable development and general prosperity;

f) Empowering rural and local communities by enabling access to economic activities, land, infrastructure, ownership and skills; and

g) Promoting access to finance for Black economic empowerment.

The BBBEE Act (no 53 of 2003) further provides for the establishment of the Black Economic Empowerment Advisory Council (Section 4) to advise on a Black economic empowerment strategy and to monitor progress. It also allows the Minister of Trade and Industry to issue codes of good practice (Section 9) by Government Notice to promote the objectives of the Act. The Minister of Trade and

Industry is required to issue a strategy for and develop a plan to finance BBBEE (Section 11).

2.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter outlined the background to the implementation of employment equity legislation in South Africa. The main purpose of the numerous legislative requirements that have been implemented since the inception of the National Government of Unity in 1994 is to eliminate the discriminatory practices of the past and to provide equal access to occupational and economic opportunities for all. Currently, there is concern that the country is still far from achieving equity in the workplace or economic transformation.

Various terms and concepts found in the equity legislation require definition in order to interpret the legislation and to understand the implications of employment equity. The related concepts as contained in the EEA (no 55 of 1998), namely affirmative action, discrimination, fairness, diversity management and terms such as designated groups, suitably qualified, employment practices and numerical goals, have thus been defined.

An overview of the act, its purpose and related definitions was provided. Amendments to the EEA (no 55 of 1998) and other related legislation to promote equality was described briefly. Several codes of good practice have been released to support the implementation of the requirements of the EEA (no 55 of 1998), and these were also discussed.

There are four main requirements of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) that affect organisations in South Africa. These are the requirements of consultation, workplace analysis, EE planning and reporting. A brief overview of other related equity legislation was also provided.

In Chapter 3 the main criticisms of and obstacles to the effective implementation of EE will be discussed. Critical success factors and models for the effective implementation of EE will also be examined.

CHAPTER 3

BARRIERS TO AND CRITCAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN THE EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF EMPLOYMENT EQUITY

In Chapter 3 the barriers identified in implementing the requirements of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) and the criticisms of the process will be discussed. In addition, the critical success factors and models for the effective implementation of EE will be examined.

3.1.   INTRODUCTION

Shortcomings in the implementation of employment equity as well as BBBEE will have negative effects on the overall transformation goals of South Africa (Commission for EE report, 2006). The employment equity debate is raging not only in South Africa. In the USA, the question of whether EE and AA programmes are still necessary has been asked for several years (Elmuti, 1996; Kovach, Kravitz & Hughes, 2004). Many reasons are offered as to why these initiatives have failed. Some feel that more affirmative action measures are needed to achieve equity while others believe unqualified people are employed simply to reach targets (Elmuti, 1996). However, the question is not really whether we still need EE or whether we need further AA measures but rather how we can ensure that non-discriminatory policies and practices are effectively implemented in organisations and that these do not harm organisations and the country in the long run.

3.2.   BARRIERS TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF EE

Various barriers to and criticisms of the implementation of EE and AA programmes have been identified. Barriers include individual, organisational and national aspects (Coetzee, 2005; Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002; Twala, 2004). Individual aspects refer to people's perceptions, stereotypes and expectations and organisational aspects refer to organisational policies, procedures, culture and management processes. Nationally, an aspect such as skills shortages poses an obstacle to the implementation of EE.

3.2.1. Barriers on an individual level

Individual barriers to the implementation of EE pertain to the attitudes, values, stereotypes and perceptions of individuals (Leonard & Grobler, 2005). These barriers are not created by the organisational policies or procedures and occur even when the company attempts to remove all official barriers (Coetzee, 2005).

3.2.1.1. Perceptions of reverse discrimination

The chief criticism concerning the implementation of affirmative action measures to achieve employment equity is that these are viewed as a form of reverse discrimination (Coetzee, 2005; Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002; Twala, 2004). There is also the belief that people who were not part of the apartheid regime, for example young white males, are now bearing the brunt of the new legislation (Twala, 2004). In addition, the question of whether all Blacks and women were in fact previously disadvantaged and need to be affirmed has not been answered (Twala, 2004).

3.2.1.2. Negative stereotypes

Some Whites still have very low expectations of Blacks' abilities (Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002). Black employees who pursue their goals and are promoted on merit and not through preferential treatment are still labelled as EE appointments (Thomas, 2002). In other words, even if they were appointed owing to their experience and skills, other employees might think they were promoted because of EE requirements.

Negative expectations, suspicion and heightened criticism of EE employees still prevail (Thomas, 2002). Often, such employees are not given appropriate support: in some cases they are even deliberately excluded from informal networks and important information may be withheld from them (Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002; Twala, 2004). This may lead to under performance even when they possess the necessary ability and skills.

3.2.1.3.   Unrealistic expectations

People from designated groups who still need training and development to comply with job requirements may have unrealistic expectations that will increase conflict in companies (Thomas, 2002). Designated groups who expect secured positions may adopt a culture of entitlement that undermines their initiative and self-confidence (Maritz, 2002; Thomas, 2002). The purpose is to affirm Blacks and women and this should make people self-confident and self-supportive, not vice versa (Maritz, 2002).

The question is, how willing are Blacks and women to develop *themselves?* Some individuals have very high expectations of their own abilities that are not always realistic (Human 1993; Twala, 2004). Current political developments have raised expectations to the unrealistic point where some Blacks think they *must* be employed without any regard to meeting the job requirements (Thomas, 2002; Twala, 2004). Men, women, Whites and Blacks have to face up to their own strengths and weakness and take the responsibility and make the effort to develop themselves (Human 1993; Twala, 2004).

3.2.2. Organisational aspects

Organisational barriers to EE are those aspects presented by organisational policies and procedures. These include any aspects that occur at the formal or official organisational level such as human resources management systems and procedures (Leonard & Grobler, 2005). Examples of organisational barriers include increased costs, focus on numbers versus transformation, lack of communication, incompatible organisational culture, high job requirements, management resistance and leadership style.

3.2.2.1.   Increased cost

The high administration costs of complying with legislation could have an impact on organisational growth (Thomas, 2002). Indirect costs will increase, for example, as a result of poor hiring decisions to reach employment equity targets (Thomas,

2002). Costs and administration of legal rulings also have an impact (Thomas, 2002). In addition, tokenism or window-dressing appointments that advance people who lack the skills lead to a decline in service levels and related losses to the business (Thomas, 2002; Twala, 2004). Consequently, organisations may also experience an increase in training and development costs (Thomas, 2002).

Costs to the organisation may also be created by having to offer higher salaries in order to attract employment equity candidates. A survey conducted by Deloitte and Touche, known as the National Remuneration Guide, revealed that 35% of employers had to offer a premium to attract employment equity candidates (Sapa, 2007). In other words, a Black person may be offered a higher salary for the same job in order to attract Black applicants (Thomas, 2002). This may create salary discrepancies and make it unaffordable for smaller companies to maintain sustainability (Van Dyk et al., 2001).

Further costs for the organisation may occur because of high turnover of skilled, White staff. A survey of Eskom, the supplier of electricity in South Africa, conducted by the trade union Solidarity's deputy general secretary established that 75% of the company's skilled White staff was thinking of resigning owing to perceptions of unfair promotions and lack of career advancement (Salgado & Sapa, 2007).

3.2.2.2. *Focus on numbers versus transformation*

In general, EE and AA programmes are seen as a recruitment issue and as filling targets, not in terms of induction into and development of the person in the organisational context and culture (Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002). Through the reporting requirement of Section 20 of the EEA (no 55 of 1998), organisations are evaluated in terms of how well they meet their employment equity targets (Coetzee, 2005). However, focussing only on numbers will not achieve the transformation that is needed (Coetzee 2005; Thomas, 2002).

3.2.2.3. Lack of communication

A diverse workforce presents unique challenges for communication (Uys, 2003). Diversity poses barriers to organisational communication because of cultural differences that affect aspects such as language, frames of reference and value judgements (Werner, 2007). In a country like South Africa, with 11 official languages, it is a challenge simply to develop a common understanding of terminology, roles and responsibilities (Uys, 2003).

The EEA (no 55 of 1998) requires that organisations consult with and inform employees about EE programmes. However, there is a general lack of communication among all parties regarding the rationale and benefits of EE and affirmative action (Human, 1993; Thomas, 2003). This creates a lack of employee commitment that could have a detrimental effect on the organisation and its productivity.

3.2.2.4. Incompatible Organisational Culture

Organisational culture refers to the system of basic assumptions that creates the shared values and beliefs held by members of that organisation (Werner, 2007). These shared values and beliefs manifest in processes and certain aspects of group behaviour (Werner, 2007). New employees are usually inducted into these values, beliefs and behaviours and are expected to adapt to the existing corporate culture, and not vice versa.

Blacks may find it difficult to fit in with historically White corporate cultures and as a result they may feel alienated from the organisational culture (Thomas, 2003). Thus, the organisational culture could prevent, and even actively obstruct, the chances of individuals or certain groups to achieve success in the organisation (Claassen, 2005). This could lead to high staff turnover amongst designated groups (Thomas, 2002). Research has shown that a major reason Black professionals leave an organisation is not because they have been head hunted by another company or because they seek more money, but because of a lack of an inclusive and supportive diversity climate in the organisation (Human, 2005).

3.2.2.5. High job requirements

The focus of apartheid was Black exclusion and not necessarily Black incompetence (Twala, 2004). Blacks have to accept that there is nothing wrong with them if they do not yet meet the requirements of a certain job (Twala, 2004). However, high job requirements are sometimes a subtle form of discrimination, for instance the requirement of a tertiary qualification for a clerical position (Cascio, 1998).

The focus should be on reviewing the entry requirements and making sure that educational and other requirements are really a predictor of job success (Human, 1993; Twala, 2004). Job requirements must have predictive validity with respect to performance on the job (Cascio, 1998; Human, 1993). In other words, there should be evidence that a person *must* have certain educational qualifications and a particular number of years' experience without which performing the job to the required standard will be impossible.

3.2.2.6. Management resistance and leadership style

According to Thomas and Ely (1996), the main reason for an organisation failing to achieve the business benefits of an increasingly diverse work force is the leader's paradigm for managing diversity. Many leaders of organisations do not regard EE and AA programmes as a strategic business issue and, as a result, there is a lack of management commitment to the process (Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002; Thomas, 2003; Twala, 2004). This manifests mostly in middle and first level management (Thomas, 2003).

Even if managers value diversity they do not necessarily know how to manage a diverse workforce (Kidder, Lankau, Chrobot-Mason, Mollica and Friedman, 2004; Werner, 2007). The Commission for EE Report (2006) on the top three occupational levels showed that representation of Blacks in top and senior management positions was still less than 30% by the end of the 2005 reporting period. This report indicates that there are still many White male (and female) managers in organisations who grew up with the segregation practices and

stereotypes of the past (Uys, 2003). Some of them may want to continue to manage as they have always done (Twala, 2004). However, most managers are ill equipped to deal with their new roles which require a balance between achieving business objectives and fulfilling the demand for socially responsible actions (Maritz, 2002; Thomas, 2003; Uys, 2003). Research has shown that one of the main reasons for Black professionals resigning from an organisation is its management style (Human, 2005).

3.2.3. National Barriers

3.2.3.1. Skills shortages

In general, South Africa has a poor skills profile, owing in the main to the poor quality of general education available to the majority of its citizens (Van Dyk et al., 2001). As a result, the pool of previously disadvantaged individuals who are able to fill high-level positions is small (Coetzee, 2005). In the National Remuneration Guide released by the accounting firm Deloitte and Touche, 81% of organisations indicated that they experienced difficulty in recruiting employees because of skills shortages (Sapa, 2007). In the same report, 61% of respondents indicated that they experienced a scarcity of employment equity candidates.

Organisations should realise that EE must be closely linked to the development of employees (Coetzee, 2005; Human, 1993; Thomas, 2002). According to Elmuti (1996), managers, including top management, must be actively involved in closing skills gaps and encouraging life-long learning and training.

3.3. CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN THE EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF EE

Many suggestions on how to implement EE and AA programmes effectively have been made (Human, 1993; Kovach et al., 2004; Thomas, 2002). One may ask, what constitutes "effective implementation"? In other words, when will an EE programme be considered as having been effectively implemented? Effectiveness is viewed generally in terms of the proportion of employees from designated

groups who are hired and promoted and whether employment equity targets have been met (Coetzee, 2005). However, it has already been established that focussing on numbers only as the criterion for effectiveness is a narrow view.

3.3.1. Criteria for effectiveness

Jain and Hackett (1989) developed the Employment Equity Index (EEI) based on Canadian data. Since then, employment equity legislation in most countries, including South Africa, has embodied these criteria (Jain, Sloane & Horwitz, 2003, p. 108). The factors of the EEI are presented in Table 3.1 and explained below.

TABLE 3.1

THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY INDEX

LEVEL	CRITERIA
Level 1	1. Accountability
	2. Numerical goals and timetables
	3. Monitoring and control mechanisms
Level 2	4. On-going publicity
	5. Special target group recruitment efforts
	6. Special target group training efforts
	7. Employment practice review
Level 3	8. Employment equity committee or employment equity coordinator
	9. Resources or budget

Source: Jain, H. C. and Hackett, R. (1989). Measuring Effectiveness of Employment Equity Programs in Canada: Public Policy and a Survey. *Canadian Public Policy*, (15), 189 - 204.

3.3.1.1.   Accountability

EE programmes are more likely to be implemented effectively if line managers are part of the planning and implementation of the programme and are also held accountable for the outcomes (Jain et al., 2003).   Thus, linking managers' performance rewards to EE outcomes will facilitate the acceptance of EE programmes in the organisation.

3.3.1.2. Numerical goals and timetables

The setting of numerical goals and timeframes for implementation is essential to the effectiveness of EE programmes (Jain et al., 2003). Representation and goals for all designated groups should be specified and linked to timetables of between one and five years.

3.3.1.3. Monitoring and control mechanisms

Regular evaluations and reports indicate the progress made towards achieving numerical goals and identifying the need for corrective actions (Jain et al., 2003). Effective monitoring and control mechanisms are critical to the effective implementation of an EE programme.

3.3.1.4. On-going publicity

Clear communication of company policy to employees is a major step in implementing an EE programme (Jain et al., 2003). These communications could include memoranda from senior managers, annual reports, workplace posters and company newsletters. These communications should be distributed in several languages.

3.3.1.5. Special target group recruitment and training efforts

Special target group recruitment efforts include proactive efforts to recruit employees from designated groups (Jain et al., 2003). Training efforts for target groups include proactive efforts and programmes to train employees from designated groups and the provision of bursaries for tertiary studies (Jain et al., 2003).

3.3.1.6. Employment practice review

Identification and elimination of all unfair and discriminatory employment practices is a prerequisite for an effective EE programme (Jain et al., 2003). This may

include reviewing job specifications and entry requirements, selection and assessment methods and tools.

3.3.1.7. *Employment equity committee or coordinator*

Employment equity committees and coordinators are helpful in implementing and monitoring EE programmes (Jain et al., 2003). It is essential that a person from within senior management be appointed to coordinate the committee.

3.3.1.8. *Resources or budget*

For an EE programme to be more than tokenism it is important that adequate resources are allocated (Jain et al., 2003). The most effective EE programmes are operated from a separate budget allocated specifically to this purpose.

3.4. BEST PRACTICES FOR THE EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF EE

The criteria of EEI provide for employers to develop "best practices" for the effective implementation of EE programmes (Jain et al., 2003, p. 109). The concept of "best practice" implies the idea of "better than" compliance with legislation (Jain et al., 2003, p. 111). In other words, it should be proactive and meet more than the basic requirements of the legislation.

According to the EEOC Task Force (as cited in Jain et al., 2003, p. 111), "best practice" has the following elements:

- Minimal compliance with EE legislation does not constitute "best practice" because all employers must meet the basic requirements.
- To be "best practice", compliance must promote equal opportunities and address one or more barriers to effective implementation of equal employment opportunities. "Best practice" must aim to eliminate both general (societal) barriers, e.g. ethnocentrism, stereotyping and prejudice,

as well as specific (employer) obstacles, e.g. recruitment and promotion practices.

- Management commitment and accountability is essential for "best practice". Management commitment must be the driving force, from top management to first line supervisors.

Several best practices aimed at addressing barriers and enabling the effective implementation of EE have been identified. These are discussed briefly below.

3.4.1. Training and Development

It has already been established that an effective EE strategy must be linked to training and development. In order to assist employers in aligning skills development to employment equity, several processes have been established. Although the EEA (no 55 of 1998) acknowledges the importance of development, the Skills Development Act (1998) was promulgated to assist with this aspect. For example, Workplace Skills Plans (WSP) of the training for each year that must be submitted to the SETA's should have EE as their basis. Resources for skills development should be allocated to address the under representation of the designated groups in a specific organisation (Commission for EE Report, 2006). In addition, a National Skills Development Strategy has been implemented and targets have been set for the attendance of learning programmes, namely 85% Black, 54% women and 4% people with disabilities.

Training and development to ensure an effective EE strategy should not stop at developing employees' skills and knowledge in order to obtain jobs and career advancement. Focus must also be given to creating an appreciation of diversity in the workplace as well as to assisting managers to develop diversity management as a key management competency (Human 2005; Kidder et al., 2004; Uys, 2003).

3.4.2. Transparent Communication

According to Section 16, it is a requirement of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) that organisations consult and inform stakeholders and that information about EE is

displayed. In a study by Leonard and Grobler (2005) it was found that communication was viewed as a critical component of corporate transformation. Thus, without communication, organisations would not be able to comply with the information responsibilities they have towards their stakeholders, nor to implement their EE strategies.

Most organisations appear to comply with the legal requirements regarding the display of the EEA (no 55 of 1998) and consultation with all stakeholders (Employment Equity Report, 2003). According to Kovach et al. (2004), open and honest communication by management is critical to obtaining support for EE and AA programmes. However, if organisations communicate only to comply with the minimum legal requirements, achieving lasting transformation will be unlikely (Leonard & Grobler, 2005).

3.4.3. Management commitment

It is generally acknowledged that the commitment of managers, including top-management, is vital to the effectiveness of any EE or AA programme (Elmuti, 1996; Human, 1993, Thomas, 2002; Thomas, 2003; Twala, 2004). Furthermore, for EE to be implemented effectively management must regard it as a business strategy and utilise it as a competitive advantage (Human, 1996; Human, 2005; Werner, 2007). According to Werner (2007), managers can exploit diversity as a competitive advantage in the following ways:

- Contributing to decision making;
- Offering new insights into problems;
- Counteracting "groupthink";
- Improving customer service in a diverse marketplace.

3.4.4. Fair employment practices

All employment practices that relate to the recruitment, selection, development and promotion of employees must be transparent and free from unfair discriminatory practices (Thomas, 2003). This includes the fair use of any selection assessment

tools. Job entry requirements should also be reviewed to ensure that these actually predict job performance and are not used to exclude certain groups on the basis of arbitrary criteria (Human, 1993; Twala, 2004). Research has shown that one of the reasons for Black professionals leaving an organisation is the lack of individual career development opportunities (Human, 2005).

3.4.5. Inclusive organisational culture

Line managers must endeavour to create an inclusive organisational culture that appreciates diversity and promotes equity and staff retention (Human, 2005; Thomas, 2003). The creation of shared meaning demands that new employees be inducted into the vision and values of the organisation, and the behaviour towards colleagues and customers it expects (Thomas, 2003). In addition, the value systems of diverse employees should be incorporated to contribute to a new organisational culture (Claassen, 2005). This will lead to greater identification with the organisation and its goals, increased employee commitment and an enhanced sense of belonging that will allow all employees to achieve success on the basis of ability and performance (Claassen, 2005).

3.4.6. Diversity management

Performance is related not only to ability but also to how individuals are managed (Human, 1996; Twala, 2004). Research advocates the need for the appreciation and management of diversity as a critical aspect of an effective EE strategy (Elmuti, 1996; Human, 1996; Thomas, 2003; Uys, 2003).

