

**AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS  
AS MEASURED BY  
JOB SATISFACTION**

by

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## SUMMARY

Affirmative action represents a major goal for South African organisations since the process of democratisation in 1994. Evaluating the success of affirmative action programmes is therefore considered a priority. The research objective was to investigate the association between affirmative action effectiveness and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries.

A literature survey concerning affirmative action, affirmative action success, and job satisfaction was done.

A structured interview, gauging the congruency of organisations' affirmative action efforts with affirmative action effectiveness theory, and a job satisfaction questionnaire, measuring the job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries, were utilised. The study was conducted among 121 affirmative action beneficiaries employed by five organisations.

- ✕ The result of the empirical study proved that a significant direct relationship exists between the level of effectiveness of the target organisations' affirmative action endeavours and the level of job satisfaction experienced by their affirmative action beneficiaries.

**Key terms:** affirmative action  
success  
measures  
job satisfaction  
beneficiaries

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

This dissertation focuses on the evaluation of the success of the affirmative action interventions implemented by a number of organisations, by means of the measurement of the job satisfaction experienced by the affirmative action beneficiaries in these organisations.

The aim of this chapter is to give an overview of the historical background to affirmative action in general and particularly in South Africa, and to describe the problem formulation, research objectives, research design and research model, paradigm perspective, and research method of this investigation. The arrangement of the ensuing chapters will also be outlined.

#### 1.1 BACKGROUND

The term “affirmative action” originated in the United States of America (USA) some 30 years ago as part of the process aimed at liberating minority groups. The initial objective of affirmative action in organisational context was to democratise the American workplace by furnishing members of previously excluded minority groups the opportunity to enter higher ranks in the corporate environment. The original impetus for affirmative action in the USA was the advancement of African Americans and was later extended to other minority groups such as American Indians, Hispanics and Asians.

The “woman’s liberation movement” resulted in women joining the groups that were considered having been discriminated against, and becoming potential candidates for the process of affirmative action (Beach, 1991, p.177). Disabled people, especially in the aftermath of the Vietnamese War, became a further focus point of affirmative action (Beach, 1991, p.178).

The first effort to ban discrimination in employment practices in the USA was launched by President Franklin D. Roosevelt as far back as 1941 with the establishment of a Fair Employment Practices Committee. Since 1963, the American Congress has legislated a number

of laws, *inter alia* aimed at prohibiting employment discrimination. These laws include the Equal Pay Act of 1963, the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Vietnam Veterans Readjustment Assistance Act of 1974 and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (Beach, 1991, p.181; Kravitz et al, 1996, p.3).

The above-mentioned legislation resulted in the so-called quota system being enforced on organisations. The quota system requires organisations to include members of groups targeted for affirmative action as a certain percentage of their workforce.

The success of affirmative action initiatives in the USA has been debated extensively. Although it seems to have resulted in a greater demand for and subsequent employment of minorities (Leonard, 1986, p.360), it is generally judged that, given the time, effort and money put into it, affirmative action success has been limited (Human, 1992b, p.14). Even though affirmative action has contributed to an increase in equality on the part of minorities in the USA, the overall discrimination gap is still prevailing (Ford, 1996; Turgeon, 1989; Weatherspoon, 1985).

The implementation of affirmative action in the USA has, however, not progressed without considerable resistance. While employers are pressed through litigation to implement affirmative action, the justice of affirmative action as a practice is being challenged in the courts (Warner, 1996a, p.1038). Thompson (1992, p.56) notes the “zigzag course” of American case law as a confirmation of this. In a recent historic turn of events, the American Supreme Court (on 3 November 1997) upheld the California Regional Court’s Proposition 209, a one-year-old plebiscite to the effect that to “discriminate against or grant preferential treatment to any individual or group on the basis of race, sex, color, ethnicity or national origin,” is unconstitutional (Johnson, 1997, p.48). This comes after many years of objection by the white majority to so-called reverse discrimination.

South Africa was first affected in 1978 by the American affirmative action developments embodied in the Sullivan Code of Conduct. Apartheid was the main cause for the Reverend Leon H. Sullivan of the Zion Baptist Church in Philadelphia, USA to develop the Sullivan Principles. The Sullivan signatories programme was aimed at bringing an end to inequalities in

South Africa (Weedon, 1986, p.56). Weedon (1986, p.57) quotes the Sullivan Principles, as originally formulated:

- Non-segregation of the races in all eating, comfort and work facilities.
- Equal and fair employment practices for all employes [*sic*].
- Equal pay for all employes [*sic*] doing equal or comparable work for the same period of time.
- Initiation and development of training programs that will prepare, in substantive numbers, Blacks and other non-whites for supervisory, administrative, clerical and technical jobs.
- Increasing the number of Blacks and other non-whites in management and supervisory positions.
- Improving the quality of employes' [*sic*] lives outside the work environment in such areas as housing, transportation, schooling recreation and health facilities.

These principles specified six dimensions of desirable behaviour on which signatory companies in South Africa were rated. The Sullivan Principles' primary aim was to contribute towards bringing an end to apartheid and American businesses with subsidiaries in South Africa were expected to take a moral stance opposing apartheid (Gray & Karp, 1993, p.1). Signatory companies were also expected to improve blacks', Coloureds', and Asians' education, training, advancement, economic opportunities, health care, housing and living conditions, and to report on progress in these respects (Gray & Karp, 1993, p.6). These measures did not, however, have the anticipated effect and in 1987 Reverend Sullivan called for the Sullivan Principles to be abandoned, all United States-based companies to withdraw from South Africa and for full corporate and government sanctions to be implemented against South Africa (Brown & Ruffin, 1987, p.17). Immediately following this, large USA companies like Citicorp, IBM and Xerox closed their operations in South Africa (Edmond, 1987, p.22).

✶The South African affirmative action drive only took off when it became part of the process of democratisation, focusing on the liberation of a historically disadvantaged black majority. Since the process of democratisation had been initiated in the Republic of South Africa some years ago, affirmative action was introduced and implemented on an increasing scale in the public and private sectors. The outcome of the first democratic election in 1994 served as a further impetus for the acceleration of affirmative action interventions.

Whereas the reason for the implementation of organisational affirmative action programmes before 1994 were politically and economically based, the motivation for such programmes in the post-1994 era can be justified on six possible grounds (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997, p.33).

The first, and by far the strongest, reason for organisations embarking on affirmative action interventions are the implications of legislation and impending legislation concerning employment equity. In this respect, the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995), and the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998), are pertinent.

The second reason for organisations to implement affirmative action programmes are the surmise that organisations' business with Government and parastatals will be determined by their "track record" concerning employment equity.

A third motivation for organisations to launch affirmative action programmes is the so-called client base rationale, which relates to the composition of the changing external customer profile and the concomitant pressure on organisations to change their internal workforce composition.

The skills shortage in South Africa and the ensuing necessity to draw on and to develop all available talent, represents the fourth reason for organisations to participate in affirmative action projects.

A fifth reason for organisations to implement affirmative action strategies is the increasing pressure they experience from black trade unions and other stakeholders, to partake in the process of reconstruction and development.

The final probable reason for organisations to take part in affirmative action is the moral imperative, constituting an ethical obligation of organisations to take part in the abolishment of the injustices of the apartheid era.

Affirmative action target groups in South Africa initially included the so-called ABC's, namely Asians, blacks and Coloureds, but lately, in the post-1994 era, have shifted to favour blacks,

being the group historically most disadvantaged by apartheid (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997, p.33).

Strategies followed by South African organisations with respect to affirmative action also evolved over time (Coetzee, 1995; Daniel, 1994; Fischer, 1996; Hofmeyr, 1993; Innes 1993a; Madi, 1993; Olivier, 1992; Thomas, 1996).

During the so-called "Sullivan era" organisations aimed their affirmative action efforts on eradicating discrimination based on race. This included the elimination of the typical outcomes of apartheid like unequal pay structures, job reservation, separate facilities and preferential employment. Most organisations, however, applied these measures as a token while their basic philosophy concerning racial segregation remained unchanged.

The next phase was typified by efforts related to the so-called equal employment opportunity approach. This resulted in organisations compiling affirmative action policies and stating their commitment to implement equal employment opportunities, on letter heads, in their mission statements and in recruitment advertisements. Although they were afforded the opportunity to compete on an equal basis, a limited number of blacks were appointed, due to the backlog in their education and experience. The equal employment opportunity approach was eventually branded by black labour unions as a "soft option."

The subsequent stage in the evolvement of affirmative action was prompted by increasing pressure from black labour unions as well as impending legislation on organisations to take part in the process of democratisation and to demonstrate their compliance by means of a more representative composition, at all levels, of their workforce. This resulted in fervent efforts by organisations to comply and rang in the phase of (forced) black advancement. Blacks were appointed and promoted on a preferential basis, in most cases without taking into account their capability to comply with the requirements of the positions they occupy. Black advancement was more than often implemented without the commitment of top management and without the participation of the existing workforce, especially the employees in managerial and supervisory positions, in most cases consisting of white males. Apart from the anticipated negative reaction from whites, in the form of the so-called "white backlash," protesting of "reverse

discrimination,” tokenism and favouritism, organisations embarked on the “poaching” of the few blacks in the possession of qualifications and with some work experience. This in turn resulted in the tendency of “job hopping” by these “fortuitous” blacks. This phase was also characterised by “window-dressing,” in that organisations created special positions with “grand sounding” titles in which blacks were appointed. Blacks were also often appointed in so-called “safe” positions, such as posts in the personnel, marketing and public relations departments, where they (the black employees) could do “minimal damage.” The black advancement approach to affirmative action had an overall negative effect on organisational morale and productivity, and invariably resulted in beneficiaries being ostracised.

The failure of the above-mentioned approach and the notion of reconstruction and development emphasised by the process of democratisation in South Africa, led organisations to the conviction that affirmative action represents more than the mere accommodation of blacks in their midst. This gave way to a new phase in the evolution of affirmative action, relating to the organisation’s social responsibility, that can be described as black upliftment. This entails a strategy by which blacks, who were greatly disadvantaged by the apartheid era, are uplifted by means of various specifically designed programmes, empowering them to have a competitive advantage in the organisational context. These upliftment programmes include literacy training, training in job-related capacities, supervisory training and training in managerial competencies.

Black upliftment also comprises of financial and time-off assistance to black employees to better their qualifications. The reluctance or inability of management to accommodate or promote these uplifted black employees, however, diminished the success of this strategy. Some organisations implemented this strategy as a soft option in the sense that they took the praise for their initiatives but in practice did not allow uplifted black employees to progress up the organisational ladder. This is probably why black unions labelled the upliftment strategy as an extension of paternalism. Organisations in earnest with their efforts, on the other hand, were often disillusioned when black employees uplifted by their initiatives, at considerable expense, were “poached” by other organisations, not making the same effort, by offering such employees ludicrous remuneration packages.

At this time in the evolution of affirmative action, a considerable body of knowledge, accumulated from the American and South African experience, had been accrued. The assumptions concerning effective affirmative action, emanating from this body of knowledge, advocated yet another approach to affirmative action, closely related to the upliftment strategy, which emphasises the development of blacks. This strategy suggested a greater organisational involvement in the process of upliftment, comprising of developmental programmes specifically tailored to the needs of a particular affirmative action beneficiary, enhanced by mentorship and linked to individualised career planning, with accelerated advancement as an integral component. Relatively few organisations have embarked on this strategy and the success thereof is still theoretical.

Presently, yet another strategy is embodied in the contemporary assumption relating to the management of diversity. According to this theoretical concept, affirmative action can only be successful once the organisation concerned, had adopted a total cultural mind set change, which recognises and accepts the diversity of the different groups and individuals in its employ. This approach further emphasises the integration and the harnessing, in a situational manner, of human uniqueness to the benefit of both the organisation and its employees.

Throughout the short history of the implementation of affirmative action in the organisational context, a high premium has been placed on the success thereof. This is among others due to the strong emotional and political undertones associated with the process of affirmative action. The successful execution of affirmative action is considered as proof that discriminatory practices of the past have been corrected and that equality has been restored. It is therefore obvious why governing bodies as well as organisation management are obliged to attempt evaluating the success of affirmative action interventions (Hofmeyr, 1993).

Similar to the history of the implementation of affirmative action in the United States of America, efforts to measure the success of affirmative action endeavours in South Africa mainly originated from Government by means of legislation and from demands made by bodies external or peripheral to organisations, such as parastatals and black labour unions (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997, p.33).

Measures of affirmative action success range from input variables such as the organisation's demonstrated commitment to affirmative action, to throughput variables (among others, the nature of affirmative action strategies and the programmes implemented by organisations) to output variables, including the number of blacks appointed and the number of affirmative action beneficiaries in managerial positions (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997, p.36).

A large number of research efforts, overseas and in South Africa, targeted affirmative action success as a research topic, but to a large extent concentrated on the evaluation of perceptions of an extensive range of respondents concerning the acceptability and fairness of the affirmative action process. Only a few studies involved affirmative action beneficiaries as the target of their research (Kravitz et al, 1996, p.51).

## **1.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION**

Taking into account the political, economic and moral pressure, since the first democratic election in 1994, on South African organisations to implement affirmative action, it seems imperative that almost every organisation will in the near future be compelled to take part in this process. This is underscored by the prohibition of unfair discrimination, the explicit duties of designated employers regarding an equity plan, the enforced monitoring thereof and the legal proceedings in the case of non-compliance, contained in the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998).

South African organisations, however, find themselves in a predicament, as no clear guidelines exist concerning the strategy they should follow in their attempts at implementing affirmative action successfully. Apart from the confusing terminology contained in the literature concerning affirmative action, the actual interventions proposed are vague and often multifaceted. No real lessons can be learned from the course of affirmative action in South Africa, as the majority of efforts consisted of "soft options" or were aimed at "quick fix" solutions (Madi, 1993, p.73)

The existing indices concerning the measurement of the success of affirmative action interventions present an even greater dilemma, in view of the fact that in the past it mainly

centred on output measures such as “head counting,” ignoring the vast effect affirmative action has on the organisation, its processes, productivity, resources, incumbents, and more specifically on the beneficiaries of affirmative action (Innes, 1993a; Nkuhlu, 1993).

Overseas and South African research efforts similarly shed little light on the measuring of the success of affirmative action efforts, as they mainly concentrated on the evaluation of perceptions pertaining to the justification of affirmative action and surprisingly omitted affirmative action beneficiaries as respondents in these research efforts (Kravitz et al, 1996, p.51).

✶Affirmative action beneficiaries are the main target of affirmative action efforts and therefore represent the population who are directly affected by the implementation of affirmative action endeavours. Affirmative action beneficiaries’ experience of affirmative action interventions can therefore be deemed as an indication of its success or failure. Job satisfaction represents a measure of this experience (Kravitz et al, 1996, p.51). The measures of affirmative action success generally applied, however, mainly focus on the superficial outcomes of affirmative action interventions and seldom on the effect it has on its beneficiaries.

In view of the above, the following problem statements can be formulated:

- Affirmative action seems to represent a multifaceted process, comprising of a large variety of approaches and strategies with no clear guidelines regarding the strategy organisations should follow in order to be successful in implementing affirmative action.
- A need exists, on the one hand, regarding the measurement of affirmative action success, as the present absence of effective measures of affirmative action success has a restricting influence on organisations’ ability to identify successful strategies in their endeavours to implement affirmative action. ✶Affirmative action beneficiaries, on the other hand, represent the target of affirmative action interventions and their experience of affirmative action can be viewed as an indication of the success thereof. However, affirmative action beneficiaries had seldom been the target of efforts aiming to determine affirmative action success.

- The implementation of affirmative action by a particular organisation, should have a direct influence on the job satisfaction of its affirmative action beneficiaries and should represent an indication of the success of the affirmative action strategy concerned.\* No research, using the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries as a measure of affirmative action success, could be found.

### 1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This investigation endeavours to contribute to the understanding of the construct of affirmative action, its underlying rationale and strategies, and the measurement of its success with specific reference to its effect, as a final outcome, on the job satisfaction of its beneficiaries.

- ✕ This research has the general objective to examine the relationship between affirmative action success and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries.

The detailed objectives, derived from the main objective, are the following:

For the literature review (phase I of the study):

- To define affirmative action, identify the different approaches and strategies concerning affirmative action, arrange affirmative action strategies in the form of a continuum (indicating the success and shortcomings of each), and to analyse the effects of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes, resources and incumbents;
- to analyse the theoretical background to affirmative action success, identify and categorise the different measures of affirmative action success (distinguishing between direct and indirect measures relating to the input, throughput and output phases of the affirmative action process), and justify the use of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries as a measure of affirmative action success; and
- to define job satisfaction, identify the different theories related to job satisfaction, describe the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests and examine the measurement of job satisfaction.

For the empirical investigation (phase II of the study):

- To determine the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the different target organisations;
- to measure the level of job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation;
- to determine the relationship between the effectiveness of the affirmative action strategy and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries for each target organisation;
- to verify the distribution (representativeness) of the job satisfaction scores of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation; and
- to identify the limitations of the research and to make recommendations concerning the conceptualisation of the constructs of affirmative action and job satisfaction, and future research with respect to the measurement of affirmative action success, utilising affirmative action beneficiaries and the measurement of their job satisfaction.

#### **1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND RESEARCH MODEL**

The method of inquiry used in this research forms part of experiential reality (*ie* discovering reality through personal experience) (Babbie, 1992, p.18). Babbie (1992, p.19) describes two types of native human inquiry, namely causal and probabilistic reasoning. Causal reasoning is based on the assumption that future circumstances are caused by present ones, whereas probabilistic reasoning assumes that effects occur more often when the causes occur than when the causes are absent. Taking into account the design of the current research, the methodology adhered to can be typified as native human inquiry by means of probabilistic reasoning.

Babbie (1992, p.27) identifies three major aspects of the overall scientific enterprise, namely theory (the logical aspect of science), research methods (the observational aspect of science) and statistics (a device to compare what is logically expected with what is actually observed). This will be practically implemented in this research by means of the logic or rationality present in scientific theory, on the one hand, and observation by means of research methods, on the other, and a measuring of the correlation between the two with the help of statistics (*ie* the correlation

between two variables).

Several motivations for scientific research can be found, including testing formal theories, exploring unstructured interests, applied research and involuntary research (Babbie, 1992, p.40). This research project can be classified as applied research (*ie* research fundamentally based on a need for facts and findings that can be applied to solve social problems of immediate concern) and it follows the traditional model of science, namely from theory to operationalisation to observation (Babbie, 1992, p.45; Bailey, 1982, p.21). Three common purposes for scientific research can be identified, namely exploration, description and explanation (Babbie, 1992, pp.90-92; Bailey, 1982, pp.38-39; Dane, 1990, pp.5-9). The design of the current research can be categorised as exploratory and explanatory in nature and can be typified as evaluation research. Babbie (1992, p.346) describes evaluation research as referring to “a research purpose rather than a specific research method. Its special purpose is to evaluate the impact of social interventions.”

With the research theme as a point of departure, it was decided to construct the research as consisting of two phases, namely a literature review and the operationalisation. The research model resulting from the research design is graphically depicted in figure 1.1.

The literature review (phase I) will incorporate three themes, namely a literature review on the concept of affirmative action, a literature review on the measurement of affirmative action success and a literature review on the construct of job satisfaction. Two important frames of reference will be supplied, namely an arrangement, in the form of a continuum, of the different affirmative action strategies, and a categorisation of the direct and indirect measures of affirmative action success, differentiating between input, throughput and output phases.

The hypothesis will be based on the literature reviews concerning affirmative action and job satisfaction and the analysis of the different affirmative action strategies (continuum).

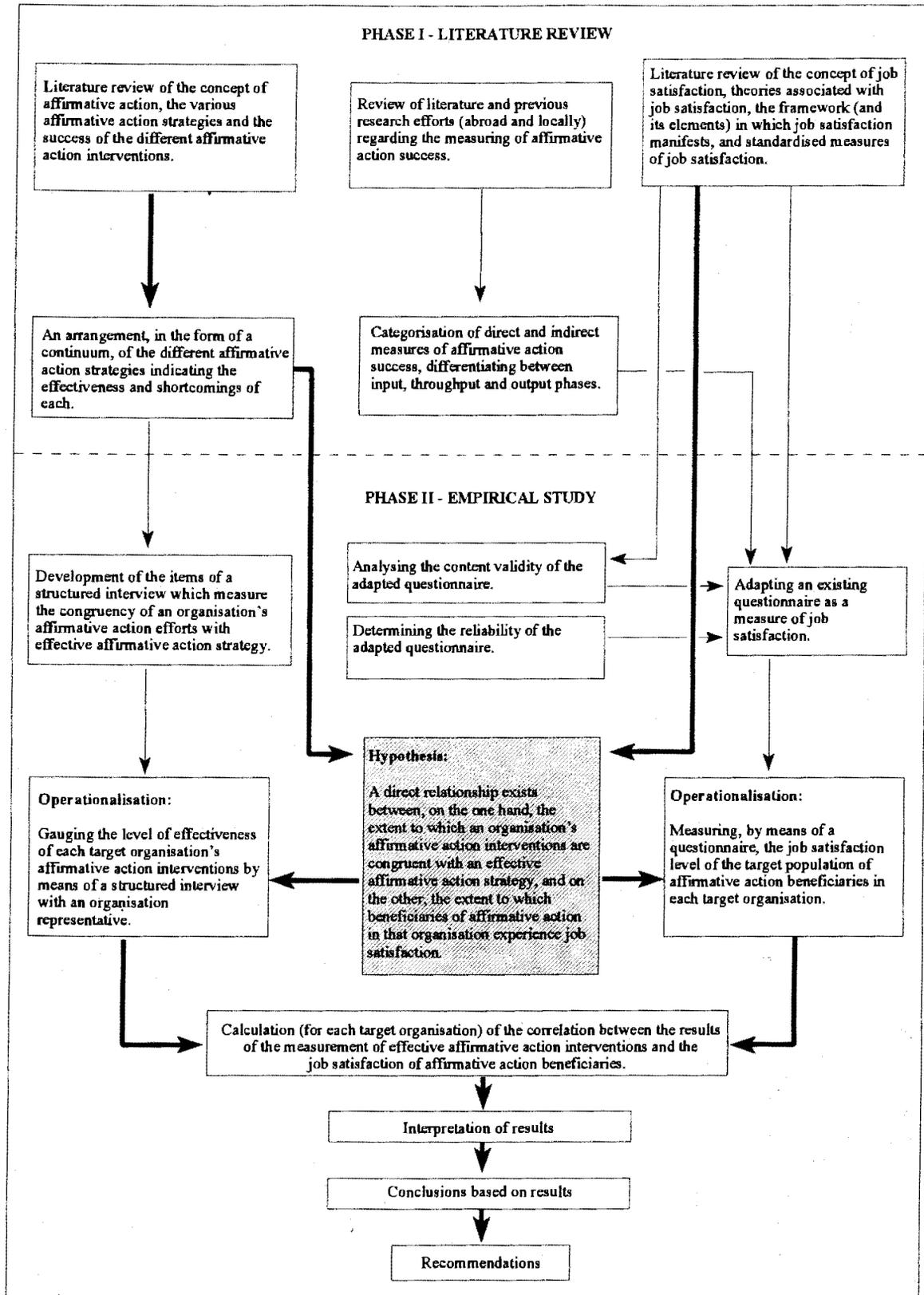


FIGURE 1.1: RESEARCH MODEL

Phase II represents the empirical study in which the relationship between the effectiveness of each target organisation's affirmative action interventions and the job satisfaction level of its affirmative action beneficiaries will be determined.

In an effort to test the validity of the hypothesis, two measurements (by means of a procedure of operationalisation) will be executed, namely gauging the level of effectiveness of each target organisation's affirmative action interventions (dependent variable) and measuring the job satisfaction level of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation (independent variable). Two units of study will therefore be utilised, namely the organisation and the employee.

\*The aforementioned operationalisation requires the identification or obtainment of two measuring instruments, namely a structured interview to gauge the level of effectiveness of affirmative action strategy and a questionnaire to measure the job satisfaction level of affirmative action beneficiaries. The structured interview will be developed by using the frame of reference contained in the affirmative action continuum. The job satisfaction questionnaire will be acquired by adapting an existing questionnaire, after taking into account the outcome of the literature review on job satisfaction as well as the frame of reference regarding the measurement of affirmative action success. The chosen job satisfaction questionnaire's reliability and validity will be verified, respectively by using the test-retest technique (linear regression) and a multivariate factor analysis to establish its reliability, and an analysis of its content validity by linking its contents to the different theories relating to job satisfaction.

\*In order to examine the validity of the hypothesis, the correlation between the outcome of the measurement of affirmative action effectiveness and the level of job satisfaction of affirmative beneficiaries will be computed by means of a rank order correlation statistical technique, and the representativeness of the independent variable (job satisfaction) by means of descriptive statistics. The statistical results will then be interpreted and conclusions and recommendations formulated.

The empirical study is cross-sectional (Babbie, 1992, p.99; Bailey, 1982, p.34) in nature, utilises

composite measures (Babbie, 1992, p.144) of which the items are close-ended, exhaustive (including all possible responses expected) and mutually exclusive (not compelling the respondent to choose more than one answer) and the items are scored by means of a combination of index and adapted Likert scales (Babbie, 1992, pp.148, 175-176; Bailey, 1982, pp.123-125, 133-136; Dane, 1990, pp.272-273).

The research data will be analysed by using descriptive statistics and a nonparametric measure of association (Freund & Walpole, 1987, p.546).

In the procedure of this research, the necessary ethical prerequisites of voluntary participation, no harm to the participants, anonymity, confidentiality and not deceiving subjects (Babbie, 1992, pp.464-468; Dane, 1990, pp.40-46) will be adhered to throughout. The research methodology also conforms to the evaluation criteria posed for evaluation research, according to Babbie (1992, p.491).

## **1.5 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE**

On analysing the current research in terms of its relation to paradigms, links can be found to a number of paradigms, as will be elaborated on in the ensuing discussion.

In the current research, affirmative action is investigated in organisational context, reflecting on its impact on organisational functioning and its effectiveness as measured by its composition. This relates to the functionalist paradigm and the concomitant metaphor of the organisation representing an organism (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1980; Wallace & Wolf, 1986).

The assumptions of the functionalist paradigm can be summarised as follows (Morgan, 1980, p.608):

- Society has a concrete, real existence and a systemic character oriented to produce an ordered and regulated state of affairs;

- it encourages an approach to social theory that focuses upon understanding of human beings in society;
- behaviour is always seen as being contextually bound in a real world of concrete and tangible social relationships;
- the functionalist perspective is primarily regulative and pragmatic in its basic orientation; and
- it is concerned with understanding society in a way that generates useful empirical knowledge.

The assumptions concerning the metaphor of the organism as applied to the organisation can be summarised as follows (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, pp.111-113; Morgan, 1980, p.614):

- The organisation is considered as being an organism;
- the organisation is a system of mutually connected and dependent parts constituted to share a common existence;
- the organisation is typically seen as a combination of elements, differentiated yet integrated, attempting to survive within the context of a wider environment;
- the organisation is an open system and is in close relationship with its environment and its survival is dependent upon an appropriate relationship with the environment being achieved;
- the organisation has needs, which must be satisfied in order to achieve this relationship with the environment;
- the organisation is a living entity in constant flux and change, interacting with its environment in an attempt to satisfy its needs; and
- the organisation's survival is dependent on the satisfying of its members' psychological needs, adopting appropriate managerial styles, technology, modes of differentiation, integration and conflict resolution, and modes of strategic choice and control.

This research, furthermore, has a strong bearing on individual behaviour, and more specifically on the behaviour of employees within the organisational context. Job satisfaction, the independent variable in the empirical study, relates to human reaction in the work environment

and is investigated with the humanistic paradigm (Davies, 1997; Matson, 1973; Valentine, 1982; Wandersman, Poppen & Ricks, 1976) as a frame of reference.

The following are the basic assumptions of the humanistic paradigm (Valentine, 1982, pp.154-162):

- A human being represents a totality that is more than the sum of its parts;
- human characteristics and properties are consequences of existence within a human (interpersonal) context;
- humans are conscious and human consciousness is relative to, but transcends reality;
- human consciousness forms the preconditions for experience and knowledge;
- humans are self-determining agents and make decisions based on active choices;
- humans are not passive but intentional and create their own destiny;
- human intentionality forms the basis for human identity; and
- the goal of human existence is to seek personal growth and self-actualisation in order to obtain authenticity.

Regarding the current research topic, taking into account the research objectives and with the above-mentioned paradigms and metaphor as point of departure, the following assumptions can be formulated (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1980; Valentine, 1982):

- The organisation represents a micro cosmos in which society is re-enacted;
- the organisation, being an integral part of society, is influenced by sociological, cultural, economic, political, legislative, demographic and ethical changes in and demands of its macro environment;
- for the organisation to survive and to reach its objectives, the organisation has to react and adapt to changes in and demands made by its interactive environment;
- organisational adjustment is reflected in the philosophy of its management and is enacted in organisational policy and in the structuring of organisational processes;
- being human, employees perform their organisational functions according to the rules of human nature;

- the job situation represents a major part of the employee's world of existence;
- employees seek to satisfy their need for personal growth within the organisational context;
- employees have expectations concerning the organisation's role in the satisfying of their personal needs as part of a psychological contract;
- employees embark on a variety of social (interpersonal) relationships within their job environment; and
- the behaviour of an organisation's members (employees) represents an important element of its internal environment, which in turn affects the organisation's functioning and its goal achievement.

The notion of affirmative action is therefore seen as a product of society (external to the organisation). The organisation, however, being an open system and in order to survive, has to take note and react to the moral stance, the social demands and the legislation concerning affirmative action, as manifested in its environment. This results in the management of the organisation taking action to adopt new policies concerning affirmative action, and to modify existing policies in order to accommodate the process of affirmative action. These policies are operationalised, on the grounds of conviction or coercion, by means of the implementation of the affirmative action strategy the particular organisation has adopted. The implementation of such strategy, in turn, impacts on organisational processes and structures, and in particular, on the members (employees) of the organisation concerned, resulting in typical human reactions, such as resistance to change, feelings of insecurity, and in the case of affirmative action, more than often, an animosity towards its beneficiaries. The reaction of the organisation's incumbents to the implementation of affirmative action, be it positive or negative, has a direct effect on the interpersonal relations within the organisation, the organisation's functioning and ultimately on its goal achievement. In them being the target of affirmative action, affirmative action beneficiaries are considered a unique grouping of organisation members and the fulfilment of their expectations (concerning the outcome of affirmative action), as reflected in their job satisfaction, a viable measure of the success of affirmative action endeavours.

## 1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

The research will be conducted in two phases, each consisting of different steps:

### **Phase I Literature review**

- Step 1 Defining affirmative action, identifying the different approaches and strategies concerning affirmative action, arranging affirmative action strategies in the form of a continuum, and analysing the effects of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes, resources and incumbents.
- Step 2 Analysing the theoretical background to affirmative action success, identifying and categorising the different measures of affirmative action success, and justifying the use of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries as a measure of affirmative action success.
- Step 3 Defining job satisfaction, identifying the different theories related to job satisfaction, describing the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests, and examining the measurement of job satisfaction.

### **Phase II Empirical study**

- Step 1 Identification and description of the target organisations.
- Step 2 Demarcation and description of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries.
- Step 3 Construction of an instrument (a structured interview) to measure the level of congruency of an organisation's affirmative action interventions with effective affirmative action strategy, as contained in the related theory.
- Step 4 Selection and adaptation of a measure of job satisfaction, to evaluate the level of facet job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries in the different elements of the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests.
- Step 5 Collection of data by conducting the structured interview with target organisation representatives and applying the job satisfaction questionnaire to affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.

- Step 6 Processing of data by means of descriptive statistics and a non-parametric measure of association (rank order correlation).
- Step 7 Formulation of the hypothesis, regarding the relationship between the dependent and independent variable.
- Step 8 Reporting and interpretation of results with respect to the correlation between the effectiveness of the target organisations' affirmative action strategies and the job satisfaction of their affirmative action beneficiaries, as well as the level of representativeness of the job satisfaction scores of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.
- Step 9 Conclusions of the research with regard to the set objectives.
- Step 10 Identification of the limitations of the study with reference to the literature review and the empirical research.
- Step 11 Formulation of recommendations regarding the conceptualisation of the constructs of affirmative action and job satisfaction, future research efforts aimed at the measurement of affirmative action research, and the implementation of affirmative action.

## **1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION**

The ensuing chapters will be presented in the following manner:

- Chapter 2 Affirmative action
- Chapter 3 The measuring of affirmative action success
- Chapter 4 Job satisfaction
- Chapter 5 Empirical study
- Chapter 6 Results
- Chapter 7 Conclusions and recommendations

## **1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter gave an overview of the historical background to affirmative action in general and

particularly in South Africa, and described the problem formulation, research objectives, research design and research model, paradigm perspective, and research method of this investigation. The arrangement of the ensuing chapters was also outlined.

Chapter 2 focuses on affirmative action.

## CHAPTER 2

### AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The aim of this chapter is to define affirmative action, identify the different approaches and strategies concerning affirmative action, arrange affirmative action strategies in the form of a continuum (indicating the success and shortcomings of each), and to analyse the effects of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes, resources and incumbents.

#### 2.1 DEFINING "AFFIRMATIVE ACTION"

A wide range of definitions on affirmative action is at hand in the relevant literature. Almost every author has his or her own view on defining this construct. It seems, however, that the general underlying rationale of affirmative action revolves around the conviction that previously excluded and therefore disadvantaged groups should be incorporated in all the various activities of communal life in a particular country or community, by means of some specific strategy.

McDonald (1994, p.42) presents a general viewpoint with regard to affirmative action by explaining that the underlying principle of affirmative action appears to be "the belief that the black people of South Africa must be given greater access to the resources of the country and a greater voice in how these resources are utilized."

In the United States of America, where affirmative action has had a longer spell of implementation, definitions are more specific. The following definition by Brown and Connerly (1995, p.156) serves as an example:

As a general rule, affirmative action consists of three components: measures aimed at eliminating discrimination in hiring, promotions and terminations; programs to increase the representation of women and minorities in government employment and contracting; and policies for special admissions to institutions of higher learning, which are always the gateways to the nation's best jobs.

Contrary to the popular belief that affirmative action is a temporary measure, definitions

emphasise the fact that, due to the enduring nature of discrimination and racism, the need for affirmative action will always be present (Sowell, 1995, p.61).

Definitions of affirmative action range from preferential treatment of minority or disadvantaged groups to the management of diversity. An analysis of the variety of definitions presented by various authors results in the conclusion that definitions concerning affirmative action can be divided into five categories. Each category accentuates a different aspect of the affirmative action process.

### **2.1.1 Definitions focusing on equality**

This category of definitions places the focus on the equal treatment of all people and emphasises interventions aimed at the creation of so-called "equal opportunity." Thomas (1996, p.6) defines affirmative action in such a manner and describes it as a means of correcting historical injustices and as an attempt to work from there to eventually creating level playing fields where everyone can compete, based upon equal access to education, training and other opportunities formerly confined to the white minority population.

Mkhwanazi (1993, p.17) refers to the South African context and defines affirmative action as a deliberate and sustainable interim strategy to enhance the ability and capacity of all those disadvantaged by apartheid to compete on an equal footing with those who have benefited immensely from that system.

Being a major area where discrimination prevails, the workplace is usually included in definitions advocating equality. Hattingh (1994, p.17) for example states that affirmative action is to "correct imbalances regarding employment ratios in terms of race groups enabling the previously disadvantaged to enjoy equal opportunity within the work place."

Affirmative action definitions focusing on equality in the workplace emphasise the unbiased treatment of all employees when recruiting, selecting, developing or promoting. Equity in managerial positions is often highlighted in definitions promoting the equal opportunity strategy,

as blacks were traditionally excluded from these positions and were forced to occupy only the lower-ranked positions. McDonald (1994, p.45) accentuates this viewpoint by stating that affirmative action involves integrating the majority of the population in South Africa into the management hierarchy of South African businesses through the adoption of compensatory discrimination to ensure equality of employment opportunities and an equitable distribution of these opportunities over all the levels of the management hierarchy.

This group of definitions therefore views affirmative action as a means to create an environment where all members of the community are treated on an equal basis, irrespective of factors such as race, gender, culture or language.

### **2.1.2 Definitions focusing on correcting historical injustices**

Affirmative action definitions in this category advocate preferential treatment, the redistribution of resources and opportunities, and preferential financial assistance by business to institutions of those communities that have traditionally been disadvantaged (Sonn, 1993, p.1). The process of affirmative action is also seen as a means to allow the previously disadvantaged groups to share in the prosperity, opportunities and facilities of the country (De Vries, 1991, p.89; McDonald, 1994, p.43).

Emphasis is placed on past discrimination suffered by people who should now be the beneficiaries of affirmative action interventions. In this respect affirmative action is defined by Innes (1993a, p.4) as “a set of procedures aimed at proactively addressing the disadvantages experienced by sections of the community in the past.”

Discriminatory practices of the past resulted in imbalances between the different cultural groups. Affirmative action is therefore seen as a means to correct these historic imbalances, even if this means practising so-called “reverse discrimination.” In the following definition, Khoza (1993, p.77) has this approach:

Affirmative action is a form of positive discrimination used as a measure to correct imbalances created by generations of oppression. It has been called different names at

different times: whether you call it affirmative action, black advancement, equal opportunity employment, or strategic resourcing (the latest version), the issue remains: the need to redress discriminatory employment practices.

Definitions in this category also emphasise the correcting of imbalances in the workplace. Daniel (1994, p.15) for instance, argues that affirmative action attempts “to place candidates in positions from which they had been previously excluded in order to create a more representative or diverse workforce.” Albertyn (1993, p.24) gives more detail in the following definition, stressing that affirmative action has an influence on all human resource management activities:

Affirmative action entails positive, remedial action taken to redress historical inequality and injustice. In a practical sense this means reevaluating standards, attitudes and practices in respect of recruitment and soliciting; training; screening practices (testing, the “merit” criterion, qualifications and performance evaluation); internal labour markets and tracking systems; promotional practices; and the corporate culture (the affirmative environment) of the workplace.

Some authors are of the opinion that affirmative action should even take the form of “preferential treatment.” According to Andrews (1992, p.35) affirmative action should be seen as “*preferential policies* to ensure the enhanced employment upgrading and retention of members of certain *less fortunate* groups of society.” Fischer (1996, p.32) is more explicit and refers to affirmative action as “preferential treatment which requires employers to discriminate against better-qualified, or equally-qualified, whites.”

Wingrove (1993, p.7) summarises this group of affirmative action definitions by defining affirmative action as a process addressing the disadvantages caused by poor education, prejudice, segregation, job reservation, racism, lack of political rights and unequal distribution of wealth.

Definitions in this category stress the importance of the correction of past injustices by using preferential treatment in the advancement of blacks in order to rectify imbalances created by past discrimination.

### 2.1.3 Definitions stressing the empowerment of the disadvantaged ✓

A third category of affirmative action definitions emphasises the deliberate attempt to “uplift” previously disadvantaged groups to the same level on which their white counterparts are functioning (Sonn, 1993, p.3).

It is inevitable, in a post apartheid era, for affirmative action strategies in South Africa to have strong political connotations. The upliftment of previously disadvantaged groups is seen as a means to correct imbalances created by apartheid and should therefore be an integral part of the affirmative action process. The upliftment process is seen as a way to remove obstacles that prevent previously disadvantaged people to function effectively. These people should be given special treatment in the upliftment process. Meintjies (1993, p.65) explains that “this view stresses the need to remove obstacles to advancement as well as the need for extra support and resources for people traditionally excluded.”

South Africa’s history of apartheid can be seen as one of the main reasons why an upliftment strategy is necessary to rectify this artificial imbalance. This is the argument of many black authors promulgating a “black empowerment” strategy to uplift the disadvantaged (Mosotho, 1993, p.10).

The 1994 elections resulted in political empowerment of blacks, which was only one step in uplifting the disadvantaged. This is why most authors distinguish between black political empowerment and black economic empowerment. Political empowerment has been achieved, but economic empowerment seems to be more difficult to establish (*Affirmative action as a way of turning words into deeds*, 1993, p.5).

The objective of an upliftment strategy aimed at black economic empowerment is therefore to ensure that the black majority is uplifted to form part of the economic mainstream (Ebersohn, 1994, p.57). This can be done by means of the affirmative action process within the human resources of South African organisations. According to Innes (1993a, p.14) this will “create the opportunities which will enable black people to prepare themselves to occupy more skilled and

more powerful positions within the organisation over time.”

This group of definitions thus focuses on the upliftment of the disadvantaged by means of an affirmative action strategy ensuring that black employees are empowered, by means of special (additional) training programmes and by the creation of specific opportunities, to enable them to advance to the same hierarchical and income level their white counterparts have been functioning on for many years.

#### **2.1.4 Definitions concentrating on the development of members of disadvantaged groups**

This category of definitions sees affirmative action as a developmental process. Affirmative action is therefore defined as a strategy aiming to develop disadvantaged individuals in order for them to be empowered to compete on an equal basis. Human (1992a, p.56) argues that a major criticism which could be levelled against many affirmative action programmes is that they do not concentrate on the development of the disadvantaged at all, and that affirmative action programmes should be concerned with the development of formally disadvantaged groups to enable them to compete on an equal basis with white men.

Definitions in this category also stress the need to develop or train affirmative action appointees so that they can function more effectively in the positions they were appointed in. The focus is therefore placed on the development of affirmative action beneficiaries and not on the number of affirmative action appointments during a specific period (*Affirmative action percentages won't work in South Africa*, 1994, p.21).

The developmental approach to affirmative action can be seen as a process where members of previously disadvantaged groups are targeted to be the beneficiaries of accelerated development, resulting in certain basic corporate skills being acquired. The beneficiaries are usually employees or job seekers with a certain potential that can be developed (Hattingh, 1994, p.19).

This group of definitions focuses on the affirmative action process as a tool to develop and train disadvantaged persons with potential, enabling them to function in higher level positions in the

organisation. These definitions differ from those advocating black upliftment in that emphasis is placed on the identification and development of the unique potential of individual members of disadvantaged groups.

### **2.1.5 Definitions emphasising the recognition and management of a diverse workforce**

The last group of affirmative action definitions places the emphasis on the diverse nature and qualities of the population, and focuses on the recognition and management thereof. The management of diversity is seen to be an integral part of affirmative action, since affirmative action in itself creates diversity. Affirmative action results in a diverse workforce being created and a part of the process of affirmative action is to manage this diverse workforce effectively in the long term (Norris, 1996, pp.36-39).

As a result of management of diversity becoming a fashionable way of defining affirmative action in the United States, South African authors are now too starting to define affirmative action in this manner. Affirmative action is seen as a method to recognise differences in and effectively using people, for example, of different genders, ages, physical attributes, colours, values, languages and nationalities, and to manage these differences effectively. Daniel (1994, p.18) explains that “respecting the differences people bring and recognising the added value that those differences represent are what managing and valuing diversity is about.”

Affirmative action is also seen as a strategy that can ensure that the diverse population of the country is represented in the workforce. Organisations should therefore attempt, by means of affirmative action, to create a workforce that reasonably reflects the diversity of its society (Fuhr, 1992, p.30).

The diversity of South Africa’s population was one of the main precipitators of apartheid. The promulgators thereof tried to keep the different cultures apart. With affirmative action resulting in these different cultures being thrown together in the workplace, management of diversity is seen as the only strategy to effectively cope with this diverse workforce. Hugo and Van Vuuren (1996, p.12) quotes Smollen, and Rosen and Lovelace to explain this:

Differences among people, and particularly cultural and racial differences, have played an integral part in the development of South Africa as a nation. These differences have in the past been the basis for discrimination, and this has led to a lack of understanding and little appreciation for the value of diversity (Smollen, 1991). For this reason the management of diversity and the challenges and problems it poses is at present one of the most important issues facing South African managers (Rosen & Lovelace, 1991).

Definitions in this category emphasise the importance of recognising and managing South Africa's diverse workforce effectively. The management of diversity is also seen as a step following affirmative action as affirmative action was the main cause of the workforce becoming more diverse. The management of diversity is therefore seen as a strategy aimed at the recognition of the diversity of different race and culture groups, and then to utilise the added value inherent to these differences in order to obtain a competitive edge.

#### **2.1.6 Conclusion**

The above represents the variety of affirmative action definitions to be found in the literature, usually giving each author's personal view. Wingrove (1993, pp.5-6) attempts to summarise the different viewpoints as to what affirmative action entails by defining it as a process covering various aspects which include the employment, development and promotion of members of disadvantaged groups, the redressing of imbalances, the allocating of resources to the disadvantaged and the restoring of the equilibrium, by practising reverse discrimination. Affirmative action therefore includes various terms and can be described in different ways.

It is concluded that, taking into account the scope of this research, affirmative action can be defined as processes applied by the organisation in order to enhance equity, correct past discrimination, develop and empower members of disadvantaged groups, and to effectively utilise a diverse workforce. In South Africa, affirmative action is mainly aimed at blacks, being the population group historically discriminated against and who has been the most disadvantaged.

