

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
LIST OF FIGURES	viii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
SUMMARY	xiii
CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION	
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1.1
1.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION	1.3
1.3 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH	1.6
1.4 PLAN OF THE RESEARCH	1.6
CHAPTER 2: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE	
2.1 INTRODUCTION	2.1
2.2 THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	2.1
2.3 DEFINING CONCEPTS	2.3
2.4 OBJECTIVES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	2.7
2.4.1 Black Management Forum's viewpoints	2.7
2.4.2 Benefits of affirmative action	2.8
2.5 OBSTACLES TO AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS	2.9
2.5.1 Implementation problems	2.10
2.5.2 Strategic concerns	2.10
2.5.3 Organisational concerns	2.11
2.5.4 The costs of affirmative action	2.12
2.5.5 Implementation issues	2.12
2.5.6 Critical success factors	2.14
2.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	2.15
2.7 SUMMARY	2.17
CHAPTER 3: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AT ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL	
3.1 INTRODUCTION	3.1
3.2 EQUALITY AND JUSTICE	3.2
3.3 THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT 55 OF 1998	3.2

3.3.1	Unfair discrimination	3.3
3.3.2	Affirmative action	3.4
3.4	PROMOTION OF EQUALITY AND THE PREVENTION OF UNFAIR DISCRIMINATION ACT 4 of 2000	3.5
3.5	THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	3.6
3.5.1	A strategic approach to affirmative action	3.6
3.6	THE IMPLICATIONS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION ON ORGANISATIONAL POLICIES, PROCEDURES AND PRACTICES	3.7
3.6.1	Recruitment	3.7
3.6.2	Selection criteria	3.9
3.6.3	Human resource policy	3.10
3.6.4	Interviews	3.10
3.6.5	Reference checking (background checks)	3.11
3.6.6	Manpower planning	3.12
3.6.7	Pre-employment testing	3.12
3.6.8	Harassment	3.13
3.6.9	Induction/orientation	3.13
3.6.10	Career planning and development	3.14
3.6.11	Communication	3.14
3.6.12	Treatment in the workplace	3.15
3.7	SUMMARY	3.17

CHAPTER 4: ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

4.1	INTRODUCTION	4.1
4.2	ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE	4.2
4.2.1	Reactive content theories	4.3
4.2.2	Proactive content theories	4.3
4.2.3	Reactive process theories	4.3
4.2.4	Proactive process theories	4.4
4.3	DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	4.5
4.4	PROCEDURAL JUSTICE	4.6
4.5	INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	4.9
4.6	EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOUR IN RESPONSE TO INJUSTICE	4.10
4.6.1	Naming	4.10
4.6.2	Blaming	4.11
4.7	ACTING ON INJUSTICE	4.12
4.7.1	Factors influencing a person's need to act on an injustice	4.13
4.7.2	Factors influencing choice of action	4.14

4.8	HANDLING EMPLOYEES' REACTIONS TO INJUSTICES	4.16
4.8.1	Eliminate gross injustices	4.16
4.8.2	Provide accessible and effective mechanisms for responses to injustices	4.16
4.8.3	Allow employee voice	4.16
4.9	MANAGING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRLY	4.18
4.9.1	Selection of decision makers	4.19
4.9.2	Setting ground rules (criteria) for evaluating rewards	4.19
4.9.3	Methods for collecting information	4.19
4.9.4	Procedures for defining the decision process	4.19
4.9.5	Safeguards against abuse of power	4.19
4.9.6	Procedures for appeals	4.20
4.9.7	The availability of change mechanisms	4.20
4.10	SUMMARY	4.20

CHAPTER 5: EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

5.1	INTRODUCTION	5.1
5.2	DEFINING COMMITMENT	5.2
5.3	A THREE-COMPONENT CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT - MODEL DEVELOPED BY MEYER AND ALLEN	5.4
5.3.1	Affective commitment	5.4
5.3.2	Continuance commitment	5.5
5.3.3	Normative commitment	5.5
5.4	CONCEPTUALIZATION OF COMMITMENT - MODEL DEVELOPED BY O'REILLY AND CHATMAN	5.5
5.5	COMMITMENT AND WORK BEHAVIOUR	5.7
5.6	ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR	5.8
5.7	PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT	5.10
5.7.1	Personal factors	5.11
5.7.2	Situational factors	5.11
5.7.3	Positional factors	5.13
5.8	ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE	5.14
5.9	ORGANISATIONAL ACTIONS THAT ENCOURAGE COMMITMENT	5.14
5.9.1	Drivers of employee commitment	5.15
5.10	THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND COMMITMENT	5.17
5.11	SUMMARY	5.18

CHAPTER 6: AN OVERVIEW OF THE BANKING SECTOR

6.1	INTRODUCTION	6.1
6.2	AN OVERVIEW OF THE CASE BANK	6.2
6.2.1	Learning and development	6.2
6.2.2	Diversity and employment equity	6.3
6.2.3	Change initiatives	6.5
6.3	SUMMARY	6.6

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH AND STATISTICAL METHODOLOGY

7.1	INTRODUCTION	7.1
7.2	THE RESEARCH METHOD	7.1
7.2.1	The questionnaire	7.2
7.3	THE LAYOUT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THIS STUDY	7.7
7.3.1	Type of questionnaire used	7.7
7.3.2	Layout of the questionnaire	7.7
7.3.3	Appearance of the questionnaire	7.8
7.4	PRETESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	7.8
7.5	DISTRIBUTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES	7.9
7.6	COMPUTERISATION AND CODING OF THE DATA	7.9
7.7	POPULATION AND SAMPLING	7.9
7.7.1	Gender	7.13
7.7.2	Ethnicity	7.13
7.7.3	Age	7.13
7.7.4	Marital status	7.14
7.7.5	Years in current position	7.14
7.7.6	Years of service at the bank	7.14
7.7.7	Staff category	7.15
7.7.8	Highest qualification	7.15
7.7.9	Gross monthly salary	7.16
7.7.10	Employment equity appointment	7.17
7.8	LEVELS OF MEASUREMENT	7.17
7.9	STATISTICAL METHODS	7.18
7.10	STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	7.19
7.11	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS	7.19
7.11.1	Factor analysis	7.19
7.11.2	Reliability analysis	7.22
7.11.3	Analysis of item distribution	7.22

7.12	COMPARATIVE STATISTICS	7.23
7.12.1	Students' t-test	7.23
7.12.2	One-way analysis of variance	7.23
7.12.3	N-way univariate analysis of variance	7.23
7.12.4	Multivariate analysis of variance	7.24
7.13	ASSOCIATIONAL STATISTICS	7.24
7.13.1	Correlation analysis	7.24
7.13.2	Multiple regression analysis	7.25
7.14	ANALYSIS OF COMPLIANCE WITH SPECIFIC ASSUMPTIONS	7.26
7.14.1	Sampling adequacy	7.26
7.14.2	Sphericity	7.27
7.14.3	Homogeneity of variance	7.27
7.14.4	Equality of covariance	7.27
7.15	STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE	7.27
7.15.1	Practical significance	7.28
7.16	SUMMARY	7.31

CHAPTER 8: RESULTS

8.1	INTRODUCTION	8.1
8.2	FACTOR ANALYSIS	8.1
8.2.1	Perceptions of the fairness of affirmative action (section B)	8.1
8.2.2	Treatment of AA employees in the workplace (section C)	8.5
8.2.3	Commitment (section D)	8.9
8.2.4	Factorial reliability	8.12
8.3	COMPARATIVE STATISTICS	8.22
8.3.1	Students' t-test of difference of means	8.22
8.3.2	One-way analysis of variance	8.31
8.3.3	Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA)	8.40
8.4	ASSOCIATIONAL STATISTICS	8.52
8.4.1	Correlation	8.52
8.4.2	Multiple regression	8.55
8.5	SUMMARY	8.60

CHAPTER 9: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1	INTRODUCTION	9.1
9.2	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	9.1
9.3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	9.2
9.4	RESEARCH FINDINGS	9.3
9.4.1	Major components of affirmative action fairness	9.3
9.4.2	Major components of the treatment of affirmative action employees	9.4
9.4.3	Major components of employee commitment	9.5
9.5	DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE VARIOUS EMPLOYEE GROUPS REGARDING PERCEPTIONS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS	9.5
9.6	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS AND THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS	9.7
9.6.1	How the treatment of affirmative action employees influence fairness perceptions	9.7
9.6.2	How perceptions about the fairness of affirmative action influence employees' commitment	9.7
9.7	LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	9.8
9.8	MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	9.9
9.9	CONCLUDING REMARKS	9.10

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A COVER LETTER

APPENDIX B QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX C RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AA FAIRNESS AND THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

BIBLIOGRAPHY

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
CHAPTER 2	
Figure 2.1 South African population according to ethnicity	2.3
Figure 2.2 Total employment profile according to ethnicity	2.4
CHAPTER 3	
Figure 3.1 Employment equity	3.3
Figure 3.2 Steps in the implementation of an affirmative action programme	3.8
CHAPTER 4	
Figure 4.1 Organisational justice	4.5
Figure 4.2 Behavioural responses to dissatisfaction	4.14
CHAPTER 5	
Figure 5.1 General model of workplace commitment	5.6
CHAPTER 6	
Figure 6.1 Workplace profile according to ethnic group	6.4
CHAPTER 7	
Figure 7.1 The research process	7.1
Figure 7.2 Respondents according to ethnic group	7.13
Figure 7.3 Respondents according to age	7.14
Figure 7.4 Respondents according to staff category	7.15
Figure 7.5 Respondents according to monthly salary	7.16
CHAPTER 8	
Figure 8.1 Scree plot - Factor analysis: affirmative action fairness	8.3
Figure 8.2 Scree plot - Factor analysis: treatment of AA employees in the workplace	8.7
Figure 8.3 Scree plot - Factor analysis: commitment	8.10
Figure 8.4 Mean, standard deviation and distribution of factors for organisational justice ...	8.19
Figure 8.5 Mean, standard deviation and distribution of factors for treatment of AA employees in the workplace	8.20
Figure 8.6 Mean, standard deviation and distribution of factors for commitment	8.21

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
CHAPTER 2	
Table 2.1	Legal and statutory regulation of the employment relationship 2.2
Table 2.2	Differences between affirmative action and employment equity 2.6
CHAPTER 3	
Table 3.1	Poor interviews 3.11
Table 3.2	Affirmative action principles to be agreed upon 3.14
Table 3.3	Sources of resistance to change 3.16
CHAPTER 4	
Table 4.1	Research questions related to organisational justice theories 4.3
Table 4.2	Attributes of effective voice systems 4.17
CHAPTER 5	
Table 5.1	Definitions of commitment 5.2
Table 5.2	Organisational commitment within multidimensional models 5.3
CHAPTER 6	
Table 6.1	Number and categories of employees trained during 2003 6.2
Table 6.2	Employee statistics 6.3
CHAPTER 7	
Table 7.1	The advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires 7.3
Table 7.2	Requirements for the design of a good questionnaire 7.3
Table 7.3	Leedy's requirements for a good questionnaire 7.4
Table 7.4	Guidelines on formulating good questions 7.5
Table 7.5	Layout of the questionnaire 7.7
Table 7.6	Population, sample and response rate of each group 7.10
Table 7.7	Determining the sample size 7.11
Table 7.8	Biographical data of respondents 7.12
Table 7.9	Educational qualifications 7.16
Table 7.10	Employment equity appointments 7.17

CHAPTER 8

Table 8.1	KMO and Bartlett's test: AA fairness	8.2
Table 8.2	Eigenvalues and total variance explained by the factors of affirmative action fairness	8.2
Table 8.3	Rotated factor matrix for affirmative action fairness	8.3
Table 8.4	KMO and Bartlett's test: treatment of AA employees	8.6
Table 8.5	Eigenvalues and total variance explained by the factors of treatment of AA employees in the workplace	8.6
Table 8.6	Rotated factor matrix for treatment of AA employees in the workplace	8.7
Table 8.7	KMO and Bartlett's test: commitment	8.9
Table 8.8	Eigenvalues and total variance explained by the factors of commitment	8.10
Table 8.9	Rotated factor matrix for commitment	8.11
Table 8.10	Reliability analysis - Factor B1 (interactional justice)	8.13
Table 8.11	Reliability analysis - Factor B2 (procedural justice: input)	8.13
Table 8.12	Reliability analysis - Factor B3 (procedural justice: criteria)	8.14
Table 8.13	Reliability analysis - Factor B4 (distributive justice)	8.14
Table 8.14	Reliability analysis - Factor C1 (task autonomy)	8.15
Table 8.15	Reliability analysis - Factor C2 (respect)	8.15
Table 8.16	Reliability analysis - Factor C3 (responsibility)	8.16
Table 8.17	Reliability analysis - Factor C4 (realistic expectations)	8.16
Table 8.18	Reliability analysis - Factor D1 (obedience)	8.17
Table 8.19	Reliability analysis - Factor D2 (job satisfaction)	8.17
Table 8.20	Reliability analysis - Factor D3 (participation)	8.18
Table 8.21	Reliability analysis - Factor D4 (loyalty)	8.18
Table 8.22	Students' t-test: Comparison of mean scores of gender groupings in respect of the behavioural domains	8.25
Table 8.23	Students' t-test: Comparison of mean scores of ethnic groupings in respect of the behavioural domains	8.26
Table 8.24	Students' t-test: Comparison of the mean scores of marital status groupings in respect of the behavioural domains	8.27
Table 8.25	Students' t-test: Comparison of the mean scores of number of years in current position groupings in respect of the behavioural domains	8.28
Table 8.26	Students' t-test: Comparison of the mean scores of years' service at the bank groupings in respect of the behavioural domains	8.29
Table 8.27	Students' t-test: Comparison of the mean scores of staff category groupings in respect of the behavioural domains	8.30
Table 8.28	Comparison of mean scores of the three education groups in respect of the behavioural domains	8.32

Table 8.29	Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of education in relation to loyalty	8.34
Table 8.30	Dunnett C's multiple comparison of education in relation to participation	8.34
Table 8.31	Comparison of the mean scores of the three salary groups in respect of the behavioural domains	8.35
Table 8.32	Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of salary in relation to distributive justice	8.37
Table 8.33	Dunnett C's multiple comparison of salary in relation to autonomy, respect and participation	8.37
Table 8.34	Comparison of the mean scores of the three EE appointment groups in respect of the behavioural domains	8.38
Table 8.35	Tukey's HSD multiple comparison of employment equity appointments in relation to distributive justice, responsibility and expectations	8.40
Table 8.36	Box's M Test of equality of covariance matrices in respect of gender and ethnic groups	8.41
Table 8.37	Box's M Test of equality of covariance matrices in respect of gender and staff groups	8.41
Table 8.38	Box's M Test of equality of covariance matrices in respect of gender, ethnic and staff groups	8.42
Table 8.39	Manova: Behavioural domains by gender and ethnicity	8.42
Table 8.40	Manova: Behavioural domains by ethnicity, age and salary	8.43
Table 8.41	Anova: Behavioural domains by ethnicity, age and salary	8.44
Table 8.42	Manova: Behavioural domains by gender and staff	8.46
Table 8.43	Manova: Behavioural domains by age, gender and staff	8.47
Table 8.44	Anova: Behavioural domains by age, gender and staff	8.47
Table 8.45	Manova: Behavioural domains by gender, ethnic and staff	8.49
Table 8.46	Manova: Behavioural domains by ethnicity, staff and age	8.51
Table 8.47	Anova: Behavioural domains by ethnicity, staff and age	8.51
Table 8.48	Correlations between justice and treatment in the workplace	8.53
Table 8.49	Correlations between justice and commitment	8.54
Table 8.50	Correlations between treatment of AA employees in the workplace and commitment	8.54
Table 8.51	Multiple regression of treatment of AA employees in the workplace with interactional justice perceptions	8.55
Table 8.52	Multiple regression of treatment of AA employees in the workplace with procedural justice (input) perceptions	8.56
Table 8.53	Multiple regression of treatment of AA employees in the workplace with procedural justice (criteria) perceptions	8.56
Table 8.54	Multiple regression of ethnicity and the treatment of AA employees in the workplace with distributive justice perceptions	8.57

Table 8.55	Multiple regression of justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace with obedience	8.58
Table 8.56	Multiple regression of justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace with satisfaction	8.58
Table 8.57	Multiple regression of staff category, justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace with participation	8.59
Table 8.58	Multiple regression of age, staff category, justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace with loyalty	8.59

SUMMARY

THE FAIRNESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: AN ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE PERSPECTIVE

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The purpose of this study was to identify the major components of affirmative action (AA) fairness and to develop a valid and reliable measuring instrument, which could be used to measure the perceptions of employees on AA fairness.

A literature study and an empirical study were conducted. The literature study focused on fairness principles, outlined AA practices and identified work behaviours related to commitment. On completion of the literature study, a questionnaire was developed to collect information on respondents' biographical details and their perceptions of the fairness of AA, the treatment of AA employees and employees' commitment.

Using SPSS, principal axis factor analysis was performed on the data, with a Varimax rotation, in order to uncover the different factors related to the three behavioural domains. Four factors for each of the behavioural domains with latent roots greater than unity (Kaiser's criteria) were extracted from the factor matrix of each domain. The factors postulating the different behavioural domains are as follows:

AA fairness: *interactional justice, procedural justice (input), procedural justice (criteria) and distributive justice*

Treatment of AA employees: *task autonomy, respect, responsibility and realistic expectations on the part of supervisors*

Employees' commitment: *obedience, participation, satisfaction and loyalty*

The influence and effect of the biographical variables on fairness perceptions were determined by

comparing the responses of various employee subsets with one another by means of univariate and multivariate analysis of variance. The results of the t-tests revealed that staff category, marital status and ethnicity have a statistically significant effect on employees' perceptions of the distributive justice of AA. Decisions such as granting AA employees token positions, paying unrealistically high salaries to AA managers and appointing less-qualified employees, play a key role when *managers*, *married* employees and *whites* form perceptions of the fairness of AA. Women consider procedural fairness, adhering to rules and regulations and loyalty to be of paramount importance.

The MANOVAs and associated ANOVAs indicated that ethnicity, staff category and age must be considered for their significant effect on perceptions of distributive justice, autonomy, respect and loyalty. Blacks, contrary to whites, believe that AA employees are not treated with respect and are not accorded autonomy. Older employees and clerical staff tend to be more loyal than their counterparts.

Multiple regression statistics were used to predict how the treatment of AA employees relates to perceptions of the fairness of AA. The results indicated that the more task autonomy and respect accorded to employees, the more likely they will perceive decisions about AA to be fair.

This study represents a vital step towards a better understanding of the dimensionality of AA fairness and should ultimately contribute to more effective management of AA in the workplace.

Chapter 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The first democratic and multi-ethnic election on 27 April 1994 in South Africa brought hope to thousands of South Africans. Through the government's affirmative action (AA) policy, workers were able to visualise a more prosperous future. Prior to the implementation of AA, people from previously disadvantaged groups, in an attempt to uplift themselves from poverty through higher education, were thwarted by discrimination, prejudice and institutional lag. Those seeking improved economic positions through employment were circumvented by a tradition of preferential treatment for whites. Despite being qualified on the basis of skill and competencies, Africans and other groups were forced to bargain in the labour market at a severe disadvantage. Caught in the web of prejudice and legal discrimination, they found that their ethnicity was reason enough for those in charge to deny them social and economic opportunities. When they did manage to secure job offers, they were assigned to menial positions that paid them lower salaries than those of their white counterparts. These injustices not only led to poverty, but also destroyed their spirit.

Since the general election in 1994, attempts to make South Africa a more just society have increased, and topics such as equality and social justice have frequently appeared at the top of all agendas. The government realised that legislation was necessary to guide organisations in promoting justice in the workplace, and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 108 of 1996 was therefore used as the primary source of any legislation pertaining to people's fundamental right to equality.

Some of the most important aims of the Constitution include rectifying injustices of the past and establishing a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights (Van Wyk, 2002). The necessity to redress injustices of the past becomes apparent when one considers the social and economic inequalities that still exist in South Africa, especially those generated by apartheid. Any attempts to redress inequalities, however, should be based on upholding the values of human dignity, equality, freedom and social justice in a united, nonracial and nonsexist society in which all may prosper. If it is not done in this way, discrimination and social and economic inequalities will continue to exist, and any attempts to create a just society in which all people can live together in peace and harmony will be doomed to failure.

In an effort to govern the promotion of social justice and eradicate inequalities in the workplace, the government realised that it had to intervene actively, not only to prevent further discrimination, but also to purposefully promote the employment and advancement of persons disadvantaged by previous policies.

1.2

Three Acts were promulgated, namely the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000 and the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act (Employment Equity Report, 2001). The underlying principle for the intervention of the state was that mere equality of opportunity would not be equitable, because many workers would commence with a handicap, and that true equality and equity would be achieved only through the implementation of strong measures against discrimination and the purposeful, planned placement and development of persons who were denied equal opportunities in the past. AA thus became the vehicle for democracy in the workplace (Innes, Kentridge & Perold, 1993).

According to Bendix (2001), AA refers to the purposeful and planned placement or development of competent or potentially competent persons in or to positions from which they were barred in the past, in an attempt to redress past disadvantages and render the workforce more representative of the population.

Most of the controversies and problems surrounding AA arise not from the principle as such but from the manner in which AA is implemented. It is effected incorrectly when organisations regard it as a political imperative with which they have to comply, and not as a business objective which includes having as effective and competent a workforce as possible. Consequently, persons are appointed in “AA positions” merely to window-dress or fill quotas, usually without due consideration of their suitability for the position or the possibility of support and development. Such arbitrary appointments leave other employees dissatisfied and are unfair to the appointees themselves, since they are placed either in meaningless positions or cannot handle their tasks, thus confirming the belief that AA appointees are “no good” (Bendix, 2001).

Another problem with AA is that the available pool of previously disadvantaged persons able to fulfil high level jobs is extremely small. The result is that the development of a small, highly sought-after group of candidates who are continually “poached” by one organisation from another. Thus only this élite group advances while the rest of the black African population remains where it was before. Employers should abandon the practice of looking for “readymade products” and instead develop persons for upward movement in the organisation. In such instances, AA should be closely linked to the development of employees’ skills, abilities and competencies (Thomas, 2002). Although the Employment Equity Act recognises the importance of human resources development, this Act alone cannot handle this task — hence the promulgation of the Skills Development Act. According to the Employment Equity Report (2001), a National Skills Development Strategy has been developed and national targets have been adopted for the beneficiaries of learning programmes:

- 85 percent black
- 54 percent women
- 4% percent people with disabilities

1.3

The most prevalent accusation directed at AA initiatives is that they constitute reverse discrimination. There is a strongly held belief among the general public that AA regulations compel employers to appoint underqualified people from designated groups at the expense of qualified white males - a result both unfair in concept and detrimental to the organisation's competitiveness. AA will become unfair only if previously disadvantaged people are appointed "at all costs" without granting other people the opportunity to compete. All candidates have to be afforded the opportunity to compete and to be assessed against predetermined criteria, but an additional weighting can be placed on AA considerations. This means that AA candidates are given a slight, but not unreasonable, advantage over the other candidates (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994).

All sorts of advice has been given on how to design and implement AA programmes effectively. Generally, effectiveness is defined as the proportion of employees from previously disadvantaged groups that are hired or promoted. However, focusing on numbers only is a limited view of effectiveness. The perceived fairness of AA practices should also be an key indicator of effectiveness. Social scientists have long recognised the importance of justice as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organisations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employ. One of the primary benefits of organisational justice conceptualisations is that they can be used to explain a wide variety of organisational behaviours. When practices are perceived to be unfair, they cause frustration, threaten employees' self- and social images, and, in some instances, even produce moral outrage (Greenberg, 1990). According to Robinson and Morrison (1995), other adverse effects of violation of employee perceptions of fairness include lowered trust in management and reduced organisation commitment. Hence, just as the injustices associated with selection systems (Gilliland, 1993), pay raise decisions (Folger & Konovsky, 1989), and other organisational phenomena foster job dissatisfaction and voluntary turnover, the perceived injustices resulting from AA are likely to translate into dislike for a job and prompt a subordinate to seek alternative employment. Violations of fairness can further result in legal battles, more negative attitudes towards the organisation, decreased job satisfaction, poorer self-esteem and lower probability that the AA programme will succeed.

1.2 PROBLEM FORMULATION

South African organisations will continuously be evaluated in terms of how well they meet employment equity targets. This will ensure that the changing nature of society is reflected in the composition of an organisation's workforce. As mentioned earlier, for a programme to be regarded as effective, it needs to comply with both legal and fairness requirements. Organisations will thus be under increasing pressure to make use of AA programmes that are technically and morally sound - and can be shown to be so. This is of particular significance if one considers the fact that employees will be more inclined to challenge procedures they regard as unfair (Cooper & Robertson, 1995).

1.4

In view of the widespread recognition of the importance of fairness as an issue in organisations, it stands to reason that theories of justice have been applied to the question of understanding behaviour in organisations. In an attempt to describe and explain the role of fairness as a consideration in the workplace, a topic known as organisational justice developed. Organisational justice refers to people's perceptions of fairness in organisational settings. People will make fairness judgments by taking into consideration the *actual decision* or the *procedures* used to reach a decision. Organisational justice can thus be divided into distributive and procedural fairness.

For many years, the study of fairness in organisations was dominated by a *distributive justice* orientation, an approach that focused on the fairness of outcomes/decisions. Folger and Cropanzano (1998) defined distributive justice as the perceived fairness of an outcome or decision. According to Leventhal (1976), decisions or outcomes are determined by utilising three major justice rules: the *equity rule*, the *needs rule*, and the *equality rule*. The equity rule focuses on contributions, the needs rule is applied for personal welfare reasons and the equality rule is used to preserve social harmony. From an AA point of view, the equality rule should thus be used to make decisions. As this distributive perspective gained dominance, an independent approach to the study of justice began to develop. Soon studies of reactions to the *procedures* used to reach decisions were conducted. Researchers became interested in expanding the distributive justice orientation to include consideration of the methods, mechanisms and processes used to determine outcomes - that is, adopting a *procedural justice* orientation. Further research focused on people's feelings about unfair treatment and revealed a third dimension of organisational justice - *interactional justice* - people's sensitivity to the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organisational procedures (Greenberg, 1996). Studies cited by Folger and Cropanzano (1998) showed that conflict, low performance, and poor attitudes tend to characterise insensitively treated individuals.

Given that the distinction between distributive, procedural and interactional justice has now been empirically established, the stage is set for researchers to consider how these varieties of justice relate to various organisational variables such as turnover, commitment, trust and supervisor/subordinate relationships. According to Folger and Cropanzano (1998), injustice can bring about negative consequences such as reduced job performance (Greenberg, 1988; Pfeffer & Langton, 1993), less cooperation with coworkers (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993), reduced quality of work (Cowherd & Levine, 1992), stress (Zohar, 1995), and theft (Greenberg, 1990). By thus understanding how perceptions of organisational justice are related to these variables, organisations should attempt to manage employees' perceptions of fairness and influence their performance.

In South Africa, no other issue has raised so many concerns about justice than AA. For many years AA has been a battleground for competing values, especially competing concepts of distributive justice. In the USA, after 20 or more years of AA, the government has finally admitted that the process has failed. Why? Because AA programmes were not implemented fairly; neither were employees' perceptions of the

fairness of the AA programmes managed. As soon as employees regard something as unfair, they tend to reject it, and any further interventions will be doomed to failure. If South Africa wishes to make a success of AA, organisations should understand how perceptions of AA influence employees' attitudes and behaviour and consequently impact on the success of the organisation. Although significant progress has been made in restructuring and transforming South African society and its institutions, inequalities and unfair discrimination remain deeply embedded in social structures, practices and attitudes, undermining the good intentions of the country's constitutional democracy (Van Wyk, 2002). A special attempt should thus be made to eliminate discrimination and manage employees' resistance to change.