"Diversity management" refers to the acknowledgement and appreciation of the diverse nature of the contemporary workforce and the focus on the skills, policies and competence needed to optimise individuals' contributions to the organisation (Uys, 2003). It refers to the ability or competency to manage effectively and to develop people regardless of their race, gender, religion or disability (Human, 1996; Uys, 2003). Acquiring this competency is achieved mainly through diversity training that aims to raise awareness of the benefits a diverse workforce has to

offer and to equip managers and employees to better manage cultural stereotypes, power relations and negative expectations (Human, 1996; Kidder et al., 2004).

Like any other strategic issue or key performance area, diversity management requires performance management (Human, 2005). Business units or departments should compile their own specific diversity plans, including numerical targets, and monitor progress regularly (Human, 2005). It is also important that employees have individual development plans and receive regular performance feedback (Human, 2005; Werner, 2007).

3.4.7. Justification

Social scientists acknowledge the importance of justice and fairness as a basic requirement of effective functioning (Coetzee, 2005). Research has shown that employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational practices influence their commitment and productivity (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). EE and AA programmes are organisational practices that employees view in terms of justice perceptions (Cropanzano, Slaughther & Bachiochi, 2005; SIOP, 1995). Organisations that provide effective pro-business justification for a diverse workforce may be able to limit hostile attitudes towards EE and AA programmes (Kidder et al., 2004).

According to Kovach et al. (2004), the only way to promote equity and diversity without incurring allegations of reverse discrimination is to implement a fair, easily explained and defensible AA programme. The SIOP Committee (1995) concluded that justification of AA measures contributes to employees' perceptions of whether the programmes are fair. In other words, if employees are convinced that AA is necessary to redress inequalities then they are more likely to accept the programmes. EE and AA programmes will thus only be effective if they comply with legal as well as fairness requirements (Coetzee, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2005; Kovach et al., 2004).

3.5. MODELS FOR IMPLEMENTING EE

Research has resulted in several models being developed to assist organisations with the effective implementation of their EE strategies. These models emphasise the business case for EE and provide guidelines that incorporate the legislative requirements as well as best practices for the implementation of EE. Three of these proposed models are discussed briefly below.

3.5.1. Thomas and Robertshaw's communication strategy for EE

One model that could be used for the effective implementation of EE is the communication strategy for employment equity of Thomas and Robertshaw (1999). Thomas and Robertshaw (1999) suggest that the EE process should be managed as a business strategy. They focus on the importance of communication and obtaining buy-in for the EE programme and they provide a framework for a communication strategy. This framework is presented in four phases, namely positioning the organisation, management consensus, communication with employee representatives, and ongoing communication with employees at programme level.

Phase 1 involves the strategic positioning of the organisation through communication. This includes communication of the commitment of top management, the logistics of the process, details of how barriers will be overcome and reassurances of regular feedback regarding the progress of the EE plan.

Phase 2 focuses on the role of management and its consensus and commitment to the EE plan and initiatives. The message must come from the top and must be consistent. Communication must occur on a regular basis.

Phase 3 involves communication with employee representatives with the aim of gaining support for the plan before its implementation. This phase include establishing employee communication structures and determining the role of the EE committee.

Phase 4 promotes ongoing communication with employees about the programme. Reports from management on the progress and success of EE initiatives should regularly be made available to all employees.

3.5.2. The Employment Equity systems model

Duweke (2004) proposes a systems model for the implementation of employment equity, as illustrated in Figure 3.1. The process starts on the left side with the initial analysis of the organisation, the assessment of the micro and macro enablers and the assessment of any obstacles to the achievement of employment equity. The progressive movement to the right side of the model includes the micro processes that must be addressed in order to comply with the requirements of the Employment Equity Act (53 of 1998). The downward movement depicts the process of continued improvement within the organisation in aligning its employment equity processes.

3.5.3. Model for managing the process of employment equity

Selby and Sutherland (2006) propose a model to manage the process of employment equity, illustrated in Figure 3.2. They emphasise the need to approach employment equity in a holistic manner as part of an integrated process.

First of all, a clearly defined business case for employment equity, incorporating the external and internal factors driving employment equity, is developed. This business case is then incorporated into the organisation's strategic objectives such as customer service, cost effectiveness, and quality. The employment equity objectives cascade down into the organisation's human resource strategy and planning activities. Organisations then select a strategy from a selection in order to achieve their transformation objectives. These strategies include preferential recruitment and selection; succession planning; accelerated development; creation of new jobs; retraining; and natural attrition. When selecting appropriate strategies

Micro environment | Employment Equity Navigation | → → Macro environment progress Towards excellence

Employment Equity Process Development

Assessment of Macro	Analyse Obstacles Obstacles to Employment Equity	Prerequisites for Managing Diversity	Implementation Process	Facilitate and Bed Down the Process

Assess "as is situation" within the organisation

Project future employment

Formulate Employment Equity strategy/plan

Consult on Equity Targets and interventions

Track and assess development with regard to status change

Constant assessment of goal orientation

Constant realignment of focus with end objective with specific emphasis on numerical targets

Assessment of Macro — Effects on the organisation with regard to
- Legislation External enablers (macro demographic trends)
- Benchmark other companies in the sector Understand guidelines to the Department of Labour

Analyse Obstacles Obstacles to Employment Equity
- Racism
- Stereotypes
- Prejudice
- Discrimination
- Conflicting value systems
- Resistance to change
- Fears amongst Whites and Blacks
- Pseudo change
- Backlash
- Reverse discrimination
- Ineffective management style
- Unsupportive working environment
- Fear of Africanisation

Prerequisites for Managing Diversity
- Clear objectives
- Business rationale
- Support from executive management
- Appoint change agents
- Clarify company vision
- Manage conflict
- Delegate the authority to the human resources department to facilitate the process
- Train diversity facilitators
- Communicate to ensure buy-in of all stakeholders
- Sensitivity to and awareness of potential problems
- Receptive to change
- Confront biases and stereotypes
- Attend to racism
- Confront paradigm shift
- Understand employees and treat them differently
- Upliftment of marginalised groupings

Implementation Process
- Develop an employment equity policy
- Develop a comprehensive communication strategy
- Establish an employment equity committee (representative of the workforce)
- Establish a constitution for the employment equity committee
- Analyse current staffing ratios
- Set numerical targets to achieve employment equity (for the organisation and departmentally)
- Identify affirmative action measures
- Conduct an employment equity audit

Facilitate and Bed Down the Process
- Set up computerised systems for reporting in line with government requirements
- Analyse workforce in accordance with "levels" and "categories" of reporting
- Communicate results of the employment equity audit
- Conduct group facilitation in giving feedback on the audit
- Analyse recruiting procedures so as to facilitate the hiring of marginalised incumbents
- Collaborate with stakeholders especially unions
- Conduct diversity workshops
- Conduct diversity teambuilding programmes
- Implement measures to bridge the gap of AA and EE barriers
- Report year on year to the Department of Labour on Employment Equity targets and progress

Progress towards end strategic objective

Figure 3.1 The Employment Equity systems model

Source: Duweke, 2004 (p. 212)

the organisation must take into account the obstacles to and risks of implementing employment equity, and must put measures in place to overcome them. Once the organisation has been through this process it will reap the rewards in the form of EE compliance and sustainability.

Figure 3.2. Model for managing the process of employment equity

Source: Selby and Sutherland (2006)

3.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

Several criticisms of and barriers to the successful implementation and achievement of EE have been identified. At individual level these include perceptions of reverse racism, unrealistic expectations and negative stereotypes. At organisational level they include increased costs, lack of communication, focus on numbers, lack of management commitment, high job requirements and the organisational culture. At national level the barriers include general skills shortages.

Critical elements are necessary for EE to succeed. Criteria for effectiveness and several best practices to address barriers were identified in the chapter. Organisations should ensure that their programmes include the following factors: transparent communication, management commitment, training and development, fair employment practices and diversity management initiatives. In addition, the issue of justification and employees' fairness perceptions of the EE programme and AA measures to ensure effective implementation were emphasised.

Several models to assist organisations in the effective implementation of employment equity were discussed. These models emphasise the need for a business case for employment equity and they provide guidelines for incorporating legislative requirements as well as best practices.

Chapter 4 will provide an overview of the literature on organisational justice theory that underpins employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational procedures and practices. The environmental and individual moderators of justice perceptions will be examined. The impact of perceived injustice on key organisational outcomes will also be discussed.

Factors that affect perceptions of the fairness of EE and AA practices will be identified and the role of justice in EE established. An integrated model for the effective implementation and management of EE will be suggested.

CHAPTER 4

ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE AND EMPLOYMENT EQUITY PRACTICES

Chapter 4 will provide an overview of the literature on organisational justice theory that underpins employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational procedures and practices. The environmental and individual factors that moderate justice perceptions are identified. The impact of perceived injustices on key organisational outcomes and ways to correct these perceptions are also discussed.

The factors that influence perceptions of the fairness of affirmative action programmes (AAP's) are identified and the role of organisational justice theory in EE practices is established. Based on the theories and discussions in this and previous chapters, an integrated model for the legal as well as fair implementation and management of EE is proposed.

4.1.   INTRODUCTION

The concept of organisational justice has been studied extensively over the past years (Beugre, 2005; Coetzee, 2005; Colquit, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001; Cropanzano, Slaughter & Bachiochi, 2005; Gilliland & Steiner, 2001; Greenberg, 2001; Kickul, 2001; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005; Reb, Goldman, Kray & Cropanzano, 2006; Schappe, 1996). The concept of justice and fairness permeates many actions and reactions that occur in organisations. This is because when a decision, procedure or interaction is seen as inappropriate employees will usually experience a fairness violation (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Justice perceptions and specifically the relationship between fairness and various organisational outcomes such as valued attitudinal and behaviour outcomes (for example, satisfaction, turnover, withdrawal and organisational commitment) have been directly linked in recent research (Colquit et al., 2001).

4.2.   CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Justice in organisational settings can be defined as the focus on the antecedents and consequences of two types of subjective perceptions, namely the fairness of outcome distribution and allocation and the fairness of the procedures used to determine outcome distributions and allocations (Colquitt, et al., 2001). According to Greenberg (2001), organisational justice attempts to describe and explain the role of fairness in the workplace.

In organisational sciences research the concept of justice is considered as socially constructed (Colquitt et al., 2001). This means that an act will be defined as being just if most individuals perceive it to be so. Research has established that people's perceptions of fairness and justice are largely based on their norms and values (Greenberg, 2001). What people believe to be fair depends on their repeated exposure to specific standards and instilled expectations that form the basis of fairness assessments. If behaviour complies with these expectations it is considered fair, whereas violation of these expectations is considered unfair (Beugre, 2005; Greenberg, 2001).

The question is whether concerns about fairness at work are universal in nature (Greenberg, 2001). The sociological view is that normative regulation of behaviour exists in all cultures as a functional prerequisite for social interaction (Greenberg, 2001). However, when people have internalised different norms and values they may have different perceptions of fairness.

People internalise these different norms and values mainly because they come from different cultures (Greenberg, 2001). In general, people agree that justice is important but they often define it differently in practice. Thus, understanding peoples' perceptions of fairness also requires taking into account the norms that prevail in their specific culture (Greenberg, 2001).

4.3.   FORMS OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Earlier justice research focused primarily on distributive justice that involved the perceptions of the fairness of the distribution and allocation of outcomes. Further studies have led to the investigation of other forms of justice such as procedural and interactional justice. A recent study by Cropanzano, Slaughter and Bachiochi (2005) established that individuals do not base their judgements of fairness only on the outcomes (distributive justice) they receive. They also evaluate the process (procedural justice) by which these are received as well as the interpersonal treatment they experience in the process (interactional justice).

Colquitt et al. (2001) advocate the distinction of the various forms of justice rather than viewing justice as a single variable, while Copranzano et al. (2005) confirm the interaction between the different forms of justice. The key advantage of representing justice in this manner is that identifying specific forms of justice makes it easier to identify the elements that might be lacking and to recommend changes to enhance fairness perceptions (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005; Reb et al., 2006).

4.3.1. Distributive justice

The first fairness construct studied was distributive justice. Adams (1965) originally defined this form of justice in terms of equity. According to Adams (1965), people determine fairness by evaluating their perceived inputs relative to the outcomes they receive. Then they compare this ratio to some referent standard to establish whether the outcomes are fair in relation to their inputs.

Because determining the concept of "contributions" or "inputs" can be difficult, different operative definitions of equity have emerged. Thus, various equity rules exist, such as past performance, tenure and rank. Most people support the allocation rule that favours themselves over others (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). However, equity is not the only standard that can be applied to determine a fair outcome (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). For example, equality rules argue that people should be rewarded equally, everyone receiving exactly the same or having the same opportunity to receive the reward. Other rules, such as needs rules,

argue that people should be rewarded based on their need or level of deprivation. Some researchers also suggest a distinction between allocations based on business needs and those based on personal needs. The rules of equity, equality and need may be applied in different situations in organisations. For instance, salary increases are typically based on past performance (equity), while everyone might receive the same set contribution towards their medical aid payments (equality), or the printing department may be allocated a bigger stationery budget or more office space (business need) (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). However, there is little agreement on when each type of rule should be used or when the rule will be viewed as most fair.

Studies have shown that people from different cultures favour different rules for distribution or allocation of outcomes (Greenberg, 2001). When allocating rewards, Americans, for example, generally favour the equity rule; people from India prefer distribution based on need while those in the Netherlands favour the equality rule for distribution (Greenberg, 2001).

4.3.2. Procedural justice

The justice literature became more complex with the introduction of procedural justice as a complement to distributive justice. Original work on procedural justice was conducted in the context of legal procedures. Researchers noticed that parties in dispute resolution procedures not only responded to the outcomes they received but also to the process that was followed in determining these outcomes (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). This resulted in the development of the construct of procedural justice. This is defined as the fairness of the process that is used to arrive at decisions (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Central to the development of procedural justice is the work done by Thibaut and Walker (1975). They determined that control or influence over the process, also called "voice", plays an important role in creating high levels of procedural justice.

Further work by Leventhal (1980) suggested that procedures in dispute resolution had to meet six criteria in order to be fair, namely:

- Accuracy: The procedures must be accurate and information presented by both parties must be honest and correct.

- Consistency: The same procedure must be used with all people and it must be the same procedure every time.

- Ethical: Procedures must conform to the prevailing morals and ethics.

- Correctable: There must be a mechanism to correct or change bad decisions.

- Bias suppression: The person making the decision (third party) does not have a vested interest in the outcome or make decisions based on personal beliefs.

- Representation: An opportunity for both parties to state their case must be provided, thus providing the "voice" or process control.

Perceptions of procedural fairness seem to be universal, in that procedures such as granting of voice are recognised as fair in many cultures (Greenberg, 2001). Other structural aspects of the procedures such as openness and clarity are also considered by several cultures to contribute to fairness.

4.3.3. Interactional justice

The focus of research on justice gradually moved away from legal procedures towards organisational procedures. One of the reasons for this was that in organisations a variety of situations lend themselves to the use of procedures. Variations in these procedures and outcomes occur with organisational decisions, for example, regarding selection and salaries (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). The application of justice theory to organisations has made evident certain issues in terms of procedures and outcomes. For example, in the same company the same supposedly fair procedure could create very different employee reactions, depending on the way in which different managers implement and enforce the procedure. Bies and Moag (1986) initially referred to this aspect of justice as interactional justice.

Interactional justice is further differentiated into two separate forms of justice, namely interpersonal and informational justice (Greenberg, 1993). These two forms focus more on the behaviour of the decision makers than on the structural aspects of procedures or the specific outcomes (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

4.3.3.1.   Interpersonal justice

Interpersonal justice refers to the sensitivity, politeness and respect people receive from their superiors during procedures. This serves primarily to alter reactions to outcomes, because sensitivity can make people feel better even if the outcome is unfavourable (Colquitt et al., 2001). The interpersonal aspects of justice are generally sensitive to differences in culture (Greenberg, 2001).

4.3.3.2.   Informational justice

Informational justice refers to the explanation, justification or information provided by decision makers as to why outcomes were distributed in a certain way. Information should be comprehensive, reasonable, truthful, timely and candid. This information helps people to evaluate the structural aspects of the process (Colquitt et al., 2001).

4.4.   JUSTICE MODERATORS

Justice research incorporates the notion of moderators in the justice – outcome relationship. This means that there are certain factors that might affect a person's perception of justice. A justice moderator is a variable that influences an individual's response to fairness determinants (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). A moderator dampens or accentuates the relationship between individual justice perceptions and outcomes. This implies that the relationship changes as a function of individual and situational factors that influence the reaction to fairness (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

Gilliland and Steiner (2001) compiled a framework for justice moderation in which moderators are placed in one of two categories, namely environmental factors and

individual factors. This framework was originally constructed with regard to selection techniques but it begins to explain the variables that might influence an individual's reaction to fairness in other contexts as well (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). The environmental and individual factors that influence justice perceptions must be taken into consideration because people cannot be separated from their individual differences nor do they act in isolation (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

4.4.1. Environmental or contextual moderators

According to Gilliland and Steiner (2001), factors from the environment that influence justice reactions include industry, occupational and cultural norms. Greenberg (2001) confirms that concerns about distributive fairness may be influenced by cultural norms. This applies to the norms of reciprocation and time (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

Some researchers, cited in Nowakowski and Conlon (2005), have identified additional environmental factors, namely organisational structure, role definition, outcome favourability and organisational commitment, interpersonal sensitivity, informational validity, target or blame for unfair treatment, voluntariness of association, trust in authorities and uncertainty.

4.4.2. Individual moderators

Gilliland and Steiner (2001) also identified moderators that influence justice reactions on an individual level, namely work experience, selection process experience, self-efficacy, and protected group status. Other research has established additional individual moderators including gender, personality, exchange ideology, power distance, concern with control and standing, sensitivity to befallen justice, equity sensitivity, and delay of gratification (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005).

4.5. THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED INJUSTICE ON ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES

When someone experiences a specific event in the workplace that person forms a justice perception, whether fair or unfair, about the event (Beugre, 2005). What happens if employees perceive injustice at work? In other words, when employees perceive that the outcomes, processes, information or interpersonal treatment are unfair at work. Perceived injustice is followed by moral outrage and victims as well as observers feel anger and resentment as a natural reaction to experiencing unfairness (Beugre, 2005; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). This may lead to the display of aggressive behaviour such as talking back to superiors, verbal abuse (e.g. swearing and name calling) and even acts of physical violence towards others.

Aggression is not the only outcome of justice violations. Colquitt et al. (2001) focus on nine different outcomes that are most commonly researched in the organisational justice field. These outcomes include: outcome satisfaction; job satisfaction; organisational commitment; trust; evaluation of authority; organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB's); withdrawal; negative reactions; and performance. Each type of outcome, as it is examined by the above and other studies, is briefly reviewed below. Table 4.1 provides a summary of these key organisational outcomes and the form of justice that plays a role in each.

4.5.1. Outcome satisfaction

This involves satisfaction with outcomes such as salary, promotion and performance reviews. Distributive justice has strong correlations with outcome satisfaction (Coetzee, 2005; Colquit et al, 2001). Thus, if employees perceive distributive injustice they will report lower outcome satisfaction: that is, they will be dissatisfied with salary or promotions.

4.5.2. Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is that satisfaction an individual feels with the conditions of his or her job in general. Job satisfaction may be influenced by perceptions of procedural justice. If employees perceive procedures to be unfair they will report lower general job satisfaction. Interpersonal justice, that is, how they are treated, also plays a role in overall satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001; Coetzee, 2005).

4.5.3. Organisational commitment

This refers to a general systemic reaction that employees have towards the company they work for (Colquit et al., 2001). It includes participation and loyalty (Coetzee, 2005). If employees perceive distributive and procedural injustice this influences their organisational commitment.