## **2.2 ORGANISATIONAL APPROACHES TO AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

On examining the different definitions of affirmative action, it becomes clear that the approaches to affirmative action in organisational context can be divided into five groups, namely affirmative action as a means of empowering previously disadvantaged groups, affirmative action as an equilibrium recovery mechanism, affirmative action as a mechanism to uplift minority groups, affirmative action as a developmental process, and affirmative action as a means of managing diversity.

### **2.2.1 Affirmative action as a means of empowering previously disadvantaged groups**

This approach to affirmative action concentrates on a history of injustice to and discrimination against certain sectors of the population and on affirmative action as a means of correcting this. This approach can be divided into two groups.

#### *2.2.1.1 Affirmative action as a means of rectifying injustices of the past*

Affirmative action was initiated in the United States of America to rectify past injustices caused by racism. Affirmative action interventions went so far as to implement affirmative action on a quota basis where women and minority groups had to be representative in senior positions in corporations and where members of these groups had to be given preference when applying for tertiary studies at educational institutions (Mitchell, 1993, p.28).

Affirmative action programmes in South Africa are primarily aimed at the black majority who historically suffered great injustices due to the apartheid system. Affirmative action is seen as unavoidable and as a means to rectify these injustices. Mkhwanazi (1993, p.14) explains that “if we are to achieve sustainable long-term political stability, peace and prosperity to underpin the new democratic order, the successful implementation of a credible and feasible national reconstruction programme aimed at human development and the enablement of blacks to overcome the consequences of apartheid becomes imperative.”

The history of apartheid in South Africa caused blacks to mostly occupy the lower ranks in companies. Blacks were also given inferior education and had no part or say in the country's resources. According to Mkhwanazi (1993, p.14) the economics of exclusion has found expression in the underdevelopment and under-utilisation of blacks in skilled, technical and managerial fields, both at macro and micro level.

Moraba (1993, p.29) argues for affirmative action as a means to rectify past injustices by stressing the following:

As long as 98% of corporate SA's top management is white; as long as 97% of corporate SA's resources are held by whites; as long as there is no equal access to opportunity in business; as long as there still exists imbalances in the educational systems in SA; as long as race and not talent remain criteria for employee selection, then I see no other exit to this impasse except through programmes such as affirmative action or employment equity or whatever, provided the same objectives are achieved.

Affirmative action can therefore provide a means to rectify these injustices. Even if most white South Africans see it as a reversed discriminatory process, affirmative action seems to be one of the ways to redress past injustices (Innes, 1993a, p.8).

Affirmative action can therefore serve a definite purpose in addressing the injustices of the past by ensuring that the previously disadvantaged groups are included in the correct proportion in managerial positions according to the country's population demographics.

#### *2.2.1.2 Affirmative action as an antipode for discrimination*

The United States of America started the affirmative action drive as a means to stop discriminatory practices. Historic discrimination against blacks in South African has the apartheid system to blame. Affirmative action is seen as a method to end discrimination.

As can be noted from the various definitions of affirmative action, the abolishment of discriminatory practices seems to be a central theme. It is believed that affirmative action will result in employment practices that will end discrimination.

It is noteworthy that, in the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) affirmative action is seen as the only fair discriminatory practice. Organisations can therefore use affirmative action as a means to rectify imbalances in the workforce that resulted from past discrimination. In this respect Innes (1993a, p.5) argues as follows:

In order to achieve this end, coercion may well be used. But such coercion is not necessarily designed to discriminate positively in favour of black people; often it is designed to overcome the discriminatory practices which prevent blacks from achieving equality with whites. Interpreted in this way, affirmative action is not racially discriminatory but, instead, is a strategy designed both to overcome racial discrimination and to promote equality of opportunity.

The organisation approaches to affirmative action with a bearing to the empowering of previously disadvantaged groups, have a strong political undertone and have the aim to rectify past injustices associated with discrimination. It therefore seems that these approaches are the result of external coercion and that organisations embarking on related strategies do so as a result of political pressure.

### **2.2.2 Affirmative action as an equilibrium recovery mechanism**

The main driving force behind most affirmative action programmes in South African organisations is to address imbalances in order to achieve equality. The black majority in South Africa suffered discrimination under the previous apartheid government, which resulted in a disproportionate distribution of the country's resources and top positions in companies being occupied mostly by white males (Mpufane, 1992, p.26). Mpufane (1992, p.26) also emphasises the imbalances in South Africa regarding the sharing of resources, skills and knowledge. He proposes affirmative action in the form of a quota system to provide a means to correct these imbalances.

A quota refers to a certain number or percentage of a population. According to Andrews (1992, p.39) the quota system stipulates that "a specific number or percentage of the members of a protected group must be appointed or promoted regardless of the number of qualified candidates available for the jobs in question."

The quota system is used in American companies to implement the affirmative action process. Some South African companies have also resorted to using this system. The situation in these two countries, however, is quite different. The use and success of the quota system in the United States of America and in South Africa will be discussed below.

#### *2.2.2.1 The quota system in the United States of America (USA)*

In the USA affirmative action policies are implemented in the form of a quota system, which stipulates that four fifths of staffing in industry and commerce must reflect minority groups (Mitchell, 1993, p.28). Mitchell (1993, pp.28-30) describes the quota system as a “numbers game enforced by a policing system supported by industrial courts” and warns that quota methods can prove to be counterproductive, with companies resorting to filling quotas without developing skills.

Another problem experienced in the USA is that group quotas can stigmatise legitimate achievements. It seems that a quota system could result in people being appointed in senior positions without them knowing whether they were appointed on merit or purely as part of a quantitative target. This uncertainty could then result in these affirmative action appointees being demotivated and unproductive (Sowell, 1995, p.61). Women and minorities are seen as “protected species” who will constantly be favoured whenever appointments or promotions are being made. This situation has a negative effect on members of these privileged groups and they are becoming less enthusiastic and competitive because of the knowledge that they will in any case be automatically favoured, should an appointment or a promotional opportunity come about (Daniel, 1994, p.15; Innes, 1993a, p.12).

#### *2.2.2.2 The quota system in South Africa (SA)*

A unique situation exists in South Africa as far as the implementation of a quota system is concerned. In comparison with the USA, affirmative action beneficiaries in South Africa represent a group who is unfavourably positioned compared with the rest of the population. This is due to a backlog in education, training and experience.

It is therefore important for South African companies to take this into account when making use of the quota system. The danger exists that previously disadvantaged groups will be placed in managerial positions without receiving the necessary training and development to address the backlog, and that they will be expected to perform as efficiently and effectively as their white counterparts (Moraba, 1993, p.28).

Human (1993b, p.83) warns against the incorrect way to provide training to these disadvantaged groups:

Filling quotas and then providing training programmes for blacks and white women en masse can do more harm than good. Affirmative action cannot be seen simply in terms of pumping education and training into formerly under-represented groups and then expecting them to function in an organizational context in which issues such as attitudes and expectations have not been addressed.

Affirmative action beneficiaries in South Africa, with their lack of proper training and development, need to be dealt with in a unique way when making use of the quota system. The beneficiaries of affirmative action need to be trained and developed to be able to function effectively in the corporate world. Should they not be sufficiently developed, the danger exists that the quota system will fail because of incompetent people being placed in as many management positions as possible, reinforcing the negative expectations most whites have of affirmative action (Human, 1993b, p.83).

Should an organisation decide to implement the quota system, care should also be taken to implement it in such a manner that the company's goals are incorporated in the quota strategy. Many South African companies fail to see affirmative action as a process that could positively influence the achievement of organisational goals. These companies decide to implement a quota system, either because of fear for impending legislation or because they see a quota system as the only way in which the expected number of blacks can be appointed in managerial positions in the shortest time. Should a company choose to use quotas, the resulting targets should at least be on par with the organisation's strategic plans (Innes, 1993a, p.17).

Madi (1993, p.2) cautions against the incorrect implementation of the quota system in some

South African companies and refers to it as a process of “number crunching” which represents sophisticated models “to decide the number of black managers each department ought to have within a certain time frame, a practice reminiscent of central planning in the former Soviet Union.”

The quota system can however be used fruitfully in South Africa subject to certain conditions. Care should be taken to implement a quota system only if the beneficiaries concerned will be properly trained and developed to enable them to function effectively and efficiently. It may be wiser to use the quota system only in filling unskilled or general administrative posts, rather than managerial or specialised positions that require specific qualifications and knowledge. Care should also be taken that a quota system does not harm those people affirmative action should actually benefit. Hattingh (1994, p.19) explains that it is therefore imperative that the quota system does not turn the very people for which it was developed and implemented, into being victims and casualties. This would happen by turning them into numbers and placing them in situations where they cannot achieve due to unrealistic expectations regarding performance.

Taking into account the impending legislation regarding employment equity in South Africa and the setting of employment targets prescribed by such legislation, it seems eminent that a system comparable to the quota system will eventually be legally enforced on South African organisations. It is therefore important to take note of the experience and the pitfalls regarding the quota system as implemented in the USA.

### **2.2.3 Affirmative action as a mechanism to uplift minority groups**

Affirmative action in the United States of America is specifically aimed at uplifting minority groups, including African Americans, Hispanics, Asians and American Indians. In South Africa, minority groups can be seen as mainly women and the disabled. The group presently benefiting most from affirmative action in South Africa is, however, the majority of the population, namely blacks.

The minority groups being uplifted by affirmative action can be divided into black minority

groups, women and disabled people.

#### 2.2.3.1 *Black minority groups*

A unique problem arising in South Africa is the evolvement of a wealthy black elite who is joining the existing white elite, contrary to the broader goals of affirmative action. Black South Africans who are promoted to positions of power should therefore be cautious not to become part of a new minority group. This problem is emphasised by the negative feelings experienced by lower-ranked blacks regarding affirmative action. They oppose affirmative action favouring only those blacks in possession of the required qualifications and experience, and feel that black economic empowerment merely creates a small group of rich blacks enjoying the same privileges as the rich whites (Ryan, 1996, p.28).

In the United States of America, affirmative action is specifically aimed at minorities. Affirmative action interventions are implemented according to a quota system, stipulating that four fifths of the current labour pool must reflect minority groups. Critics of affirmative action in the USA claim that companies are forced to hire less qualified females and members of minority groups, resulting in an adverse effect on job performance and productivity (McNamee, 1996, p.22). McNamee (1996, p.22) however, found that after gaining some work experience, female and minority workers performed just as well as their white male counterparts.

It therefore seems that affirmative action in the USA, regardless the fact that it is based on an enforced quota system, is successful. Various black Americans verify that affirmative action has been the major driving force enabling them to make a success of their businesses (Edmond, 1995, p.156).

#### 2.2.3.2 *Women*

Women have constantly found themselves in a subordinate position to men because of the traditional belief that women are inferior to their male counterparts. Many feminist groups have, through the years, tried to stifle this belief. Presently, however, positions of authority in the

corporate world are still mostly occupied by men (Dowling, 1992, p.78).

With affirmative action being implemented for a reasonable time in the United States of America, it can be assumed that the position of women would have improved. It seems, however, that organisations in the USA appoint and promote women only because they are obliged to do so by law (Human, 1993b, p.83). It therefore seems as if women are generally only appointed in and promoted to senior positions in the USA as a result of legally enforced affirmative action and are unable to move to senior positions in organisations because of the so-called “glass ceiling” effect (*ie* where a position of power, higher up in the organisational hierarchy, can be seen, but not reached) (Smith, 1995, p.46).

Affirmative action in South Africa is generally assumed to be the advancement of blacks. The danger of this assumption is that women are excluded from the affirmative action process, contrary to the USA scenario where women are seen as one of the beneficiaries of affirmative action. A further important factor to take note of is the distinction between white women and women of colour. It becomes clear from the relevant literature that a distinction should be made between these two groups and that they should be differently accommodated in the process of affirmative action (Fischer, 1995, p.23). It can be concluded that, although black women are automatic beneficiaries of affirmative action, special consideration needs to be given to the fact that, apart from being black, they are women and had historically suffered both race and gender discrimination (Dowling, 1992, p.78).

#### 2.2.3.3 *Physically disabled persons*

The physically disabled are supposed to also benefit from affirmative action initiatives, but are seldom included. The main problem seems to be people’s assumption that affirmative action is reserved for blacks and women (Da Avila-Coelho, 1994, p.21).

The disabled population of South Africa constitutes almost a fifth of the entire population and the majority of disabled people are black. Special consideration should therefore be given to this section of the population in the affirmative action process. Da Avila-Coelho (1994, p.21)

elaborates on this issue and states that “it is important to note that most of our disabled population are indeed black and therefore doubly disadvantaged. Our failure to redress these disparities implies that we condone the displacement of discrimination from race and gender to disability.”

People with disabilities should therefore be included in affirmative action strategies, not because of a paternalistic viewpoint or tokenism, but because disabled people should be developed and utilised to the benefit of both the organisation and the individual concerned. South African organisations should take note of the unique position in which disabled persons find themselves. It should also be considered that while most companies do follow some type of affirmative action programme, provision must be made for the employment of disabled people.

Although affirmative action is, among others, aimed at benefiting minority groups, and in the United States of America especially targets such groups, it seems that the situation in South Africa is different. It is concluded that, due to the politicising of the process, affirmative action mainly focuses on the black majority and that women and minority groups such as the disabled are seldom involved.

#### **2.2.4 Affirmative action as a developmental process**

One of the main criticisms against the quota system is that people are only seen as numbers. The main focus is to acquire the set target with respect to the number of disadvantaged people to be appointed in or promoted to managerial positions. This is usually done without taking the development or training needs of these people into account. One of the most important prerequisites of the affirmative action process is the development and training of affirmative action appointees. The development of the beneficiaries of affirmative action is extremely relevant in the South African context, taking into account the existing backlog regarding the level of education and training of members of disadvantaged groups (Ryan, 1994, p.38).

South African companies, presently competing in a global economy, need to make the most of their human resources. The majority of this resource is black, a fact that makes affirmative

action all the more necessary to ensure that members of this population group are representative in senior positions and developed to their fullest potential (Montsi, 1993, pp.52-53). Affirmative action is seen as a means to achieve this objective by developing and training members of disadvantaged groups. Mkhwanazi (1993, p.14) emphasises that “ unless blacks are enabled to acquire skills and have access to economic assets, the country will not realise its economic potential.”

The appointment of disadvantaged people in senior positions may lead to a drop in productivity because of the lack of knowledge and experience of the persons concerned, but, in the long run, the proper implementation of affirmative action interventions, and in particular strategies focusing on development, will have a positive effect on the productivity and economy of South Africa (Nkuhlu, 1993, p.19).

The developmental approach to affirmative action, therefore, should not only be seen as a politically inspired process to benefit previously disadvantaged groups, but as a strategy that has an important role to play towards increasing South Africa’s productivity levels and revamping the economy.

### **2.2.5 Affirmative action as a means of managing diversity**

The last approach to affirmative action sees it as a means to effectively manage the diverse workforce. Most authors advocating this approach see the management of diversity as a final process in affirmative action interventions. After ensuring that the diversity of the population is reflected in the workforce by means of affirmative action, this diverse workforce has to be managed (De Villiers, 1993, p.21).

The management of diversity aims to obtain the same commitment, productivity levels and profitability from this diverse workforce as was the case when the majority of the senior workforce were white. Management of diversity is therefore seen as a necessity in order to ensure that all employees’ potential is utilised to its fullest and to maximise productivity. This entails that current management practices will have to be modified to accommodate a more

diverse employee population (De Villiers, 1993, p.22).

Managing diversity therefore refers to the optimal utilisation of all cultures in an organisation by ensuring that all employees contribute positively to the productivity levels. Thomas (1996, p.10) explains the management of diversity as follows:

A planned, systematic and comprehensive managerial process for developing an organisational environment in which all employees, with their similarities and differences, can contribute to the strategic and competitive advantage of the organisation, and where no-one is excluded on the basis of factors unrelated to productivity.

The emphasis is therefore placed on the unique contribution each employee can make to strategically benefit the company (Wingrove, 1993, p.8). Daniel (1994, p.14) stresses the prerequisites for the successful management of diversity and sees it as a commitment to the entire workforce by the entire organisation, representing a professional way of life that integrates, empowers and fully utilises all employees.

It can be concluded that the management of diversity represents a dynamic and proactive managerial approach which in a situational manner and on an ongoing basis strives to harness the uniqueness of the workforce in the enhancement of organisational goals.

### **2.2.6 Conclusion**

The different organisational approaches to affirmative action as described in the section above confirm the problem statement contained in Chapter 1, in the sense that the approaches to affirmative action are multifaceted and span a wide spectrum of viewpoints emanating from a variety of motives, among others, moral convictions, politically inspired coercion, equity-driven perspectives, financial and productivity-oriented considerations, and functional utilisation. No clear guidelines, however, exist to assist organisations in choosing an effective affirmative action strategy.

### 2.3 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGIES

The different strategies implemented by South African organisations in the process of affirmative action are influenced by complex and multidimensional factors. These factors are of a dynamic and diverse nature and interact in an intricate manner, forming the backdrop against which the affirmative action “drama” is acted out.

Firstly, the immense political pressure, initially internationally and recently locally, on South Africa and *inter alia* on South African businesses to take part in the process of democratisation of the country, including the workforce, by ending discriminatory practices and by correcting injustices created by segregation and apartheid (Sonn, 1993, pp.3-5).

Secondly, the unique composition and culture of South African organisations, on senior-level consisting of mainly white males, functioning according to norms and practices inherited from a colonial system and the apartheid era, resisting change and seeing affirmative action as counterproductive and resulting in favouritism and reverse discrimination (Nkuhlu, 1993, p.13).

Thirdly, the challenge to the top management of organisations, pressurised to implement affirmative action but at the same time being accountable for the productivity and profitability of the organisation as well as the maintenance of standards and excellence (Human, 1992a, p.54).

Lastly, the dilemma of the subjects or so-called “beneficiaries” of affirmative action, representing the majority of the population, being black and disadvantaged by colonialism and apartheid, and more than often finding themselves in the crossfire between politics on the one side and the white backlash on the other. They are often the “puppets” of affirmative action, frequently ostracised and, in most cases, the party least considered (Venter, 1994, p.35).

The above-mentioned factors, their interaction and accommodation, in most instances determine the success or failure of affirmative action strategies.

A variety of affirmative action strategies have been implemented by South African organisations and are, approximately in historical sequence, addressed in the ensuing discussion.

### **2.3.1 Affirmative action strategies focusing on the “levelling of the playing field”**

Strategies in this category were the first to be implemented and were the result of initiatives like the Sullivan Code of Conduct and international pressure on South Africa to disband segregation and the system of apartheid (Gray & Karp, 1993; Hofmeyr, 1993):

#### *2.3.1.1 The abolishment of segregated facilities in the workplace*

This strategy resulted in communal facilities shared by all employees, regardless of race, and made an end to signs specifying “Whites Only” on rest room doors and cafeteria entrances. The crucial question, however, is whether these strategies resulted in an integrated and racism-free situation? In reality black employees, in fear of repudiation, reverted to continue using the facilities historically assigned to them (Andrew Levy and Associates, n.d., p.7.3; Brown & Ruffin, 1987, p.17).

#### *2.3.1.2 Abolishment of job reservation*

This strategy largely represented “lip service” due to the fact that members of other-than-white groups seldom have the qualifications and experience to be employed in these previously reserved occupations (McGregor & Associates, 1993, p.9).

#### *2.3.1.3 Redefining mission statements*

In the early stages of affirmative action implementation it became a trend to rewrite organisation’s mission statements to include some phrase stating that the organisation concerned does not practise racial discrimination (Andrew Levy and Associates, n.d., p.9.4).

The above-mentioned strategies were soon labelled as “window-dressing” and induced

organisations to adopt a new strategy, coined in the USA as the “equal opportunity” approach to affirmative action.

### **2.3.2 Strategies aiming to create equal opportunities**

Equal opportunity programmes implemented by South African organisations usually aim to remove all visible discriminatory barriers in order to ensure that all individuals are treated equally. The focus is therefore on eliminating past discriminatory practices. McDonald (1994, p.45) explains the equal opportunity strategy as follows:

The term equal opportunity has been interpreted in a variety of ways but perhaps the most appropriate interpretation in the present context is to take the words very literally. This interpretation implies that all applicants for a given position in the organisation from outside or within the organisation are given an equal opportunity to apply for and be selected for the position.

The equal opportunity option initially produced a “safe” option for many South African organisations, since it did not represent a reverse discriminatory process (Asmal, 1992, p.45). All individuals are treated the same whenever a new position needs to be filled or a promotional opportunity arises, but, in the final instance, merit is still the factor deciding who the successful candidate will be (Daniel, 1994, p.15). Individuals are therefore treated equally and merit is the only factor taken into consideration. The best candidate is thus appointed or promoted. This approach resulted in the following strategies being introduced:

#### *2.3.2.1 Redefining job descriptions*

In order to comply with the demands of an equal opportunity strategy, organisations have to rewrite job descriptions to ensure that the description relates to the requirements of the job concerned (Andrew Levy and Associates, n.d., p.12.2; Hofmeyr, 1993, p.44).

#### *2.3.2.2 Advertising of all vacancies*

To enable all prospective employees to participate on an equal footing, all vacancies are

advertised in newspapers and periodicals having a readership representing potential candidates among the disadvantaged groups. Vacancies representing promotional opportunities are also advertised within the organisation (Andrew Levy and Associates, n.d., p.7.3).

#### 2.3.2.3 *Redesigning of application forms*

Application forms are redesigned to exclude all possible reference to aspects associated with discriminatory topics, among others, race, gender, age, number of dependants and marital status (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994, p.153).

#### 2.3.2.4 *Restructuring and training of selection committees*

Persons, representative of disadvantaged groups, are included in selection committees to act as “watch dogs” against discriminatory practices during the selection process. Selection committees are also trained in non-discriminatory selection procedures (Innes, 1993a, p.10).

#### 2.3.2.5 *Setting up anti-discriminatory committees*

Innes (1993a, p.10) describes the functioning of anti-discriminatory committees as follows:

There is only one satisfactory strategy for effectively eliminating informal racial discrimination within a firm: setting up anti-discriminatory committees throughout the organization and ensuring that black and white staff have equal representation on these bodies. These committees should cover the whole range of activities within the firm where race could be a factor, such as job selection, promotion, and behaviour on the shop-floor.

#### 2.3.2.6 *Development of and inclusion in the selection process of “culture-fair” selection techniques and criteria*

These techniques include so-called “culture-fair” psychometric tests and structured interviewing. Care is taken that the criteria used to evaluate candidates are not racially biased and represent the requirements of the job concerned (Andrew Levy and Associates, n.d., p.7.4; Hofmeyr,

1993, p.44).

### 2.3.2.7 *Implementing competency based recruitment, selection and assessment*

As a result of the potential subjectivity of the interview as a selection tool, emphasis is placed on the use of output related selection techniques such as job sample “tests” and job simulation (Hofmeyr, 1993, p.44).

### 2.3.2.8 *Revamping of mission statements*

Mission statements on letter heads and in recruitment advertisements are again modified to point to the fact that the organisation concerned practises equality (Adrew Levy and Associates, n.d., p.9.4, Hofmeyr, 1993, p.38).

As can be concluded from the above-mentioned strategies, a considerable number of positive effects resulted from the implementation of the equal opportunity strategy. Implementing an equal employment opportunity strategy results in a situation where members of disadvantaged groups are in the position to apply for vacancies in the organisation and are treated in an unbiased and non-racial manner, but, due to the fact that appointment and promotion are still made according to merit, a limited number of blacks is in fact appointed or promoted. This is due to black applicants, as a result of past discrimination, not having the necessary qualifications, experience and abilities to be considered. It therefore seems that a strategy of equal opportunities can only be successfully implemented in South African organisations if the educational and training discrepancies between the various groups are simultaneously addressed.

The equal opportunity strategy, however, did not result in the expected increase in the number of members of disadvantaged groups in the higher echelons of businesses, and resulted in organisations being coerced to implement black advancement.

### 2.3.3 Strategies focusing on forced black advancement

The initial focus of black advancement was on the development of blacks to enable them to compete on an equal footing, given the situation created by the equal opportunity strategy (Daniel, 1994, p.15; Wingrove, 1993, p.9).

Most organisations who follow a black advancement programme believe that blacks need to be developed and trained to function effectively and efficiently in the corporate world. One of the major criticisms against this strategy is the assumption that blacks need to be trained to perform better in a so-called "white" world. Human & Bowmaker-Falconer (1992, p.26) describes this in more detail:

It would appear that, historically, in both this country and in the USA, the development of black people was (and in many instances still is) conceptualised simply in terms of putting knowledge and skills into black people and then expecting them to function in a "white" world which remains fundamentally unchanged. In other words, the implicit assumptions of the "black advancement" model are that blacks currently haven't the wherewithal to succeed in business and what we have to do is educate and train them and place them in our organisations as they currently exist.

It appears, however, as if black advancement programmes had been unsuccessful in most of the organisations in which it was implemented. In a research project by McGregor and Associates (1993, p.9) the following was found to be the view most organisations have of black advancement:

Described as the era driven by the Sullivan and EEC codes which demanded that "equal opportunities" be achieved and that the specific targets be set to achieve "advancement." These programmes were largely confined to the multinationals and were driven by the H.R. department with little commitment from line managers. The results represented, in the main, tokenism and failure.

The failure of black advancement by means of the developmental strategy only served to increase the political pressure on the management of organisations to prove their commitment to affirmative action (Patel, 1993, p.27). Most of the strategies that the majority of organisations embarked on as a result of the increased pressure can be typified as forced black advancement. These strategies tend to heighten and strengthen the negative expectations and

stereotypes the white population have of affirmative action. The following strategies serve as examples.

### 2.3.3.1 *Window-dressing*

Although some companies call their programme an affirmative action initiative, they are knowingly or unknowingly simply putting black faces in top positions and therefore are guilty of so-called window-dressing. The window-dressing strategy is explained by Innes (1993a, p.15) as usually occurring when a company or organisation is keen to promote blacks into prominent positions within the organisation in order to look good in the eyes of either the international community or black consumers, for example. Such programmes have generally involved targeting and placing historically disadvantaged people in strategic positions in the corporate world or on boards of management in non-executive positions. In many cases, affirmative action has been nothing more than window-dressing with training tacked on in an attempt to impart skills which management feels recruits need to learn (Thomas, 1996, p.35).

The major problem of window-dressing is that the affirmative action beneficiaries are appointed in senior positions without them having any say in corporate matters or any decision making authority. Madi (1993, p.13) explains this as follows:

The understanding among managers using this approach is that the company is to remain fundamentally unchanged, that the blacks brought in are not expected to perform. Hollow jobs are then created for them in some far little corner of the company. They are “encouraged” to remain quiet and are displayed only for public relations purposes. Of course, all this information is kept away from the recruit, who is allowed to build castles in the air and is rewarded for keeping those castles in the air.

The result of window-dressing is that its beneficiaries soon realise that they were only appointed or promoted because of the colour of their skin. These people then either start looking for other employment or remain in the organisations employ as unmotivated, unproductive employees with little, if any, job satisfaction (Madi, 1993, p.14).

Many South African organisations are still guilty of window-dressing because they are unwilling to address all the effects that past discrimination has had on the disadvantaged groups. It is far

easier for these companies to simply appoint the expected number of black people in strategic positions, without ensuring that they get the correct support regarding training and development. These companies do not realise that affirmative action encompasses much more than merely the appointment of blacks.

### 2.3.3.2 *Tokenism*

Most black affirmative action appointees in South Africa see their appointments as nothing more than tokenism. This is unfortunately true as most companies are prepared to offer huge salaries to blacks in order to recruit as many black managers as possible. Such black appointees usually do not possess the necessary qualifications or experience needed to function optimally in management positions. They are therefore merely appointed as tokens. Hattingh (1994, p.18) describes the tokenism strategy as follows:

To be specific, short sightedness can prevail, and has done so from candidate, client and agent/consultant perspectives in that companies seeking to recruit as many senior affirmative action candidates as possible are prepared to pay packages way in excess of market rate to candidates who often do not meet the required specification in terms of level of experience and expertise...placing them into positions in which they are greatly over extended and over paid.

Essentially, what companies do is to promote blacks into very visible positions, without ensuring that they have acquired the requisite skills to take responsible decisions in their new positions. In order to reduce the damage that could ensue, the company often devalues the position. Thus, although the position still carries a grand-sounding title, the incumbent is stripped of all decision-making powers, to ensure that he or she cannot cause too much damage to the organisation (Innes, 1993a, p.15). Madi (1993, p.20) has the following opinion in this respect:

Recruits in these organisations are expected to perform, but only to a limited extent. They are “coached” not to rock the boat. They are repeatedly advised of the virtues of silent toil and carrying on placidly amid the noise and haste. In order to ensure that the risk taken by employing these managers does not backfire on the employing officer, invisible boundaries are set within which these managers can operate. This is usually a strategic non-critical function, such as managing black sales representatives who serve a very small and insignificant (token) black client base. The incumbent is given responsibility, but no authority. He has no budget, no hiring or promoting powers, etc.

Another tokenism trend that is commonly found in most South African organisations is that affirmative action appointees are appointed in or promoted to so-called “soft” positions like personnel development or public relations. It is believed that they will not be able to do too much damage to the company’s profitability in these positions. Alpherson (1993, p.121) quotes Cunningham Ngckana, then General Secretary of the National Council of Trade Unions (NACTU) as saying that “it’s not a question of the promotion of a few blacks but whether there’s a promotion to improve skills and whether the promotion is a merited promotion. Too often promotions go into personnel and other ‘soft’ departments that are incidental to production.”

It can be concluded that a strategy of tokenism will have an adverse effect on productivity, the motivation of the appointees, and on organisational success in the long run (Madi, 1993, p.21).

#### 2.3.3.3 *Favouritism*

An extreme measure to redress imbalances in the workplace is represented by the favouritism strategy. The implementation of this strategy involves recruiting, selecting, appointing and promoting members of previously disadvantaged groups only (Tougas et al, 1996, p.453).

A number of South African organisations follow a favouritism strategy, labelling it as “preferential treatment.” This strategy is usually politically motivated and aims at vigorously advancing only members of certain groups. Madi (1993, p.25) is a proponent of this approach and justifies it by stating it has nothing to do with business dictates and objectives, but everything to do with political objectives. It is an approach of which the main objective is political correctness and protesting whites should be told that “you’ve had your turn, now it is the black man’s turn.”

Daniel (1994, p.15) argues that preferential treatment in the correct context will not be seen as discriminatory.

This argument needs to be considered very carefully, as the situation, created by apartheid, of blacks may necessitate an extreme measure such as favouritism. Fischer

(1993, p.33) mentions the results of a research project undertaken by Wright in 1993, which indicates that “preferential treatment in terms of access to training and development opportunities was found to be an acceptable form of preferential treatment by white and black, men and women.”

It therefore seems that the only successful utilisation of the favouritism strategy is in the case where it is applied in order to benefit members of disadvantaged groups in the processes of training and development.

#### **2.3.4 Affirmative action strategies focusing on the upliftment of black employees**

The affirmative action strategy, which aims to uplift the previously disadvantaged, represents an effort by the organisation to remedy past injustices by availing employees the opportunity to be uplifted with regard to educational level, qualifications and abilities.

The black upliftment strategy resulted from the failure of the equal opportunity and forced black advancement strategies. Organisations realised that the backlog experienced by blacks should first be addressed, before they will be able to compete on an equal footing. Organisations therefore embarked on a number of strategies, all aiming to empower black employees by means of improved qualifications and abilities, enabling them to be more competitive in the race up the organisational ladder.

The following strategies serve as examples (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997, p.34; Human, 1993a, p.62; Wingrove, 1993, p.92):

- Literacy programmes.
- Programmes enabling blacks to better their secondary level qualifications.
- Bursaries and assistance to blacks to acquire tertiary qualifications.
- Special in-house or external programmes to provide blacks with job related training.
- Training programmes for blacks to induct them in the processes on which organisational functioning is based (6M-training).
- Training of blacks in supervisory skills.

Organisations make special provision in their budgets for these upliftment programmes and the latter are spelled out in their affirmative action policies.

Black upliftment programmes have a strong paternalistic inclination and aims to rectify past injustices or neglect regarding the education and training of blacks. Whether such programmes result in more blacks being appointed and promoted is, however, questionable, the reason being that organisations that adopt this strategy do not concomitantly create situations that will enable blacks, after being “uplifted,” to advance to higher-level positions within the organisation.

This strategy appears to represent a soft option, resulting in organisations spending considerable capital on the training of black employees but, in the end, not availing them the opportunity to advance to higher positions in the organisational hierarchy.

### **2.3.5 Affirmative action strategies focusing on the development of blacks**

The developmental strategy concerning affirmative action embodies a merging of the black advancement strategy with the black upliftment strategy. Black employees are exposed to specially designed training programmes, aimed at redressing past discrimination, and then given preferential treatment by means of accelerated advancement (Olivier, 1992, p.24).

According to this strategy, affirmative action beneficiaries should first be trained and developed, in order for them to have the necessary qualifications and experience to be appointed in or promoted to senior positions in the organisation.

Affirmative action, therefore, becomes part of a career development strategy. Affirmative action appointees with potential are exposed to specially devised development programmes, enhancing their career progress within the organisation. Innes (1993b, p.43) explains that career development planning must become an integral part of human resource development programmes. It is not sufficient to move disadvantaged people into better-paid jobs. Career paths must be mapped out with incumbents, along with a development programme that will

enable them to advance in their chosen careers.

Olivier (1992, p.24) elaborates that this approach can be seen as broad-based succession planning that offers an alternative approach to opening up opportunities for under-utilised employees with potential at all levels of the organisation and streaming them into different career paths, in line with future requirements. It is an option that could function in tandem with a quota system or, preferably, as a system on its own, integrated into the culture, the human resource planning process, and the development strategy of the company.

The development of affirmative action employees, therefore, should not be seen as a temporary measure, but as a long-term intervention that should be incorporated into the organisation's career management strategy.

The development of members of disadvantaged groups does not represent an overall training approach, but a process where each individual's unique needs are taken into account. Human (1992a, p.54) gives a wider perspective to this viewpoint and states that "development constitutes more than simply the education and training of disadvantaged groups....It is a process in which ability can increase through the dynamic and complex interaction between the individual's perceived ability, his or her motivation and the way in which the person is managed."

The developmental strategy surpasses mere training and encompasses a process where attained abilities are put into practice. Moraba (1993, p.28) quotes Lot Ndlovo, then executive director of the Black Management Forum, as complaining that organisations see blacks as a group of disadvantaged people that need to be trained extensively and continuously in order to be able to cope in the corporate world. This is referred to as "perpetual training." Organisations therefore have to take care not to use the development of affirmative action appointees as a way to keep them from really doing the jobs in which they were appointed.

Some authors propose a development strategy where each individual's strengths and weaknesses should be assessed in order to determine what development he or she needs (Human &

Bowmaker-Falconer, 1992, p.26). In an article titled *Affirmative action percentages won't work in South Africa* (1994, p.21), an updated approach to the development of affirmative action candidates is proposed:

The companies that will succeed with Affirmative Action programmes are those that throw out outdated training methods and prepare their employees for promotion through modern accelerated training techniques which capitalize on candidates' innate strengths and inculcate in them an achiever mindset.

It therefore seems that the development of affirmative action subjects should be on an individual basis, assessing each individual on his or her merit and deciding which strengths or weaknesses of each individual need to be addressed during the development process. The mentorship approach ideally suits this purpose.

Mentorship represents a means to assist the affirmative action appointee in adjusting to his or her new work environment. Charoux (1987, p.16) outlines mentorship in more detail:

I have stated recently that the ultimate objective of any Black leadership development scheme in South Africa should be the integration or socialization of the Black manager or supervisor into the organization....I see coaching, mentoring and sponsoring as nothing more than three of the many tools which management has at its disposal to facilitate the integration process.

A mentor is assigned to the affirmative action appointee to coach, assist and activate him or her, to monitor his or her performance and to timely address behaviour detrimental to organisation goal achievement. The mentor's task is to ensure, on an ongoing basis, that the appointee or person promoted, functions optimally in his or her new position. A mentor is seen as a person with work experience and knowledge, who will transfer this to his or her protégé (Charoux, 1987, p.17; Cochius, 1987, p.8).

The mentoring relationship can serve a variety of purposes for the affirmative action appointee. Tsukudu (1996, p.14) points to four functions of the mentoring process:

Mentoring relationships serve a number of functions. First, mentors act as advisors and sounding boards for protégés. Second, they help their protégés navigate the culture and politics of the organisation. They serve as a conduit between the organisation and the

individual by providing special access to information, contacts and resources....Third, they serve as friend, role model, counsellor and coach. Fourth, mentors are a buffer between the protégé and the organisation. They are able to protect the protégé against “corporate political” attack.

It, however, seems that most people support mentorship, as long as they are not involved in it. The main reason for this reluctance appears to be the difference in cultures between the white mentor and his or her black protégé (Cochius, 1987, p.9).

Tsukudu (1996, p.16) therefore advises that mentors need to be trained to be able to deal with racial and cultural differences. Waltman (1995, p.28) suggests that both mentors and protégés need to be trained to ensure the successful utilisation of the mentorship process.

The black development strategy represents a proactive approach, identifying the development needs of the individual concerned, and devising a development programme for him or her, which encompasses career planning and mentorship.

### **2.3.6 Affirmative action strategies focusing on the management of diversity**

The management of diversity represents an overall strategy, stressing the importance of a situational approach to the diverse nature of a multiracial and multicultural workforce. The emphasis is therefore placed on managing the diversity of the workforce in such a manner as to ensure maximum utilisation of all employees for the ultimate benefit of the organisation. Thomas (1995, p.76) quotes Roosevelt Thomas, then president of the American Institute for Managing Diversity in the USA, as defining the management of diversity as “a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment which works for all employees and which allows differences to be used as a competitive advantage.”

The management of diversity is seen as a management process where every employee’s full potential is utilised, not allowing racial or cultural differences to influence the process. Hugo and Van Vuuren (1996, p.12) quotes Human and Bowmaker-Falconer, and Motshabi in this regard:

Of particular importance is the way in which management of diversity will be achieved. Human and Bowmaker-Falconer (1992) advise against the over-emphasis of cultural differences. Motshabi (1993) also cautions against an ethnocentric approach, which assumes that all members of a particular cultural group are identical.

Diversity in South Africa is often seen as only meaning racial or cultural differences. It can, however, include various other factors. Norris (1996, p.37) therefore sees diversity as a holistic term that “besides race and ethnicity, also embraces gender, values, religious persuasions, sexual preferences, language, education and wealth.”

Care has to be taken therefore, not to see the management of diversity as a process where only cultural and racial differences are emphasised, but as a process of utilising the different contributions the entire workforce can make. The management of diversity should also not only be seen as a process of understanding cultural and racial differences, but rather as a process whereby all employees are accepted as positive contributors to the attainment of organisational goals. Fuhr (1992, p.30) emphasises the comprehensive nature of the management of diversity:

The management of diversity is not a human relations approach; it is not about treating people nicely or bringing them together. It is not merely about understanding differences. The acceptance, tolerance and understanding of diversity is not enough to create an empowered workforce. Managing diversity is a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment in which all employees feel comfortable and accepted; one which replaces a feeling of alienation with a sense of belonging.

The management of diversity strategy is summarised as follows by Daniel (1994, p.14):

Managing diversity prescribes a broad based approach. It calls for working at the individual, interpersonal, organisational and environmental (broader) levels; it addresses cultures, values, biases or stereotypes and systems; and requires holistic and evolutionary perspectives. It is thus not a once-off programme or initiative, but a way of life, a professional way of life at that. Managing diversity is a process for developing an environment: that fosters awareness, value and acceptance of individual differences, that gives employees opportunities and judges them fairly on their talents and contributions, thereby attempting to address expectations and to remove or reduce biases and stereotypical behaviour.

Thomas (1996, p.12) emphasises the long-term nature of the management of diversity that demands top management's commitment to set in motion mechanisms to unbridle the potential

of all employees. The management of diversity therefore places a high premium on the situational leadership abilities of managers. Fuhr (1992, p.29) suggests that managers should seek to instil in their black workers a new sense of pride in themselves, their efforts, their value systems, their culture and their general outlook on life. Managers should also learn that differences do not necessarily mean weaknesses and that there may be strength in diversity, if it is managed properly.

“Management of diversity” is to a certain extent a misnomer, in the sense that the acceptance of diversity also includes the employees peripheral to the affirmative action subject. Coetzee (1995, p.22) refers to this as the principle of inclusivity. Inclusivity measures the extent to which people are willing to tolerate, value and make the best of differences among individuals.

The management of diversity represents a strategy that aims to integrate and harness the human uniqueness found in the organisation to the benefit of both the organisation and its employees. Apart from the utilisation of the “Ubuntu” approach, the management of diversity in South Africa seems to be a theory of which very little is implemented in practice.

### **2.3.7 Conclusion**

In conclusion, it seems that some strategies have been utilised with success and others have failed dismally. Most companies implement affirmative action programmes, naming it differently, for example, black advancement, equal opportunity or management of diversity. The majority of affirmative action strategies are aimed at eliminating past discrimination.

Unfortunately, most South African companies have introduced unsuccessful affirmative action strategies that contribute to the negative expectations regarding the success of affirmative action in South Africa. Meintjies (1993, p.66) proposes the following to avoid the reinforcement of negative stereotypes regarding affirmative action:

In order to meet the arguments of detractors, exponents of affirmative action need to show how the methods they choose could ultimately increase excellence - as opposed to those cruder forms of affirmative action which look good but are destructive and wasteful in the long run.

The biggest problem of affirmative action seems to be the effects of window-dressing, tokenism and favouritism. These strategies are usually implemented as a result of political pressure and in most cases represent approaches that result in a negative reaction by the workforce peripheral to the affirmative action process, who sees it as reverse discrimination. Ironically, the beneficiaries of these strategies of affirmative action, due to their inability to perform or as a result of a “white backlash,” also experience affirmative action as negative.

#### **2.4 THE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION CONTINUUM**

On analysing the different definitions of affirmative action and after examining the variety of organisational approaches and strategies concerning affirmative action, it can be concluded that affirmative action has many interrelated facets that are often interpreted differently by the parties involved. Wingrove (1993, p.2) explains this as follows:

The terms used for the strategy of bringing about socioeconomic parity between the Black and White populations seems to have been determined by every individual's understanding of the meaning of each term and the acceptance or rejection of what the individual interprets as being the philosophy behind each of these terms and the general acceptability of the term within his own organizational environment.

The tendency is for companies to steer away from the term “affirmative action” because of its bad connotations and to invent different names for the affirmative action process. Madi (1993, p.xviii) elaborates on this tendency:

Most South African organisations are presently in one form of affirmative action or another with a strong sense of foreboding. Moreover, due to affirmative action's bad name, they have resorted to verbal gymnastics. Today we have initiatives such as Positive Discrimination, Equity Employment, Diversity Management, Integrated Employment, etc.

In order to differentiate between the various affirmative action strategies and to evaluate the success of each, it was deemed necessary to arrange the underlying rationale of the different strategies proposed in the literature concerning affirmative action, and to identify the positive aspects as well as the shortcomings of each. This arrangement can be presented in the form of

a continuum.

Affirmative action strategies can be depicted as different positions on a continuum, contained in table 2.1 below. The continuum ranges in complexity with the left-hand position being the least complex. It also ranges in proactiveness as well as duration with the right-hand position representing approaches being most proactive and of a long-term nature. The continuum also depicts the historical progress in the development of theory defining affirmative action, with the right-hand position representing the most current theory.

**TABLE 2.1: THE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION CONTINUUM**

Simple _____> Complex Reactive Short-term Dated theory <span style="float: right;">Proactive Long-term Current theory</span>				
EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY	BLACK ADVANCEMENT	BLACK UPLIFTMENT	BLACK DEVELOPMENT	MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSITY
Creating equal opportunities and ending discrimination by removing the barriers that were the outcome of racism and sexism. Results in the <i>status quo</i> being maintained due to the backlog in qualifications and abilities among members of disadvantaged groups.	Forced advancement of blacks (in the USA by legislation and by means of the quota system). Represents an effort to redress past injustices by means of favouritism. Results in tokenism and reverse discrimination. Has as outcome the negative stereotyping of affirmative action.	Rectifying the existing imbalances that deprived members of disadvantaged groups of participation in education and training, by removing historical discriminatory practices. Takes the form of special training programmes for black employees. Represents a soft approach based on paternalism.	A proactive strategy to develop members of disadvantaged groups to enable them to compete on an equal basis. Comprises a training and development strategy that includes mentorship and the monitoring and rectifying of progress on an ongoing basis. Linked to a system of accelerated advancement.	The recognition and respecting of differences inherent to different groups and individuals. Represents a situational approach with regard to the management of a diverse workforce. Represents an approach that concentrates on the integrating and harnessing of human uniqueness to the benefit of both employees and the organisation.

The different affirmative action strategies as depicted in the continuum above, will now be discussed separately.