According to Folger and Skarlicki (1999), employees' negative feelings about or resistance to change can be overcome by applying fairness principles. Fairness principles provide an opportunity to mitigate some of the adverse organisational consequences of individuals' resentment-based resistance to change. However, an organisation's obligation to employees entails more than fair treatment with respect to the salaries and benefits given in exchange for labour (distributive justice), and more than fair treatment regarding the implementation of policies and procedures that determine those levels of compensation (procedural justice). In addition, organisations have a moral obligation to treat an employee with sufficient dignity as a person (interactional justice). Because organisations in globally competitive markets are less able to offer traditional rewards (lifelong employment, promotions, long-term compensation), one of the only means they have to induce employees to stay is an environment that communicates that it values them. If this is so, interactional justice plays a major role in influencing the attitudes and behaviours employees require for successful performance, even under conditions of adversity and loss, which is often the case with AA.

The fairness of AA from an organisational justice perspective has not yet been researched in South Africa and little is known about how perceptions of AA fairness affect employees' behaviour and consequently the success of organisations. One of the challenges facing organisations is to find a way to implement AA programmes to gain a competitive advantage without creating negative employee attitudes. This study will investigate in particular how the perceived fairness of AA influences employees' commitment. Unless employees perceive AA initiatives as fair, they will not commit themselves to the common purpose of maximising their own and one another's success and ultimately accomplish something beyond their individual achievements.

Several studies on organisational justice have examined the fairness of various organisational practices such as performance appraisals (Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996), promotion decisions (Lemons & Jones, 2001), and pay raise decisions (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). No evidence could however be found that the fairness of AA has been studied nor has the influence of fairness perceptions of AA on employees' commitment been researched.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

With due consideration of the above-mentioned problems, the aim of this study is to answer the following research questions:

- (1) What constitutes AA fairness?
- (2) How do the various employee groups (ethnicity, gender, staff category, income, etc) differ with regard to the fairness of AA?
- (3) How does the treatment of AA employees influence their perceptions of the fairness of AA?
- (4) How do perceptions of the fairness of AA and the treatment of AA employees influence employees' commitment?

A comprehensive literature study will be performed to answer the research questions and to reach the research objectives. The purpose of the literature study is to identify fairness principles, outline AA practices that could influence employees' fairness perceptions and identify work behaviours most commonly performed by committed employees. On completion of the literature study, a measuring instrument, namely a questionnaire, will be developed. The organisational justice principles as discussed in the literature study, will be used as a basis to create an item pool measuring employees perceptions regarding the fairness/unfairness of AA. Existing questionnaires on justice will also be used as a starting point in developing the questionnaire which will measure employees' perceptions regarding the fairness of AA and how it impacts on their commitment.

By keeping the above research questions in mind, the *primary objective* of the research is to develop a valid and reliable measuring instrument to identify the major components of AA fairness. The *secondary objectives* of this study are to determine:

- (1) the relationship between employee demographic characteristics (ethnicity, age, gender, staff category etc) and perceptions of AA fairness, treatment of AA employees and employee commitment.
- (2) the relationship between the treatment of AA employees and employees' perceptions with regard to the fairness of AA
- (3) the relationship between employees' commitment and perceptions about the fairness of AA and the treatment of AA employees

1.4 PLAN OF THE RESEARCH

This research report comprises nine chapters.



1.7

Chapter 1 addresses issues such as the formulation of the problem and the purpose and plan of the research study.

Chapter 2 provides a theoretical overview of AA. The concepts “AA” and “employment equity” are clarified and by means of a schematic representation, the legislative framework for the regulation of the employment relationship is provided. The challenges facing South Africa are highlighted. The progress and pitfalls of AA and the contentious issues of quotas and targets, and organisations’ commitment to social responsibility and AA are briefly discussed. AA issues such as preferential treatment, the complexity of confronting discrimination, the setting of standards and tokenism are discussed with a view to indicating how they relate to perceptions of fairness.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the South African legislation pertaining to the prevention of unfair discrimination and promotion of equality in the workplace. Since it is not the purpose of this study to investigate the management of AA as such, chapter 3 focuses on the implications of AA for HR policies, procedures and practices. Discriminatory practices and guidelines on the implementation of AA programmes are outlined.

Chapter 4 provides a historical overview of the meaning, scope and nature of organisational justice. The distributive, procedural and social determinants of justice are discussed with a view to explaining how employees determine the fairness of events. A special attempt is made to extend theories from the organisational justice literature to the AA domain in an attempt to promote the understanding of AA fairness. In particular, the activities in organisations that tend to trigger justice concerns, and the way in which employees respond to injustices are outlined.

Chapter 5 deals with the various aspects of commitment and the meaning of employee commitment in an attempt to explain the possible effect of perceptions of AA fairness on employees’ commitment. As mentioned previously, one of the primary benefits of organisational justice conceptualisations is that they can be used to explain a wide variety of organisational behaviours. A study of the perceived fairness of AA will thus serve no purpose unless it can be used to determine how it influences employees’ commitment. This study will specifically investigate the way in which employees’ commitment is influenced when they perceive injustice in AA practices.

Chapter 6 provides an overview of the case bank. Since banks have experienced dramatic changes such as deregulation over the past years, they are faced with competitive operating environments. This has compelled banks to adopt a customer services orientation. Competent and committed employees are needed to render good customer service. The bank used in this study is a leading bank in the implementation of AA initiatives, and this chapter therefore provides an overview of the bank’s workforce profile, industrial relations, employment equity and change initiatives.

Chapter 7 deals with the empirical research. It explains the research methodology and includes issues such as the design and administration of the questionnaire, population and sampling, and the collection of data. The representativity of the response rate and the statistical research methodology used are also discussed.

Chapter 8 focuses on the interpretation and discussion of the research results. The results of factor analysis, analysis of item bias, reliability, analysis of variance, multiple analysis of variance, correlation and multiple regression analysis are discussed.

Chapter 9 contains the summary and recommendations of the study. Recommendations for influencing employees' perceptions about the fairness of AA will be provided to ensure the commitment of employees and the achievement of organisational goals. The focus in the discussion of the results will be on answering the research questions. Only the statistical significant findings with practical implications will be discussed and implications for management will be provided. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research will also be outlined.

Chapter 2

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

When the term "affirmative action" or "black advancement", is used in South Africa, it evokes numerous reactions from various quarters. Fears are expressed such as the lowering of standards, new kinds of discrimination, and the general misconception that able whites will have to make way for less able blacks. These, in turn (it is feared), will lead to the dwindling of the bottom line, the loss of work ethic, and the ultimate decline of the economy. Although AA is a frightening concept and resembles reverse discrimination for some people, for others, it has positive connotations.

The term "affirmative action" (AA) is used in many different ways and it is not readily apparent what a person means when employing the term. It may indeed be that the context in which and the words chosen to describe whatever the speaker may mean, tell us more about his or her personal view than the actual meaning of the term. To add to the confusion, many alternative terms are used such as "black advancement", "transformation", or "restructuring".

In this chapter the meaning of AA, as intended by legislation, will be briefly discussed. An overview of the origin and development of AA will be provided and the main objectives thereof explained. South Africa faces many challenges in the successful implementation of AA — hence the need to outline the key issues and obstacles facing organisations. In order to justify AA and clarify the need for it, the discussion will indicate how principles of equality and justice are related to the fairness of AA programmes.

2.2 THE ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The USA is generally regarded as the country of origin of AA. The concept of AA was first used in the context of race discrimination and became part of legislation in 1961. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 followed and, as amended in the following year, provided that discrimination on the basis of race, sex, colour, religion or national origin was illegal (Viljoen, 1997).

In South Africa, AA was a response to identified inadequacies in antidiscrimination legislation. The question of discrimination was originally addressed in the definition of an Unfair Labour Practice and later discussed in greater detail with the promulgation of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 which has both an antidiscrimination leg and an AA leg. Chapter 3 of the Employment Equity Act deals with AA. It obliges every designated employer to put measures in place to ensure that suitably qualified persons from designated groups are afforded equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all

occupational categories and levels of the workforce. These measures include the elimination of barriers, the furthering of diversity, making reasonable accommodation for persons from designated groups, training and the establishment of numerical targets, but do not include the establishment of an absolute barrier to the prospective or continued employment of persons who are not from designated groups. The designated groups include the disabled, women and blacks, with “blacks” being used as a generic term to include all coloureds, Asians and Africans (Bendix, 2001).

Table 2.1 provides a schematic representation of the legal and statutory regulation of the employment relationship. As indicated in the table, various Acts regulate the different issues of the employment relationship since the government wishes to regulate labour issues in an integrated and holistic manner.

TABLE 2.1
LEGAL AND STATUTORY REGULATION OF THE EMPLOYMENT RELATIONSHIP

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT	EMPLOYEE WELFARE	EMPLOYMENT RELATIONSHIP	DISCRIMINATION/ AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	TRAINING & DEVELOPMENT
Common law contract	Occupational Health and Safety Act	Labour Relations Act	Employment Equity Act	Skills Development Act
Basic Conditions of Employment Act	Unemployment Insurance Act		Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act	Skills Development Levies Act
	Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act		Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act	South African Qualification Authority (SAQA)
				National Qualifications Framework (NQF)

Source: Adapted from Bendix (2001)

Since the early 1990s, employers have attempted through programmes of AA to include people from historically disadvantaged backgrounds in management structures. While some progress has been made in this area, management structures are still the domain of white males. According to reports submitted to the Department of Labour, blacks comprise 13 percent of senior management positions in South African companies, of which 1,2 percent comprise black women (Employment Equity Report, 2001). An analysis of the workforce profile according to sector indicates that Blacks are best represented in the government

sector (86%) and least represented in the academic sector (47%). According to the Department of Labour, various forms of discrimination, such as the following, still occur in the South African labour market:

- Whites earn a 104 percent wage premium over blacks.
- Men earn wages 43 percent higher than similarly qualified women.
- Black women in the lower educational categories earn a 10 percent lower salary than their white male counterparts.

From the above statistics it is clear that South Africa still has a long way to go before it can honestly state that it has redressed the legacies of apartheid in the South African workplace.

2.3 DEFINING CONCEPTS

Organisations in South Africa are increasingly under legislative pressure to overcome past discrimination in the workplace by providing more employment opportunities for previously disadvantaged group members, such as blacks, women and minorities. Diversifying the workforce is a key organisational goal as governments continue to mandate equity in the workplace to ensure that the workforce is representative of the population. According to the population estimates released for 2002 by the Bureau of Market Research at Unisa, the total population of South Africa increased by an average 657 532 annually between 1996 and 2002. Population censuses worldwide are prone to undercount, and the 1996 population census in South Africa was no exception. Figure 2.1 provides a schematic representation of the composition of South Africa's population according to ethnicity, while figure 2.2 illustrates South Africa's total employment profile according to ethnicity. It is clear from the latter figure that South African organisations still have a long way to go to ensure that the workforce is representative of the population. For example, the employment of blacks needs to increase by 23 percent in order to be representative of the population.

FIGURE 2.1
SOUTH AFRICAN POPULATION ACCORDING TO ETHNICITY

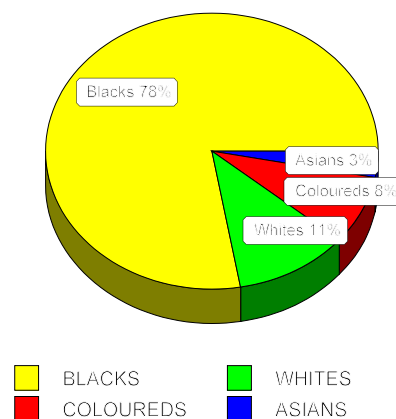
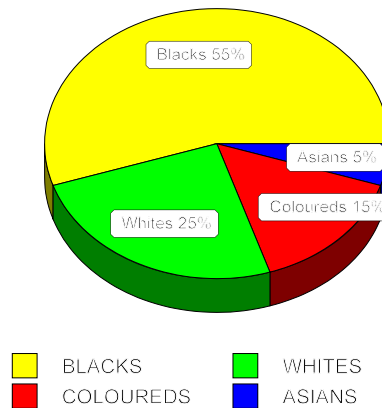


FIGURE 2.2
TOTAL EMPLOYMENT PROFILE ACCORDING TO ETHNICITY



Sources: Bureau of Market Research: Population estimates (2002)
Employment Equity Report (2001)

Many organisations have adopted AA programmes to achieve a diversified workforce. But what exactly are AA and employment equity? In his address to the ANC conference on AA in October 1991, Nelson Mandela explained AA as follows (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994:xix):

The primary aims of affirmative action must be to redress the imbalances created by apartheid ... We are not ... asking for hand-outs for anyone. Nor are we saying that just as a white skin was a passport to privilege in the past, so a black skin should be the basis of privilege in the future. Nor ... is it our aim to do away with qualifications. What we are against is not the upholding of standards as such but the sustaining of barriers to the attainment of standards; the special measures that we envisage to overcome the legacy of past discrimination are not intended to ensure the advancement of unqualified persons, but to see to it that those who have been denied access to qualifications in the past can become qualified now, and that those who have been qualified all along but overlooked because of past discrimination, are at last given their due ... The first point to be made is that affirmative action must be rooted in principles of justice and equity.

Leck, Saunders and Charbonneau (1996), state that the purpose of an AA programme is to create a workforce that reflects the organisation's external labour market, to increase opportunities for people of designated groups and to accommodate diversity in the workplace.

According to a policy statement of the Black Management Forum, as quoted by Viljoen (1997), AA is a planned and positive process and strategy aimed at transforming socioeconomic environments which have

excluded individuals from disadvantaged groups to enable them to gain access to opportunities, including opportunities for development, based on their suitability.

Human (1996) defines AA as the process of creating employment equity. Affirmative action, moreover, is not merely a process of recruiting greater numbers of historically disadvantaged employees: it is part and parcel of a holistic system of human resource management and development and impacts on all of the processes, policies and procedures relating to the selection, recruitment, induction, development, promotion and severance of people.

Bendix (2001:435) provides a detailed definition of AA. According to her, the term "affirmative action" refers to "the *purposeful and planned placement or development of competent or potentially competent persons in or to positions from which they were debarred in the past, in an attempt to redress past disadvantages and to render the workforce more representative of the population.*" The keywords can be summarised as follows:

- *Purposeful.* The purpose of AA should be, firstly, to create a diverse workforce and, secondly, to redress past disadvantages.
- *Planned placement.* The appointment of people should be according to a workforce diversity plan.
- *Development.* Affirmative action should not be a once-off action, but organisations should create a working environment conducive to learning and growth.
- *Competent or potentially competent.* Owing to the inequalities of the past, many people were denied equal opportunities to acquire competencies or formal qualifications. Organisations should therefore consider the potential of people to acquire the necessary competencies within a reasonable time when they make appointments. Nevertheless, organisations are not expected to appoint incompetent people merely for the sake of AA.
- *Positions.* Organisations are required to appoint AA employees to all positions, especially senior positions from which they were excluded in the past.

This brings us to the question: "How is AA related to employment equity?" Wingrove (1993) defines employment equity as the point reached where AA has eliminated all the disparities between diverse employees and all employees have been brought to a level at which they can compete equally and are afforded an equal opportunity to do so. Wright (1994) describes the relationship between employment equity and AA as the assumption that one lives in a fair world, a world in which the playing field is not

slanted. In contrast, when speaking of AA, the assumption is that decades or centuries of discrimination have created a slanted playing field and that measures need to be taken to level this playing field.

According to Luhabe (1993), employment equity provides equal access for all people to participate in the empowerment process and advance on the basis of merit, ability and potential. Furthermore, it assumes that people come from a homogeneous background and can therefore compete on an equal basis.

The relationship between AA and employment equity can thus be summarised as follows: Affirmative action forms part of an employment equity programme and, according to Bendix (2001), is the last step towards achieving true employment equity. Employment equity will exist when all discrimination barriers and past imbalances have been eliminated and everyone is able to compete on an equal footing. Hence the need to make use of fair discriminatory interventions (affirmative action) to achieve employment equity would no longer exist. Table 2.2 outlines the main elements which differentiate affirmative action and employment equity from each other.

TABLE 2.2
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND EMPLOYMENT EQUITY

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	EMPLOYMENT EQUITY
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Preferential treatment when appointing or promoting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Merit as a criterion when appointing or promoting
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Preferential treatment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Makes no distinction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Ensures access into an organisation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Promotes equal access to an organisation
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Has a limited lifespan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Does not have a limited lifespan since it forms part of an organisation's culture
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refers to equality and needs when making decisions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refers to equity when making decisions

Source: Adapted from Viljoen (1997)

It should be clear that the intent of AA programmes is not to further the interests of a particular group but to eliminate discrimination. Consequently an AA programme is seen as a temporary intervention designed to achieve equal employment without lowering standards and without unfairly hindering the career aspirations or expectations of current organisation members who are competent in their jobs.

Although people have different interpretations of affirmative action, a number of common objectives have been identified.

2.4 OBJECTIVES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

South Africa is a land of contrast: First World prosperity rubbing shoulders with Third World poverty; picturesque landscapes blemished by overcrowded squatter camps; peace and violence; immense wealth in natural resources contrasting with impoverishment in terms of the development and utilisation of the potential of people. All of this is characteristic of a society in the throes of change, and can be resolved through the process of AA. Through AA programmes, inequalities between individuals and groups are bridged and a win situation develops for individuals, organisations and the country as a whole (Hicks-Clarke & Iles, 2000).

The mission statements of South African organisations often refer to employment equity and statements such as “*equal employment employer*” and “*our human resources are our greatest asset*” are common. However, one of the most difficult challenges facing any person in a leadership position is the ability to translate intention into action. Before an organisation can take any action to implement AA, it has to know what it wishes to achieve and therefore clear objectives need to be set. In South Africa, the Black Management Forum plays a prominent role in the implementation of AA and it regards the following as the primary objectives of AA:

2.4.1 Black Management Forum’s viewpoints

According to the Black Management Forum, as quoted by Viljoen (1997), AA should:

- reverse the prevailing situation of disadvantage of the majority
- represent an affirmation of all the human rights which were historically violated by institutionalised discrimination
- create opportunities for education, training and development in the workplace which should result in the demonstrable economic empowerment of those who will benefit from them
- bring about complete transformation of the racist and sexist attitudes and practices that have been at the core of organisations in the past — it must help to develop a new organisational ethos and an innovative set of policies and procedures for the empowerment of all staff
- reach certain targets in order to reflect the demographic profile of the South African population at a given time

It is interesting to note that although the Black Management Forum regards the organisation as the primary beneficiary of AA, this is not reflected as such in its list of objectives. According to the objectives listed above, it is the AA candidate who mainly benefits from AA. However, even though they may be indirect, the benefits of AA do also help the organisation.

2.4.2 Benefits of affirmative action

According to Charlton and Van Niekerk (1994), AA will benefit the beneficiaries of AA in the following ways:

- economic empowerment (improved education and the creation of employment opportunities)
- access to resources (transport and social welfare)
- the meeting of basic needs (security, food and housing)
- political rights
- psychological growth (improving quality of life, restoring human dignity, boosting confidence and promoting a sense of coresponsibility for the country's prosperity)

It cannot be denied that, in the past, the vast majority of the population of South Africa was denied access to all resources - economic, political, social and psychological. Consequently, proactive change which constructively redresses the inhumanity of the past in all these spheres of human activity is needed. However, while this change has a moral perspective, it has also become an economic necessity. The critical ingredient for success is human competence. The better people are equipped to unleash their potential and the people around them, the sooner everybody will be able to contribute to the success of organisations and the country as a whole. Affirmative action, however, serves no purpose if it is based on handouts such as money, material resources and glamorous jobs instead of empowerment, the restoration of human dignity and the development and utilisation of people's skills and abilities. To ignore the human spirit as part of AA is economic suicide. Indeed, action without the correct attitude will simply result in short-term change, without long-term growth.

Charlton and Van Niekerk (1994:xxiv) summarise the importance of implementing AA from a psychological point of view as follows:

What we are saying is that the solution to South Africa's problems is as much psychological and attitudinal as it is economic, that the growth of the economy and effectiveness of redistribution is dependent on long-term affirming action and not short-term affirmative action.

Put differently: if organisations appoint people from disadvantaged groups merely for the sake of meeting employment equity targets without capitalising on the value they bring to the organisation, such appointments could, in the long term, lead to increased labour costs, lower profits, retrenchments or even the closure of businesses.

2.5 OBSTACLES TO AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SUCCESS

Affirmative action strategies are challenged by the fact that these initiatives occur against the background of South Africa's long history of entrenched racism. Changing the way things are done and re-examining concepts internalised over many years can be a difficult process, strongly resistant to change.

People hold strong views on AA: at the one extreme is a positive view which questions the right white people had to exclude blacks and women from leadership positions, power and opportunities in the past. This view stresses the need to remove obstacles to advancement as well as the need for extra support and resources for people traditionally excluded.

The negative arguments are equally persuasive. Critics of AA ask how anyone who believes in equality can agree to a policy of special treatment for specific categories of people (reverse discrimination). Another position questions the economic sense of AA, claiming that it undermines the basic principles of free enterprise which state that rewards follow from merit and that decisions should be made by applying the equity rule.

In order to meet the arguments of AA critics, exponents of AA need to show how the methods they choose could ultimately increase excellence - as opposed to those forms of AA which look good but are destructive and wasteful in the long run. Similarly, those who are concerned with productivity and organisational effectiveness should be convinced that social equality brings out the best, and most sustainable development of a society.

One of the main obstacles in the successful implementation of AA programmes is the underlying sincerity or fundamental commitment to meaningful change through AA. Accusations of window-dressing are being flung around in organisations that provide token positions as part of cosmetic change and offer new appointees shiny offices and impressive titles without concomitant responsibility and accountability. The implementation of AA at all costs to achieve employment equity may cause a loss in efficiency and reduce the advantages of AA — hence employers are not expected to appoint or promote people who do not possess the required qualifications or abilities. However, they are expected to implement programmes which develop employees' potential and enable them to look for better opportunities. At present, most AA policies are deemed to be based on a trail by error basis (Van Jaarsveld, 2000).

According to the Employment Equity Report (2001) issued by the Department of Labour, organisations reported the following as barriers to employment equity:

- recruitment and selection processes
- training and development
- succession and experience planning

- performance and evaluation systems
- job classification and grading

2.5.1 Implementation problems

Van Jaarsveld (2000) contends that the problems with AA do arise not from the principle as such but from the manner in which it is implemented. AA is implemented incorrectly when an organisation views employment equity as a political imperative that has to be complied with, and not as a business objective - to have as effective and competent a workforce as possible. In such instances, AA leads to the following:

- People are appointed in AA positions to fill quotas or to window-dress without taking into account their ability or suitability for the position.
- Reverse discrimination occurs.
- An elite group of AA candidates is advanced while the rest of the population stays where they are.
- The “revolving door” syndrome develops. Organisations often appoint a few black faces at the right levels in the organisation to make the organisation appear politically correct. The AA appointees, on the other hand, enter the organisation with high expectations and the need to develop and achieve success. Unfortunately nothing is done about the organisation’s culture and related systems and the needs of AA appointees are therefore overlooked. This makes the appointees feel excluded, frustrated and disillusioned and ultimately compels them to seek employment elsewhere. This situation reinforces management’s belief that blacks and women do not have the ability to cope with the demands of the corporate world and that AA initiatives have no benefit to offer organisations. When this happens, the organisation does nothing further to address any inequalities until another crisis in the form of pressure from trade unions or government compels it to make AA appointments — and the whole cycle starts again.

2.5.2 Strategic concerns

According to Thomas (2002), the legislation of AA in South Africa has led to the following strategic concerns:

- The overregulation of the labour market results in a decrease in overseas investments and entrepreneurial initiatives.
- Heavy administrative costs relating to compliance with the legislation impact on organisational growth.
- The shortage of skills in some sectors makes black skills more expensive and unfordable to smaller organisations, thus providing disincentives for investment and expansion.
- The shifting of employees from some employers to others hinders the creation of new jobs for new entrants to the labour market.
- The African National Congress sees the future of employment equity in special investments in rural infrastructures such as roads, schools and water. The government’s Redistribution and

2.11

Development Programme should address these issues, and employment equity in this context should rather be used with reference to the employment needed on rural construction sites (Van Jaarsveld, 2000).

In addition to the aforementioned problems, the South African workplace is characterised by adversarial relationships, a lack of trust and communication between individuals and groups, poor teamwork, the apparent absence of employee commitment to and motivation to achieve organisational goals, high staff turnover (especially amongst those from designated groups), industrial conflict and low levels of productivity, profitability, quality and customer service (Thomas, 2002). A recent South African study has highlighted that, while black managers may leave organisations for higher salaries and related perks, issues relating to not fitting into historically established corporate cultures also seem to impact on what has become derogatorily known as “job hopping” (Thomas, 2000).

2.5.3 Organisational concerns

Thomas (2002:237-239) regards the following as problems at organisational level with the introduction of AA strategies in South Africa:

- In an attempt to appear acceptable in terms of race and gender, token appointments of people lacking the necessary skills have been made. This has led to a decline in service levels and people being given meaningless jobs.
- There is a prevalence of negative expectations about candidates from designated groups, heightened scrutiny of them, fears and resentments on the part of those who stand to lose promotional opportunities and the resultant sabotage of the process, by, say, the withholding of information and the exclusion of members of designated groups from formal and informal networks and systems that foster job progress.
- The increase in indirect and opportunity costs as a result of, say, poor hiring decisions (to achieve employee targets), and the declining morale of white employees.
- The heightening of race classification and “reverse discrimination” will lead to a decrease in employee loyalty and the lack of retention of skilled employees.
- People from designated groups who still require training and development will have unrealistic short-term expectations and may expect secured positions and adopt a culture of entitlement.
- Employment equity measures have not been regarded as strategic business issues and accordingly, there has been a lack of management commitment to this process.
- No business imperative has been identified by management with regard to the competitive advantage that a diverse workforce can afford.
- Performance management as a means of training and developing people from designated groups into fully productive employees, has been poor.

Needless to say, the incorrect implementation of AA programmes can be extremely costly. The highest cost results from not fully utilising all employees in organisations.

2.5.4 The costs of affirmative action

Cox (1993) and Morrison (1992) have noted the economic costs of not fully utilising all employees in organisations, as evidenced by absenteeism, employee turnover, poor morale, underperformance and poor customer service. According to Charlton and Van Niekerk (1994), costs incurred in poor implementation of AA programmes include the following:

- high recruitment costs due to the high turnover of AA candidates
- high salaries paid in order to prevent AA candidates from being head-hunted by other organisations
- indirect costs associated with the dissatisfaction of the current workforce with AA programmes
- legal costs resulting from the need to terminate employment contracts of AA candidates who cannot cope with the demands of the position
- additional compensation paid for overtime and contract work due to AA employees not being developed or optimally utilised

2.5.5 Implementation issues

In order to capitalise on the benefits offered by an AA programme, the following aspects of implementation warrant ongoing attention:

- The long-term successful redistribution of resources relies on *economic growth* which, in turn, is dependent upon AA in order to develop and utilise a country's human resources and to ensure *political stability* (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994). The uncompetitive nature of South Africa, its low growth rate and high level of unemployment are all factors that mitigate against the effective implementation of AA. The regular strike actions evident in South Africa have also contributed to a lack of economic growth and high crime rates. In an organisational context, the financial position of the organisation plays an equally vital role in the success of an AA plan. From a financial point of view, organisations cannot afford to appoint incompetent people for window-dressing purposes. Not only will this affect the productivity of the organisation negatively, but will also contribute to unnecessarily high labour costs.
- To a certain extent, South Africa appears to have learned that a *multiplicity of legislation* dealing with employment equity is confusing and unlikely to be adhered to, because of the gaps and loopholes that tend to exist when separate Acts govern different beneficiaries or areas of practice. In an organisational context the AA policy should consist of well-defined goals and be simple to understand.