4.5.4. Trust

Trust in authority figures, superiors and decision makers is vital as these people make a significant input regarding the distribution or allocation of rewards and resources (Colquitt et al., 2001). A study by Ferres, Connell and Travaglione (2004) showed that trust between co-workers also had a significant influence on employee attitudes and perceptions of certain organisational outcomes. According to Kickul, Gundry and Posig (2005), when there is a high level of trust between employees there will be a low sensitivity to fairness violations. Trust between colleagues will also contribute to teamwork (Ferres et al., 2004). Perceptions of procedural, interpersonal and informational injustice will influence the degree of trust (Colquit et al., 2001; Kickul et al., 2005).

4.5.5. Evaluation of authority

Perceptions of distributive and procedural injustice influence employees' ratings of the acceptability of their direct supervisors and management in general (Colquitt et al., 2001). However, the evaluation of one's immediate supervisor is often very different from one's evaluation of management in general.

4.5.6. Organisational citizen behaviour (OCB)

This refers to behaviours that are not explicitly rewarded but that contribute to the organisation's effective functioning (Colquitt et al., 2001). Examples of such behaviours include helpfulness, compliance with rules, sportsmanship, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development (Posadkoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). OCB's are driven by perceptions of fairness and research demonstrates strong links to procedural justice factors.

4.5.7. Withdrawal

Withdrawal includes behaviours and intentions such as absenteeism, turnover and neglect of duties. This behaviour can occur as a result of a negative evaluation of the organisation as a whole or it may be based on a single unsatisfactory outcome or an interpersonal experience with a person in authority (Colquitt, et al., 2001). Thus, perceptions of distributive as well as procedural and interactional injustice can influence withdrawal behaviour.

4.5.8. Negative reactions and behaviour

Research has looked at the relationship between perceived injustice and a number of negative reactions such as theft and retaliatory behaviours from employees (Colquitt, et al., 2001). Behaviour like this is most strongly linked to perceptions of interactional injustice.

The assignment of blame is a central topic in social justice and fairness theory (Beugre, 2005). Thus, the victim identifies a target to which the cause of the injustice is attributed. In cases of perceived procedural injustice the victim may blame the organisation and display anger and resentment toward it (Beugre, 2005). In cases of perceived interactional injustice the other party, i.e. supervisor or colleague, may be blamed and be the target (Beugre, 2005).

Feelings of injustice make people feel justified in taking aggressive or retaliatory action against offenders (Beugre, 2005). Such actions may be overt or subtle in

nature. For example, obstructionism involves actions that are passive (subtle) and intended to obstruct or impair the target's performance by, for example, withholding important information (Beugre, 2005). Other examples include employees interfering with others when they are working, finding fault with the company, talking back to superiors, and taking longer breaks than allowed (Kickul, 2001). Overt actions may constitute workplace violence such as physical assaults or destroying company property (Beugre, 2005).

4.5.9. Performance

Perceptions of distributive and interactional justice have a weak relationship with performance. However, perceptions of procedural injustice have a moderate to strong relationship with performance (Colquitt, et al., 2001). In other words, perceived procedural injustice may affect performance negatively.

TABLE 4.1

SUMMARY OF ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES AND RELATED FORMS OF JUSTICE

OUTCOME	FORM OF JUSTICE
Outcome satisfaction	Distributive
Job satisfaction	Procedural
	Interactional (Interpersonal)
Commitment	Distributive
	Procedural
Trust	Procedural
	Interactional (interpersonal and informational)
Evaluation of authority	Distributive
	Procedural
Organisation commitment behaviours (OCB)	Procedural
Withdrawal	Distributive
	Procedural
	Interactional
Negative behaviour	Interactional
Performance	Procedural

4.6. CORRECTING PERCEPTIONS OF INJUSTICE

Organisations deal with perceptions of injustice in different ways, including explanations, excuses and remedies. According to Reb, Goldman, Kray and Cropanzano (2006), the differences between a remedy, an explanation or justification and an excuse are as follows:

- A remedy acknowledges and accepts responsibility that an injustice has been done and attempts to atone for it;
- An explanation/justification does not deny responsibility but denies that it was unjust; and
- An excuse denies responsibility for the conduct and attempts to deflect the attribution of blame.

4.6.1. Organisational remedies

Reb et al. (2006) define an organisational remedy as an action taken by an organisation with the intention of atoning for a perceived injustice, creating in the mind of an aggrieved worker the perception that a perceived injustice has been atoned for. The two key elements of a remedy are that 1) the action is initiated by the organisation and 2) if successful the remedy restores justice perceptions and prevents the aggrieved worker from engaging in retaliatory behaviour. Before offering a remedy the overall costs and benefits for the various parties, namely the worker, the offender and the organisation, should be considered (Reb et al., 2006).

Beugre (2005) suggests that employees' individual thresholds of tolerance of injustice should first be determined. This can be done by identifying through questionnaires what employees view as fair and unfair. Reb et al. (2006) propose that the form of injustice that was perceived, i.e. distributive, procedural or interactional should be determined first and then the best remedy can be identified.

According to Reb et al. (2006), the theory of injustice implies some kind of harm to or loss for the victim. Thus, in order to identify the appropriate remedy to repair the damage it must be determined which part of the self was harmed through the unfair

treatment. Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel and Rupp (2001) proposed a taxonomy of needs that explains why justice matters, namely instrumental (control) needs, belonging and self-esteem needs, and meaning (virtue) needs. Table 4.2 shows the different needs violations, associated forms of injustice and remedies.

TABLE 4.2

NEEDS VIOLATIONS AND ASSOCIATED FORMS OF INJUSTICE AND REMEDIES

Need violated	Form of injustice perceived	Type of remedy	Purpose of remedy	Example of remedy
Instrumental (Control)	Procedural	Instrumental	Restore loss of control over outcomes	Monetary compensation
Meaning (Virtue)	Interactional	Punitive	Restore sense of morality and worth	Discipline the transgressor
Belonging (Interpersonal)	Procedural Interactional	Socio-emotional	Affirm social standing and restore group identity	Public apology

Source: Reb et al. (2006)

Control needs link to procedural justice in the sense that they relate to having control over the process and the ability to influence a decision (Reb et al., 2006). Thus instrumental remedies are appropriate for procedural injustices. Instrumental remedies refer mainly to economic benefits (monetary compensation) to the aggrieved (Reb et al., 2006). These may also involve changing the procedure to ensure fairness in future.

The need for meaning or virtue is driven by respect for human dignity and worth (Reb et al., 2006). Interactional justice directly affects moral meaning and dignity and thus punishing the offender can restore moral order and one's feeling of worth. Punitive remedies refer to attempting to atone for injustice by inducing harm to the offender, e.g. by disciplinary action or demotion.

Belonging needs are important for both procedural and interactional justice (Reb et al., 2006). When belonging needs are violated a socio-emotional remedy is

required to restore social standing and group identity. Examples include a public apology or an active attempt to restore the relationship.

4.6.2. Communication

Kickul (2001) suggests that remedies to re-establish a relationship may include putting communication mechanisms in place through which employees can access information and implementing procedures that allow employees to appeal or challenge decisions. Schappe (1996) emphasises the importance of information on policies and procedures being available to employees. The more knowledgeable employees are (the amount and type of information they receive) the more likely they are to judge procedures as fair. Secrecy about pay and vagueness with regard to the criteria for performance assessments create suspicion and perceptions of bias and unfairness (Schappe, 1996). Organisations should, for example, explain how pay and bonuses are determined. The explanation of procedures and decisions must be a point on the agenda at staff meetings. It is the manager's responsibility to ensure that the information employees have is accurate, timely, relevant and complete (Schappe, 1996).

4.6.3. Participation in decision making

Aggressive behaviour can be avoided if managers provide detailed information about their decisions (Beugre, 2005). According to Schappe (1996), it is important to allow employees to participate in the decision-making process. Managers should pay attention to the type of information given and how decisions are communicated. Managers can cultivate perceptions of fairness. Employees believe so strongly in the fact that an explanation of a decision is a "right" that if managers do not explain, the decision is automatically perceived as unfair (Schappe, 1996).

4.6.4. Training

Kickul (2001) emphasises the importance of training supervisors and managerial staff on the principles of interactional justice. Supervisors and managers must be guided on how to provide adequate justification and explanations of decisions and

how to treat their staff with dignity and respect throughout the process. Supervisors should also be trained in conflict management techniques that include improved sensitivity to and understanding of matching appropriate remedies to injustices (Reb et al., 2006). Some research showed that training supervisors in procedural justice principles could also improve OCB (Colquitt, et al., 2001).

4.7. FACTORS THAT AFFECT FAIRNESS RESPONSES TO EE

In September 1995, the Scientific Affairs Committee of the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology (SIOP) reviewed the available international research on affirmative action. The factors that affected responses to EE as defined in their report are discussed below and summarised in Table 4.3.

4.7.1. Organisational influences

Much of the research on responses to affirmative action and employment equity programmes emphasises the importance of the *structure* of these programmes. The reasoning is that responses to an EE programme depend on the details of the plan (type of plan) and the weighting of demographic status. Other factors related to the structure of the programme include the identity of the target group, the organisational setting and the need for affirmative action.

4.7.1.1. Types of AA programmes

Responses to EE can be influenced by information provided about EE programmes and whether these messages are pro- or anti-affirmative action. Thus, responses to EE can be made more positive through providing structural details of the programme. Kovach, Kravitz and Hughes (2004) identify four types of AA programmes:

- Equal Opportunity

This is the weakest form of AA programme and is limited to the elimination of discrimination. This type of programme focuses on ensuring that laws are enforced

and that no open discrimination exists. Creating equal opportunity is achieved mostly through decisions regarding selection, promotion and compensation. These passive programmes have little effect on correcting underrepresented groups but they are less confrontational.

- Opportunity enhancement

This type of programme involves the more active and specific recruiting of candidates from designated groups that are underrepresented in certain categories and levels. It also includes special training programmes, mentoring, and other initiatives such as day-care facilities.

- Tie break

In this type of AA programme the EE candidate will be advanced if candidates' qualifications for the position are equal. In other words, if a White and a Black applicant's qualifications are the same then the Black applicant is preferred.

- Strong preferential treatment

These programmes involve quotas or strong preferential treatment. Less qualified members of designated groups are preferred over better qualified members of the non-designated group. In other words, even if a Black applicant is less qualified or experienced than a White applicant, the Black applicant will still be appointed.

In general, there is greater support for the principle of equal opportunity and opportunity enhancement than there is for the principle of strong preferential treatment (Cropanzano et al., 2005; SIOP Committee, 1995). Although people support the correction of past inequalities and diversity efforts they prefer to limit affirmative action to the elimination of discrimination rather than the taking of active steps. The programme that proposes targeted recruitment, namely opportunity enhancement, is deemed to be most acceptable by both Whites and Blacks (Copranzano et al., 2005).

4.7.1.2. Weighting of demographic status

Research indicates that an individual's understanding of what affirmative action actually entails will influence his or her response or attitude towards it. In this regard, the weighting of demographic status is central (SIOP Committee, 1995). This refers to a person's beliefs about what constitutes a typical AA procedure and whether universalistic (merit and ability) or particularistic (demographic factors that do not affect performance per se such as race and ethnicity) contributions are considered as instrumental. In other words, does the person believe that affirmative action means selection on the basis of particularistic factors and not universalistic factors? If someone believes that demographic status is given inappropriate weighting he/she will consider it unfair, dislike it and stereotype those selected under the specific programme.

Research shows (SIOP Committee, 1995) that fairness responses are higher when the more qualified candidate is selected than when an under-qualified candidate is selected because of EE requirements. This implies that under-qualified candidates can only be selected if demographic status carries more weight. Most people prefer merit-based selection decisions regardless of designated or non-designated status.

4.7.1.3. Identity of the target group

Research has found that the identity of the designated group, or scope of justice, affects responses to AA programmes (SIOP Committee, 1995). The target or scope of justice refers to the "who" aspect of AA (Opotow, 1997). The scope of justice pertains to the psychological boundary for concerns about fairness. Concerns about fair procedure and distributions are relevant only to those perceived to be within the boundary of justice (Opotow, 1997). In this light, Whites viewed programmes directed at Blacks less positively than those directed at women or people with disabilities.

4.7.1.4. The organisational setting

Researchers have explored the organisational setting as a possible influence on responses to AA programmes (SIOP Committee, 1995). Some studies found more support for AA in educational settings (students) than in business (employment) but significant influence could not be established.

4.7.1.5. The need for affirmative action

People may support affirmative action if they believe that past discrimination warrants it. Resistance to AA may be based on the belief that discrimination no longer exists. Studies have shown that Whites in the USA believe discrimination is a thing of the past and that Blacks now need to take responsibility for their own economic situation (SIOP Committee, 1995). In the South African context, Blacks' responsibility for their own development and advancement is also emphasised (Twala, 2004).

4.7.2. Group differences

The underlying assumption of this research study is that group differences affect people's responses to affirmative action. Such group differences include the respondent's role and demographic variables.

4.7.2.1. Respondent's role

In the studies reviewed by the SIOP Committee (1995) two aspects of the respondent's role received attention. Firstly, the difference between those who make decisions about or implement AAP's (usually managers) and those who do not (usually non-managerial staff) is reviewed. Secondly, the difference between those who are members of the designated or target group of EE and those who are not is explored.

a) <u>Manager vs. non-manager</u>

No significant differences in the support for AAP's between these groups were found in the research that was reviewed (SIOP Committee, 1995). The general conclusion was that those whose jobs involve the maintenance of AAP's (i.e. management) are more likely to be positive towards these practices (Coetzee, 2005; Duweke, 2004).

b) <u>Designated group vs. non-designated group</u>

Individuals are more positive towards programmes that are directed at their own demographic group (SIOP Committee, 1995). This trend is very strong for race/ethnicity but less strong for gender.

4.7.2.2.   Demographic variables

a) <u>Race</u>

A number of studies reviewed by the SIOP Committee (1995) examined the differences in response to AAP's based on the respondents' race. Significant differences in responses between race groups were found. Studies that assessed only race differences revealed that AAP's of all types receive stronger support from Blacks than from Whites. Some South African studies have also shown significant differences in perceptions between race groups (Coetzee, 2005).

b) <u>Gender</u>

Several studies reviewed by the SIOP Committee (1995) examined the differences in response to AAP's based on gender. Some studies found significant differences between gender groups while others found that gender differences appeared to be moderated by the structure and justification (need) of the AAP. This is similar to the results of South African studies where some found significant differences between gender groups (Duweke, 2004; Van Zyl & Roodt, 2003) while others did not (Coetzee, 2005).

c) Age, education and income

In studies where age, education or income was examined to explain the difference in responses to AAP, the majority indicated little or no effect, according to the review by the SIOP Committee (1995). Generally, demographic factors other than race and gender show only small and nonlinear effects. However, some South African studies revealed significant differences in perceptions between age groups (Coetzee, 2005; Walbrugh & Roodt, 2003)

4.7.3. Individual differences

4.7.3.1.   Self-efficacy

In a study by Brutus and Ryan (1994), fairness responses correlated positively with self-efficacy. In other words, more confident respondents considered their selections to be fairer. Self-efficacy and perceived fairness of AAP's are interrelated in a complex manner.

4.7.3.2.   Opinion variables

a) Prejudice (Racism and Sexism)

Self-report measures of racism are consistently positively linked to opposition to affirmative action targeted at race groups (SIOP Committee, 1995). The same was found of affirmative action targeted at women. Thus, both types of prejudice are associated with resistance to AA. A study by Little, Murray and Wimbush (1998) also showed that prejudice affects perceptions towards AA in the workplace.

b) Relative deprivation

Relative deprivation refers to the resentment that individuals feel about the distribution of outcomes. This occurs when the outcome is less than is desired or believed to be deserved. Personal deprivation relates to resentment in individuals who receive less than they desired or believed they deserved. In-group deprivation

or collective relative deprivation occurs when the individual's group receives less than the individual desires and believes to be appropriate. In general, the perception of collective relative deprivation will increase support for AAP's directed at the deprived group (SIOP Committee, 1995). Ideological deprivation, also referred to as relative deprivation on behalf of others, occurs when the group with which an individual sympathises receives less than the individual desires and believes is deserved. This will increase support for AAP's (SIOP Committee, 1995). Lastly, backlash occurs when there is resentment about the fact that others have received positive outcomes. For example, when the negative effects of affirmative action on young White males is not acknowledged.

c) <u>Political perspective</u>

Support for AA is also associated with political perspective (SIOP Committee, 1995). Support is higher among self-reported liberals than conservatives.

4.7.3.3. *Personal experiences*

In the studies reviewed by the SIOP Committee (1995), both previous experiences of discrimination and previous experience of an AAP affected support for AAP's. Previous experience of discrimination and working for a company with an AAP is associated with stronger support for AA. Negative experiences of AA appear to decrease support for it.

4.8. THE ROLE OF JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS IN EE PRACTICES

Distributive justice refers to the "what" of EE and AA practices (Opotow, 1997). It focuses on whether societal resources such as jobs, promotions and educational opportunities are distributed fairly. This also includes societal harms that threaten livelihoods or career success. In general, political and economic policies lead to specific distributive outcomes (Opotow, 1997).

TABLE 4.3

SUMMARY OF FACTORS THAT AFFECT FAIRNESS RESPONSES TO EE

LEVEL	FACTORS
ORGANISATIONAL	- Type of programme implemented - Weighting of demographic status - Identity of the target group - Organisational setting - The need for affirmative action

GROUP	Respondent's role
	    - Manager vs. non-manager
	    - Member of designated group
	      Vs. non-designated group
	Demographic variables
	    - Race
	    - Gender
	    - Age, education & income

INDIVIDUAL	Self-efficacy
	Opinion variables
	    - Prejudice
	    - Relative deprivation
	    - Political perspective
	Personal experiences

Procedural justice refers to the "how" of EE and AA practices (Opotow, 1997). It focuses on the fair and consistent application of procedures to all groups. According to Kickul (2001), employees will react most negatively to unfairness when the organisation does not apply equitable procedures or appropriate conduct, that is, when procedural as well as interactional justice violations occur.

In South Africa, various economic and political reform legislation such as the EEA (55 of 1998) and the BBBEEA (4 of 2003), already defines the "what" of EE and AA practices. As the "what" is fairly fixed it can be concluded that the "how", that is the procedural and interactional justice, will play an important role in the justice perceptions of EE and AA practices within South African organisations.

EE best practices, as discussed in Chapter 3, can be linked to specific forms of organisational justice as conceptualised in this chapter. This link is presented in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4

EE BEST PRACTICES AND RELATED FORMS OF JUSTICE

Best practice	Form of justice affected
Training and development	Distributive Procedural
Transparent communication	Interactional (informational)
Management commitment	Procedural Interactional
Fair employment practices	Procedural
Inclusive organisational culture	Interactional (interpersonal and informational)
Diversity management	Interactional (interpersonal)
Justification	Distributive Interactional (informational)

4.9. AN INTEGRATED MODEL TO IMPLEMENT AND MANAGE EE FAIRLY

It has been established that EE and AA programmes will only be effective if they comply with legal as well as justice (fairness) requirements (Coetzee, 2005; Cropanzano et al., 2005; Kovach et al., 2004). Various models to implement EE while incorporating legislative requirements and best practices were discussed in Chapter 3. A model to correct perceptions of organisational injustice has been discussed in Chapter 4. Each of the models addresses either the legislative and best practices or the justice requirements. The researcher could not find a model in the literature where the legislative and justice aspects were combined and as such identified this as a gap. Thus, based on the literature review, an integrated model that provides guidelines for meeting both legislative and justice requirements is proposed and illustrated in Figure 4.1.

This model is called an integrated model because it considers the effectiveness of the programme in terms of compliance with legal (e.g. numerical goals) as well as fairness or justice requirements as supported by various authors (Coetzee, 2005; Colquit, et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2005; Kovach et al., 2004; Reb et al., 2006). It draws on best practices for EE as well as corrective actions for perceived injustices.