### 2.4.1 Equal employment opportunity

This part of the affirmative action continuum represents a policy of non-discrimination with regard to prospective employees entering the organisation and present employees' advancement in the organisation. It entails the removal of all barriers, obstacles or discrimination, to enable individuals to compete on an equal footing (Coetzee, 1995, p.22; McDonald, 1994, p.45).

The implementation of an equal opportunity programme aims to ensure that all employees are given the same wages for the same work, equal benefits and a fair chance to compete on an equal basis. An equal opportunity strategy is generally seen as the starting point of affirmative action and many South African organisations opt to follow an equal opportunity programme as their affirmative action initiative (Innes, 1993a, p.8)

An equal opportunity strategy is reactive in the sense that it concentrates on the removal of past discriminatory practices and not the redressing of past injustices. Farmer's Weekly (1993, p.17), analyses the purpose of affirmative action programmes in the USA and finds that their purpose was "not primarily to compensate past injustices through present preference, but rather to ensure present and future equality of opportunity for women and minority groups."

The equal employment opportunity approach, therefore, represents a "soft" approach to affirmative action and is, in comparison with other approaches to the right-hand side of the continuum, uncomplicated and relatively easy to implement.

This is perhaps why a large number of South African organisations initially chose the equal opportunity option. It represented a "safe" option that in most cases resulted in the *status quo* being maintained with regard to the racial composition of the workforce. This was due to the fact that members of disadvantaged groups were, as far as education, abilities and experience were concerned, not on par to compete on an equal footing, regardless the fact that discriminatory barriers were removed. McGregor and Associates (1993, p.9) describes this as "the era of removing overt barriers to advancement. Physical barriers to discriminate against certain race groups were therefore removed. There was no acknowledgement of the deprivation

caused by the social engineering of apartheid.”

One of the main reasons for problems occurring when an organisation chooses to implement an equal opportunity programme therefore seems to be the disregarding of the educational gap caused by apartheid. When selection and promotion are done according to merit, previously disadvantaged groups will still fall far behind their white counterparts in terms of education, training and experience.

It is therefore clear that an equal opportunity strategy will be short-lived, especially when taking into account the pressure presently placed upon South African organisations to change the race and gender composition of their workforce to reflect the composition of the community they serve. An equal employment opportunity approach on its own thus represents a short-term strategy.

The theoretical basis for the equal opportunity approach dates as far back as the formulation of the Sullivan Code of Conduct (Weedon, 1986, pp.56-57) and an equal employment opportunity approach, as a one and only strategy, can be considered as outdated.

#### **2.4.2 Black advancement**

In its purest form, this element of the affirmative action continuum can be seen as an attempt to redress historical injustices by forcefully, and by means of preferential treatment, change the workforce composition of organisations in order to have a demographically representative contingent of employees on the managerial level (Khoza, 1993, p.77).

Black advancement programmes are aimed at advancing the black population (McDonald, 1994, p.47). An integral part of black advancement is favouritism which is understood to mean preferential treatment that requires employers to discriminate against better-qualified or equally qualified whites (Fischer, 1996, p.33).

It is important to realise that black advancement represents a politically motivated drive and an

attempt to provide a quick-fix recipe, not particularly supported by theory, to address past injustices. It is therefore largely reactive in nature. It seems, however, that black advancement is not beneficial to any of the parties concerned. Neither the organisation nor the beneficiaries nor white peers experience this strategy as positive.

Organisations are obliged to resort to tokenism due to the scarcity of qualified and experienced blacks, and in the process forfeit productivity (Wingrove, 1993, p.4). The beneficiaries of black advancement are unsure whether they really deserved, out of own merit, to have been appointed or promoted (Khoza, 1993, p.77).

Black advancement is experienced by whites and other minority groups as reverse discrimination, with the resulting backlash reaction being extremely detrimental to the effective functioning of the organisation concerned. It would therefore seem as if black advancement is only a short-term solution to achieve a state of equilibrium.

### **2.4.3 Black upliftment**

Upliftment is generally seen as the process whereby previously disadvantaged groups are “uplifted” to the same level as the rest of the population by removing all barriers and providing the necessary training and development. The main objective therefore is to give members of these disadvantaged groups the opportunity to occupy positions in organisations they were previously not able to, because of, for example, inferior education, qualifications and experience due to the policy of apartheid (Innes, 1993a, p.14).

Many organisations are providing bursaries to members of disadvantaged groups, to study at tertiary institutions. Others are providing literacy training to their employees. Another way of uplifting the disadvantaged group is to recruit blacks with potential, to be appointed in lower-level jobs and then exposing these employees to development programmes (Innes, 1993a, p.18).

Waltman (1995, p.27) explains that an upliftment programme should also empower the beneficiaries to better themselves and that it “should not be a policy of hand-outs but a plan of

action which pro-actively aims at self-upliftment.”

It therefore becomes clear that a process of upliftment is necessary, given the unique situation in which the disadvantaged groups in South Africa find themselves. These people were given inferior education and consequently occupy jobs in the lower ranks of the organisation. The upliftment process aims at rectifying this situation by providing the necessary training and education to this group with the objective of improving their qualifications and knowledge. The beneficiaries of the upliftment programme are then potential candidates for higher-level positions.

This approach, therefore, has a proactive inclination and represents a medium-term strategy, which is on par with the theory advocating support by the organisation in the upliftment of employees.

Unfortunately some organisations use this approach as a soft option, in the sense that they excel in the financing of a variety of educational and training programmes aimed at members of disadvantaged groups in their employ, but fall short in proactively affording these employees the opportunity to be promoted to higher positions.

#### **2.4.4 Black development**

According to this approach, organisations need to develop their affirmative action beneficiaries as part of the process of assisting them to adjust to the corporate environment.

The developmental strategy is closely linked to the upliftment approach but differs from the last-mentioned in that a high premium is placed on the necessity to proactively provide career paths to the members of disadvantaged groups. The development of affirmative action beneficiaries is seen either as being part of the organisation’s career management process or as a process where this employee pool is put through an accelerated development programme, equipping them with the necessary skills to cope with the demands of the management process (Olivier, 1992, p.24).

Part of the complexity of this approach is therefore the assessment, with regard to the development needs, as well as the potential and existing abilities of affirmative action beneficiaries.

Management also has an important role to play in the development process as they will be the persons to monitor the affirmative action appointee's progress and to identify areas that need to be developed (Human, 1992a, p.54). The commitment of management as well as the affirmative action beneficiary is of the utmost importance for the development process to be successful (Human & Bowmaker-Falconer, 1992, p.26). Another important factor to consider is the organisational climate and its influence on the successful development of affirmative action beneficiaries (Human, 1992b, p.14).

The black development approach to affirmative action represents a proactive strategy that, on an ongoing basis, aims to empower blacks, by means of career pathing and mentoring, to advance in the organisational hierarchy.

#### **2.4.5 Managing diversity**

The basic assumption underlying the management of diversity is that the workforce consists of individuals who differ in terms of race, gender, ethnicity, age and development levels (De Villiers, 1993, p.21). Thomas (1996, p.91) defines the term "diversity" in more detail:

Being "different" is far greater than race and gender. In its fullest sense, diversity involves a broad range of human uniqueness - perception and attitudes, workstyle, personality, values, lifestyle, sexual orientation, work ethic, age, communication style, world-view, ethnicity, recreational and personal habits, religion, educational background, work experience, appearance, parental status, marital status, functionality, division/department/unit/group, functional level classification, work content, seniority, work location, union affiliation, management status.

South African organisations committed to affirmative action soon realise that affirmative action does not merely entail the creation of equal opportunities or the upliftment and development of disadvantaged employees, but a much more complex challenge, namely the proactive and ongoing utilisation of their diverse workforce. The management of diversity does not only

enhance the process of affirmative action, but provides a mechanism to improve organisational performance. Managing diversity refers to the utilisation of all cultures in an organisation to the benefit of that company by ensuring that all people contribute positively to the productivity levels (Thomas, 1996, p.10). The emphasis is therefore placed on the unique contribution each employee can make to strategically benefit the company (Wingrove, 1993, p.8).

It can be concluded that the management of diversity represents a dynamic and proactive managerial strategy which on an ongoing basis strives to harness the uniqueness of the workforce in the enhancement of organisational goals.

#### **2.4.6 Conclusion**

The affirmative action continuum represents an arrangement of the different strategies as proposed by the theory on affirmative action and gives an overview of the development of such theory over time. It also supplies an indication of the positive elements as well as the shortcomings of each strategy. The affirmative action continuum will be utilised to construct the items of a structured interview, used in this investigation to gauge the effectiveness of each of the target organisations' affirmative action endeavours, as compared to the existing theory.

### **2.5 THE EFFECTS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

Whenever affirmative action is implemented, the effect it has on the organisation and the workforce is significant, as explained by Ford (1996, p.1956):

Affirmative action programs seem to be political lightning rods wherever they are employed. To their supporters, such policies present a mechanism whereby generations of inequity can finally be overcome; to opponents, they seem a crude tool of reverse discrimination that can only promote further group conflict.

An inappropriate affirmative action strategy, the incorrect implementation of affirmative action and a negative organisational climate can result in the reinforcement of the negative feelings of whites towards affirmative action and in affirmative action beneficiaries becoming frustrated (South African Food & Beverage Manufacturing Review, 1995, p.87). Fuhr (1992, p.30) is of

the opinion that “no matter how many blacks you place in managerial positions, if the environment is not receptive to their acceptance and advancement, the programme will fail dismally.”

Most opponents to affirmative action argue that affirmative action causes standards to drop, reverse discrimination to occur, and that affirmative action beneficiaries have a lack of commitment. Some are of the opinion that the affirmative action process in South Africa discriminates against whites, Coloureds and Asians. In the United States of America, where affirmative action has been practised for almost 30 years, some authors feel that it had failed to advance or positively uplift the minority population it is aimed at (Mitchell, 1993, p.30).

Ford (1996, p.1959) compares the affirmative action controversies in South Africa with that in the USA and quotes John Kane-Bernman, then director of the South African Institute of Race Relations, as mentioning the following with regard to parallels to be found between the two countries with regard to affirmative action:

South Africa's affirmative action controversies features many of the same issues found in American debates on the subject: Whites fretting about the erosion of “standards,” shortages of (and bidding wars for) adequately trained and educated promotable non-Whites, non-Whites angered by tokenism and perceptions that they failed to “earn” their positions, concerns that preferential policies really only benefit a small class of already-privileged non-Whites, and so forth. Some concerns arising in the South African debates are more context-specific, but one cannot be helped but be struck by the parallels between the American and South African affirmative action controversies.

The effects of affirmative action can be divided into the following six categories, namely the effect on the organisational climate, productivity, the managerial process, the development process, finances, and the workforce (*ie* disadvantaged groups, supervisors, employees peripheral to affirmative action, and affirmative action beneficiaries).

### **2.5.1 The effect of affirmative action on the organisational climate**

When management informs employees of the intention to initiate affirmative action, a change in the organisational climate is bound to occur. More often than not, it has a negative influence

on the organisation's incumbents because of the perceived danger of the *status quo* being disturbed (Thomas, 1995, p.75). The potential beneficiaries of affirmative action, on the one hand, will wonder whether external or internal applicants will be considered for promotions and new positions. The persons peripheral to affirmative action, on the other hand, will usually have negative feelings about the proposed affirmative action initiatives, because of them not being considered at all (Ryan, 1994, p.38). Another factor often influencing the organisational climate is the apparent lack of true commitment by top management (Mbatha, 1992, p.15).

The perceptions and reactions of the above-mentioned three parties to affirmative action will have a significant impact on the organisational climate, causing it to change to a more restive and, possibly, negative one. Most whites will feel resentment towards affirmative action because of it changing the way in which things were done in the past (Thomas, 1996, p.8). Whites will no longer be the only persons to be considered for appointment and promotion, and blacks and other disadvantaged groups will have suddenly entered the picture. This causes greater competition for new or better positions. Fischer (1996, p.34) explains this reaction as follows:

The levelling of the playing field from one which was previously sloped in the favour of white males means that current expectations cannot be based on past realities of competition for jobs or promotions. The poor economic climate and organisational restructuring put further pressure on the availability of jobs. The result of these changes is that the competition for employment and promotions has increased.

Thomas (1996, pp.92-93) quotes Thomas and Gregory as listing the following effects that affirmative action has on the organisational climate:

The majority of organisations choose to respond to diversity in a way summarised by Thomas and Gregory (1993/94) as follows:

- exclusion - by keeping diverse people out of the organisation or excluding them once they have been included;
- denial - ignoring the unique types of diversity which employees bring to the organisation;
- suppression - encouraging individuals who are "different" in the organisation to suppress that difference and adopt the accepted styles, ways of thinking and behaving and other aspects of conformity in order to survive or progress within the organisation;
- assimilation - attempting to transform those who are "different" into clones of the dominant group;

- tolerance - acknowledging the right of others to exist or to be included, while taking steps to minimise interaction.

A proposed antipode to the development of a negative organisational climate is the preparation of the organisational culture to be supportive of affirmative action. Ferndale (1993, p.27) is of the opinion that “the business culture should be transformed in such a way that it tolerates differences and should be supportive of AA. What is therefore needed is a fundamental change of the culture of the organisation so as to reflect the diverse nature of the values, norms, needs and aspirations of its workforce.”

It can be concluded that affirmative action will cause the organisational climate to become more hostile to affirmative action beneficiaries, more competitive with regard to new positions and promotions and usually more uncertain.

### **2.5.2 The effect of affirmative action on productivity**

Affirmative action can have positive as well as negative effects on the productivity of an organisation, depending which group of employees are at stake.

The majority of persons peripheral to affirmative action, namely whites, usually have negative feelings regarding affirmative action initiatives. This will cause them, intentionally or not, to become less productive (De Vries, 1991, p.89). Some affirmative action beneficiaries may also feel that they were appointed as a result of affirmative action and need not perform exceptionally to be considered for promotional purposes (Ryan, 1994, p.38).

The majority of the employees at lower levels, namely blacks, will feel that, as a result of affirmative action, the organisational hierarchy is becoming more representative of the country's population. They could react positively when noticing that more blacks are appointed in the executive positions. This may have a positive effect on their productivity as, for the first time, they will feel it worthwhile for them to become more productive as they are not managed by whites only. Should this group, however, realise that the black executives are only token or window-dressing appointments, it will have a negative influence on their productivity (Madi,

1993, p.21).

A problem that is becoming typical in most South African organisations is the pressure put on black executives to conform to the white way of doing things. This may also have a negative effect on productivity. During an interview by the South African Food & Beverage Manufacturing Review (1995, p.87), Wood mentions the following in this regard:

Trying to force individuals to conform to a prescribed corporate or cultural image is fatal - it suffocates individualism, creativity and self-worth and hampers personal performance, Wood believes. His experience has proved that mixed race and gender groups that are compelled to conform have the lowest productivity output, whereas those encouraged to give free rein to diversity and individualism are the best achievers with the highest productivity.

It can be concluded that affirmative action can positively influence productivity levels, if implemented correctly. The correct way to implement affirmative action initiatives in order to improve productivity seems to be based on the following principles. The entire organisation needs to be committed to affirmative action, black executives must be allowed to make important decisions and use their initiative and affirmative action appointees need to be motivated to perform for promotional purposes. Should these factors not be attended to, affirmative action will have a negative impact on organisational productivity.

### **2.5.3 The effect of affirmative action on the managerial process**

When an organisation decides to appoint affirmative action candidates it will have a definite influence on the managerial process. Managers will now have to deal with peers and subordinates who are quite different from what they were used to. Their management strategy will have to be altered to accommodate different people with different backgrounds, cultures and with different ways of doing things. The majority of white managers feel most uncomfortable with this.

A typical reaction by managers is to try and uphold the *status quo* and to try and avoid the affirmative action appointees as far as possible. Most managers feel that they are more knowledgeable than the affirmative action appointees and continue to manage and do things as

they did in the past (Coetzee, 1995, p.24; Daniel, 1994, p.16; Madi, 1993, p.13).

Management usually believes that standards will drop as soon as affirmative action is implemented. Human (1992a, p.54) confirms that the negative expectation of management, that the influx of the disadvantaged will lower standards, “leads to the anticipated outcome and reflects a failure of management to ensure that the newcomers develop to the required standard.”

Most managers are uncomfortable with managing a “new” type of employee, and react by becoming paternalistic or stereotypical. This is the easy way out for the majority of managers. The “different” employee is then managed poorly which leads to both the manager and the subordinate feeling uncomfortable with the situation. Daniel (1994, p.17) has the following view in this respect:

For example, managers who lack skill in supervising people whose gender, culture, race or socio-economic background are different from their own often unintentionally operate out of biased or stereotypical frames of reference. One result is that such managers may be uncomfortable setting high standards or providing straight feedback to those employees who are “different.”

It can be concluded that affirmative action will definitely affect the managerial process. Managers will feel unsure about how the new affirmative action appointee should be managed and this may lead to negative outcomes. It becomes clear that managers should be equipped to cope with a diverse workforce, before any affirmative action strategy is implemented.

#### **2.5.4 The effect of affirmative action on the development process**

Affirmative action should affect the development processes within organisations, but this is unfortunately not the case. Most South African organisations are guilty of only appointing affirmative action beneficiaries in the positions that were identified, without training and developing them properly to be able to function effectively in their new jobs. Venter (1994, p.35) is of the opinion that due to time pressure organisations openly admits “to sometimes placing blacks in jobs before they are fully ready. Because of this, affirmative action has a bad

name and some whites see all black appointments as tokenism; as not fully merited.”

Some organisations do, however, place affirmative action candidates in a “pool” of trainees, who are given accelerated training in order to prepare them to function effectively, should they be placed in a new position. When a position becomes vacant, a candidate who is ready to be appointed is chosen from this pool. This strategy has an important impact on the development process (Innes, 1993b, p.43).

Firstly, the scope of the development programmes the organisation has to offer is widened. No organisation can continue presenting the same training programmes to all employees once affirmative action is implemented. Once affirmative action appointees enter the labour pool, the development programmes need to be altered to accommodate their unique needs. Greater work pressure is placed on the personnel who are responsible for the training and development of employees, including new affirmative action appointees. The organisation may also need to make use of external consultants with the necessary knowledge to train and develop the affirmative action beneficiaries.

Secondly, the modification of existing development programmes, and the implementation of new development programmes, have a significant financial implication for the organisation, especially once external consultants are used.

Thirdly, some of the existing employees may become dissatisfied with the development opportunities provided only to affirmative action appointees and not to them. The organisation may be confronted with the question of whether the same opportunities should not be given to all employees?

Fourthly, the development of affirmative action executives will have an impact on the way in which these managers are trained and developed as they do not possess the experience and background of white managers. Traditional development methods that were developed for white managers will have to be altered to accommodate the experience backlog of black managers.

Lastly, a process of development is very time-consuming, which the majority of organisations are averse to. Most organisations seek quick-fix solutions to affirmative action.

The conclusion can be made that affirmative action could have a significant impact on the development process of organisations in the case where the organisation follows an affirmative action strategy aimed at the development of affirmative action beneficiaries.

### **2.5.5 The effect of affirmative action on finances**

The moment an organisation commits itself to the implementation of affirmative action, the company's finances will be influenced. No affirmative action strategy is cheap and most organisations are now also realising that affirmative action is a long-term process.

Affirmative action, and in particular the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998) and the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995), impact on almost every human resource management function. The recruitment and selection processes are the first areas that will be influenced. Organisations will have to alter their recruitment methods as well as their recruitment advertising policy, as the stipulations of the Labour Relations Act have a bearing on the media one should utilise in order not to discriminate against certain segments of the population. Most organisations also recruit from outside the company in order to attract the best possible candidate. This has an impact on the organisation's finances. Mittner (1994, p.38) quotes figures from a study undertaken by the FSA-Contact Group to explain this trend:

'n Verdere interessante bevinding van die ondersoek is die patroon wat regstellende optrede in Suid-Afrika aanneem. Altesame 48,2% van die ondernemings in die ondersoek werf werknemers van buite om hulle werkmag meer verteenwoordigend te maak. Meer as 30% van die ondernemings sal 'n salarispremie van tot 50% betaal om toppersoneel te lok.

The selection methods, particularly regarding psychometric testing, will also have to be adjusted to accommodate all the members of South Africa's diverse population. These adjustments may also lead to additional expenses.

When affirmative action candidates are appointed, the organisation will have to address their individual training and development needs. This is also a costly and timely process. Some organisations cannot afford costly development programmes (Ryan, 1994, p.38).

Because of the under-representation of disadvantaged groups in managerial echelons, affirmative action candidates are usually appointed in executive positions. Attractive remuneration packages have to be offered to prospective affirmative action executives. This again has an impact on the organisation's finances.

The current "job-hopping" trend, where affirmative action appointees leave the organisation due to an attractive offer received from another company, is also having a negative influence on finances. The funds involved in recruiting and developing the affirmative action candidates are lost should such candidates leave the company soon after being appointed.

Although it seems as if affirmative action can only impact negatively on finances, it can in the long run benefit the company financially, if implemented correctly. In a scientific study in the United States of America, Wright et al (1995, pp.283-284) found that high-quality affirmative action can benefit organisations financial-wise in the long run:

The findings of this study indicate that high-quality affirmative action programs contribute to sustaining a competitive advantage and are valued in the market place....Since sustaining competitive advantage depends on using valuable human and organizational resources, we assume that quality affirmative action programs better enable a firm to recruit, develop, and maintain these critical resources....Thus, we anticipate that quality affirmative action programs can be associated with improved future business prospects and higher stock prices.

It can be concluded that affirmative action has a short-term negative financial impact on organisations. If implemented as a high-quality affirmative action initiative, focused on the long-term, it seems as if affirmative action can eventually be utilised for the organisation's financial benefit.

### 2.5.6 The effect of affirmative action on the workforce

The final group on which affirmative action has an influence is the workforce. This includes the existing workforce amongst which the affirmative action appointees are placed, as well as the affirmative action appointees.

One of the organisation's first objectives should be to sensitise its workforce to accommodate the proposed affirmative action process. Should this not be done, it can have a negative impact on the performance of both groups of employees, namely the affirmative action appointees and the rest of the workforce. De Vries (1991, p.89) sees this as follows:

In die RSA sal daar rekening gehou moet word met die feit dat die regstelling van agterstande van bepaalde kultuurgroepe in 'n land met 'n heterogene bevolking, deur hulle amptelik bo ander te bevoordeel, baie maklik tot gevolg kan hê dat die regstelling van geleenthede en fasiliteite aan die een groep kan meebring dat albei groepe swakker presteer of dat die algemene prestasiepeil ook by die eerste groep daaronder kan ly.

Most employees who are not included in affirmative action as well as those disadvantaged employees who are not accommodated, have negative feelings towards affirmative action.

Tsukudu (1996, p.15) refers to research findings to proof this assumption:

A survey of white male MBA students found that most respondents had serious reservations about women's and black people's capabilities to compete on equal terms with white males. These reservations are rooted in the stereotypical belief that women and black people are inherently incapable of competing and succeeding in the business world. This is further compounded by the resistance to affirmative action.

Human resource consultant Stan McKay is quoted in an article titled *Appointees face double-edged sword* (1994, p.27) as stating the following with regard to the effects that affirmative action has on the workforce:

“It's not long before you find yourself in a hostile environment,” says McKay. “Your peers resent your presence. They see you as a token appointment, and begrudge what they regard as your inflated earnings. They feel threatened because they believe you will be promoted above them on the basis of your skin colour rather than merit....It's even possible they will do whatever they can to put you in a poor light.”

The majority of effects affirmative action could have on the workforce seems to be negative. Most employees will resent affirmative action appointees and will feel that they do not deserve to occupy the position they were appointed in. Competition amongst employees will heighten because of their fear that persons will be promoted on the basis of their skin colour rather than on merit.

The effects affirmative action has on the workforce can be divided into four categories, and will be discussed in the ensuing sections.

#### *2.5.6.1 The effect on disadvantaged groups*

Affirmative action is primarily aimed at the upliftment of blacks. Black people, who suffered under the previous apartheid era's discrimination, are usually eager to reap the benefits of affirmative action (Hattingh, 1994, p.17).

The tendency in most organisations, however, is to recruit blacks for managerial positions, and not for positions lower than that of supervisor. The majority of the black population do not possess the necessary qualifications to be placed in these executive positions and are therefore not accommodated, which will result in them to view affirmative action as negative (Economist, 1995, p.16). The majority of the black population feel left out and usually feel resentment towards their black colleagues who are favoured in the affirmative action process. Badenhorst (1994, p.19) argues the following in this respect:

Afgesien van die ooglopend diskriminerende gevalle is dit duidelik dat regstellende optrede die mense met vernuf bevoordeel, maar niks doen aan die posisie van die ongeskooldes nie. Regstellende optrede laat hul posisie eerder versleg.

Disadvantaged groups that are often neglected when affirmative action appointments are made, are women, the disabled and minority race groups. The effect this has on these groups is usually negative. Women also feel resentment towards affirmative action beneficiaries as they (women) were also excluded in the previous dispensation. Black women are in the unique position that they are doubly disadvantaged, race and gender-wise, should they be excluded from affirmative

action interventions.

The effect affirmative action has on the disadvantaged groups will have to be considered by organisations before they implement their affirmative action strategies, as the wrong approach will cause affirmative action to impact negatively on the majority of these groups.

#### 2.5.6.2 *The effect on supervisors*

The responsibility for the successful implementation of affirmative action usually becomes that of management. The supervisors of the new affirmative action appointees are therefore directly influenced by this. The affirmative action candidates' supervisors have the responsibility of ensuring that these employees adjust to the new work environment and become effective as soon as possible. This usually results in the supervisors feeling resentful towards the affirmative action process, as they feel they do not have the time to nourish the affirmative action beneficiaries, whom they also consider to be inferior.

Representing the bottom level of managerial positions, supervisors usually feel threatened by affirmative action, as their own positions are now in danger and their terrain is now being invaded by black newcomers (Mkhwanazi, 1993, p.15). Supervisors believe that future promotions will befall the affirmative action beneficiaries, which contributes to their negative feelings towards affirmative action in general. This usually results in them improving their performance in the hope that this will counteract the process of blacks being favoured above them when promotion opportunities occur (Venter, 1994, p.37).

Another aspect threatening supervisors and managers is the difference in culture between them, being predominantly white and male, and the affirmative action appointees, who are usually black (Montsi, 1993, p.54). Most white managers believe that blacks have inferior education, a lack of experience and that they will be unable to cope in the corporate world. Thomas (1996, p.37) describes this attitude as follows:

Lack of personal identification with and commitment to affirmative action on the part of senior management and non-managerial staff, even the overt or covert sabotage of

affirmative action programmes, was noted by CEOs and HRDs. This trend was reflected in some of the common perceptions held of black employees, for example, mediocre level of functioning in the corporate environment, lack of contribution to business and absence of initiative.

Becker (1995, p.8) has found that this trend is very much alive in the United States of America.

Supervisors are therefore directly influenced by affirmative action. Their reaction to their organisation's affirmative action initiative is usually negative. Some good may, however, come from this as their performance might improve as a result of the new competition the affirmative action appointees represent.

#### 2.5.6.3 *Effect on employees peripheral to affirmative action*

People who are excluded from the benefits of the affirmative action process, namely whites, usually have negative feelings regarding the process as well as the persons who benefit from it. This usually causes the process to fail, as explained by McDonald (1994, p.49):

Research into the attitudes of white, male managers into the advancement of blacks has revealed that these attitudes are probably the single most important contributing factor to failure of affirmative action, equal opportunity and other programmes directed at changing the colour of the management cadre in South Africa.

Most white employees will do their utmost to undermine the success of affirmative action by not giving any support to its beneficiaries. They excel in negative stereotyping and the fostering of negative expectations. Affirmative action appointees are therefore ostracised wherever possible. Thomas (1995, p.75) explains that these reactions are manifested in stereotyping, negative expectations of recruits, resentment and a lack of accurate performance feedback to promote development. Differences are regarded as weaknesses, people are excluded from challenging assignments, scrutiny is heightened and barriers are placed in the way of informal networks. Fischer (1996, p.32) confirms the prevalence of "a white backlash where white males will actively (overtly as well as covertly) attempt to undermine the affirmative action programme and its beneficiaries. This will sabotage such a programme and ultimately lead to its demise."

White males usually undermine affirmative action and its beneficiaries in order to maintain the executive positions they have held over many years. Tsukudu (1996, p.14) refers to research findings of a study conducted by Human in 1991 as proving this:

Research shows that discrimination on the basis of race and gender is institutionalised in South African organisations and white male managers as an elite group continue to maintain their privileged position by closing off opportunities to white women and blacks.

Most whites feel threatened by affirmative action as merit is not taken into account when new appointments or promotions are made (Waltman, 1995, p.26). In particular, young white South Africans, feel embittered to suffer from an initiative that is supposed to correct injustices caused not by them, but by their predecessors (Blum, 1994, p.40).

One of the major detrimental effects affirmative action has on employees peripheral to affirmative action, is that they tend to withdraw from competing for higher positions as they believe that these positions will be filled with affirmative action beneficiaries in any case (De Vries, 1991, p.89).

Affirmative action therefore seems to represent an unwelcome, discriminatory process to persons peripheral to it.

#### 2.5.6.4 *Effect on affirmative action beneficiaries*

The persons who are the beneficiaries of affirmative action initiatives are in a unique position, in that other employees, including the previously advantaged and disadvantaged, react negatively towards them.

The affirmative action subjects are firstly regarded as “protected game” who will be appointed and promoted regardless of their individual performance or merit. These individuals are usually uncertain whether they really deserve the appointment or promotion that resulted from affirmative action (*Appointees face double-edged sword*, 1994, p.27; Waltman, 1995, p.27). The results of the American affirmative action effort confirm the foregoing statement, according

to Andrews (1992, p.37):

The situation of black Americans has not improved after two decades of affirmative action, it has in fact weakened...the self-respect, and therefore the honour, of black people are injured through affirmative action, because they are never sure whether they are appointed or promoted on merit or through favouritism.

Most South African affirmative action appointees are equally suspicious of affirmative action appointments or promotions. They feel that the fact that they are affirmative action beneficiaries labels them as being incompetent (Ryan, 1994, p.38). This may cause the affirmative action subjects to become unsure of themselves. They will also become less competitive because of the knowledge that they will be promoted in any case.

The second problem affirmative action appointees experience, is the ostracisation by other employees, the moment they commence their duties at the new organisation. Most employees, managerial and other, perhaps do not know how to approach the affirmative action subjects and find it easier to ignore them (Venter, 1994, p.35).

The third problem relates to the fact that other members of the disadvantaged group, blame the affirmative action beneficiaries for being appointed or promoted instead of them. As only a few blacks possess the necessary qualifications, they are usually the ones who benefit from affirmative action. The majority of the disadvantaged population is thus still left in the cold.

The fourth problem affirmative action subjects encounter, is that they are caught in the crossfire between black and white employees. White employees, on the one hand, feel threatened by all the new black faces in executive positions, and blacks, on the other, feel their fellow blacks, who are being appointed or promoted, are betraying them by conforming to the white corporate culture.

The final problem black affirmative action beneficiaries may experience, is their elevated status, *vis-à-vis* their capabilities. Some affirmative action appointees are unable to deliver in accordance with the demands of the position they are appointed in. Should they then decide to leave their present company for another, the problem follows them as they will again be

appointed in positions beyond their capabilities. This results in the reinforcement of the negative stereotyping amongst whites regarding the incapability of blacks to perform.

One of the most dominant effects affirmative action in South Africa has on its beneficiaries, is the so-called "job-hopping" syndrome. Because of the predominantly negative effects of affirmative action, most of the affirmative action appointees feel unsatisfied in their present positions. According to Thomas (1996, p.48) this is usually due to the organisational climate and culture not being accommodating to affirmative action beneficiaries:

Management has preserved existing corporate cultures, historically moulded by white males, to which new recruits are expected to assimilate. This may account for the high occupational mobility amongst top black affirmative action appointees who enter organisational environments which are "foreign" and to which they must assimilate, and who, for a higher wage, feel little loyalty to their current employees.

When a better offer comes up, these affirmative action subjects are prone to leave the company for greener pastures. The problem is, however, that the situation regarding affirmative action is similar in most organisations. The affirmative action subject, therefore, never really experiences job satisfaction, which results in the recurrence of "job-hopping" (Thomas, 1996, p.48).

It can be concluded that the implementation of affirmative action has a vast effect on its beneficiaries. The majority of these effects are of a negative nature and contradict the notion contained in the word "beneficiary." The subjects of affirmative action, who are supposed to be benefiting from the process, are instead impaired. This is ironic, taking into account that the motive for affirmative action is to "repair" injustices of the past. The main reason for this situation seems to be the tendency of organisations to practise affirmative action in reaction to political coercion that results in affirmative action beneficiaries becoming tokens and "puppets" in a "numbers game."

### **2.5.7 Conclusion**

On examining the effects of affirmative action the conclusion can be made that the negative

effects by far outnumber the positive outcomes associated with it. It would therefore seem that the success of affirmative action in South Africa is, similar to that in the USA, controversial. The main reasons for affirmative action being considered unsuccessful seems to be the following:

- The implementation of affirmative action by means of preferential treatment that invariably results in “window-dressing,” favouritism and tokenism. This in turn has the effect that managers, supervisors and employees peripheral to the process, experience it as reverse discrimination and question its fairness. A result of this chain of events is the negative stereotyping of affirmative action and the ostracisation of affirmative action beneficiaries. The affirmative action beneficiary therefore feels rejected and left out. He or she experiences the interpersonal work environment as hostile and as a result show symptoms associated with a low self-esteem, that more than often lead them to escapism behaviour, which in turn enhance the “job hopping” syndrome.
- Affirmative action, being discriminatory in nature, results in persons not benefiting from the process, to actively resist its implementation or to indirectly limit its success by not giving their full co-operation. Individuals peripheral to the affirmative action process tend to engage in negative stereotyping with regard to its potential success and then, by withholding their collaboration or by opposing the process, contribute to its failure, that in turn result in a so-called “self-fulfilling prophesy.”
- The process of affirmative action has an aim to uplift members of previously disadvantaged groups in the sense that they should be promoted and afforded positions in the higher managerial ranks within the organisation. Being disadvantaged in the past, however, results in these beneficiaries not possessing the necessary experience and qualifications to effectively function in these positions. This situation, in turn, leads to a lowering of standards with respect to job effectiveness and efficiency, and impairs the attainment of organisational goals regarding productivity and excellence. This, as a final consequence, enhances negative stereotyping of the affirmative action process and the ostracisation of affirmative action beneficiaries, in that their inadequacies usually places a higher workload on the persons who do have the necessary expertise.
- Organisations (pressurised by current and impending legislation, black labour unions, and moral stances) tend to approach the implementation of affirmative action fervently,

without contemplating the necessary preparation (by means of a sensitising process) of the organisation and its incumbents for its implementation. This threat to the *status quo* results in resistance to change (manifested by a lack of commitment, subtle sabotaging of the process, and hostility towards beneficiaries) which, in turn, has a negative effect on the organisational climate. The organisational climate will become more uncertain and suspicious regarding management's motives for implementing affirmative action. Employees not being targeted by affirmative action initiatives, will experience its implementation as a threat to their job security, and will react (typical to human nature) in a defensive and even hostile manner. An organisational climate which manifests these characteristics will obviously not be advantageous to affirmative action success.

## 2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Affirmative action is a multifaceted construct, defined in a variety of ways by different authors. Due to resistance to, or failure of affirmative action, it is referred to in an assortment of terms.

Affirmative action strategies span a wide range of organisational practices, often representing quick-fix solutions and soft options. It can be concluded that each of the strategies, regarding its effectiveness, has its positive aspects as well as its shortcomings. The ideal springboard for affirmative action to be successful therefore seems to be a strategy consisting of a combination of the effective elements of the different strategies. The success of affirmative action interventions is questionable, due to the implementation of reverse discrimination strategies, resulting in resistance to and negative stereotyping of the affirmative action process.

The implementation of affirmative action affects a wide assortment of role players, including people peripheral to the process. It also has an influence on a number of organisational processes. The influence is mostly negative and contributes to the resistance to affirmative action, surprisingly also amongst its beneficiaries.

It can be deduced that affirmative action is a complex and long-term process, representing a challenge to organisations, and especially to management, to approach it in a situational manner

by means of a selective approach, utilising the effective elements of the different strategies and then to proactively manage the diversity it creates.

With reference to the aim of this chapter, it can be stated that the concept of affirmative action was defined, the different organisational approaches and strategies concerning affirmative action identified, the different affirmative action strategies arranged in the form of a continuum, and the effects of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes, resources and incumbents, analysed.

Chapter 3 focuses on the measurement of affirmative action success.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THE MEASUREMENT OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS**

The aim of this chapter is to analyse the theoretical background to affirmative action success, identify and categorise the different measures of affirmative action success (distinguishing between direct and indirect measures relating to the input, throughput and output phases of the affirmative action process), and justify the use of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries as a measure of affirmative action success.

#### **3.1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS**

Taking into account the variety of organisational approaches to affirmative action, the wide spectrum of affirmative action strategies and the diverse effects of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes and incumbents, it stands to reason that the unravelling of what affirmative action success embodies, represents a demanding task.

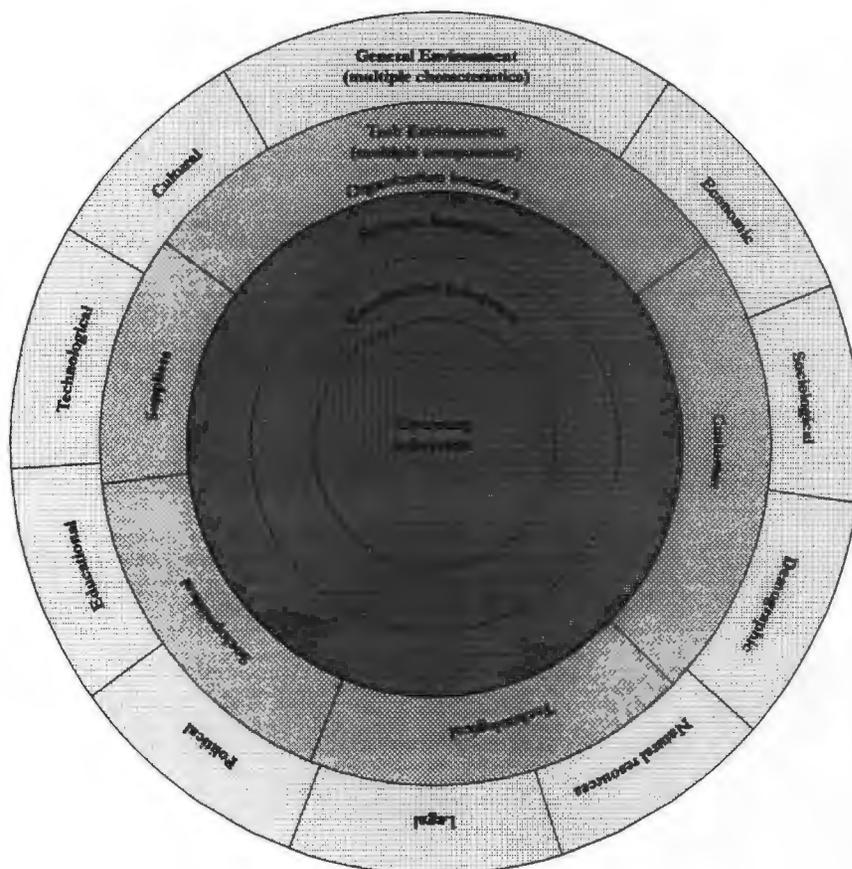
The complexity of the evaluation of the success of affirmative action can be demonstrated by expounding affirmative action as a process within a multidimensional context, according to the assumptions related to the systems approach to the organisation, as conceptualised by Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, pp.111-113; 130-153). This conceptualisation relates to the metaphor of the organisation representing an organism (refer to section 1.5 in Chapter 1).

An organisation is seen as a subsystem of its broader environment (supra system). The organisation is therefore an open system that exchanges information, energy, and materials with its environment. The organisational environment consists of a societal (general) environment and a task (specific) environment.

Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, p.135) state that “many forces at the societal, general, or macro environmental level influence organizations,” and quote Perrow (1970, p.94) in this respect:

In the United States we take for granted a whole set of cultural conditions which permit the efficient functioning of complex organizations - such as literacy, authority relations, and an emphasis upon achievement as a basis of judging people rather than characteristics ascribed by birth. But it is a mistake to take these conditions for granted, for they explain a good deal about our society and its organizations.

These macro environmental forces consist of a conglomeration of characteristics (refer to Figure 3.1) and impact on the structuring, functioning, goals, and survival of organisations.



**FIGURE 3.1: RELATIONSHIP OF GENERAL AND TASK ENVIRONMENTS TO THE ORGANISATIONAL SYSTEM (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, p.139)**

The cultural, educational, political, legal, and demographic characteristics of the general organisational environment (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, p.136), applied to the South African

context, have an obvious connotation to the demand for, and success of affirmative action. The cultural characteristics of the macro-environment include historical background (apartheid), ideologies (democratisation), values (equity), and norms (fairness). The educational characteristics of the South African society include the general literacy level of the population, and the proportion of the people with a high level of professional and/or specialised training (black educational backlog). The political characteristics include the general political climate (democratisation; reconstruction and development; labour unions), the degree of concentration of political power (black majority rule), and the political party system (ANC-dominated). The legal characteristics have a bearing on constitutional considerations (non-discrimination), and specific laws concerning control of organisations (Labour Relations Act; Employment Equity Act). The demographic characteristics include the nature of human resources available in the society (black majority), and the concentration of the population (urbanisation).

It can be concluded that, concerning affirmative action, the macro-environment of South African organisations consists of a variety of characteristics representing an assortment of metaphors and therefore demanding of the organisation a variety of actions. The success of these affirmative action endeavours is also evaluated according to a multiplicity of criteria, in some cases of a conflicting nature. It can, for instance, be argued that affirmative action success has been achieved when the strategy the organisation has embarked on, has been implemented. The question is however whether the strategy concerned is appropriate and whether the outcome of such a strategy serves the purposes of affirmative action?

An equal employment opportunity strategy, for example, may be executed successfully, in the sense that members of all race groups are availed the opportunity to apply for vacant positions, but will in fact not be successful in that, due to the backlog in attaining qualifications, blacks will in the end not be appointed. Similarly, a strategy of black advancement may be successfully implemented, but will not be effective if the beneficiaries of such a strategy are not developed and are regarded as mere “puppets” of window-dressing and tokenism.

The task environment (refer to Figure 3.1) of an organisation contains more specific forces which are relevant to the decision-making and transformation processes of the individual

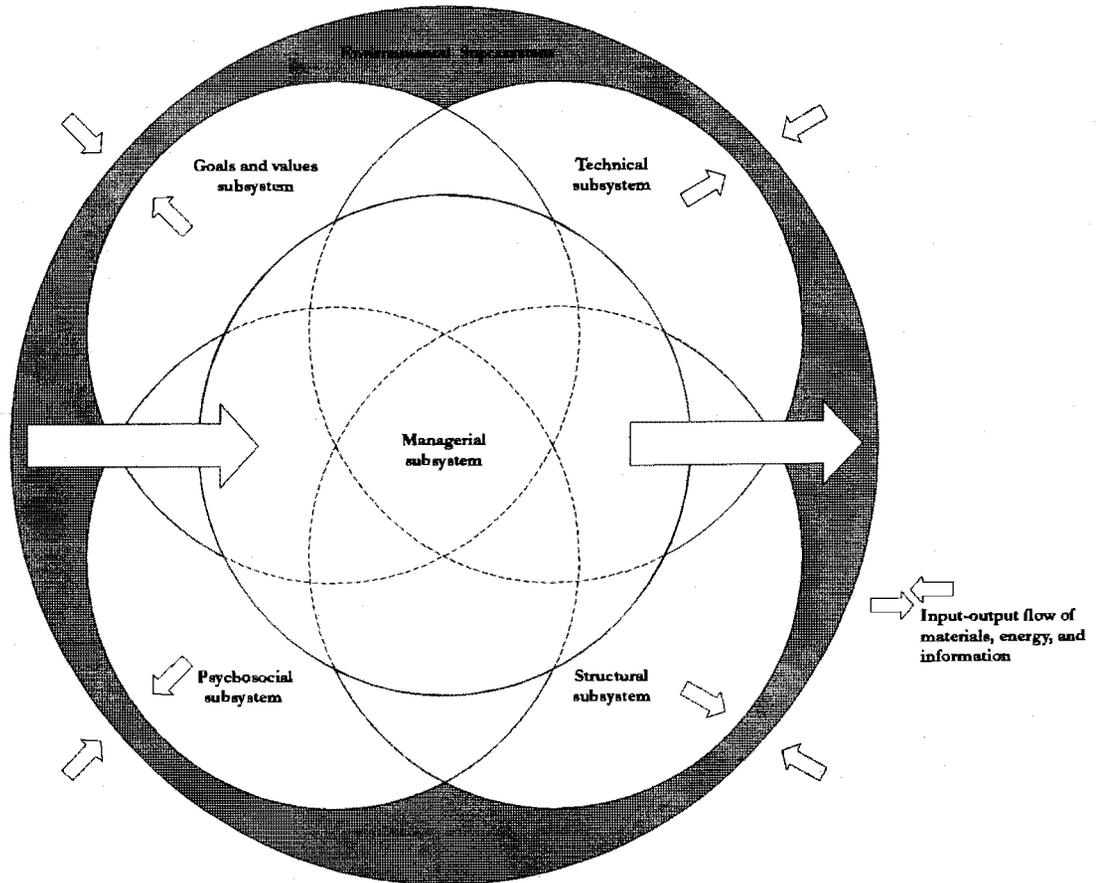
organisation (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, p.137).