- The South African government did apparently realise the importance of engaging in an *active and consultative process* with organised business and labour in formulating legislation and policy governing such legislation. While consensus has not prevailed in all aspects of the legislation, this consultative process did achieve greater support for the implementation of the legislation than would otherwise have occurred. In an organisational context attempts are made to involve the representatives of all interested parties in the implementation of an employment equity plan.
- A cause for concern has arisen in South Africa where jobs are subtly reserved, in some instances, by African managers for “friends in the struggle against apartheid” and where business has capitalised upon the recruitment of blacks who were trained abroad during the apartheid era. It is common practice in South African organisations to recruit blacks into senior positions in order to secure government or parastatal contracts. Structures need to be set up that will ensure that AA does not simply benefit an elite group or result in the practice of *tokenism*. Organisations have to ensure that policies and structures are in place to prevent the occurrence of tokenism and favouritism.
- *Numerical target setting* is essential because it is the single best predictor of the subsequent employment of members from designated groups. The South African Department of Labour has legislated that negotiated targets between management and employees are set between one and five years. With regard to numerical target setting, the employment equity plan has to achieve the equitable representation of suitably qualified persons from designated groups within each occupational category and level in the work force.
- Studies have shown that AA must necessarily be embarked upon as a *holistic process*. There must be a focus beyond numbers to issues relating to training and development, mentoring and coaching. One of the challenges facing South African organisations is the retention of AA candidates. In order to retain their services, organisations should make special provision for career advancement, accelerated training and development, flexible compensation structures and sound labour relations. With regard to training and development, the aim of the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 and Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999 is to coordinate industrial training in a more structured and purposeful manner.
- It is evident that the success of AA depends on the *commitment of top management*. While legislation can provide a foundation to prevent the occurrence of overt discrimination, the law, per se, without enforced compliance, is not sufficient to remove discrimination. However, compliance is one thing; actual effective utilisation of those appointed through AA strategies is quite another. It is surprising how few committed efforts to managing diversity and AA have been made. Many organisations pay lip-service to the need for employment equity and managing diversity, yet few appear to have incorporated these kinds of objectives into either their strategic planning process or reward systems (Human, 1996).

2.5.6 Critical success factors

According to Human (1996), the implementation of AA will be successful if the following critical success factors are in place:

2.5.6.1 Employee development as a strategic issue

Employee development as a strategic issue refers to the extent to which people development and particularly people from designated groups are regarded as key strategic issues for the organisation. In this regard, AA should be seen as increasing the pool of talent available for development. Development must not be viewed simply in terms of providing education and training for the disadvantaged en masse. Managers should be trained in people management skills, identifying training and development needs and managing employees' careers. As such managers will be evaluated and rewarded in terms of their ability to develop subordinates. The development of employees, however, is not only management's responsibility, but employees should realise that they are also responsible for their own development.

2.5.6.2 Staffing

This refers to the way in which people are matched to jobs. It involves a critical analysis of current selection and recruitment procedures, criteria for entry into jobs, selection instruments and organisational culture. Such an analysis should lead to attempts to overcome unfairness and obstacles, to remove glass ceilings and to eradicate both tokenism and resistance.

2.5.6.3 The role of organisational culture in the development of people

Organisational culture refers to the importance attached to the development of people and the norms, values and beliefs that reinforce or discourage people development in general and the advancement of the historically disadvantaged in particular. According to Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), an organisational culture that supports people development is characterised by the following:

- positive expectations of individuals and their competence
- open, honest and constructive feedback on performance
- evaluation of performance based on results achieved in terms of short- and long-term objectives

2.5.6.4 The role of the human resource function

The role of the human resource function is to support line management in the appointment and retention of employees. In order to provide effective support, an audit of the organisation in terms of workforce composition, policies and procedures and the perceptions of all levels of employees needs to be conducted regularly. The development of a workforce profile is crucial before any appointment, promotion or development decisions can be made.

2.5.6.5 Management commitment and support

Organisations should develop strategies for dealing with AA and diversity issues. These strategies should be developed in consultation with trade unions and nonunionised employees. A committee composed of

employer, employee and trade union representatives should continuously monitor, evaluate and refine the AA strategy. In order to gain support for AA interventions, management need to communicate their AA policies clearly and honestly indicating how diversity factors are factored into staffing and employee development decisions.

South African organisations are compelled to comply with the provisions of the Employment Equity Act. According to Thomas (2002), the three key issues on which organisations should focus in its attempt to comply with Employment Equity targets are: (1) sound monitoring of progress towards employment equity; (2) proactive measures to ensure that the majority of previously disadvantaged groups benefit from the legislation, and (3) the introduction of holistic human resource practices that complement target setting.

2.6 JUSTIFICATION FOR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Justifying AA without reference to justice and equality is impossible. As mentioned earlier, justice consists of distributive and procedural components. *Distributive justice* refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes or allocations that an individual receives. In an organisational setting, a job offer or a promotion will resemble the outcome or decision. *Procedural justice* refers to fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes (Cropanzano, 1993). In an organisational context it refers to the methods or processes used to make a selection decision or to decide who should be promoted. *Equality* refers to the principle of similar treatment irrespective of background or ethnicity. But this in itself poses a problem because people are not the same, and treating them as the same actually promotes inequality. True equality will exist only if it is not seen as a removal of social barriers but a process of balancing in which differences in all social, cultural and ethnic surroundings are taken into account.

In order to understand why AA can be viewed as fair, it is essential to determine how AA is related to justice and equality. Inevitably, a certain amount of tension will prevail between the antidiscriminatory and AA legs of employment equity. Anti-discrimination measures protect and promote equality by stating clearly that no discrimination may take place with regard to ethnicity, gender, and disability, whereas the AA measures allow for unequal treatment that is deemed to be fair discrimination (Van Wyk, 2002).

Affirmative action is intended to restore diversity in society and the workplace where previous discrimination practices excluded it — hence its association with social justice and fair balances. In South Africa, AA is described as a “tool of justice” which could rectify past discrimination practices whilst contributing to the demand for equality. One should accept that, even if the discrimination created by AA may not be entirely justifiable, it should in some ways be morally excusable, if one takes past discrimination into consideration. In order to justify AA, it is necessary to elaborate on the concepts of social justice and equality.

According to the utilitarian perspective on justice, justice distinguishes between the rights of the individual and of society. Utilitarian justice recognises an individual's right to equal treatment by what should be the best for society, while so-called "common-sense" justice demands from society a correction of previous discrimination practices (Rosenfeld, 1991). Affirmative action does not intentionally exclude a certain group of people, and the unintended exclusion (discrimination) should therefore be perceived as an undesirable side-effect. To obtain justifiable AA programmes, preference should be given to deserving individuals, thus balancing the gains of the individual with those of society. Affirmative action, however, can only equal justice if it is applied in favour of people who have actually been deprived of opportunities. This means that the application of AA programmes can result in the discrimination of impoverished white workers because of the denial of employment in favour of people from designated groups. A society which agrees that past discrimination needs to be addressed should acknowledge that AA based on fairness may be the best solution available. The fairness of AA has a moral conception which is embodied in the human character and social life. The acceptance of this kind of fairness would demand a society which accepts a new conception of justice necessary to regulate the structures of life. The justification for AA should thus be seen in this new way of thinking (Van Jaarsveld, 2000).

As mentioned earlier, a goal of AA programmes is to put individuals on an equal footing in order to make employment competition fair and just. This can only be achieved if similar treatment is translated into equal treatment and takes diversity into account. It should be accepted that all AA programmes cannot result in absolute fair equality. Individual differences in talents and skills will have an influence. Affirmative action does not proclaim to bring forth absolute equality. What it does profess is to address the effects of discrimination through remedial policies. The question regarding how AA can have equality as its goal when in practice it is discriminating against white workers, is thus largely answered by the above explanation of social justice. Although future inequalities may be inevitable, the notion of fairness, reciprocity and justice should be accepted as being part of social reality.

Society has been adamant that inequality should be addressed and the victims of discrimination afforded an opportunity to catch up with the rest of society. But how long will it take previously disadvantaged people to catch up? In order to keep the justification for AA fair, it is believed that the practice should not exist indefinitely. One of the purposes of AA programmes is to provide members of previously disadvantaged groups with opportunities for advancement, even if this entails elements of discrimination. Neither organisations nor a country, however, can afford to engage in social and community upliftment programmes for an indefinite period of time. At some stage the beneficiaries of AA programmes should be held accountable for their own development and advancement. When this stage is reached, preferential treatment should become something of the past since everybody will then have been placed on an equal footing. The primary problem with AA interventions in the USA is its duration of more than 30 years. Let us hope that South Africa does not make the same mistake. By combining training with appointments, AA programmes may achieve equality within a reasonable period of time (Van Jaarsveld, 2000). Blacks who are already denouncing AA as favouritism and white workers who are rejecting it as reverse discrimination have shown that time may not be on the policy's side.

2.7 SUMMARY

It may be fair to suggest that AA has yet to make its mark in South Africa. Various opinions exist on the desirability, fairness and future of AA. In South Africa the main beneficiaries of AA are perceived to be black middle class and professional women of all ages. Affirmative action programmes should, however, have advantages for all concerned if clear goals are set. Whether goals, timetables or quotas should be used to create employment equity is a matter of opinion. Because quotas may result in the hiring of unqualified people and timetables may be designed without proper consideration, it is suggested that goals should be used to establish employment equity. According to Van Jaarsveld (2000), progress towards the implementation of AA programmes has been made but there is still a discrepancy between the representation of black people at management levels. In the middle-management positions, the number of blacks being employed in South Africa has increased from 32 to 45 percent.

South African organisations are compelled to comply with the provisions of the Employment Equity Act. Perhaps lessons from other countries could help South Africa to overcome the major obstacles in the implementation of AA. The macroeconomic issues are more complex and need government's attention to ensure that employment equity and the diversity that it creates in organisations work towards the competitiveness of the country and that racial and ethnic divisiveness is not created. At operational level, the challenge is to identify sound business reasons for the diversity created by strategies to achieve employment equity. This demands creative vision and the will on the part of management to fully tap into the potential of all employees in the workforce.

Although employment equity is still a relatively new policy in South Africa, the government does seem to be looking at the negative comments directed at its programmes. Because there are more than enough grounds to question the skills of appointed black workers, the government has recognised the importance of training programmes and passed legislation such as the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 and Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999.

In this chapter the meaning of AA, as intended by legislation, was discussed. The origin of AA and employment equity, the primary objectives of AA and the obstacles to achieving employment equity were briefly outlined. This was followed by a discussion of the purposes of AA and the obstacles hindering the effective implementation of AA programmes and the justification for AA in terms of justice and equality. In an attempt to understand how AA is related to organisational justice and fairness perceptions, the next chapter will briefly refer to the management of AA and focus in particular on how it should be implemented at organisational level if employees are to perceive it as fair.

Chapter 3

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AT ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Although an awareness of the need for employment equity constitutes the foundation of an AA programme, it does not guarantee success. Action should be taken to ensure that AA programmes are implemented in a purposeful and planned manner. However, this is not an easy task since a frequent reversion to the security of old habits is unavoidable and a step-by-step guide on the implementation and management of AA programmes does not exist.

In organisations which are not proactive, change or the awareness of the need for change usually arises from trigger incidents or circumstances. These incidents may be internal in the form of a decline in morale and productivity, employee dissatisfaction, union interference and budgetary constraints. Alternatively, external factors such as a change in legislation, a shift in employee demographics and increased global competition may serve as triggers for change. The Employment Equity Act, for example, has obliged organisations to take a new look at employment practices. The selection criteria and methods used to make appointment decisions are two of the most important factors that had to be revised for AA purposes. As such, these two factors were also responsible for most of the concerns raised about the fairness of AA.

Affirmative action programmes should be managed from a legal and a moral perspective. From a legal point of view, they should meet all the requirements of Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000. From a moral point of view, such programmes should be managed in such a way that employees perceive AA to be fair. This chapter will briefly discuss these two Acts and the steps in the implementation of the AA programme. The implications of AA for various human resource policies, procedures and practices will also be outlined. The discussion will focus in particular on how HR policies, procedures and practices should be adjusted for AA purposes.

3.2 EQUALITY AND JUSTICE

In an attempt to promote social justice and eradicate inequalities, the government has promulgated two Acts, namely the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000. These two Acts are briefly discussed in the sections that follow.

The source of all legal norms can be traced back to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 108 of 1996 which guarantees the fundamental right to equality. In the preamble to the Constitution, some of the aims of the Constitution are formulated as follows:

3.2

- Heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights;
- Lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law;

As mentioned earlier, there will inevitably be a tension between the aims of formal equality (the prohibition of unfair discrimination) and substantive equality (affirmative action). Section 9 of the Constitution clarifies this somewhat by making it clear that deviations from formal equality will be allowed, by means of AA as a form of fair discrimination.

3.3 THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT 55 OF 1998

The Employment Equity Act was signed by the President on 12 October 1998. Some of the aims of the Act are to

- promote the constitutional right of equality and the exercise of true democracy;
- eliminate unfair discrimination in employment;
- ensure the implementation of employment equity to redress the effects of discrimination;

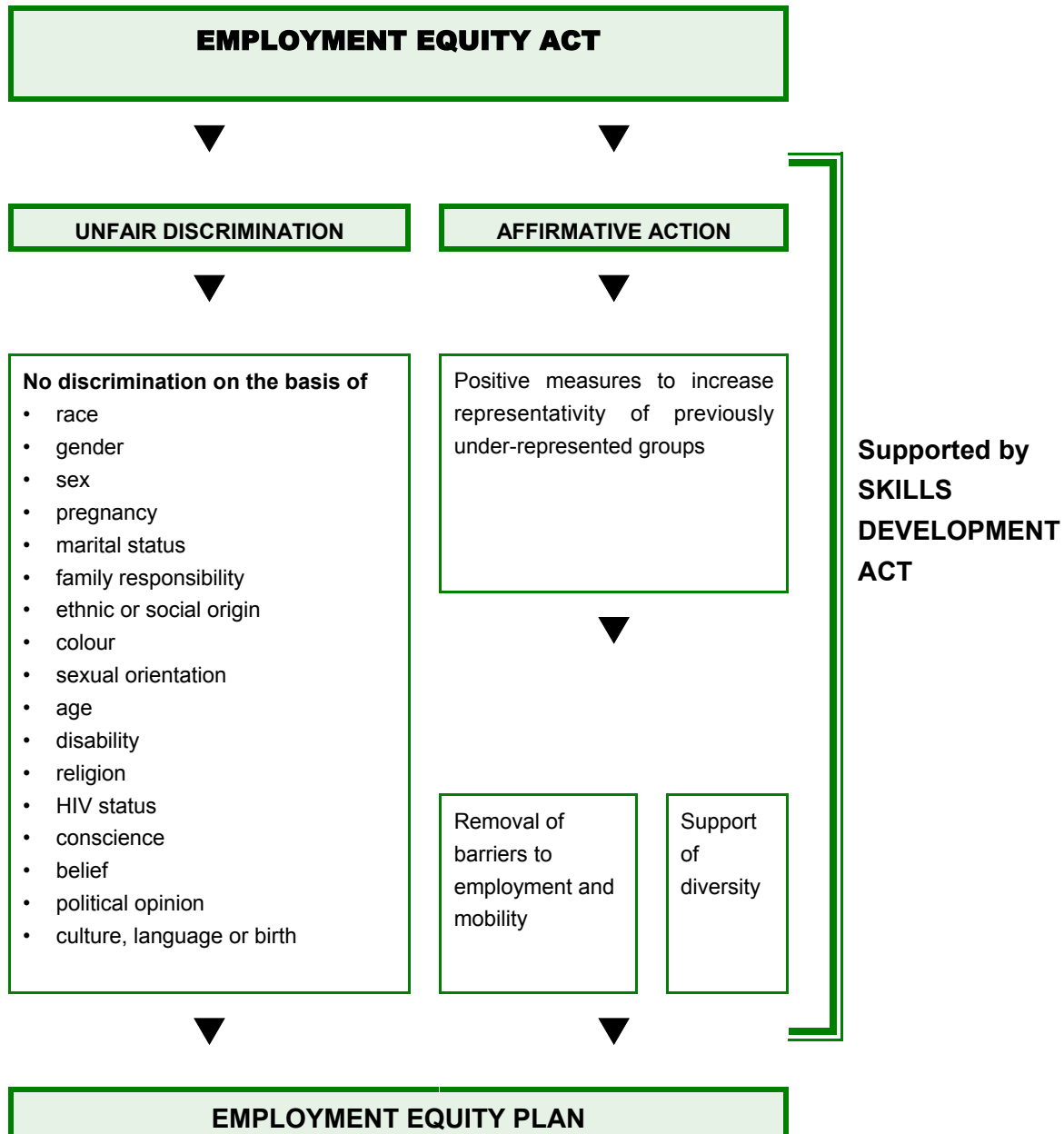
The Act provides for two main pillars in its legislated structure to achieve employment equity, namely:

- (1) the prevention and prohibition of *unfair discrimination*
- (2) the implementation of *affirmative action* measures

Chapter II of the Act prohibits unfair discrimination, while Chapter III prescribes affirmative measures which designated employers must take to promote employment equity in respect of Africans, women and persons with disabilities. Suffice to say that nonbeneficiaries of affirmative measures will rely on chapter II as the basis of their challenge of affirmative measures, while employers will rely on Chapter III to defend their AA policies and practices.

Figure 3.1 provides a schematic representation of employment equity and illustrates how the two main pillars are interrelated.

FIGURE 3.1: EMPLOYMENT EQUITY



Source: Adapted from Bendix (2001)

3.3.1 Unfair discrimination

The Act obliges all employers to promote equal opportunity by eliminating discrimination in all employment policies and practices. It further prohibits discrimination on any arbitrary grounds including, but not limited to, race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, political opinion, culture, language, and so forth. The Act provides that measures to promote previously disadvantaged groups will not be regarded as constituting unfair discrimination; nor will differentiation based on the requirements of a particular job.

3.4

Where discrimination is concerned, applicants for a position are also regarded as employees. The significance of this is that any person applying for a position may question both the short-listing of candidates and the actual selection decision (Bendix, 2001).

3.3.2 Affirmative action

In terms of the Act, AA measures are designed to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce of a designated employer. Affirmative action measures implemented by a designated employer must therefore include:

- measures to identify and eliminate employment barriers, including unfair discrimination, which adversely affect people from designated groups

The thrust of the Employment Equity Plan is to identify and correct the under-representation of designated groups. According to the Act, as quoted by Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2000), all designated employers have to staff their organisations by implementing the following steps:

- consult with employees about the equity process
- conduct an analysis of the workforce
- prepare an employment equity plan
- prepare and submit an equity plan report to the Director-General on progress
- submit a statement on income differentials to the Employment Conditions Commission

(1) *Consultation.* The Act stipulates that the employer has to consult with a representative employee body about the demographic analysis of the workforce, on the preparation and implementation of the Employment Equity Plan and the report to be submitted.

(2) *Analysis of the workforce.* The employer needs to collect information on and conduct an analysis of all employment practices and procedures as well as the work environment in order to identify barriers to the employment or continued employment of designated groups. In addition, the employers must establish a demographic profile of the workforce in each employment category or level in order to determine the degree of under-representation of designated groups.

(iii) *The Employment Equity Plan.* The Employment Equity Plan must include the following:

- affirmative action targets
- measures to identify and eliminate employment barriers
- measures designated to promote workforce diversity

3.5

- measures to accommodate persons from designated groups to ensure that they enjoy equal opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and groups
- measures to retain and develop people from designated groups and to implement measures in terms of the Skills Development Act
- the objectives for each year of the plan
- a timetable showing how objectives are to be achieved
- the duration of the plan
- procedures for implementing and monitoring the plan
- internal disputes, procedures relating to discrimination and AA

(4) *Submission of reports.* All organisations employing more than 50 people or exceeding the established turnover threshold have to report on their employment equity plans to the Director-General. Once a report has been submitted it becomes a public document and employers are thus obliged to make copies of the plan available to employees for consultation and discussion.

(5) *Income differentials.* When an employer submits his or her equity report, he or she must also submit a report to the Employment Conditions Commission outlining the remuneration and benefits received in each occupational category and level of the workforce. Where the income statement reflects disproportionate income differentials, employers must take steps to progressively reduce the differences.

3.4 PROMOTION OF EQUALITY AND THE PREVENTION OF UNFAIR DISCRIMINATION ACT 4 of 2000

The two main reasons for the promulgation of the above-mentioned Act were to expand the scope of the Employment Equity Act so that it covers social institutions other than employers, and to place a general duty on all people to promote equality.

In the preamble to the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination 4 of 2000, as quoted by Van Wyk (2002:42-44), the following, inter alia, is stated:

- The consolidation of democracy in our country requires the eradication of social and economic inequalities, especially those that are systemic in nature, which were generated in our history by colonialism, apartheid and patriarchy, and which brought pain and suffering to the great majority of our people;
- Although significant progress has been made in restructuring and transforming our society and its institutions, systemic inequalities and unfair discrimination remain deeply embedded in social structures, practices and attitudes, undermining the aspirations of our constitutional democracy;

- The basis for progressively redressing these conditions lies in the Constitution which, amongst others, upholds the values of human dignity, equality, freedom and social justice in a united, non-racial and non-sexist society where all may flourish;
- This Act endeavours to facilitate the transition to a democratic society, united in its diversity, marked by human relations that are caring and compassionate, and guided by the principles of equality, fairness, equity, social progress, justice, human dignity and freedom.

As mentioned earlier, antidiscrimination laws are not enough to prevent unfair discrimination and ensure the successful implementation of AA measures. Although they do remove legal barriers to employment, they do not eradicate the historical inequalities which are still prevalent. Neither can the law in itself remove nonlegal or societal barriers arising from people's attitudes — for this a concerted human resource management effort is needed. Human resource managers should thus treat employment equity as an HRM priority and strategic business issue.

3.5 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

South African organisations are facing the challenge of developing and implementing AA programmes that will achieve the joint goals of employment equity and wealth creation. It is clear that in many African countries, measures to redistribute wealth and impose organisational control have been implemented with scant regard for economic growth. The consequences of such an approach have been disastrous for the national economies of these countries and have resulted in the impoverishment of all. A common theme in the experiences of numerous countries is that the long-term successful redistribution of resources is dependent upon economic growth which, in turn, is reliant upon AA in order to develop and utilise a country's human resources and ensure political stability. It should thus be clear that the systematic and strategic management of AA is of crucial importance for the wealth of the individual, the organisation and the country.

3.5.1 A strategic approach to affirmative action

The strategic business plan serves as a map for gaining and/or retaining an organisation's competitive advantage and should therefore be used as a starting point for the implementation of any other interventions such as AA. Any strategic plan must incorporate an assessment of where one is at present in relation to where one needs to be. The difference between "where am I?" and "where do I need to be?" indicates a deviation and should be addressed by means of a strategy comprising of achievable, intermediate goals that are measurable and attached to time schedules and review dates. The AA strategy should thus be an integral part of the overall business and human resources strategy of the organisation. Figure 3.2 outlines the steps in the development and implementation of an AA programme.

Since it is not the purpose of this study to investigate the management of AA, the steps in developing and implementing an AA programme will not be discussed any further. The discussion will focus instead on

the implications of AA for organisational policies, procedures and practices. These implications largely determine employees' perceptions of AA and what they regard as fair.

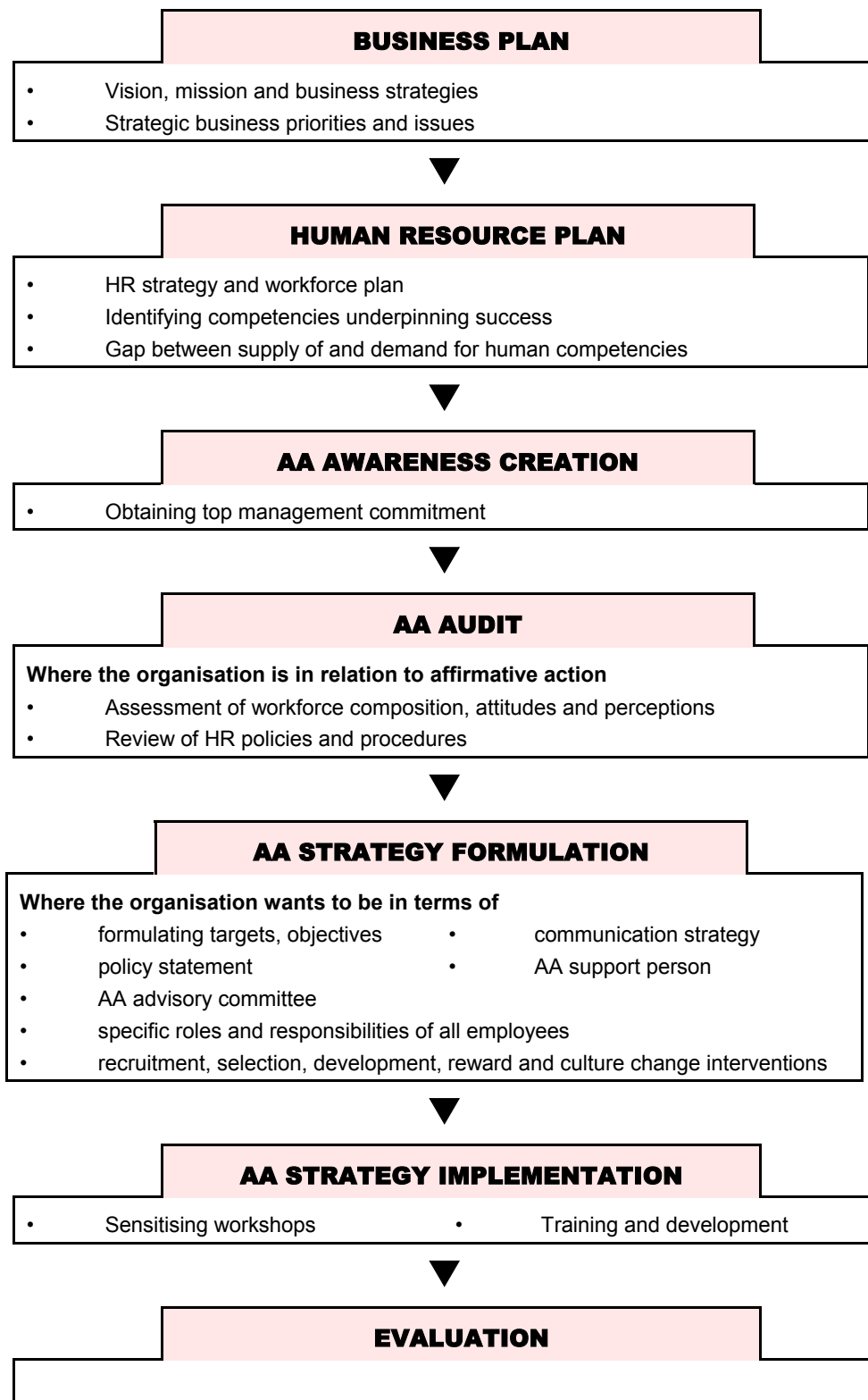
3.6 THE IMPLICATIONS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FOR ORGANISATIONAL POLICIES, PROCEDURES AND PRACTICES

The strict prohibition on discrimination places an obligation on employers to review all policies, procedures and practices to ensure that they do not contain or involve any form of discrimination or unjustifiable differentiation. The practices and procedures most influenced by AA are briefly discussed in the sections below.

3.6.1 Recruitment

Smart human resource professionals are always mindful of ways to minimise their organisation's liability for employment-related claims. Although the Employment Equity Act is silent on the issue of recruitment, employers should ensure that they reach all possible candidates and that word-of-mouth recruiting (employee referrals) should be discouraged except when it is aimed at head-hunting for AA candidates. Through employee referrals, information about new jobs is restricted to the friends and relatives of the incumbent employee. At this, whites occupy the majority of higher-level positions and Africans are therefore less likely than other groups to obtain information about vacant managerial positions. Bendix (2001) states that the active canvassing of candidates is not unacceptable but warns against "poaching" from other organisations because this merely sustains the élitism of the already employed. It is preferable to approach persons who may not yet be filling a position at a particular level but who display the potential to grow into the job. The recruitment of Africans is problematic because they are less likely than other groups to belong to social networks linking them to jobs. This is especially true of Africans living in socially isolated low-income neighbourhoods. Hiring through professional associations also places Africans at a disadvantage (Ward, 2000). A practice that is becoming increasingly popular is that of online recruitment. Although online recruitment has tremendous growth opportunities and offers various benefits, at this stage it is not well suited to a country such as South Africa because of the large number of people without access to the Internet (Ramchurran, 2001).