The model is based on the assumption that, the distribution of outcomes (the "what") is already determined by law, i.e. representation of designated groups in all occupational categories and levels (Coetzee, 2005; Opotow, 1997). Thus, employees might already be experiencing distributive injustice. The only way to comply with fairness requirements then is to focus on the procedural and interactional justice aspects (the "how") of the process.

Step 1 – Design the Employment Equity strategy

Organisations should accept that an effective EE strategy must be part of the overall strategy of the organisation (Human, 1996; Human, 2005; Thomas, 2003). Organisational, legislative and environmental aspects will affect the design of the employment equity strategy.

The vision, mission and business objectives of the organisation guide the type of EE strategy that is required and the manner in which it is implemented. For example, whether providing only for equal opportunities would be sufficient to achieve the vision, mission and objectives of the organisation or whether stronger affirmative actions are required.

The legislative framework and particularly the EEA (no 55 of 1998) prescribe the specific actions and outcomes that an organisation must aim to achieve with its EE strategy. The organisation has to consult and communicate with employees, establish the EE committee(s) and appoint an EE coordinator. The organisation then conducts an analysis of its workforce in order to identify areas of under representation. This information is utilised to set numerical targets and compile a detailed EE plan, including AA measures, for how and when these targets will be achieved.

Factors in the environment such as skills shortages and competition will also affect the way the EE strategy is designed and implemented in an organisation. If, for example, the organisation is affected by skills shortages in the specific industry more resources will have to be allocated to activities such as training and development and implementation of learnerships.

The design of the strategy should also incorporate the various best practices such as visible commitment from management, regular and open communication and the review of all employment policies and procedures to remove discriminatory practices (Human, 1996; Jain & Hacket, 1989; Thomas, 2003; Thomas & Robertshaw, 1999). The specific areas of under representation will determine the focus of training and development. These might include whether technical learnerships and/or management programmes such as mentorship programmes are necessary to support the achievement of targets.

Step 2 – Implement the EE strategy

Once an appropriate EE strategy that considers the relevant organisational, legislative and environmental factors and incorporates the best practices has been designed, the next step is to implement it. Implementation should be supported by regular and open communication of the details of the strategy and the related practices (Jain & Hacket, 1989; Thomas & Robersthaw, 1999).

Step 3 – Evaluate the effectiveness of the EE strategy

After the EE strategy has been implemented, its effectiveness in achieving the set goals should be evaluated. Changes to the design of the EE strategy and EE plan may be necessary if the strategy is not effective. This would typically be done on a yearly basis when the EE report is submitted to the Department of Labour.

Including all the necessary information required in the report will determine whether the numerical targets have been met or any significant progress has been made. It will also identify any negative trends that require attention, such as a high percentage of Blacks who are resigning. The organisation would typically obtain feedback from the EE committee(s) and coordinator regarding remaining barriers and concerns. The organisation could also utilise the Annual Training Report (ATR) at this point to evaluate whether the training and development objectives incorporated in the EE strategy have been met. These reports can thus be used to evaluate whether the EE strategy has been effective in terms of meeting the legal requirements.

If, in spite of the best efforts, the set targets are not met or other negative trends are evident the organisation might want to evaluate whether the EE strategy has met the fairness requirements. Indications of perceived fairness violations might already be evident in certain organisational outcomes such as increased absenteeism, high staff turnover, negative behaviours, lack of trust, and a general atmosphere of dissatisfaction with working conditions (Beugre, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2001). However, any other organisational process, and not necessarily the EE process, could be the cause of this. The organisation should conduct an employee survey to determine employees' specific perceptions regarding the EE process (Reb et al., 2006).

Step 4 – Identify target groups and focus areas

Through the information obtained from the EE report and the employee survey the organisation can identify the target groups and focus areas. In other words, they can determine whether there is a specific group or level of employees who are unhappy or whether there is a specific organisational process such as communication that requires attention. The organisation can then narrow down possible reasons why EE strategy is not effective and propose corrective actions.

When identifying target groups one should apply some logical reasoning as it is not necessary that the intervention always be directed only at the group that is dissatisfied. For example, if the Black group is dissatisfied because management does not deal with conflict management in a culturally sensitive manner then the intervention should be directed at the management level in order to improve its conflict management skills. If White males feel the promotion policy is unfair, efforts should be made to explain and justify the policies to this group, but the policy must be reviewed to ensure that it does not discriminate unfairly.

Similarly, when identifying focus areas one does not have to concentrate only on those areas employees feel negative about. If employees are positive about the vision of the organisation, for instance, interventions to build on this positive attitude should be considered.

Step 5 – Implement appropriate corrective action

Appropriate corrective actions can be implemented in the target groups once specific problems have been identified. Corrective actions in terms of the legal requirements of an effective EE strategy may include manager accountability through linking KPI's and performance rewards to managers to achievement of EE targets, ongoing publicity about the EE plan, special recruitment and training efforts directed at the target groups.

In terms of improving the perceptions of the fairness of programmes, appropriate corrective action could include organisational remedies, explaining and justifying the decisions made and processes followed in the EE strategy, training supervisors and managers and allowing employees to participate in the decision-making process. The effective application of the model requires a continual process of implementing, evaluating and correcting the organisational EE strategy and practices.

4.10. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the literature on organisational justice theory underpinning employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational procedures and practices. Organisational justice theory identifies three forms of justice that determine individuals' judgements of fairness, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Individuals' perceptions of fairness are influenced by the environment as well as individual factors, such as gender and personality.

Employees' perceived injustices could have a profound impact on key organisational outcomes. When employees perceive violations of various forms of organisational justice, this may affect aspects such as job satisfaction, performance and organisational commitment.
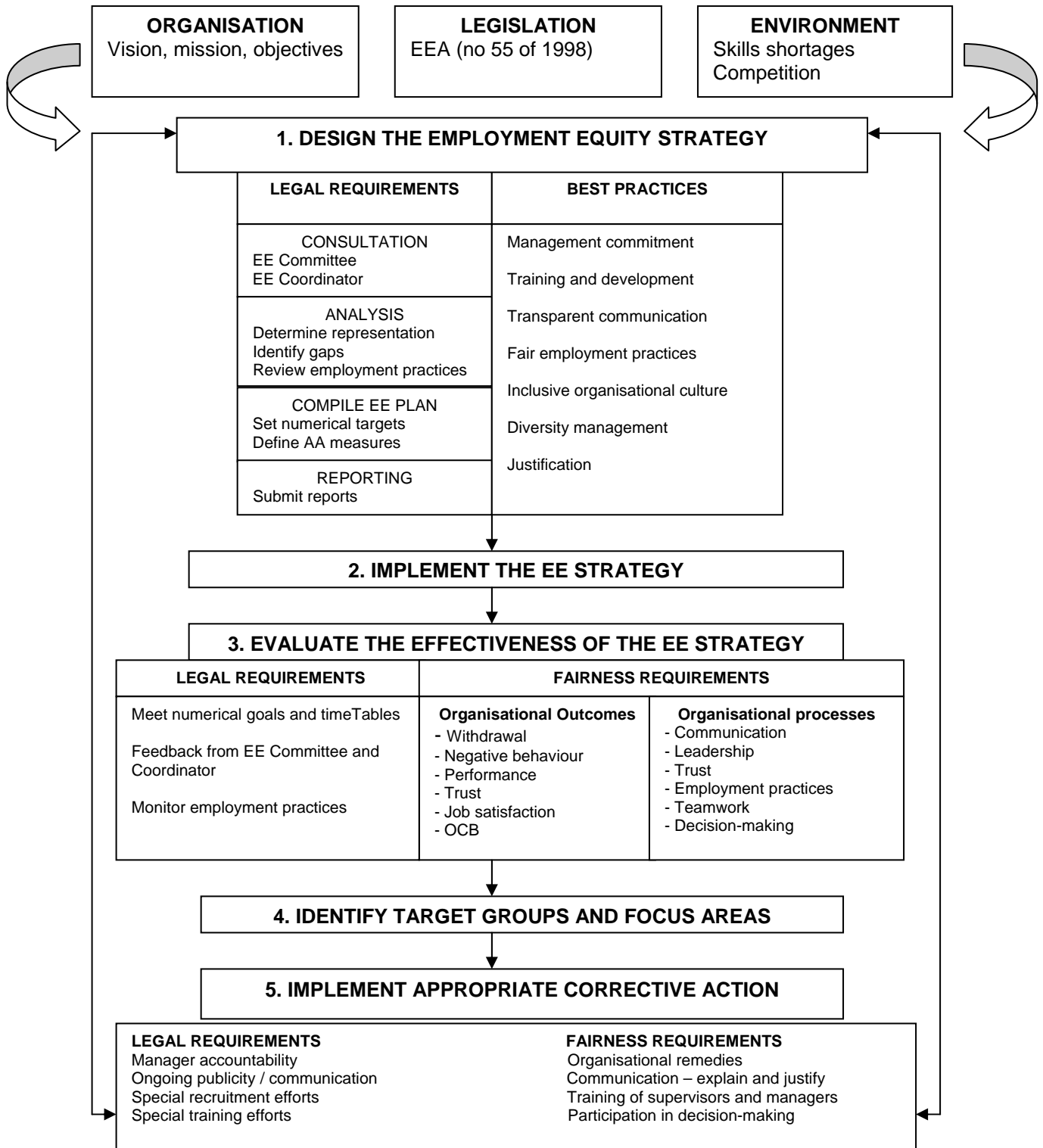
Figure 4.1   An integrated model to implement and manage EE fairly

Source: Beugre, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2001; Human, 1996; Jain & Hackett, 2003; Kickul, 2001; Reb et al., 2006; Schappe, 1996; Thomas, 2003

Other outcomes such as increased absenteeism, high staff turnover and negative behaviour such as aggression and theft may also manifest themselves. Ways in which organisations could correct employees' perceptions of injustice were discussed in this chapter. Corrective actions depend on the form of injustice that is perceived and may include monetary compensation, public apologies and providing justification and explanations for decisions.

The factors that influence perceptions of fairness of AAP's were identified according to structural and individual categories. Structural factors refer to the type of AA programme the organisation implements and include aspects such as the weighting of demographic status and the identity of the group that the programme is aimed at. Individual factors refer to aspects such as the respondent's role, race, gender, level of self-efficacy, opinion variables and personal experiences with AA.

Based on the theories and discussions in this and previous chapters, an integrated model for the legal as well as fair implementation and management of EE was proposed.

The second phase, namely the empirical study, will be introduced in Chapter 5. The objective of this study, the population and sample, the measuring instrument, the validity and reliability of this instrument, the data collection method, and the statistical methods used to analyse the data will be discussed.

CHAPTER 5

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS METHODS

The empirical study described in this dissertation focuses on employees' responses to the implementation of employment equity practices as a result of the Employment Equity Act no 55 of 1998 (EEA no 55 of 1998). In this context employment equity practices refer to specific organisational aspects, as specified by the EEA (55 of 1998), aimed at achieving the purpose of the legislation, namely to ensure equity and fairness in the workplace. The general aim is to determine whether the legislation has in fact led to fairness in the workplace.

The study was conducted at a private organisation in 2007, several years after the enactment of employment equity legislation. The EE committee in this company was established in 2002 and EE plans and reports have been submitted to the Department of Labour every year as required.

5.1. AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to determine employees' perceptions of the fairness of the procedures followed in implementing employment equity within a specific organisation. The specific aims of the empirical study were to:

- Measure employees' responses to employment equity practices in a specific organisation;
- Describe the difference in responses between groups along the categories of gender, race, and job level;
- Identify specific groups and/or areas of concern where organisational procedures or group behaviour could be improved to enhance employees' perceptions of the fairness of employment equity practices;
- Compile conclusions and recommendations based on the results of the study.

5.2. RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

A survey method was followed in this study. The survey is one of the most common methods used to conduct research in organisations (Swanson & Holton, 2005). A survey is "a method used to gather self-report descriptive information about the attitudes, behaviours, or other characteristics of some population" (Rosenfeld, Edwards & Thomas, 1995, p. 548). The survey is acknowledged as the most frequently used method in organisational research to assess phenomena that are not directly observable (Swanson & Holton, 2005).

The research has a cross-sectional design. Cross-sectional design studies reflect how the units being surveyed differ from one another at a single point in time (Swanson & Holton, 2005). Survey research is appropriate for use in studies with a cross-sectional design.

5.3. POPULATION AND SAMPLE

A population is "any collection of objects or entities that have at least one common characteristic" (Jaeger, 1990, p. 138), such as employees at the same organisation. Owing to limited resources researchers do not generally obtain data about entire populations but instead select samples from populations (Swanson & Holton, 2005).

The population of the organisation at the time of the study was 3299.28.7% of the total number of employees was male and 71.3% female. Because of logistical and time constraints it was decided that the sample would consist of areas where employees were concentrated in larger numbers. The sample consisted of a total of 520 staff members. It was a sample of convenience and employees completed the questionnaire only if they wished to do so.

5.4. THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

The measuring instrument utilised in this study is a validated questionnaire that has been used in other studies.

5.4.1. Rationale and background for using this instrument

The questionnaire is used in survey research because it is cost effective, quick and broad in spectrum (Swanson & Holton, 2005). The questionnaire employed in this study covers the broad spectrum of dimensions of employment equity.

5.4.2. The objective of utilising this instrument

This questionnaire was used to gather data on employees' perceptions of employment equity practices in the case organisation. The information gathered would provide baseline data from different groups such as race, gender, age, and job level on satisfaction or dissatisfaction with EE within the organisation .

5.4.3. Content of the questionnaire

The first part of questionnaire provides instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. It is then divided into Section 1 and Section 2.

5.4.3.1.　　Instructions

Respondents are thanked for their willingness to participate and instructions are provided on completing the questionnaire. The Likert scale is explained and an example of a statement and how the answer should be recorded is given. Responses for each statement are marked according to a five-point scale:

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Unsure
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

5.4.3.2.   Section 1 – Biographical information

Section 1 provides for the recording of biographical data needed for the study. The following biographical information of respondents was elicited:

- Age
- Job level
- EE / racial group
- Disability
- Gender
- Region and department employed

5.4.3.3.   Section 2 – Statements

Section 2 contains statements regarding the employment equity dimensions. This section consists of 86 statements.

5.4.4. Dimensions measured

The following dimensions were included in the instrument:

- Vision and strategy
- Leadership
- Transformation / change
- Human resource practices
- Performance appraisal
- Gender equity
- Individual satisfaction
- Valuing diversity in teams
- Conflict management
- Interpersonal dimensions of diversity

The two dimensions of "teamwork" and "impact of diversity workshops" in the original questionnaire were excluded. The reason for this was that the survey was not conducted after a diversity training intervention and the purpose was not to examine teamwork per se.

5.4.4.1.   Vision and strategy

In order to feel part of the organisation, in other words to create an inclusive organisational culture, employees must be inducted into the vision and objectives of the organisation. Employees must personally agree with and buy into the organisation's vision and employment equity strategy.

Examples of statements in this dimension:

- I personally agree with the company's vision to be the best diagnostic services provider.
- In my experience the diversity strategy of the company enables us to be an employer of choice.
- In my division diversity is driven as a strategic focus area.

5.4.4.2.   Leadership

One of the critical success factors for effective EE is management support. Employees' perceptions of leadership and management processes in general may influence their satisfaction with other organisational practices. Issues of trust are also important as a desired organisational outcome.

Examples of statements for this dimension:

- The person I report to sets an example everyone can follow – he/she walks the talk.
- The person I report to is a good leader.
- The person I report to is consistent in the way he/she treats us.
- I trust the person I report to.

5.4.4.3.   Transformation / change

Communication is a critical component of dealing with any organisational change and communication regarding the implementation of EE practices is no exception. Resistance to change can be overcome through regular, open communication. Ongoing awareness and publicity of plans and strategies are crucial.

Examples of statements for this dimension:

- In my experience managers inform us timeously about how new plans and changes will affect our work.
- In my experience the company is serious about equal opportunities for all race groups.
- I do not feel threatened by the employment equity process in the company.
- The following sources supply me with reliable and sufficient information on diversity
    - The person I report to
    - Internal communication media
    - Human Resource managers.

5.4.4.4.   Human Resource Practices

A key criterion for the success of EE is the review of all employment practices to ensure that they are transparent and free of unfair discrimination. This includes selection tools, job requirements and all other employment practices. This is also required by the EEA (no 55 of 1998).
Example of statements in this dimension:

- I feel the organisation's selection criteria are justified in relation to the job requirements.
- In my experience the following Human Resources practices, as applied in my division, are fair towards all
    - Advertising of positions

- Recruitment procedures
- Selection procedures
- Development opportunities
- Promotions
- Performance counselling
- Career development
- Remuneration.

5.4.4.5.   *Performance appraisal*

Performance appraisal forms part of employee development and the determination of individual training needs. Regular performance feedback is a critical performance development tool. Clear performance roles and standards reduce stress, and recognition increases employee satisfaction.

Examples of statements for this dimension:

- The person to whom I report frequently discusses my work performance with me.
- My performance standards are clearly defined.
- In my experience, high achievers are recognised for their achievements.
- The person to whom I report assists me in developing my full potential.

5.4.4.6.   *Gender equity*

Gender equity refers to whether men and women are treated equally and not unfairly discriminated against, based on their gender, in promotion or remuneration. This aspect is related to the dimension of fair employment practices. Examples of statements in this dimension:

- In my experience managers in my division are sensitive to gender issues.
- In my experience males and females receive equal pay and benefits for equal work.

- In my experience men and women have equal opportunity for advancement in the company.

5.4.4.7.   Individual satisfaction

Individual satisfaction refers to employees' overall satisfaction with the working environment. This includes feeling that that their skills are effectively utilised and that they are making a valued contribution to the organisation. Employees should experience a sense of belonging to the department and organisation. Issues of trust and respect between employees and management as well as between co-workers also impact on individual satisfaction.

Examples of statements in this dimension:

- Generally, I am effectively utilised.
- I feel positive about my future at the company.
- I feel part of my division.
- I feel respected by the managers in my division.

5.4.4.8.   Valuing diversity in teams

A critical factor in employment equity is that the need for diversity is acknowledged, valued and viewed as a business benefit and not a liability by all members of the organisation, i.e. both managers and employees. This dimension also indicates whether tokenism, racism and victimisation are perceived to occur in the company.

Examples of statements in this dimension:
- In my experience, managers in my division show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.
- In my experience, the need for diversity is recognised.
- In my experience, employees in the company view diversity as a liability.
- The person I report to possesses the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team.

5.4.4.9.   Conflict management

This dimension focuses on the manner in which conflict is dealt with in the organisation. The focus is twofold, namely whether conflict is dealt with effectively and resolved, and whether it is dealt with in a culturally sensitive manner. Examples of statements for this dimension:

- I feel comfortable dealing with conflict with people from a different race group.
- The person I report to manages conflict between team members effectively.

5.4.4.10.   Interpersonal dimension of diversity

The interpersonal dimension of diversity relates to the general relationship and interaction amongst employees and with management. It explores the degree of openness and comfort that employees experience while working within a diverse workforce.
Examples of statements for this dimension:

- I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced.
- I am at ease with people of diverse backgrounds.
- I feel that working in a diverse group is stressful.
- I am not afraid to disagree with the person to whom I report.

5.4.5. Link between dimensions, EE best practices and forms of organisational justice

The above dimensions cover a broad spectrum of critical success factors and best practices in the effective implementation of EE in an organisation, as identified in Chapter 3. These factors include training and development, communication, management commitment, fair employment practices, inclusive organisational culture, diversity management and justification.

The dimensions included in the questionnaire can also be linked to the various forms of organisational justice established in Chapter 4. This link is presented in Table 5.1 below.