Regarding affirmative action, two of the task environment components as described by Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, p.138), are relevant. These refer to the customer and the socio-political components. The customer component constitutes the distributors and actual users of products and services, and has a bearing on the so-called client base rationale for the implementation of affirmative action. This has to do with the composition of the changing external customer profile and the concomitant pressure on organisations to change their internal workforce composition. The socio-political component, *inter alia*, includes government regulatory control over industry (Employment Equity Act) and relationships with parastatals and labour unions with jurisdiction in the organisation concerned. In evaluating the success of the affirmative action efforts of a particular organisation, these task environment components will apply their own unique criteria.

According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, pp.111-113) the organisation itself has a unique internal composition, comprising of a number of subsystems (refer to Figure 3.2). These subsystems are in a dynamic interaction with each other and this interaction ultimately determines the outcomes of the organisation's endeavours. The organisation is viewed as a living organism consisting of people, and therefore in essence a social system. Katz and Kahn (1966, p.33) explain this perspective as follows:

Social structures are essentially contrived systems. They are made up of men and are imperfect systems. They can come apart at the seams overnight, but they can also outlast by centuries the biological organisms which originally created them. The cement which holds them together is essentially psychological rather than biological. Social systems are anchored in the attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, motivations, habits, and expectations of human beings.

Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, pp.113-115) conceptualise the organisation as consisting of five subsystems, namely the goals and values subsystem, the technical subsystem, the psychological subsystem, the structural subsystem, and the managerial subsystem. These subsystems are interrelated, interdependent and function in an integrated manner.



**FIGURE 3.2: THE ORGANISATIONAL SYSTEM (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, p.112)**

The implementation of an affirmative action strategy in a particular organisation therefore represents an intervention that has an impact on all of these subsystems and affects the character of the organisation that, in turn, has an effect on the functioning of the organisation.

The goals and value subsystem refer to the organisation's link with its broader sociocultural environment and can be viewed according to the premise that an organisation embodies a subsystem of its society. The organisation therefore strives towards goals which are determined by the broader system that reflects the values of its social environment (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974, p.111). Should the organisation's environment therefore demand the implementation of

affirmative action, the organisation must conform to this requirement. Should the implementation of affirmative action, however, result in outcomes that are incongruent with the prevailing social values (productivity, excellence) in its environment, the organisation is faced with conflicting demands which, in turn, will have a conflicting result in the event of the success of affirmative action interventions being evaluated.

According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, p.111) the technical subsystem is associated with “the knowledge required for the performance of tasks, including the techniques used in the transformation of inputs into outputs. It is determined by the task requirements of the organization and varies depending upon the particular activities.”

Should affirmative action efforts, therefore, result in the appointment or promotion of employees who, due to their backlog in education and experience, are not capable of effectively and efficiently performing their jobs, the success of affirmative action could be questioned.

The psychosocial subsystem is composed of individuals and groups in interaction. Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, p.111) elaborate as follows:

It consists of individual behavior and motivation, status and role relationships, group dynamics, and influence systems. It is also affected by sentiments, values, attitudes, expectations, and aspirations of the people in the organization. Obviously, this psychosocial subsystem is affected by external environmental forces as well as by the tasks, technology, and structure of the internal organization. These forces set the “organizational climate” within which the human participants perform their roles and activities.

It can therefore be concluded that affirmative action interventions have its greatest impact on the organisation’s psychosocial subsystem. The success of affirmative action endeavours will be dependent on the congruency of such efforts with the sentiments, values, needs, attitudes, expectations, and aspirations of the organisation’s incumbents, including the employees in supervisory and managerial positions.

The success of affirmative action will also, more specifically, be dependent on the way in which its implementation results in its beneficiaries’ evaluation thereof in terms of the realisation of

their expectations regarding need-fulfilment, growth, development, utilisation, career progression, acceptance by other incumbents, participation in informal group activities, and status within and external to the organisation. The last-mentioned success factor concerning affirmative action, can be associated with the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries.

The structural subsystem involves the ways in which the tasks of the organisation are differentiated and co-ordinated. This includes the rules and procedures applicable in the organisation and the patterns of authority, communication and work flow (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1974, pp.111-112).

Regarding the structural subsystem, affirmative action success will be dependent on the effect its implementation has on the organisation's standard operating procedures, the organisation's hierarchical structure, and the organisation's leadership philosophy.

According to Kast and Rosenzweig (1974, p.113) the managerial subsystem "spans the entire organization by relating the organization to its environment, setting the goals, developing comprehensive, strategic, and operational plans, designing the structures, and establishing control processes." With respect to the process of affirmative action, the managerial subsystem has the (dubious) task of satisfying the demands of its macro environment concerning the implementation of affirmative action, while at the same time managing its effects on organisational processes and the organisation's incumbents, and in the long run ensuring the organisation's goal achievement, standards, productivity and excellence. The success of affirmative action efforts will therefore be dependent on the way in which the management of an organisation is successful in its implementation as well as in the managing of its effects and the diversity it creates.

It is important to note that the elements of the conceptualisation of the organisation as an open system, to a large extent correlates with the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests, as explained in section 4.3 in Chapter 4.

It can be concluded that the success of affirmative action depends on diverse and multifaceted

factors present in the organisational environment as well as in the different subsystems internal to the organisation. The evaluation of the success of affirmative action interventions, therefore, represents a complex process.

### **3.2 MEASURES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS**

The success of affirmative action is difficult to measure, due to the fact that the consequences of affirmative action processes are diverse and can range from input variables, to throughput variables, to output variables. The results of affirmative action may furthermore have direct as well as indirect effects on the organisation, its processes and its incumbents. It is however, for both the advocates of affirmative action and the bodies who implement it, crucial to evaluate the success of the strategies that have been executed. This is confirmed by the strong emphasis on the so-called affirmative action auditing, currently prevalent in many South African organisations.

Measures of affirmative action success can be grouped according to the directness of the measuring approach as well as the phase of the process during which the measurement is done. The measures used to evaluate the success of affirmative action will also be determined by the nature of the strategy the organisation concerned has adopted.

#### **3.2.1 Measures of affirmative action success used in previous research efforts**

In an effort to tap the market of intellectual resources, the approaches to, and results of the measurement of affirmative action success as embodied in previous research efforts, abroad and in South Africa, are examined.

##### *3.2.1.1 The United States of America (USA), Canada, New Zealand and the Netherlands*

The majority of the psychological research on affirmative action in the above-mentioned countries analysed attitudes towards equal employment opportunity and affirmative action.

This approach is based on the assumption that supportive attitudes among managers and employees represent an important factor in determining affirmative action success (Hitt & Keats, 1984). Kravitz et al (1996, p.5) explain this assumption in more detail:

Given the recency and impact of equal employment opportunity and affirmative action legislation, research focused on examination of basic attitudinal data is important. What do people think affirmative action is? Do they favor it? In what form(s)? What form(s) do people find objectionable? Answers to these questions will assist legislators and organizations in their efforts to minimize the conflict associated with affirmative action.

Researchers have measured attitudes towards affirmative action in various ways, including opinion polls (Sigelman & Welch, 1991), interviews (Goldsmith et al, 1989), questionnaire surveys (Bell, 1996; Kravitz & Van Epps, 1995; Stout & Buffum, 1993), preference for fictitious candidates applying for a fellowship (Athur, Doverspike & Fuentes, 1992), fairness ratings of appointment scenarios (Heilman, McCullough & Gilbert, 1996), laboratory studies (Brutus & Ryan, 1994; Veilleux & Tougas, 1989), ratings on the merit of appointment scenarios (Joly, Pelchat & Tougas, 1993; Tougas et al, 1995), ratings on the structure of affirmative action plans (Bell, McLaughlin & Harrison, 1996; Kravitz, 1995; Summers, 1995) and experimental studies and respondent analysis on the effect of mediators on the rating of affirmative action plans (Bobo & Smith, 1994; Bobocel & Farrell, 1996; Crosby, 1994; Fletcher & Chalmers, 1991; Kravitz, 1995; Lynch, 1992; Tougas & Beaton, 1993).

The major results of research focussing on the measurement of attitudes regarding affirmative action, indicate that the structure of an affirmative action programme will influence reactions to it. Fairness ratings of affirmative action plans increased along with the superiority, in terms of qualifications, of the selected over the rejected candidate (Gilliland & Haptonstahl, 1995). Nacoste (1995) found that an individual's understanding of what affirmative action entails will positively influence his or her attitude towards it. Evidence was found that the public has a poor understanding of affirmative action and that opposition could be attributed to this misunderstanding (Crosby, 1994; Eberhardt & Fiske, 1994). Opinion poll results showed that White Americans strongly support equity and the elimination of discrimination but are opposed to preferential treatment (Lynch & Beer, 1990). Black Americans, on the other hand, are more supportive of preferential treatment but have a clear preference for equal opportunity (Fine,

1992). Other studies found that people prefer merit-based decisions to any type of preferential treatment (Brutus & Ryan, 1994; Tougas & Veilleux, 1988; Tougas & Veilleux, 1989). Although respondents support compensatory actions and diversity efforts, they prefer to limit affirmative action to the elimination of discrimination (Summers, 1995).

A number of research efforts focused on attempts to influence affirmative action evaluations. This was done by providing information about affirmative action programme details and by justifying affirmative action programmes. Gamson and Modigliani (1987) found that affirmative action can be conceptualised in three ways, namely remedial action, delicate balance and preferential treatment (of which the most common conceptualisation was reverse discrimination). A fourth conceptualisation of affirmative action, namely affirmative action as a source of cultural diversity, was emphasised by Levi and Fried (1994) and Thomas (1990). Bobocel and Farrel (1996) and Murrell et al (1994) found that providing a justification for affirmative action resulted in a more positive evaluation, than in the case of not providing justification.

The identity of the group targeted by affirmative action also represented a moderating variable. White respondents were more positive towards affirmative action efforts aimed at women than those aimed at blacks or other minority groups (Clayton, 1992; Sniderman et al, 1991).

It was further found that the setting in which affirmative action was implemented had an effect on respondents support of such actions. Whites were found to be more supportive of affirmative action in educational settings than in organisational context (Bobo & Smith, 1994; Kluegel & Smith, 1983).

No studies could be found which examined the relationship between the objective need for affirmative action programmes and affirmative action attitudes. It was however found that people may support certain kinds of affirmative action if they believe that past discrimination warrants it (Kluegel, 1990).

Individual differences among respondents have an effect on attitudes towards affirmative action. Respondents were found to be more positive towards affirmative action programmes aimed at their own demographic group (Kinder & Sanders, 1990; Sigelman & Welch, 1991). Support for affirmative action programmes is stronger among respondents who have personally experienced discrimination (Fried et al, 1996). Bell et al (1996) found that attitudes towards affirmative action programmes were more positive among females than among men.

A few studies found that respondents were more critical towards black applicants when it was mentioned that the organisation concerned had the intention to hire members of minority groups (Garcia et al, 1981; Norcraft & Martin, 1982).

Limited research indicated that perceived relations between parties will be strained, should the non-target group have negative reactions to affirmative action programmes (Heilman, 1994; Heilman et al, 1996).

Limitations of the above-mentioned research is that most of the studies were conducted detached from the context of actual affirmative action programmes and in many cases surveyed respondents (*ie* undergraduate students) who had little experience of, or contact with affirmative action. Eberhart and Fiske (1994) indicate that the majority of research on attitudes towards affirmative action programmes is primarily concerned with content differences across persons and contexts rather than process differences.

Only five studies could be found that targeted affirmative action beneficiaries. Chacko (1982) surveyed 70 women in managerial and supervisory positions in a variety of organisations. He found that women who believed gender was the reason for their appointment, reported lower job commitment and satisfaction and greater role ambiguity than women who did not believe gender played an important part in their hiring. Heilman, Simon and Repper (1987), however, did not observe detrimental effects of gender-based selection on measures of task motivation or interest. Similarly, Turner and Pratkanis (1993) and Turner, Pratkanis and Hardaway (1991) found that selection on the basis of sex did not directly impair self-reported motivation for a task. Taylor (1994) examined the attitudes of 391 respondents representing minority groups

(including 319 white women, 40 black women and 32 black men) working for organisations that either did or did not implement affirmative action programmes. According to a number of measures (including self-reports of job satisfaction, working by choice as opposed to money, desire for an enriched job life satisfaction and happiness), white women working for organisations with affirmative action programmes did not significantly differ from white women working for organisations without affirmative action programmes. Black respondents, however, reported a greater desire for an enriched job (*ie* a job with greater degrees of ambition, chances for advancement and feeling of accomplishment).

It is important to note that virtually none of the above-mentioned research dealt with reactions of affirmative action candidates to race-based selection procedures (in other words, affirmative action initiatives) and that there is a clear need for such research (Kravitz et al, 1996, p.51).

A crucial question raised by Kravitz et al (1996, p.51) is how job satisfaction, organisational commitment and similar variables are related to reactions to the organisation's affirmative action programme. No research could be found on this important issue.

### 3.2.1.2 *South Africa (SA)*

Probably due to the relevance of affirmative action in the South African context, a relatively large number of research efforts have been conducted locally with a bearing on affirmative action. Surprisingly only a limited number of research efforts targeted the measurement of affirmative action success. A literature search identified some 180 South African research projects relating to affirmative action of which 16 (including current research) could be directly linked to the measuring of affirmative action interventions. Of these, information could be obtained of seven completed studies, which will be reviewed in the ensuing discussion.

Wright (1994) researched attitudes to affirmative action and the perceived impact of an affirmative action programme by means of a comparative study based on race and gender. She used a mail questionnaire (Likert scale) as well as in-depth interviews to evaluate the attitudes of men and women, black and white, to affirmative action and examined the perceived impact

of an affirmative action programme on beneficiaries as well as non-beneficiaries. Wright's results indicate that respondents perceive affirmative action as a policy to primarily address the educational disadvantages of black people in South Africa. Attitudes to affirmative action reflected a negative orientation amongst whites, but a positive orientation amongst blacks. Respondents, however, showed an acceptance of the need for affirmative action for black people but disagreement existed concerning the method of implementation. Gender in affirmative action received less consideration in general. Affirmative action beneficiaries did not perceive affirmative action policies and programmes as stigmatising or negatively affecting their self-esteem. Non-beneficiaries, however, were of the opinion that affirmative action could result in white resentment.

Du Plessis (1995) did research on perceptions of supervisors in a local government, concerning the effects of affirmative action on productivity. She developed an attitude grid and found that respondents from all race groups believed that affirmative action can result in an increase in productivity in the long run, if implemented correctly. Less consensus, however, could be found in affirmative action areas identified as having a negative impact on productivity. No differences in opinion were identified between white Afrikaans-speaking and English-speaking respondents.

Martins (1995) conducted a statistical study regarding the consensus amongst employees (on the different hierarchical levels) of a large organisation, with respect to their responses to a questionnaire containing 75 items related to affirmative action. A total of 1 542 employees, representing management, supervisors, non-supervisory staff, and employee representatives, completed the questionnaire. Martins applied a factor analysis statistical programme to interpret the data obtained. Seven factors with a high loading were isolated, namely relationship and trust, skills development, organisational values, affirmative action programmes, recruitment and promotions, company image, and employee representation.

Schreuder (1995) evaluated the psychological implications of an affirmative action programme on beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. A questionnaire was used consisting of an adapted Likert scale measuring the effects of affirmative action. Schreuder analysed his results by means of factor analysis and identified three loaded factors for the whole sample, namely stress, work

behaviour, and role behaviour. For the beneficiary sample, three factors were identified, *ie* stress, adjustment behaviour, and role behaviour. The data obtained from non-beneficiaries resulted in loaded factors related to uncertainty, work behaviour, and stress. Adjustment problems in the case of beneficiaries and uncertainty in the case of non-beneficiaries were found to be unique factors.

Serfontein (1996) investigated the attitudes of store managers in a large retail organisation, with regard to racism and affirmative action. He surveyed a sample of 20 store managers, country wide, by means of two questionnaires. The Duckitt S.R. Scale (measuring subtle racism) and the Human and Hofmeyr Questionnaire on affirmative action, were used. Positive attitudes were measured with respect to equal employment opportunity, non-segregated facilities, equality in the workplace as a prerequisite for long-term social peace in the organisation, the ability of blacks to perform on par with whites (given equal education and experience), absence of fear with respect to affirmative action, and the insignificance of stereotypes in decision making. Negative attitudes were found concerning a preference not to work with affirmative action beneficiaries, a fairly high (43%) predisposition towards racism, resistance to additional training of members of previously disadvantaged groups, subjectivity amongst non-white managers, lack of understanding of the concept of diversity, a discriminatory propensity towards women, and ostracisation of black managers who do not perform up to standard.

Castle (1996) evaluated, by means of in-depth interviews, the perceptions regarding affirmative action of 46 predominantly black managers, involved in affirmative action programmes in four large business organisations. She also evaluated policy documents, records and reports on affirmative action in the participating organisations. The findings suggest that corporate affirmative action programmes generally fail to provide black managers with a sense of purpose in or belonging to their organisations. The programmes also fail to address problems of racism and resistance to change. Castle also found that the ideological component of affirmative action is often underrated in programme design and that measures of accountability are neglected.

Fleetwood (1997) made an assessment of affirmative action in the motor industry by means of Nominal Group Technique sessions with a total of 61 managers. She found that management

commitment, appropriate training and development, employment equity, and the empowerment of people, contributed to the success of affirmative action. Participants, however, felt that racism, discrimination, and the unwillingness of management to accept changes, inhibited affirmative action success.

It can be concluded that, similar to the tendency with respect to overseas research efforts, research in South Africa mainly concentrated on the measurement of perceptions regarding the success of affirmative action and affirmative action initiatives. No research could be found in which the satisfaction, content, and sense of accomplishment of affirmative action beneficiaries were taken into account in order to determine the success of affirmative action interventions.

The present research will aim to rectify the above-mentioned negation and will attempt to ascertain the effects of affirmative action on its beneficiaries, in them being the persons to ultimately be advantaged by the process. This will be done by measuring the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries and comparing the result of such a measure with the effectiveness (according to the related theory) of the affirmative action strategy implemented by the organisation concerned. It is assumed that the more effective (according to related theory) the affirmative action strategy, the higher the level of the job satisfaction of beneficiaries will be.

### **3.2.2 Direct measures of affirmative action success**

Direct measures of affirmative action success are those that focus on the actions taken by the organisation, the way in which such actions are implemented, and the direct result of actions taken. Direct measures typically comprise of objective methods of evaluation, including quantitative calculations.

Charoux and Moerdyk (1997, p.36) list the following direct measures of the success of affirmative action interventions:

- The number of equal opportunity candidates appointed in positions previously held by whites.

- The number of previously disadvantaged persons in training.
- The financial investment in training and development.
- The length of service of affirmative action appointees.
- The number of affirmative action beneficiaries who are working competently.
- The number of affirmative action beneficiaries ready for advancement and who possesses the necessary skills and knowledge.

Hofmeyr (1993, pp.46-47) sees the following as direct measures of affirmative action success:

- A significant number of blacks, Coloureds and Asians occupying senior positions.
- A significant number of blacks, Coloureds and Asians supervising whites.

Wingrove (1993, p.162) considers the number of blacks in senior line positions and the number of blacks successfully doing former “white jobs” as direct indications of affirmative action success.

### **3.2.3 Indirect measures of affirmative action success**

Indirect measures of affirmative action success concentrate on inputs, throughput and outcomes peripheral to the actual affirmative action process. This may include measuring the effect of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes, finances, productivity, and incumbents.

Examples of indirect measures of affirmative action success are found in efforts aiming to assess the opinions of management, organisation members, and affirmative action beneficiaries with regard to the perceived success of the various affirmative action interventions (Kravitz et al, 1996).

On analysing the criteria for affirmative action success, proposed by Charoux and Moerdyk (1997, p.36) it can be concluded that the following represent indirect measures of affirmative action success:

- The ability of the organisation to appoint affirmative action beneficiaries into meaningful positions of real power.
- The ability of affirmative action appointees to perform effectively.
- The availability of clearly defined career paths.

Hofmeyr (1993, p.47) lists the following indirect measures of affirmative action success:

- The integration of affirmative action programmes with general management practices and strategies.
- Blacks, Coloureds and Asians occupying line functions and not just service roles.
- The micro organisational environment being equalised/normalised.
- A significant shift in white employees' attitudes and behaviour in favour of accepting blacks, Coloureds and Asians on a non-racial basis.
- Acceptance of blacks, Coloureds and Asians in the workplace and socially.

The following indirect measures of affirmative action success are proposed by Wingrove (1993, p.162):

- Blacks having real decision-making input.
- Positive visible active support and commitment given to the affirmative action strategy by top management.
- Total commitment by line management.
- Workplace and social acceptance of all by all.
- Positive union involvement.

An interesting indirect method of measuring affirmative action success, mentioned by Charoux and Moerdyk (1997, p.36), is the evaluation of the transparency of the affirmative action process. This criterion is often insisted on by black union representatives as to ensure that all stakeholders are afforded the opportunity to participate in the planning of the implementation of affirmative action interventions. Transparency refers to an openness and willingness by management to make all relevant information on the implementation of their affirmative action

initiatives known to all parties concerned. According to Charoux and Moerdyk (1997, p.36), the emphasising of a transparent affirmative action strategy results in the stakeholders demanding that “any such process would need to be monitored by an ‘independent’ external auditor or some ‘watch-dog’ structure on which they have representation.”

The so-called “job hopping” trend is also generally viewed as an inverse indication of affirmative action success (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997, p.36). It is argued that the less prone affirmative action appointees are to the “poaching” efforts of other organisations, the more successful the affirmative action efforts of the organisation are by which they were originally benefited. This indirect measure is also mentioned by Wingrove (1993, p.162) who refers to “lower turnover/higher retention rates” as a criterion of affirmative action success, and Hofmeyr (1993, p.47) stating that a “high retention rate of blacks, coloureds and Asians” represents an indication of affirmative action success.

### **3.2.4 Conclusion**

The measurement of the success of affirmative action interventions seems to be a complex matter. This is due to the fact that affirmative action represents a process with different phases. In the input phase its success may, for instance, be influenced by the nature of the affirmative action strategy, during the throughput stage, for example, the effect its implementation has on the organisation’s finances, and in the output phase, the number of affirmative action beneficiaries in managerial positions. It can further be concluded that the success of affirmative action is also evaluated by different means, depending on the party doing the evaluation. The organisation will therefore apply different measures, compared to those the black labour union implements.

It seems that affirmative action beneficiaries, apart from “head counting,” are seldom involved in the process of evaluating affirmative action success. This tendency is confirmed by Kravitz (1996, p.51). This represents a shortcoming in the evaluation of the success of affirmative action endeavours, in that the main target of affirmative action, namely its beneficiaries, are not considered. Taking into account the vast effect of the implementation of affirmative action on

the organisation and the concomitant reaction of the organisation's incumbents towards affirmative action beneficiaries (refer to section 2.5 in Chapter 2). It seems logical that affirmative action beneficiaries' experience of the process (as reflected in their job satisfaction), should be considered as an important indirect result of the implementation of affirmative action, and therefore a valuable criterium regarding its success.

### **3.3 CATEGORISATION OF THE MEASURES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS**

During the literature review concerning the evaluation of affirmative action success, it became clear that a large variety of measures exist. These measures can be associated with the different phases involved in the process of the implementation of affirmative action programmes.

An organisation first has to choose the actual strategy it wishes to implement and secondly has to devise inputs related to the chosen strategy. These inputs, be it a programme consisting of equal employment opportunity, black upliftment, black development, management of diversity, or a combination of these inputs, must then be implemented. Once the affirmative action programme is in place (the throughput phase), its result (the output phase) will become visible. The measurement of affirmative action success, however, entails not only the outcome of the programme, but also its effects during the input and throughput phases.

Evaluations regarding the success of affirmative action interventions, apart from being linked to the different phases of the process, can also consist of direct and indirect measures. Direct measures are closely related to the actual outcome of the affirmative action programme, such as the number of affirmative action beneficiaries appointed or promoted, while the indirect outcomes are associated with the peripheral effects the implementation has on the organisation, its processes and its incumbents. The indirect measures of affirmative action success, therefore, target aspects such as the organisational climate, the productivity level of the organisation, and the resistance shown by employees not benefiting from the programme. The literature on the evaluation of affirmative action success, however, does not give a clear picture of the measures as related to the different phases of the process, neither distinguishes between direct and indirect

measures (Charoux & Moerdyk, 1997; Hofmeyr, 1993; Kravitz et al, 1996; Wingrove, 1993).

It was considered necessary to categorise the different measures of affirmative action in an orderly manner by means of a process of categorisation. This categorisation is depicted in table 3.1 and table 3.2 below. Table 3.1 contains the direct measures of affirmative action as applicable to the input, throughput and output phase of the different affirmative action strategies as arranged in table 2.1 in Chapter 2. Indirect measures of affirmative action success are similarly depicted in table 3.2.

### **3.3.1 Categorisation of direct measures of affirmative action success**

As depicted in table 3.1, the direct measures of affirmative action success, during the input phase of the different affirmative action strategies, consist of the organisation's perceptible commitment to the implementation of an affirmative action programme.

The direct measures contained in the throughput stage refer to the evaluation of the different processes associated with the implementation of the different affirmative action strategies and consist of a variety of measures related to, among others, the organisation's employment and promotion procedures, its training and career development programmes, and its utilisation of a diverse human resource.

During the output phase, direct measures of affirmative action success relate to the final result of the affirmative action endeavour and has a bearing on aspects such as the actual number of individuals benefiting from the process, and the level of racial and cultural integration achieved.

**TABLE 3.1: DIRECT MEASURES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS**

	<b>EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY</b>	<b>BLACK ADVANCEMENT</b>	<b>BLACK UPLIFTMENT</b>	<b>BLACK DEVELOPMENT</b>	<b>MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSITY</b>
<b>INPUT</b>	Inclusion of wording to the effect that racial discrimination is not practised, in mission statement and recruitment advertisements	Recruitment advertisements particularly aimed at black applicants	The range of training programmes, aimed at the upliftment of blacks, available in the organisation	Specially designed programmes aimed at the development and promotion of blacks	A managerial policy which fosters the optimal utilisation of a diverse workforce in the pursuit of organisational goal achievement
<b>THROUGHPUT</b>	<p>The advertising, on a wide basis, of all vacancies</p> <p>Job descriptions that reflect the true requirements of the job</p> <p>Application forms that exclude items of a discriminatory nature</p> <p>Composition of selection committees to include individuals representing disadvantaged groups</p> <p>The existence of anti-discriminatory committees within the organisation</p> <p>Non-discriminatory selection processes, <i>ie</i> "culture-fair" selection techniques and criteria, and competency-based assessment</p>	<p>The "head hunting" of blacks as a means of recruitment</p> <p>The organisation's compliance to quotas or targets</p> <p>The promotion of blacks only</p> <p>The appointment of blacks as board members</p> <p>The creation of new positions to be filled by blacks</p>	<p>The nature and contents of training programmes (<i>ie</i> literacy programmes, job related training programmes and supervisory skills training)</p> <p>Provision of opportunities to blacks to acquire secondary school level qualifications</p> <p>Bursaries and financial assistance to blacks, aiding them in obtaining tertiary qualifications</p>	<p>Processes in place to identify the individual development needs of each affirmative action beneficiary</p> <p>Career development programmes, specially designed to accommodate members of historically disadvantaged groups</p> <p>Career pathing programmes, specially designed to include the accelerated advancement of blacks</p> <p>The monitoring, on an ongoing basis, of the individual developmental progress of blacks</p> <p>The assignment of a mentor (committed to transfer skills and experience to his or her protégé) to each affirmative action beneficiary</p>	<p>The management of the diverse workforce as to utilise every employee's full potential to the benefit of the organisation</p> <p>The utilisation of race and cultural differences amongst employees, as a competitive advantage</p> <p>The existence of a formal programme to prepare the organisation and its members to accept the implementation of affirmative action</p> <p>Providing opportunities for people from diverse backgrounds to express themselves, grow, develop and be promoted on merit</p>
<b>OUTPUT</b>	The absence of discriminatory practices ( <i>ie</i> job reservation, favouring of members of certain racial or cultural groups and the advancement of individuals privileged by past discriminatory practices)	<p>The number of blacks appointed in, or promoted to positions on the different job levels</p> <p>The number of blacks in managerial positions</p>	<p>The number of blacks that have attended training and development programmes.</p> <p>The number of blacks that have successfully bettered their qualifications</p>	The number of blacks, after being developed, promoted to higher ranks	The harmonious integration of blacks in the organisation

**TABLE 3.2: INDIRECT MEASURES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS**

	<b>EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY</b>	<b>BLACK ADVANCEMENT</b>	<b>BLACK UPLIFTMENT</b>	<b>BLACK DEVELOPMENT</b>	<b>MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSITY</b>
<b>INPUT</b>	Managers and employees within the organisation being convinced of the unfairness of discriminatory practices	A feeling of urgency among whites to prove a commitment to remedy past injustices	A commitment by all incumbents of the organisation to uplift members of previously disadvantaged groups and the realisation that the backlog experienced by blacks should first be addressed before they will be able to compete on an equal footing	The acceptance by all incumbents of the organisation that blacks have the potential to be developed as fully-fledged partners in the pursuit of organisational goals	A commitment by top management to accommodate the different race groups and cultures within the organisation and a belief that the utilisation of a diverse workforce will result in a competitive advantage
<b>THROUGHPUT</b>	The absence of direct and indirect discriminatory barriers  Integrated facilities throughout the organisation  An absence of negative stereotyping concerning blacks	The acceptance by whites, of blacks in managerial positions  Black managers having decision-making authority and a say in corporate matters  Affirmative action beneficiaries who are qualified and experienced to be able to effectively perform their jobs  Affirmative action beneficiaries who are not only appointed in so-called non-critical positions	The absence of ostracisation of blacks, participating in upliftment programmes  The utilisation of blacks according to the training they received  A priority in the organisational budget to finance upliftment programmes	Acceptance by white incumbents of the organisation that, in order to rectify past discrimination, blacks should be afforded accelerated advancement  Conviction among affirmative action beneficiaries that their development will result in them being able to compete on an equal footing with whites  Commitment by white mentors to rise above historic stereotyping and to genuinely endeavour to develop black protégés to the same level as their white counterparts	An acceptance by all organisational incumbents that the diversity of the population should be represented in the organisational context  The recognition by all organisational incumbents that people from different races and cultures are equal partners in the process of achieving organisational objectives  The acknowledgement that differences among employees from different racial groups and cultures represent an untapped treasure of potential creativity and innovation
<b>OUTPUT</b>	The absence of racial and cultural prejudice amongst all incumbents of the organisation	Effective black managers in the majority of senior positions in the organisation	A propensity among whites to afford blacks, who have been uplifted, the opportunity to be promoted	To have a black development strategy in place which is beneficial to the organisational goal achievement, productivity and competitiveness	The total commitment of all the incumbents of the organisation towards the utilisation of a diverse workforce in the pursuit of organisational goals  Job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action appointees  An organisational climate and culture reflecting total integration and utilisation of a diverse workforce

### **3.3.2 Categorisation of indirect measures of affirmative action success**

With reference to table 3.2, indirect measures of affirmative action success, during the input phase, mainly concentrate on the evaluation of convictions and perceptions of management and other employees peripheral to the process, concerning the necessity and obligation for affirmative action to be implemented. The majority of previous research concerning the success of affirmative action, concentrated on these measures (refer to section 3.2.1 above).

During the throughput phase, indirect measures of affirmative action success concentrate on the peripheral evidence that the above-mentioned convictions are in fact practised during the implementation of the affirmative action programme. This includes measures relating to the disregarding of discriminatory barriers, the acceptance within the organisation of affirmative action beneficiaries, and a recognition by all organisation incumbents of the important role of affirmative action beneficiaries in the attainment of organisational goals.

Indirect measures of affirmative action success associated with the output phase of the affirmative action process, entail measures related to the secondary effect of the outcome of the implementation of the affirmative action programme, both on the organisation and on the affirmative action beneficiaries concerned. This, among others, indicates proof that prejudice and segregation have been eliminated and that effective integration of affirmative action beneficiaries has been achieved. The job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries is considered to be an indirect measure of affirmative action success (Kravitz, 1996, p.51).

### **3.3.3 Conclusion**

It can be concluded that the categorisation of the different direct and indirect measures of affirmative action success as embodied in the input, throughput and output phases of the affirmative action process, represent an organised synopsis which can be effectively utilised in the planning of a strategy aimed at the evaluation of the success of affirmative action interventions.

Taking into account the vast and complex effects the implementation of affirmative action has on the organisation, its processes and incumbents (refer to section 2.5 in Chapter 2), the evaluation of affirmative action success should entail not only its direct results, but (in order to establish its ultimate success) also the indirect effects it has on the organisation, its employees and particularly on the beneficiaries of affirmative action. This study will endeavour to establish the effectiveness of affirmative action interventions (implemented by a number of organisations), and to utilise the outcome of a measure of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries (representing an indirect result of affirmative action) as confirmation of the level of the success of such interventions.

### **3.4 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE USE OF THE JOB SATISFACTION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES TO MEASURE THE SUCCESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

From the literature review, it becomes obvious that the final success of affirmative action efforts does not lie in the actions taken, but rather in the results achieved, and specifically in the results as far as the members of the workforce are concerned. Affirmative action in the organisational context is after all implemented to benefit people - be it potential or existing employees who are members of disadvantaged groups. The success of affirmative action efforts should therefore be evaluated by means of some measurement of the effect it has on the population it targets.

#### **3.4.1 Affirmative action beneficiaries as an important target in the evaluation of the success of affirmative action interventions**

Affirmative action beneficiaries represent the main focus of affirmative action efforts, and are largely the people who are exposed to its effect.

Should an organisation, for instance, embark on an equal employment opportunity programme, it will be the affirmative action applicant who will be appointed. It will also be the affirmative action beneficiary who is promoted due to the disbanding of discriminatory practices and who will reap the benefits concomitant to the promotion. In the case where an equal opportunity

strategy is implemented as a soft option, it will be the affirmative action appointee who, although being availed the opportunity to apply for a promotional vacancy, will not be successful due to a backlog in qualifications and experience.

The effects of a black advancement approach to affirmative action also impact on the affirmative action beneficiary. Affirmative action beneficiaries in this case bear the brunt of the negative reaction to, and ostracisation by other employees. In the case of window-dressing and tokenism, the affirmative action appointee concerned, experiences the frustration of not being able to fulfil the requirements of the job he or she has been appointed in or promoted to.

In the case of black upliftment programmes, it is the affirmative action appointee who reaps the benefit of being trained. It is however also the affirmative action appointee who will be disheartened, should he or she not be utilised according to his or her newly acquired capabilities.

The proper implementation of a black development programme will benefit the affirmative action beneficiary and allow him or her to partake in the process of accelerated promotion.

The management of diversity, if appropriately implemented, will result in the affirmative action appointee being accepted by his or her peers and will also, as an ultimate outcome, result in the experiencing of job satisfaction, in that the affirmative action appointee will feel that he or she is fully utilised by the organisation, and is valued for his or her contribution to organisational goal achievement.

It can be concluded that the affirmative action beneficiary not only represents the pivot around which the whole process of affirmative action centres, but also represents the person on whom the success or failure of affirmative action endeavours impacts. Should an evaluation of the success of affirmative action efforts therefore be attempted, it seems apparent that the beneficiaries of affirmative action should be targeted as an important variable in the process.

### **3.4.2 The job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries as an indirect output measure of affirmative action success**

Taking into account the foregoing argumentation, it can be assumed that targeting the affirmative action beneficiary in the measurement of affirmative action success seems to be the appropriate route to embark on. The question is, however, how to involve the beneficiaries of affirmative action in the process of measuring the success of affirmative action endeavours?

If the surmise, that the success of affirmative action is located in the end result thereof, is accepted, the measuring of the success of affirmative should be aimed at affirmative action beneficiaries' experience of the outcomes of affirmative action interventions. A positive or negative experience by affirmative action beneficiaries of the outcome of affirmative action, in turn, results from the level of fulfilment of such beneficiaries' expectations.

From an analysis of the outcomes of affirmative action interventions, it can be deduced that the fulfilment of affirmative action beneficiaries' expectations regarding the outcome of affirmative action interventions, represents an indirect output-related measure of affirmative action success. The expectations of affirmative action beneficiaries centre on the typical facets included in the job satisfaction construct (*ie* expectancies concerning need satisfaction; the utilisation of abilities and experience; promotional opportunities; status due to occupying a certain job; recognition by subordinates, peers and superiors; further development; organisational culture and climate; management philosophy and leadership style; group relations; and acceptance in the environment external to the organisation).

### **3.4.3 Conclusion**

It can be concluded that, in an endeavour to evaluate the relevance and success of an organisation's affirmative action interventions, it is appropriate to measure the job satisfaction experienced by the beneficiaries of such interventions. Care should however be taken that the measure of job satisfaction used in this respect, should not be an overall measuring instrument, but one that includes all the various facets of job satisfaction. An effort will be made in this

research to design the measure of job satisfaction as to include all the facets of job satisfaction, contained in the theory regarding this construct. The different theories relating to job satisfaction, the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests, and the measurement of job satisfaction, will therefore be reviewed in Chapter 4.

With reference to the design of the current research (refer to section 1.4 in Chapter 1) a three-pronged approach to the measurement of affirmative action success will be implemented. Firstly, the effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the target organisations will be evaluated in terms of the theoretical criteria regarding affirmative action success; secondly, the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in each of the target organisations will be measured; and finally, the correlation between the results of the two above-mentioned measures will be determined. The research design, therefore, involves an input measure as well as an indirect output measure of affirmative action success, and requires the calculation of the correlation between the two in order to verify the success of the affirmative action interventions in each of the target organisations.

### **3.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The evaluation of its success, is an important element of the affirmative action process.

Affirmative action success represents an elusive concept and is influenced by a large variety of factors associated with the organisational environment as well as the internal subsystems of the organisation.

Previous research efforts, overseas and in South Africa, to a large extent concentrated on the measuring of opinions, perceptions and attitudes regarding the acceptability, fairness and effects of affirmative action interventions. A limited number of studies targeted affirmative action beneficiaries and none could be found that dealt with satisfaction, content or sense of accomplishment of affirmative action beneficiaries.

The evaluation of affirmative action success can be undertaken by means of a wide spectrum of

measures associated with the input, throughput and output of affirmative action endeavours. These measures can be grouped into direct and indirect measures of affirmative action success.

Due to the relationship between job satisfaction and affirmative action success, the measurement of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries represents a viable approach to the evaluation of the affirmative action endeavours of an organisation.

With reference to the aim of this chapter, it can be stated that the theoretical background to affirmative action success was analysed, the existing measures of affirmative action success identified and categorised, and the use of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries as a measure of affirmative action success justified.

Chapter 4 focuses on job satisfaction.

## CHAPTER 4

### JOB SATISFACTION

The aim of this chapter is to define job satisfaction, identify the different theories related to job satisfaction, describe the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests and examine the measurement of job satisfaction.

#### 4.1 DEFINING JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is a topic that has been extensively researched over the years. Regardless of the vast number of articles that has been published on the subject, it seems as if confusion prevails whenever the term “job satisfaction” is defined.

On examining the relevant literature, it is soon realised that no standard definition regarding job satisfaction exists. Some researchers tend to confuse the concept of job satisfaction with that of motivation. It seems that these two topics should be viewed as separate entities. Motivation has to do with the drive to perform, while satisfaction refers to an individual’s perception of the value of a particular outcome (Byars & Rue, 1984, p.218).

Job satisfaction is generally seen as the feelings or attitude a person has towards his or her job (DuBrin, 1981, p.221; McCormick & Tiffin, 1975, p.276). A person who is satisfied with his or her job is seen as someone who’s expectations and needs are satisfied in the job situation. Job satisfaction is often defined in the negative idiom. Porter, Lawler and Hackman (1975, p.53) define job satisfaction in such a manner:

In general, it appears that satisfaction is determined by the difference between the amount of some valued outcome that a person receives and the amount of that outcome he feels he *should* receive. The larger the discrepancy, the greater the dissatisfaction.

Most authors refer to Edwin A. Locke’s definition of job satisfaction. Warner (1996b, p.3552) quotes Locke (1976) as defining job satisfaction as follows:

Job satisfaction may be viewed as the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the perception of one's job as fulfilling or allowing the fulfilment of one's important job values, providing these values are compatible with one's needs.

A variety of definitions concerning job satisfaction exist, in most cases with the author concerned expressing his or her own view. Francis and Milbourn (1980, p.70) attempt to summarise the various definitions of job satisfaction as follows:

Generally, job satisfaction is the result of the individual's perception of what is expected and what is received from different facets of the work situation. The closer the expectation is to what is actually received, the greater the job satisfaction. Job satisfaction sometimes refers to an overall feeling of satisfaction or satisfaction with the situation-as-a-whole (global satisfaction). At other times, job satisfaction refers to a person's feelings toward specific dimensions of the work environment (facet satisfaction).

No standard definition regarding job satisfaction exists and most authors provide their own unique definition. This is probably due to the existing confusion with respect to the construct of job satisfaction, which is the result of confusion in the theoretical body of knowledge concerning job satisfaction. Lawler (1994, p.81) explains the dilemma in this respect by referring to the saying that "theory without data is fantasy, but data without theory is chaos!"

From an analysis of the different definitions concerning job satisfaction, it can be concluded that job satisfaction refers to an affective state experienced by an employee as a result of expectancies being met by the outcomes of organisational affiliation, work involvement and job behaviour.

#### **4.2 JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES**

In the process of identifying the theories concerned with job satisfaction, it is surprising to note the extent in which theories associated with job satisfaction overlap with those associated with motivation. It, however, seems that job satisfaction and motivation represents different constructs that should not be linked. Motivation refers to the driving force initiating action, while job satisfaction seems to be the result of an evaluation, by the person concerned, of the outcome of a job associated endeavour.

The following theories are generally linked job satisfaction and give an explanation of the rationale underlying this construct. As these theories are well documented, they will only be discussed concisely.

#### **4.2.1 Need theory**

The following need theories are generally associated with job satisfaction.

##### *4.2.1.1 Maslow's need satisfaction theory*

Maslow (1964) developed a need satisfaction theory founded on two main assumptions. The first assumption concerns the fact that human beings have a variety of needs that continuously require to be satisfied. As soon as one need is readily satisfied, another emerges. The second assumption refers to the hierarchical sequence of human needs, namely their arrangement in an order of importance. The lower-order needs first need to be satisfied before higher-order needs will emerge. According to Maslow, physiological, safety and love needs are lower-order needs while esteem and self-actualisation needs represent higher-order needs. Maslow (1964) distinguishes between the following five groups of needs:

##### *(i) Physiological needs*

Physiological needs are seen as essential for survival and include the need for oxygen, water, food and a constant body temperature. The fulfilment of these needs is vital for all human beings. The individual therefore gives priority to the fulfilment of physiological needs. Should a person be deprived of the fulfilment of these basic needs, the higher-order needs will be of lesser importance.

Employees' physiological needs are indirectly satisfied by the salaries they receive, which enable them to provide for food, clothes and other basic needs.

(ii) *Safety needs*

Once a person's physiological needs are readily satisfied, the next group of needs emerges. This group is generally referred to as safety needs. Safety needs are concerned with protection against danger, threat and deprivation. Maslow (1964, p.10) refers to the infant as an example of how safety needs can override all other needs in importance. The complete helplessness of a baby means that he or she is completely dependent on the help of other people to stay alive. This initial, complete dependence of the human being entails that the assistance of other people in the environment is, literally, vital for survival.

Safety needs are usually met in the organisational context by means of the providing of employees with pensions, security systems, insurance policies and grievance procedures (Gerber, Nel & Van Dyk, 1995, p.326). An employee will feel that his or her safety needs are not being satisfied when the above-mentioned provisions are inadequate or when the organisation is planning to retrench some of its employees.

(iii) *Love needs*

Although most authors refer to this group of needs as social needs, Maslow (1964) originally referred to these needs as love or affiliation needs. Love needs usually emerge when the safety needs are reasonably satisfied. Once a person feels that his or her safety needs are relatively well met, he or she will experience the needs for belonging, association, love, acceptance by others and for giving and receiving friendship (McCormick & Tiffin, 1975, p.300). The initial dependence as a baby has such a strong influence on people that they will, throughout their lives, experience a need to be with and among people, to be accepted by other people and to receive their approval.

In the organisational context, the social needs will be satisfied by means of group cohesion, team work and opportunities to interact with others in the work environment (Gerber et al, 1995, p.326).