FIGURE 3.2
STEPS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMME



Source: Adapted from Swanepoel et al (2000)

3.6.2 Selection criteria

Prior to the promulgation of the Labour Relations Act of 1995, job applicants had no or little recourse in cases where they suspected that their lack of success in obtaining a particular position was the result of unfair discrimination on the part of decisionmakers. Thus those to whom the selection of applicants had been entrusted were basically not accountable for their decisions. In these circumstances the possibility of undesirable practices such as nepotism, discrimination and victimisation is self-evident (Bendix, 2001). To guard against discrimination in selection, it is necessary for organisations to carefully review the short-listing, interviewing and assessment procedures of their organisations. These processes should not be left to a single individual but rather allow a representative panel to make the decision.

Although employment equity targets play a major role in selection decisions, the appointment of qualified applicants plays an equally important role. Although concerted efforts should be made to change the demographics at work, especially at higher level jobs, organisations should not concentrate only on such appointments. As mentioned previously, it is detrimental to the success of AA in general when organisations display their “political correctness” by appointing AA candidates at all cost. Although AA candidates should be given a slight advantage, other selection criteria which focus on suitability, should also be used in a selection decision.

Selection criteria can be established only if the key performance areas and competencies required for the position have been identified. Obviously the criteria should not in themselves be discriminatory. This happens when criteria such as qualifications which are not truly necessary to ensure competence are added as a means of excluding certain groups. Ward (2000) cautions against the use of criteria such as prior work experience, membership in professional associations, criminal and service records, vocational training and dependability in arriving at work regularly and on time. These criteria create barriers for black job applicants and do not afford them an equal chance to demonstrate their competencies and abilities (Ward, 2000). Once valid and fair criteria have been established and assessment techniques developed, it is necessary to attach a weighting to each criterion. This is where AA candidates can be given an edge, by adding membership of a previously disadvantaged group as a criterion and applying a special, proportionate weighting to this. Should the demographics have proved that particular groups are less represented in the organisation or job category, the weighting allocated to, say, black females could be heavier than that assigned to white females. A study of the hiring practices in the electronics industry in Los Angeles was conducted in 2002. The aim of the study was to determine whether hiring officials hired or felt pressured to hire underqualified Africans instead of overqualified white males to comply with the hiring goals of AA guidelines. Without exception, the hiring officials reported that they hired the most qualified applicant for every position regardless of racial background (Ward, 2000). It would be interesting to conduct a similar study in South Africa.

3.6.3 Human resource policy

According to Barrier (1999), organisations should ensure that all their hiring procedures and policies are in line with the AA policy and employment equity plan. He suggests that organisations start with an effective application form that both collects information and provides information to applicants. According to Bland and Stalcup (1999), the *instructions* and *disclaimers* of application forms play a vital role in discrimination lawsuits.

3.6.3.1 Instructions on application forms

When employers include a statement that any application containing unrequested information will be automatically rejected, this will prevent applicants from claiming that they were rejected for unlawful reasons. For example, applicants may state on an application form that they are union organisers, even though the application does not request such information. If they are not hired, they might sue the employer, claiming they were discriminated against because the employer knew that they were union organisers. Inclusion of a statement that applications with extraneous information will automatically be rejected provides employers with a legitimate, nondiscriminatory basis for rejecting such applicants. Bible (1998), on the other hand, states that the law does not prohibit certain questions in applications and anyone is therefore free to ask anything he or she wants to. According to him, the problem is not what is asked, but what is answered and what use an employer makes of the information provided.

Although employers are not legally required to do so, they may want to include an equal opportunity statement in the instructional section of the application. This informs the applicant that the employer is adhering to the principles of equal employment opportunity and that the applicant's signature on the application form indicates the applicant's acknowledgment of the policy.

3.6.3.2 Disclaimers on application forms

The final section of most application forms consists of certifications, disclaimers and other notices to applicants. In this section, the applicant is often required to certify the accuracy of the information provided. This certification should further warn applicants that false statements or omissions on the application form could result in a refusal to hire or in a discharge if untruths are discovered after hiring.

3.6.4 Interviews

The interviews or other forms of assessment should be structured in terms of the criteria according to which the candidate will be evaluated and should be the same for all persons being assessed. A study examining the link between the hiring process and company image, identified 17 variables that resulted in the interview being perceived as poor (Tarzian, 2002). Table 3.1 below lists the top five variables cited for poor interviews.

TABLE 3.1: POOR INTERVIEWS

In a poor interview, the interviewer	
1	exhibited a lack of understanding of the position
2	displayed unprofessional behaviour
3	treated the candidate rudely
4	posed illegal or inappropriate questions
5	gave the impression the successful candidate was already chosen

Source: Tarzian (2002)

A study of the above-mentioned variables indicates that questions which are irrelevant and might lead to suspicions of bias continue to be one of the main legal pitfalls interviewers need to avoid. The list also indicates that most interviews are rated according to what applicants regard as fair. Employers, however, should not let their questions be determined simply by what is legal and what is not. According to Barrier (1999), what organisations really should be thinking about is treating applicants fairly.

Good interviews should focus on job-related criteria so that bias caused by superficial and personal characteristics can be reduced and the fairness in selection increased (Cooper & Robertson, 1995). According to Barclay (2001), one way of providing all applicants with an equal chance to make a good impression during an interview, is to ask behavioural questions. Although the focus in behavioural questions is on job-related criteria, applicants need not be restricted to work experience to describe their skills. People with limited work experience, such as AA applicants, will thus not be in a disadvantaged position when it comes to answering a behavioural question. Behavioural questions afford applicants the widest possible opportunity to demonstrate their suitability for the job and should thus be used to meet nondiscriminatory and fairness criteria.

Applicants have become increasingly aware of their right to question selection decisions. It is therefore essential for records of interviews to be kept, and final decisions to be well motivated, so that any queries which arise, may be answered in full.

3.6.5 Reference checking (background checks)

In the past, discussing an applicant with former employers was usually an effective and efficient method for obtaining necessary information. However, employers are increasingly reluctant to disclose evaluative information about current and former employees for fear of lawsuits. Clearly, employees must be protected from false and malicious references. Employers, on the other hand, know that the key to effective hiring rests on quality information about job applicants. According to the results of a study

conducted in a Chicago employment testing company, 41 percent of college graduates have made at least one false statement in order to obtain a job (Barrier, 1999). It is interesting to note that the MBA degree was the one qualification most frequently fabricated (Arnesen & Fleenor, 1998).

With regard to nondiscriminatory practices, background checking should be done consistently and referents should be asked the same questions about all the applicants. According to Howie and Shapero (2002), employers should not obtain arrest records when making a background check because this tends to have a discriminatory effect on people from previously disadvantaged groups, and is furthermore seldom related to the job that the applicant is seeking. Although employers have a difficult task deciding which convictions are job related, it can be safely assumed that convictions for crimes of dishonesty are nearly always job related.

Another reason why organisations need to conduct reference checks is to avoid being charged with “negligent hiring”. Organisations should therefore be able to prove that they have engaged in their best efforts to learn what they could about an applicant.

In order to avoid any lawsuits with regard to reference checking, organisations should have a policy on reference checking in place. The policy should identify the people responsible for conducting it, the type of questions to be asked or answered, and the people who may respond to a reference check (Barrier, 1999).

3.6.6 Human resource planning

Another factor that plays a prominent role in the appointment of people is the organisation's human resource manpower plan. This plan is the starting point of the implementation of the equity plan and it therefore needs to be consulted with each appointment. Whenever a position is vacant the equity plan is consulted and the workforce profile in that job category studied, in conjunction with the workforce profile of the organisation as a whole. It may then be decided to advertise that preference will be given to a person from a previously disadvantaged group for appointment to this position or even to head-hunt such person. However, the inherent requirements of the job remain central to the selection procedure and capable candidates cannot be excluded simply because they are not from a designated group.

3.6.7 Pre-employment testing

As mentioned earlier, any form of assessment should be structured and job related. Medical testing is permissible only in certain conditions. According to the Act, it will be allowed only if permitted or required by law, if justifiable in the light of medical facts, employment conditions, social policy, the fair distribution of employee benefits or the inherent requirements of the job. An issue that has been under the spotlight is the HIV status of applicants. Employers may not use an applicant's HIV status as a selection criterion. According to a report in the *Mail and Guardian* (Johannesburg) of 17 April 2002, 30 percent of South

Africa's workforce will be HIV positive in 2005. If employers had to appoint applicants according to their HIV status, the applicant pool would shrink by 30 percent and aggravate the situation with regard to the shortage of skills experienced.

According to the Employment Equity Act, as quoted by Tinarelli (2000), psychological testing and other similar assessments are prohibited unless they have been scientifically shown to be valid and reliable, can be applied fairly to all employees and are not biased against any person or group. The purpose of this provision is to ensure that tests are reliable, valid, free of cultural bias, do not rely for success on a privileged educational or social background and that the language used is understood by all test subjects. According to the results of research done on applicants' attitudes and reactions to different selection tests, applicants were more in favour of tests with business-related content (job sample tests) than with paper-and-pencil tests. Personality, honesty and drug tests were the least popular (Schmitt & Chan, 1999). The law does not specify the type of tests to be administered but only the requirements they should meet. However, from a justice point of view, the applicants' perceptions of the fairness of employment tests should be taken into consideration because this may influence their commitment once appointed.

3.6.8 Harassment

Harassment is defined as any special attention to or treatment of an individual on the grounds of his or her physical attributes. Essentially, harassment is any form of behaviour whether verbal, physical or by gesture to which a person on reasonable grounds, might object. The most common form of harassment in organisations is of a sexual nature but the differential treatment of employees based on their ethnicity, gender or age is also a common problem.

According to the Employment Equity Act, employers who are made aware of a transgression of any provision of the Act and fail to act upon it, will be deemed to have committed that transgression. It is therefore essential to develop a harassment policy and procedure to ensure that all complaints raised in this regard are effectively and fairly handled.

3.6.9 Induction/orientation

All newly appointed employees, and not only AA appointees, should be properly integrated by way of an induction programme. However, in the case of AA employees, there may be circumstances which dictate that their integration be monitored. Although these appointees should not be treated differently, an attempt should be made to remove any unnecessary obstacles to their integration.

3.6.10 Career planning and development

One facet of human resource planning is succession planning and career development. If properly performed, it offers an ideal route for developing previously disadvantaged persons from both inside and outside the organisation to fill more important positions in the future. The significance of developing the skills, competencies and potential of employees is emphasised by the initiatives in terms of the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998. Education and training are the only guarantee of the success of AA initiatives and of increased economic prosperity. South Africa cannot function without effective human resources, and continue to draw such resources from a limited pool of educated and trained employees. According to the World Competitiveness Yearbook 2002, South Africa is rated 39th out of 49 countries in terms of the effective use of human resources. This is understandable if one considers the fact that companies used to spend one percent or less of their income on training.

3.6.11 Communication

The new Labour Relations Act determines that AA should be subject to joint decision making by management and the workplace forum. An AA strategy is a change strategy and, as such, should be developed like any other change policy - that is, in collaboration with all stakeholders in the organisation. This may prove to be a slow process, since different groupings will strive to protect their own interests, which may be in conflict with AA objectives. Thus extensive information and a sharing of values and perceptions is necessary at this stage. As indicated in table 3.2, Bendix (2001) identified a number of principles on which all stakeholders should reach agreement.

TABLE 3.2: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PRINCIPLES TO BE AGREED UPON

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Their understanding of AA• The AA objectives to be adopted by the organisation• Broad time frames for the achievement of objectives• The manner in which candidates are to be canvassed and selected• The development of employees• The integration of appointees into the organisation• Monitoring and performance appraisal systems applicable to all employees• Support systems for employees who underperform• The possibility that some candidates may have to be dismissed, and the procedures to be adopted in such cases• Sensitisation of other employees to AA initiatives |
|---|

Source: Adapted from Bendix (2001)

Once a policy and a strategy have been agreed upon, they should be shared with every employee in the organisation. Affirmative action initiatives which are implemented without proper consultation cause distrust and fear, leading either to disregard of the initiative or, at worst, to constant sabotage. Existing employees need to be given all the relevant information and to receive the necessary assurances about their own job security. Numerous workshops, sensitisation sessions and interactions may be necessary at this stage.

Charlton and Van Niekerk (1994) regard the following as the most important information to be conveyed to existing employees:

- the AA policy statement, its strategy and its rationale
- policies, procedures, roles and responsibilities, evaluation and reward criteria
- what training will take place
- when AA objectives will be expected to be achieved
- educating people concerning the why, what and how of AA

3.6.12 Treatment in the workplace

Thus far the impact of AA has been viewed from a legal perspective. However, this may be one of the reasons why it has not been that successful in South Africa. Organisations ensure that they comply with employment equity legislation but often neglect to heed the “soft issues” of AA - the way AA employees are treated in the workplace. No legislation can regulate the humanity of a work relationship.

Despite employers' attempts to comply with employment equity requirements, it often happens that supervisors and line management undermine the success of employment equity initiatives through their prejudicial treatment of AA employees. In a subtle way, supervisors can treat subordinates unfairly by giving them jobs that

- are insignificant or too difficult
- do not allow them to use a variety of skills and competencies
- deny them the opportunity to use their initiative, discretion or judgment
- do not provide them with feedback on their performance
- do not allow them to determine their own work pace and work methods
- do not provide them with responsibility or accountability

The “work for me” instead of “work with me” approach is thus applied. If organisations wish to make a success of AA, they have to take a closer look at the way AA employees are treated in the workplace. One way of showing respect and appreciation is by involving employees and keeping them informed about changes and issues that concern them.

Because of the complex nature of any organisational change (and AA in particular), organisations will need to manage resistance to change. This is not always a straightforward task because resistance to change may stem from the individual, the organisation or both. Table 3.3 lists the main resistance factors stemming from the individual and the organisation.

Resistance to change may be indicative of two problems. The first of these could be the proposal for change itself. Secondly, the problem could lie with mistakes made in the communication of the proposal. Managers should thus re-evaluate their strategies after determining the actual causes of resistance, and then overcome the resistance in an appropriate manner.

TABLE 3.3: SOURCES OF RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

Individual resistance factors	Organisational resistance factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fear of the unknown • Habit • Self-interest • Economic insecurity • Failure to recognise the need for change • General mistrust • Social disruptions • Selective perceptions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structural inertia (policies, procedures and processes are not adjusted) • Cultural inertia • Work group inertia • Threats to existing power relationships, expertise and resource allocations • Previously unsuccessful change efforts

Source: Adapted from Swanepoel et al (2000)

Kotter and Schlesinger, as quoted by Swanepoel et al (2000), propose the following six methods to overcome resistance to change:

- (1) education and communication
- (2) participation and involvement
- (3) facilitation and support
- (4) negotiation and agreement
- (5) manipulation and cooption
- (6) explicit and implicit coercion

With reference to the above, it is clear that the success of an AA programme is dependent on the way it is communicated to existing employees. For organisational change to occur, the climate must be conducive to the change and employees should understand, participate and support the change. It might also be necessary to implement some of the changes step by step and congruent with the existing culture, in order to maintain some form of stability. Furthermore, any such changes must be implemented with the

utmost care and sensitivity. Managers need to balance the opposite ends of the continuum concerned with how to implement change and yet not demoralise their loyal workforce (stability). Only after an organisation has the assurance of general understanding and acceptance should it go ahead and develop its equity plan.

3.7 SUMMARY

Although South Africa's economy can be regarded as rich and robust, the distribution of wealth is poor. South Africa has a huge problem in the distribution of jobs and income among its ethnic/racial groups. Recognising the dismal state of the distribution of employment and income, the government has, by means of legislation, attempted to redress inequalities of the past. The two primary pieces of legislation governing the promotion of social justice and eradicating inequalities are the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000. Although both these Acts address unfair discrimination and AA issues, the latter has a wider scope by covering social institutions other than employers and placing a duty on all people to promote equality.

If organisations are to reap the fruits of such longer-term spin-offs, AA will have to become an integral part of everyday human resource management practices in organisations. This will require the adaptation of virtually all human resource management practice areas to accommodate the AA challenge. Not only should employers eliminate all forms of unfair discrimination, but also implement AA measures to achieve employment equity targets. Human resource practitioners should therefore review all HR policies, procedures and practices to ensure that they do not contain or involve any form of unfair discrimination or unjustifiable differentiation. However, complying with legislation is not the only issue employers need to focus on. They also need to be concerned about the spirit of the law within which they operate. Treating employees fairly will thus also have to be considered when reviewing policies, procedures and practices.

This chapter focused on the implications of AA on HR policies, procedures and processes — hence the discussion of the Employment Equity Act and the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act. The steps in the development and implementation of an AA programme were briefly outlined. Achieving the goals of employment equity does not depend only on whether AA programmes comply with legal requirements but also on whether they meet fairness requirements.

The next chapter focuses on fairness from an organisational justice perspective, following which, theories from the organisational justice literature will be extended to the AA domain with a view to advancing the understanding of AA fairness.

ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

There is a compelling need for innovative approaches to the solution of many problems involving human relationships in today's work environment. Although the technical competence of employees is essential, it is not a sufficient condition for success. Human resource managers must also attend to the personal needs and concerns of the people they are managing. Managers are increasingly recognising the importance of human social interaction as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organisations. People are social beings and organisations therefore have to create settings in which employees are able to interact socially. One concept which is fundamental to human social interaction is justice. Whether it is a promotion decision, the assignment of tasks, the allocations of rewards or just about any other type of social exchange, matters of fairness are bound to arise. Employees' perceptions of fairness in organisational settings, also known as organisational justice, influence their attitudes and behaviour and consequently their performance and the organisation's success. That is why research on organisational justice is so vital.

In view of the widespread recognition of the importance of fairness as an issue in organisations, it is now necessary to apply theories of social and interpersonal justice to understanding behaviour in organisations. The earliest theories of social justice were mainly derived to test principles of justice in general social interaction, not organisations in particular. In recent years many human resource interventions have been re-examined in light of organisational justice such as performance evaluation (Greenberg, 1987; Folger, 1984; Cropanzano, 1993), drug testing (Cropanzano, 1993) and pay satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Researching the fairness of human resource interventions does not, however, indicate how the organisation is influenced — hence the need to consider how these varieties of justice relate to various organisational variables such as trust in management, job satisfaction, supervisor/subordinate relationships and employee commitment. In South Africa, which is renowned for its low productivity, it will be worthwhile to determine how the perceived fairness of AA influences employees' commitment and ultimately productivity. The relationship between employees' perceptions of AA fairness and their commitment will therefore be discussed in chapter 5.

This chapter provides an overview of the meaning, scope and nature of organisational justice. The components of organisational justice are discussed in order to explain how employees judge the fairness of AA decisions, policies and procedures.

4.2 ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Fairness is of central interest to modern managers concerned about providing equal employment opportunities, fair labour practices and paying a fair day's pay for a fair day's work. Just as referees should ensure that all participants have a fair chance to compete, managers are responsible for the fair treatment of employees. The differing perspectives, interests and goals of managers and subordinates, however, makes it difficult to determine what exactly employees regard as fair treatment. The multidimensionality of fairness is evident when one considers how people disagree about the definition of fairness. The different answers to questions about fairness depend on whether the focus is on outcomes, procedures or motives. A further complicating element is the possible interaction of a concern for justice with other motives in social situations (eg self-esteem, interpersonal attraction) (Folger, 1984). An attempt to describe and explain the role of fairness in the workplace is known as organisational justice. Organisational justice refers to the *decisions* organisations make, the *procedures* they use in making decisions and the *interpersonal treatment* employees receive.

The research on organisational justice, dating back to the 1960s, was originally conducted to test propositions about the distribution of payment and other work-related rewards. Since then concerns about fairness have been expressed in such organisational domains as conflict resolution, personnel selection, labour disputes and wage negotiation, to mentioned but a few. This resulted in the emergence of a variety of different approaches to justice. In order to clarify conceptual interrelationships, track trends in organisational research and identify needed areas of research and conceptual development, Greenberg (1996) categorised various conceptualisations of organisational justice around a taxonomy. This taxonomy was derived by combining two conceptually independent dimensions: a *reactive-proactive* dimension and a *process-content* dimension.

- (1) *Reactive-proactive dimension*. A *reactive* theory of justice focuses on people's attempts either to escape from or avoid perceived unfair states. By contrast, *proactive* theories focus on behaviours designed to promote justice.
- (2) *Process-content dimension*. A *process* approach to justice focuses on the way in which various outcomes are determined. Such orientations concentrate on the fairness of the methods and procedures used to make and implement organisational decisions. In contrast, *content* approaches are concerned with the fairness of the resulting decision or outcome.

By combining the two dimensions in various ways, Greenberg developed a taxonomy of four theories. Table 4.1 summarises the research questions related to each type of theory.

TABLE 4.1
RESEARCH QUESTIONS RELATED TO ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE THEORIES

TYPE OF THEORY	RESEARCH QUESTION
Reactive content	How do workers react to inequitable payments?
Proactive content	How do workers attempt to create fair payments?
Reactive process	How do workers react to unfair policies or procedures?
Proactive process	How do workers attempt to create fair policies or procedures?

Source: Greenberg (1996)

4.2.1 Reactive content theories

Reactive content theories focus on how individuals respond to unfair decisions. These theories state explicitly that people will respond to unfair relationships by displaying certain negative emotions such as resentment, anger, dissatisfaction, disappointment and unhappiness (Folger, 1984). In an attempt to redress the experienced inequity, employees will seek restitution, engage in retaliatory behaviour or restore psychological equity by justifying the injustice or leaving the organisation.

4.2.2 Proactive content theories

In contrast to reactive content theories, which focus on how people respond to unfair decisions, proactive content theories focus on how people attempt to create fair decisions. According to Leventhal's *justice judgment model*, individuals attempt to make fair allocation decisions by applying several possible allocation rules to the situations they confront (Leventhal, 1980). For example, in situations where harmony between groups members is important, a supervisor will probably allocate rewards by following the equality norm, that is, dividing rewards equally. Lerner's (1982) *justice motive theory* recognises that justice is the pre-eminent concern of human beings, and concurs that people allocate rewards according to circumstances. According to him, people make use of four principles when making allocation decisions, namely (1) *competition* — allocations based on the outcome of performance; (2) *parity* — equal allocations; (3) *equity* - allocations based on contributions; and (4) *Marxian justice* — allocations based on needs.

4.2.3 Reactive process theories

These theories focus on how people react to unfair procedures, policies and processes used in making a decision. According to Thibaut and Walker (1978), the amount of *control* people have over decisions and processes influences their perceptions of fairness. Two types of control exist. *Process control* refers to the degree of control people have over the procedures or information used to make a decision. *Decision control* refers to the degree of control people have over directly determining the outcomes. Research has found that procedures offering process control are perceived to be fairer and enhance the acceptance of even unfavourable decisions (Greenberg, 1987).

4.2.4 Proactive process theories

The proactive theories focus on allocation procedures and seek to determine what procedures people will use to achieve justice. The allocation preference theory proposes that people hold expectancies that certain procedures will be differentially instrumental in meeting their goals. For procedures to be regarded as instrumental in attaining justice, they need to meet the following requirements:

- Allow opportunities to select the decision maker.
- Follow consistent rules.
- Make use of accurate information.
- Identify the structure of decision-making power.
- Employ safeguards against bias.
- Allow for appeals to be heard.
- Provide opportunities for correcting procedures.
- Meet moral and ethical standards.

Trends in organisational justice research indicate that interest in reactive and content theories has waned. This means that two shifts have occurred — a shift from reactive to proactive theories and a shift from content to process theories. In the next section the meaning of the concepts “content” and “process”, and the way employees use them as a basis for judging fairness, will be discussed.

Judgments about fairness are made by means of a fairly simple, straightforward process. According to Sheppard, Lewicki and Minton (1992), judging the justice of a decision, action or procedure requires evaluating it against two principles, namely balance and correctness.

- (1) *Balance*. The first principle of justice requires a judgment of balance. Comparisons of balance are made when a person compares the reward he or she receives with that received by someone else, while comparing the value of their inputs. Greenberg (1987) refers to this form of justice as *distributive justice*.
- (2) *Correctness*. Correctness is the second principle of justice. Correctness refers to the “rightness” of the decision and encompasses elements of consistency, accuracy, clarity, and procedural thoroughness (Sheppard et al, 1992). As long as procedures are clear and consistently applied, employees will perceive them to be fair. Folger and Greenberg (1985) refer to this form of justice as *procedural justice*.

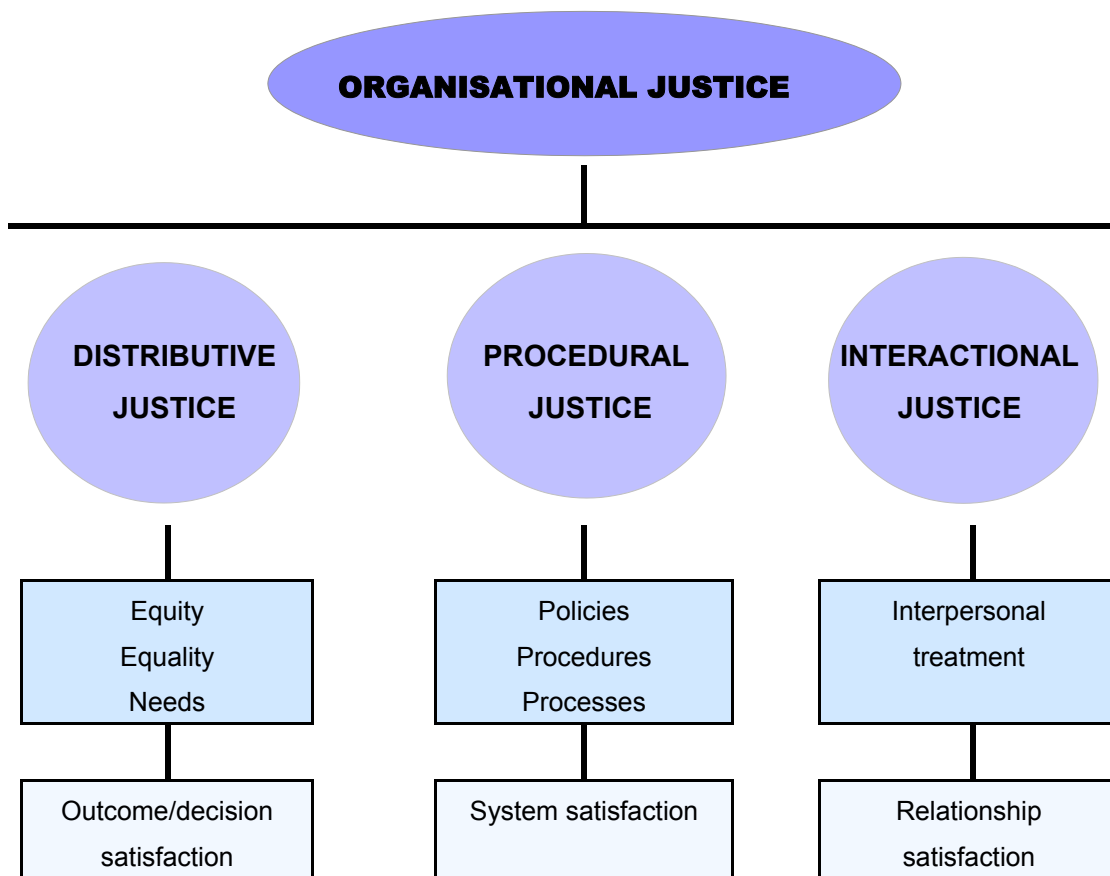
The perceived justice of some decision or action is thus made by deciding whether the decision or action appears to be distributively and procedurally fair.