TABLE 5.1

LINK BETWEEN DIMENSIONS, EE BEST PRACTICES AND FORMS OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

DIMENSION	EE BEST PRACTICE	FORM OF JUSTICE
Vision and strategy	Inclusive organisational culture	Interactional
Leadership	Management Commitment	Procedural Interactional
Change / transformation	Communication	Interactional
Human Resource practices	Fair employment practices	Procedural
Performance appraisal	Training and development	Distributive Procedural
Gender equity	Fair employment practices	Procedural
Individual satisfaction	Inclusive organisational culture	Interactional
Valuing diversity	Justification	Distributive Interactional
Conflict management	Communication	Interactional
Interpersonal dimension	Communication	Interactional

5.4.6. Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

5.4.6.1. Validity

"Measurement validity is the degree to which a measure does what it is intended to do" (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 83). Thus, in order to be valid the instrument should be suited to the purpose for which it will be used.

Content validity is established by the degree to which a measure reflects the content of the domain under study (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The measure will be content valid if the items on the instrument are representative of what is being measured.

This study investigates employee responses to the various dimensions of employment equity. In this case, the content validity of the statements in the

questionnaire was established in a logical manner with the help of a subject specialist. Firstly, it was ensured that the dimensions of employment equity, as identified in the literature review, were broadly covered. Secondly, the statements were reviewed to ensure that they were pitched at an comprehensible level of language and used terms appropriate to the case organisation.

5.4.6.2.   Reliability

A measure's reliability refers to its "dependability" and specifically "the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials" (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 88). Thus, the measure is reliable if it provides consistent results.

Internal consistency is established by the degree to which each item on a scale correlates with each other item (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The estimated average inter-item correlation in this study was calculated by means of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), scores above 0.70 are considered to be satisfactory in terms of reliability.

The overall reliability of the original questionnaire is 0.938 and the internal consistency of the dimensions is between 0.776 and 0.868. The original questionnaire has been used in other studies. The dimensions measured in this study were the same except for the two dimensions of "teamwork" and the "impact of diversity workshops". Thus, the instrument was considered reliable based on previous studies. In this study the overall reliability was 0.971. The scores per dimension were satisfactory (above 0.70), except the score for the interpersonal dimension (0.452).

5.5. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Hard copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the entire sample. Confidentiality and anonymity was ensured by not requiring identifying information such as names, employee or identity numbers and by providing self-sealing

envelopes. Two hundred and forty-five of the total sample of 520 employees responded. This represents a response rate of 47%.

5.6. DATA ANALYSIS AND STATISTICAL METHODS

The data was analysed in a quantitative manner by means of the statistical software package SPSS (Statistics Package for Social Scientists). The following statistical methods used in this study will be discussed:

Descriptive analysis:
- Frequency distributions according to race, gender, age and job level;
- Mean scores and standard deviation of employees on the employment equity dimensions;
- Mean scores and standard deviation of different groups on the EE dimensions.

Inferential analysis:
- T-test: Comparison between scores of males and females;
- One-way ANOVAs between the mean scores of different groups;
- Factorial ANOVAs to determine the interaction effect of independent variables.

5.6.1. Descriptive Analysis

The purpose of descriptive analysis is to describe and summarise the data by determining the distribution of scores obtained on each variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This gives the researcher a general picture of the data collected.

5.6.1.1. Frequency distributions

Frequency distributions are graphic representations of the number of participants who obtained a certain score on a variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). This gives an indication of the distribution of scores.

Graphic representations of frequency distributions were used to depict the demographic composition of the sample. Cross tabulations were applied to indicate the relationship between demographic variables.

5.6.1.2.   The mean

The mean is a measure of central tendency. Measures of central tendency are calculations of the most central score in a distribution (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). These measures are used to best represent the data collected for a specific variable.

The mean as a measure of central tendency is "the arithmetic average of all the values in the data set" (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 105). Adding all the values in the data set and then dividing that total by the total number of values in the set calculates the mean (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

Mean scores were calculated for employee responses to the employment equity factors in order to determine overall perceptions. Mean scores were also calculated for each independent variable, namely race group, gender, age group, and job level, in order to make comparisons between the groups.

5.6.1.3.   The standard deviation

The standard deviation is a measure of variability. A measure of variability "estimates the degree to which the observations for a variable are dissimilar to each other" (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999, p. 106). As a measure of variability, the standard deviation "tells you how widely the responses vary around the mean" (Swanson & Holton, 2005, p. 39). The mean and standard deviation are the basis of inferential statistical analysis.

5.6.2. Inferential analysis

The purpose of most research is to determine whether relationships exist between variables, not only in the sample but also in the population (Terre Blanche &

Durrheim, 1999). Once the means are known researchers usually want to make comparisons between groups (Swanson & Holton, 2005). Thus, data analysis must go beyond description.

Inferential analysis enables the researcher to draw inferences or conclusions about populations from the sample data (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Using samples to draw conclusions about populations is open to error and inferential statistics provide a reliable way of making interpretations of data in this context (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Researchers make use of two sample t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques to compare means between groups.

5.6.2.1.   Selecting the appropriate statistical test

Determining which statistical test to use for data analysis will depend on the number of dependent variables (DV), independent variables (IV) and the number of groups or samples (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). A basic decision-making process to assist in selecting an appropriate test is illustrated in figure 5.1.
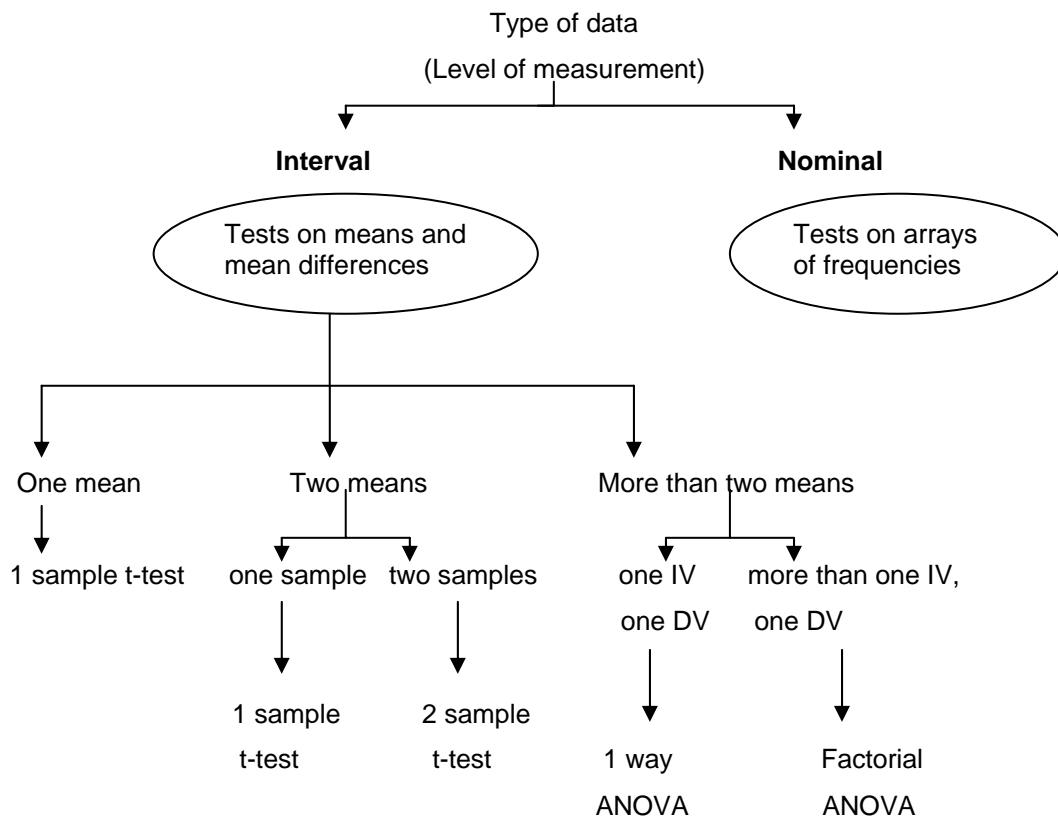
Figure 5.1.   Which statistical test?

Source: Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999, p. 342)

5.6.2.2.   Two sample t-tests

Researchers use two sample t-tests to compare the means of two groups (Swanson & Holton, 2005). The purpose is not only to determine the difference between the means but also to establish whether there is no difference or a "real" difference between the groups (Swanson & Holton, 2005).

In this study, the two-sample t-test was employed to compare the means of males' and females' responses regarding the employment equity factors. This was done to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two groups' perceptions of the EE dimensions.

5.6.2.3.   Analysis of variance techniques

When researchers want to compare the means of more than two groups, analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques are applied (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

- One-way ANOVA

One-way or simple ANOVA tests are used to compare the means of more than two groups with a single independent variable and a single dependent variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). The following one-way analyses of variance were employed in this study:

- One-way ANOVA between race groups. The aim was to determine whether perceptions of EE differ amongst different racial groups.
- One-way ANOVA between age groups. The aim was to determine whether perceptions of EE differ according to the age of respondents.
- One-way ANOVA between job levels. The aim was to determine whether perceptions of EE differ according to the job level of respondents.

- Factorial ANOVA

In most cases, there are at least two independent variables in a study (Swanson & Holton, 2005). Where there is one dependent variable but more than one independent variable, the factorial ANOVA is applied (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Factorial ANOVA examines the separate and simultaneous effects of more than one independent variable on a dependent variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

The following factorial analyses of variance were applied in this study:

- Factorial ANOVA between race and gender. The aim was to determine the simultaneous effect of race and gender on perceptions of EE.
- Factorial ANOVA between race and age. The aim was to determine the simultaneous effect of race and age on perceptions of EE.
- Factorial ANOVA between race and job level. The aim was to determine the simultaneous effect of race and job level on perceptions of EE.
- Factorial ANOVA between job level and age. The aim was to determine the simultaneous effect of job level and age on perceptions of EE.
- Factorial ANOVA between job level and gender. The aim was to determine the simultaneous effect of job level and gender on perceptions of EE.

5.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an introduction to the second phase of this research study, namely the empirical study. The objective of the study, the population and sample, the measuring instrument, validity and reliability of the instrument, and data collection method were described. The statistical methods used to analyse the data were discussed.

In Chapter 6 the results of the empirical study will be reported. These results will be interpreted and discussed in the light of the literature review conducted in the first phase of this study. A summary of the results of the study is provided.

CHAPTER 6
REPORTING AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

This chapter reflects the results of the empirical study discussed in Chapter 5. The study was conducted at a private South African company in the health services industry. The employees in the organisation who participated in the study range from technical and administrative staff to senior managers.

The aim of the study was to determine employees' perceptions of the fairness of the procedures followed to achieve employment equity within a specific organisation. In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims were to:

- Measure employees' responses to employment equity practices in a specific organisation;
- Describe the differences in responses between groups along the categories of gender, race, and job level;
- Identify specific groups and/or areas of concern where organisational procedures or group behaviour could be improved to enhance employees' perceptions of fairness of employment equity practices;
- Compile conclusions and recommendations based on the results of the study.

The demographic composition of the sample is presented. Relationships between demographic variables are indicated and the representativeness of the sample is established. The overall profile of the organisation is provided and each of the independent variables in terms of the ten EE dimensions measured is discussed. Comparisons between and interaction effects of the independent variables on the EE dimensions are examined. A summary of the results is also presented.

6.1. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

6.1.1. Gender composition

The sample consisted largely of females (76%), as reflected in figure 6.1.
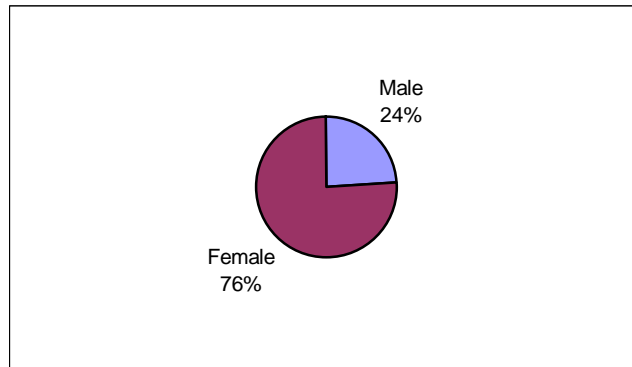
Figure 6.1.   Gender composition (n = 239)

6.1.2. Racial composition

Figure 6.2 depicts the racial composition of the sample. Whites (61.5%) and Africans (27.2%) comprised the majority of the sample whereas Indians and Coloureds constituted 5.4% and 5.9% respectively.
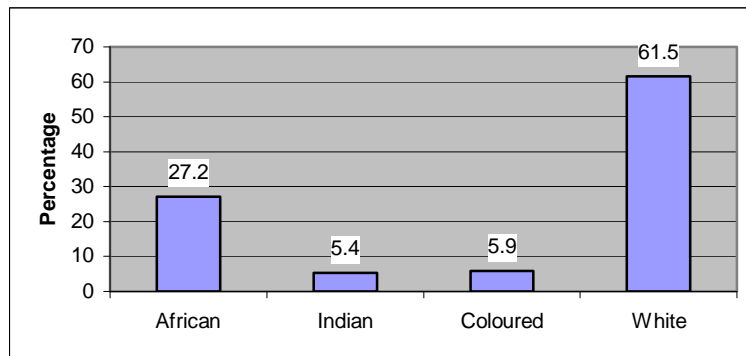
Figure 6.2.   Race composition (n = 239)

6.1.3. Age distribution

The age distribution of the sample varied across the five categories as illustrated in figure 6.3. The largest group of respondents was between the ages of 25 and 34 years (34%). There was a more or less equal distribution in the 35 to 44 year age

group (25.6%) and the younger than 25 years (21.8%) group. A considerably lower percentage of respondents were between the ages of 45 and 54 years (15.5%) and the lowest percentage was older than 55 years (2.9%).
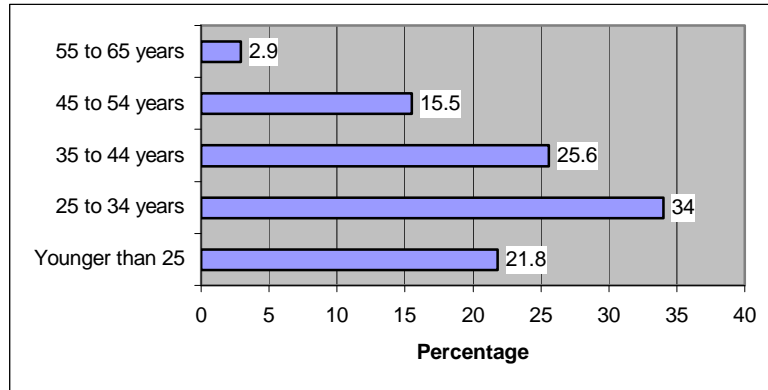
Figure 6.3.   Age distribution (n = 239)

6.1.4. Job level distribution

Respondents were grouped into four main job levels, namely senior management, middle management, first level management and non-management. These levels incorporate the occupational levels, as presented in Table 2.2 in Chapter 2, as follows:

- Senior management: Senior management such as general and area managers;
- Middle management: Professionally qualified, specialists and middle management;
- First level management: Skilled technical, junior management and supervisors;
- Non-management: Semi-skilled and unskilled employees who do not have direct reports.

The sample comprised mostly employees at the non-managerial (63.1%) level. The junior management level made up 21.9% of the sample, the middle management level 11.6% and the senior management level 3.4%, as shown in figure 6.4.
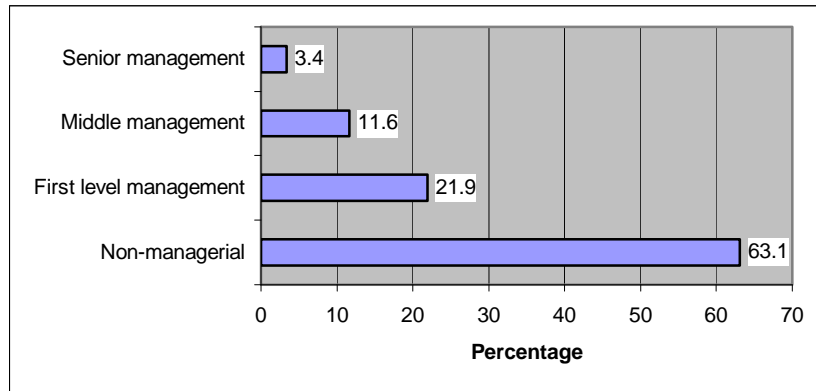
Figure 6.4.   Job level distribution (n = 239)

6.2. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The stipulations of the EEA (55 of 1998) focus on the distribution of race groups and gender over all job levels in the workplace therefore cross tabulations between these demographic variables were compiled.

6.2.1. Cross tabulation between gender and race

The gender distribution in the different race groups is depicted in Table 6.1 below. The results for the Indian and Coloured groups were combined to make the interpretation more meaningful. African males make up 10.5%, and 16.7% are African females. Indian and Coloured males constitute 4.2% and females 7.1% of the sample. White males make up 9.6% and White females, 51.9%. The Chi-Square test reveals that race group and gender are statistically significantly related at the 1% level. In other words, a particular gender has a higher distribution in all race groups. In this case, females have the highest distribution in all race groups. This might be because the majority of respondents are female (76%).

Table 6.1   Cross tabulation between gender and race

			Gender		Total
			Male	**Female**	
Race	African	Count	25	40	65
		% of Total	10.5%	16.7%	27.2%
	Indian and Coloured	Count	10	17	27
		% of Total	4.2%	7.1%	11.3%
	White	Count	23	124	147
		% of Total	9.6%	51.9%	61.5%
Total		Count	58	181	239

6.2.2. Cross tabulation between race and age

The cross tabulation between race and age is presented in Table 6.2. In the age group younger than 25 years, Whites constitute12.2% followed by Africans at 5.9% and the Indian and Coloured group at 3.8%. For all race groups, the highest distribution was in the age group 25 to 35 years, with Whites constituting 19.3%, Africans 9.7% and Indians and Coloureds 5.0% of the sample. In the category 35 to 44 years Africans constitute 6.3% of the sample, Indian and Coloured 2.1% and Whites 17.2%. Africans (5.5%), Indians and Coloureds (0.4%) have the lowest distribution in the age group 45 to 65 years while Whites make up 12.6%. The Chi-Square test did not reveal any statistically significant relation between race and age.

Table 6.2.   Cross tabulation between race and age

			Age				Total
			<25	**25-34**	**35-44**	**45-65**	
Race	African	Count	14	23	15	13	65
		% of Total	5.9%	9.7%	6.3%	5.5%	27.3%
	Indian and Coloured	Count	9	12	5	1	27
		% of Total	3.8%	5.0%	2.1%	.4%	11.3%
	White	Count	29	46	41	30	146
		% of Total	12.2%	19.3%	17.2%	12.6%	61.3%
Total		Count	52	81	61	44	238

6.2.3. Cross tabulation between race and job level

The cross tabulation between race group and job level is presented in Table 6.3 below. All race groups have the highest distribution at the non-management level with Whites (34.3%) the highest, followed by Africans (20.6%) and then Indians and Coloureds (8.2%). Whites (15.5%) have the highest distribution on the first level management followed by Africans (3.9%) and Indians and Coloureds (2.6%). The middle and senior management levels were combined to make the interpretation of the results more meaningful. At the middle and senior management levels Whites (11.6%) have the highest distribution followed by Africans (2.6%) and Indians and Coloureds (0.9%). The Chi-Square test revealed that race group and job level are statistically significantly related at the 5% level. In other words, higher distributions on certain job levels are related to race. In this case Whites have the highest distribution on all job levels. This might be because the majority of respondents were White (61.5%).