(iv) *Esteem needs*

The fourth group of needs are generally referred to as ego needs. Maslow (1964, p.15) originally referred to this group of needs as esteem needs. Ego needs are the first group of higher-order needs that will emerge when the lower-order needs (physiological, safety and love needs) are readily satisfied. Maslow (1964, p.15) divided the esteem needs into two clearly identifiable subgroups, namely firstly the desire for strength, achievement, adequacy, confidence, independence and freedom and secondly the desire for prestige, recognition, attention, importance and appreciation. The individual, therefore, has a need to be noticed, to be taken into account by other people and to experience that other people regard him or her as important.

Esteem needs can be satisfied in the organisational context by means of occupying a position with a high status value, by receiving recognition from subordinates, peers and superiors and by being allowed to take part in important decision making.

(v) *Self-actualisation needs*

The highest need level, is referred to as self-actualisation needs. This has to do with the individual's need to apply his or her personal abilities to their fullest measure. This group of needs comes to the foreground when the esteem needs are relatively well satisfied. Maslow (1964, p. 16) explains this group of needs as follows:

Even if all these needs are satisfied, we may still often (if not always) expect that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop, unless the individual is doing what he is fitted for. A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man *can* be, he *must* be. This need we may call self-actualisation.

Self-actualisation needs, therefore, refer to a person's need to become everything he or she is capable of becoming. The need for self-actualisation is seldom totally satisfied.

A person's abilities, qualifications and experience must be fully utilised in the organisational context for the self-actualisation needs to be fulfilled. The employee must also be allowed to

be creative in his or her work and to do the work he or she prefers (Gerber et al, 1995, p.326).

It can be concluded that the average person experiences different needs at different times. Maslow (1964, p.23) points out that a person is usually partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied at a given time. He also explains that the higher-order needs are those that are usually not completely satisfied:

Thus man is a perpetually wanting animal...The average member of our society is most often partially satisfied and partially unsatisfied in all of his wants. The hierarchy principle is usually empirically observed in terms of increasing percentages of non-satisfaction as we go up the hierarchy.

#### 4.2.1.2 *McClelland's theory of basic needs*

McClelland (1961), best-known for his exposition on the individual's need for achievement, also developed a theory of "basic human needs." He identifies three basic needs, namely the need for affiliation, the need for power and the need for achievement. McClelland (1961) argues that every individual does experience these needs at some time or another, and that the intensity of each of these needs will vary according to the situation (Schein, 1980, pp.85-86). The need for affiliation corresponds with the love needs, as described by Maslow. The need for power and the need for achievement in turn can be associated with the need for self-actualisation in Maslow's need hierarchy.

Should these basic needs, as depicted by Maslow (1964) and McClelland (1961), be satisfied when they occur in the organisational context, the individual is likely to experience job satisfaction. This relates to the assumptions associated with the paradigms applicable to this study. Being human and spending the greater part of their existence in the job situation, employees will endeavour to satisfy their basic needs within the organisational context. Job satisfaction will therefore be directly related to the extent in which the individual needs of employees are satisfied by means of attainable goals (either present in the organisation, or being supplied by the organisation). The fulfilment of needs results in the individual (employee) to experience a positive (pleasurable) affective state, generally described as satisfaction, and in the work context, as job satisfaction (refer to section 4.1 above).

#### **4.2.2 Schein's theory of managerial assumptions about human nature**

Schein's theory, concerning managerial assumptions about human nature, has a close relationship with need theory, but deserves particular mentioning due to the fact that Schein (1980) applies need theory to human behaviour in the work place.

The following assumptions, as described by Schein (1980), have a specific bearing on job satisfaction:

##### *4.2.2.1 Social assumptions*

Schein (1980, p.62) stresses that people tend to constantly experience a need to socialise with others. He explains that "workers bring to the job social needs that can only find expression in informal groupings." Needs such as social and affiliation needs are satisfied by means of socialisation with co-workers.

Schein (1980, p.62) explains the social assumption by referring to the results of experiments conducted by Elton Mayo, as far back as 1945. According to these experiments, social needs are seen as the prime driver of human behaviour. Interpersonal relationships are therefore considered the primary shaper of the employee's personal identity. It is also explained that the mechanisation resulting from the industrial revolution caused jobs to lose most of its intrinsic value, which is now sought in social relationships in the work situation. It is further concluded that employees are more responsive to the social forces present in peer groups, than to the control and incentives of management. The conclusion is that the employee's responsiveness to his or her supervisor's managerial efforts are directly linked to the extent to which the supervisor can meet the subordinate's needs for belonging and acceptance.

It can therefore be concluded that an employee's job satisfaction level will be influenced by the degree to which the employee is able to socialise in the organisational context. Should an employee not be availed the opportunity to socialise with co-workers, be it with peers, subordinates or superiors, it will result in him or her not being able to satisfy basic social needs.

This, in turn, will negatively influence the employee's feeling of job satisfaction.

#### 4.2.2.2 *Self-actualising assumption*

The majority of individuals, who find themselves in an organisation that provides means to satisfy most of their needs, will eventually experience a need for self-actualisation. This need refers to a person's need to be allowed to fully utilise his or her abilities, qualifications and experience, when executing a job. Schein (1980, p.72) explains that all humans experience a need for self-actualisation at a given time when lower-order needs have been satisfied:

The concept of self-actualization stresses higher order needs for autonomy, challenge, growth, and full use of one's capacities and talents. It is assumed that all people have this innate tendency, but that it first makes itself felt as lower order security and social needs come to be satisfied. There is clear evidence that the drive toward self-actualization is an important - perhaps crucial - aspect of managerial and professional behavior.

Schein based his self-actualising assumption on McGregor's Theory Y. According to McGregor (1960) the individual seeks to be mature on the job and is capable of being so, in being autonomous, independent and by developing special capacities and skills. People are also primarily self-motivated and self-controlled and there is no inherent conflict between self-actualisation and more effective organisational performance. If given a chance, employees will voluntarily integrate their own goals and those of the organisation (Schein, 1980, p.68).

The organisational implication of the above-mentioned viewpoint is that less emphasis should be placed on being considerate to employees and more on making work more challenging and meaningful. The employee should be given opportunities to control and develop himself or herself. Schein's self-actualising man assumption is based on giving the employee opportunities to obtain intrinsic rewards, namely satisfaction from accomplishment and the use of capacities, to ensure high-quality performance and creativity. The employee will then be more committed to organisational goals (Schein, 1980, p.69).

It can be concluded that organisations should aim to provide employees opportunities to work autonomously, utilise their abilities, capabilities and qualification to it's fullest and to experience

a feeling of self-actualisation. This would then ultimately lead to the employee feeling satisfied with his or her job.

#### **4.2.3 Herzberg's two-factor theory**

The two-factor theory, as proposed by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959), is generally regarded as relating directly to job satisfaction, and most authors refer to this theory when job satisfaction is discussed. The underlying principle of Herzberg's two-factor theory is that some work-related factors can be associated with job satisfaction and others, quite different from the first-mentioned, with job dissatisfaction.

In Herzberg's original study, respondents were requested to describe things that contributed to them feeling dissatisfied with their jobs and things that contributed to them feeling satisfied. Contrary to the popular belief that the presence of a certain factor will result in job satisfaction and the absence of the same factor will cause dissatisfaction, Herzberg et al (1959), however, found from the results of their study that the factors resulting in satisfaction were different and not at all related to those resulting in dissatisfaction.

Muchinsky (1983, p.325) explains that the provision of so-called satisfiers in the job content, can cause a person to feel satisfied at work. The absence of these factors will not lead to dissatisfaction but will cause the person to feel neutral or indifferent towards the job. The provision of so-called dissatisfiers, which are related to the job context, will on the other hand not lead to job satisfaction. The prevalence or absence thereof will only cause the individual to become, respectively, more neutral or dissatisfied towards the job.

Herzberg's theory therefore proposes that the presence of satisfiers (or so-called job content factors) like recognition, responsibility and advancement opportunities, will lead to greater satisfaction with the job. The presence of dissatisfiers (inadequate job context factors) like poor supervision, vague company policy, a meagre salary and detrimental working conditions, will cause the employee to become more dissatisfied with his or her job.

The two factors that were identified by Herzberg et al (1959), namely dissatisfiers and satisfiers, will be explained in more detail in the following discussion.

#### 4.2.3.1 *Dissatisfiers*

The response to Herzberg's request, to the respondents in his study, to indicate which factors in their jobs caused them to feel dissatisfied, resulted in the identification of the first group of factors on which his two-factor theory is based. This group of factors is generally referred to as dissatisfiers or hygiene factors.

According to Francis and Milbourn (1980, p.50) the dissatisfiers or so-called hygiene factors, are extrinsic to the job and usually found in the job context. They list the following dissatisfiers:

- compensation
- working conditions
- job security
- co-workers
- supervisory style
- company policies

Should employees experience the above-mentioned factors as negative, it will cause these employees to become more dissatisfied with their jobs. Should these factors, however, be experienced as positive, they will cause individuals to become less dissatisfied or, at most, neutral towards the job. Dissatisfiers or hygiene factors can therefore not cause job satisfaction to increase (Muchinsky, 1983, p.325).

#### 4.2.3.2 *Satisfiers*

The second group of work variables, which resulted from Herzberg's research, were named satisfiers or motivators. These factors are intrinsic to the job and referred to as job content factors (Ribeaux & Poppleton, 1980, p.133).

The intrinsic, job content factors which are referred to as satisfiers (or motivators) are the following (Francis & Milbourn, 1980, p.50):

- opportunities to achieve
- recognition for what has been achieved
- the job itself (how interesting, meaningfully and challenging it is)
- opportunities for personal growth and development
- responsibility

Porter et al (1975, p.299) argue that, should these factors be present in the work situation, the employee will experience greater job satisfaction:

Thus, the Herzberg theory suggests that a job should enhance positive work motivation and employee satisfaction to the extent that it provides opportunities for employees to achieve, to gain recognition and responsibility, to advance in the organization, and to grow in competence.

The absence of satisfiers will not lead to dissatisfaction, but will cause the employee to feel neutral or indifferent towards the job (Muchinsky, 1983, p.325). Satisfiers are therefore the only factors which can positively enhance job satisfaction.

Herzberg et al (1959) concluded that variables found in the work situation can be divided into two clearly identifiable groups (hence the name “two-factor” theory) namely satisfiers (“motivators”) and dissatisfiers (“hygiene factors”). Satisfiers can positively influence the degree to which an employee is satisfied with his job, whereas dissatisfiers can only influence the degree to which employees are dissatisfied with their jobs. According to Muchinsky (1983, p.326) organisations should therefore “design jobs in such a manner as to ensure a high degree of reward provided by context factors (to avoid dissatisfaction) as well as a high degree of content factors (to ensure satisfaction).”

#### **4.2.4 Vroom’s expectancy theory**

Expectancy theory is usually mentioned by authors deliberating the concept of job satisfaction.

It is argued that fulfilment of an employee's expectations concerning the work situation, will result in him or her experiencing job satisfaction. Expectancy, however, represents a complex structure, as can be deduced from Vroom's conceptualisation thereof.

Vroom (1964) argues that individuals have expectancies of outcomes that occur as a result of what these individuals do. Individuals therefore expect certain outcomes to manifest as a result of their actions. The employee will measure the degree to which his or her job is satisfying by considering the extent to which doing the job, leads to valued outcomes. The individual will therefore decide how much he or she values certain outcomes such as compensation, a promotion or satisfying working conditions. By weighting the attractiveness of each outcome, the individual can estimate what degree of satisfaction he or she will experience, should such an outcome manifest in the job (McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, p.306).

The expectancy theory is based on the following three factors:

#### 4.2.4.1 *Valence*

Valence refers to the value or worth that an individual attaches to a particular outcome. McCormick and Tiffin (1975, p.302) explains valence as the strength of a person's desire for, or attraction toward, the outcomes of alternative courses of action. The valence for given outcomes may range from positive to negative.

#### 4.2.4.2 *Expectancy*

An individual will have certain expectations of what the result of his or her efforts will be. The individual therefore subjectively estimates the probability of the outcome following his or her efforts (McCormick & Tiffin, 1975, p.302). This calculation can have different results. Should an individual believe that the outcome will be positive or if the individual values the outcome, more effort will be made to realise this outcome. If an individual, on the other hand, believes that a valued outcome is unlikely to occur, or that the valence of an outcome is negative, little or no effort will be made.

#### 4.2.4.3 *Force*

Force refers to the amount of effort an individual is willing to make, in order to reach a valued outcome. A person will therefore be willing to put more effort into attaining a valued outcome if he or she expects that the effort or action will lead to this valued outcome. Force therefore refers to the combination of valences of various possible outcomes and their expectancies or probabilities (McCormick & Tiffin, 1975, p.302).

Individuals ascribe different valences to different aspects in the work situation. Some may, for example, value adequate compensation more than recognition for a job well done. The value certain outcomes have for individuals, will influence the effort they are willing to make in order to attain such outcomes. People also have different expectations of what actions may lead to valued outcomes.

An employee's job satisfaction, as far as expectancy theory is concerned, will be influenced by three variables. Firstly the value (valence) the employee attaches to outcomes that do occur. Secondly the expectancy the employee has, that certain outcomes will result from his or her job behaviour. Thirdly the amount of effort (drive) needed to attain valued outcomes. Should outcomes be of value to the employee, should outcomes occur as expected by the employee, and should the effort to attain valued outcomes be on par with the employee's expectations, the employee concerned will experience job satisfaction.

#### 4.2.5 **Schein's psychological contract theory**

Schein's conceptualisation of the psychological contract between employee and employer can be linked to the expectancy theory. The psychological contract is explained by Schein (1980, p.22) as "an unwritten set of expectations operating at all times between every member of an organization and the various managers and others [representing the organisation] in that organization."

Most employees, for example, have expectations about compensation, working hours and

benefits. Organisations are expected to treat employees as human beings, to provide work and facilities that are fulfilling, to provide opportunities for growth and further learning, and to provide feedback on how employees are doing. Organisations, on the other hand, also have subtle expectations employees have to adhere to like, for example, the enhancement of the organisation's image, loyalty and the keeping of organisational secrets (Schein, 1980, p.23). When the psychological contract is adhered to according to the expectations of both parties, this represents an ideal situation in which both the employer and the employee regard their association as fair and equitable.

The psychological contract changes over time as the organisation's and employee's needs change, and as the employee moves through different career stages. At the beginning of an employee's career he or she is usually eager to try out his or her new skills and expects the organisation to provide opportunities for this. Most employees will feel disappointed if they are kept too long in meaningless training or are assigned menial tasks. At a later career stage the employee will experience a sense of contribution and will develop his or her area of specialisation and, in turn, will expect the organisation to recognise this contribution. Later, when the employee is doing less visible work, the need for security increases and he or she will expect the organisation not to "put him or her on the shelf." Retired employees often complain that the psychological contract has been breached, as they feel that they still would have been able to make a positive contribution to the organisation's functioning. The psychological contract is therefore dynamic and needs to be constantly renegotiated (Schein, 1980, pp.23-24).

Schein (1980, p.99) states that the psychological contract has a definite influence on job satisfaction:

It is my central hypothesis that whether people work effectively, whether they generate commitment, loyalty, and enthusiasm for the organization and its goals, and whether they obtain satisfaction from their work depends to a large measure on two conditions:

1. The degree to which their own *expectations* of what the organization will provide to them and what they owe the organization in return matches what the organization's expectations are of what it will give and get in return.
2. The nature of *what is actually to be exchanged* (assuming there is some agreement) - money in exchange for time at work; social need satisfaction and

security in exchange for hard work and loyalty; opportunities for self-actualization and challenging work in exchange for high productivity, high quality work, and creative effort in the service of organizational goals; or various combinations of these and other things.

It can be concluded that job satisfaction can be directly influenced by the psychological contract and by the degree to which the employee's and the organisation's expectations coincide. If the employee's expectations are met and the organisation provides, for example, recognition for excellent inputs, good compensation and opportunities for self-actualisation, it can be assumed that the employee will experience a high level of job satisfaction. When one of the parties, however, feels that they do not receive their fair share of the contract, a feeling of being treated unfairly arises. This may result in job dissatisfaction on the part of the employee.

#### **4.2.6 Schein's group theory**

Group theory, and in particular theory concerning the way in which the group member utilises the group to satisfy individual needs, has a bearing on job satisfaction. Schein (1980) studied group behaviour in the organisational context and postulated a group theory specifically concerning groups in the organisation.

Schein (1980, p.146) identifies two types of groups in the organisational context, namely formal and informal groups. Formal groups are described as those groups that are deliberately created by managers with the aim of fulfilling specific tasks, directly related to the organisational mission. Informal groups, on the other hand, develop voluntarily. Schein (1980, p.146) explains the reason for the forming of informal groups as follows:

But, because the whole person actually reports for work or joins the organization, and because people have needs beyond the minimum ones of doing their job, they will seek fulfilment of some of these needs through developing a variety of relationships with other members of the organization.

Humans are predominantly social beings and therefore tend to flock together in groups. Group membership gives a person a feeling of belonging and usually provides a means of satisfying various needs the individual may have at a given time. Informal group members therefore seek fulfilment of their needs by voluntarily joining informal groups or by developing friendships with

other employees in the organisation. These informal groups are usually divided into three types, namely horizontal, vertical and random cliques (Schein, 1980, p.148).

Groups fulfil various functions and satisfy various individual needs (Schein, 1980, pp.150-151). Groups represent a primary means of fulfilling affiliation needs, namely needs for friendship, support and love. Groups are also a primary means of establishing and testing social reality. This is accomplished through discussion with others and the development of shared perspectives and consensus whereby uncertainty in the social environment is reduced. Groups are finally a primary means of reducing insecurity, anxiety and sense of powerlessness.

It can be concluded that relationship with groups, and especially with informal groups, will have an impact on the job satisfaction of an employee. Should an employee be ostracised by informal groups within the work context, he or she will not have the opportunity to satisfy those social needs associated with group affiliation. This will result in a feeling of job dissatisfaction on the part of the employee concerned.

#### **4.2.7 Adams' equity theory**

The equity theory is based on the assumption that employees compare themselves and their behaviour outcomes with so-called "referent others" or "comparison-others" (Lawler, 1994, p.89). Referent others are persons who have similar backgrounds, abilities and positions. This comparison process directly influences the job satisfaction levels of individuals.

Individuals have certain expectancies of their jobs. Some expectancies are formulated as a result of the individual's beliefs about the rewards of referent others. The rewards that an employee expects to receive from the job are influenced by his or her own perceived job inputs, the perceived inputs and outcomes or rewards of referent others and by the characteristics of the job itself (Von Haller-Gilmer & Deci, 1977, p.237). The greater the expectations concerning these factors, the greater the rewards must be to influence the employee's job satisfaction level positively. An individual will therefore experience a high level of job satisfaction if his or her inputs and outcomes compare favourably with, or are similar to, the referent other's inputs and

the resulting outcomes (Francis & Milbourn, 1980, p.74).

It can therefore be concluded that job satisfaction will be favourably influenced if an individual compares himself or herself with a referent other (a person who has a similar background, qualifications and abilities and who occupies a similar position in the organisational hierarchy) and the inputs and outcomes of the referent other are similar to that of the individual. Dissatisfaction, however, will occur when the individual perceives his or her inputs to be greater than the referent other's, who is receiving a similar reward or outcome. An individual would also feel dissatisfied with his or her job if the referent other receives a greater reward or outcome than the individual, while their inputs are similar.

#### **4.2.8 Conclusion**

Several theories, some of which specifically apply to satisfaction in the work situation and others also associated with the construct of motivation, can be found in the relevant literature. The theories concerning job satisfaction appear to involve a wide spectrum of work-related experiences and can be described as multifaceted.

From an analysis of the different theories regarding job satisfaction it can be concluded that job satisfaction can result from need satisfaction associated with organisational membership; meaningful social relationships in the work situation; the opportunity for self-actualisation in performing the job; positive job-related outcomes which measure up to the employee's expectations; adherence (by the organisation) to the psychological contract; meaningful group relations at work; and favourable comparisons with others in similar occupations.

Taking into account that affirmative action beneficiaries are part of an organisation's work corps and as such functions similar to other employees, affirmative action beneficiaries' job satisfaction will also depend on similar factors as listed above. The success or failure of the implementation of an affirmative action programme in a particular organisation will therefore be reflected in the affirmative action beneficiary's experience (compared to his or her expectations) of the work situation, the organisation's adherence to the psychological contract, interpersonal relations with

superiors, peers and subordinates, and the outcome of comparison with others - in other words in the job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiary.

In evaluating its success, it therefore seems logical to measure the manner in which the outcomes of affirmative action are experienced by the persons (beneficiaries) targeted by its implementation. Such a measure can be associated with the level of job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries in the jobs in which they were appointed or promoted. It seems, however, that the measurement of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries, as an indication of the success of affirmative action strategies, has been largely disregarded in previous research (refer to section 3.2 in Chapter 3). This negation has a direct link to the problem formulation (refer to section 1.2 in Chapter 1) of the present investigation.

The above-mentioned argumentation represents the rationale on which the research objectives and research model of this study are based (refer to section 1.3 and 1.4 in Chapter 1).

#### **4.3 THE FRAMEWORK WHEREIN JOB SATISFACTION MANIFESTS**

Job satisfaction can be experienced by an employee as a result of the influence of many variables. These variables are generally referred to as job satisfaction facets. The facets influencing job satisfaction levels are present in a variety of "locations," for instance, in the job itself, in the job environment, in interactions with other employees, in the informal group, and even in situations external to the organisation. It therefore seems necessary to identify the framework, and its elements, wherein job satisfaction manifests.

Herzberg's theory concerning job satisfaction and his viewpoint on the division of facets influencing job satisfaction into job content and job context factors is explained in detail in section 3.2.3 above.

Korman (1977) as well as Ribeaux and Poppleton (1980) divide the facets of job satisfaction into three groups, namely environmental effects, situational determinants and personal variables. Environmental effects include occupational level, the job content, leadership, pay, and

promotional opportunities and social interaction in a working group (Korman, 1977, pp.222-225). The situational determinants are again subdivided by Ribeaux and Poppleton (1980, p.158) into three groups, namely job level, job content, and supervisory behaviour. The personal variables include age, educational level, gender and mental health.

Bass and Barrett (1981, pp.106-131) argue that the major variables influencing job satisfaction can be divided into eight groups. These are listed as compensation, personal characteristics (including sex, race and age), job level or occupational level, job proficiency, self-esteem, job involvement, the organisational environment, and personality (including mental health).

Byars and Rue (1984, p.218) list seven job satisfaction facets, namely, quality and style of supervision, job design (including scope, depth, interest and perceived value), compensation (referring to external and internal consistency), social relationships, working conditions, perceived long-range opportunities, and perceived opportunities elsewhere.

Other authors, including Francis and Milbourn (1980, p.75); Heneman et al (1983, p.148); and Korman (1971, p.302), identify similar job satisfaction facets as listed above. These include the work itself, supervision, organisational policies and practices (including compensation, promotions and job security), co-workers, and working conditions.

McCormick and Ilgen (1981, p.304) use the facets identified by Locke (1976), who had conducted extensive studies on job satisfaction, to explain the factors contributing to job satisfaction. These are divided into two groups, namely events or conditions, and agents. Events or conditions include the work itself, rewards (associated with compensation, promotion and recognition), and the work context (including working conditions and fringe benefits). The second group, namely agents, includes the employee, others in the company (including supervisors and co-workers), and others outside the company (including customers and family members).

The job satisfaction categories listed in more recent literature concur with that of the above-mentioned. These include work outcomes, individual differences, role perceptions and

organisational variables such as the perceived competitiveness of salaries, the extent of decision-making authority, and the relationship with supervisors (Babakus et al, 1996, p.33; Murphy & Gorchels, 1996, p.54).

In analysing the above-mentioned facets of job satisfaction and taking into account the different situations where job satisfaction or dissatisfaction can occur, the categorisation supplied by Gerber et al (1995, pp.47-55) appears to be comprehensive. They are of the opinion that the factors influencing job satisfaction can be divided into three clearly identifiable major categories, namely, the job content environment, the job context environment, and the external environment. These categories, their elements and sub-elements, will be discussed in the ensuing section.

#### **4.3.1 The job content environment**

Job content refers to all aspect related to what the employee's job entails. All aspects related to the job itself are therefore included in the job content environment. The job content environment is also referred to as the psychological job environment and directly relates to the psychological satisfaction an employee experiences when executing his or her job. The job content environment consists of the following five clearly identifiable elements.

##### *4.3.1.1 The nature of the job*

This element refers to what the job actually entails. Factors such as the opportunity to utilise abilities, the opportunity for self-actualisation, the opportunity to be creative and to use initiative, the opportunity for independent decision making, and the variety offered by the job can be included. Babakus et al (1996, p.34) refer to research done in 1993 by Brown and Peterson who found that the job should be challenging and varied, and that the employee should participate and become involved in the job, for a high level of job satisfaction to occur.

##### *4.3.1.2 Job guidelines and goals*

Every position in an organisation has certain guidelines which explain what is to be done. The

goals of the job should also be linked to that of the organisation. This ensures that the employee's work behaviour is in line with the goals of the organisation. Job guidelines and goals include aspects such as employees' knowledge of what they have to do, their knowledge of how it should be done, their knowledge regarding the reasons for executing their jobs, their knowledge of what is expected of them and their knowledge regarding what they are accountable for, and the standards to be maintained. Babakus et al (1996, p.36) and Boles and Babin (1996, p.43) explain that role conflict and role ambiguity with regard to one's job usually result in low job satisfaction. Persons who receive proper, correct and clear information will be more likely to perform adequately, which may result in higher job satisfaction (Pettit, Goris & Vaught, 1997, p.93).

#### *4.3.1.3 Utilisation*

Employees should be granted the opportunity to utilise their capabilities and qualifications to its fullest. A distinction can be made between quantitative and qualitative utilisation. Quantitative utilisation refers to the amount of time spent on the job daily, whereas qualitative utilisation refers to the utilisation of an employee's potential (including factors such as intelligence, skills and qualifications). The utilisation of employees includes aspects such as the amount of time employees are kept busy, the extent to which an employee can cope with what has to be done in his or her job, and the degree to which employees are utilised according to their abilities, qualifications, experience, and training. Leavitt (1996, p.336) warns against having a highly educated workforce and not utilising their potential or not giving them opportunities for advancement. This scenario would inevitably lead to low levels of job satisfaction.

#### *4.3.1.4 Status and recognition*

The position a person occupies in an organisation, usually has some or other status value within that organisation. Job content status refers to the status value which is linked to the job within a specific organisation by the organisation itself and by the other employees of that organisation.

Recognition refers to the respect an employee enjoys amongst his or her colleagues, resulting

from the status value of the job as well as the recognition he or she receives from the organisation for good performance. A good indication of the status and recognition value the employee links to the job is the degree to which the employee is proud of his or her job.

#### *4.3.1.5 Development*

No employee will feel satisfied in a situation where the same job is carried out year after year. Organisations change and develop over time, which has a vast impact on the jobs in the organisation. As technology advances, the way in which jobs are executed also changes. Training is therefore necessary to enable employees to keep up with these changes. All employees grow and change their goals from time to time and therefore need to be trained and developed accordingly. As the employee develops in his or her job, career opportunities need to be assessed and training and development provided to prepare employees for higher positions. Training and development will have a positive effect on perceived organisational support, which in turn has a positive impact on the job satisfaction experienced by the employee (Babakus et al, 1996, p.43).

Being the environment wherein the employee spends most of his or her conscious and productive time, the job itself represents the framework in which the employee will aim to satisfy his or her personal work-related needs and where opportunities for his or her self-actualisation are the most likely to occur (refer to the paradigm perspective in section 1.5 in Chapter 1).

#### **4.3.2 The job context environment**

The second category of situations wherein job satisfaction manifests is the job context environment. The job context environment generally refers to elements external to the job itself and includes all other influences within the organisation that can have an effect on the employee's job satisfaction. The following seven elements are included in the job context environment.

#### 4.3.2.1 *Organisational culture*

Organisational culture refers to the manner in which things are done in the organisation and can be described as the company's "personality." The culture of an organisation develops over time and involves general assumptions about the manner in which work should be done, the appropriate organisational and departmental goals, and the personal goals of employees.

Organisational culture therefore refers to the values and norms particular to an organisation and represents a reflection of the prevailing management philosophy and leadership style within the organisation. The last-mentioned has a direct impact on the way in which employees are managed and utilised and in turn the individual's ability and/or willingness to become part of the organisation, to strive toward organisational goals, and to experience job satisfaction.

#### 4.3.2.2 *Organisational climate*

An organisation's climate develops as a result of all the elements contained in the job context environment. The management philosophy of an organisation, as can be observed in the management style practised in an organisation, has a direct influence on the organisational climate. Organisational climate refers to the overall "atmosphere" prevalent in a particular organisation and is the result of a multitude of factors, among others, management's valuing of its employees as the most important resource, the organisation's accommodation of employees' needs, employees' commitment to organisational goals, the competitiveness amongst employees, job security experienced by employees, stress levels, and the effects of organisational politics. Symptoms such as absenteeism, grievances, labour turnover, and productivity, are usually a fair indication of an organisation's climate, be it positive or negative. The compatibility between an employee's needs, values, norms, and personality, on the one hand, and the organisational climate, on the other, will among others determine the employee's job satisfaction.

#### 4.3.2.3 *Management philosophy*

In the process of interacting with others, people make use of a frame of reference consisting of

assumptions regarding the motives for human behaviour and the way people can be influenced. Similarly, managers have certain assumptions concerning their subordinates' behaviour and motives. These assumptions determine the manner in which a manager will behave in the process of managing others. These assumptions or beliefs, held by managers and supervisors in an organisation, represent the management philosophy.

Management philosophy represents the basis for managerial behaviour and can range from the assumption that employees are passive and need to be closely supervised, to the assumption that employees are self-motivated and can be optimally utilised by means of participative leadership and the delegation of decision-making.

The degree to which the management philosophy prevalent in a particular organisation is comparable to the managerial approach which a particular employee expects from superiors, will determine the employee's job satisfaction.

#### 4.3.2.4 *Leadership style*

Gerber et al (1995, p.51) refer to leadership style as the way in which management philosophy manifests itself in practice. Leadership style refers to the typical manner in which a superior manages the job behaviour of subordinates. The leadership style which prevails in an organisation has an effect on the motivation, commitment, adaptability, and job satisfaction of employees.

Taking into account the diverse nature of the South African workforce, the leadership styles of managers have a direct impact on the performance and job satisfaction of employees. Leadership style can range from the traditional autocratic style to the more recently proposed situational leadership behaviour. The superior's leadership style and more important his or her repertoire of leadership behaviour will influence the job satisfaction of subordinates in so far as it is on par with the leadership expected or preferred by the employee concerned.

#### 4.3.2.5 *Structures and human resource policy*

The organisational structure refers to the way in which labour is divided into specific tasks and the degree of coordination between these tasks. Organisational structure is also closely related to the management philosophy adhered to by its managers. Management may use structures in different ways in order to achieve desired results. Examples of these are rules and regulations regarding job tasks, the implementation of job specialisation in order to promote closer supervision, the degree of decentralisation of power, the degree of co-ordination between subsections within the organisation, and the accuracy, completeness and timeliness of formal communication.

Human resource policy represents the rationale on which the management of the human resource in the organisation is based. Human resource policy therefore has a direct influence on the organisation's employees in the sense that it determines the organisation's compensation, promotion and labour relations policies.

The structuring of an organisation and the prevailing human resource policies have an effect on the employee's functioning and his or her personal need fulfilment, and therefore play a role in individual job satisfaction.

#### 4.3.2.6 *Working conditions*

According to Gerber et al (1995, p.52), working conditions refer to the environment in which the employee performs his or her job. Working conditions can be subdivided into three elements, namely physical working conditions, psychological working conditions, and the physical work layout.

Physical working conditions usually refer to such factors as hygiene, lighting, atmospheric conditions, noise levels, and services and facilities.

Psychological working conditions have to do with aspects like safety, stress as a result of work

pressure, and the manner in which the working conditions facilitate or hamper the effective execution of the job.

The physical work layout includes aspects such as the availability and efficiency of tools and apparatus, and the neatness, organisation, attractiveness, and stimulus value of the employee's physical work environment.

The satisfaction of an employee's lower order needs in the work situation is usually associated with working conditions. Working conditions therefore have an effect on job satisfaction.

#### 4.3.2.7 *Interpersonal and group relations*

The majority of employees find themselves in a work environment where there is a constant interaction between themselves and other employees. This social interaction results in a wide range of interpersonal relations. Gerber et al (1995, p.53) quote Milton (1981) who explains interpersonal relations as human conduct between interacting individuals which include relationships of communication, co-operation, change, problem solving and motivation. Each employee tries to influence other employees' behaviour in order to satisfy his or her own needs and, in turn, are influenced by other employees aiming to satisfy their needs. Interpersonal relations include interaction between peers as well as interaction between superiors and subordinates.

Organisations generally consist of formal groups, resulting from the division of work, that should, ideally, co-operate harmoniously in order to achieve organisational goals. These groups are, however, in continuous competition and often in a state of conflict. Unless group competition is in line with organisational goals it usually has an adverse effect on the effective functioning of the organisation. Informal groups, on the other hand, are formed to satisfy the personal needs of employees and are more than often detrimental to the organisation as a result of conflict between organisational goals and the goals of informal groups. Conflict also arises between formally appointed leaders and leadership, usually of a socio-supportive nature, within informal groups.

Since the average grownup spends most of his or her time at work, it is only natural that employees are inclined to endeavour to satisfy their social and esteem needs by means of interaction with people in their immediate work surroundings. This interpersonal interaction usually occurs between individuals as well as in group context, be it within formal or informal groups. Interpersonal and group relations therefore play an important part in the job satisfaction experienced by an employee.

#### **4.3.3 The external environment**

A person's job and affiliation as employee to a certain organisation has an effect on his or her status and acceptance in the environment external to the organisation. The external environment includes the employee's family and friends as well as all other contacts the employee may have with people in his or her day to day living. The employee's social, financial and business activities are therefore directly influenced by the nature of his or her job and job outcomes such as remuneration, fringe and other benefits resulting from his or her membership of the organisation concerned.

Apart from the social recognition the employee experiences as a result of his or her affiliation to a certain organisation, the employee also compares his or her own position as employee with that of persons in the society who occupies similar positions elsewhere. This comparison includes aspects like job content, income, fringe benefits, and promotion opportunities.

The environment external to the organisation therefore plays an important part in the process of assessing one's level of job satisfaction (Warner, 1996b, p.3558).

#### **4.3.4 Conclusion**

From the discussion above, it becomes clear that employee job satisfaction manifests in a wide range of job-related situations, each in turn consisting of a variety of elements.

For employees to experience job satisfaction, the organisation and its management should strive

to attend to all the elements of the framework described above. It should be ensured that the employee's abilities and creativeness are optimally employed, the job has clear guidelines and goals, the employee is fully utilised (both quantitatively and qualitatively), the employee has a certain status within the organisation because of the job he or she occupies, the employee is recognised by peers and superiors for doing a job well, and is continuously allowed and assisted to develop by means of training and further academic study. An employee's job satisfaction will further be advanced, should he or she experiences the organisational culture to be complimentary to his or her own cultural background, finds the organisational climate to be conducive to his or her personal goal attainment, feels that the management philosophy and leadership styles of superiors are constructive and fair, considers the organisational structures to be effective and the human resource policy to be market-related, sees his or her working conditions to be contributory to performance, experiences interpersonal and group relations conducive to the satisfaction of his or her need for acceptance and affiliation, receives social recognition as a result of his or her affiliation to the organisation, and finds that his or her job content, income, fringe benefits and promotion opportunities compares favourably with that of other persons in similar positions elsewhere.

The above-mentioned elements of the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests, can be associated with the facets of job satisfaction and should therefore be included in the measuring of job satisfaction. The job satisfaction questionnaire used in this study will be structured to contain items representing the elements of the framework discussed above. It is assumed that affirmative action beneficiaries will attempt to fulfil their job related needs in the different components of the above-mentioned framework and that the measurement of affirmative action beneficiaries' job satisfaction as manifested in the different environments, will reflect the success or failure of affirmative action interventions (refer to section 3.4 in Chapter 3).

#### **4.4 THE MEASUREMENT OF JOB SATISFACTION**

As job satisfaction measurement is usually part of the organisational development process, organisations have endeavoured to measure the job satisfaction levels of their employees since the early 1930's. This has resulted in the development of several measures of job satisfaction

(DuBrin, 1981, p.227).

The measurement of job satisfaction, however, is riddled by problems, resulting from the vagueness associated with the defining of job satisfaction and the absence of clear-cut theory concerning job satisfaction. A major problem in job satisfaction research is the loose coupling between job satisfaction theory and its measurement (Warner, 1996b, p.3552). This situation, in turn, results in the construct validity of measures of job satisfaction being questioned (Heneman et al, 1983, p.150). Although some organisations develop their own unique job satisfaction measure, the majority tend to make use of standardised measures.

Various approaches to the measurement of job satisfaction, and several methods whereby employees' job satisfaction levels can be determined, exist. These will be examined in the ensuing discussion.

#### **4.4.1 Approaches to the measurement of job satisfaction**

Historically, the tendency was to measure global or overall job satisfaction. It was, however, soon realised that job satisfaction consists of many facets. When measuring only overall job satisfaction, the feeling people have of the various aspects of their jobs are not assessed. With more studies of job satisfaction being conducted, researchers' knowledge of the different facets of job satisfaction increased, which led to the examining of job facet satisfaction (Heneman et al, 1983, p.150; Muchinsky, 1983, p.320). Job satisfaction can therefore be seen as a global concept, that refers to overall satisfaction, and as a facet-specific concept (Marais & Schepers, 1996, p.2).

Muchinsky (1983, p.320) explains that the examination of job facet satisfaction can be approached from two points of view, namely the statistical and conceptual approaches. The statistical approach involves the analysis, by means of factor analysis, of employees' responses to questions regarding job attitudes. The conceptual approach involves a specification of the facets to be examined, depending on the research goals.

Many theorists argue that overall job satisfaction is influenced by the sum of discrepancies that are present for each job factor. It is argued that, when computing the overall job satisfaction level, each discrepancy should be weighted by the importance that factor has for the person concerned. This is necessary because of the fact that factors considered important by the individual, influence job satisfaction more strongly than those considered less important (Lawler, 1994, p.88).

Francis and Milbourn (1980, p.77) argue that most job satisfaction research efforts have omitted a very important factor which could influence job satisfaction immensely, namely personality. The influence of personality on job satisfaction is illustrated by the role of a person's self-concept. It is argued that people have a certain image of themselves and usually aim to find a job which enhances or is compatible to this image. If the person's self-image and the job are compatible, the person will be satisfied with his or her job. If they are incompatible, it will result in job dissatisfaction. Lawler (1994, p.105) confirms the influence of personality on job satisfaction by mentioning that research has shown that satisfaction is a function of both the individual and the environment.

Some organisations use the number of grievances or absences as an indication of the level of job satisfaction experienced by employees. The question, however, can be asked whether this is an objective measure of job satisfaction? Korman (1971, p.321) argues that a variety of organisational situations can arise where, for example, higher satisfaction would result in higher grievances. Should an employee feel totally secure in his or her job which results in him or her liking the job, the employee will be more prone to submit grievances without the fear of retribution.

The above-mentioned illustrates the controversy surrounding the measurement of job satisfaction. Some standardised methods have, however, been developed whereby overall and facet job satisfaction can be measured. These measures will be discussed in the following section.

#### 4.4.2 Job satisfaction measures

Job satisfaction is typically measured by means of paper and pencil questionnaires. These questionnaires usually consist of five to 20 questions, each referring to typical facets of job satisfaction.

Korman (1971, pp.321-330) divides job satisfaction measures into two groups, namely direct and indirect measures. Direct measures are usually questionnaires which utilise either Thurstone, Guttman or Likert scales. Indirect measures are described as projective measures like, for example, sentence completion and "error-choice" methods.

The scales which are utilised to measure job satisfaction can be divided into two groups, namely tailor-made and standardised scales. Tailor-made scales are usually developed for a particular project in a particular organisation. Standardised scales have been developed to establish group norms for the scales and to ensure the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments. Although a number of standardised scales are available, many organisations still choose to develop tailor-made scales to suit their unique requirements (McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, p.309).

The three most popular standardised scales are the Job Description Index, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Kunin Faces Scale. These will be discussed in the following sections.

##### 4.4.2.1 *The Job Description Index (JDI)*

The JDI is generally regarded as the most popular job satisfaction measure. It is believed to measure five facets, namely satisfaction with the work itself, supervision, compensation, promotion, and co-workers. Each facet consists of nine to 18 items which consists of either words like, for example, "routine" or short phrases like, for example, "gives a sense of accomplishment." Respondents are requested to indicate their satisfaction with regard to each item by simply responding "yes" (the item describes the facet), "no" (the item does not describe the facet) or "?" (the respondent cannot decide). Each item has a scale value indicating how

descriptive it is of a satisfying job. The scale values are then tabulated to reflect the satisfaction with regard to each of the facets. The total score of the JDI can also be used to determine overall job satisfaction (Heneman et al, 1983, p.151; McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, p.310; Muchinsky, 1983, p.328).

#### 4.4.2.2 *The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)*

The MSQ measures a more detailed set of facets of job satisfaction and is regarded as the second most popular measure of job satisfaction. Twenty satisfaction facets are measured and each facet is, in turn, measured by five items. Respondents are requested to indicate their reaction regarding each item on a five-point scale ranging from “very dissatisfied” to “very satisfied.” The MSQ is relatively easy to use and does not take long to complete. This questionnaire can be utilised effectively by organisations who are interested in more detailed satisfaction information, especially about facets of work itself (Heneman et al, 1981, p.152; Muchinsky, 1983, p.329).

#### 4.4.2.3 *The Kunin Faces Scale*

This unique measure consists of a series of drawings of people’s faces with varying expressions, including variations in the curve of the mouth ranging from a broad smile ☺ to a downwards curved mouth ☹. The respondent then simply marks the face which best expresses how he or she feels about the aspect in question. The Faces Scale is generally used by organisations to measure global or overall job satisfaction (McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, p.310; Muchinsky, 1983, p.330).

### 4.4.3 **Conclusion**

Taking into consideration the vast range and complexity of theories concerning the concept of job satisfaction (refer to section 4.2 above), the variety of the elements of the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests (refer to section 4.3 above) and the relative simplicity of existing standardised job satisfaction questionnaires, it seems appropriate to, in an effort to

measure job satisfaction to its fullest extent and implication, identify and adapt a tailor-made measuring instrument specifically designed in accordance with the purposes of the current investigation.

In this research, a questionnaire will be utilised to determine the level of job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries in an effort to establish the success of affirmative action interventions. Seeing that affirmative action impacts on the total range of work-related experiences, the job satisfaction questionnaire has to contain the whole range of job satisfaction facets (refer to literature in this respect, contained in section 4.3 above). The questionnaire to be utilised is an adaption of an existing questionnaire containing items representing the different theories associated with job satisfaction. These items also represent the different elements of the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests.

#### **4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Job satisfaction is a topic that has been extensively researched over the years. Confusion, however, prevails regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, productivity, and motivation.

Many definitions on job satisfaction can be found in as many articles and books written on the subject. Most authors do, however, agree that job satisfaction is the result of what the employee receives in the work environment compared to what he or she expects of it.

A number of theories on job satisfaction exist, ranging from need satisfaction theories to the equity theory. According to these theories, job satisfaction can result from need satisfaction, meaningful social relations, the opportunity for self-actualisation, positive outcomes which measure up to employees' expectancies, adherence to the psychological contract, meaningful group relations, and favourable comparisons with others.

The situations wherein job satisfaction manifests, vary and comprise a wide spectrum of work related experiences. The three main environments wherein job satisfaction manifests are the job

content, the job context, and the external environment.

The level of job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries, as manifested in the different elements of this framework, can be considered to be an indication of an indirect outcome of the effectiveness of affirmative action strategies implemented by the organisation concerned.

Job satisfaction can be measured by making use of standardised methods. It is, however, argued whether overall or facet satisfaction should be measured and whether these standardised measuring instruments include both these aspects.

It can be concluded that job satisfaction is a complex construct which is difficult to define and complicated to measure.

With reference to the aim of this chapter, it can be stated that the concept of job satisfaction was defined, the different theories related to job satisfaction identified, the framework in which job satisfaction manifests described, and the different measures of job satisfaction examined.

Chapter 5 focuses on the empirical study.