Related to the concepts of balance and correctness, theorists have distinguished between conceptualisations of justice that focus on *content* — the fairness of the outcome or decision (*distributive*



justice) and those that focus on *processes* — the fairness of the methods and procedures used to determine the decision or outcome (*procedural justice*). As research expanded, a third type of justice, which focused on the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive, (*interactional justice*), was identified. Since distributive, procedural and interactional justice play a role in an individual's perception of the fairness of treatment, they all form part of organisational justice. Figure 4.1 illustrates the various types of justice and their interrelatedness. Each of these types of justice will be discussed in order to link fairness principles to employees' perceptions of AA.

FIGURE 4.1: ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE



Source: Adapted from Greenberg (1990)

4.3 DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

Historically, Adams's (1965) equity theory has been the main focus of organisational scientists interested in issues of justice. This theory claims that people compare the ratios of their own perceived work outcomes (rewards) to their own perceived work inputs (contributions) with the corresponding ratios of a co-worker. If the ratios are unequal, the person whose ratio is higher is theorised to be inequitably overpaid, whereas the person whose ratio is lower is theorised to be inequitably underpaid. The equity theory predicted that comparatively low rewards would produce dissatisfaction. This discontent would then

motivate individuals to take action that reduces the discrepancy between their ratio and that of their coworker. According to Adams (1965), an over-reward situation will result in a person experiencing guilt, shame or remorse. These emotions are also negative and should therefore motivate the individual to reduce the imbalance (Cropanzano, 1993). Various studies have been conducted to determine how employees behave when they perceive an injustice. With enabling legislation such as the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and the Promotion of Equality and the Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000, managers should pay close attention to justice violations in the workplace since these may give rise to employees' lawsuits which, if successful, could bring about various remedies. Injustices, however, can also generate negative consequences that are less direct. Various studies have examined the influence of fair treatment of employees on organisational variables such as job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), trust in and loyalty to the leader (Deluga, 1994), organisational citizenship behaviour (Morrison, 1994) and employee theft (Greenberg, 1990). The fair and equal treatment of employees will increase job satisfaction, improve relationships between supervisors and employees, encourage organisational citizenship behaviour and reduce cases of employee theft, thus also benefiting the organisation.

According to Leventhal (1976), people use three major justice rules to determine outcome justice: the contributions rule (*equity rule*), the *needs rule*, and the *equality rule*. The purpose of outcomes or decisions based on the equity rule is to achieve productivity and a high level of performance. The equality rule is used when the goal is to preserve social harmony, while the needs rule is applied when the objective is to foster personal welfare. As far as AA is concerned, decisions are often made by applying the equality rule.

One source of frustration with the equity theory in explaining organisational justice was its lack of specificity regarding the reactions that would occur when inequity was experienced. Organisational scientists thus began to raise questions about justice in various organisational settings, something which was not adequately addressed by prevailing theories of justice. Specifically, questions on how pay plans were administered and what grievance resolution practices were followed in organisations, prompted concerns about fairness that were more process oriented. The focus thus shifted to *how* decisions were made as opposed to *what* those decisions were.

4.4 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE

Outcomes or decisions (distributive justice) are not the only relevant issue to an individual — the way one is treated is equally important. According to Skarlicki and Latham (1996), as quoted by Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), procedural justice refers to the extent to which fair procedures and processes are in place and adhered to and to which individuals see their leaders as being fair and sincere and logical or rational in what they do. Folger and Cropanzano (1998:26) define procedural justice as the “fairness issues concerning the methods, mechanisms, and processes used to determine outcomes”.

4.7

In 1975, Thibaut and Walker conducted research into employees' reactions to the dispute resolution process. This led to the development of their theory of procedural justice. According to these authors, employees judge the fairness of procedures according to two types of control: the amount of control they have over the procedures used to make a decision (referred to as *process control*) and the amount of control they have over influencing the decision (referred to as *decision control*). People want procedures that allow them to feel that they have participated in developing a decision that will affect them. Being able to voice their opinions thus affords them the opportunity to influence others' decisions. Further research revealed that procedures that provided employees with opportunities to influence a decision were perceived as fairer than procedures that denied process control.

Related to the study on control over processes and decisions, Lind and Tyler (1988) developed the self-interest and the group-value models of procedural justice. The self-interest model suggests that people seek decision control because they are concerned with maximising their own outcomes. However, when individuals have to cooperate with others in groups to achieve outcomes, the group-value model comes into play, and the focus shifts from decision control to process control. Procedures are then regarded as more important in attaining fair or favourable outcomes. The group-value model explains the value-expressive effects of process control. Group identity and group procedures are two elements that govern the functioning of groups. People consider procedures that allow them to express their opinions (voice) to be fair, for they can participate in group processes as valuable group members. Even if "voice" does not produce a favourable outcome, it enhances perceived procedural justice because its value-expressive function confirms the values of group participation and group membership status.

In further research, Tyler and Lind (1992) developed a relational model of authority in groups. According to the authors three relational concerns with the authority affect procedural justice judgments: *trust*, *neutrality* and *standing*. Trustworthiness can be measured by rating the manager's fairness and ethicality. If the manager behaves fairly and considers the needs and views of the individual, then he can be trusted. Trust involves beliefs about the manager's intentions. Neutrality can be judged in terms of the person's unbiased decision making in the use of facts. Standing refers to status recognition that is indicated to people by a manager who treats them with dignity, politeness and respect for their rights. By looking at the procedures a manager uses, individuals can judge whether they will be treated fairly with regard to the manager's relational concerns of trust, neutrality and standing.

Related to Thibaut and Walker's research on the importance of process and decision control for fairness perceptions, Leventhal, Karuza and Fry (1980) identified seven components of procedures that lead to justice attainment:

- (1) the selection of decision makers
- (2) setting ground rules (criteria) for evaluating rewards
- (3) methods for collecting information
- (4) procedures for defining the decision process

4.8

- (5) safeguards against abuse of power
- (6) procedures for appeals
- (7) the availability of change mechanisms (to change a unfair decision)

According to these authors, the fairness of procedures is evaluated by applying six justice rules. Procedures are regarded as fair to the extent that they

- (1) suppress bias
- (2) create consistent allocations
- (3) rely on accurate information
- (4) are correctable
- (5) represent the concerns of all recipients
- (6) are based on moral and ethical standards

Thus far, the discussion has focused on the attributes of a fair procedure. Very little has been said about the positive impact procedural justice has on employees' behaviour. According to Skarlicki and Foyger (1997) as quoted by Ivancevich and Matteson (2002), the positive consequences of procedural justice include

- organisational commitment
- intent to stay with the organisation
- organisational citizenship
- trust in supervisor
- satisfaction with decisions made
- work effort
- performance

As indicated by the above list, employee commitment is a direct consequence of fair treatment — hence the discussion of the impact of procedural justice and perceptions of the fairness of AA on employees' commitment in chapter 5.

As research has extended the original conceptualisations of procedural justice, it has become clear that perceptions of procedural justice are influenced by factors that go beyond the formal procedures used to resolve disputes or allocate rewards. In particular, it has been demonstrated that judgments of procedural justice are influenced by two important factors: the interpersonal treatment people receive from decision makers and the adequacy with which formal decision making procedures are explained (Bies & Moag, 1986). These justice appraisals based on the quality of interpersonal treatment are known as interactional justice.

4.5 INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE

Theorists on organisational behaviour have not yet reached consensus on whether interactional justice forms part of procedural justice or whether it should be regarded as a third type of justice. Bies and Moag (1986) state that interactional justice denotes individuals' concerns about the quality of the interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organisational procedures. Folger and Cropanzano (1998) consider a decision-making process to consist of both the formal structural component represented by Leventhal's six justice rules, and the informal interactions between the decision makers and the recipients that represent interactional justice. They therefore believe that interactional justice should form part of procedural justice. Bies and Moag (1986), however, maintain that interactional justice can be distinguished from procedural justice because procedures refer to the structural quality of the decision process, whereas interactional justice refers to a social exchange between two participants. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, interactional justice will be regarded as a third type of justice.

Bies and Moag (1986:44) identified the term "interactional justice" which refers to people's sensitivity to "the quality of interpersonal treatment they receive during the enactment of organisational procedures" and pinpointed the following four attributes of interpersonally fair procedures:

- (1) truthfulness
- (2) respect
- (3) propriety of questions
- (4) justification

The first three attributes deal with the nature of the communication while it is occurring. The last one (justification) has to do with removing any discontent following an unfair procedure. Each of these attributes will now be briefly discussed.

- (1) *Truthfulness.* Truthfulness consists of two components: deception and candidness. Employees do not like being deceived and expect to be treated in a forthright manner. Organisations should therefore provide them with realistic and accurate information.
- (2) *Respect.* Individuals expect to be treated politely and respectfully. This means that insults or discourteous behaviour should be avoided at all cost.
- (3) *Propriety of questions.* The propriety of questions refers to two components. Firstly, questions should not be considered *improper* by their very nature, and secondly, they should not involve *prejudicial* statements.
- (4) *Justification.* Justification comes into play following negative outcomes or unfair treatment. It may be possible to rectify an injustice with an adequate justification. According to Bies and Shapiro

(1988), a sense of anger over injustice can be reduced or eliminated by providing the unfairly treated individual with a social account such as an explanation or apology. People expect events that affect them to be explained. If they do not receive an explanation, they doubt whether they have been treated in accordance with a socially rooted expectation for fair processes in human interaction (Weaver, 2001). Respect and concern constitute informal social goods, and failing to receive them is seen as a violation of justice expectations.

Although some researchers have stopped separating procedural and interactional justice, the general perspective is that organisations should see justice in a broader social context. Both formal procedures and the social side of organisational justice are important in predicting work outcomes and understanding organisational behaviour.

4.6 EMPLOYEES' BEHAVIOUR IN RESPONSE TO INJUSTICE

The experience of injustice is hurtful to individuals and harmful to organisations. Few benefit from unfairness, although many are harmed. In the face of this, organisations should reduce injustice by studying employees' responses to injustices and prepare written guidelines, procedures and policies to make decisions and engender fairness. This section discusses employees' behaviour when they experience injustice and provides guidelines on what organisations can do to improve the perceived fairness of practices.

Several years ago, Felstiner, Abel and Sarat, as quoted by Sheppard et al (1992) described the sequence of activities followed by people when they perceive an injustice as the "naming and blaming" process.

4.6.1 Naming

Naming refers to the initial identification of a fair or unfair outcome, procedure or system. Suffice to say that if something has not been identified as unfair, then no action will be taken, even if extreme injustice exists. Employees deem an action, procedure or system to be unfair only if their attention is drawn to it. One means of perpetrating an injustice with impunity therefore is either to hide it or direct employees' attention away from it. For example, organisations may maintain strict secrecy about certain matters in order to protect policies from public scrutiny that might stimulate accusations of perceived injustice regarding such things as pay systems, budget allocations or AA appointments.

The degree of perceived injustice is of vital importance in determining how someone will respond to the injustice. Perceived injustice is often determined by assessing the degree of perceived discrepancy from the rule being applied. According to Folger (1984), the degree of perceived injustice is at least partially determined by our ability to envision alternatives to the unjust condition. If no alternatives exist, employees will more readily accept the unjust condition. One way of limiting employees' sense of injustice would therefore include keeping them ignorant of alternatives. Many action groups in organisations have built their "businesses" around their ability to help others identify and label perceived injustices such as

discrimination, abuse, exploitation or unfair treatment. Once identified, these groups also help to transform the perceived injustice into a grievance, by clearly attributing blame.

4.6.2 Blaming

Although people try to resolve problems without knowing their cause, they usually attempt to determine what or who is to blame for the injustice, so that they can focus their effort on the agent of the problem. The process of allocating blame progresses from determining cause to determining responsibility to determining blame. Without knowing who or what caused injustice, people cannot decide blame.

Injustices can be attributed to any one of three distinct entities: the *person*, *procedure* or *system*. An outcome may be considered unfair because an unfair decision was made. Similarly, the procedure determining the outcome or the system may have been unfair. In real life, it is often not clear which component is truly responsible for the injustice. According to Crosby (1984), people initially tend not to blame systems, and are unlikely to blame systems for two reasons: individuals do not have sufficient information to question that system and most individuals do not wish to question the system.

A second complication of attributing blame concerns the data people use to form a judgment. The primary problem is to determine whether individuals or their environment are most to blame. In the context of judgments about injustices, established criteria exist for evaluating the fairness of a procedure and a system. First, information about the individual (intelligence, rationality and consistency) is used to make judgments about the probability that the individual's environment is to blame. Second, information about the environment is used to determine whether the individual is to blame. When an injustice occurs and the procedures and system seem to be fair, logic suggests that the actor who produced the injustice is to blame.

Another complicating factor in attributing blame is that people have extremely strong, prior beliefs about the likely sources of injustice. These prior beliefs vary as a function of social class, cultural background, socioeconomic status and individual personality. If, for example, black employees believe that the organisation is not committed to their development and progression, they might not continue with their studies because they do not expect good results to be equitably rewarded.

Finally, sometimes it is not possible to attribute blame, because no real injustice has occurred. In such instances, predicting the individual's allocation of blame is difficult, since there are no clear indicators of blame. The more difficult it is to attribute blame, the more hostile, alienated, and disaffected an individual may become. According to Sheppard et al (1992), the above-mentioned principles in attributing blame hold the following implications for the organisation:

- The causes of injustice at any level may be diagnostic of potential injustice at other levels.
- If a procedure is fair then a person is likely to receive the blame.
- People will continue to blame that element to which they usually attribute blame.

- Although blame for injustice can be widely shared, it rarely is. We tend to concentrate blame on a single, favourite source.
- People tend not to blame systems, and if they do, this will happen only after explanations of “people” and “procedures” have been proven to be inadequate.

Having determined the target of blame, a person must make one more decision: how much responsibility and blame to attribute to the target. According to Sheppard et al (1992), people base their judgment on three criteria: (1) Was the perceived injustice intentional? (2) Could the injustice and its consequences have been controlled? and (3) Did the person provide any excuse or justification for his or her actions?

According to Bies (1987), excuses and mitigating circumstances can be used to pre-empt blame for unjust acts. People can provide explanations for potentially unfair behaviour or procedures before they occur, and thus mitigate others' responses to the injustice. According to Sheppard et al (1992), common explanations used by organisations to soften the impact of an injustice include the following:

- “We didn't really have any choice.”
- “You would have made the same decision had you been in my shoes.”
- “The policy on AA appointments is very prescriptive.”
- “The system wasn't designed to handle problems like this.”
- “If we look at this problem from (a different) perspective, the decision is completely reasonable.”

In lieu of an excuse, organisations can also provide an apology to justify injustices. An apology plays a similar role to an excuse, but assumes a different form. An apology involves the acceptance of blame, the acknowledgement of wrongdoing, and the implication that the behavioural or procedural elements that caused the problem will not occur again. In other words, there is no need for a person to take action to fix the injustice since the agent recognises the wrongdoing, has learned from it, and will make sure that it will never occur again.

4.7 ACTING ON INJUSTICE

Having decided that someone or something is to blame for an injustice, a person must next decide what, if anything, to do about it. A number of factors influence the degree to which someone feels a need to act on an injustice.

4.7.1 Factors influencing a person's need to act on an injustice

The two most important factors include the impact of the injustice on the perceiver; and the level of concern for limiting future injustice.

4.7.1.1 *The impact of the injustice*

The need to punish the cause of an injustice is a direct function of both the perceived *magnitude of the injustice* itself, and the degree to which one holds a particular *person responsible* for creating the injustice. The perceived magnitude of injustice is a function of the level of *discrepancy from the relevant standards* of fairness held for behaviour in that situation, and the level of discrepancy from the best envisioned alternative to the current situation. If, for example, a manager uses his or her influence to ensure that a family member receives a promotion while other employees are not informed about the vacancy or afforded the opportunity to apply, unfairly treated employees will act on the injustice because:

- a gross injustice has occurred (magnitude of injustice)
- the manager can be held responsible for the injustice (person responsible)
- there was a clear deviation from procedures (discrepancy from standards)

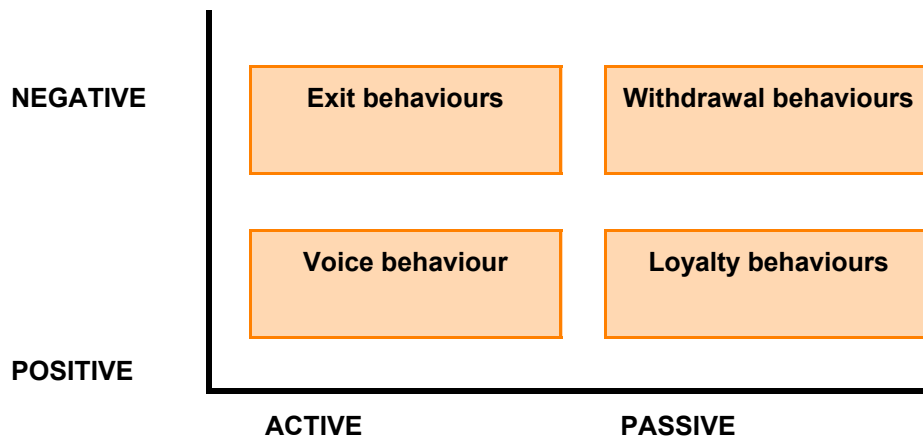
4.7.1.2 *Limiting future injustice*

The second factor driving the need to respond is a function of the perceived probability that the injustice will persist into the future if left unattended. However, the decision to respond also depends on the probability that a person will be able to bring about changes. There is no value in responding to injustices where there is no likelihood of perpetuation. People have different reasons for responding to injustices. Some are more retributive in their responses, while others are more focused on deterrence and adopt “an eye for an eye” approach.

Individuals can pursue a number of alternative courses of action to deal with injustice. According to Sheppard et al (1992), employees generally deal with injustices in one of four ways. Firstly, they live with the injustice and continue as if nothing has happened. Secondly, they can change their behaviour to remove the injustice — for example, they can work less hard if their efforts are not equitably rewarded. Thirdly, they can rationalise the injustice by renaming, removing or redefining it. Lastly, employees can decide to resign or request a transfer in order to avoid confronting continued injustice.

Rusbult, Zembrodt and Gunn (1982) proposed a two-dimensional model of behavioural responses to dissatisfaction. According to them, behaviours can be located along a dimension of positive (constructive) to negative (destructive), and active to passive. Based on these two dimensions, four quadrants of behaviour, as illustrated in figure 4.2, are identified.

FIGURE 4.2: BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSES TO DISSATISFACTION



Source: Rusbult et al (1982)

Hirschman (1970) suggests an alternative response to injustice, namely: *voice*. He argues that a primary factor determining whether exit or voice is chosen is the individual's degree of loyalty to the organisation. Highly loyal employees will be more likely either to rationalise and cope with the injustice or attempt to change the organisation and remove the injustice.

Knowledge of the determinants of responses to injustice is necessary if managers are to develop functioning organisations. Successful organisations are ones that not only minimise the number of incidents of perceived injustice, but also create the mechanisms to direct the perceived injustices into channels that will effectively manage and deal with the responses injustice engenders.

With reference to figure 4.2, organisations will benefit the most from employees who deal with injustices *actively* and *positively*. Such employees will do something about the injustice in a constructive way such as bringing it to management's attention. This will enable the organisation to review its practices and prevent future problems. In addition, by affording employees the opportunity to raise their concerns, by responding to their inputs and by providing them with explanations and feedback, the value of employees is recognised. This, in turn, will lead to committed and loyal employees.

However, employees who respond to perceived injustices *passively* and *negatively* are harmful to the organisation. They are dissatisfied with their circumstances but do nothing to change it. Instead, they engage in withdrawal behaviour and make no attempt to contribute to the success of the organisation.

4.7.2 Factors influencing choice of action

When employees experience an injustice and have to choose what to do, they base their decision on two factors, namely the cost and the benefits of a response. The cost of a response could, for example,

include the creation of conflict, victimisation, resentment, retaliation, loss of reputation, emotional costs of action, lost opportunities, a sense of failure, strained interpersonal relationships, and so forth. The benefits of a response could include the system, procedures and practices being reviewed or a decision being reversed. Obviously an employee will choose the alternative that maximises the value of the action.

Part of determining the benefits of a response involves calculating the impact of a response and the probability that it can be successfully completed. According to Sheppard et al (1992), several aspects of the individual and the situation have an influence on the probable success of each course of action. These include the following:

- the degree to which an employee feels that he or she has control over the factors necessary to take effective action
- the degree to which an employee believes his or her personality and values are consistent with a particular course of action
- the degree to which a clear route for action is available and visible
- the degree to which others agree with and support the employee's opinion about the existence of an injustice and how to proceed

4.7.2.1 Level of perceived control

The degree to which one will actively respond is related to the level to which one feels one has any control over the cause of the injustice. Perceived lack of control comes from three main sources. First, it is related to one's general sense of *perceived efficacy*. Some people feel that they can effect change, or get things done, more than others. Second, perceived control is related to *real and perceived power*. If a person thinks he or she does not have the resources, information, status or support necessary to influence the cause of an injustice, he or she will not act to rectify the injustice. Third, perceived control is related to the degree to which a person feels he or she *understands* the cause of the injustice.

4.7.2.2 The predisposition of the unfairly treated individual

The likelihood of actively responding to an injustice is also affected by the qualities of the unfairly treated person. People who feel they are generally competent are more likely to act than those who feel they are incompetent. Individual differences in the tendency to *approach* or *avoid* a situation also influence a person's degree of active coping behaviour. People who have an approach orientation actively strive to cope with their problem, while those with an avoidance orientation tend to rationalise the problem away and deny it, and denigrate themselves. Furthermore, past feelings of injustice can accumulate to influence current action. People who have experienced persistent injustice from a particular source will be more likely to act on that injustice.

4.7.2.3 *Clear route for action*

One reason for a person not acting on an injustice is that there is no obvious way to respond. Take, for example, the increasing number of complaints and grievances lodged during the past few years. Grievance procedures provide employees with information and the means to address any injustices, and they are therefore more likely to act on an injustice.

4.7.2.4 *Shared perceptions with others*

As indicated earlier, because perceptions of justice are not an objective reality but a social judgment, people are likely to seek confirmation of their opinions before deciding on a course of action. When a person discovers that others disagree with his or her opinion, he or she will become less certain about the judgment and less likely to act on it.

4.8 HANDLING EMPLOYEES' REACTIONS TO INJUSTICES

Employees who experience an injustice tend to act irrationally and emotionally when no avenue exists for reducing the injustice, when the chosen action has not fully solved the injustice, when the feelings from the existing injustice are managed without taking the future into consideration and when the unfairly treated employee is too angry to react rationally. These situations suggest that an organisation can do a number of things to channel reactions to injustice into forms that are less emotion driven, and thus easier for the organisation to handle. Organisations should consider the following options to manage employees' feelings about perceived injustices:

4.8.1 Eliminate gross injustices

First, organisations should avoid engaging in gross injustices. Although it is impossible to eliminate all forms of injustice and there are too many criteria for determining justice, injustices that do exist should be reasonable in scale.

4.8.2 Provide accessible and effective mechanisms for responses to injustices

Providing a controlled, accessible, responsive, nonretributive means of allowing employees to vent their ill-will and receive some reasonable response from the organisation can serve to avoid more harmful, emotional responses and reduce the perceived need for further action. One of the mechanisms that organisations can use to assure procedural fairness is to afford employees the opportunity to be heard in the organisation. This opportunity to express feelings and opinions is known as *voice*.

4.8.3 Allow employee voice

According to Sheppard et al (1992), voice serves two critical roles in assuring procedural fairness: a *preventive* and a *remedial* role. Preventive voice is the process whereby organisations create mechanisms

that permit employees to express their views about policies, procedures or key decisions in organisational governance and management. By providing opportunities for input by those influenced by a decision, organisations will likely be seen as more fair in the first instance. Remedial voice mechanisms afford individuals the opportunity to express concerns about a decision that has already been made. This form of voice consists of efforts by employees to question organisational practices, for the purposes of gaining more information about them, challenging them or attempting to change them.

Remedial voice serves a number of key functions. Its primary function is to reduce the level of dissatisfaction and distress in the employee experiencing an injustice. It also provides diagnostic feedback to the organisation by indicating that some policy or practice is not working. It thus serves to alert the organisation to the fact that some employees find a policy or practice unfair. By identifying and notifying management of injustices, it enables the organisation to correct or make changes as necessary. Voice does not, however, assure that such changes or corrections will be made. Lastly, voice creates the opportunity for a new level of knowledge and understanding about the areas in which problems may be encountered in the future. This information enables the manager to design and implement future policies and practices so that justice concerns will not be raised.

The fair treatment of employees is important for three reasons: (1) to improve performance effectiveness, (2) to enhance the sense of organisational commitment, and (3) to sustain individual dignity and humaneness. Closely related to these reasons are the functions of voice systems which include:

- assuring employees' fair treatment
- providing a context in which unfair treatment can be appealed
- improving the organisation's effectiveness
- sustaining employee loyalty and commitment

The first two functions meet the dignity and humaneness goal, the third meets the performance effectiveness goal, and the last meets the commitment goal. One can thus conclude that a voice system has a direct influence on the perceived fairness of an organisation. However, for a voice system to function effectively it has to meet certain criteria. Without going into too much detail, the attributes of an effective voice system, as identified by Sheppard et al (1992), are listed in table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2: ATTRIBUTES OF EFFECTIVE VOICE SYSTEMS

<p>DESIGN</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Simple procedures Broad application Vested authority Good diagnostic system <p>RESPONSIVENESS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Timely Tangible results Management commitment Considered inputs 	<p>CORRECTNESS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Administered well Provides follow-up Solve problems in an unbiased, thorough and effective manner <p>ACCESSIBILITY</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Easy to use Well advertised <p>NON-PUNITIVENESS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Anonymity, Nonretributive Confidentiality
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Source: Sheppard et al (1992)

The purpose of organisational voice systems is to channel organisational dissatisfaction into acceptable forms and to respond to that dissatisfaction. Viewed from the individual perspective, they provide mechanisms for hearing employee concerns and complaints. Viewed from the organisational perspective, they serve as vehicles for stimulating feedback and commentary while maintaining control over the challenges and threats to management or even to the organisation's existence.

In understanding what organisational justice entails, an attempt should be made to apply fairness principles to the AA domain. In the next section the fairness of AA will be evaluated against organisational justice criteria.

4.9 MANAGING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRLY

In order to determine the fairness of AA, one needs to understand the meaning of the concepts of *fairness* and *affirmative action*. As defined in chapter 2, AA refers to the creation of a workforce that is representative of the population. In order to achieve this, organisations need to make use of fair discriminatory interventions to appoint, promote or develop employees from previously disadvantaged groups. Justice refers to the fairness of a *decision*, the *procedure* used in making that decision and the *interpersonal treatment* an employee receives during the enactment of these procedures.

If a decision to appoint or promote an AA candidate is made in accordance with the provisions of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, there is not much an organisation can do about the perceived fairness of it. There are, however, various ways in which such a decision can be made — hence the need for organisations to ensure that the procedures, policies and processes they use in making appointment or promotion decisions are procedurally fair and viewed as such by employees.

Several principles of procedural justice are cited in the literature. The following list summarises the principles of fairness referred to in seven recent articles on procedural justice (De Witt, 1998; Gopinatha

& Becker, 2000; Harris, 2000; Konovsky, 2000; Saxby, Tat, Johansen, 2000; Simerson, L'Heureux, Beckstein, ZiaMian, Dembowski & Freshman, 2000; Tang & Sarfield-Baldwin, 1996; Tata, 2000):

- Provide advance notice of intent or decisions.
- Provide accurate information and adequate feedback.
- Support two-way communication.
- Explain and justify decisions.
- Allow employees to influence the decision.
- Consider the interests, views and concerns of all recipients.
- Permit appeal, review, reconsideration and correction.
- Treat employees with dignity, respect and sensitivity.
- Apply administrative procedures consistently.