Table 6.3   Cross tabulation between race and job level

			Job level			Total
			Non-management	First level management	Middle and senior management	
Race	African	Count	48	9	6	63
		% of Total	20.6%	3.9%	2.6%	27.0%
	Indian and Coloured	Count	19	6	2	27
		% of Total	8.2%	2.6%	.9%	11.6%
	White	Count	80	36	27	143
		% of Total	34.3%	15.5%	11.6%	61.4%
Total		Count	147	51	35	233

6.2.4. Cross tabulation between gender and job level

The cross tabulation between gender and job level is presented in Table 6.4. At the non-managerial level females constitute 46.8% and males 16.3% of the sample. Females constitute 15.9% and males 6.0% of the first level management. At the middle and senior management level females make up 12.9% of the sample and males 2.1%. There is a higher distribution of females than males at all job

levels. However, the Chi-Square test did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between gender and job level.

Table 6.4.   Cross tabulation between gender and job level

			Job level			Total
			Non-management	First level management	Middle and senior management	
Gender	Male	Count	38	14	5	57
		% of Total	16.3%	6.0%	2.1%	24.5%
	Female	Count	109	37	30	176
		% of Total	46.8%	15.9%	12.9%	75.5%
Total		Count	147	51	35	233

6.3.5. Cross tabulation between job level and age

The cross tabulation between age and job level is presented in Table 6.5. Employees on the non-management level are mostly younger than 25 years (90.19%). Employees at junior management level are spread between the ages of 25 and 34 years (22.5%), 35 and 44 years (33.3%) and 45 to 65 years (21.9%). Employees at middle management level range between the ages of 35 and 44 years (20%) and 45 to 65 years (23.8%). Senior management is mostly aged between 25 and 34 years (6.3%). Further analysis shows that age group and job level is significantly statistically related at the 1% level. In other words, people at certain job levels are in a certain age group. In this case, employees younger than 25 years are mostly on the non-management level.

Table 6.5   Cross tabulation between job level and age

			Age				Total
			<25	25-34	35-44	45-65	
Job level	Non-Management	Count	46	52	28	21	147
		% within age	90.19%	65.0%	46.7%	50.0%	63.1%
	Junior Management	Count	4	18	20	9	51
		% within age	7.8%	22.5%	33.3%	21.4%	21.9%
	Middle Management	Count	0	5	12	10	27
		% within age	.0%	6.3%	20.0%	23.8%	11.6%
	Senior management	Count	1	5	0	2	8
		% within age	2.0%	6.3%	.0%	4.8%	3.4%
Total		Count	51	80	60	42	233

6.3. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

6.3.1. Representativeness of the sample

A fairly small sample (n=240) of the population (n=3299) was selected for the purposes of the study. It was necessary to determine the demographic representativeness of this sample in order to establish external validity and to interpret the results in a meaningful manner. External validity refers to the degree to which the findings and conclusions of a study can be generalised beyond its confines and context (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). For example, a study is conducted within an organisation in a specific location and then generalised to other locations in the same organisation (Swanson & Holton, 2005). External validity is very important in research of a descriptive nature, such as this study (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). One method of establishing external validity is to ensure that the sample is representative and stretches across different subtypes of staff in the organisation (Swanson & Holton, 2005).

6.3.1.1.   Gender and race distribution

The distribution of gender in the sample (male 24%; female 76%) closely represents the distribution of gender in the organisation (male 28.7%; female 71.3%).

The race profiles of the sample and the population are presented in Table 6.6. The representation of Indians (5.4%) and of Whites (61.5%) in the sample is slightly higher than the distribution in the population. Overall, all population groups were adequately represented in the sample. A comparison of the distribution of race per gender is presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.6   Race profile of sample and population

Race	Sample	Population
African	27.2%	33.8%
Indian	5.4%	10.4%
Coloured	5.9%	5.7%
White	61.5%	49.6%

Table 6.7   Comparison of gender and race distribution

Gender	EE group	Sample	Population
Male	African	10.5%	16.5%
	Indian and Coloured	4.2%	4.11%
	White	9.6%	7.86%
Total Male		24.3%	28.47%
Female	African	16.7%	17.67%
	Indian and Coloured	7.1%	13.14%
	White	51.9%	40.23%
Total Female		75.7%	71.04%

6.3.1.2.   Job level distribution

The job level distribution of the sample compared to the population is presented in Table 6.8. The non-management level is better represented in the sample (63.1%) than in the population (52%). The first level management is not as well represented in the sample (21.9%) as in the population (43%). There are more staff members in middle management in the sample (11.6%) than in the population (2.8%). This also applies to senior management level (3.4% and1.7% respectively). Overall, all job levels are adequately represented in the sample.

6.3.1.3.   Comparison of race and job level

Table 6.9 reflects a comparison of race and job level as a percentage of the total sample and population. Africans (20.6%) and Indians and Coloureds (8.2%) on non-management level in the sample are closely representative of the population (25.5% and 9.4% respectively).

Table 6.8   Job level distribution of sample and population

Job level	Sample	Population
Non-manager	63.1%	52%
First level management	21.9%	43%
Middle management	11.6%	2.8%
Senior management	3.4%	1.7%

In the sample Whites are well represented (34.3%) at non-management level, compared to 17% in the population. Africans (3.9%), Indians and Coloureds (2.6%) and Whites (15.5%) are slightly less well represented at first level management in the sample than in the population (8.8%, 7.6% and 27.2% respectively). Africans (2.6%), Indians and Coloureds (0.9%) and Whites (11.6%) are well represented at middle and senior management level in the sample, compared to the population (0.03%, 0.2% and 4,2% respectively). Overall, the sample is considered to be representative of the population in terms of race and job level distribution.

Table 6.9   Comparison between race and job level

Race	Job level	Sample	Population
African	Non-management	20.6%	25.5%
	First level management	3.9%	8.8%
	Middle and senior management	2.6%	0.03%
Indian and Coloured	Non-management	8.2%	9.4%
	First level management	2.6%	7.6%
	Middle and senior management	0.9%	0.2%
White	Non-management	34.3%	17%
	First level management	15.5%	27.2%
	Middle and senior management	11.6%	4.2%

6.3.1.4.   Comparison of gender and job level distribution

Table 6.10 presents the comparison between the sample and the population with regard to gender and job level distribution. At non-management level, males in the

sample represent 16.3%, compared to 67.2% in the population, while females (46.8%) closely reflect the population (46.1%). At first level management, males in the sample represent 6.0% compared to the 23.6% in the population and females 15.9%, compared to the 51.4% in the population. At the middle and senior management level males represent 2.1% and females 12.9% in the sample compared to 4.2% and 2.2% respectively in the population.

Table 6.10   Comparison between gender and job level

Gender	Job level	Sample	Population
Male	Non-management	16.3%	67.2%
	First level management	6.0%	23.6%
	Middle and senior management	2.1%	4.2%
Female	Non-management	46.8%	46.1%
	First level management	15.9%	51.4%
	Middle and senior management	12.9%	2.2%

6.3.1.5.   Age group distribution

The distribution of age groups across the population was not established. Thus comparisons between the sample and the population in terms of age groups are not available.

6.3.2. Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency with which an instrument yields results and this was determined in the present study by calculating Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's coefficient alpha scores higher than 0.75 are considered sufficient to establish reliability. The overall reliability of the questionnaire was 0.971. The inter-item consistency of the dimensions is presented in Table 6.11 below. Items 73 and 74 (valuing diversity dimension) and 93 (interpersonal dimension) were rescaled to measure in the same direction.

Table 6.11   Cronbach's coefficient alpha scores per dimension

Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Vision and strategy	4	0.709
Leadership	11	0.949
Transformation / change	12	0.859
Human Resource practices	11	0.939
Performance appraisal	8	0.910
Gender equity	5	0.798
Individual satisfaction	7	0.861
Valuing diversity	16	0.896
Conflict management	4	0.713
Interpersonal dimension	8	**0.452**
Total scale	86	0.971

According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), scores above 0.70 are acceptable. The Cronbach's Alpha scores are satisfactory, with the exception of the interpersonal dimension (0.452) and this should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results. The interpersonal dimension contained two items that measured in the opposite direction, in other words agreement with the statement indicated a negative response. Thus, it is possible that some respondents could have interpreted the statements incorrectly, resulting in less consistency in responses.

6.4. PROFILE OF THE ORGANISATION IN TERMS OF EE DIMENSIONS

Firstly, the general EE profile of the organisation was established. Secondly, the profile of each of the groups specified as independent variables was examined.

6.4.1. Overall means and standard deviations of the 10 EE dimensions

The overall means and standard deviations of responses to the 10 EE dimensions are presented in Table 6.12. Overall, employees seemed to be satisfied with the EE practices of the organisation as none of the dimensions obtained mean scores below 3.2 (Odendaal & Roodt, 1998). In general, employees appeared to be most positive about the vision and strategy (3.87), leadership (3.80), the interpersonal dimension (3.78) and conflict management (3.68). In general, employees were

most negative about human resources practices (3.27), performance appraisal (3.35) and valuing diversity (3.41).

Table 6.12 Overall EE profile

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vision and strategy	3.87	.693
Leadership	3.80	.895
Transformation/Change	3.48	.675
HR practices	3.27	.883
Performance appraisal	3.35	.948
Gender equity	3.54	.810
Individual satisfaction	3.49	.853
Valuing diversity	3.41	.661
Conflict management	3.68	.761
Interpersonal dimension	3.78	.448

6.4.2. Mean scores of males and females on EE dimensions

To compare the differences between males' and females' perceptions their respective mean scores on each of the EE dimensions were calculated. This is presented graphically in Figure 6.5.

Overall, males and females were positive about all the EE dimensions, with females slightly more positive than males. Both genders were specifically positive towards leadership and the interpersonal dimension. Both genders were most negative about HR practices and performance appraisal.
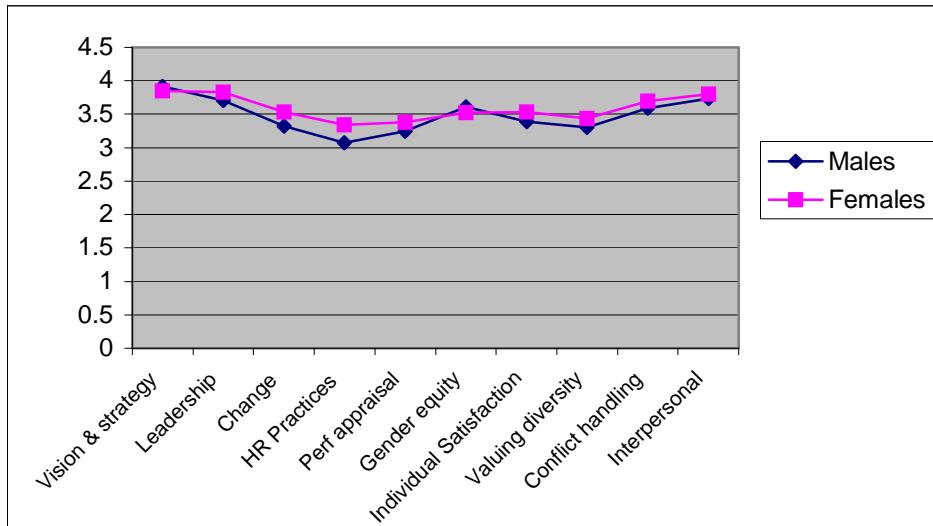
Figure 6.5   Mean scores of males and females on EE dimensions

6.4.2.1.   Comparison between males and females on EE dimensions

A t-test was done to determine whether the above differences were statistically significant. Table 6.13 presents the means, standard deviation, and p values of males and females for each dimension.

The t-test revealed that, other than in vision and strategy, there were no significant differences between males' and females' perceptions of EE in the organisation. This runs counter to other studies where significant differences between males and females were recorded (Duweke, 2004; SIOP Committee, 1995; Van Zyl & Roodt, 2003), but is consistent with a study where no significant differences based on gender were found (Coetzee, 2005). A reason for this might be that, in this study, the majority of the population (71.3%) was female. In addition, females had much higher distributions at the junior management levels than males, and more or less half of middle and senior management was female (See Table 6.10). Thus, females may not have perceived the same barriers as experienced in other organisations where the majority of the population and/or managers are male.

Table 6.13   Comparison between male and female mean scores on EE dimensions

Dimension	Mean		Std Dev		
	Males	**Females**	**Males**	**Females**	**p-value**
Vision and strategy	3.92	3.85	0.514	0.744	0.013*
Leadership	3.72	3.83	0.814	0.922	0.540
Transformation / Change	3.32	3.53	0.685	0.669	0.851
HR practices	3.07	3.34	0.813	0.895	0.322
Performance appraisal	3.25	3.38	0.930	0.956	0.931
Gender equity	3.61	3.52	0.789	0.820	0.689
Individual satisfaction	3.39	3.53	0.822	0.864	0.917
Valuing diversity	3.29	3.44	0.614	0.675	0.574
Conflict handling	3.59	3.70	0.781	0.756	0.894
Interpersonal	3.74	3.80	0.494	0.437	0.611

* $p < 0.05$

6.4.3. Comparison of race groups on EE dimensions

Based on the race distribution of the sample, a comparison was made between the race categories, namely White (61.5%), Indian (5.4%), Coloured (5.9%) and African (27.2%), by calculating the respective mean scores on each of the EE dimensions. The race groups Indian and Coloured were combined to make interpretations more meaningful. The results are presented in Table 6.14.

All race groups seemed to be positive towards the EE dimensions, specifically the vision and strategy (3.87), leadership (3.80) and the interpersonal dimension (3.78). All groups were most negative about the fairness of human resource practices (3.27) and performance appraisal (3.35). Indians and Coloureds seemed generally to be most positive towards most of the dimensions. Whites were generally more positive than Africans. In fact, Africans were the most negative of all the race groups, specifically towards the aspects of human resource practices (2.82), valuing diversity (3.13) and transformation / change (3.17).

Table 6.14   Means of race groups on EE dimensions

Dimension	Race	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vision and strategy	African	65	3.70	.776
	Indian and Coloured	27	4.03	.414
	White	147	3.91	.688
	Total	239	3.87	.695
Leadership	African	65	3.51	.883
	Indian and Coloured	27	4.07	.623
	White	147	3.88	.918
	Total	239	3.80	.897
Transformation /change	African	65	3.17	.727
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.55	.467
	White	147	3.61	.645
	Total	239	3.48	.677
HR practices	African	65	2.82	.889
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.37	.684
	White	147	3.45	.850
	Total	239	3.27	.885
Performance appraisal	African	65	3.21	1.029
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.47	.745
	White	147	3.38	.946
	Total	239	3.35	.950
Gender equity	African	64	3.31	.869
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.73	.505
	White	147	3.60	.814
	Total	238	3.54	.811
Individual satisfaction	African	65	3.24	.912
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.64	.543
	White	147	3.58	.856
	Total	239	3.49	.854
Valuing diversity	African	65	3.13	.683
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.40	.474
	White	147	3.53	.651
	Total	239	3.41	.663
Conflict management	African	65	3.47	.883
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.82	.571
	White	145	3.74	.721
	Total	237	3.68	.762
Interpersonal dimension	African	65	3.72	.475
	Indian and Coloured	27	3.88	.480
	White	146	3.80	.429
	Total	238	3.78	.449

6.4.3.1.   One-way ANOVA for race groups

To determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the respective race groups, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The results are presented in Table 6.15.

- Interpretation of the results of the one-way ANOVA for race groups

The results revealed that there were significant differences in perceptions between the race groups. The ANOVA results were interpreted in conjunction with the means per dimension per race group presented in Table 6.13 above and together with the post hoc Scheffé test in Appendix A.

Africans were significantly more negative than Whites about almost all aspects of EE. This is contrary to studies that suggest strong support from employees for EE programmes directed at their own race groups (Coetzee, 2005; SIOP Committee, 1995). Opotow (1997) supports the notion that Whites view programmes directed at women or people with disabilities more positively than those directed at Blacks. Thus, because Africans were most negative, Whites more positive and Indians and Coloured the most positive, there might be a perception that EE practices in this organisation are not specifically directed at Africans but rather at other races (Indians and Coloureds) and women.

Table 6.15   One-way ANOVA results for race groups

Dimension	P-value
Vision and strategy	.057
Leadership	.005*
Transformation / change	.000*
HR practices	.000*
Performance appraisal	.381
Gender equity	.021*
Individual satisfaction	.017*
Valuing diversity	.000*
Conflict management	.034*
Interpersonal dimension	.249

*p < 0.05

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Interpretation of specific dimensions (only the dimensions with significant differences as per Table 6.15, are discussed):

- Leadership

This dimension measured employees' evaluation of their direct supervisor or manager and focussed specifically on support and trust relationships. Africans were significantly less positive about leadership than Whites or Indians and Coloureds. Whites', Indians' and Coloureds' perceptions were more positive and did not differ significantly.

- Transformation / change

This dimension concentrated on whether the organisation was committed to change and how the change strategy was implemented and communicated. Africans were extremely negative about the manner in which transformation and change were being implemented in the organisation. They were significantly less positive about transformation/change than Whites or Indians and Coloureds. Whites' and Indians' and Coloureds' perceptions were more optimistic and did not differ significantly.

- HR practices

This dimension focussed on the transparency and fairness of various employment equity practices including recruitment, selection, development, promotions and remuneration. Africans were the most negative about implementation and application of HR practices. They were significantly less positive about the fairness of HR practices than were Whites or Indians and Coloureds. Whites were the most positive about HR practices but not significantly more so than Indians and Coloureds.

- Gender equity

This dimension focussed on the fair and equal treatment of males and females and whether unfair discrimination based on gender was perceived in the organisation. Africans were significantly less positive than Whites about equal treatment and opportunities for men and women but not significantly less positive than Indians and Coloureds. Indians' and Coloureds' perceptions were the most positive although these did not differ significantly from perceptions of Whites.

- Individual satisfaction

This dimension concerned employees' overall satisfaction with the work environment and whether they felt that their skills and knowledge were being used effectively. It also indicated whether employees felt a sense of belonging and whether they trusted and respected each other. In this study, Africans were significantly less positive about individual satisfaction than Whites but not significantly less so than Indians and Coloureds. Indian and Coloured perceptions were the most positive, but not significantly more positive than those of Whites.

- Valuing diversity

This dimension focussed on whether diversity was valued in the company and viewed as a business benefit and not a liability. It also indicated whether tokenism, racism and victimisation were perceived to occur in the company. In this case, Africans were very negative about valuing diversity. Their perceptions were significantly less positive than those of Whites but not significantly less than those of Indians and Coloureds. Whites were the most positive but not significantly more so than Indians and Coloureds.

- Conflict management

This dimension focussed firstly on whether conflict was dealt with effectively, i.e. resolved, and secondly, whether it was dealt with in a culturally sensitive manner.

Africans were less positive about conflict management than Whites and Indians and Coloureds. Indians and Coloureds were the most positive but not significantly more so than Africans or Whites.

6.4.4. Comparison between age groups on EE dimensions

In order to compare the differences between the age categories the respective mean scores on each of the EE dimensions were calculated. These are presented in Table 6.16.

Overall, all age groups seemed to be positive towards all the dimensions of EE, specifically so towards the vision and strategy (3.87), leadership (3.80) and the interpersonal dimension (3.78). All age groups were least positive about human resources practices (3.27) and performance appraisal (3.34). Specifically, the age group 35 to 44 years was particularly negative towards human resources practices (3.17) and performance appraisal (3.15). The age group 45 to 65 years reflected the most positive attitudes on all dimensions.