## CHAPTER 5

### EMPIRICAL STUDY

As the empirical investigation was done by means of a succession of distinct steps (refer to section 1.6 in Chapter 1), these steps will be addressed in the order in which they were executed, namely:

- Step 1 Identification and description of the target organisations.
- Step 2 Demarcation and description of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries.
- Step 3 Construction of an instrument (a structured interview) to measure the level of congruency of an organisation's affirmative action interventions with effective affirmative action strategy, as contained in the related theory.
- Step 4 Selection and adaptation of a measure of job satisfaction, to evaluate the level of facet job satisfaction experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries in the different elements of the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests.
- Step 5 Collection of data by conducting the structured interview with target organisation representatives and applying the job satisfaction questionnaire to affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.
- Step 6 Processing of data by means of descriptive statistics and a non-parametric measure of association (rank order correlation).
- Step 7 Formulation of the hypothesis, regarding the relationship between the dependent and independent variable.
- Step 8 Reporting and interpretation of results with respect to the correlation between the effectiveness of the target organisations' affirmative action strategies and the job satisfaction of their affirmative action beneficiaries, as well as the level of representativeness of the job satisfaction scores of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.
- Step 9 Conclusions of the research with regard to the set objectives.
- Step 10 Identification of the limitations of the study with reference to the literature review and the empirical research.

- Step 11 Formulation of recommendations regarding the conceptualisation of the constructs of affirmative action and job satisfaction, future research efforts aimed at the measurement of affirmative action research and the implementation of affirmative action.

Steps 1 to 7 are addressed in this chapter, step 8 in Chapter 6 and steps 9 to 11 in Chapter 7.

This chapter elaborates on the identification and description of the target organisations, the demarcation and description of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries, the construction of a structured interview, the identification and adaptation of a job satisfaction questionnaire, the collection and processing of data, and the formulation of the hypothesis.

## **5.1 IDENTIFICATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE TARGET ORGANISATIONS**

In order to execute the empirical investigation, it was necessary to obtain the participation of a number of organisations that were willing to divulge their affirmative action strategies and allow the affirmative action beneficiaries in their employ to be subjected to a questionnaire.

### **5.1.1 Identification of target organisations**

Potential target organisations were selected according to three criteria, namely location, business sector, and number of affirmative action beneficiaries employed.

For logistical reasons, the organisations targeted were confined to those situated in the Gauteng Province. It however appeared that these organisations are inundated by requests from a large number of postgraduate students, enrolled at universities and technicons, to involve their employees in a variety of empirical studies.

In choosing potential target organisations, it was endeavoured to include organisations representing the spectrum (private as well as public) of the different organisational sectors. This was done in order to ensure that the results of the investigation could be generally applied.

In order to ensure that the results of the empirical study could be considered to be significant, it was decided to only include organisations with 20 or more affirmative action beneficiaries in their employ. It was also argued that organisations with fewer affirmative action employees do not actively strive to implement affirmative action and would therefore not have a clearly defined affirmative action strategy that could be evaluated for the purposes of the research.

On approaching organisations (targeted as suitable for the empirical study according to the above-mentioned criteria) to participate, it was found that organisation representatives were reluctant to comply. The main reasons for their reluctance were, among others, the resulting additional administration (including feedback of results to participating employees), the sensitivity surrounding affirmative action, aversion amongst employees to respond to yet another questionnaire, managing the expectations created by the enquiry amongst employees, and the enquiry coinciding with, or sequential to, a similar process. According to Babbie (1992, p.359) these logistical problems are often encountered in evaluative research due to the fact that this type of research is conducted within the context of real life. It was therefore necessary to persuade the organisations who were approached, to participate in the study. The persuasion consisted of an undertaking to fully manage the necessary administrative actions, pointing out the feedback nature of the self-scoring mechanism in the questionnaire (refer to section 5.4.1 below), accentuating the fact that the questionnaire does not contain any item referring to affirmative action, and undertaking to supply a full report on the findings to the organisation concerned. The nature of the research and the potential value of its outcome to the organisation taking part, also resulted in organisations to be interested in participating.

### **5.1.2 Description of the target organisations**

A total of ten organisations was approached of which six were willing to participate. The four organisations not willing to participate, stated one or more of the objections referred to above. Five of the targeted organisations were eventually included in the study, after eliminating one organisation that had a limited number of affirmative action beneficiaries in its employ. The participating organisations preferred to remain anonymous, but can be described as follows:

- One organisation from the private manufacturing sector (identified as Organisation A in the reporting of results).
- Two organisations from the private service sector (identified as Organisation B and Organisation C in the reporting of results).
- Two organisations from the public (educational) sector (identified as Organisation D and Organisation E in the reporting of results).

It was presumed that, for the purpose of a masters dissertation, the above-mentioned target organisations represented a large enough sample of the spectrum of organisational sectors.

## **5.2 DEMARCATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES**

The affirmative action beneficiaries used in the empirical study had to be demarcated for the purposes of the research.

### **5.2.1 Demarcation of the sample**

In general terms, affirmative action is aimed at members of groups previously discriminated against. In the USA, these groups include women and minority groups (*ie* African Americans, American Indians, Hispanics, Asians and disabled persons). In the South African context, affirmative action can be seen as targeting women, the disabled, racial minority groups (*ie* Indians and Coloureds) and the majority group consisting of blacks. Taking into account the evolvement of affirmative action in South Africa, especially with respect to its concomitance with the process of democratisation, the main focus of affirmative action seems to be the benefiting of African Blacks, including black women.

It was argued that the inclusion, in the current research, of members of all the groups targeted by affirmative action, would lead to a contamination of the variables, in that the level and nature of past discrimination concerning the different groups differed considerably. The acceptability and incorporation in organisational context of members of the different groups would also have

a direct influence on the complexity of the variables and could prejudice the results. It was therefore decided to demarcate the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries to consist of blacks only.

It is, however, important to distinguish between blacks traditionally appointed by organisations in lower-level jobs, and those employed or promoted as a result of affirmative action endeavours. Taking cognisance of the emphasis on the upliftment and development of affirmative action beneficiaries as described in the literature concerning effective affirmative action, the target population reflecting affirmative action success should consist of blacks on the different supervisory and managerial levels in a particular organisation. It was therefore decided to include the full complement<sup>1</sup> of blacks on Peromnes<sup>2</sup> job level 8 and higher, in the employ of the target organisations, as representing the sample.

## 5.2.2 Description of the sample

An analysis, by means of descriptive statistics, was made of the composition of the sample with regard to number as well as biographical characteristics<sup>3</sup>. This includes the number of respondents, the response rate, and biographic characteristics (including period of employment, present position being the result of promotion, age, gender, and number of subordinates). These results are depicted in tables 5.1 to 5.7 and are elaborated on in the ensuing sections.

### 5.2.2.1 *Number of respondents and response rate*

Due to the fact that the total demarcated sample of affirmative action appointees in each organisation was targeted for inclusion in the current investigation (refer to section 5.2.1 above), the number of respondents in the different target organisations differed according to the number

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<sup>1</sup> In one case, the full complement of blacks at the Head Office of the particular organisation.

<sup>2</sup> A comparison of job level ratings of the different job evaluation measures is appended as Addendum 4.

<sup>3</sup> This information was obtained from the demographical items in the questionnaire that was completed by the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation (refer to section 5.5.2 in Chapter 5).

of affirmative action beneficiaries on the demarcated job levels, in the employment of each target organisation. Questionnaires were distributed to all members of the sample in each organisation (refer to section 5.5.2 below). The number of employees contained in the sample as well as the response rate for each organisation are depicted in table 5.1.

**TABLE 5.1: SAMPLE SIZE AND RESPONSE RATE PER TARGET ORGANISATION**

ORGANISATION	SAMPLE SIZE	NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED	NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES RETURNED	RESPONSE RATE (%)
Organisation A	53	53	29	54,72
Organisation B	22	22	17	77,27
Organisation C	145	145	47	32,41
Organisation D	24	24	18	75
Organisation E	31	31	10	32,25
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>275</b>	<b>275</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>44</b>

The total sample was relatively small ( $n=275$ ) regardless of the fact that all the black affirmative action beneficiaries on and above the demarcated job level in all the target organisations were included. Organisation C had (in comparison) a substantial number of affirmative action beneficiaries ( $n=145$ ), while the other organisations' sample ranged between  $n=22$  and  $n=53$ .

The total number of completed questionnaires returned was 121, indicating an overall response rate of 44 per cent.

With regard to the different target organisations, the two highest response rates were 77 per cent (Organisation B) and 75 per cent (Organisation D). In the case of Organisation B, the executive director responsible for affirmative action was personally involved in the distribution of the job satisfaction questionnaires. In the case of Organisation D, the researcher personally contacted each respondent telephonically, asked their co-operation in the research and acquired their permission to be sent a job satisfaction questionnaire. In the case of the other three

organisations, only an explanatory letter was included with each questionnaire. It therefore seems as if management's involvement and personal contact are important factors contributing to a high response rate.

### 5.2.2.2 *Period of employment in present position*

Respondents were requested to indicate the length of time employed in his or her present position. The results are depicted in table 5.2.

**TABLE 5.2: PERIOD OF EMPLOYMENT IN PRESENT POSITION**

MONTHS IN PRESENT POSITION	RESPONDENTS PER ORGANISATION (number and percentage)									
	Organisation A (n=29)		Organisation B (n=17)		Organisation C (n=47)		Organisation D (n=18)		Organisation E (n=10)	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-6	6	20,69	4	23,53	12	25,53	3	16,67	0	0
7-12	12	41,38	5	29,41	8	17,02	2	11,11	1	10
13-18	5	17,24	1	5,88	9	19,15	3	16,67	1	10
19-24	3	10,34	4	23,53	7	14,90	3	16,67	1	10
25-30	0	0	0	0	1	2,12	1	5,55	1	10
31-36	2	6,90	2	11,77	4	8,51	2	11,11	2	20
37-42	1	3,45	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
43 and more	0	0	1	5,88	4	8,51	4	22,22	4	40
No response	0	0	0	0	2	4,26	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The majority of the respondents (74%) in the five target organisations had been employed in a supervisory capacity for two years or less. This tendency can possibly be ascribed to the relative short period during which affirmative action, relating to the upliftment of blacks, has been practised in South African organisations. The majority of respondents in organisation A (89%), B (82%) and C (76%) had been employed in a supervisory capacity for two years or less. In Organisation A, however, more than 60 per cent of the respondents had been employed in their

present position for one year or less. In Organisation E, the majority of respondents (60%) had been on a supervisory level for more than two and a half years. It is noteworthy that this organisation is an academic institution with a large black client base, which could have had an influence on the organisation embarking on affirmative action endeavours for a longer period.

### 5.2.2.3 *Period of employment in the target organisation*

Respondents were requested to indicate the length of time employed by their present employer. The results are depicted in table 5.3.

**TABLE 5.3: PERIOD OF EMPLOYMENT IN PRESENT ORGANISATION**

MONTHS IN PRESENT ORGANISATION	RESPONDENTS PER ORGANISATION (number and percentage)									
	Organisation A (n=29)		Organisation B (n=17)		Organisation C (n=47)		Organisation D (n=18)		Organisation E (n=10)	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0-6	0	0	3	17,65	4	8,51	4	22,22	0	0
7-12	5	17,24	2	11,76	7	14,90	1	5,56	0	0
13-18	3	10,34	1	5,88	8	17,02	4	22,22	0	0
19-24	4	13,80	1	5,88	7	14,90	2	11,11	0	0
25-30	2	6,90	2	11,76	1	2,12	1	5,55	0	0
31-36	3	10,34	3	17,65	7	14,90	3	16,67	0	0
37-42	2	6,90	0	0	1	2,12	0	0	0	0
43 and more	10	34,48	5	29,41	12	25,53	3	16,67	10	100
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

In Organisation A, 41 per cent of respondents had been with the organisation for more than three years. The majority of the respondents (63%) in the five target organisations had been employed by their organisations for a period of three years or less. The majority of respondents in organisation A (59%), B (71%), C (72%) and D (83%) had been employed by their organisations for a period of three years or less. This tendency can possibly be ascribed to the "job hopping" syndrome that affects most organisations in South Africa (refer to section 2.5.6.4

in Chapter 2).

All the respondents in Organisation E had been employed by the organisation for more than three and a half years and confirms the assumption made in section 5.2.2.2 above.

#### 5.2.2.4 *Present position being the result of promotion*

Respondents had to indicate whether they were promoted to their current position. The results are depicted in table 5.4.

**TABLE 5.4: RESPONDENTS PROMOTED TO CURRENT POSITION**

RESPONDENTS PER ORGANISATION (number and percentage)										
	Organisation A (n=29)		Organisation B (n=17)		Organisation C (n=47)		Organisation D (n=18)		Organisation E (n=10)	
	Number	%								
Promoted	18	62,07	8	47,06	17	36,17	1	5,56	9	90
Not promoted	11	37,93	9	52,94	29	61,70	16	88,88	1	10
No response	0	0	0	0	1	2,13	1	5,56	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

More than half of the respondents (55%) in the five target organisations had been promoted to their present positions. In organisation A (62%) and E (90%) the majority of respondents had been promoted to their present positions. This tendency is on par with the notion that affirmative action programmes should focus on the advancement of members of previously disadvantaged groups (refer to sections 2.1.3 and 2.1.4 in Chapter 2).

In organisation D, the majority of respondents (89%) were apparently only appointed in and not promoted to their present positions. This is a traditionally white tertiary academic institution and this tendency can possibly be ascribed to a shorter spell of affirmative action efforts.

## 5.2.2.5 Age

The respondents were requested to indicate their age. The results are depicted in table 5.5.

**TABLE 5.5: AGE OF RESPONDENTS**

RESPONDENTS PER ORGANISATION (number and percentage)										
AGE	Organisation A (n=29)		Organisation B (n=17)		Organisation C (n=47)		Organisation D (n=18)		Organisation E (n=10)	
	Number	%								
20-25	1	3,45	1	5,88	0	0	0	0	0	0
26-30	7	24,14	1	5,89	3	6,38	2	11,11	0	0
31-35	11	37,93	7	41,18	13	27,66	2	11,11	0	0
36-40	9	31,03	1	5,88	17	36,17	2	11,11	2	20
41-45	1	3,45	3	17,65	10	21,28	5	27,78	2	20
46-50	0	0	2	11,76	3	6,38	4	22,22	0	0
51-55	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	11,11	2	20
56-60	0	0	0	0	1	2,13	1	5,56	3	30
61 and older	0	0	1	5,88	0	0	0	0	1	10
No response	0	0	1	5,88	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The majority of respondents (65%) in the five target organisations is relatively young (between 20 and 40 years of age). The majority of the respondents in organisations A (96%) and C (70%) is relatively young (between 20 and 40 years of age). This tendency can possibly be explained by the fact that opportunities for the educational upliftment of members of previously disadvantaged groups have only been in existence since the Sullivan era, and that younger members of disadvantaged groups are more inclined to make use of such opportunities.

In the case of organisations D and E, respectively 66 and 80 per cent of the respondents are between the age of 41 and 60 years. These organisations are academic institutions where appointment in managerial positions is closely linked to the attainment of tertiary academic qualifications, which in turn takes time and will presumably result in the individuals included in

the samples in these organisations to be older.

#### 5.2.2.6 Gender

The gender of respondents is depicted in table 5.6.

**TABLE 5.6: GENDER OF RESPONDENTS**

GENDER		RESPONDENTS PER ORGANISATION (%)									
		Organisation A (n=29)		Organisation B (n=17)		Organisation C (n=47)		Organisation D (n=18)		Organisation E (n=10)	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Male		28	96,55	13	76,47	39	82,98	10	55,56	7	70
Female		1	3,45	4	23,53	8	17,02	8	44,44	3	30
TOTAL		29	100	17	100	47	100	18	100	10	100

The majority of respondents (80%) in the five target organisations is male. The majority of the respondents in organisation A (96%), B (76%), C (83%) and E (70%) is male. This tendency confirms the notion that black women are the group most discriminated against and that they are indeed doubly disadvantaged, because they are black as well as of the female gender (2.2.3.2 in Chapter 2).

In the case of organisation A, the relatively high occurrence of men may be the result of it being a manufacturing organisation, where males are predominantly the persons who will possess the technical qualifications required for employment in such an organisation.

In organisation D (an academic institution) the genders were more equally represented among respondents. This can be due to the fact that, in comparison with Organisation B (also an academic institution) where only academic staff were included in the sample, the sample of organisation D also included administrative staff who traditionally is biased in favour of the female gender.

5.2.2.7 *Number of subordinates reporting to respondents*

Respondents were requested to indicate the number of subordinates reporting directly to him or her. The results are depicted in table 5.7.

**TABLE 5.7: NUMBER OF SUBORDINATES REPORTING TO RESPONDENTS**

NUMBER OF SUBORDINATES	RESPONDENTS PER ORGANISATION (number and percentage)									
	Organisation A (n=29)		Organisation B (n=17)		Organisation C (n=47)		Organisation D (n=18)		Organisation E (n=10)	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
0	11	37,93	4	23,53	20	42,55	12	66,67	4	40
1-5	11	37,93	6	35,29	13	27,67	5	27,78	4	40
6-10	1	3,45	4	23,53	10	21,28	1	5,55	0	0
11-15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16-20	3	10,34	1	5,89	2	4,25	0	0	0	0
21-25	2	6,90	1	5,88	0	0	0	0	1	10
26-30	0	0	0	0	2	4,25	0	0	0	0
31 and more	1	3,45	1	5,88	0	0	0	0	1	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>

The majority of the respondents (87%) in the five target organisations had 10 or less subordinates reporting to them, with organisations D (100%) and E (80%) having the highest incidence of 10 or less subordinates.

The high number of respondents with few subordinates in organisations D and E can be explained by the relative absence of a hierarchical structure in the academic departments of tertiary institutions such as these two organisations.

### **5.3 AN INSTRUMENT TO MEASURE THE LEVEL OF CONGRUENCY OF AN ORGANISATION'S AFFIRMATIVE ACTION INTERVENTIONS WITH EFFECTIVE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY**

The literature survey concerning affirmative action strategies (refer to section 2.3 in Chapter 2) and the conceptualisation of the affirmative action continuum (refer to section 2.4 in Chapter 2) that emphasises the appropriateness as well as the shortcomings of the different strategies proposed in literature, provided the framework containing indications of affirmative action strategy effectiveness for the purposes of this research. With the aforementioned as a frame of reference, a structured interview was developed. This interview served as an instrument to measure the congruency of target organisation's affirmative action programmes with effective affirmative action interventions as proposed by the literature.

#### **5.3.1 Development of the structured interview**

The structured interview was developed in accordance with the essence of the theory concerning affirmative action success and the arrangement of affirmative action strategies, as depicted in the affirmative action continuum (refer to section 2.4 in Chapter 2). The items represent the successful as well as unsuccessful elements of the range of affirmative action strategies contained in the continuum. This instrument is appended as Addendum 1.

The elements of the five strategies included in the affirmative action continuum were analysed and translated into 34 interview questions, representing the success factors as well as the aspects associated with the negative outcomes of each of the strategies. The 34 interview questions were grouped into eight categories, each representing the positive and negative issues related to the affirmative action strategies described in sections 2.3 and 2.4 in Chapter 2. These categories included equal employment opportunity (6 questions), window-dressing (5 questions), tokenism (4 questions), favouritism (3 questions), upliftment (3 questions), development (4 questions), mentorship (3 questions) and managing diversity (6 questions).

Each question represents either a positive or negative aspect of the affirmative action strategy

it is grouped under. The effectiveness of an organisation's affirmative action strategy is rated by the interviewer according to the answers given by the interviewee in reaction to the different questions. This is indicated by the score awarded to the response of the interviewee. Total agreement with negative issues associated with the different affirmative action strategies is awarded a score of 1 and total agreement with positive issues a score of 4. The possible scores for each item range between 1 and 4.

### **5.3.2 Rationale and objective of the structured interview**

The structured interview has a direct link to the research design (refer to section 1.4 in Chapter 1) and the measurement of affirmative action success (refer to Chapter 3). The result of its implementation represents the dependent variable of the current research.

The structured interview embodies a means to identify the level of effectiveness of a particular organisation's affirmative action interventions, by comparing its contents to assumptions regarding affirmative action success as contained in the relevant theory. This is done by scoring the interviewee's reaction to the questions contained in the structured interview, by means of weighing the response to each question with respect to its congruency with the theory concerning affirmative action success. The structured interview was constructed to provide a numerical result, depicting the level of effectiveness of each target organisation's affirmative action interventions.

The structured interview was specifically designed for the purpose of this investigation and has the objective of measuring the affirmative action endeavours of the target organisations in terms of its congruency with effective affirmative action strategies as suggested in the related theory.

### **5.3.3 Dimensions of the structured interview**

The contents of the structured interview consist of eight affirmative action strategies (dimensions), namely, equal employment opportunity, window-dressing, tokenism, favouritism, upliftment, development, mentorship, and the managing of diversity. With respect to each of

these strategies, a number of statements were formulated and weighed with respect to its conformity or nonconformity with effectiveness as delineated in the assumptions contained in literature concerning affirmative action (refer to sections 2.3 and 2.4 in Chapter 2). The aforementioned weighing results in a high score in the case where the response coincides with an effective strategy as proposed by the relevant literature (refer to section 5.3.1 above).

#### **5.3.4 Administration and scoring of the structured interview**

The structured interview is conducted by putting the questions, described in section 5.3.3 above, verbatim to the interviewee. Care should be taken not to mention the main categories under which the questions were grouped, but to ask the 34 questions only, in the sequence that they appear in the interview form (refer to Addendum 1). This is done to ensure that the interviewee answers each question on its own merit and not according to the preconceived ideas he or she has of the category under which it is grouped. The responses to the various questions are then interpreted by the interviewer and scored on the structured interview form (refer to Addendum 1). For each item in the structured interview, a score of one to four is allocated, the higher score depicting congruency with an effective utilisation of the affirmative action strategy, related to the particular question.

The response to each item are scored on a four-point adapted Likert scale (Baker, 1988, pp.378-379) representing a forced choice construction in that possible answers range from total disagreement to total agreement, with no middle position. Total scores range from a minimum of 34 to a maximum of 136. The higher the score, the more effective the affirmative action strategy.

The total score for the organisation concerned can then be calculated to represent an indication of the effectiveness of that organisation's affirmative action interventions. This numerical value represents the dependent variable for each target organisation, for the purposes of the empirical study.

### **5.3.5 Validity of the structured interview**

The structured interview was compiled according to the prerequisites of an effective affirmative action strategy as indicated in the relevant literature and is considered to be a valid measure of the effectiveness of affirmative action endeavours. It can therefore be assumed that the structured interview meets the psychometric requirements concerning content validity or *face validity* (Baker, 1988, pp.119-120). Baker (1988, p.119) refers to content validity and states that “the most basic method of testing for validity is to carefully examine the measure of a concept in light of its meaning and to ask yourself seriously whether the measurement instrument really seems to be measuring the underlying concept.”

### **5.3.6 Reliability of the structured interview**

Due to the practical nature of the research, the reliability of the structured interview was not established.

Reliability refers to the degree to which a procedure for measuring produces similar outcomes when it is repeated (Baker, 1988, p.123). In the case of the structured interview, testing its reliability would have entailed a second interview with the same interviewee in each of the target organisations in order to compare the result of the initial interview with the result of the second. This was considered to be impractical, as the research, as it is, was done at the expense and with sacrifice of time and effort by the interviewees. Interviewing more persons in each target organisation was also impractical, as organisations seldom have more than one person equally informed regarding its affirmative action strategy. The structured interview was developed and customised for the purposes of this investigation and therefore had no previous application from which information regarding its reliability could be obtained. Due to the unique characteristics concerning affirmative action strategies, the structured interview does not lend itself to a test-retest simulation, using interviewees not involved with the affirmative action endeavours of a specific organisation.

### **5.3.7 Motivation for the use of this structured interview**

In the evaluation of the nature of affirmative action interventions, in order to establish their effectiveness, a number of approaches can be followed, including an analysis of policy statements and written reports concerning an organisation's affirmative action intentions and programmes (Castle, 1996). The problem, however, is that such documentation does not necessarily reflect the actual practical situation. There is often a considerable difference between an organisation's intentions with regard to affirmative action (as contained in its policy statements) and that which is practised in reality. This refers to the tendency associated with so-called "window dressing" regarding the implementation of affirmative action (refer to section 2.3.3.1 in Chapter 2). For this reason it was considered that, for the purpose of this investigation, a structured interview with the person responsible for the implementation of affirmative action programmes, would provide a more valid representation of the actual nature of affirmative action interventions in the organisation concerned.

Due to the existing confusion regarding the nature of affirmative action (refer to section 2.1 in Chapter 2) as well as the multifaceted nature of the different approaches and strategies concerning affirmative action (refer to sections 2.2 and 2.3 in Chapter 2) the researcher is convinced that the construction of a customised instrument to measure affirmative action effectiveness, represented the only way to ensure an accurate investigation concerning the problem formulation with regard to the present study (refer to section 1.2 in Chapter 1).

## **5.4 A MEASURE OF JOB SATISFACTION**

It was necessary to identify an appropriate measure to determine the job satisfaction level of affirmative action beneficiaries in each of the target organisations. The outcome of the implementation of this measure will represent the independent variable in this investigation.

### **5.4.1 Identification, adaptation and structuring of the job satisfaction questionnaire**

The available standardised scales measuring job satisfaction (*ie* the Job Description Index, the

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Kunin Faces Scale) (Heneman et al, 1983, pp.151-152; McCormick & Ilgen, 1981, pp.309-310; Muchinsky, 1983, pp.328-330) were evaluated with regard to their adequacy in measuring the full range of dimensions contained in the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests (refer to section 4.3 in Chapter 4). Due to the fact that these instruments were constructed to mainly measure overall job satisfaction and therefore did not contain a comprehensive range of job satisfaction facets, it was concluded that none of these scales met the demand of the research objective.

Van Dyk (1987) compiled a measure of organisational success, consisting of a questionnaire that includes a large number of items that can be associated with the concept of job satisfaction. This questionnaire was deemed a suitable measure of facet job satisfaction and was adapted for the purpose of this study.

The questionnaire developed by Van Dyk (1987) represents a diagnostic tool with the aim to implement organisational development in the military context. It consists of 201 items, excluding biographical enquiry. The majority of items represent a question or statement on which the respondent has to react by choosing and marking one of four supplied answers or reactions. The items represent a forced choice construction in that the possible answers (reactions) range from very positive to very negative with no middle position. Two of the potential answers (reactions) are of a positive nature while the other two are negative.

Van Dyk's (1987) questionnaire was adapted by removing all items unique to the military context, and rephrasing the item on leadership style, the items on fringe benefits and the item on the physical lay out of the workplace. Four new items were added, one each pertaining to pension, group insurance and car allowance benefits (items 74, 76 and 78) and one item (item 104) referring to ostracisation from informal group activities. Instructions and biographic enquiry appertaining to the present study were compiled. The final adapted questionnaire, containing 112 items, was translated into English and is appended as Addendum 2.

In an effort to enhance respondent participation, two unique features were added to the questionnaire. In view of the relatively large number of items contained in the questionnaire,

the items were not numbered, in order to reduce possible subjective fatigue (items can however be identified by the first three digits contained in the scoring code to the right of each item). The second unique feature is the self-scoring mechanism at the end of the questionnaire. This enables the respondent to calculate and evaluate his or her job satisfaction in accordance with his or her responses to the questionnaire items. It was assumed that such a feature would make the effort interesting and would motivate respondents and organisation representatives to participate in the process.

#### **5.4.2 Rationale and objective of the job satisfaction questionnaire**

The adapted job satisfaction questionnaire represents a measure containing items deducted from the elements of the different theories concerning the construct of job satisfaction (refer to section 4.2 in Chapter 4). These theories include, need theory (Maslow, 1964; McClelland, 1961), the theory concerning assumptions about human nature (Schein, 1980), the two-factor theory (Herzberg et al, 1959), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), the psychological contract theory (Schein, 1980), group theory (Schein, 1980) and Adams' equity theory (Lawler, 1994). The questionnaire therefore contains the spectrum of job satisfaction dimensions as proposed by the relevant theory.

The items of the questionnaire were further linked to the dimensions of the framework in which job satisfaction manifests (refer to section 4.3 in Chapter 4). This framework (Gerber et al, 1995) represents the job content environment, the job context environment, and the related environment, external to the organisation. The dimensions of job satisfaction are thus associated with the specific aspects of work related experiences in which the individual would strive to obtain personal satisfaction.

In reacting to the different statements contained in the items of the questionnaire, a comparison is made by the respondent of the level of congruency between, on the one hand, his or her expectations concerning the outcome of organisational association, work involvement and work behaviour and, on the other, his or her actual experience with respect to the fulfilment of these expectations. The respondent's answers on the questionnaire items represent an indication of

the level of job satisfaction experienced by him or her and reflect the respondent's experience of the extent to which the organisation adheres to the preconditions of the psychological contract (refer to section 4.2.5 in Chapter 4).

The objective of the questionnaire is therefore to measure the level of job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiaries in the different target organisations.

### **5.4.3 Dimensions of the job satisfaction questionnaire**

The dimensions and elements of the job satisfaction questionnaire are contained in Addendum 2 and are described in detail in Addendum 3.

### **5.4.4 Administration and scoring of the job satisfaction questionnaire**

The job satisfaction questionnaire represents a "paper and pencil" instrument that is supplied to the respondent in a printed format. The questionnaire consists of 112 statements on which the respondent has to react by choosing and marking one of four possible reactions that are supplied. The items represent a forced choice construction in that the possible answers (reactions) range from very positive to very negative with no middle position. Two of the potential answers (reactions) are of a positive nature while the other two are negative.

A total job satisfaction score for the respondent can be calculated by adding the last digit of the code to the right of the alternatives chosen. The scale for each item ranges from one to four, with a score of one or two, implicating dissatisfaction and a score of three or four, implicating satisfaction. An average total job satisfaction score as well as an average score for each job satisfaction dimension can be calculated, resulting in numerical values which, in the case of the present study, represented the independent variable.

### **5.4.5 Validity of the job satisfaction questionnaire**

In an effort to evaluate the construct validity of the original questionnaire, which was adapted

for the purpose of this research, Van Dyk (1987, pp.793-807) applied the Oblique factor analysis technique (Nie et al, 1975, p.486) to the data obtained in his study. He identified 19 factors (excluding those related to the military context) with a high loading, which he labelled as follows:

- General job motivation
- Job satisfaction
- Knowledge of job requirements
- Job mastering
- Utilisation in work context
- Job loading
- General job status
- Opportunity for competency improvement
- Purposefulness of development
- Leadership
- Goal achievement
- Authority
- Remuneration
- Merit rating
- Physical working conditions
- Interpersonal relations
- Interpersonal support
- Subgroup formation
- External recognition

It is important to note that, with the exception of the military related items, all items having a high factor analysis loading, were included in the adapted questionnaire used in this research.

The final adapted questionnaire was structured according to the theoretical framework wherein job satisfaction manifests (refer to section 4.3 in Chapter 4), with the items related to each environment, its dimensions and elements, grouped together.

This structure was analysed and each questionnaire item linked to the different theories on the concept of job satisfaction (refer to section 4.2 in Chapter 4) in an effort to validate the construct representativeness (content validity) of the questionnaire. The detailed outcome of this process is contained in Addendum 3 and the summarised results in tables 5.8 and 5.9 below.

**TABLE 5.8: THE NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS REFLECTING THE DIFFERENT JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES**

JOB SATISFACTION THEORY	NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS REFLECTING THE JOB SATISFACTION THEORY	PERCENTAGE (%)
Need theory	82	73,21
Social assumption theory	26	23,21
Self-actualising assumption theory	38	33,93
Two-factor theory	99	88,39
Expectancy theory	107	95,54
Psychological contract theory	74	66,07
Group theory	24	21,43
Equity theory	14	12,50

The different theories related to the construct of job satisfaction can be classified into two groups, namely, general theories associated with overall job satisfaction and theories relating to facet job satisfaction.

Overall job satisfaction is generally linked to Herzberg's Two-factor theory, need theory, expectancy theory, and the psychological contract theory (Herzberg et al, 1959; Maslow, 1964; McClelland, 1961; Schein, 1980). The relatively large representativeness of these theories in the items of the job satisfaction questionnaire can therefore be expected.

Facet job satisfaction (Marais & Schepers, 1996, p.2), on the other hand, is associated with gratification regarding outcomes peripheral to the job itself and has to do with developmental opportunities, interpersonal and group relations, and comparison with others. The theories related to these facets of job satisfaction can therefore be expected to feature to a lesser extent

in the questionnaire items.

**TABLE 5.9: THE NUMBER OF JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES REFLECTED PER ITEM OF THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE**

NUMBER OF JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES REFLECTED PER ITEM OF THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE	NUMBER OF JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS
8	0
7	1
6	3
5	49
4	24
3	28
2	7
1	0
0	0

From table 5.9 it can be concluded that the majority of the items (93%) can be associated with three or more of the theories regarding job satisfaction.

The result of the analysis of the items of the job satisfaction questionnaire, in terms of its representativeness of the theoretical constructs associated with job satisfaction, can be interpreted as an indication of content validity.

#### **5.4.6 Reliability of the job satisfaction questionnaire**

In his research, Van Dyk (1987, pp.806-809) reports on the reliability of the original questionnaire. He made a psychometric inference concerning the reliability of the questionnaire by using the Alpha factoring method (Nie et al, 1975, p.481). Van Dyk (1987, p.808) found an internal consistency ranging between  $r=0,60$  and  $r=0,93$  for the different dimensions included in the questionnaire.

The reliability of the adapted questionnaire (used in this study) was evaluated by using the test-retest method. The responses on the questionnaire of 20 persons (not part of the target population) were correlated (Pearson's product-moment correlation) with a second response by the same 20 persons, eight weeks later. This evaluation resulted in a correlation of  $r=0,89$  and can be interpreted as proof of compliance with the requirement of reliability.

As an additional measure of reliability, the Cronbach Alpha Coefficient measure was applied to the responses of the total sample of affirmative action beneficiaries. The results obtained, are depicted in table 5.10.

The internal consistency of the dimensions of the job satisfaction questionnaire as measured by means of the Cronbach Alpha Correlation Coefficient ranged between  $r=0,72$  and  $r=0,91$  and can be considered as an indication of reliability. This confirmed the results obtained by Van Dyk (1987, p.808).

**TABLE 5.10: THE INTERNAL CONSISTENCY (RELIABILITY) PER DIMENSION OF THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE ACCORDING TO THE CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT MEASURE<sup>4</sup>**

<b>JOB SATISFACTION DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>CRONBACH ALPHA COEFFICIENT</b>
<b>Nature of the job</b>	0,91
<b>Job guidelines and goals</b>	0,89
<b>Utilisation</b>	0,72
<b>Status and recognition</b>	0,73
<b>Development</b>	0,88
<b>Leadership</b>	0,86
<b>Structures</b>	0,83
<b>Human resource policy</b>	0,80
<b>Working conditions</b>	0,87
<b>Interpersonal and group relations</b>	0,89
<b>External environment</b>	0,8

4

This calculation was done, using the Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS), Version 6 for Unix.

#### **5.4.7 Motivation for the use of the adapted job satisfaction questionnaire**

For logistical reasons, it was decided to use a paper and pencil test that could be distributed to the employees demarcated as the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in the five target organisations. The questionnaire format therefore appeared to be appropriate and the different existing job satisfaction questionnaires were evaluated for inclusion in the research. As explained in section 5.4.1, the available standardised job satisfaction questionnaires were found not to be applicable for utilisation in the current investigation, due to the fact that these instruments do not contain the full range of job satisfaction facets as identified in the theory (refer to section 4.2 in Chapter 4).

Because only one instrument, and not a battery of tests, was used to determine the job satisfaction level experienced by the sample, the questionnaire to be utilised had to represent an extensive measure, containing as many as possible of the different facets of job satisfaction. The instrument originally developed by Van Dyk (1987) was found to fit this requirement and was adapted for the specific purpose of this research effort.

The researcher is convinced, based on the above-mentioned arguments and evidences, that the questionnaire (as adapted) represents a valid and reliable measure of job satisfaction that would satisfy the requirements of this study as described in the problem formulation (refer to section 1.2 in Chapter 1).

### **5.5 DATA COLLECTION**

Two sets of data were collected for the purpose of the empirical study, namely, data related to the effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the target organisations, and data reflecting the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in the different target organisations. The collection of the data with respect to each of these processes will be explained separately in the ensuing sections.

### **5.5.1 Collection of data concerning the effectiveness of affirmative action strategies implemented by the target organisations**

Once the target organisations were identified and permission was granted to conduct the empirical study in these organisations, an appointment was made with the person responsible for the implementation of affirmative action strategy. This was usually the human resource manager or a person specially designated to manage the affirmative action process. This person was, in each case, identified by the member of top management who was originally approached to obtain permission to involve the organisation in the research. The interviewee's capability and "authority" to supply information on the behalf of the organisation was also established by the researcher, before commencing with the interview.

A structured interview was then conducted with the person identified, using the structured interview form (appended as Addendum 1).

Before commencing with the structured interview, it was explained to the interviewee that the answers to the various questions should reflect the practical, true life situation with regard to the implementation of the organisation's affirmative action strategy. This was emphasised throughout the interview and the interviewee was prompted to give more information in the case where answers were inexplicit, in order to enable the interviewer to accurately evaluate and to score the responses to the interview questions.

The questions were put verbatim to the interviewee in the same sequence as represented in the structured interview form and responses were scored according to the four-point scale supplied in the instrument.

The effectiveness of each target organisation's affirmative action strategy was calculated by adding the scores on the different items of the structured interview. This numerical value represented the dependant variable for the purposes of the empirical study.

### **5.5.2 Collection of data concerning the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in the target organisations**

After conducting the structured interview, the best manner in which to distribute the job satisfaction questionnaires in the organisation concerned was planned in co-operation with the same person the interview was conducted with.

Organisations A and B opted to undertake the distribution and collection of questionnaires themselves. The completed questionnaires were collected from these organisations. Organisations C, D and E only provided a list of affirmative action beneficiaries and were not involved in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires. In the case of organisation C, the questionnaire along with a covering letter, explaining the aim of the research project and requesting the respondents' co-operation, as well as an addressed, postage prepaid return envelope were distributed to the target population, by means of the organisation's internal postal system. In the case of organisations D and E, because of a lesser number of respondents than in the case of organisations A, B and C, a list of affirmative action beneficiaries, including their telephone numbers, were obtained. Each of these potential respondents was contacted telephonically and the nature and aim of the job satisfaction questionnaire explained to them. During the aforementioned telephonic conversations the potential respondents concerned were coaxed to give their co-operation and their permission was obtained to send them the questionnaire. In accordance with the undertaking, in order to obtain the organisation's participation, the linking of questionnaire results with affirmative action success was not divulged to the respondents. In all the cases mentioned above, it was ensured that the selection of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries as well as the general information given concerning the background and reasons for the enquiry by means of the questionnaire, was identical in all the target organisations, as to conform to the research design (refer to section 1.4 in Chapter 1).

Each completed job satisfaction questionnaire was scored by adding the weighted digit of each item's score code and the average total job satisfaction score was then calculated for each target organisation. Similarly, the average job satisfaction score for the different job satisfaction

dimensions was calculated for each target organisation. The resulting numerical values represented the independent variable in the empirical study.

## **5.6 DATA PROCESSING**

During the execution of the empirical study, three statistical procedures were utilised in the processing of data, namely:

- An analysis, by means of descriptive statistics, of the level of effectiveness of each target organisation's affirmative action strategy (as measured by the structured interview) and the level of job satisfaction (as measured by the job satisfaction questionnaire) of the affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.
- A calculation of the association (correlation) between each target organisation's affirmative action effectiveness as measured by the structured interview (dependent variable) and the level of job satisfaction of its affirmative action beneficiaries as reflected by their response on the job satisfaction questionnaire (independent variable), and
- a statistical investigation (by means of descriptive statistics) regarding the distribution of the job satisfaction scores obtained by each target organisation's affirmative action beneficiaries.

The above mentioned statistical procedures will be explained separately in the ensuing sections.

### **5.6.1 Statistical procedure utilised to analyse the results of the implementation of the structured interview and the job satisfaction questionnaire**

Descriptive statistics was used to analyse the above-mentioned results in order ascertain the distribution of the effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the target organisations and the average job satisfaction level of affirmative action beneficiaries in the target organisations.

### 5.6.2 Statistical procedure utilised in the calculation of the correlation between the dependent and independent variable

Correlation is usually determined by making use of either parametric measures of association or nonparametric measures of association (should the requirements of parametric association not be met) (Steyn et al, 1994, p.615). When making use of parametric measures of association, it is assumed that the total sample is relatively large and that the standard deviation of the responses of the total population is known (Freund & Walpole, 1987, p.521). In the case of the current research, these assumptions could not be met. Firstly, regardless of the target population of each organisation consisting of the total population in that organisation (see section 5.1 above), the number of respondents on supervisory levels in the target organisations was relatively small (ranging from  $n=10$  to  $n=47$ ). Secondly, as each target organisation included in this research implemented their own unique affirmative action strategy, the total population of all the target organisations combined could not be utilised as one sample, and the standard deviation of responses to the questionnaire and the correlation between the dependent and independent variable had to be determined separately for each organisation.

It was therefore concluded that a nonparametric measure of association was appropriate for the current research. Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient measure was identified as suitable. This measure requires two variables to be compared (Freund & Walpole, 1987, p.546), and is also specifically applicable to a research model where a particular hypothesis is tested in terms of the existence of a correlation between two variables.

Spearman's rank order correlation method is based on two opposite assumptions, namely the *null* assumption ( $H_0$ ) which assumes that there is no correlation between the two variables, and an alternative assumption ( $H_1$ ) which assumes that there is a correlation between the two variables (Freund & Walpole, 1987, p.548). The level of correlation between the two variables is reflected by a correlation value ( $r_s$ ) and the significance of this correlation is tested with a probability value ( $p$ ). A  $p$ -value lower than the 0,05 level of significance results in the  $H_0$  to be rejected and the  $H_1$  to be accepted, indicating a correlation and confirming the  $r_s$ -value.

The calculation of the correlation between the dependent and independent variable was done, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Release 6.1.3 (Norusus, 1993).

### **5.6.3 Statistical procedures utilised in the investigation concerning the distribution of job satisfaction scores in each target organisation**

In view of the fact that the average of the job satisfaction scores (independent variable) in each organisation was used in the aforementioned calculation of the correlation between the dependent and independent variable, it can be questioned whether such an average score reflects the job satisfaction of the majority of affirmative action beneficiaries in each organisation and whether a few outliers did not contaminate the average score. It was therefore decided to investigate the distribution and the homogeneity of the individual job satisfaction scores in each target organisation. A close distribution and a high homogeneity will confirm the relevance of the average job satisfaction score and therefore the validity of the conclusions concerning the correlation between the dependent and independent variable.

The distribution of the job satisfaction scores of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation was analysed by using descriptive statistics to order the data that was obtained. The mean and standard deviation with regard to the job satisfaction scores for each target organisation were calculated and applied in determining the percentage of respondents' job satisfaction scores that fall within one standard deviation below and one standard deviation above the mean. The higher the last mentioned percentage, the more clustered the job satisfaction scores are around the mean, and therefore serves as an indication the homogeneity of the different individual scores. A high homogeneity among the individual job satisfaction scores in a particular target organisation, will confirm the relevance of the mean of job satisfaction scores (the independent variable) and in such a case enhance the validity of the conclusions in the instance of a high correlation being found between the dependent and independent variable.

The calculations utilising descriptive statistics and the graphic illustration thereof were done, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Release 6.1.3 (Norusus, 1993).

## **5.7 FORMULATION OF THE HYPOTHESIS**

The following hypothesis was formulated:

A direct relationship exists between, on the one hand, the extent to which an organisation's affirmative action interventions are congruent with effective affirmative action strategy and, on the other, the extent to which beneficiaries of affirmative action in that organisation experience job satisfaction.

## **5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter described the first seven steps of the empirical investigation.

The identification and description of target organisations, the demarcation and description of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries, the construction of a structured interview, the identification and adaptation of a job satisfaction questionnaire, the collection and processing of data, were elaborated on, and the hypothesis formulated.

Chapter 6 focuses on the results obtained.

## CHAPTER 6

### RESULTS

The aim of this chapter is to report on and interpret the results of the testing of the validity of the hypothesis.

This chapter addresses step 8 in the execution of the empirical study (refer to Chapter 5).

The results reported on in this chapter were obtained by means of the utilisation of descriptive statistics (sections 6.1, 6.2 and 6.5) and inferential statistics (sections 6.3 and 6.4).

#### 6.1 THE LEVEL OF EFFECTIVENESS OF THE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGIES OF THE TARGET ORGANISATIONS

The results of the measurement of the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the five target organisations, are contained in Table 6.1.

**TABLE 6.1: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE TARGET ORGANISATIONS' AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGIES AS MEASURED BY THE STRUCTURED INTERVIEW**

ORGANISATION	EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY (minimum 34 and maximum 136)
Organisation A	83
Organisation B	92
Organisation C	76
Organisation D	85
Organisation E	72

The five target organisations obtained scores ranging from 72 to 92. These reflect two scores higher than the average (which is 85) of the score range (minimum=34 and maximum=136), one score equal to and two scores lower than the average.

The difference between the lowest and highest score was 20, which indicates that the different target organisations were relatively closely clustered and therefore reflecting a limitation with regard to differentiation.