The primary principles of procedural justice, as identified by Leventhal et al. (1980) and which are similar to the principles listed above are briefly discussed below.

4.9.1 Selection of decision makers

Any decisions that need to be made about the AA policy, appointment of applicants, determination of appointment and promotional criteria, budget, grievances lodged, and so forth, should be made by a panel of members. Of even greater importance is the composition of the panel. Panel members should be representative of all interest groups and consist of men and women from all ethnic groups. This will prevent unfair discrimination and afford all employees equal opportunities.

4.9.2 Setting ground rules (criteria) for evaluating rewards

Clear guidelines and criteria should be referred to when making decisions. If the AA policy regulates the issue at hand, the policy should be adhered to and applied consistently to all candidates.

4.9.3 Methods for collecting information

The *methods* for collecting information as well as the *type of information* collected should be the same for all candidates. If a decision needs to be made about who to promote in a department, the performance appraisal report cannot be referred to for one candidate but a personal interview conducted with the supervisor for another. Using the same procedures for collecting information and obtaining the same type of information for all candidates will reduce the possibility of prejudice and bias influencing the final decision.

4.9.4 Procedures for defining the decision process

Procedures that outline the decision process and are followed consistently will protect employers against accusations of favouritism and nepotism. Affirmative action candidates, for example, will have to go through each step in the selection process and be evaluated according to the same selection criteria used

for other applicants. Preferential treatment with regard to a procedure will be regarded as a gross injustice.

4.9.5 Safeguards against abuse of power

Although the Employment Equity Act prohibits any form of discrimination, subtle forms of discrimination still occur in organisations. This is usually the case when employees come up against the power of managers. In order to protect employees against the abuse of power, mechanisms should be in place to afford them the opportunity to voice their concerns. The most common known mechanisms available in organisations include the following:

- committees that allow employee input
- senior management visits, during which employees can meet with senior officials and openly ask questions about organisation strategy, policies or raise concerns about unfair treatment
- grievance procedures
- open-door policies
- suggestion boxes

4.9.6 Procedures for appeals

Unresolved disputes and dissatisfaction create tension and lead to behaviour such as withdrawal, resignations and other destructive actions such as sabotage and retaliation. The organisation should thus provide a mechanism through which employees can channel their dissatisfaction and receive feedback. The grievance procedure is an example of such a mechanism.

4.9.7 The availability of change mechanisms

This component refers to the reversibility of a decision. Employees will regard a procedure as fair if they have the assurance that the procedure makes provision for injustices to be rectified.

Perceptions of procedural fairness are, however, also influenced by factors that go beyond the formal procedures used to make decisions. The interpersonal treatment employees receive from decision makers also influences their perceptions about the fairness of AA.

Take, for example, the situation in which employees attend an interview in the hope of receiving a promotion. Management decide to promote an AA candidate despite the fact that some of the other employees have more work experience. The rejected employees discover afterwards that the decision to promote the AA candidate was made long before the interviews took place and they were conducted merely for formality purposes. From an interactional justice point of view, the interpersonal treatment the rejected employees received was, to say the least, pathetic. For procedures to be viewed as interpersonally fair, managers should be *truthful* to employees, treat them with *respect* and *justify* their decision. If the rejected employees were informed about the priority of an AA appointment, were shown

respect by not giving them false expectations or inviting them to an interview under false intentions and were provided with an explanation for not being promoted, they would have perceived their treatment as fair and more easily have accepted the decision.

4.10 SUMMARY

There is clear evidence that people care about justice. Organisations thus have to pursue it, as measured by reality as well as by perceptions. Unfortunately, the conclusion that it is better to be behaviourally just is too simple. In pursuing principles of distributive justice, it is not possible to achieve all criteria simultaneously. The base criteria of equity, equality and need are incompatible. Thus, organisations are left with a superordinate problem: how to achieve balance between the three principles of distributive justice. One possibility is to determine which of the goals is most important to a given situation.

Regarding procedural justice, organisations have to ensure that the procedures, processes and policies they use in making decisions are fair. Employees judge the fairness of procedures according to two types of control they have, namely the amount of control they have over the procedures used to make a decision and the amount of control they have over influencing the decision. Procedures are regarded as fair to the extent that they suppress bias, create consistent allocations, rely on accurate information, are correctable, represent the concerns of all recipients, and are based on moral and ethical standards.

A third type of justice, namely interactional justice, refers to the interpersonal treatment employees receive during the enactment of organisational procedures. Procedures are seen as interpersonally fair when they make provision for truthfulness, allow for the respectful treatment of employees, eliminate the chances of improper questions being asked and provide reasons or explanations for perceived injustices.

Employees can respond in various ways to a perceived injustice. They can live with it, change their behaviour to remove the injustice, rationalise it or leave (resign from) the organisation. The experience of injustice is harmful to individuals and organisations — hence the need for organisations to eliminate injustices, provide accessible and effective mechanisms for responses to injustices and allow employees to voice their concerns.

In this chapter the meaning of organisational justice was discussed with a view to explaining how employees make fairness judgments. The discussion extended theories from the organisational justice literature to the AA domain in order to advance the understanding of AA fairness. Employees' reactions to injustices and the way organisations should deal with perceptions of injustices were also highlighted.

The next chapter deals with employee commitment and the possible influence perceptions of AA fairness have on employees' commitment.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

No organisation in today's competitive world can perform at peak levels unless each employee is committed to the organisation's objectives and works as an effective team member. It is no longer good enough to have employees who come to work faithfully everyday and do their jobs independently. Employees now have to think like entrepreneurs while working in teams, and have to prove their worth. However, they also want to be part of a successful organisation which provides a good income and the opportunity for development and secure employment.

In the past, organisations secured the loyalty of their employees by guaranteeing job security. However, many organisations have responded to competitive pressures by downsizing, restructuring and transformation and thus created a less secure organisational climate. A growing number of employees therefore feel that they are victims of broken promises. One of the challenges facing modern organisations involves maintaining employee commitment in the current business environment. This organisations can achieve by developing a new "work contract". In today's workplace, employees face more ambiguity in their daily activities and decreased job security (Bergmann, Lester, De Meuse & Grahn, 2000). With no assurance of continued employment, workers have now raised their expectations in other areas. For instance, employees expect employers to demonstrate their commitment in terms of pleasant working conditions, access to training and development, provision of a safe working environment and a balance between work and employees' commitments outside the workplace.

Organisations are faced with ever-increasing competition and as they prepare for new challenges, one of the key components of survival is maintaining and upgrading the organisation's ability to use human resources effectively and efficiently. According to Katz (1964), employee behaviour essential for organisational effectiveness includes employees (1) entering and remaining with the organisation, (2) carrying out specific role requirements, and (3) engaging in innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond role prescriptions. The appointment of good workers is thus critical, but of even greater significance is the organisation's ability to create a committed workforce. Hence the need for managers to understand the concept of commitment - what it is, how it operates, and most importantly, which behaviours are displayed by employees committed to the organisation.

The importance of employee commitment is quite evident if one considers prior research into the relationship between commitment and job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), workplace justice

(Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1992), trust in and loyalty to the leader (Deluga, 1994) and perceptions of supervisor fairness (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

One of the aims of this study is to determine how employees' perceptions of AA fairness influence their commitment, and the meaning of the concept will therefore be explained with reference to Meyer and Allen's three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment. The importance of employee commitment, the factors affecting it and how organisations should build employee commitment will also be discussed. A concept known as *organisational citizenship behaviours* is closely related to commitment and will also be discussed in order to link it to perceptions about AA fairness.

5.2 DEFINING COMMITMENT

Over the years, commitment has been defined and measured in many different ways. Indeed, this lack of consensus in the definition of the term has contributed greatly to its treatment as a multidimensional construct (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Even if multiple dimensions or forms of commitment exist, there has to be a core essence that characterises it. To establish what that core essence is, one has to look for commonality among the existing conceptualisations. Table 5.1 provides a set of definitions taken from the literature. As indicated by Meyer and Herscovitch (2001), all of these definitions refer to a *force* that directs a person's behaviour. There appears to be consensus that the force is experienced as a mind-set (ie a frame of mind or psychological state).

TABLE 5.1: DEFINITIONS OF COMMITMENT

- "... a stabilizing force that acts to maintain behavioural direction when expectancy/equity conditions are not met and do not function" (Scholl, 1981).
"... a force that stabilizes individual behavior under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change that behavior" (Brickman, 1987).
- "... an obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims" (Brown, 1996).
- "... the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation" (Mowday et al, 1979).
- "... the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization" (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).
- "... a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Source: Adapted from Meyer & Herscovitch (2001:311)

The authors, however, disagree about the nature of the mind-set and therefore different types (dimensions) of commitment are therefore identified. Table 5.2 presents definitions of the different forms of commitment provided in several multidimensional models of organisational commitment. Differences between the multidimensional frameworks stem largely from the different motives and strategies involved in their development. The existence of so many different multidimensional frameworks poses a problem for the development of a general model of workplace commitment and makes it difficult to answer a simple question such as “What is commitment?”

TABLE 5.2: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT IN MULTIDIMENSIONAL MODELS

<p>Angle and Perry (1981)</p> <p><i>Value commitment</i> <i>Commitment to stay</i></p>	<p>Commitment to support the goals of the organisation Commitment to retain their organisational membership</p>
<p>O’Reilly and Chatman (1986)</p> <p><i>Compliance</i> <i>Identification</i> <i>Internalization</i></p>	<p>Instrumental involvement for specific extrinsic rewards Attachment based on a desire for affiliation with the organisation Involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organisational values</p>
<p>Penley and Gould (1988)</p> <p><i>Moral</i> <i>Calculative</i> <i>Alienative</i></p>	<p>Acceptance of and identification with organisational goals A commitment to an organisation which is based on the employee’s receiving inducements to match contributions Organisational attachment which results when an employee no longer perceives that there are rewards commensurate with investments; yet he remains due to environmental pressures</p>
<p>Meyer and Allen (1991)</p> <p><i>Affective</i> <i>Continuance</i> <i>Normative</i></p>	<p>The employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation An awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation A feeling of obligation to continue employment</p>
<p>Mayer and Schoorman (1992)</p> <p><i>Value</i> <i>Continuance</i></p>	<p>A belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation The desire to remain a member of the organisation</p>

TABLE 5.2 (continued)

5.4

Jaros et al (1993)	
<i>Affective</i>	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through feelings such as loyalty, affection, warmth, belongingness, pleasure, etc.
<i>Continuance</i>	The degree to which an individual experiences a sense of being locked in place because of the high costs of leaving
<i>Moral</i>	The degree to which an individual is psychologically attached to an organisation through internalization of its goals, values and missions

Source: Adapted from Meyer & Herscovitch (2001:320)

Since it is not the purpose of this study to examine the dimensionality of commitment, only those models that have generated the most research and which best explain commitment in terms of organisational behaviour — the models developed by Meyer and Allen, and O'Reilly and Chatman — will be discussed.

5.3 A THREE-COMPONENT CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT: MODEL DEVELOPED BY MEYER AND ALLEN

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), organisational commitment reflects at least three general themes: affective attachment to the organisation, the perceived costs associated with leaving it and the obligation to remain with it. These three approaches are referred to as *affective*, *continuance* and *normative* commitment. Common to these three approaches is the view that commitment is a psychological state that characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation and has implications for the decision to continue membership of it. These psychological states also have different implications for work-relevant behaviour.

5.3.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they *want to*. According to Mowday (1982), the antecedents of affective commitment generally fall into four categories: (1) *personal characteristics*, (2) *structural characteristics (organisational)*, (3) *job-related characteristics*, and (4) *work experiences*. Although various research studies have been conducted to link demographic characteristics such as age, tenure, gender and education to commitment, the relations were neither strong nor consistent, the reason being too many variables such as job status, work rewards and work values moderating the relationship. Relatively few studies have examined the relationship between organisational characteristics and commitment. However, research has proved that affective commitment is related to decentralisation of decision making and formalisation of policy and procedures. In contrast to personal and organisational characteristics, a considerable amount of research has been conducted into the relationship between work experience

5.5

variables and affective commitment. Work experience variables that have been found to correlate with affective commitment include equity in *reward distribution* (Rhodes & Steers, 1981), *role clarity* and *freedom from conflict* (Glisson & Durick, 1988), *supervisor consideration* (Glisson & Durick, 1988), *fairness of performance-based rewards* and *job challenge* (Meyer & Allen, 1987), *opportunity for advancement* (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980) and *participation in decision making* (Rhodes & Steers, 1981). Research to date suggests that work experiences play the largest role in employees' decisions to remain with an organisation.

5.3.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. The potential costs of leaving an organisation include the threat of wasting the time and effort spent acquiring nontransferable skills, losing attractive benefits, giving up seniority-based privileges, or having to uproot family and disrupt personal relationships. Apart from the costs involved in leaving the organisation, continuance commitment will also develop as a function of a lack of alternative employment opportunities. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need to*.

5.3.3 Normative commitment

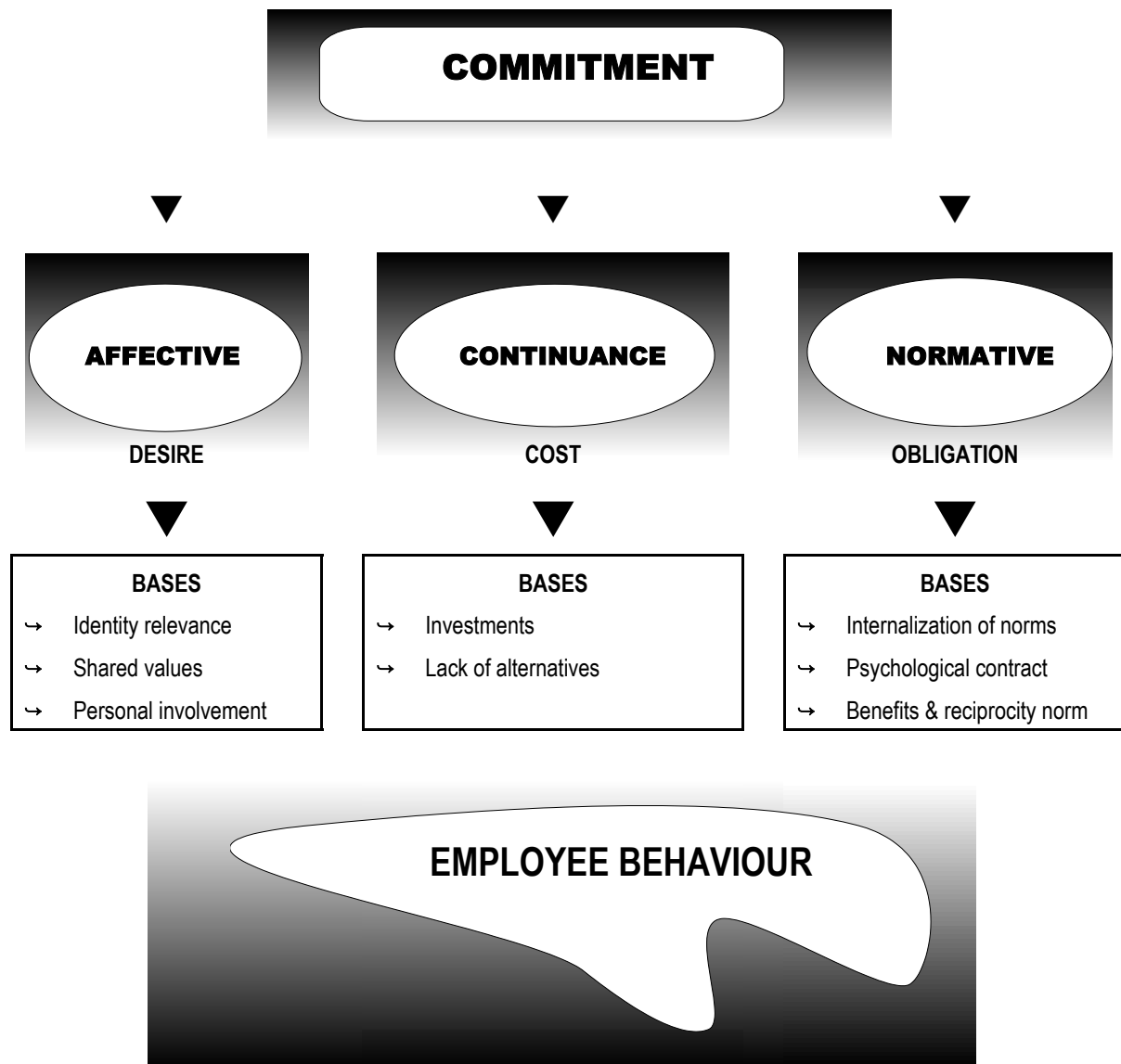
Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought to* remain with the organisation. Wiener (1982) suggests that the feeling of obligation to remain with an organisation may result from the internalisation of normative pressures exerted on an individual prior to entry into the organisation (family or cultural orientation), or following entry (organisational orientation). However, normative commitment may also develop when an organisation provides the employee with "rewards in advance" (eg paying college tuition), or incurs significant costs in providing employment (eg head-hunting fees or the costs associated with job training). Recognition of these investments causes employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organisation until the debt has been repaid (Scholl, 1981).

5.4 CONCEPTUALISATION OF COMMITMENT: MODEL DEVELOPED BY O'REILLY AND CHATMAN

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed their multidimensional framework on basis of the assumption that commitment represents an attitude towards the organisation. According to these authors, commitment takes on three distinct forms, which they labelled *compliance*, *identification* and *internalisation*.

Compliance occurs when attitudes, and corresponding behaviours are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. *Identification* occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship. Finally, *internalisation* occurs when influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviours one is being encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values. Employees thus become committed to organisations with which they share values. Figure 5.1 provides a schematic representation of a general model of workplace commitment.

FIGURE 5.1: GENERAL MODEL OF WORKPLACE COMMITMENT



Source: Adapted from Meyer & Herscovitch (2001:320)

In conclusion, employee commitment is defined as an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. It is characterised by a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on its behalf, and a strong desire to maintain membership of it.

5.5 COMMITMENT AND WORK BEHAVIOUR

The meaning of employee commitment can best be explained by employing the social exchange theory. The social exchange theory is grounded in an economic model of human behaviour whereby interactional processes between individuals are motivated by a desire to maximise rewards and minimise losses. The basic premise of social exchange theory is that relationships providing more rewards than costs will yield enduring mutual trust and attraction (Blau, 1964). Furthermore, these social transactions incorporate both material benefits and psychological rewards including status, loyalty and approval. For example, in the workplace, the supervisor provides a subordinate with support and monetary rewards while in exchange, the subordinate contributes personal devotions and expertise.

The most widely studied behavioural correlate of commitment has been turnover in the organisation. However, this focus on turnover may be shortsighted. Organisational effectiveness depends on more than simply maintaining a stable workforce; employees must perform assigned duties dependably and be willing to engage in activities that go beyond role requirements (Organ, 1988). It thus seems reasonable to assume that employee willingness to contribute to organisational effectiveness will be influenced by the nature of the commitment they experience. Employees who want to belong to the organisation (affective commitment) might be more likely than those who need to belong (continuance commitment) or feel obliged to belong (normative commitment) to make an effort on behalf of the organisation. It is interesting to note that, of the studies that have reported positive correlations between commitment and performance, most have used measures of affective commitment. It is possible that an obligation to remain will carry with it an obligation to contribute, in which case normative commitment would also correlate positively with effort and performance. Continuance commitment is perhaps least likely to correlate positively with performance. Employees whose tenure in the organisation is based primarily on need may see little reason to do more than is required to maintain their membership of the organisation.

Organisations need employees who are willing to go beyond the call of duty and engage in extra-role behaviours. For this reason, research continued to examine the link between the three components of commitment and a multidimensional measure of work behaviour. Allen and Smith (1987) and Meyer and Allen (1984) found that measures of work behaviour correlated positively with measures of affective and normative commitment but not with continuance commitment. Research by Randall, Fedor and Longenecker (1990) revealed that affective commitment contributed significantly to the prediction of concern for quality, sacrifice orientation and willingness to share knowledge. Normative commitment contributed only to the prediction of sacrifice orientation, and continuance commitment did not add

significantly to the prediction of any of these behaviours. These findings thus provide support for the proposition that the three components of commitment have different implications for work-related behaviour other than turnover.

A term closely related to commitment is *organisational citizenship*. According to Graham (1991), it can be conceptualised as a global concept that includes all positive organisationally relevant behaviours of individual organisation members. It thus includes traditional in-role job performance behaviours, organisationally functional extra-role behaviours and political behaviours, such as full and responsible organisational participation, that have typically been omitted previous studies of citizenship. In order to understand how employees' perceptions and attitudes affect their commitment, and hence their work behaviour, it is necessary to take a brief look at the precise meaning of organisational citizenship behaviour.

5.6 ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Work behaviour that is in some way beyond the reach of traditional measures of job performance but holds out the promise of long-term organisational success is receiving increasing attention as the challenge of global competition highlights the importance of organisational innovation, flexibility, productive and responsiveness to changing external conditions. The terms that are generally used to describe such behaviour include organisational citizenship behaviour (Graham, 1991) and extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne & Cummings, 1990). According to Organ (1988), as quoted by Becker and Randall (1994), organisational citizenship behaviour represents individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. He further states that it can be conceptualised as a subtle dimension of job performance composed of extra-role behaviours. Organisational citizenship behaviours are vital for productivity because organisations cannot forecast through stated job descriptions the entire spectrum of subordinate behaviours needed for achieving goals. An organisation's success is thus dependent on employees' willingness to do more than what their official job descriptions outline.

A common theme of these conceptualisations is an attempt to identify work behaviour that contributes to organisational effectiveness, but which is often not used to assess job performance. This means that job performance is assessed by referring to in-role behaviour, whereas organisational citizenship behaviour refers to both in-role and extra-role behaviour. A critical difference between these two kinds of behaviour is the extent to which others reward the behaviour and impose sanctions if it is absent. Both in-role and extra-role behaviours may be intrinsically rewarding. However, the former is more likely to be linked to extrinsic rewards and sanctions (Morrison, 1994).

5.9

It is well recognised that organisations reap significant benefits from having employees who are willing to go above and beyond the required role behaviour. There may be situations, however, in which it is desirable to have employees conceptualise their jobs broadly so that they engage in certain organisationally functional behaviours without feeling that they are doing something extra. For example, when employees' helping others is critical to getting a job done effectively, it might be problematic if supervisors have to depend on employees' willingness to engage in extra-role behaviour. In such situations, managers might want to encourage employees to see helping others as in-role in order to ensure more consistent performance. It might be valuable therefore for managers to understand the subtle social and psychological factors that influence employees' perceptions of their job responsibilities.

According to Morrison (1994), an important management function may be to reduce the perception "that's not my job" with respect to activities that are critical but not formally enforced. However, this is no easy task since employees and their managers have different ideas on defining various behaviours as in-role or extra-role, and consequently how broadly they define the employees' job responsibilities. Morrison (1994), states that one determinant of how broadly employees define their jobs is affective commitment. High affective commitment means that an employee perceives his or her employment as being based on a relational exchange. He or she will thus tend to define his or her job obligations in a broad and flexible manner, indicating high perceived job breadth. This viewpoint is quite different from what is traditionally regarded as organisational citizenship behaviour and commitment relationship. Instead of believing that commitment leads employees to exceed their job requirements, Morrison (1994) proposes that commitment changes the way in which employees define job requirements. Extra-role behaviour is more likely to be seen as in-role behaviour and part of one's job.

According to Inkeles (1969), as quoted by Van Dyne and Graham (1994), the organisational citizenship behaviour construct consists of three categories, namely (1) *obedience*, (2) *loyalty*, and (3) *participation*. *Obedience* involves respect for orderly structures and processes. It reflects employees' acceptance of the necessity for and desirability of rational rules and regulations governing organisational structure, job descriptions and personnel policies. *Loyalty* includes serving the interests of the community as a whole and the values it embodies. In an organisation, loyalty is identification with and allegiance to an organisation's leaders and the organisation as a whole, transcending the interests of individuals, work groups and departments. It also includes defending the organisation against threats, contributing to its good reputation, and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole. *Participation* entails active and responsible involvement in community self-governance and keeping oneself well informed about issues affecting the community as well as exchanging information and ideas with other people. In an organisational context, it refers to interest in organisational affairs and taking responsibility for organisational governance. It also includes attending nonobligatory meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others and being willing to combat groupthink.

5.10

When an employee engages in obedience, loyalty and participation activities as outlined above, he or she displays commitment to the organisation. Not only does such a person do more than what is expected of him or her, but does not expect to be rewarded for it.

The relationship between commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour can best be explained by stating that organisational citizenship behaviours are displayed by employees to demonstrate their level of commitment to the organisation. Commitment should thus be seen as a certain state of mind which leads to the display of certain behaviours. A number of researchers have investigated the concept of employee commitment, the definition being that it is an individual's belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of an organisation, a willingness to work hard on its behalf, and a strong desire to remain in it (Leong, Furnham & Cooper, 1996; Levy & Williams, 1998; Mayer & Schoorman, 1998). According to Moorman (1991), organisational citizenship behaviour is defined as work-related behaviours that are discretionary, not related to the formal organisational reward system, and promote the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988). The above definitions of commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, both refer to internal forces driving work-related behaviour that contributes to the success of the organisation. For the purposes of this study, commitment, more specifically affective commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour will be regarded as one and the same thing.

Because organisational citizenship behaviours include such a wide variety of behaviours, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1989) grouped them into the following five categories:

- (1) *altruism*: the extent to which an employee is prepared to help co-workers with their workload and work-related problems
- (2) *courtesy*: the extent to which an employee helps to prevent others' problems by advance consultation, information and respect for others' needs
- (3) *sportsmanship*: a willingness to accept minor frustrations and inconveniences without fuss or complaint
- (4) *conscientiousness*: the extent to which an employee obeys organisational rules, regulations and procedures
- (5) *civic virtue*: responsible and constructive involvement and participation in issues confronting the group and organisation

The extent to which these behaviours are displayed will thus indicate the degree of an employee's commitment. The next section will briefly discuss the factors that influence employees' commitment and thus behaviour.

5.7 PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT BEHAVIOUR

The workplace is changing dramatically and demands for the highest quality of product and service are increasing. To remain competitive in the face of these pressures, employee commitment is crucial. The benefits of having the best trained workers using the most advanced technology can be nullified by employees who do not *want to* use their energy and skills for the benefit of the organisation. Without employee commitment, there can be no improvement in any area of business activity. Employees will simply treat their work as a "9-to-5" job without any burning desire to accomplish any more than is necessary to remain employed. It does not take many uncommitted employees to prevent a business from prospering and thereby ceding a huge advantage to its competitors.

In many organisations there is a growing gap between the expectations of employers and what they are prepared to do. There are a number of reasons for this erosion of employee commitment, the most common one being a failure on the part of management in some or other way. To succeed in the face of increasing competition, organisations need improved productivity at all levels. This requires commitment on the part of all employees which can only be achieved through better management practices. Poor supervision and failure on the part of managers and supervisors to create a committed workforce can lead to the loss of valued employees. According to Madigan and Dorrell (2000), 41 percent of employees feel that their organisation is not developing effective managers and supervisors.

Van Dyne and Graham (1994) contend that various personal, situational and positional factors can affect the commitment of employees and consequently their attitudes and behaviour. The discussion below briefly highlights the principal personal, situational and positional factors that influence employees' commitment.