Table 6.16   Means of age groups on EE dimensions

Dimension	Age group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vision and strategy	**<25**	52	3.99	.601
	25-34	81	3.87	.656
	35-44	61	3.80	.761
	45-65	44	3.82	.775
	Total	238	3.87	.696
Leadership	**<25**	52	3.84	.852
	25-34	81	3.84	.780
	35-44	61	3.71	1.013
	45-65	44	3.79	.995
	Total	238	3.80	.897
Transformation / change	**<25**	52	3.59	.590
	25-34	81	3.41	.628
	35-44	61	3.38	.759
	45-65	44	3.62	.722
	Total	238	3.48	.677
HR practices	**<25**	52	3.31	.749
	25-34	81	3.23	.897
	35-44	61	3.17	1.029

	45-65	44	3.43	.803
	Total	238	3.27	.886
Performance appraisal	**<25**	52	3.47	.863
	25-34	81	3.33	.888
	35-44	61	3.15	1.087
	45-65	44	3.47	.941
	Total	238	3.34	.950
Gender equity	**<25**	52	3.63	.722
	25-34	80	3.63	.809
	35-44	61	3.40	.936
	45-65	44	3.43	.717
	Total	237	3.54	.813
Individual satisfaction	**<25**	52	3.51	.680
	25-34	81	3.45	.773
	35-44	61	3.39	1.013
	45-65	44	3.68	.939
	Total	238	3.49	.855
Valuing diversity	**<25**	52	3.44	.630
	25-34	81	3.37	.664
	35-44	61	3.31	.745
	45-65	44	3.56	.565
	Total	238	3.40	.663
Conflict management	**<25**	51	3.67	.796
	25-34	81	3.67	.786
	35-44	60	3.60	.659
	45-65	44	3.77	.805
	Total	236	3.67	.759
Interpersonal dimension	**<25**	52	3.78	.440
	25-34	81	3.74	.430
	35-44	60	3.80	.488
	45-65	44	3.82	.418
	Total	237	3.78	.444

6.4.4.1.   One-way ANOVA for age group

To determine whether there were statistically significant differences between the respective age groups, a one-way ANOVA was performed. These results are presented in Table 6.17 below.

The results revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in perceptions based on age group. Thus, employees of all ages had more or less the same perceptions whether positive or negative. This finding is supported by the

SIOP Committee results (1995). However, other studies have shown significant differences based on respondents' age (Coetzee, 2005; Duweke, 2004; Walbrugh & Roodt, 2003). In this study, the fact that there were no significant differences based on age might be explained by the fact that most respondents (34%) were aged between 25 and 34 years (see Figure 6.3) and so held similar views because they belonged to the same generation.

Table 6.17   Results of one-way ANOVA for age groups

Dimension	P-value
Vision and strategy	.488
Leadership	.834
Transformation / change	.137
HR practices	.502
Performance appraisal	.236
Gender equity	.244
Individual satisfaction	.375
Valuing diversity	.247
Conflict management	.727
Interpersonal dimension	.782

6.4.5. Comparison between job levels on EE dimensions

The respective mean scores on each of the EE dimensions were calculated to compare the differences between the respondents' job level categories. These are presented in Table 6.18.

Overall, all job levels were positive about the EE dimensions, specifically the vision and strategy (3.86), leadership (3.79) and the interpersonal dimension (3.79). All job levels were most negative about the fairness of human resource practices (3.26) and performance appraisal (3.33). The non-managerial level was most negative about all aspects, especially human resource practices (mean 3.14). The middle and senior management level was most positive on all dimensions.

Table 6.18   Means of job level categories on EE dimensions

Dimension	Job level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Vision and strategy	Non-management	147	3.86	.698
	First level management	51	3.83	.728
	Middle and senior management	35	3.93	.692
	Total	233	3.86	.701
Leadership	Non-management	147	3.68	.851
	First level management	51	3.88	.976
	Middle and senior management	35	4.11	.933
	Total	233	3.79	.902
Transformation / change	Non-management	147	3.42	.668
	First level management	51	3.48	.731
	Middle and senior management	35	3.70	.616
	Total	233	3.47	.679
HR practices	Non-management	147	3.14	.861
	First level management	51	3.34	.946
	Middle and senior management	35	3.65	.800
	Total	233	3.26	.887
Performance appraisal	Non-management	147	3.22	.876
	First level management	51	3.47	1.033
	Middle and senior management	35	3.60	1.096
	Total	233	3.33	.955
Gender equity	Non-management	146	3.50	.821
	First level management	51	3.54	.817
	Middle and senior management	35	3.71	.798
	Total	232	3.54	.816
Individual satisfaction	Non-management	147	3.27	.823
	First level management	51	3.74	.794
	Middle and senior management	35	4.03	.781
	Total	233	3.49	.861
Valuing diversity	Non-management	147	3.39	.658
	First level management	51	3.36	.700
	Middle and senior management	35	3.53	.679
	Total	233	3.40	.670
Conflict management	Non-management	145	3.57	.779
	First level management	51	3.75	.676
	Middle and senior management	35	3.96	.729
	Total	231	3.67	.761
Interpersonal dimension	Non-management	146	3.73	.440
	First level management	51	3.88	.425
	Middle and senior management	35	3.87	.474
	Total	232	3.79	.446

6.4.5.1.   One-way ANOVA for job levels

In order to establish whether there were significant differences between the respective job levels, a one-way ANOVA was performed. The results are presented in Table 6.19 below.

- Interpretation of one-way ANOVA for job level

The results revealed that there were significant differences between the perceptions of managers and non-managers. The ANOVA results were interpreted together with the means per dimension per job level presented in Table 6.18 above and in conjunction with the post hoc Scheffé test in Appendix A.

Managers were generally more positive about and satisfied with EE practices than employees on staff level. This is consistent with other studies (Coetzee, 2005; SIOP Committee 1995) that support the notion that employees whose jobs involve the implementation of EE practices are more positive about these practices.

Table 6.19   Results of one-way ANOVA for job level

Dimension	P-value
Vision and strategy	.821
Leadership	.027*
Transformation / change	.082
HR practices	.007*
Performance appraisal	.052
Gender equity	.395
Individual satisfaction	.000*
Valuing diversity	.456
Conflict management	.017*
Interpersonal dimension	.063

*$p < 0.05$

Interpretations of specific dimensions (only the dimensions with significant differences as per Table 6.19, are discussed):

- Leadership

This dimension measured employees' evaluation of their direct supervisor or manager and focussed specifically on support and trust relationships. Staff at non-management level were the least positive about leadership. This level was significantly more negative than the middle and senior management level although not significantly more so than first level management. First level management was less positive about leadership than middle and senior management but not significantly so.

- HR practices

This dimension reflected the transparency and fairness of various employment equity practices including recruitment, selection, development, promotions and remuneration. Staff members at non-managerial level were least positive about the fairness of HR practices. The non-management level was significantly more negative than the middle and senior management level, although not significantly more so than first level management. First level management was less positive than middle and senior management but not significantly so.

- Individual satisfaction

This dimension focussed on employees' overall satisfaction with the work environment and whether they felt that their skills and knowledge were effectively utilised. It also indicated whether employees felt a sense of belonging and whether they trusted and respected each other. Staff at the non-management level was least positive about individual satisfaction and significantly less positive than both the first and middle and senior management level. The middle and senior management level was most positive but not significantly more than first level management.

- Conflict management

This dimension reflected firstly whether conflict was dealt with effectively, that is resolved, and secondly whether conflict was dealt with in a culturally sensitive manner. Staff members at non-management level were least positive about conflict management and significantly less positive than the middle and senior management level although not significantly less so than first level management. The middle and senior management level was the most positive but not significantly more than first level management.

6.5. EFFECTS OF MULTIPLE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES ON EE DIMENSIONS

The one-way ANOVAs revealed significant differences in perceptions between race groups and job levels. It was thus decided to perform factorial ANOVAs to determine the interaction effect of these variables.

6.5.1. Effect of race and gender

A factorial ANOVA was performed to determine the interaction effect of race and gender. These results are presented in Appendix B. The results revealed that race and gender did not have a significant interaction effect. The most likely interpretation of this result is that males and females in each race group had more or less similar perceptions. This interpretation is supported by the fact that the t-test (see Table 6.13) between males and females did not reveal significant differences in perceptions of males and females. Thus, in this sample, race affected perceptions irrespective of gender.

6.5.2. Effect of race and age

In order to determine the interaction effect of race and age, a factorial ANOVA was performed. These results are presented in Appendix B. The results revealed that race and age did not have a significant interaction effect. This result could indicate that employees in each race group, regardless of their age, have more or less the

same perceptions. This interpretation is supported by the fact that the one-way ANOVA between age groups (see Table 6.17) did not reveal significant differences in perceptions based on age. Thus, in this sample, race affected perceptions irrespective of age group.

6.5.3. Effect of race and job level

A factorial ANOVA was performed to establish the interaction effect of race and job level. These results are presented in Appendix B. Race and job level did not have a significant interaction effect: the most likely interpretation of this result is that employees in each race group, regardless of their job level, share similar perceptions. Although the one-way ANOVA between job levels (See Table 6.19) and between race groups (See Table 6.15) revealed significant differences in perceptions based on these variables it seems that in this study race and job level affected perceptions separately but not simultaneously.

6.5.4. Effect of job level and age

A factorial ANOVA was performed to determine the interaction effect of job level and age. The results are presented in Appendix B. These results revealed that job level and age had no significant interaction effect. Although the one-way ANOVA between job levels (see Table 6.19) revealed significant differences in perceptions, the one-way ANOVA between age groups (see Table 6.17) revealed no significant differences based on age.

6.5.5. Effect of job level and gender

A factorial ANOVA was performed to determine the interaction effect of job level and gender. The results are presented in Appendix B. These results revealed no significant interaction effect between job level and gender. Although the one-way ANOVA between job levels (see Table 6.19) revealed significant differences in perceptions, the t-test between males and females (see Table 6.13) revealed no significant differences based on gender.

6.6. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

A summary of the results is provided firstly in terms of the organisation's overall profile on the EE dimensions. Secondly, the results are summarised according to the effect of the independent variables, namely gender, race, age, and job level.

6.6.1. Employment Equity dimensions

The EE dimensions most positively reported on are:

- Vision and strategy
- Leadership
- Interpersonal dimension.

The EE dimensions that were reported on most negatively are:

- Human resources practices
- Performance appraisal
- Valuing diversity.

6.6.2. Gender

Both men and women were mostly positive towards the EE dimensions. The exception was vision and strategy where women were more positive than men. No other significant differences between the responses of males and females were found.

6.6.3. Race

In general, the race groups were positive about the EE dimensions. However, significant differences in perceptions were found between certain race groups.

- Indians and Coloureds combined were most positive about all dimensions.

- Africans were most negative on all dimensions.
- All race groups were especially positive about the vision and strategy, leadership and interpersonal dimension.
- All race groups were most negative about HR practices and performance appraisal.
- Africans were significantly less positive than Indians, Coloureds and Whites about leadership, transformation/change and HR practices.
- Africans were significantly less positive than Whites, but not than Indians and Coloureds, about gender equity, individual satisfaction, valuing diversity and conflict management.

6.6.4. Age

All age groups were generally positive towards the EE dimensions. Employees between the ages of 45 and 65 years were most positive about all dimensions. However, no significant differences in perceptions due to age were found.

6.6.5. Job level

In general, most job levels were positive about the EE dimensions. However, significant differences in perceptions between certain job levels were found:
- Managers were generally more positive than non-managers.
- The middle and senior management level was the most positive about all dimensions.
- All job levels were especially positive about the vision and strategy, leadership and interpersonal dimension.
- All job levels were the most negative about the fairness of HR practices and performance appraisal. The non-managerial level was especially negative about HR practices.
- The non-management level was significantly less positive towards leadership, HR practices and conflict management than middle and senior management, but not first level management.

- The non-managerial level was significantly less positive towards individual satisfaction than the first as well as middle and senior management levels.

6.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results of the empirical study were presented in Chapter 6. The demographic composition of the sample, relationships between demographic variables and the representativeness of the sample were described. The overall profile of the organisation in terms of the ten EE dimensions measured indicated that employees were generally satisfied with the EE practices in the organisation.

The results of comparisons between and the interaction effects of the independent variables on the EE dimensions were presented. No significant differences for gender and age were found; however, significant differences for race and job level (manager versus non-manager) were revealed. No significant interaction effects between the independent variables were found.

A summary of the results identified dimensions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction among specific groups. Africans and employees at non-managerial level were the groups that were most dissatisfied. Indians and Coloureds combined and middle and senior management were most positive towards EE practices in this organisation. In terms of the dimensions, employees were most positive about the vision and strategy, leadership and the interpersonal dimension. Employees reported most dissatisfaction about HR practices, performance appraisal, and valuing diversity.

In Chapter 7 the conclusions of the study will be explained. The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 7 sets out the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of this study. Conclusions are formulated firstly in terms of the specific aims of the literature review and secondly in terms of the empirical study. The limitations of the literature review and empirical study and suggestions for further research are discussed. Recommendations, based on the integration of the results of the literature review and the empirical study, are made.

7.1. CONCLUSIONS: LITERATURE REVIEW

7.1.1. Achievement of specific aims

Chapter 2 provided a broad overview of the background to and rationale for the implementation of employment equity (EE) legislation in South Africa. The Employment Equity Act no 55 of 1998 (EEA no 55 of 1998) was discussed, as it is the key piece of legislation on this subject. The purpose of the act as well as the practical implementation of the requirements of the act was discussed. Other significant legislation working in combination with the EE Act to effect economic and political reforms was briefly mentioned. The key concepts such as employment equity, affirmative action, discrimination, fairness and diversity were discussed in detail, as these terms are crucial to an understanding of EE practices and legislation.

In Chapter 3, the barriers to and critical success factors in the effective implementation of EE and AA programmes in organisations were discussed. The main obstacles to the effective implementation of EE are perceptions of reverse discrimination, negative stereotypes, unrealistic expectations, lack of communication, management resistance and skills shortages. The main criteria for effectiveness and critical success factors are training and development, communication, management commitment, fair employment practices, an inclusive organisational culture, diversity management and justification of the programme.

In Chapter 4, the theory of organisational justice that underpins employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational procedures and practices, and its effects on key organisational outcomes, were explained. In addition, the factors that influence perceptions of the fairness of employment equity and affirmative action practices were discussed. Justice in organisational settings focuses on the fairness of outcome distribution and allocation as well as the fairness of the procedures used to determine those outcome distributions and allocations. Perceived injustice could have a negative impact on key organisational outcomes such as organisational commitment and performance. The factors that affect employees' perceptions of the fairness of EE practices are organisational influences such as the type of programme, group influences such as the respondent's role and demographic variables, and individual influences such as self-efficacy, opinion variables and personal experiences of an EE programme.

With the above, all the specific aims as set in terms of the literature review were achieved.

7.1.2. Overall conclusions

The most obvious conclusions drawn from the literature review phase of the study are as follows:

- There are many laws that govern and prescribe the outcomes and procedures involved in the implementation of employment equity in the South African workplace and new codes of good practice and amendments are released regularly;
- Training and development must focus on two aspects, namely valuing diversity and the development of diversity management as a competency;
- Diversity management must be viewed in a broader sense and as a business benefit;
- Perceptions of fairness play a central role in the success of EE programmes;
- In ensuring the success of EE programmes, justification of the programme and compliance with organisational justice requirements are as important as complying with legislative requirements.

7.2. CONCLUSIONS: EMPIRICAL STUDY

7.2.1. Achievement of specific aims

The results of the empirical study were presented in Chapter 6. In terms of achieving the specific aims of the empirical study the following results were obtained:

- The overall profile of employee responses to employment equity practices in the organisation;
- Differences in responses to employment equity between groups along the categories of gender, race, age and job level;
- An indication of specific groups and/or areas of concern where organisational procedures or group behaviour could be improved to enhance perceptions of the fairness of employment equity practices in the organisation.

To conclude the achievement of the specific aims of the empirical study, conclusions, limitations and recommendations will now be presented. Conclusions were formulated, firstly in terms of the overall profile of the organisation regarding the employment equity dimensions measured in the study, and secondly in terms of the differences between groups. Links to the related forms of organisational justice are made where appropriate.

7.2.2. Conclusions based on the overall employment equity profile of the organisation

- At first glance, employees seem to have positive perceptions of employment equity practices in the organisation as the overall mean scores per dimension are all higher than 3.2 (Odendaal & Roodt, 1998). It is only when one analyses the results at group level that negative perceptions become evident.
- Employees agree with the vision of the company.

- There is a perception that HR practices are applied unfairly in terms of selection procedures, development opportunities, remuneration, promotions and the criteria for promotions. This relates to the violation of procedural justice.

- There is dissatisfaction regarding the lack of performance appraisal and feedback. This relates to the violation of procedural and interactional justice.

- There is dissatisfaction regarding the lack of recognition and reward for performance. This relates to the violation of distributive justice.

7.2.3. Conclusions based on differences between groups

7.2.3.1. Gender

- Both genders are mostly positive about the EE practices in the organisation.

- Females are generally more positive than males, especially regarding the vision and strategy; however, other perceptions do not differ significantly between males and females.

- Neither males nor females perceive unfairness with regard to treatment or opportunities for advancement based on gender.

7.2.3.2. Race

- The perceptions of employees differ significantly between the race groups.

- There is a perceived a lack of trust in the leadership of the company that relates to procedural and interactional justice violations.

- There is a perception that management and staff view diversity as a liability.

- There is a perception that EE appointments are based on tokenism and not competence.

- There is a general lack of trust amongst employees of different races. This relates to procedural and interactional justice violations.

- Africans in particular feel that conflict is firstly not managed effectively and secondly not managed in a culturally sensitive manner. This relates to interactional justice violations.

- Perceptions that there is unfair discrimination and treatment based on race still prevail. This relates to distributive and interactional justice violations.

7.2.3.3.   Age

- Perceptions do not differ significantly between employees of different ages.
- Employees do not perceive unfairness or unequal treatment based on age.

7.2.3.4.   Job level (non-manager versus manager)

- Perceptions differ significantly between employees on different job levels.
- There is a perceived lack of trust between employees and management. A reason for this might be perceived procedural and interactional justice violations.
- Management does not provide feedback on performance and is not involved in the individual development of employees. This relates to interactional (informational) justice violations.
- Management does not give recognition to or appropriately reward performance. This relates to distributive justice violations.
- There is a perceived lack of trust amongst employees.
- Employees are dissatisfied with the manner in which conflict is dealt with. This relates to interactional (interpersonal) justice violations.
- Employees have the perception that management does not value diversity; rather, it considers it a liability.
- There is a perception that management is not committed to the employment equity strategy or processes of the company.

7.3. LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the study and suggestions for further research are discussed in terms of the literature review and the empirical study.

7.3.1. Limitations: Literature review

- Outdated literature: for example, the studies of factors that affect fairness perceptions of employment equity as discussed in Chapter 4 are older than 10 years.
- Actuality of the topic: this is an ongoing issue in SA with new comments and arguments appearing in the media and press on an almost weekly basis. It is thus difficult to include all the latest trends and comments.
- Studies on the effects of organisational justice in general and on key organisational outcomes specifically, as discussed in Chapter 4, are limited and generally American in origin.

7.3.2. Limitations: Empirical study

- The empirical study was limited to only one organisation in the health services industry. This makes it difficult to generalise the conclusions to other organisations.
- A more detailed exploration of the impact of organisational outcomes, such as organisational commitment, as discussed in the literature, could have been included in the questionnaire.
- The level of education of respondents could have been included in the demographic details section of the questionnaire in order to analyse the possible effect of differences in educational level on perceptions of fairness.

7.3.3. Suggestions for future research

- This was a cross-sectional research design. EE is an actual and ongoing process in any organisation and perceptions might already have changed since this study was conducted. Thus, a longitudinal study would provide information on the change in perceptions over time.
- It is suggested that the case organisation repeat this study to compare changes in perceptions over time, especially after some of the recommended interventions have been implemented.

- It would be interesting to conduct research on the organisational influences on perceptions of fairness, such as the type of EE programme that is currently implemented in the organisation and whether this is appropriate and serving its purpose. For example, is change necessary and how would employees react to its becoming more aggressive? This would be particularly relevant since research regarding organisational influences is limited and/or outdated.

- It would be interesting to examine the individual influences that affect perceptions of fairness, such as self-efficacy, opinion variables and personal experiences. Again, research on individual influences is limited and often outdated.