Two organisations (Organisation A and Organisation D) had almost identical scores in the middle score range, two organisations (Organisation C and Organisation E) almost identical scores in the lower score range, and one organisation (Organisation B) the highest score in the top score range. These results confirm the limitation with regard to differentiation among the effectiveness of the target organisations' affirmative action efforts.

## **6.2 THE JOB SATISFACTION LEVEL OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN EACH TARGET ORGANISATION**

The results of the measurement of the job satisfaction of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation, are depicted in table 6.2.

**TABLE 6.2: AVERAGE JOB SATISFACTION SCORE PER TARGET ORGANISATION**

<b>ORGANISATION</b>	<b>AVERAGE JOB SATISFACTION SCORE (minimum 112 and maximum 448)</b>
<b>Organisation A</b>	327,21
<b>Organisation B</b>	335,65
<b>Organisation C</b>	316,96
<b>Organisation D</b>	329,67
<b>Organisation E</b>	305,20

The average job satisfaction scores for the five target organisations varied between 305 and 335 of the score range (minimum=112 and maximum=448). This reflects scores higher than the average level of the job satisfaction score range (which is 280) and therefore indicates an above average level of job satisfaction experienced by all the target organisations' affirmative action beneficiaries.

The difference between the lowest and highest average job satisfaction score per organisation was 22 points (in a score range of 112 minimum and 448 maximum), indicating that the averages of the job satisfaction scores of beneficiaries in the target organisations were clustered, representing a limitation with regard to differentiation. Two organisations (Organisation D and Organisation A) had almost identical scores and had respectively the second and third highest average score. Organisation B had the highest average score, Organisation C the second lowest and Organisation E the lowest.

### **6.3 THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF EFFECTIVENESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION INTERVENTIONS AND THE AVERAGE LEVEL OF JOB SATISFACTION OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN THE DIFFERENT TARGET ORGANISATIONS**

The data used to calculate the rank order correlation between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategy implemented by each target organisation (the dependent variable) and the job satisfaction level of its affirmative action beneficiaries (the independent variable) is contained in table 6.3.

**TABLE 6.3: THE LEVEL OF EFFECTIVENESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY AND THE AVERAGE JOB SATISFACTION LEVEL OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES PER TARGET ORGANISATION**

<b>ORGANISATION</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>EFFECTIVENESS LEVEL OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY (Dependent variable) (minimum 34 and maximum 136)</b>	<b>AVERAGE JOB SATISFACTION LEVEL OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES (Independent variable) (minimum 112 and maximum 448)</b>
<b>Organisation A</b>	29	83	327,21
<b>Organisation B</b>	17	92	335,65
<b>Organisation C</b>	47	76	316,96
<b>Organisation D</b>	18	85	329,67
<b>Organisation E</b>	10	72	305,20

The rank order correlation between the two variables resulted in a  $r_s$ -value of 1,000. A probability-value of  $p=0,000$  confirmed this correlation.

This result reflects an absolute association in the sense that the ranking of the target organisations in terms of their scores on the structured interview was identical to the ranking of the average scores their affirmative action beneficiaries obtained in the job satisfaction questionnaire.

This result shows that Organisation E obtained the lowest score on the structured interview, indicating, in comparison with the other target organisation, that its affirmative action strategy is the least effective. The average job satisfaction score of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in Organisation E, compared to the other target organisations, is also the lowest. Organisation B, similarly, obtained the highest score on the structured interview, and its sample of affirmative action beneficiaries the highest average job satisfaction score on the job satisfaction questionnaire. This pattern of ranking is consistent for the other target organisations, indicating a direct relationship between the ranking of the dependant variable and

the ranking of the independent variable. The result of this calculation, therefore, indicates the existence of an absolute positive correlation between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the different target organisations and the level of job satisfaction of their affirmative action beneficiaries.

It therefore seems that the affirmative action strategy of a particular organisation impact directly on the level of job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiaries in that organisation. The implementation of an effective affirmative action strategy, therefore, results in affirmative action beneficiaries experiencing a high level of job satisfaction. The opposite also seems to be true, in that a less effective affirmative strategy results in a lower level of job satisfaction amongst affirmative action beneficiaries.

This result confirms the assumption, contained in the theory relating to affirmative action (refer to the affirmative action continuum in section 2.4 in Chapter 2), that strategies associated with equal employment opportunity, the upliftment and development of affirmative action beneficiaries, and proactive efforts to manage diversity, have a positive effect on affirmative action beneficiaries, in the sense that they (the beneficiaries) experience such strategies as aimed at their assimilation and utilisation in the organisation. Similarly, strategies having a bearing on preferential treatment, window dressing, tokenism and favouritism, lead to negative experiences on the part of affirmative action beneficiaries.

The outcome of the above-mentioned measurement of the association between the dependent and independent variable, serves as a confirmation of the assumption that affirmative action beneficiaries, being the target of affirmative action interventions, react to such interventions in a typically human manner and that their experience of the process is influenced by the way in which it is implemented, as well as by the reactions of other employees peripheral to the affirmative action endeavours (refer to sections 2.5.6.4 in Chapter 2 and 3.1 in Chapter 3). The job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries can therefore be considered to represent a viable measure of affirmative action success (refer to section 3.3.2 in Chapter 3).

**6.4 THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE LEVEL OF EFFECTIVENESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION INTERVENTIONS AND THE LEVEL, PER DIMENSION, OF THE JOB SATISFACTION OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN THE DIFFERENT TARGET ORGANISATIONS**

The results of the calculation of the rank order correlation between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategy implemented by each target organisation and the job satisfaction level, per dimension, of its affirmative action beneficiaries, are contained in table 6.4.

**TABLE 6.4: RANK ORDER CORRELATION BETWEEN THE AFFIRMATIVE ACTION EFFECTIVENESS OF THE TARGET ORGANISATIONS AND THE JOB SATISFACTION (PER DIMENSION) OF THEIR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES**

<b>JOB SATISFACTION DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>RANK ORDER COEFFICIENT (<math>r_s</math>)</b>	<b>PROBABILITY (<math>p</math>)</b>
Nature of the job	0,65	0,24
Job guidelines and goals	0,74	0,15
Utilisation	0,96	0,009
Status and recognition	0,93	0,02
Development	0,93	0,02
Leadership	0,86	0,06
Structures	0,95	0,01
Human resource policy	0,46	0,43
Working conditions	0,55	0,33
Interpersonal and group relations	0,89	0,04
External environment	- 0,67	0,22

The results of the correlation between the dependent variable and the average score of respondents with regard to the different dimensions of the job satisfaction questionnaire (independent variable) as contained in table 6.4 can be interpreted as follows:

- A significant positive relationship between the effectiveness of the target organisations' affirmative action efforts and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries was confirmed with regard to the dimensions relating to utilisation, status and recognition, development, structures (including authority, empowerment and feedback), and interpersonal and group relations. The correlations ranged between  $r_s=0,89$  and  $r_s=0,96$  and were confirmed by probability values ranging from  $p=0,009$  to  $p=0,04$ . This represents a significant association in that the correlation explains between 79 and 92 per cent of the variation in the two rankings.

These results coincide with the theory relating to the dimensions of organisational functioning and interactions, in which affirmative action endeavours, be it successful or unsuccessful, will impact on affirmative action beneficiaries (refer to section 2.5.6.4 in Chapter 2). It furthermore confirms the underlying rationale of the strategy associated with the development of affirmative action beneficiaries and the important notion that development should be enhanced by the empowerment of beneficiaries to implement their acquired capabilities (refer to section 2.3.5 in chapter 2). The importance of positive interpersonal and group relations is emphasised by these results and relates to the management of diversity and the essential "sensitisation" of the organisation's incumbents to accept affirmative action beneficiaries and to facilitate their assimilation (refer to section 2.3.6 in Chapter 2).

- The correlation between affirmative action success and job satisfaction regarding the leadership dimension ( $r_s=0,86$  and  $p=0,06$ ), and the "job guidelines and goals" dimension ( $r_s=0,74$  and  $p=0,15$ ) were relatively high and can be seen as proof of a relationship between these two dimensions and affirmative action effectiveness.

The importance of the correct leadership, and the concomitant providing of clear

guidelines and the setting of realistic goals, are emphasised in the theory regarding the effective implementation of affirmative action (refer to section 2.3.6 in Chapter 2).

These results also have a bearing on the importance of the mentoring process, in that organisations should strive to actively assist affirmative action beneficiaries to “acclimatise” to the positions they were appointed or promoted in, and to “escort” them as far as goal achievement is concerned (refer to section 2.3.5 in Chapter 2).

- A medium-range correlation was obtained with regard to the dimension relating to the nature of the job ( $r_s=0,65$  and  $p=0,24$ ).

A possible explanation of this result is that some affirmative action beneficiaries, due to their backlog with regard to education and experience, are not in a position to fully appreciate and utilise the challenges embedded in the intrinsic nature of the job they are appointed in, and may experience it as threatening. This may result in them not reacting as expected by their supervisors who may incorrectly interpret this as a lack of initiative.

This also relates to need theory concerning job satisfaction, in that social and esteem needs must first be readily satisfied before the need for self-actualisation comes to the fore. The intrinsic nature of the job is generally associated with the fulfilment of the need for self actualisation, and affirmative action beneficiaries, not fully accepted by their peers and having a low self-esteem, will not be in the position to utilise the opportunities for the fulfilment of their need for self-actualisation, embedded in the job content (refer to section 4.2.1 and section 4.3.1 in Chapter 4). This result also emphasises the fact that theories conceptualised according to research done in a First World environment, should nor summarily be applied to members of Third World cultures (refer to section 2.3.3 in Chapter 2). This should be taken into account with respect to theories concerning job behaviour and work related theories, such as theories regarding job satisfaction.

- Relatively low correlations were obtained with regard to the dimensions relating to human resource policy ( $r_s=0,46$  and  $p=0,43$ ), and working conditions ( $r=0,55$  and  $p=0,33$ ).

It can, however, be argued that these dimensions are peripheral to the affirmative action process and include aspects such as fringe benefits and physical working conditions, the physical work environment, and work lay out, which have little to do with the organisation's affirmative action initiatives. The aforementioned dimensions are not usually altered during affirmative action interventions and are similar for all employees, including affirmative action beneficiaries. In hindsight, it now seems logical not to have included items related to these dimensions in the job satisfaction questionnaire. It should be taken into account that the original questionnaire, which was adapted for this study, was constructed as a diagnostic tool aimed at organisational development and the inclusion of these dimensions, considering its original purpose, can be justified. For the purposes of the measuring of job satisfaction, it seems as if the items relating to these dimensions should be removed from the questionnaire, to enhance its validity.

- An inverse medium range correlation was found between affirmative action success and the job satisfaction dimension relating to the external environment ( $r_s=-0,67$  and  $p=0,22$ ).

This represents an unexpected result, as the theories relating to the framework wherein job satisfaction manifests (refer to section 4.3.3 in Chapter 4) identify the external environment as playing a part in an individual's job satisfaction, in that it provides an indication of the external values assigned to his or her affiliation to the organisation. The external environment furthermore provides a framework for comparison regarding remuneration and other benefits.

This result can, however, be explained by analysing its underlying dynamics. Should an organisation embark on affirmative action efforts that include, among others, exuberant remuneration packages for affirmative action beneficiaries and the use of grand-sounding

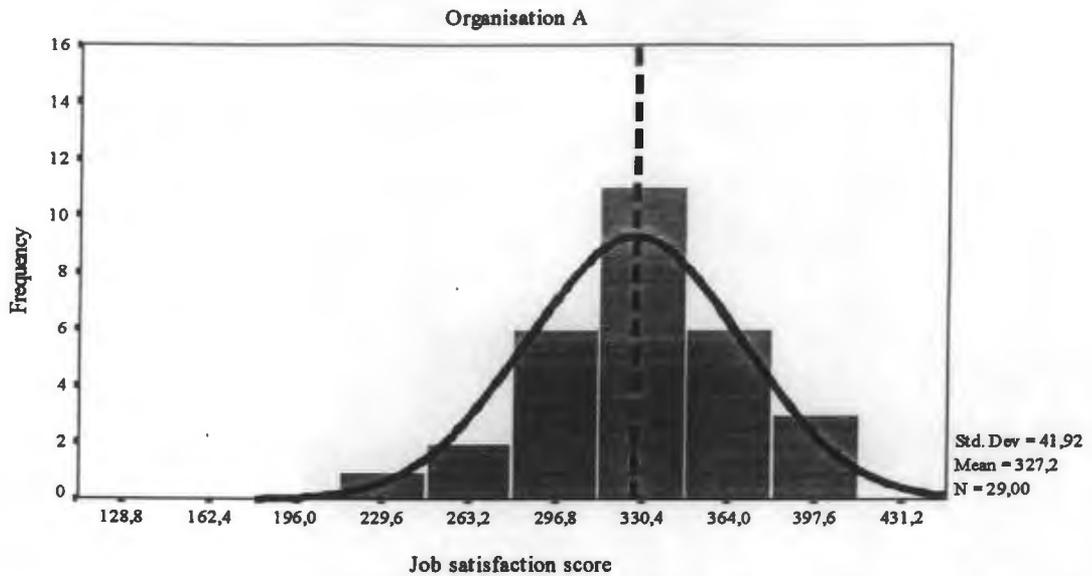
titles for jobs occupied by affirmative action beneficiaries, such an organisation will receive a negative score in the evaluation of its affirmative action effectiveness. The same actions will, however, result in persons in the affirmative action beneficiary's immediate external environment (*ie* family members and friends) experiencing it as positive, especially with respect to the economic benefit and status value it represents.

From another angle, it can be argued that the individual, being an affirmative action beneficiary, usually better his or her status and income, having been appointed or promoted as a result of the implementation of affirmative action. This improvement, compared to a previously disadvantaged state, may lead to a subjective (positive) evaluation by people in the affirmative action beneficiary's environment, external to the organisation.

This result again emphasises the danger of applying theoretical assumptions to a unique situation, such as the experiencing of job satisfaction by affirmative action beneficiaries. It seems as if the items referring to the external environment should be removed from the job satisfaction questionnaire. This will enhance the questionnaire's validity, should it be used in future research.

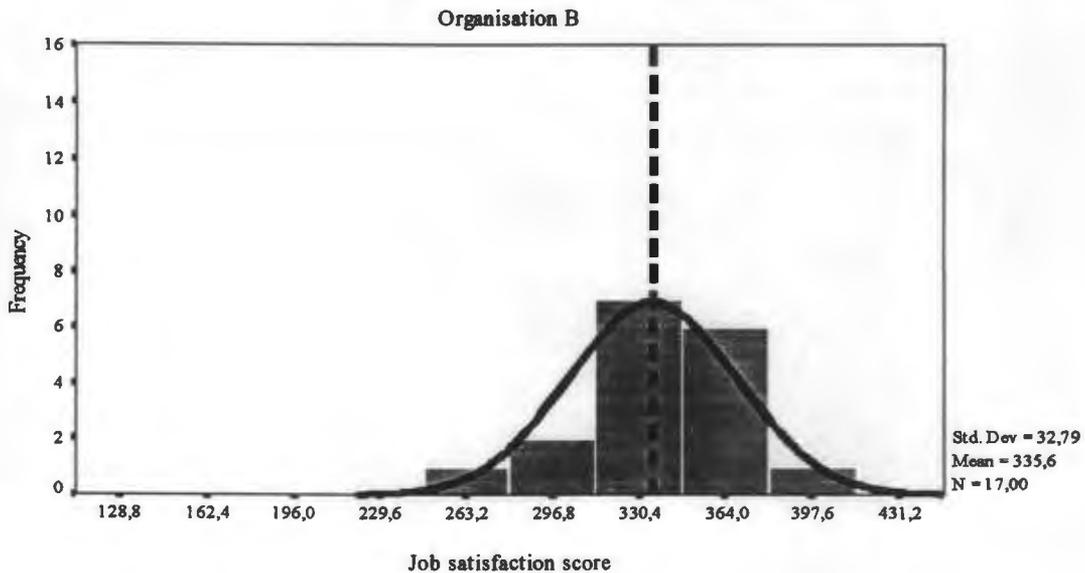
#### **6.5 THE DISTRIBUTION (REPRESENTATIVENESS) OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN THE FIVE TARGET ORGANISATIONS**

The results of the calculation of the distribution of job satisfaction scores of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in each of the target organisations, are graphically illustrated in figures 6.1 to 6.5 below.



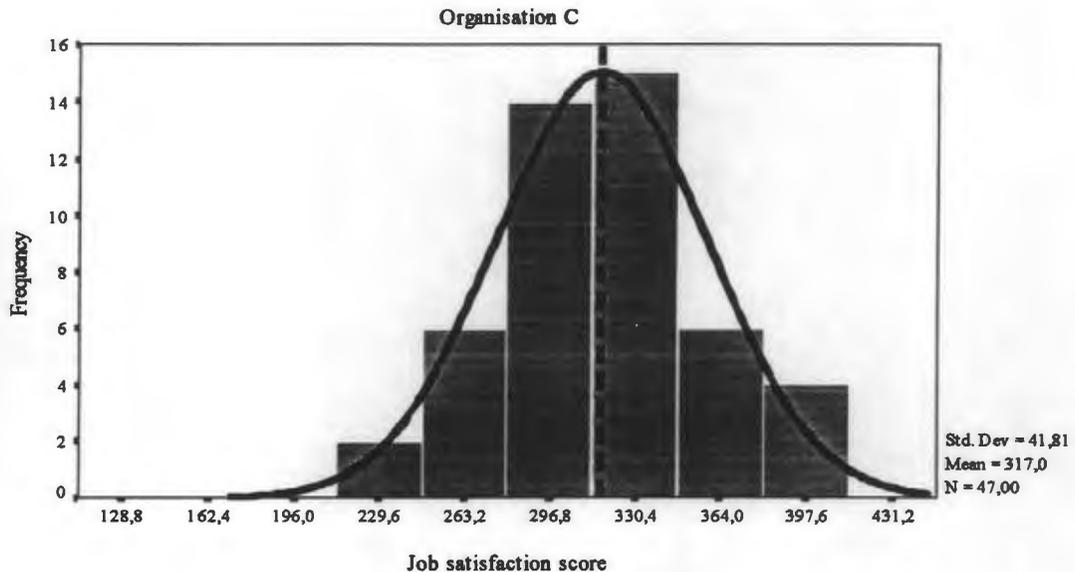
**FIGURE 6.1: THE DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN ORGANISATION A**

The standard deviation of the distribution of job satisfaction scores of respondents in Organisation A was 41,92. From an analysis of this distribution, it was found that 79 per cent of the individual scores fell within one standard deviation below and one above the mean.



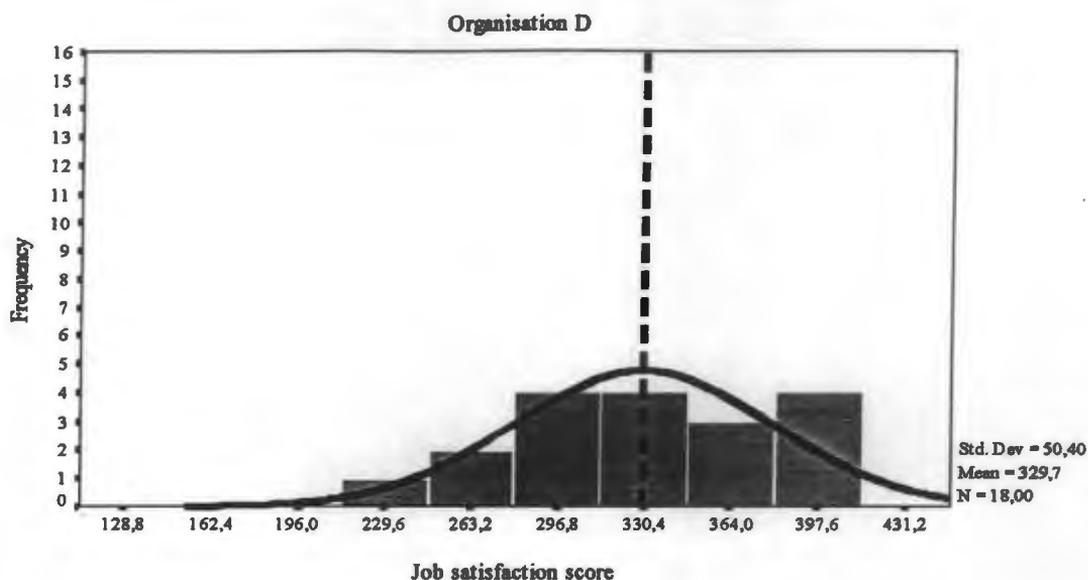
**FIGURE 6.2: THE DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN ORGANISATION B**

The standard deviation of the distribution of job satisfaction scores of respondents in Organisation B was 32,79. From an analysis of this distribution, it was found that 77 per cent of the individual scores fell within one standard deviation below and one above the mean.



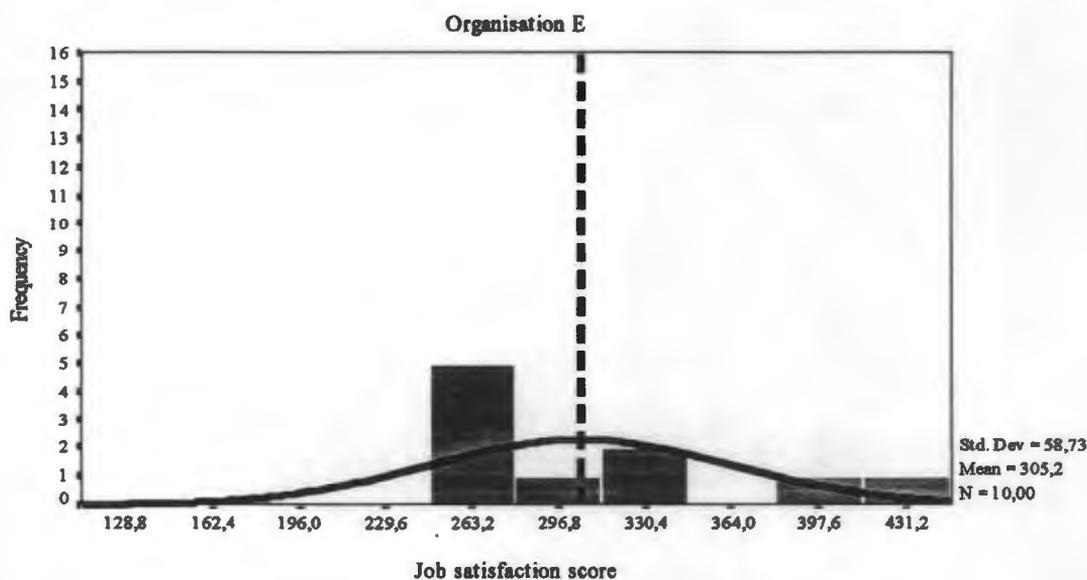
**FIGURE 6.3: THE DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN ORGANISATION C**

The standard deviation of the distribution of job satisfaction scores of respondents in Organisation C was 41,81. From an analysis of this distribution, it was found that 62 per cent of the individual scores fell within one standard deviation below and one above the mean.



**FIGURE 6.4: THE DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN ORGANISATION D**

The standard deviation of the distribution of job satisfaction scores of respondents in Organisation D was 50,40. From an analysis of this distribution, it was found that 61 per cent of the individual scores fell within one standard deviation below and one above the mean.



**FIGURE 6.5: THE DISTRIBUTION OF JOB SATISFACTION SCORES OF THE SAMPLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION BENEFICIARIES IN ORGANISATION E**

The standard deviation of the distribution of job satisfaction scores of respondents in Organisation E was 58,73. From an analysis of this distribution, it was found that 80 per cent of the individual scores fell within one standard deviation below and one above the mean.

The above-mentioned results concerning the distribution of the job satisfaction scores of the respondents in the five target organisations showed that the affirmative action beneficiaries in all five organisations were relatively homogeneous with respect to their responses on the job satisfaction questionnaire. The average job satisfaction score per target organisation can therefore be seen as representative of the job satisfaction experienced by the majority of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation. The validity of the results obtained in the process of the testing of the hypothesis (refer to sections 6.3 and 6.4 above) is therefore confirmed.

These results substantiate that the use of the average job satisfaction score and the average job satisfaction score for the different job satisfaction dimensions can be justified, in the sense that these average scores can be considered to be representative of the majority of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.

The assumption regarding the measurement of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries, as an indication of the success of affirmative action interventions, is confirmed (refer to the research design in section 1.4 in Chapter 1 and the justification for the use of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries to measure the success of affirmative action, in section 3.4 in Chapter 3).

The above-mentioned results show that the majority of affirmative action beneficiaries in a specific organisation, experience corresponding levels of job satisfaction. This tendency, being considered as confirmation of the direct relationship between the level of affirmative action effectiveness and the level of job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in a particular organisation, therefore substantiates that the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries can be deemed as a valid indirect measure of affirmative action success, which could be utilised in future research with respect to the measurement of affirmative action success.

## 6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, step 8 the empirical investigation were reported on.

The result of the testing of the hypothesis was reported on and interpreted. This included:

- the results of the application of the structured interview (measuring affirmative action effectiveness) in each target organisation and the application of the job satisfaction questionnaire (measuring the level of job satisfaction) on the affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation;
- the result of a calculation of the rank order correlation between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the target organisations (dependent variable) and the level of the job satisfaction of their sample of affirmative action beneficiaries (independent variable);
- the results of a calculation of the rank order correlation between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the target organisations and the level, per dimension, of the job satisfaction of their sample of affirmative action beneficiaries; and
- the results of an analysis of the distribution (representativeness) of the job satisfaction scores of the sample of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.

The results showed that the differentiation with regard to both the level of affirmative action effectiveness and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in the different target organisations, was relatively small. This represented a limitation with respect to the interpretation of the results regarding the testing of the hypothesis.

It was found that an absolute, positive correlation exists between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the different target organisations and the average level of job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation. This result was confirmed, in that the scores on the majority of the dimensions in the job satisfaction questionnaire also resulted in having a high correlation with the affirmative action effectiveness

of the different target organisations. The hypothesis was therefore proven to be valid.

The aforementioned results were furthermore substantiated by the outcome of an analysis concerning the distribution of the average job satisfaction scores of the affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation. It was found that these scores were representative of the majority of affirmative action beneficiaries in each of the different target organisations.

The above-mentioned results substantiated the theoretical assumptions regarding the association between affirmative action effectiveness, as contained in the different theories regarding affirmative action, and the job satisfaction of the employees targeted by such actions. It furthermore signifies that the assessment of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries represents a viable and practicable measure of affirmative action success that can be categorised as related to the indirect outcome of affirmative action endeavours.

The results, mentioned above, also led to the identification of limitations concerning the item content of the job satisfaction questionnaire, in that the items relating to the dimensions associated with fringe benefits, working conditions (including the physical working conditions and work lay out) and the environment external to the organisation, should be removed from the questionnaire to enhance its validity. These items and the job satisfaction resulting from it apparently have limited relationship to the affirmative action strategies implemented by organisations.

The results of the empirical study, in general, confirm the rationale contained in theory regarding affirmative action effectiveness, the construct of job satisfaction, the association between job satisfaction and affirmative action success, and the functioning of the organisation as an open system (especially with regard to its human subsystem).

The aim of the chapter, namely to report on and interpret the testing of the hypothesis, can be considered to have been met.

Chapter 7 focuses on the conclusions and recommendations (steps 9 to 11).

## CHAPTER 7

### CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this chapter is to make conclusions regarding the outcome of the literature review and the empirical study, to identify the limitations of the research results, and to formulate recommendations.

#### 7.1 CONCLUSIONS

The general objective of the study was to examine the relationship between affirmative action effectiveness and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries (refer to section 1.3 in Chapter 1). The results of the empirical study proved that a direct relationship exists between the effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the target organisations and the job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiaries in each of these organisations. It can therefore be concluded from the results (contained in Chapter 6) that the investigation has achieved its objective.

Specific conclusions can be made regarding the two phases of the investigation (*ie* the literature review and the empirical study) and will be discussed separately in the following sections.

##### 7.1.1 Conclusions with respect to the literature review

Conclusions regarding the literature reviews, that was reported on in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, are contained in the sections below.

###### 7.1.1.1 *Conclusions resulting from the literature review on the construct of affirmative action*

The following conclusions can be made with regard to the construct of affirmative action:

- Affirmative action represents a multifaceted concept, defined in a variety of ways by different authors, and due to negative connotations with regard to its acceptability and success is referred to in an assortment of terms.
- Affirmative action in organisational context can be defined as processes applied by organisations in order to enhance equity, correct past discrimination, and develop and empower members of disadvantaged groups in order to effectively utilise a diverse workforce.
- The implementation of affirmative action in organisational context includes a large range of approaches and strategies, in most cases consisting of reverse discrimination (founded on favouritism, tokenism and window-dressing), resulting in resistance to and negative stereotyping of the process.
- Affirmative action in South Africa is mainly implemented to benefit blacks and are seen as discriminatory by whites and minority groups such as Coloureds and Indians.
- Affirmative action strategies can be arranged as different positions on a continuum. The strategies contained in the continuum ranges from uncomplicated to complex, from reactive to proactive, and from short-term to long-term. The continuum also reflects the historical progress in the development of affirmative action theory, ranging from outdated to contemporary theory. The different affirmative action strategies included in the continuum are respectively equal employment opportunity, black advancement, black upliftment, black development, and the management of diversity.
- The different affirmative action strategies, with regard to effectiveness, have its positive aspects as well as its shortcomings. The ideal springboard for affirmative action to be successful seems to be an eclectic strategy consisting of a combination of the effective elements of the different approaches.
- Affirmative action is a complex and long-term process, representing a challenge to organisations, and especially to management, to approach it in a situational manner by means of a selective approach, utilising the effective elements of the different strategies and then to proactively manage the diversity it creates.
- The implementation of affirmative action affects a wide assortment of role players, including people peripheral to the process. It also has an influence on organisational processes and productivity. The influence is mostly negative and contributes to the

resistance to affirmative action, also amongst its beneficiaries.

*7.1.1.2 Conclusions resulting from the literature review on the measurement of affirmative action success*

The following conclusions can be made with respect to the measurement of affirmative action success:

- The evaluation of its success is an important element of the affirmative action process.
- Affirmative action success represents an elusive concept and is influenced by a large variety of factors associated with the organisational environment as well as the internal subsystems of the organisation.
- Previous research efforts, overseas and in South Africa, to a large extent concentrated on the measuring of opinions, perceptions and attitudes regarding the acceptability, fairness and effects of affirmative action interventions. A limited number of studies targeted affirmative action beneficiaries and none could be found that dealt with satisfaction, content, and sense of accomplishment, experienced by affirmative action beneficiaries.
- The evaluation of affirmative action success can be undertaken by means of a wide spectrum of measures associated with the input, throughput and output of affirmative action endeavours. These measures can be grouped into direct and indirect measures of affirmative action success.
- Direct measures of affirmative action success are those that focus on the actions taken by the organisation, the way in which such actions are implemented, and the direct result of actions taken. Direct measures typically comprise of objective methods of evaluation, including quantitative calculations.
- Indirect measures of affirmative action success concentrate on inputs, throughput and outcomes peripheral to the actual affirmative action process. This may include measuring the effect of affirmative action on the organisation, its processes, finances, productivity and incumbents. The result of the indirect measuring of affirmative action efforts often reflects the real success or failure of such actions.

- Due to the relationship between job satisfaction and affirmative action success, the measurement of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries represents a viable approach to the evaluation of the affirmative action endeavours of an organisation.

#### 7.1.1.3 *Conclusions resulting from the literature review on the construct of job satisfaction*

Conclusions with respect to the construct of job satisfaction are the following:

- No standard definition of the concept of job satisfaction exists and as many definitions of job satisfaction can be found in as many articles and books written on the subject. Most authors do, however, agree that job satisfaction is the result of what the employee receives in the work situation compared to what he or she expects of it.
- A number of theories can be associated with the concept of job satisfaction (including need satisfaction theories, theories concerning human nature, Herzberg's two-factor theory, expectancy theory, the psychological contract theory, group theory, and the equity theory). According to these theories, job satisfaction can result from need satisfaction, meaningful social relations, the opportunity for self-actualisation, positive outcomes that measure up to employees' expectancies, adherence to the psychological contract, meaningful group relations, and favourable comparisons with others.
- The aspects influencing an employee's job satisfaction vary and comprise a wide spectrum of work related experiences. The three main frameworks wherein job satisfaction manifests are the job content, the job context, and the external environment.
- A number of standardised measures of job satisfaction are available. The validity of these measures, however, is questioned with respect to their capability to measure the full spectrum of job satisfaction facets.

#### 7.1.2 **Conclusions resulting from the empirical study**

The objective of the empirical study was to determine the relationship between affirmative action effectiveness and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries.

Conclusions regarding the empirical study are the following:

- A significant direct correlation was found between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action interventions of the target organisations (dependent variable) and the average level of job satisfaction of the affirmative action beneficiaries in each of these organisations (independent variable). This was to a large extent confirmed by the correlation between the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action interventions of the target organisations and the average job satisfaction levels of affirmative action beneficiaries with respect to the dimensions of job satisfaction contained in the job satisfaction questionnaire. The average job satisfaction score per target organisation was also found to be representative of the job satisfaction experienced by the majority of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation.
- With reference to the problem formulation (section 1.2 in Chapter 1), it can be concluded that the empirical study confirmed that the measuring of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries represents a viable and valid means of determining the success of affirmative action strategies.
- Referring to the research objectives (section 1.3 in Chapter 1), it can be concluded that:
  - the level of effectiveness of the affirmative action strategies of the different target organisations was determined;
  - the level of job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation was measured;
  - the relationship between the effectiveness of the affirmative action strategy and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation was determined; and
  - the distribution (representativeness) of job satisfaction scores of affirmative action beneficiaries in each target organisation was verified.
- It can further be concluded that the rationale concerning the justification for the use of job satisfaction as an indication of the success of affirmative action endeavours has been confirmed.
- The outcome of the empirical investigation furthermore accentuates the accuracy of the assumptions associated with the paradigms and metaphors relating to functionalism,

humanism and the organisation as an organism (refer to section 1.5 in Chapter 1):

- The assumptions of the functionalistic paradigm are accommodated by the fact that the present investigation takes the form of evaluation research, aimed at understanding human behaviour in a micro cosmos of society (the organisation), and as such, generating useful empirical knowledge.
- Affirmative action beneficiaries, being human, react (similar to other employees) in a manner typical of human behaviour, in that their aspirations to satisfy their needs for self-determination and identity, are to a large extent enacted in the work situation. The organisation's affirmative action efforts will therefore impact on their self-fulfilment which, in turn, determine their job satisfaction. This relates to assumptions associated with the humanistic paradigm.
- Affirmative action represents a notion that has a bearing on the assumptions related to the metaphor concerning the organisation as representing an organism. The social demand regarding the implementation of affirmative action originates in the organisation's external environment. Being a subsystem of the broader sociocultural macro-system, organisations are obliged, in order to survive, to conform to the requirements of the macro social environment. The implementation of affirmative action represents such a social demand which, once implemented, impacts on the internal subsystems of the organisation and particularly on the human resource subsystem (including affirmative action beneficiaries). This affects the behaviour of organisational incumbents which, in turn, has a direct effect on the achievement of organisational goals.
- It can therefore be concluded that the present research does not only provide practical guidelines with respect to the measurement of affirmative action success, but also contributes to the body of knowledge regarding organisational functioning and human behaviour in the organisational context.

## **7.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH**

The limitations of the research will be elaborated on with regard to the literature review and the empirical study.

### 7.2.1 Limitations with respect to the literature review

With regard to the literature review the following limitations were encountered:

- Due to its multifaceted nature and the negative connotations assigned to it, the concept of affirmative action is defined and described in an unorganised and diverse manner, resulting in a terminological conglomeration susceptible to different interpretations.
- Although the literature on affirmative action is comprehensive, no clear guidelines exist regarding its implementation.
- Probably due to the strong political and moral undertones associated with affirmative action, the criteria regarding its success are contradictory and not clearly delineated.
- No standard definition of the construct of job satisfaction exists in the literature. It is often confused with the concept of work motivation, which result in efforts to define it being contaminated by outcomes associated with productivity and the will to achieve.
- The existing measures of job satisfaction seem to be superficial and contain dimensions of a general nature with limited links to the basic theory concerning human behaviour.

### 7.2.2 Limitations with respect to the empirical research

The following limitations concerning the empirical research, should be noted:

- The sample, representing the total population of blacks appointed on supervisory and managerial levels in the target organisation, was relatively small ( $n=275$ ). Notwithstanding a relatively high overall response rate of 44 per cent, the final response population consisted of 121 persons. The response populations in the different target organisation were small and differed considerably (ranging from  $n=10$  to  $n=47$ ) and therefore limits the representativeness of the results.
- Of the ten organisations approached to partake in this investigation, six organisations were willing to participate, and finally only five were included, after one organisation was excluded due to too few affirmative action beneficiaries. The five target organisations, all in geographical proximity, therefore constitute a relatively small

sample, not representative of the spectrum of organisational sectors and all the geographical areas in South Africa.

- The scores obtained by the five target organisations in the structured interview, were clustered and did not differ substantially enough to represent a segregated distribution of the different affirmative action strategies. This resulted in a lack of differentiation between the range of possible affirmative action interventions and therefore might have a contaminating effect on the conclusions that were made.
- The average job satisfaction levels experienced by the five target organisations' affirmative action beneficiaries were also clustered, resulting in a close distribution of job satisfaction scores, which in turn might diminish the validity of research conclusions.
- The outcome of the structured interviews as well as the results of the implementation of the job satisfaction questionnaire, considering the limitations mentioned above, contain restricting elements and the results of the investigation should therefore be interpreted with caution.

### **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The recommendations deriving from the results of this investigation can be grouped into three categories, namely, recommendations concerning the conceptualisation of the constructs investigated, recommendations with respect to future research efforts aimed at the measurement of affirmative action success, and recommendations regarding the practical implementation of affirmative action in South African organisations.

#### **7.3.1 Recommendations concerning the conceptualisation of the constructs of affirmative action and job satisfaction**

The literature survey on what is generally termed "affirmative action," resulted in the conclusion that the rationale of associated theoretical structures differs extensively and that no clear body of knowledge exists which can assist researchers in identifying and isolating the different elements of the construct. The available viewpoints on affirmative action and its rationale are mainly embodied in assumptions tinged by moral and political motives and have a confusing

effect on the conceptualisation of affirmative action as a theoretical construct. Further research is necessary to identify and demarcate, on a theoretical and scientific level, the basic paradigms and metaphors related to affirmative action. It is also necessary to distinguish between the moral and political motives underlying the need to implement affirmative action on the one hand, and, on the other, the practical implementation of affirmative action strategies, with specific reference to its success and effect on the organisation, its functioning, resources and incumbents.

The concept of job satisfaction is widely used in literature associated with industrial and organisational psychology, and it can therefore be assumed that the construct of job satisfaction has been thoroughly defined and conceptualised. The literature survey with regard to job satisfaction, however, proved the opposite. Definitions with regard to job satisfaction differ widely and are apparently associated with a variety of theories based on diverse contextual bases which in some cases seem to be conflicting. The concept of job satisfaction is often confused with that of work motivation and results in assumptions that job satisfaction is concomitant or instrumental to outcomes associated with productively and the will to achieve. Further research seems necessary to clarify the existing theoretical disorder concerning the construct of work related satisfaction. A differentiation should be made between motivation of behaviour (which represents the driving forces, resulting in certain human actions) and satisfaction, which has to do with the attainment of goals that satisfy needs and fulfil expectations. The last-mentioned viewpoint on human satisfaction, applied to satisfaction in the work situation, has a relationship with an affective state concomitant to fulfilment which differs considerably from a state of goal directedness and energy mobilisation which are usually associated with the motivation to work. It seems necessary to clearly differentiate between the theoretical constructs of motivation and job satisfaction as these constructs are different with regard to its underlying psychological rationale.

On analysing the different theories contained in the literature review concerning job satisfaction, the researcher came to the realisation that, since the initial formulation of job satisfaction theories, no new theories resulted from empirical research and that the more recent theoretical assumptions concerning job satisfaction were tinged by "popularised" models, constructed by individuals who's main objective was to capitalise on the consultant "bandwagon." In

formulating these models, a distortion resulted, in that job satisfaction, being a construct relating to an affective state of need fulfilment and the experiencing of a state of equilibrium, was confused with the motivation of behaviour (which relates to the underlying forces resulting in work behaviour).

### **7.3.2 Recommendations with respect to future research efforts aimed at the measurement of affirmative action success**

In view of the above-mentioned limitations of this investigation, further research is deemed necessary, to confirm the association that was found between affirmative action effectiveness and the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries. Future research on affirmative action success, focusing on black affirmative action beneficiaries, should aim to include a larger sample in order to obtain a more representative indication of their reaction to the implementation of affirmative action interventions. This can probably be achieved at a later stage when affirmative action has been implemented for a longer period, resulting in a more representative incidence of blacks on all organisational levels. Such research efforts, focusing on the determination of affirmative action success, should also aim to include a more representative sample of organisations (both geographically and per industrial sector). The affirmative action strategies implemented by these organisations should also represent a wider distribution, ranging from ineffective to effective affirmative action strategy, so that a more distinct differentiation can be made with respect to the various affirmative action strategies.

Should the structured interview used in this research be utilised in other studies, it is important to realise that its validity and reliability were not ascertained. The structured interview was customised for the purpose of the present research while its construction was solely based on a conceptualisation of the theory regarding effective affirmative action strategy (refer to sections 2.3 and 2.4 in Chapter 2 and section 5.3.5 in Chapter 5). The validity of the structured interview is therefore limited to face validity. Additional research is needed to verify its construct validity and reliability. The scores on the structured interview, obtained by the five target organisations, were clustered and did not substantially differentiate between the different organisations. It should therefore be kept in mind that the results of these interviews should not be used as a

norm in the evaluation of affirmative action effectiveness (refer to section 7.2.2 above).

Future research on affirmative action success, using job satisfaction as an indirect measure thereof, should endeavour to compare the job satisfaction level experienced by blacks with that experienced by other racial groups on the same job level. This will enable future research to confirm the relevance of the job satisfaction of affirmative action beneficiaries in the evaluation of affirmative action success.

In the case of future research efforts, utilising the job satisfaction questionnaire used in the current research, it should be considered to exclude the questionnaire items relating to human resource policy, working conditions, and the external environment, as these dimensions were found to be either non-related to affirmative action interventions, or conflicting with the rationale of the measuring of affirmative action success. The self-scoring mechanism provided at the end of the questionnaire possibly contributed to the high response rate and can be considered a useful feature to include in the job satisfaction questionnaire in future.

In the search for a suitable job satisfaction measure, the researcher was surprised to find that so-called standardised job satisfaction measures were based on deficient psychological rationale and that in most cases, no evidence existed regarding the standardisation of the norms provided to interpret the results of the implementation of such measures. This casts a suspicion on the validity and reliability of such measures. Researchers should therefore be cautious of summarily utilising unverified psychometric instruments in their research.

### **7.3.3 Recommendations concerning the implementation of affirmative action**

The literature reviews regarding the construct of affirmative action and the various affirmative action strategies, the conceptualisation of the various affirmative action strategies in form of a continuum, and the results of the empirical study (in which the contents of the continuum were used to compile the structured interview), provides a framework according to which recommendations regarding the successful implementation of affirmative action can be made. These recommendations are therefore based on the positive and negative elements of the various

affirmative action strategies which are contained in the continuum and in the structured interview.

Taking into consideration the background to affirmative action and the historical evolvement of affirmative action strategies (refer to section 1.1 in Chapter 1), and linking this to the results of the present investigation, the following recommendations can be made concerning the implementation of affirmative action in the organisational context.

Organisations should realise that the basic assumption underlying affirmative action is the removal of discrimination. This notion, originally proposed by the Sullivan Code of Conduct, is reiterated in the Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995) and concerns the abolishment of all practices discriminating against persons on the ground of race, colour, origin, culture, gender, age, physical disability, sexual inclination, and association with organised labour. Organisations should therefore, as an initial strategy, focus on the removal of all discriminatory barriers in order to ensure that all individuals are treated equally.

The removal of discrimination in the organisational context, has a special bearing on employment practices and relates to the positive aspects of the equal employment opportunity strategy (refer to sections 2.3 and 2.4 in Chapter 2). This notion is also contained in the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998), that not only stresses the equal treatment of prospective employees, but stipulates the legal proceedings in the case of organisations not complying with the prerequisite of an equity plan, which should result in a workforce that is representative of the demographic nature of the South African population. This legal coercion has a far-reaching impact on an organisation's affirmative action strategy, in the sense that an equal employment strategy not only entails the implementation of non-discriminatory selection procedures (historically often used as a soft option), but the actual employment of members of previously disadvantaged groups.

The nature of the stipulations of the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998), furthermore, has an inclination similar to that of the quota system that has been in practice in the United States of America for a considerable period. Taking into account the problems associated with a quota

system (refer to section 2.2.2 in Chapter 2), organisations will have the demanding task of ensuring compliance with the requirements of the impending act, but at the same time having to comply with the demands of effectiveness and efficiency regarding organisational goal achievement.