5.7.1 Personal factors

A great deal of research has sought to determine whether certain types of employees are more likely to be committed to their employer. According to the results, some employees may simply be more predisposed to engage in citizenship behaviours than others. In particular, employees who are highly conscientious, outgoing (extroverted) and generally have a positive outlook on life (optimistic) are often more inclined to be more committed. Employees who are team oriented and tend to place the goals and concerns of the group above their own, typically also engage in more citizenship behaviours. Likewise, employees who are empathetic and value helping others (altruistic) may also be more inclined to display citizenship behaviours at work. Finally, certain employees tend to define their jobs more broadly than others. Thus for these employees, engaging in citizenship behaviours is simply seen as an integral aspect of their jobs (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

5.7.2 Situational factors

5.7.2.1 *Workplace values*

Shared values are a critical component of any covenantal relationship. Values that are noncontroversial (eg quality, innovation, cooperation and participation) are easy to share and can forge close relationships. If employees believe that their organisation values quality products, they will engage in behaviours that will contribute to high quality. If employees are convinced that their organisation values participation, they will be more likely to feel as though their participation will make a difference. Consequently, they will be more willing to seek solutions and make suggestions to contribute to the organisation's success.

5.7.2.2 *Subordinate-supervisor interpersonal relationship*

As mentioned previously, the social exchange theory employs an interactionist approach to workplace relationships where subordinates and supervisors engage in mutually beneficial transactions. Social exchange implies an informal contract between an employee and the organisation, and because the supervisor largely represents the organisation to the employee, trust in the supervisor is seen as pivotal to leader effectiveness and work unit productivity. Moreover, the supervisor's behaviour is fundamental in determining the level of interpersonal trust in a work unit. Supervisor behaviours include sharing appropriate information, allowing mutuality of influence, recognising and rewarding good performance and not abusing the vulnerability of others. Butler (1991) identified 11 supervisor behaviours as facilitating interpersonal trust, namely supervisor availability, competence, consistency, discretion, fairness, integrity, loyalty, openness, promise fulfilment, receptivity and overall trust. The extent to which the supervisor displays these behaviours will thus largely determine subordinates' commitment level. It is interesting to note that only the perceptions of interactional fairness influence actual citizenship behaviours, although distributive, formal procedural, and interactional justice are related to organisational citizenship behaviours. According to Moorman (Williams, Pitre & Zainuba, 2002), personal fair treatment by supervisors conveys more fairness information to employees than a more general assessment of the fairness of overall procedures. Perceived interactional fairness demonstrates to employees that the supervisor considers them valuable and important as individuals, whereas perceived formal procedural fairness focuses on the organisation as a whole. Fair procedures may be in place, but the practice of fairness by supervisors demonstrates that justice actually occurs.

5.7.2.3 *Job characteristics*

To the extent that a job is structured to provide regular feedback and autonomy as well as a sense of task completion, employees can monitor their own behaviour and gain an increased sense of personal control (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986). Personal control is an individual's belief that he or she can effect a change in a desired direction. According to Lawler (1992), an increase in perceived control strengthens emotional bonds with an organisation. A heightened sense of personal control thus has positive consequences for employee attitudes and behaviours at work.

Research has shown that employees engage in higher levels of citizenship behaviour when they have the opportunity to work on intrinsically satisfying tasks. However, citizenship levels (commitment) are likely to be markedly lower when employees are given repetitive, highly routinised tasks to complete. In addition, bureaucratic rules and procedures that overly constrain workers may serve to inhibit acts of citizenship (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

Motivating job characteristics such as meaningful work, autonomy and feedback maximise the possibility for internal motivation. According to Jernigan, Beggs and Kohut (2002), satisfaction with autonomy (perceived independence), status (sense of importance) and policies (satisfaction with organisational demands) are all significant predictors of commitment. Thus, specific characteristics of a job can increase an employee's sense of felt responsibility, and subsequently, the sense of attachment to the organisation. Understanding how one's job contributes to interdependent outcomes enhances feelings of embeddedness and accountability. Similarly, awareness of outcomes (feedback) can lead to a strong feeling of mutual responsibility. A job that allows a high degree of autonomy and the absence of close supervision suggests a situation characterised by trust. Hence the freedom associated with autonomy and low monitoring is balanced by the reciprocal response of responsibility and commitment.

5.7.2.4 Organisational support

There is a significant association between employee commitment and the extent to which employees believe their organisation has their interests at heart. Organisations that are able to provide work-life benefits and other types of employee support are likely to elicit citizenship behaviour. According to research results, employees were more willing to go beyond the call of duty when they worked for organisations that offered support which enabled them to balance their work and family responsibilities more easily, assisted them through difficult times, provide them with benefits they could not afford, and helped their children do things they would otherwise not have been able to do (bursaries) (Bolino & Turnley, 2003).

5.7.3 Positional factors

5.7.3.1 Organisational tenure

Various researchers have studied the relationship between job tenure and employees' relationships with organisations. The studies have shown that employees who have been with their employing organisations for a long time are more likely to have embedded relationships and strong organisational ties (Rousseau & Parks, 1993). Meyer, Allen and Gellatly (1990) supported this research finding and proved that continuance commitment (the costs of leaving the organisation) had a positive effect on the affective commitment of employees.

5.7.3.2 Hierarchical job level

Studies have consistently found socioeconomic status to be the single strongest predictor of commitment because high status tends to increase both the motivation and ability to be actively involved. In organisations, employees at high job levels generally have higher levels of organisational commitment than those at low levels. This is because positions of power allow people to influence organisational decision making, indicate high status, recognise formal authority and possibly competence, and show that the organisation recognises their competence and values their contributions. Employees in high level jobs have more freedom and choices in their behaviour on the job, and these choices enhance their sense of control and thus lead to increased affective commitment to the organisation.

Managers are often not in a position to influence employees' commitment because they do not have control over employees' *positional* or *personal* situations. A manager can, however, manage the work *situation* in such a way that employee commitment is enhanced.

5.8 ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

Organisations tend to be extremely good at planning and orchestrating the technical and structural aspects of change, but poor at guiding and supporting the human side - the personal reorientation associated with change. This is one of the reasons why AA is met with distrust and resistance.

According to Smither (1994), five typical barriers to change associated with various sources include the following: disruption of personal relationships, perceived threat to status, preference for the status quo, economic factors and problems associated with organisation development specialists. Similarly, techniques to help overcome these barriers have been discussed at length (Smither, 1994, Leck, Saunders & Charbonneau, 1996), and include involving managers and employees in the change process, the use of informal leaders, the use of organisation development specialists and the creation of a new vision for the workplace. What these techniques all have in common is that they either rely for their success on employee commitment, or are aimed at maintaining commitment per se. Many of the techniques applied to ensure continued employee commitment in the face of change do not address the fundamental nature of problems concerning employee commitment. For example, increased employee involvement in the change process may increase understanding and lessen uncertainty, but if employees' personally held values do not concur with the new value system in the organisation, then such approaches will do little or nothing to restore internalised commitment. Similarly, the use of informal leaders and methods aimed at convincing employees of the need for change should address the core issue of ensuring value congruence between employees and the organisation. However, such techniques may be successful where change affects the level of work practices, but does not disturb underlying organisational values. In such instances, to ensure continued commitment, logic and understanding of the need for change are required. However, when the change occurs at the level of values, more fundamental approaches are required. The aim of these must be the re-establishment of internalised commitment, not

its continuance. It remains distinctly possible that some employees will find that the mismatch between their own personal values and the new organisational values is an unbridgeable gap. For such employees, future commitment will be based on compliance and identification, which have their own implications for future employee performance. One can therefore argue that the role of employee commitment in the management of AA is a central one, both from the perspective of consolidating AA and from that of the likely future success of ongoing change programmes.

5.9 ORGANISATIONAL ACTIONS THAT ENCOURAGE COMMITMENT

In business, as in personal relationships, commitment is a two-way street. If employers want committed employees, they need to be committed employers. Committed employees do better work than uncommitted ones and organisations with committed workers do better financially than organisations with uncommitted ones. Yet, fewer than half the employees in today's workforce feel committed to their employer (Bragg, 2002).

Employers need to determine what is responsible for this disparity. According to employees, employers do not value loyalty and are willing to sacrifice workers to maintain the financial bottom line. Employees point to decades of downsizing, rightsizing and re-engineering as evidence that employers treat them as expendable commodities when times get tough (Bragg, 2002). While organisations still want their workers to be productive, to be proud of their organisations and to remain with them for a reasonable period of time, they need to acknowledge that employees also have needs — both as workers and individuals. The relationship between employers and employees has evolved significantly, but unfortunately organisation practices have not kept pace with the changing needs of employees.

A study by Aon Consulting in Canada in 2000, which looked at the effectiveness of various organisational practices in building employee commitment, identified five key areas, namely (1) safety and security, (2) rewards, (3) affiliation, (4) growth and (5) work/life harmony (Madigan & Dorrell, 2000). According to the results of the study, 60 percent of employees reported that their co-workers improved their skills to make a better contribution to the organisation. Furthermore, 78 percent were satisfied with the training provided on the job. One of the major areas that needed attention, however, was work/life harmony. While over 70 percent of the employees felt their organisation had demonstrated an increased effort over the past year to support its employees' needs in this area, few workers reported that they were actually receiving help in child- and elder care — the two areas most often cited as being essential to work/life balance. While a great deal of attention has been focused on the concept of work/life harmony and employers generally recognise its importance, they need to review and adjust all practices in such a way that they accommodate their employees' personal needs. Employers will benefit by doing so, considering the fact that 29 percent of employees rank work/life harmony as being either the most or second-most important factor in taking a job (Madigan & Dorrell, 2000).

5.9.1 Drivers of employee commitment

Bragg (2002) identified the following three drivers as the key factors influencing an employee's commitment.

5.9.1.1 Fairness

Fairness implies the elimination of one's feelings, prejudices and desires to achieve a proper balance between conflicting interests. The problem with fairness is that it is subjective. Again, perception is reality. To create a perception of fairness, employers should pay competitive wages, create and administer policies that are unbiased, offer competitive benefits, provide timely, accurate and useful performance appraisals, promote the most qualified employees and develop employees by providing opportunities for growth. Affording employees the opportunity to voice their concerns, play a vital role in ensuring interactional justice. Various research studies (Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Shapiro, 1991; Shapiro, Buttner & Barry, 1994) demonstrated that an unfavourable outcome, such as not receiving a promotion because of AA measures, is better received by a receiver when he or she is treated in an interpersonally fair manner such as being given an explanation for a decision. In such instances, although the employee might feel that the decision is not distributively fair, he or she will remain committed to the organisation because he or she was treated with respect and fairly.

5.9.1.2 Trust

To nurture commitment, employers must create an environment of trust. If employers wish to develop and maintain trust, they should do what they say they will do, be consistent, maintain confidences, be a role model of behaviour, encourage employee involvement, allow people to make decisions that affect their work, allow people to make mistakes without fear or ridicule, learn from mistakes and not crucify scapegoats, explain reasons for major decisions and act on employee suggestions.

It is interesting to note that research by Mathieu and Zajac (1990), concluded that the link between commitment and performance was largely nonexistent and commitment to supervisors was more strongly linked to performance than commitment to organisations. One implication of these results is that human resource professionals concerned with employee performance should focus their efforts on commitment to supervisors rather than commitment to organisations. Supervisors play a crucial role in the perceptions employees form about the organisation's supportiveness and the extent to which it can be trusted to look after their interests. Lanphear (2001) concurs with the important role supervisors and managers play in building employee commitment. According to the author, high-quality managers are one of the principal factors in retaining high-quality employees — hence the need for organisations to ensure that they select, train, evaluate and reward managers for trustworthy behaviour. Effective managers inspire loyalty, trust and admiration.

5.9.1.3 Concern for employees

Employees should be regarded as people, not factors of production. Employers should provide job security as far as possible, train and develop employees, be flexible to accommodate employee issues, be open and honest and allow employees to have a life outside work. According to Madigan and Dorrell (2000), 15 percent of employees feel that their organisation performs below expectation in providing a safe and secure workplace. This could be attributed to the fact that organisations have emerged from an era of tremendous change in the work world and an economic downturn, which has evidently left many employees feeling uncertain about the stability of their jobs. Another disappointing fact is that 34 percent of employees believe that their organisation does not demonstrate the importance of retaining employees and only 48 percent would recommend their organisation as a place to work (Madigan & Dorrell, 2000). In a survey of over 7 500 US workers, Watson Wyatt International found that human resource practices and trust in management had the strongest impact on building commitment (Whitener, 2001).

Whitener (2001) conducted a research exploring the relationships between human resource practices and organisational commitment. The results indicated that human resource practices affect the relationship between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment. By relying on the social exchange theory, the study has shown that employees' commitment to the organisation derives from their perceptions of the employers' commitment to and support of them. Recognising this tendency to personify the organisation, researchers predicted that positive, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organisation contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships which create obligations for employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways. Employees interpret organisational actions such as human resource practices and the trustworthiness of management as being indicative of the personified organisation's commitment to them. They reciprocate their perceptions accordingly in their own commitment to the organisation.

Human resource practices can be classified as "*control*" or "*commitment*" practices (Wood & De Menezes, 1998). The aim of control approaches is to increase efficiency, reduce direct labour costs, rely on strict work rules and procedures, and base rewards on outputs (Arthur, 1994). Rules, sanctions, rewards and monitoring thus regulate employee behaviour. In contrast, commitment approaches aim to increase effectiveness and productivity and rely on conditions that encourage employees to identify with the organisation's goals and work hard to accomplish such goals. The practices that represent a high commitment strategy include selective staffing, developmental appraisal, competitive and equitable compensation, and comprehensive training and development activities (MacDuffie, 1995; Snell & Dean, 1992).

Overall, today's employees have a strong sense of self-worth — they recognise their value, and want their employers to as well. In the years ahead, businesses will discover that their greatest returns will be earned by making strategic investments in their human capital. Organisations that listen to their employees and build a committed workforce will have a distinct competitive advantage.

5.10 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND COMMITMENT

The concern for fairness is reinforced by the presence of a fairness heuristic at work in persons' cognitions regarding their relationships to organisations. People need to make decisions about the extent to which they will constrain their own interests for the sake of the organisation's interests and welfare. Exhaustive consideration of all relevant information is impossible in the contexts of real-world relationships between individuals and organisations. Thus, people inevitably rely on judgmental heuristics to determine whether to entrust their interests and identity to the organisation and align their goals and behaviour with the organisation. Among the factors affecting this decision, fairness concerns appear to function pre-eminently. Fairness suggests to people that their membership of the organisation is valued and that the organisation respects them, thereby making commitment to the organisation a viable way of maintaining one's identity and fulfilling one's interests. Fair treatment indicates to people that they are being respected as ends in themselves, and not merely as a means to achieving the ends set by others. Fairness judgments are formed quickly, easily become entrenched, and constitute a key heuristic basis on which decisions are made about an individual's cooperation with and support for an organisation, a basis more powerful, for example, than economic concerns (Van den Bos, Lind & Wilke, 2001).

According to a study conducted by Moorman (1991), which examined the relationship between perceptions of fairness and commitment, it is interesting to note that interactional justice was the only source of justice found to relate to commitment. One possible reason for this is that distributive and procedural justice referred to the organisation as a whole while interactional justice focuses on the degree to which the behaviour of the supervisor enacted the formal procedures in a fair manner. Employees' impressions of the fairness of their interactions with their supervisors communicated more information to them about trust and equity than the presence or absence of fair procedures. The actions of the supervisor are probably the most effective and compelling communicator of an employee's value. Folger and Konovsky (1989) also reported that procedural justice better predicted organisational commitment and trust in supervision than distributive justice. The main implication of these studies is that supervisors can directly influence employees' commitment. The perception of fairness that originated from interactional justice was based on whether the supervisor correctly used the procedures that were designed to promote fairness correctly and on the nature of the supervisor's behaviour while enacting those procedures. If managers thus want to increase employee commitment, they should work to increase the fairness of their interactions with employees.

5.11 SUMMARY

Commitment has been defined and measured in many different ways and is regarded as a multidimensional construct. The model developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) is one of the most widely used models and explains commitment the best in terms of organisational behaviour. According to these researchers, organisational commitment can be classified into *affective commitment* (emotional

attachment), *continuance commitment* (costs associated with leaving the organisation) and *normative commitment* (moral obligation to remain with the organisation). Research indicates that employees who are willing to exceed their job requirements are committed to the organisation in an affective way most of the time. Such employees also engage in organisational citizenship behaviour such as obedience, loyalty and participation.

Although employee commitment can be approached from a number of perspectives, the psychological attachment of employees is a central theme in the various approaches to commitment. According to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), an employee's psychological attachment to the organisation is based on *identification, internalisation and compliance*. Attempts to enhance employee commitment should thus focus on having employees who can identify with the organisation, internalise its values and comply with requirements.

Various personal, situational and positional factors affect the commitment and hence the work behaviour of employees of which supervisor-subordinate relationships and the characteristics of the job are the principal factors.

According to Bragg (2002), employee commitment is dependent on three drivers, namely (1) fairness, (2) trust, and (3) concern for employees. If employers wish to build commitment, they should create an environment of fairness, trust, care and concern by acting consistently in ways that employees perceive as fair, trusting and caring.

In this chapter the meaning of commitment was explained by discussing the various approaches to commitment. Since Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment is one of the most widely accepted conceptualisations of commitment, it was covered in detail. The importance of employee commitment, the factors affecting commitment, the way in which organisations should build employee commitment and the relationship between justice and commitment were also discussed.

The discussion on AA, organisational justice and employee commitment concludes the theoretical part of the study. Since this study examines the treatment of AA employees and the influence perceptions of AA fairness have on their commitment in the bank, the next chapter will provide a brief overview of the bank. Thereafter the research and statistical methodology used to conduct the research will be dealt with.

Chapter 6

AN OVERVIEW OF THE CASE BANK

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The banking sector has experienced dramatic change over the past two decades. Following the sweeping deregulation of banks, they were faced with new and competitive operating environments, and as a consequence endeavoured both to increase operating efficiencies and develop new income streams through various structural and strategic change initiatives.

Implicit in such dramatic change is the relatively new orientation by banks towards marketing and the adoption of a customer service orientation. Since all banks operate under the same legislation, it is believed that employees are the source of differentiation and competitive advantage. Customer satisfaction, service quality perceptions, and customers' decisions to remain loyal or to switch to another bank are significantly influenced by bank employees' attitudes and behaviour. Employees contribute to service excellence by delivering on the promises of the bank, by creating a favourable image for the bank, by going beyond the call of duty for customers, by promoting the bank's products and services and, in general, by rendering better service than the bank's competition.

However, employees will only provide good customer service if they are treated fairly. Fairness of job supervision, pay and promotion rules and supervisor administration of these rules are key predictors of employees' prosocial behaviour and commitment (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997).

Despite their importance, employees continue to be viewed and treated as disposable resources. A few banks, however, are beginning to realise that an emphasis upon customer satisfaction is incongruent with this outdated view of employees. Good service providers emphasise the fairness of their relationship with their employees as a prerequisite for customer satisfaction. Employees thus need to be treated with respect and dignity while promoting fairness in their compensation, rules and interactions.

It is in this context, that this study examines the perceived fairness of AA, the treatment of AA employees in the workplace and the impact of fairness perceptions on employees' commitment in the banking industry. The implementation and management of AA in the bank are used as the organisational context in which the effects of the perceived fairness of AA measures on employee commitment are tested.

6.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE CASE BANK

The bank is a leading banking institution in South Africa and realised a R1,8 billion profit for the year to 31 March 2003. The bank's dedication to being a partner in South Africa's prosperity, by being the leading financial services group serving all stakeholders, is clear when one considers all its achievements. The bank was rated "Bank of the year in South Africa 2001" by Britain's *The Banker Magazine* and according to the *Financial Mail* and Deloitte & Touche Human Capital Corporation, it is ranked the seventh best company to work for in South Africa.

The bank has made a concerted effort to improve its operations with regard to training and development, diversity and employment equity and change initiatives.

6.2.1 Learning and development

In its continuing quest to be globally competitive, the bank has adopted a learning and development philosophy which includes a strategy of sourcing from and partnering with external service providers. The learning and development department has made further contributions towards the meaningful realisation of the aims of South African education, training and development legislation by registering the first learnership in the banking sector. It is clear that the bank regards human capital development as a cornerstone of the bank's people management strategy if one considers the fact that the bank was able to claim R24,7 million from the banking sector's education and training authority, Bankseta, for the 2003 financial year. Table 6.1 indicates the number and categories of employees who attended training courses during 2003.

TABLE 6.1: NUMBER AND CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYEES TRAINED DURING 2003

	BLACKS		WHITES	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
MANAGEMENT	52	22	603	317
PROFESSIONALS/TECHNICIANS	231	271	1 134	1 631
CLERICAL STAFF	2 543	6 012	1 698	9 596
SERVICE WORKERS AND OTHER	158	1 141	517	816
TOTAL	2 984	7 446	3 952	12 360

The average training cost per employee per year amounts to R2 600-00.

6.2.2 Diversity and employment equity

The bank's affirmative action approach revolves around employment equity (EE), empowering employees, managing diversity and understanding differences. In achieving its desired position in terms of EE, the bank has established employment equity forums on a business unit level to ensure optimal consultation and the involvement of people at all levels.

The role of these forums is to act as an advisory board to business units in terms of compliance with the EE Act and to support and monitor the implementation of the EE plan in the bank. The forums also advise on the management and retention of employees in designated groups. Senior management are penalised if employment equity targets are not met.

The number of employees who have attended diversity workshops has increased considerably over the past year, from 1 517 in 2002 to 4 975 in 2003. In enhancing diversity in the bank, emphasis has been placed on affording employees from designated groups opportunities to attend several special programmes. The bank endeavours to have the designated groups adequately represented at all levels in the bank to mirror its customer base. Table 6.2 represents the employee statistics of the bank for 2002 and 2003.

TABLE 6.2: EMPLOYEE STATISTICS

	2003	2002
TOTAL NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	29 714	32 323
GENDER		
Male	10 160 (34%)	10 832 (34%)
Female	19 554 (66%)	21 491 (66%)
NONMANAGEMENT LEVEL SPLIT BY GENDER		
Male	5 921 (25%)	6 572 (25%)
Female	17 667 (75%)	19 772 (75%)
MANAGEMENT LEVEL SPLIT BY GENDER		
Male	4 239 (69%)	4 260 (71%)
Female	1 887 (31%)	1 719 (29%)
ETHNIC GROUPS		
African, coloured and Asian	11 180 (38%)	11 252 (35%)
White	18 534 (62%)	21 071 (65%)

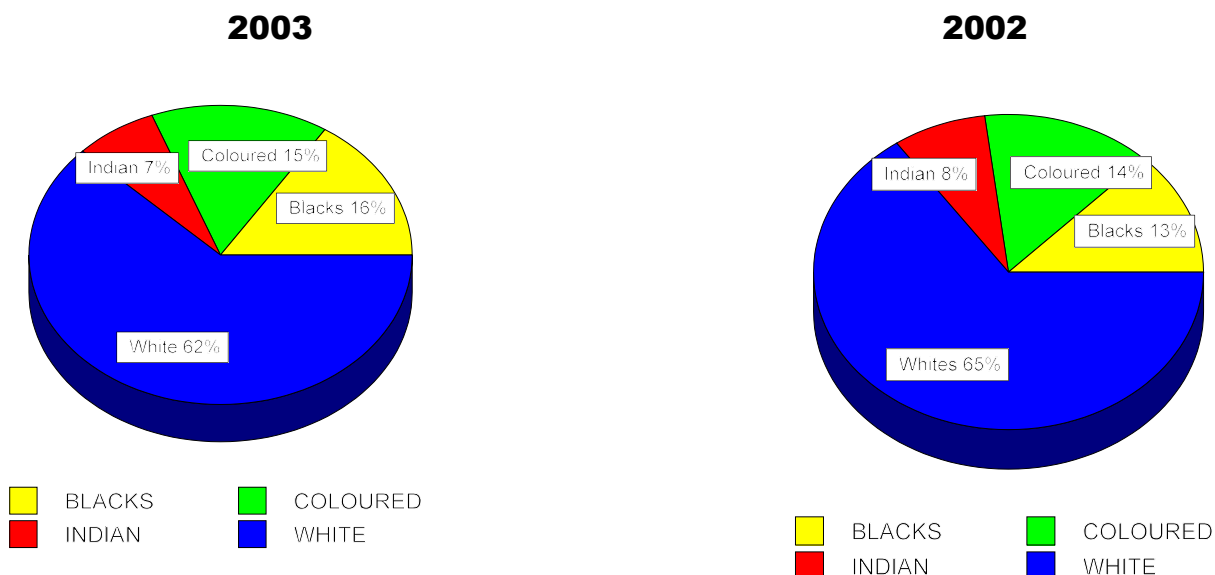
TABLE 6.2 (continued)

6.4

	2003	2002
MANAGEMENT SPLIT BY ETHNIC GROUP		
African, coloured and Asian	824 (14%)	607 (10%)
White	5 302 (86%)	5 372 (90%)
AGE		
Under 25 years	16,3%	17,8%
26 - 35 years	38,1%	37,3%
36 - 45 years	26,1%	25,4%
46 - 55 years	15,5%	15,4%
Over 55 years	4,00%	4,10%
AVERAGE REMUNERATION PER EMPLOYEE	R9 681	R8 830

Figure 6.1 provides a graphical representation of the composition of the bank's workforce in terms of ethnicity as at 31 March 2002 and 31 March 2003.

FIGURE 6.1: WORKFORCE PROFILE ACCORDING TO ETHNIC GROUP



As indicated in figure 6.1 and table 6.2, the bank still has a long way to go in achieving employment equity. The bank's employment equity target is set at 45,6 percent for 2004. Taking into consideration the fact that the bank managed to increase the employment of blacks by only 3 percent the previous year, increasing the employment of blacks from 38 percent to 45,6 percent in 2004 poses quite a challenge. Of greater concern is the inequity in managerial positions. As indicated in table 6.2, whites occupy 86 percent of the top management positions.

6.2.3 Change initiatives

The change initiatives that have taken place in the bank, are typical of those being experienced by many organisations in the industry, and include changes to (1) structures and processes, and (2) to strategies and staffing.

6.2.3.1 Structures and processes

In an attempt to become less bureaucratic and to move decision making closer to the customer, the branch network has been divided into geographically distinct operating areas. Within these, much of the decision making formerly reserved for head office has been delegated to senior managers. Typically such decisions were lending related, but developing management information systems enabled area by area comparison in a range of matters, including costs and product sales. The new structure and circulated information therefore also had the effect of introducing inter-area competition.

The various change initiatives also resulted in the centralisation of much branch outlet administration, further changing the role of the branch. In essence, the various changes are resulting in the role of the branch slowly evolving into that of a sales outlet.

The structural and process changes in the bank can thus be summarised as follows:

- the movement of decision making closer to the customer
- the development of revised reporting lines, with the separation of the sales and costs functions
- the separation of retail and corporate business to facilitate specialisation

6.2.3.2 Strategies and staffing

In an attempt to become more efficient and effective, major cost reduction and sales development strategies were simultaneously introduced. A dedicated bank-wide, sales division was created at head office level to coordinate training and liaise closely with the marketing department in terms of new product development and implementation strategy.

6.6

New human resource policies have been introduced alongside these changes. The principal strategic and staffing changes in recent years include

- the formulation of a mission statement
- an increase in competition monitoring
- regular intakes of school leavers and people from previously disadvantaged groups
- the development of training courses to develop key skills and competencies

The extent of the change that has occurred in the bank is such that it has profound implications for both values and working practices in it. Since values and working practices are the cornerstones on which organisational commitment is founded, an understanding of the impact of the perceived fairness of AA on commitment levels in the bank is essential for its success.

6.3 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an overview of the most profound changes banks are experiencing. One of the challenges facing organisations today is meeting employment equity targets. In order to determine the bank's status with regard to employment equity, employee statistics were provided. Although the bank has developed and implemented change initiatives to deal with employment equity and AA issues, employee statistics show that it still has a long way to go.