7.4. RECOMMENDATIONS

Firstly, organisation-specific recommendations were formulated based on the results of the empirical study. Secondly, general recommendations in terms of legal requirements and, thirdly, in terms of fairness requirements were formulated.

7.4.1. Recommendations: Organisation specific

The integrated model for the effective implementation and management of EE, as discussed in Chapter 4, was applied in order to provide recommendations to ensure the effectiveness of the organisation's EE strategy. The organisation designed an EE strategy (Step 1) based on the organisational, legislative and environmental factors that influence it, incorporating legal requirements and best practices. It was first implemented (Step 2) several years ago. This study evaluated the effectiveness of the EE strategy (Step 3) by means of an employee survey using a diversity questionnaire to collect data.

The groups (Step 4) targeted for interventions to improve perceptions of fairness were identified as Africans and all management levels. The combined focus areas that were identified were leadership, HR practices, individual satisfaction, and conflict management. In addition, gender equity and valuing diversity were

identified as focus areas for African employees. One focus area that could be positively exploited is employees' generally positive view of the vision and strategy of the organisation.

Thus, the following recommendations for the implementation of corrective actions (Step 5) are made per focus area:

Leadership

- Train managers to create organisational and individual trust;
- Train management (all levels) in interpersonal skills to ensure that they treat employees with respect and dignity.

HR practices

- Review job requirements to ensure that these do not unfairly exclude any group of employees from promotion;
- Review the requirements and procedures for internal promotions;
- Review remuneration structures and consider linking them to performance;
- Encourage employees to monitor the fair application of employment practices and to report deviances. Be prepared to reconsider procedures objectively and to provide explanations when complaints are lodged.

Individual satisfaction

- Train management (at all levels) in providing effective performance feedback to staff;
- Identify employees with potential for accelerated development programmes such as mentorship;
- Increase trust within teams through group process facilitation and team-building activities;
- Increase inter-team trust by emphasising the teams' respective and interrelated contributions to the business objectives.

ORGANISATION
Vision, mission, objectives

LEGISLATION
EEA (no 55 of 1998)

ENVIRONMENT
Skills shortages
Competition

1. DESIGN THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY STRATEGY

LEGAL REQUIREMENTS	BEST PRACTICES
CONSULTATION EE Committee EE Coordinator	Management Commitment
	Training and Development
ANALYSIS Determine representation Identify gaps Review employment practices	Transparent Communication
	Fair Employment Practices
	Inclusive Organisational Culture
COMPILE EE PLAN Set numerical targets Define AA measures	Diversity Management
REPORTING Submit reports	Justification

2. IMPLEMENT THE EE STRATEGY

3. EVALUATE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE EE STRATEGY

LEGAL REQUIREMENTS	FAIRNESS REQUIREMENTS	
Meet numerical goals and timetables Feedback from EE Committee and Coordinator Monitor employment practices	**Organisational Outcomes** - Withdrawal - Negative behaviour - Performance - Trust - Job satisfaction - OCB	**Organisational processes** - Communication - Leadership - Trust - Employment practices - Teamwork - Decision- making

4. IDENTIFY TARGET GROUPS AND FOCUS AREAS

5. IMPLEMENT APPROPRIATE CORRECTIVE ACTION

| LEGAL REQUIREMENTS	FAIRNESS REQUIREMENTS
Manager accountability Ongoing publicity / communication Special recruitment efforts Special training efforts	Organisational remedies Communication – explain and justify Training of supervisors and managers Participation in decision making

Figure 7.1 An integrated model to implement and manage EE fairly

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Conflict management

- Train managers in conflict management techniques, and specifically in how to resolve conflict in a culturally sensitive manner;

Gender equity

- Explain and justify all appointment decisions related to employment equity targets and specifically in terms of gender goals;
- Train managers to be sensitive to gender issues and to treat all employees fairly.

Valuing diversity

- Train staff and managers to value diversity;
- Train staff and managers to develop diversity as a competency;
- Link diversity management to the key performance indicators of managerial positions to ensure management commitment and accountability to the process;
- Promote diversity as a business strategy to provide competitive advantage.

Vision and strategy

- Build on employees' personal agreement and positive views of the company's vision and strategy;
- Senior managerial staff must emphasise the vision and show their commitment to it by including it regularly as an element in presentations and speeches and by acting in accordance with the vision themselves.

7.4.2. Recommendations: Legal requirements

The objective of the research did not include the evaluation of the organisation's compliance with legal requirements. However, the following general recommendations in terms of this aspect are made:

7.4.2.1.   The consultation requirement

- Encourage employee participation in EE committees;
- Promote the role of the EE committees by providing these committees with the necessary authority and resources;
- Include the discussion of EE aspects as a point on the agenda at all staff and departmental meetings.

7.4.2.2.   The analysis requirement

- Continue the analysis of representation on all levels and in all categories in order to identify gaps in representation;
- Continue the analysis of staff movements and terminations, specifically with regard to EE candidates, and investigate the reasons for these in order to determine corrective actions;
- Continue the analysis of why EE candidates are not appointed in management positions in order to address barriers.

7.4.2.3.   The EE plan requirement

- Review the effectiveness of the type of EE programme currently implemented in the organisation. If numerical goals and time frames are repeatedly not met, more aggressive implementation of affirmative action measures may be necessary. In addition, these measures might have to focus specifically on increasing the representation of Africans;
- Set and review targets on a regular basis;

- Employ the assistance of personnel agencies that specialise in the recruitment of candidates from designated groups as well as employees with disabilities.

7.4.2.4. *The reporting requirement*

- Continue to submit reports annually to the Department of Labour;
- Continue to use the reported information to review and adjust the organisation's EE strategy and practices.

7.4.3. Recommendations: Fairness requirements

Other than communication, leadership and employment practices, organisational outcomes and processes were not explored in detail. However, the following recommendations are suggested in order to improve certain organisational outcomes:

7.4.3.1. *Withdrawal*

Increased absenteeism and high staff turnover are indicative of perceptions of fairness violations (Beugre, 2005; Colquit et al., 2001). The following suggestions are made:

- Analyse staff turnover and employee absenteeism rates;
- Determine whether high resignation and absenteeism rates are particular to certain groups which may correspond to those identified in this study as being especially dissatisfied;
- Consult with specific employees and determine the reasons for high absenteeism;
- Change organisational procedures and implement corrective actions.

7.4.3.2. Negative behaviour

According to Beugre (2005), negative behaviour is indicative of perceived fairness violations. The following suggestions are made:

- Analyse disciplinary records;
- Determine whether the number of cases has increased significantly recently;
- Analyse the type of cases, i.e. theft, fraud, assault, and insubordination, as this may indicate violations of interactional fairness perceptions (Kickul, 2001).

7.4.3.3. Performance

According to Cascio (1998), formal performance appraisals have several benefits for organisations. Performance appraisals provide key inputs for establishing a reward and punishment system, they help establish objectives for training, they can serve as predictors in promotional decisions, and they provide information for organisational diagnosis and development. In addition, concrete performance feedback assists employees in improving their performance. In the light of this, the following recommendations are made:

- Establish clear performance standards and goals for each employee;
- Implement applicable methods to measure performance on a daily, weekly and monthly basis, as required by specific jobs;
- Implement structures and time frames for providing regular performance feedback to individuals;
- Implement applicable measures for the recognition and reward of performance;
- Implement applicable corrective measures for non-performance.

7.4.3.4.   *Trust*

- Management must create trust by communicating relevant, timely and accurate information to employees;
- Management must lead by example and act with integrity to earn the trust of employees.

7.4.3.5.   *Job satisfaction*

In order to increase employees' general satisfaction, the following is suggested:

- Ensure procedures are just and fairly and consistently applied;
- Train managers on how to provide adequate information and justification for decisions and on how to treat employees with respect;
- Develop and communicate a human resources strategy for the retention and retraining of employees in order to utilise their skills optimally.

7.4.3.6.   *Organisational commitment behaviour*

- In order to increase employees' organisational commitment it is important that organisations ensure that procedural fairness is not violated;
- According to Schappe (1996), it is vital that employees be allowed to participate in the decision-making process.

7.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 7 the main conclusions of the literature review as well as the empirical study were discussed in order to show the achievement of the specific aims of the research. Conclusions were presented in terms of the overall employment equity profile of the organisation as well as in terms of the differences between groups. Limitations and suggestions for future research were discussed.

The integrated model for the fair implementation of employment equity was applied to formulate organisation-specific recommendations based on the results of the empirical study. In addition, general recommendations were presented in terms of legal and fairness requirements.

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RACE							
Dimension	(I) Race_rec	(J) Race_rec	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound
Vision and strategy	African	Indian and Coloured	-.32317	.15789	.125	-.7121	.0658
		White	-.21124	.10272	.123	-.4643	.0418
	Indian and Coloured	African	.32317	.15789	.125	-.0658	.7121
		White	.11193	.14439	.741	-.2437	.4676
	White	African	.21124	.10272	.123	-.0418	.4643
		Indian and Coloured	-.11193	.14439	.741	-.4676	.2437
Leadership	African	Indian and Coloured	-.56528(*)	.20169	.021	-1.0621	-.0685
		White	-.37261(*)	.13121	.019	-.6958	-.0494
	Indian and Coloured	African	.56528(*)	.20169	.021	.0685	1.0621
		White	.19267	.18444	.580	-.2617	.6470
	White	African	.37261(*)	.13121	.019	.0494	.6958
		Indian and Coloured	-.19267	.18444	.580	-.6470	.2617
Transformation / change	African	Indian and Coloured	-.37687(*)	.14930	.043	-.7446	-.0091
		White	-.43900(*)	.09713	.000	-.6783	-.1997
	Indian and Coloured	African	.37687(*)	.14930	.043	.0091	.7446
		White	-.06213	.13653	.902	-.3985	.2742
	White	African	.43900(*)	.09713	.000	.1997	.6783
		Indian and Coloured	.06213	.13653	.902	-.2742	.3985
HR practices	African	Indian and Coloured	-.54304(*)	.19334	.021	-1.0193	-.0668
		White	-.62996(*)	.12579	.000	-.9398	-.3201
	Indian and Coloured	African	.54304(*)	.19334	.021	.0668	1.0193
		White	-.08692	.17681	.886	-.5225	.3486
	White	African	.62996(*)	.12579	.000	.3201	.9398
		Indian and Coloured	.08692	.17681	.886	-.3486	.5225
Performance appraisal	African	Indian and Coloured	-.255	.217	.505	-.79	.28
		White	-.170	.141	.487	-.52	.18
	Indian and Coloured	African	.255	.217	.505	-.28	.79
		White	.085	.199	.913	-.41	.57

	White	African	.170	.141	.487	-.18	.52
		Indian and Coloured	-.085	.199	.913	-.57	.41
Gender equity	African	Indian and Coloured	-.4224	.1840	.074	-.876	.031
		White	-.2977(*)	.1201	.048	-.594	-.002
	Indian and Coloured	African	.4224	.1840	.074	-.031	.876
		White	.1247	.1679	.759	-.289	.538
	White	African	.2977(*)	.1201	.048	.002	.594
		Indian and Coloured	-.1247	.1679	.759	-.538	.289
Individual satisfaction	African	Indian and Coloured	-.39790	.19318	.122	-.8738	.0780
		White	-.34321(*)	.12568	.025	-.6528	-.0336
	Indian and Coloured	African	.39790	.19318	.122	-.0780	.8738
		White	.05469	.17666	.953	-.3805	.4899
	White	African	.34321(*)	.12568	.025	.0336	.6528
		Indian and Coloured	-.05469	.17666	.953	-.4899	.3805
Valuing diversity	African	Indian and Coloured	-.270	.147	.189	-.63	.09
		White	-.395(*)	.096	.000	-.63	-.16
	Indian and Coloured	African	.270	.147	.189	-.09	.63
		White	-.126	.135	.646	-.46	.21
	White	African	.395(*)	.096	.000	.16	.63
		Indian and Coloured	.126	.135	.646	-.21	.46
Conflict management	African	Indian and Coloured	-.352	.173	.127	-.78	.07
		White	-.268	.113	.061	-.55	.01
	Indian and Coloured	African	.352	.173	.127	-.07	.78
		White	.084	.158	.867	-.31	.47
	White	African	.268	.113	.061	-.01	.55
		Indian and Coloured	-.084	.158	.867	-.47	.31
Interpersonal dimension	African	Indian and Coloured	-.16301	.10264	.285	-.4159	.0898
		White	-.07927	.06685	.496	-.2439	.0854
	Indian and Coloured	African	.16301	.10264	.285	-.0898	.4159
		White	.08375	.09392	.672	-.1476	.3151
	White	African	.07927	.06685	.496	-.0854	.2439
		Indian and Coloured	-.08375	.09392	.672	-.3151	.1476
JOB LEVEL							

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Dimension	(I) Job_level_rec	(J) Job_level_rec	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Lower Bound
Vision and strategy	**Non-management**	**First level management**	.02181	.11444	.982	-.2602	.3038
		Middle and senior management	-.07166	.13245	.864	-.3980	.2547
	First level management	**Non-management**	-.02181	.11444	.982	-.3038	.2602
		Middle and senior management	-.09346	.15457	.833	-.4743	.2874
	Middle and senior management	**Non-management**	.07166	.13245	.864	-.2547	.3980
		First level management	.09346	.15457	.833	-.2874	.4743
Leadership	**Non-management**	**First level management**	-.20382	.14506	.374	-.5612	.1536
		Middle and senior management	-.43207(*)	.16788	.038	-.8457	-.0185
	First level management	**Non-management**	.20382	.14506	.374	-.1536	.5612
		Middle and senior management	-.22824	.19592	.508	-.7109	.2545
	Middle and senior management	**Non-management**	.43207(*)	.16788	.038	.0185	.8457
		First level management	.22824	.19592	.508	-.2545	.7109
Transformation / change	**Non-management**	**First level management**	-.05978	.10973	.862	-.3301	.2106
		Middle and senior management	-.28547	.12700	.082	-.5984	.0274
	First level management	**Non-management**	.05978	.10973	.862	-.2106	.3301
		Middle and senior management	-.22569	.14821	.316	-.5908	.1395
	Middle and senior management	**Non-management**	.28547	.12700	.082	-.0274	.5984
		First level management	.22569	.14821	.316	-.1395	.5908
HR practices	**Non-management**	**First level management**	-.19724	.14174	.381	-.5465	.1520
		Middle and senior management	-.50888(*)	.16404	.009	-.9130	-.1047
	First level management	**Non-management**	.19724	.14174	.381	-.1520	.5465
		Middle and senior management	-.31164	.19144	.268	-.7833	.1600
	Middle and senior management	**Non-management**	.50888(*)	.16404	.009	.1047	.9130
		First level management	.31164	.19144	.268	-.1600	.7833
Performance appraisal	**Non-management**	**First level management**	-.250	.154	.269	-.63	.13
		Middle and senior management	-.382	.178	.103	-.82	.06
	First level management	**Non-management**	.250	.154	.269	-.13	.63
		Middle and senior management	-.131	.208	.819	-.64	.38
	Middle and	**Non-management**	.382	.178	.103	-.06	.82

	senior management	First level management	.131	.208	.819	-.38	.64
Gender equity	Non-management	First level management	-.0406	.1329	.954	-.368	.287
		Middle and senior management	-.2099	.1538	.395	-.589	.169
	First level management	Non-management	.0406	.1329	.954	-.287	.368
		Middle and senior management	-.1693	.1794	.641	-.611	.273
	Middle and senior management	Non-management	.2099	.1538	.395	-.169	.589
		First level management	.1693	.1794	.641	-.273	.611
Individual satisfaction	Non-management	First level management	-.47701(*)	.13187	.002	-.8019	-.1521
		Middle and senior management	-.76584(*)	.15262	.000	-1.1419	-.3898
	First level management	Non-management	.47701(*)	.13187	.002	.1521	.8019
		Middle and senior management	-.28884	.17812	.271	-.7277	.1500
	Middle and senior management	Non-management	.76584(*)	.15262	.000	.3898	1.1419
		First level management	.28884	.17812	.271	-.1500	.7277
Valuing diversity	Non-management	First level management	.028	.109	.967	-.24	.30
		Middle and senior management	-.144	.126	.523	-.45	.17
	First level management	Non-management	-.028	.109	.967	-.30	.24
		Middle and senior management	-.172	.147	.507	-.53	.19
	Middle and senior management	Non-management	.144	.126	.523	-.17	.45
		First level management	.172	.147	.507	-.19	.53
Conflict management	Non-management	First level management	-.179	.122	.344	-.48	.12
		Middle and senior management	-.389(*)	.141	.024	-.74	-.04
	First level management	Non-management	.179	.122	.344	-.12	.48
		Middle and senior management	-.210	.165	.444	-.62	.20
	Middle and senior management	Non-management	.389(*)	.141	.024	.04	.74
		First level management	.210	.165	.444	-.20	.62
Interpersonal dimension	Non-management	First level management	-.14398	.07202	.138	-.3214	.0335
		Middle and senior management	-.14023	.08333	.245	-.3455	.0651
	First level management	Non-management	.14398	.07202	.138	-.0335	.3214
		Middle and senior management	.00375	.09718	.999	-.2357	.2432
	Middle and senior management	Non-management	.14023	.08333	.245	-.0651	.3455
		First level management	-.00375	.09718	.999	-.2432	.2357

APPENDIX B   FACTORIAL ANOVA RESULTS

Factorial ANOVA for race and gender

Dimension	P-value Gender	P-value Race	Interaction P-value
Vision and strategy	.800	.046	.349
Leadership	.718	.022	.667
Transformation / change	.193	.001	.813
HR practices	.096	.000	.341
Performance appraisal	.306	.573	.644
Gender equity	.263	.010	.713
Individual satisfaction	.319	.040	.623
Valuing diversity	.340	.001	.521
Conflict management	.532	.044	.820
Interpersonal dimension	.598	.177	.469

Factorial ANOVA for race and age group

Dimension	P-value Race	P-value Age	Interaction P-value
Vision and strategy	.315	.912	.923
Leadership	.029	.885	.943
Transformation / change	.000	.701	.209
HR practices	.000	.790	.247
Performance appraisal	.602	.735	.532
Gender equity	.161	.288	.188
Individual satisfaction	.082	.788	.373
Valuing diversity	.004	.590	.277
Conflict management	.043	.377	.545
Interpersonal dimension	.099	.506	.240

Factorial ANOVA for race and job level

Dimension	P-value Race	P-value Job level	Interaction P-value
Vision and strategy	.208	.981	.882
Leadership	.096	.239	.404
Transformation / change	.021	.415	.907
HR practices	.001	.314	.270
Performance appraisal	.653	.221	.551
Gender equity	.319	.940	.929
Individual satisfaction	.351	.007	.289
Valuing diversity	.002	.688	.276

Conflict management	.194	.219	.165
Interpersonal dimension	.454	.178	.578

Factorial ANOVA for job level and age

Dimension	P-value Job level	P-value Age	Interaction P-value
Vision and strategy	.467	.743	.773
Leadership	.003	.239	.924
Transformation / change	.244	.307	.692
HR practices	.142	.345	.638
Performance appraisal	.013	.048	.714
Gender equity	.340	.936	.207
Individual satisfaction	.000	.265	.579
Valuing diversity	.715	.229	.365
Conflict management	.069	.340	.489
Interpersonal dimension	.196	.663	.288

Factorial ANOVA for job level and gender

Dimension	P-value Job level	P-value gender	Interaction P-value
Vision and strategy	.437	.538	.737
Leadership	.018	.150	.425
Transformation / change	.182	.231	.562
HR practices	.030	.954	.687
Performance appraisal	.040	.093	.301
Gender equity	.892	.727	.511
Individual satisfaction	.000	.764	.511
Valuing diversity	.951	.542	.901
Conflict management	.146	.772	.997
Interpersonal dimension	.306	.015	.172