It therefore seems obvious that organisations cannot implement an equity strategy on its own, and are compelled to embark on a strategy of upliftment and development. This should, however, not be confused with the black advancement strategy. A black advancement strategy usually results from politically inspired pressure from black labour unions and consists of the preferential appointment and promotion of blacks. Such a strategy, however, has proved to be contra-productive in that it is seen as favouritism, tokenism, and mere “window-dressing.” The forced black advancement strategy, furthermore, results in the negative stereotyping of the affirmative action process and is seen by individuals peripheral to the process (in particular whites) to be a form of reverse discrimination. This, in turn, usually results in resistance to the affirmative action process and invariably to the ostracisation of affirmative action beneficiaries.

Organisations should therefore abstain from implementing a forced black advancement strategy and rather embark on an affirmative action strategy that, complementary to an equal opportunity strategy, concentrates on the upliftment and development of affirmative action beneficiaries. Such a strategy should however not be of a general nature, but should be aimed at the particular needs of members of disadvantaged groups, and should be reinforced by a programme of mentoring and accelerated career advancement. This strategy, to be successful, should ultimately coincide with, and enhance organisational goal achievement.

From an analysis of the factors associated with the failure of affirmative action endeavours, it becomes clear that the major problem has to do with the diversity resulting from the process. Affirmative action in itself creates diversity and the resistance to the process invariably can be ascribed to the inability of the organisational system to cope with a change in the composition of the workforce, and the concomitant differences in abilities, cultures, values and work ethics resulting from it. The organisation therefore, in order for affirmative action to be successful, has to manage the process in a proactive manner. This entails much more than the mere

implementation of the strategies mentioned above, and culminates in a manipulation of the organisational culture to be receptive and accommodating to the process of affirmative action. The organisation, with the full commitment of top management, should “prepare” itself for the accommodation and integration of members of previously disadvantaged groups in its midst. This process of the management of diversity should, however, not only consist of passive acceptance, but should also include the total integration of affirmative action beneficiaries, and, as an ultimate goal in the pursuance of organisational success, the utilisation of the untapped potential inherent to a diverse workforce.

Disregarding the moral justification of affirmative action, the fact remains that organisations are bound to comply with the requirements of the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998). It therefore seems logical that organisations should approach the implementation of affirmative action in a proactive and innovative manner, and should strive to utilise its outcomes to the benefit of organisational goal achievement.

The recommendations resulting from this research alleviate the present predicament of limited guidelines regarding the successful implementation of affirmative action (refer to section 1.2 in Chapter 1). The present research also makes a contribution towards categorising the various affirmative action definitions, approaches and strategies into clearly demarcated groups and highlights the effective elements as well as the pitfalls (soft options and quick-fix solutions) of the different approaches and strategies.

A further contribution was made regarding the measurement of affirmative action success, in that, contrary to popular current practices such as head counting, the present research provides a comprehensive categorisation of direct and indirect measures of affirmative action success relating to the input, throughput and output phases of implementation (refer to tables 3.1 and 3.2 in Chapter 3). With respect to the present research results, a specific contribution is made regarding the utilisation of affirmative action beneficiaries in the measurement of affirmative action success. The affirmative action beneficiary is targeted to determine successful affirmative action implementation, not by evaluating the strategy itself, but by indicating whether job satisfaction in the work environment is being experienced. The job satisfaction measure used

in this research can be utilised fruitfully as an indirect measure of affirmative action success, if adapted as recommended in section 7.3.1 above.

The abovementioned recommendations to a large extent contribute towards solutions regarding the problems concerning the implementation of affirmative action and the measurement of its success, as described in section 1.2 in Chapter 1.

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## STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

## Addendum 1

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY	INTERVIEW QUESTION	4-POINT SCALE			
		Totally disagree	Disagree	Agree	Totally agree
<b>EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY</b>	1) Does your company's affirmative action strategy aim at creating equal employment opportunities?	1	2	3	4
	2) Does your organisation aim to remove all discriminatory barriers in order to ensure that all individuals are treated equally?	1	2	3	4
	3) Are all potential applicants, from outside and within, for a given vacant position in the organisation given equal opportunity to apply for and be considered for the position?	1	2	3	4
	4) Are all applicants judged by the same criteria based on the job description of the vacant position?	1	2	3	4
	5) Are appointments in your organisation solely based on merit (eg. the best candidate is appointed)?	4	3	2	1
	6) Do your mission statement, recruitment advertisements and/ or letter head state your affirmative action policy?	4	3	2	1
<b>WINDOW - DRESSING</b>	1) Does your company appoint/promote blacks into senior positions to conform to the pressure from the local or international community, or from black consumers?	4	3	2	1
	2) Does your organisation have blacks on its board of directors?	4	3	2	1
	3) Do black senior managers in your company have decision-making authority and a say in corporate matters?	1	2	3	4
	4) Are the majority of black senior managers in your organisation appointed in non-executive positions?	4	3	2	1

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Agree	Totally agree
	5) Does your company support black managers by means of training and development?	1	2	3	4
<b>TOKENISM</b>	1) Does your company offer higher salaries to blacks?	4	3	2	1
	2) Does your company offer positions to blacks that are under-qualified or lack the necessary experience to fulfil the demands of the position concerned?	4	3	2	1
	3) Do the positions blacks occupy in your organisation have grand-sounding titles?	4	3	2	1
	4) Do blacks in your company occupy non-critical positions such as sales representatives, human resource officers or industrial relations officers?	4	3	2	1
<b>FAVOURITISM</b>	1) Does your company apply preferential treatment when recruiting, selecting and appointing members of previously disadvantaged groups?	4	3	2	1
	2) Does your company aim to, as far as possible, promote members of previously disadvantaged groups?	4	3	2	1
	3) Does your company's affirmative action strategy primarily aim at advancing blacks?	4	3	2	1
<b>BLACK UPLIFT-MENT</b>	1) Does your company's affirmative action strategy aim to uplift previously disadvantaged groups by improving their educational level, qualifications and abilities?	1	2	3	4
	2) Does your company have a programme in place to accommodate black employees who have bettered their qualifications and abilities by appointing them in higher level positions?	1	2	3	4

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Agree	Totally agree
	3) Do your company's affirmative action initiatives include some of the following strategies: - literacy programmes - programmes enabling blacks to better their secondary and tertiary qualifications - job-related and supervisory skills training?	1	2	3	4
<b>DEVELOPMENT</b>	1) Does your organisation believe that affirmative action beneficiaries need to first be trained and developed in order for them to have the necessary qualifications and experience to be appointed in or promoted to senior positions in the organisation?	1	2	3	4
	2) Are affirmative action appointees trained and developed throughout their careers as part of their career management?	1	2	3	4
	3) Is every individual affirmative action appointee's unique needs taken into account when planning for his or her training and development?	1	2	3	4
	4) Are the strengths and weaknesses of every affirmative action appointee taken into account when planning his or her career path?	1	2	3	4
<b>MENTORSHIP</b>	1) Does your organisation's affirmative action strategy have a programme to aid the socialisation and integration of blacks into the organisation?	1	2	3	4
	2) Is a mentor (a person with work experience and knowledge) appointed to the affirmative action appointee to ensure the eventual optimal functioning of this person?	1	2	3	4

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Agree	Totally agree
	3) Are knowledge, skills and life experiences of successful managers transmitted to affirmative action appointees?	1	2	3	4
<b>MANAGING DIVERSITY</b>	1) Is your organisation's diverse workforce managed in such a manner as to ensure the maximum utilisation of all employees to the benefit of the organisation?	1	2	3	4
	2) Does your organisation aim to utilise differences between employees as a competitive advantage?	1	2	3	4
	3) Does your company prepare the concerned workforce for the appointment of an affirmative action beneficiary in their midst?	1	2	3	4
	4) Can people from diverse backgrounds express themselves, grow, develop and be promoted on merit?	1	2	3	4
	5) Does an organisational culture which fosters awareness, value and acceptance of individual differences, exist in your organisation?	1	2	3	4
	6) Does your organisation have a managed program to address the diversity created by affirmative action?	1	2	3	4

ORGANISATION .....

NAME OF PERSON INTERVIEWED .....

POSITION OF PERSON INTERVIEWED .....

TELEPHONE NO. OF PERSON INTERVIEWED .....

SCORE:

COPY OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION POLICY:

Yes	No
-----	----

**JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE****Addendum 2**

The items in this questionnaire deal with the aspects that determine an employee's job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction concerns a person's perception of the level of need satisfaction experienced in the execution of a job. It also has to do with the way in which the job itself, the job outcomes and the job surroundings, correlates with the employee's expectations. The degree of job satisfaction experienced, determines an individual's quality of "working life".

You will find the completion of this questionnaire interesting. By answering the questions, taking into account your personal experience in your current job, you will be able to gauge the level of job satisfaction you experience. **You can also calculate your score and compare it to the norms provided at the end of the questionnaire.**

You are kindly requested to complete this questionnaire in your own time. It should not take you more than 30 minutes to complete.

The information you provide will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and will not be made available to your organisation. You are therefore asked to answer the questions truthfully.

**AFTER EACH QUESTION YOU ARE PROVIDED WITH FOUR ALTERNATIVES TO CHOOSE FROM. YOU SHOULD MARK ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION. MARK THE ALTERNATIVE YOU CHOOSE, BY MAKING A CROSS IN THE BLOCK DIRECTLY TO THE RIGHT OF IT.**

**Remember that your answers should only concern your present job and position.**

**PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING:**

Your present position? .....

Years/months in present position? .....

Years/months with this organisation? .....

Have you been promoted to your current position?

YES	NO
-----	----

Your age? ..... years

Your gender?

MALE	FEMALE
------	--------

Number of subordinates reporting to you? .....

**MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION**

**I NATURE OF THE JOB**

**The work I am presently doing is ..... to me personally.**

- |   |                               |                          |      |
|---|-------------------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | absolutely purposeful         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0014 |
| b | to a large extent purposeful  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0013 |
| c | to a lesser extent purposeful | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0012 |
| d | not at all purposeful         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0011 |

**The nature of my work ..... encourages me to act responsibly when executing my tasks.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | to a great extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0024 |
| b | to an extent       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0023 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0022 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0021 |

**To what extent do you feel personally involved in your work?**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | To a great extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0034 |
| b | To an extent       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0033 |
| c | To a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0032 |
| d | Not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0031 |

**I view the work I do as ..... to the organisation.**

- |   |                     |                          |      |
|---|---------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very important      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0044 |
| b | important           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0043 |
| c | unimportant         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0042 |
| d | totally unimportant | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0041 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**My job is of such a nature that I get ..... opportunity to use my own initiative.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0054 |
| b | enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0053 |
| c | little | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0052 |
| d | no     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0051 |

**I am given ..... opportunity to apply my own judgement when executing my responsibilities.**

- |   |             |                          |      |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0064 |
| b | enough      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0063 |
| c | little      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0062 |
| d | very little | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0061 |

**How often do you experience a feeling of satisfaction when completing a job task?**

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | Always    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0074 |
| b | Often     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0073 |
| c | Sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0072 |
| d | Never     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0071 |

**In the position I presently occupy, ..... tasks are left to my own responsibility.**

- |   |      |                          |      |
|---|------|--------------------------|------|
| a | all  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0084 |
| b | most | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0083 |
| c | few  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0082 |
| d | no   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0081 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**The tasks I presently execute give me ..... opportunity to excel.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0094 |
| b | enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0093 |
| c | little | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0092 |
| d | no     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0091 |

**I am ..... proud of the work I do.**

- |   |            |                          |      |
|---|------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0104 |
| b | reasonably | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0103 |
| c | not really | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0102 |
| d | not at all | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0101 |

**My job gives me ..... opportunity to utilise my abilities.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0114 |
| b | enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0113 |
| c | little | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0112 |
| d | no     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0111 |

**The work I am presently doing is ..... to me.**

- |   |                        |                          |      |
|---|------------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very challenging       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0124 |
| b | quite challenging      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0123 |
| c | not very challenging   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0122 |
| d | not challenging at all | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0121 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**To what extent do your work tasks relate to your personal interests?**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | To a great extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0134 |
| b | To a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0133 |
| c | To a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0132 |
| d | Not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0131 |

**The execution of my tasks ..... contributes to my self-development.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | to a great extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0144 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0143 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0142 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0141 |

**In the job I am presently occupying, I experience ..... frustration due to the routine nature of my job.**

- |   |          |                          |      |
|---|----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | a lot of | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0151 |
| b | some     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0152 |
| c | little   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0153 |
| d | no       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0154 |

**The nature of my job is such that I get ..... opportunity to complete a job task in its whole, so that the result can be attributed to my personal performance.**

- |   |            |                          |      |
|---|------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0164 |
| b | some       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0163 |
| c | little     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0162 |
| d | hardly any | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0161 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**In the job I presently occupy, I experience ..... stress due to the nature of my job tasks.**

- |   |          |                          |      |
|---|----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | a lot of | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0171 |
| b | some     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0172 |
| c | little   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0173 |
| d | no       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0174 |

**I feel ..... to cope with the required demands of my present job.**

- |   |                      |                          |      |
|---|----------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally competent    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0184 |
| b | partly competent     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0183 |
| c | not competent enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0182 |
| d | totally incompetent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0181 |

<b>2 JOB GUIDELINES AND GOALS</b>
-----------------------------------

**It is ..... clear to me what my duties in my present position are.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0194 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0193 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0192 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0191 |

**There exists ..... guidelines (ie written procedures) regarding the manner in which I should execute my work tasks.**

- |   |             |                          |      |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | complete    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0204 |
| b | substantial | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0203 |
| c | scanty      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0202 |
| d | no          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0201 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**It is ..... clear to me what the purpose of my daily work tasks is.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | absolutely         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0214 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0213 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0212 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0211 |

**According to my own perception, there exists ..... connection between my job tasks and the objectives of the organisation.**

- |   |            |                          |      |
|---|------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | a total    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0224 |
| b | some       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0223 |
| c | a limited  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0222 |
| d | hardly any | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0221 |

**I ..... know what is expected of me in my job.**

- |   |                   |                          |      |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | exactly           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0234 |
| b | to a large extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0233 |
| c | vaguely           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0232 |
| d | hardly at all     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0231 |

**It is ..... to me what I am held accountable for in my job.**

- |   |                  |                          |      |
|---|------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | absolutely clear | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0244 |
| b | clear            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0243 |
| c | vague            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0242 |
| d | not clear at all | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0241 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

..... measures exist against which the quality of my work tasks is evaluated.

- |   |            |                          |      |
|---|------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | Very clear | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0254 |
| b | Clear      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0253 |
| c | Vague      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0252 |
| d | No         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0251 |

I am ..... provided with clear objectives regarding my work tasks.

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | regularly | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0264 |
| b | often     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0263 |
| c | seldom    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0262 |
| d | never     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0261 |

I receive..... feedback, regarding the level of success I achieve in the execution of my work tasks.

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | extensive | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0274 |
| b | adequate  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0273 |
| c | limited   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0272 |
| d | no        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0271 |

<b>3 UTILISATION</b>
----------------------

Give an indication below as to the degree to which you are utilised in your position with regard to the aspects listed at the top of the next item.

		Capabilities		Academic qualifica- tions		Expe- rience		Job- related training	
a	Completely	<input type="checkbox"/>	0284	<input type="checkbox"/>	0294	<input type="checkbox"/>	0304	<input type="checkbox"/>	0314
b	To a large extent	<input type="checkbox"/>	0283	<input type="checkbox"/>	0293	<input type="checkbox"/>	0303	<input type="checkbox"/>	0313
c	To a lesser extent	<input type="checkbox"/>	0282	<input type="checkbox"/>	0292	<input type="checkbox"/>	0302	<input type="checkbox"/>	0312
d	Not at all	<input type="checkbox"/>	0281	<input type="checkbox"/>	0291	<input type="checkbox"/>	0301	<input type="checkbox"/>	0311

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**The scope of my daily tasks is of such a nature that I can ..... complete my work tasks on time.**

- |   |             |                          |      |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0324 |
| b | usually     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0323 |
| c | seldom      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0322 |
| d | hardly ever | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0321 |

**The quantity of additional work tasks given to me ..... causes me not being able to complete my daily work tasks successfully.**

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0331 |
| b | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0332 |
| c | seldom    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0333 |
| d | never     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0334 |

**I ..... have to look busy because there is no work to be done.**

- |   |               |                          |      |
|---|---------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | nearly always | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0341 |
| b | regularly     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0342 |
| c | seldom        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0343 |
| d | never         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0344 |

**The time limits set for my work tasks are .....**

- |   |                      |                          |      |
|---|----------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | realistic            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0354 |
| b | reasonably realistic | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0353 |
| c | somewhat unrealistic | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0352 |
| d | unrealistic          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0351 |

**MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION**

**4 STATUS AND RECOGNITION**

**My current position possesses ..... status within the organisation.**

- |   |              |                          |      |
|---|--------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | considerable | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0364 |
| b | some         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0363 |
| c | little       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0362 |
| d | no           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0361 |

**I ..... feel that other members of the organisation view my job as inferior.**

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | often     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0371 |
| b | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0372 |
| c | seldom    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0373 |
| d | never     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0374 |

**My job is of such a nature that it is ..... possible for me to get recognition if I do my job well.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | absolutely         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0384 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0383 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0382 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0381 |

**5 DEVELOPMENT**

**The position I presently occupy provides ..... promotional opportunities.**

- |   |          |                          |      |
|---|----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0394 |
| b | adequate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0393 |
| c | few      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0392 |
| d | no       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0391 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**There exists ..... training opportunities within the organisation to equip me better to execute my work tasks effectively.**

- |   |                  |                          |      |
|---|------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | more than enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0404 |
| b | enough           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0403 |
| c | too little       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0402 |
| d | no               | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0401 |

**The quality of training I have received in my current job is .....**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | excellent          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0414 |
| b | satisfactory       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0413 |
| c | not up to standard | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0412 |
| d | poor               | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0411 |

**The theoretical training I receive during courses is ..... useful to me in executing my tasks.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0424 |
| b | partly             | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0423 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0422 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0421 |

**The organisation views further training as ..... for effective functioning within my current position.**

- |   |               |                          |      |
|---|---------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | crucial       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0434 |
| b | necessary     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0433 |
| c | not essential | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0432 |
| d | unnecessary   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0431 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**In my line of duty the refresher courses the organisation offer are .....**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | more than adequate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0444 |
| b | adequate           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0443 |
| c | inadequate         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0442 |
| d | totally inadequate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0441 |

**It is ..... clear to me that the experience I acquire in my present job is a preparation for later application in a higher position.**

- |   |                   |                          |      |
|---|-------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0454 |
| b | to a large extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0453 |
| c | not very          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0452 |
| d | not at all        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0451 |

**My organisation ..... recognises the external qualifications employees obtain and plan their career paths accordingly.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0464 |
| b | often  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0463 |
| c | seldom | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0462 |
| d | never  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0461 |

**..... guidelines exist regarding the type of training I must receive in order to be promoted.**

- |   |                  |                          |      |
|---|------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | Clear            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0474 |
| b | Reasonably clear | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0473 |
| c | Vague            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0472 |
| d | No               | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0471 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**I get ..... opportunity in my department/section to acquire experience of other work tasks.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0484 |
| b | some   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0483 |
| c | little | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0482 |
| d | no     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0481 |

**Employees are ..... encouraged by my organisation to continuously better their qualifications.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | actively           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0494 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0493 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0492 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0491 |

**My organisation ..... supports employees in the process of bettering their qualifications.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0504 |
| b | often  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0503 |
| c | seldom | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0502 |
| d | never  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0501 |

**The rewards (remuneration/promotion) my organisation offers employees who improve their qualifications, serve as ..... incentive for further studies.**

- |   |              |                          |      |
|---|--------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | an excellent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0514 |
| b | a good       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0513 |
| c | a poor       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0512 |
| d | no           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0511 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**One ..... feels that superiors are threatened when subordinates better their qualifications.**

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0521 |
| b | regularly | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0522 |
| c | seldom    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0523 |
| d | never     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0524 |

**I experience ..... resistance when I attempt to apply ideas I required during studies/training in my work task.**

- |   |          |                          |      |
|---|----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | a lot of | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0531 |
| b | some     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0532 |
| c | little   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0533 |
| d | no       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0534 |

<b>6 LEADERSHIP</b>
---------------------

**The leadership style my superior uses is ..... supportive to the execution of my tasks.**

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0544 |
| b | usually   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0543 |
| c | sometimes | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0542 |
| d | never     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0541 |

**The leadership style my superior uses ..... matches the leadership style I prefer.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | completely         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0554 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0553 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0552 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0551 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**I find it ..... to accept the authority of my superior.**

- |   |                |                          |      |
|---|----------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very easy      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0564 |
| b | easy           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0563 |
| c | difficult      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0562 |
| d | very difficult | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0561 |

**The control my superior exercises with regard to the quality of my work is .....**

- |   |           |                          |      |
|---|-----------|--------------------------|------|
| a | excellent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0574 |
| b | good      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0573 |
| c | poor      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0572 |
| d | inferior  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0571 |

<b>7 STRUCTURES</b>
---------------------

**The level of specialisation in my job causes me to ..... stagnate in the area in which I am qualified.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | completely         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0581 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0582 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0583 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0584 |

**I have ..... authority to do my work within the organisation.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | more than adequate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0594 |
| b | adequate           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0593 |
| c | inadequate         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0592 |
| d | totally inadequate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0591 |

**MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION**

**My authority is ..... accepted by my subordinates.**

- |   |            |  |      |
|---|------------|--|------|
| a | totally    |  | 0604 |
| b | partially  |  | 0603 |
| c | hardly     |  | 0602 |
| d | not at all |  | 0601 |

**The rules and regulations I must adhere to when executing my tasks ..... the successful completion of my tasks.**

- |   |                      |  |      |
|---|----------------------|--|------|
| a | promote              |  | 0614 |
| b | to an extent promote |  | 0613 |
| c | hamper               |  | 0612 |
| d | harm                 |  | 0611 |

**I am ..... empowered to control my work flow.**

- |   |                    |  |      |
|---|--------------------|--|------|
| a | totally            |  | 0624 |
| b | to a large extent  |  | 0623 |
| c | to a lesser extent |  | 0622 |
| d | not at all         |  | 0621 |

**Judge the job assignments you receive in terms of the aspects listed at the top of the following item.**

		Completeness	Accuracy	Timeliness
a	Excellent			
		0634	0644	0654
b	Good			
		0633	0643	0653
c	Poor			
		0632	0642	0652
d	Inferior			
		0631	0641	0651

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

Indicate to what degree you receive feedback on the aspects listed at the top of the following item.

		Success of task completion		Progress regarding development		Personal shortcomings		Personal merit	
a	Totally	<input type="checkbox"/>	0664	<input type="checkbox"/>	0674	<input type="checkbox"/>	0684	<input type="checkbox"/>	0694
b	Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>	0663	<input type="checkbox"/>	0673	<input type="checkbox"/>	0683	<input type="checkbox"/>	0693
c	Too little	<input type="checkbox"/>	0662	<input type="checkbox"/>	0672	<input type="checkbox"/>	0682	<input type="checkbox"/>	0692
d	None	<input type="checkbox"/>	0661	<input type="checkbox"/>	0671	<input type="checkbox"/>	0681	<input type="checkbox"/>	0691

To what extent do you receive information on important issues concerning you as a member of the organisation, via the "grapevine" (informal communication system)?

a	Mostly	<input type="checkbox"/>	0701
b	To a large extent	<input type="checkbox"/>	0702
c	To a lesser extent	<input type="checkbox"/>	0703
d	Not at all	<input type="checkbox"/>	0704

<b>B HUMAN RESOURCE POLICY</b>
--------------------------------

How often have you, since you have been a member of the organisation, considered leaving the organisation because you could receive a better salary elsewhere?

a	Three times or more	<input type="checkbox"/>	0711
b	Twice	<input type="checkbox"/>	0712
c	Once	<input type="checkbox"/>	0713
d	Never	<input type="checkbox"/>	0714

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**How would you classify the comparison between the effort you put into your job and the salary you receive?**

- |   |                       |                          |      |
|---|-----------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | Totally comparable    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0724 |
| b | Comparable            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0723 |
| c | Not comparable        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0722 |
| d | Not at all comparable | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0721 |

**To what extent are you able to maintain a satisfactory living standard with your total salary package (salary plus fringe benefits)?**

- |   |                  |                          |      |
|---|------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | Totally          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0734 |
| b | A large extent   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0733 |
| c | A limited extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0732 |
| d | Not at all       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0731 |

**I am ..... satisfied with the benefits provided by my organisation's pension fund.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0744 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0743 |
| c | to a lessor extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0742 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0741 |

**My organisation's medical fund ..... provides the services I expect of it.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0754 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0753 |
| c | to a lessor extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0752 |
| d | does not           | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0751 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**I am ..... satisfied with the benefits provided by my organisation's group insurance scheme.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0764 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0763 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0762 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0761 |

**The housing benefit provided by my organisation compares ..... with that of other organisations.**

- |   |                 |                          |      |
|---|-----------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very well       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0774 |
| b | reasonably well | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0773 |
| c | not that well   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0772 |
| d | poorly          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0771 |

**The car allowance scheme provided by my organisation ..... satisfies my needs.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | completely         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0784 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0783 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0782 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0781 |

**According to my experience, the performance appraisal system (merit rating system) used by my organisation gives a ..... account of an employee's competency.**

- |   |                     |                          |      |
|---|---------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very accurate       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0794 |
| b | reasonably accurate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0793 |
| c | less than accurate  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0792 |
| d | inaccurate          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0791 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**I am ..... informed about my shortcomings based on the results of performance appraisals.**

- |   |        |                          |      |
|---|--------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0804 |
| b | often  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0803 |
| c | seldom | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0802 |
| d | never  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0801 |

**My superior ..... takes action in order to give his subordinates additional training based on shortcomings identified by the performance appraisal system.**

- |   |         |                          |      |
|---|---------|--------------------------|------|
| a | always  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0814 |
| b | usually | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0813 |
| c | seldom  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0812 |
| d | never   | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0811 |

<b>9 WORKING CONDITIONS</b>
-----------------------------

**The physical working conditions in the organisation are ..... to the execution of my job.**

- |   |                               |                          |      |
|---|-------------------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally beneficial            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0824 |
| b | reasonably beneficial         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0823 |
| c | to a lesser extent beneficial | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0822 |
| d | harmful                       | <input type="checkbox"/> | 0821 |

**MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION**

**Judge your physical work environment according to the aspects listed at the top of the next item.**

	Hygiene		Lighting		Atmospheric conditions (temperature and humidity)		Absence of noise		Apparatus, utensils and accessories		Services and facilities	
a Excellent	<input type="checkbox"/>	0834	<input type="checkbox"/>	0844	<input type="checkbox"/>	0854	<input type="checkbox"/>	0864	<input type="checkbox"/>	0874	<input type="checkbox"/>	0884
b Good	<input type="checkbox"/>	0833	<input type="checkbox"/>	0843	<input type="checkbox"/>	0853	<input type="checkbox"/>	0863	<input type="checkbox"/>	0873	<input type="checkbox"/>	0883
c Poor	<input type="checkbox"/>	0832	<input type="checkbox"/>	0842	<input type="checkbox"/>	0852	<input type="checkbox"/>	0862	<input type="checkbox"/>	0872	<input type="checkbox"/>	0882
d Inferior	<input type="checkbox"/>	0831	<input type="checkbox"/>	0841	<input type="checkbox"/>	0851	<input type="checkbox"/>	0861	<input type="checkbox"/>	0871	<input type="checkbox"/>	0881

**The physical lay out of my office/work place is ..... to the execution of my tasks.**

- a totally beneficial  0894
- b reasonably beneficial  0893
- c to a lessor extent beneficial  0892
- d harmful  0891

**10 INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP RELATIONSHIPS**

**Indicate, by marking the appropriate block with a cross, the extent to which you agree with the following statements. Judge the statements according to your own experience.**

	Totally agree		Agree		Disagree		Totally disagree	
Superiors regularly take credit for their subordinates' achievements.	<input type="checkbox"/>	0901	<input type="checkbox"/>	0902	<input type="checkbox"/>	0903	<input type="checkbox"/>	0904
Certain individuals are unfairly benefited by superiors.	<input type="checkbox"/>	0911	<input type="checkbox"/>	0912	<input type="checkbox"/>	0913	<input type="checkbox"/>	0914

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

	Totally agree	Agree	Disagree	Totally disagree
Jealousy exists amongst employees in my department/section (one is not granted a "place in the sun").	0921	0922	0923	0924
Employees in my department/section constantly criticise other members' achievements/promotion.	0931	0932	0933	0934
In the department/section where I work, employees are inclined to "stab others in the back" (advance themselves at the expense of others).	0941	0942	0943	0944
The people I work with are keen to assist their co-workers in their jobs and to give them advice.	0954	0953	0952	0951
Employees in my department/section stand together and will not let a co-worker down.	0964	0963	0962	0961
There is excellent cooperation amongst employees in my department/section.	0974	0973	0972 <sup>*</sup>	0971
The employees I work with are a coherent group and see themselves as such.	0984	0983	0982	0981
The employees in my department/section actively work together in order to attain objectives which are clear to all.	0994	0993	0992	0991
Informal rules exist within my work group which are accepted by the group members and to which they adhere.	1004	1003	1002	1001
Members of certain departments/sections of the organisation are snobbish.	1011	1012	1013	1014

**MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION**

	<b>Totally agree</b>		<b>Agree</b>		<b>Disagree</b>		<b>Totally disagree</b>
Cliques exist within the department/section where I work (a small number of employees form a group and do not mix with others).	<input type="checkbox"/> 1021	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1022	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1023	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1024
Subgroups who are in conflict with each other and who act hostile towards each other are common in my department/section.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1031	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1032	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1033	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1034
Certain employees in my department/section are excluded from the informal group activities.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1041	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1042	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1043	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> 1044

**11 EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT**

**People external to my organisation are ..... aware of the importance of my job in the organisation.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1054 |
| b | to a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1053 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1052 |
| d | not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1051 |

**People external to the organisation give me ..... recognition as a result of the position I occupy.**

- |   |            |                          |      |
|---|------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1064 |
| b | enough     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1063 |
| c | not enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1062 |
| d | no         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1061 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

**My family is ..... of the position I occupy.**

- |   |                          |                          |      |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very proud               | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1074 |
| b | proud                    | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1073 |
| c | to a lesser extent proud | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1072 |
| d | not at all proud         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1071 |

**My personal friends (who do not have any organisational connections) give me ..... recognition as a result of the position I occupy.**

- |   |            |                          |      |
|---|------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | ample      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1084 |
| b | enough     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1083 |
| c | not enough | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1082 |
| d | no         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1081 |

**The possessions I own, due to my membership of the organisation, compare ..... with those owned by other persons occupying similar positions in other organisations.**

- |   |                 |                          |      |
|---|-----------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | very favourably | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1094 |
| b | favourably      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1093 |
| c | poorly          | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1092 |
| d | very poorly     | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1091 |

**My social standing with friends can be ..... attributed to the organisational position I occupy and the income I receive.**

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1104 |
| b | largely            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1103 |
| c | to a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1102 |
| d | by no means        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1101 |

<b>MARK (X) ONLY ONE ALTERNATIVE PER QUESTION</b>
---

The type of work I do in the organisation provides me with ..... status in the community.

- |   |             |                          |      |
|---|-------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | substantial | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1114 |
| b | some        | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1113 |
| c | little      | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1112 |
| d | hardly any  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1111 |

How does the status you enjoy within the community as a result of the position you occupy, measure up to your expectations?

- |   |                    |                          |      |
|---|--------------------|--------------------------|------|
| a | Totally            | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1124 |
| b | To a large extent  | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1123 |
| c | To a lesser extent | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1122 |
| d | Not at all         | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1121 |

<b>SHOULD YOU BE INTERESTED IN DETERMINING YOUR JOB SATISFACTION LEVEL, PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE.</b>
---

## SCORING YOUR RESPONSES

You can score your responses to the questionnaire by **adding** the **last digit** of the number directly to the right of the items you marked.

For example:

	0971
	0972
X	0973
	0974

Your total score can be evaluated according to the following norms:

TOTAL SCORE	NORM
<b>337 or more</b>	You experience above average job satisfaction and a high quality of "working life". Stay with your organisation and enjoy it!
<b>225-336</b>	You experience average job satisfaction and quality of "working life". Be careful not to leave your present organisation for a job where you might be worse off.
<b>112-224</b>	You experience low job satisfaction and a below average quality of "working life". Be on the lookout for a better position, but make sure that the new organisation you choose is above average concerning the factors that determine job satisfaction.
<b>Below 112</b>	You are totally dissatisfied in your job and enjoy a poor quality of "working life". You should urgently consider finding another job elsewhere.

<b>THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND CO-OPERATION</b>
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**THE DIFFERENT JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES REFLECTED IN THE ITEMS OF THE JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE**

DIMENSION	QUESTION NUMBER	ATTRIBUTE	JOB SATISFACTION THEORY
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<b>JOB CONTENT</b>
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<b>1 NATURE OF THE JOB</b>			
1.1 Purposefulness of the job	1	The degree to which work tasks are personally purposeful to the employee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> </ul>
	2	The degree to which the nature of the employee's job encourages him or her to act responsibly when executing his or her tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> </ul>
	3	The extent to which the employee feels personally involved in his or her work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> </ul>
	4	The degree to which the employee views the work he or she does as important to the organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
1.2 Opportunities for self-actualisation	5	The degree to which job tasks provide the employee with opportunities to use his or her own initiative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
	6	The degree to which the employee is given the opportunity to utilise his or her own judgement when executing responsibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
	7	The frequency with which the employee experiences a feeling of satisfaction when completing a job task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
	8	The number of tasks left to the employee's own responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>

	9	The degree to which the tasks presently executed by the employee gives him or her the opportunity to excel	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>	
	10	The degree to which the employee is proud of the work he or she does	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> </ul>	
1.3	Optimal utilisation of abilities	11	The opportunity the job gives the employee to completely utilise his or her abilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
1.4	Challenging nature of the job	12	The degree to which job tasks are challenging to the employee	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
		13	The degree to which the employee's work tasks relate to his or her personal interests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
		14	The degree to which the execution of the employee's tasks contributes to his or her self-development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
		15	The degree of frustration the employee experiences due to the routine nature of his or her job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
		16	The opportunity given to the employee to complete a job task in its whole so that the result can be attributed to his or her personal performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> </ul>
1.5	Job demands	17	The degree of stress the employee experiences due to the nature of his/ her job tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		18	The degree to which the employee feels competent to cope with the demands of his or her present job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
<b>2 JOB GUIDELINES AND GOALS</b>				
2.1	Duties	19	The degree to which it is clear to the employee what his or her duties in his or her present position is	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>

2.2	Job guidelines	20	The degree to which clear guidelines exist regarding the manner in which tasks must be executed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.3	Purpose of the work task	21	The degree to which the employee knows what the purpose of his or her daily work tasks is	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.4	Relationship between work tasks and organisational objectives	22	The degree to which the employee perceives a logical relation between his or her work tasks and organisational objectives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.5	Job expectancies	23	The degree to which the employee knows what is expected of him or her in his or her position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.6	Accountability	24	The degree to which the employee is aware of what he or she is held accountable for in the position he or she occupies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.7	Job standards	25	The degree to which guidelines exist against which the quality of the employee's work performance is measured	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.8	Objectives	26	The degree to which the employee is provided with clear objectives regarding his or her work tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
2.9	Feedback on success	27	The degree to which feedback is received regarding the level of success the employee achieves in the execution of his or her tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
<b>3 UTILISATION</b>				
3.1	Utilisation of the employee's capabilities, academic qualifications, experience and job-related training	28-31	The degree to which the employee's capabilities, academic qualifications, experience and job-related training are utilised in the job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
3.2	Scope of work tasks	32	The degree to which the scope of the employee's daily work tasks is of such a nature that he or she can complete them	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>

	33	The degree to which additional tasks given to the employee cause him or her not to be able to complete his or her daily work successfully	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
3.3 Full-time utilisation	34	The degree to which the employee has to look busy because of the lack of work to be done	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
3.4 Scheduling	35	The degree to which the time limits set for the employee's daily tasks are realistic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
<b>4 STATUS AND RECOGNITION</b>			
4.1 Job status	36	The status the position that the employee occupies, has within the organisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
	37	The degree to which the employee feels that other members of the organisation view his or her job as inferior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
4.2 Feasibility of recognition	38	The degree to which the contents of the employee's job are of such a nature that it is possible to get recognition for doing the job well	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
<b>5 DEVELOPMENT</b>			
5.1 Promotional scope	39	The promotional opportunities in the occupational function, the employee is presently appointed in	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
5.2 Training opportunities within the organisation	40	The scope of training opportunities in the organisation to adequately equip the employee to execute his or her work tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
5.3 Quality of training	41	The quality of training the employee had received in his or her current job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>

5.4	Relevance of training	42	The degree to which theoretical training courses are useful to the employee in the execution of his or her job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
5.5	Determination of training needs and the adequacy of refresher courses	43	The degree to which the organisation views further training as essential for effective functioning in the employee's current position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		44	The degree to which refresher courses offered by the organisation are adequate in relation to the employee's line of duty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
5.6	Career preparation and planning	45	The degree to which it is clear to the employee that the experience he or she acquires in his or her present job is a preparation for later application in a higher position	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		46	The degree to which the organisation recognises external qualifications obtained by employees, and plan their career paths accordingly	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		47	The clarity of guidelines regarding the type of training the employee has to receive in order to be promoted	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		48	The degree to which the employee receives the opportunity to acquire experience of other work tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
5.7	Encouragement and support the organisation gives regarding external academic and technical training of employees	49	The degree to which the employee is encouraged by the organisation to continuously better his or her qualifications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		50	The degree to which the employee is supported by the organisation when bettering his or her qualifications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		51	The degree to which the rewards offered by the organisation to an employee who better his or her qualifications serve as an incentive for further efforts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>

	52	The degree to which the employee feels that superiors are threatened when subordinates better their qualifications	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	53	The measure of resistance the employee experiences when he or she attempts to apply ideas acquired during training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>

<b>JOB CONTEXT</b>
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<b>6 LEADERSHIP</b>			
6.1 Leadership style	54	The degree to which the superior's leadership style is supportive to the employee in the execution of his or her job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	55	The degree to which the leadership style practised by the employee's superior relates to the leadership style, the employee prefers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	56	The ease with which the employee accepts the authority of his or her superior	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	57	The standard of the control exercised by the superior concerning the quality of the employee's performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
<b>7 STRUCTURES</b>			
7.1 Job design	58	The extent to which the level of specialisation in the employee's job causes him or her to stagnate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
7.2 Authority structure	59	The adequacy of the authority the employee has	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>

	60	The extent to which the employee's authority is accepted by his or her subordinates	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>	
7.3	Rules and regulations	61	The extent to which the rules and regulations the employee must adhere to when executing his or her work tasks, promote the successful completion thereof	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
7.4	Work flow	62	The degree to which the employee is empowered to control his or her work flow	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
7.5	Assignments	63-65	The quality of assignments the employee receives, with regard to completeness, accuracy and timeliness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
7.6	Communication	66-69	The degree of feedback received by the employee concerning his or her success of task completion, development progress, personal shortcomings and personal merit	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
		70	The extent to which the employee receives information on important issues concerning him or her as a member of the organisation, via the "grapevine"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
<b>8 HUMAN RESOURCE POLICY</b>				
8.1	Remuneration and fringe benefits	71	The number of times the employee has considered leaving the organisation due to better salaries payed elsewhere	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
		72	The degree to which the effort the employee puts into the work task and the salary he or she receives, is comparable	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
		73	The extent to which the employee is able to maintain a satisfactory living standard with his or her total salary package (salary plus fringe benefits)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>

	74	The extent to which the employee is satisfied with the benefits provided by the organisation's pension fund	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
	75	The degree to which the organisation's medical fund provides the services the employee expects of it	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
	76	The extent to which the employee is satisfied with the benefits provided by the organisation's group insurance scheme	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
	77	The degree to which the employee feels the organisation's housing benefit compares favourably with that of other organisations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
	78	The extent to which the car allowance scheme satisfies the employee's needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
8.2 Performance appraisal	79	The degree to which the organisation's performance appraisal system gives an accurate account of the employee's competency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	80	The regularity with which the employee is informed about his or her shortcomings, based on the results of the performance appraisal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	81	The regularity with which the employee's superior takes action in order to give the employee additional training based on shortcomings identified by the performance appraisal system	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>

<b>9 WORKING CONDITIONS</b>			
9.1 Physical working conditions	82	The degree to which the physical working conditions in the organisation are conducive to the execution of the employee's tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	83-88	The quality of conditions, services and facilities in the employee's physical work environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	89	The degree to which the physical lay out of the employee's work place is conducive to the execution of his or her tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
<b>10 INTERPERSONAL AND GROUP RELATIONSHIPS</b>			
10.1 Relationship with superiors	90	The degree to which the employee feels that superiors take the credit for their subordinates' achievements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Self-actualising man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> </ul>
	91	The degree to which certain individual are unfairly benefitted by superiors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Psychological contract theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
10.2 Relationship with peers	92	The degree to which jealousy exists between persons in the employee's department/ section	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
	93	The degree to which employees criticise other members' achievements/ promotion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
	94	The degree to which the employee feels that members in his or her section are inclined to "stab others in the back"	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
	95	The degree to which the employee feels that people he or she works with are keen to aid and advise co-workers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>

10.3	Acceptance by the group	96	The degree to which the employee feels that members of his or her section stand together and will not let a co-member down	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		97	The degree to which the employee feels that a great deal of cooperation exists amongst members of his or her section	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		98	The degree to which the employee feels that the members of his or her section are a cohesive group and see themselves as such	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		99	The degree to which the employee feels that the persons in his or her section actively work together in order to attain objectives which are clear to all	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		100	The degree to which the employee feels that informal rules exist within his or her work group, that are accepted by group members and to which they adhere	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
10.4	Existence of subgroups	101	The degree to which the employee feels that members of certain departments/ sections of the organisation are snobbish	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		102	The degree to which the employee feels that cliques exist within his or her section (ie a small number of people that form a group and stand together, and do not mix with others)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		103	The degree to which the employee feels that subgroups exist within his or her department, who are in conflict with, and act hostile towards each other	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		104	The degree to which the employee feels that certain people in his or her department are excluded from informal group activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>

<b>EXTERNAL INTERACTIVE ENVIRONMENT</b>
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<b>11 STATUS WITHIN THE COMMUNITY</b>			
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11.1	Job status in the community	105	The degree to which people external to the organisation are aware of the importance of the employee's job	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		106	The level of recognition people external to the organisation give the employee as a result of the position he or she occupies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		107	The extent to which the employee's family is proud of the position he or she occupies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		108	The level of recognition given to the employee by his or her personal friends (who do not have any organisational connections) for the position he or she occupies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
11.2	Financial and social status	109	The level of comparison between the employee's physical possessions, as a result of his or her membership of the organisation, and those of other persons occupying similar positions in other organisations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>
		110	The extent to which the social standing of the employee with his or her friends can be attributed to the position he or she occupies, and the income he or she receives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		111	The degree to which the type of work the employee does in the organisation, provides him or her with status in the community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> </ul>
		112	The degree to which the status the employee has within the community, as a result of the position he or she occupies, measures up to his or her expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need theory</li> <li>• Social man theory</li> <li>• Two-factor theory</li> <li>• Expectancy theory</li> <li>• Group theory</li> <li>• Equity theory</li> </ul>

APPROXIMATE CORRELATION BETWEEN VARIOUS JOB EVALUATION SYSTEMS							
CLASSICAL PATERSON	MODERN PATERSON	TASK	HAY UNIT RANGE	PEROMNES	CASTELLION	DECISION LEVEL	
A	A1	1	55-67	19-18	1	• Defined decisions	
	A2	2	68-79	17	2		
	A3	3	80-92	16	3		
BL	B1	4	93-109	15	4	• Discretionary, operative, sub-system or automatic decisions	
	B2	5	110-128	14	5		
BU	B3	6	129-150	13	6		
	B4	7	151-176	12	7		
CL	C1	8-9	177-207	11	8		• Skilled, technical and academically qualified employees • Junior management, supervisors, foremen, superintendents • Routine or process decisions
	C2	10	208-250	10	9		
CU	C3	11	251-320	9	10		
	C4	12	321-400	8	11		
DL	D1	13-14	401-485	7-6	12	• Professionally qualified and experienced specialists • Middle management • Interpretive decisions	
	D2	15	486-585				
DU	D3	16	586-720	5	13		
	D4	17	721-850				
EL	E1	18-21	851-1150	4	14	• Senior management • Heads of major functions • Programming decisions	
	EU	E2	1151-1350	3	15		
1351-2050			2				
F	F1	25	2051-2200	1 1+	16	• Top management • Board level • Policy making decisions	
	F2	26	2201-2350	1++	17		