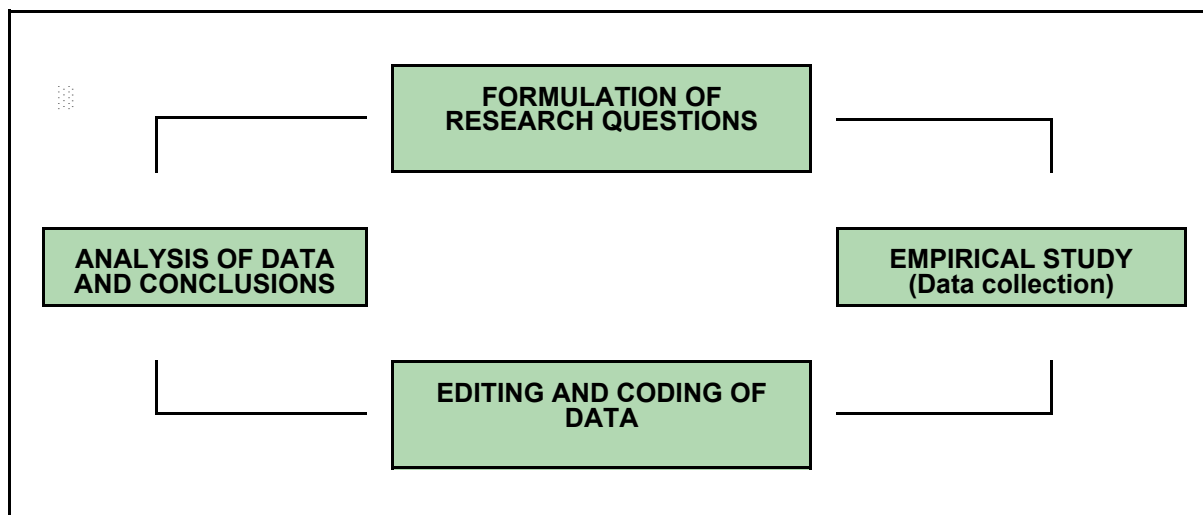
This concludes the discussion on AA, organisational justice and employee behaviour. The next chapter deals with the research and statistical methodology.

Chapter 7**RESEARCH AND STATISTICAL METHODOLOGY****7.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapters provided a theoretical discussion of affirmative action, organisational justice and employee commitment. This chapter deals with the methods and instruments used to conduct the empirical research for the study, as well as the statistical methodology. The topics to be addressed include the design, layout and administration of the questionnaire, the collection of data, the population, the sampling method, the response rate, statistical methods, descriptive-, comparative-, and associational statistics, statistical significance and practical significance (effect size).

7.2 THE RESEARCH METHOD

According to Steyn, Smit, Du Toit and Strasheim (2003), a research project is a specific research investigation — a study that completes or is planned to follow stages in the research process. Figure 7.1 below depicts a research project and strategy.

FIGURE 7.1: THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Source: Adapted from Steyn et al (2003)

Different methods for the collection of primary data such as surveys, experiments, or observations are available for research (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1997). The type of data required will largely determine the most appropriate method to be used. In this study, the researcher decided to use the survey method.

7.2

The survey method is used for descriptive reporting and makes use of a questionnaire to identify individual differences and perceptions that cannot be observed. By means of the questionnaire, respondents provide information on their current and previous behaviour, attitudes and perceptions.

7.2.1 The questionnaire

A questionnaire is a document comprising a set of questions, which is sent to a large number of respondents with a view to obtaining their input and opinions on the topic of the research study. Researchers can use either structured or unstructured questionnaires. A structured questionnaire provides different options for each question, and the respondent is simply required to select and mark the applicable answer (Babbie, 1998). Unstructured questionnaires require far more cooperation on the part of the respondents since they are required to answer the questions in their own words. The use of unstructured questionnaires in a mail survey significantly reduces cooperation without providing much helpful information (Sudman & Blair, 1998). Since mail surveys tend to have the lowest response rates of all survey methods (Welman & Kruger, 1999) — it is not uncommon for them to have a response rate of 10 percent — it is imperative to exercise caution in choosing questionnaires (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 1995). Table 7.1 outlines the advantages and disadvantages of the questionnaire as a data collection method.

In this research, the main reasons why the questionnaire was used as the method for collecting primary data, included the following:

- It is a relatively cheap method.
- It is relatively easy to distribute and collect questionnaires when respondents are from a single organisation, as was the case in this study.
- The majority of respondents have a type of “pen-and-pencil” job in which they could complete the questionnaire during office hours.

7.2.1.1 Requirements for a good questionnaire

If a researcher succeeds in designing a good questionnaire, many of the shortcomings of a questionnaire can be overcome. An effective questionnaire must, however, meet certain requirements. Table 7.2 lists a number of requirements for the *design* of a satisfactory questionnaire (Sudman & Blair, 1998).

TABLE 7.1: THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF QUESTIONNAIRES

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Relatively cheap method ● Saves time - a lot of information can be collected within a short period of time ● Greater possibility of anonymity ● Standardised questions simplify the coding of data ● The answering of questions can be kept impersonal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Possibility of a low response rate ● Researcher has low control over the conditions under which the questionnaire is completed ● The explanation and clarification of concepts are not possible ● Anonymity complicates the following up of questionnaires ● It can only be used for short surveys with mainly closed questions

Source: Adapted from Welman & Kruger (1999)

TABLE 7.2: REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DESIGN OF A GOOD QUESTIONNAIRE

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Use a booklet format A booklet format is desirable because (1) it prevents pages from being lost, (2) it makes it easier to handle, (3) a double-page format can be used, and (4) it looks more professional. ● Identify the questionnaire Questionnaires need a date, the title of the study, and the name of the person conducting the survey. ● Do not crowd the questions Self-administered questionnaires should not be crowded because crowding makes the questionnaire appear more difficult. ● Use a large, clear print Questionnaires can be made user-friendly by making use of a large and clear print. Too small print makes the questionnaire appear difficult and as a result discourages respondents to complete it. ● Provide instructions for the completion of the questionnaire The ease with which a questionnaire can be completed plays a big role in a respondent's decision to complete the questionnaire. Specific instructions should appear on the questionnaire and be placed in the most useful location possible. Instructions should be easy to distinguish and therefore bold print, capital letters or italics can be used. ● Do not split questions across pages Respondents find it confusing if a question is split over two pages, especially in respect of response categories for a closed question. ● Precode all closed questions Precoding allows the respondent to simply circle the right answer. ● End the questionnaire in a proper way Respondents should be thanked for their participation.

Source: Sudman & Blair (1998)

Although Leedy (1996) outlines *general* requirements for a good questionnaire, he emphasises the important role that questions play. Table 7.3 summarises the requirements which Leedy regards as essential to a good questionnaire.

TABLE 7.3: LEEDY'S REQUIREMENTS FOR A GOOD QUESTIONNAIRE

- Instructions must be clear and unambiguous.
- A cover letter must accompany the questionnaire and clearly state for what purposes the information is needed.
- Questions must be clear, understandable and objective.
- The questionnaire must be as short as possible.
- A logical flow of questions and sections must exist.
- The questionnaire must be directly related to the research problem.

Source: Leedy (1996)

7.2.1.2 The design of a questionnaire

The design of a questionnaire plays a crucial role in the success of the research. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (1997) regard the following as the principal steps in the design of a questionnaire:

- Determine information goals and identify the population.
- Decide which questions need to be asked.
- Identify the respondents' frame of reference.
- Formulate the questions.
- Pretest the questionnaire.
- Revise the questionnaire.
- Compile the final questionnaire.

The first step in the design of a questionnaire involves the translation of the research objectives into information goals for the formulation of specific questions. Once the list of questions has been finalised, it should cover all information goals and research objectives.

7.2.1.3 Creating an item pool (questions)

Once the scope and range of the content have been identified, the actual task of creating questions (items) can begin. No existing data-analytic technique can remedy serious deficiencies in an item pool. The creation of the initial pool of questions is thus a crucial stage in questionnaire development. The fundamental goal at this stage is to systematically sample all content that is potentially relevant to the topic under study. Two key implications of this principle are that the initial pool of questions (1) should be broader and more comprehensive than one's own theoretical view of the topic being researched, and (2) should include content that will ultimately be shown to be tangential or even unrelated to the research

topic. The logic underlying this principle is simple: Subsequent psychometric analyses can identify weak, unrelated items that should be excluded from the emerging scale but are powerless to detect content that should have been included but was not. Accordingly, in creating the item pool one always should err on the side of overinclusiveness (Clark & Watson, 1995).

Apart from asking the right questions, the following issues also need to be considered when formulating questions:

(a) *Closed and open questions*

Closed questions provide response categories whereas open questions do not. Various factors such as the purpose and method of the survey, and the respondents' profile determine which type of question is the most appropriate to use. According to Sudman and Blair (1998), closed questions are mainly used for the following reasons:

- They encourage response by making the completion of the questionnaire easy.
- They enable respondents to complete the questionnaire in a short time.
- They simplify coding for data analysis purposes.
- They reduce the amount of probing needed.

Although closed questions require more pretesting, limit the richness of data and may become boring for respondents, they work better in situations where there is a preference for inexpensive, structured information. Welman and Kruger (1999) recommend that even if a questionnaire comprises exclusively closed questions, it should conclude with an open question in case anything of importance to the respondent has been omitted.

(b) *Difficulty of questions*

Questionnaires provide few opportunities for probing — hence the different ways in which people could interpret questions merit careful consideration. Table 7.4 provides guidelines on minimising problems related to the understanding of questions.

TABLE 7.4: GUIDELINES ON FORMULATING GOOD QUESTIONS

● Questions must be specific.	● Use numbers to measure magnitudes.
● Use simple language.	● Ask questions one at a time.
● Use words with only one meaning.	

Source: Adapted from Sudman & Blair (1998)

Sudman and Blair (1998) believe that the formulation of questions should aim specifically at addressing the following three issues:

7.6

- (1) Do the respondents **understand** the words in the question?
- (2) Do all the respondents **interpret** the question in the **same way**?
- (3) Do the respondents **interpret** the question in the way it is **intended**?

(c) *Scaling of questions*

Scaling is a process of creating a continuum on which objects are located according to the number of the measured characteristics they possess (Aaker et al, 1995). The Likert scale is presently the most popular type of scale used for this purpose. This scale consists of a collection of statements about the attitudinal object. For each statement, respondents have to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with its content on, say, a four-point scale (Welman & Kruger, 1999). The number of response categories that can be used for closed questions depends on the method of administration. By making use of an even number of response categories, the central tendency effect can be eliminated. According to Welman and Kruger (1999), the error of central tendency can further be eliminated by avoiding statements which reflect extreme positions (eg "I would **never** discriminate against a person from a previously disadvantaged group").

Possible answers were coded with numerical values and represented indefinite quantities, such as the extent to which employees agreed with the statements. According to Schepers (1991), the equal interval quality of a scale is lost if more than two points are anchored. It is therefore better to use an intensity response scale in which only the two extreme categories are labelled. An example of the scale used in this study is as follows:

6-point scale

Strongly disagree			Strongly agree		
1	2	3	4	5	6

(d) *Ordering of questions*

Sudman and Blair (1998) regard the ordering of questions as important for three main reasons: (1) the order effects must be considered; (2) a logical flow for the questionnaire must be developed and (3) a rapport must be established with the respondents.

Questions should be arranged in a sequence that minimises order effects. An order effect occurs when the answer to a particular question is influenced by the context of previous questions. In order to create a logical flow of questions, the questions must be divided into sections, each with a specific purpose in mind. To elicit a favourable response for the completion of the questionnaire, the questionnaire must start with easy, nonthreatening questions for which there are no wrong answers. By establishing a rapport with respondents, one can obtain better cooperation.

With the aforementioned as background, the next section will discuss the design of the questionnaire used for the empirical research.

7.3 THE LAYOUT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THIS STUDY

7.3.1 Type of questionnaire used

It was decided to use a structured questionnaire for this study (see appendix B). A structured questionnaire provides alternatives to each question, and the respondent simply needs to select and mark the applicable answer.

For financial reasons, the cover letter (see appendix A) and the questionnaire (see appendix B) were drawn up in English only.

7.3.2 Layout of the questionnaire

Survey questionnaires are normally used to obtain the following types of information from respondents: biographical particulars (age, gender, ethnicity, and so on), typical behaviour, opinions and beliefs, and attitudes. For this study, the questionnaire was therefore developed for collecting information on employees' biographical details, their perceptions and attitudes towards AA fairness, their perceptions on the treatment of employees from designated groups in the workplace and their commitment. The questionnaire used in this study consisted mainly of closed questions because such questions are usually self-explanatory and can be answered with ease in a short period of time (see appendix B). The layout of the questionnaire is provided in table 7.5.

TABLE 7.5: LAYOUT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION	TOPIC OF SECTION	NO OF QUESTIONS
A	Personal particulars (biographical data)	13
B	Perceptions on the fairness of AA	40
C	Treatment of AA employees in the workplace	26
D	Commitment	37
Total number of questions		116

Section A consisted of questions related to the respondents' personal particulars and merely required the respondents to make an "x" in the appropriate block. These questions referred to respondents' gender, ethnicity, age, marital status, job position, number of years of service in current position, number of years

7.8

of service at the bank, staff category, highest educational level, monthly gross salary, and whether the appointment was on the basis of affirmative action.

The questions contained in section B of the questionnaire were related to the respondents' perceptions of what influences the fairness of affirmative action, and consisted of six-point Likert-type items with anchors ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 6 = "to a great extent".

Section C consisted of questions about the treatment of affirmative action employees in the workplace. For the measurement of affirmative action employees' treatment in the workplace, new items as well as existing items from questionnaires used in previous research, were used. The literature study provided the basis for the development of new items.

Section D consisted of questions about employees' work behaviour. The purpose of these questions was to determine their commitment level. As in the case of section C, new items as well as existing items from questionnaires used in previous research, were used.

7.3.3 Appearance of the questionnaire

The physical layout of the questionnaire plays a vital role in a respondent's decision whether or not to complete it. Aaker et al (1995) regard the quality of the paper, the clarity of reproduction and the appearance of crowding as important factors. For this study the questionnaire was printed on good quality green paper and bound in booklet format. Ample space was allowed between the questions as well as between the sections. Clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire were also provided.

Time constraints also have a direct influence on respondents' willingness to complete the questionnaire. If the questions are too difficult or too time-consuming to complete, the respondents tend not to complete the questionnaire. Although this questionnaire consisted of 116 questions — which is a fairly large number of questions — the questions were formulated in a simple way which made it relatively easy for the respondents. Approximately 30 minutes were needed to complete the questionnaire for this study.

7.4 PRETESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of pretesting is to ensure that the questionnaire meets the researcher's expectations in terms of the information that will be obtained from it. Questionnaire pretesting is one way of identifying and eliminating those questions that could pose problems. Only after all the deficiencies have been corrected, can the final questionnaire be compiled and distributed. The best way to test a questionnaire is to have as many people as possible look at it.

Because a pretest is a pilot run, the respondents should be reasonably representative of the sample population (Aaker et al, 1995). In this study, a formal pretest was not done but inputs were obtained from

human resource experts, trade union officials and employees from different ethnic groups and genders. The assistance of a statistician was also obtained. Once the inputs had been received, the final questionnaire was compiled and distributed.

7.5 DISTRIBUTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

The next step involved the distribution of questionnaires to the employees selected. A cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire and signed by the bank's human resource manager, accompanied each questionnaire. Appendix A provides an example of the cover letter.

Since the bank's employees work in branches all over the country, a detailed address list had to be obtained. Thereafter an envelope had to be addressed to each individual employee. The fact that the bank could not provide any assistance in terms of distributing the questionnaires via a centralised internal posted service, complicated the distribution of questionnaires and made it extremely time-consuming and expensive.

7.6 COMPUTERISATION AND CODING OF THE DATA

Data obtained from the questionnaires must undergo preliminary preparation before they can be analysed. Data preparation includes (1) data editing, (2) coding, and (3) statistical adjustment of the data (Aaker et al, 1995).

Upon receipt of the questionnaires, each questionnaire was edited to identify omissions, ambiguities and errors in the responses. Questionnaires that were completed in such a way that the results could be distorted were discarded. Illegible or missing answers were coded as "missing". This simplified the data analysis, but did not distort any interpretations of the data.

Coding the closed questions was fairly straightforward because the questionnaire made provision for response values and a column which were used for variable identification. Once the response values had been entered into a computer, a program, the *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences* (SPSS), was employed to generate diagnostic information.

7.7 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

The populations that interest human behavioural scientists are often so large that, from a practical point of view, it is simply impossible to conduct research on all of them. Consequently, researchers have to obtain data from a sample of the population.

7.10

The sample consisted of employees from a leading bank in South Africa. To obtain the sample, a letter requesting a list of all permanent employees, categorised according to ethnicity, gender and job category, was sent to the human resource manager at the bank.

A disproportionate, stratified sampling method was used. Stratified sampling involves separating the population into subgroups called “strata”, and then randomly drawing a sample from each stratum (subgroup). In this study the subgroups were determined according to ethnicity, gender and staff category. With regard to ethnicity, employees from other population groups (blacks, coloureds and Asians) were treated as a single component of ethnicity. Regarding staff category, employees from top management, middle management and supervisory level were treated as a single component. Once this process had been completed, a list of employees was drawn from each group. Table 7.6 provides a representation of the grouping of employees, the population and sample size of each employee group as well as the response and response rate.

TABLE 7.6: POPULATION, SAMPLE AND RESPONSE RATE OF EACH GROUP

	POPULATION		SAMPLE	RESPONSE	RESPONSE RATE
ETHNICITY					
Blacks	12 007 (40%)		688	128	18,6%
Whites	17 681 (60%)	100%	1 032	221	21,4%
GENDER					
Men	10 088 (34%)		585	120	20,5%
Women	19 600 (66%)	100%	1 135	229	20,2%
STAFF CATEGORY					
Top management	253				
Middle management	5 975	29%	498	168	33,7%
Supervisory level	2 502				
Clerical staff	20 958	71%	1 222	181	14,8%
TOTAL	29 688		1 720	349	20,3%

The general principles that need to be considered in determining the desirable sample size include

- the size of the population
- the variance (heterogeneity) of the variable being measured
- the homogeneity of each stratum
- the anticipated response rate

The size of the sample was mainly determined by the extent to which important cross-classifications had to be made. The need to compare the different employee strata (eg white, female, supervisors) with various perceptions of affirmative action fairness, necessitated the use of a larger sample size than normally required. According to Stoker (1981), the size of the sample should be in proportion to \sqrt{N} with

7.11

N representing the size of the stratum. Table 7.7 can be used as a guideline on determining the sample size.

TABLE 7.7: DETERMINING THE SAMPLE SIZE

N	Relationship of sample	Sample size
20	100%	20
30 $\div 20 = 1,5$	80%	$\sqrt{1,5} \quad \times 20 = 24$
50 $\div 20 = 2,5$	64%	$\sqrt{2,5} \quad \times 20 = 32$
100 $\div 20 = 5,0$	45%	$\sqrt{5} \quad \times 20 = 45$
200 $\div 20 = 10$	32%	$\sqrt{10} \quad \times 20 = 63$
500 $\div 20 = 25$	20%	$\sqrt{25} \quad \times 20 = 100$
1000 $\div 20 = 50$	14%	$\sqrt{50} \quad \times 20 = 141$
10 000 $\div 20 = 500$	4,5%	$\sqrt{500} \quad \times 20 = 447$
100 000 $\div 20 = 5\ 000$	1,4%	$\sqrt{5\ 000} \quad \times 20 = 1\ 414$
200 000 $\div 20 = 10\ 000$	1,0%	$\sqrt{10\ 000} \quad \times 20 = 2\ 000$
29 688 $\div 20 = 1\ 484$		$\sqrt{1\ 484} \quad \times 20 = 770$

Source: Adapted from Stoker (1981)

According to Welman and Kruger (1999) no matter what size the population is, it is not necessary to use a sample size larger than 500 units of analysis. Since the bank has a total workforce of 29 688 employees, a sample size of 770 would therefore have been required according to the formula discussed above. In order to make provision for the possibility of a poor response rate, 1 720 questionnaires were distributed.

Regarding the low response rate (10%) of mail questionnaires, Aaker et al (1995), and Saunders et al (1997) state that the *representativity* of the population in the response is of greater significance than the general response percentage. This principle is especially important when a stratified sampling method is used. With reference to table 7.7, the response is in line with the composition of the sample — hence the response rate of 20,3 percent in this study is satisfactory. Table 7.8 provides a summary of the biographical information in the sample.

TABLE 7.8: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA OF RESPONDENTS

VARIABLE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	AVERAGE
GENDER			
Male	120	34,4%	
Female	229	65,6%	
ETHNICITY			
Black, coloured & Asian	49 + 57 + 22 = 128	37,0%	
Whites	221	63,0%	
MARITAL STATUS			
Single	132	37,8%	
Married	216	61,9 % (missing = 1)	
AGE			
19 - 32 years	135	39,3%	37 years
33 - 46 years	135	39,3%	
47 - 62 years	73	21,4%	
YEARS IN CURRENT POSITION			
1 - 2 years	159	46,4%	4,49 years
> 3 years	184	53,6% (missing = 6)	
YEARS' SERVICE AT BANK			
1 - 7 years	182	52,0%	10,35 years
8 - 39 years	163	46,0% (missing = 4)	
STAFF CATEGORY			
Top/middle management & supervisors	13 + 98 + 57 = 168	48,0%	
Clerical staff	181	52,0%	
HIGHEST QUALIFICATION			
Grade 12 and lower	171	49,0%	3,11 (certificate or diploma)
Certificate/Diploma	110	31,5%	
Degree	75	18,7% (missing = 3)	
MONTHLY GROSS SALARY			
R5 000 or less	159	45,6%	2,41 R8 830 pm
R5 001 - R15 000	112	32,1%	
R15 001 and more	70	20,0% (missing = 8)	
EE APPOINTMENT			
Yes	44	12,6%	
No	226	64,8%	
Not sure	75	21,5% (missing = 4)	

(N = 349)

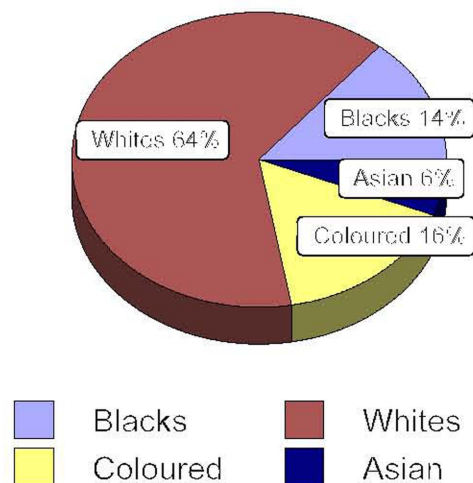
7.7.1 Gender

Since it was imperative to understand whether males and females have different opinions on affirmative action issues, it was significantly noteworthy that both genders responded to the study. According to table 6.1 in the previous chapter, the bank consists of 34 percent male and 66 percent female employees. From table 7.8, it is evident that both male and female employees are equally represented in the study.

7.7.2 Ethnicity

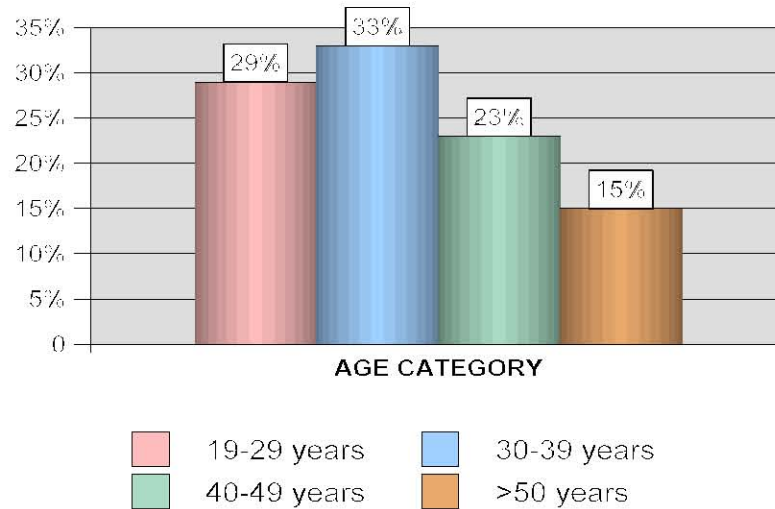
As in the case of gender, it was necessary to determine whether employees from different ethnic groups have different opinions on affirmative action issues, how they believe affirmative action employees are treated in the workplace and their commitment. The bank's workforce consists of 29 688 employees of whom 60 percent are whites. According to the research results, 64 percent of the respondents were whites. It is thus clear that employees from all ethnic groups responded to the study and all the ethnicity groups are represented in the study. Figure 7.2 illustrates the composition of the respondents according to ethnicity.

FIGURE 7.2: RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO ETHNIC GROUP



7.7.3 Age

Since the respondents' ages ranged from 19 to 62 years (range of 42 years), it was decided to group the ages in three categories. As indicated in table 7.8, the age groups, 19 to 32 and 33 to 46, each represent 39,3 percent of the respondents and respondents in the age group, 47 to 62 years, represent only 21,4 percent. According to this information, the bank has a relatively young workforce. The average age of an employee is 37 years. Figure 7.3 illustrates the age groups of the respondents. It is interesting to note that a large portion of the bank's workforce (62%) is younger than 40 years of age.

FIGURE 7.3: RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO AGE

7.7.4 Marital status

According to table 7.8, the majority of respondents in this study are married (62%). The majority of managers (77%) are married whereas the majority of clerical staff (52%) are single. This is quite understandable if one considers the fact the clerical staff are younger and probably receive lower salaries. It is interesting to note that 46 percent of blacks, compared to 71 percent of whites are married. The reason for this could be that whites hold higher positions, earn higher salaries and are generally older than blacks. According to the research results, the majority of employees younger than 32 years of age are blacks. A reason for this could be that most appointments take place at entry level and involve employees from designated groups.

7.7.5 Years in current position

Nearly half of the bank's employees have been occupying a position for less than two years. This could be the result of a large number of new appointments made during the past two years. As shown in table 7.8, the average period that employees have been occupying a position is 4,5 years.

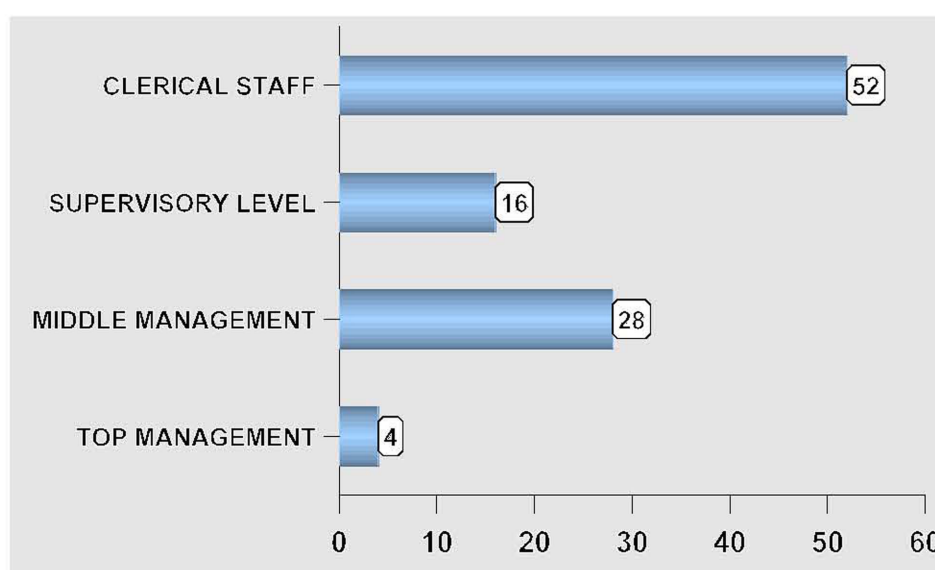
7.7.6 Years of service at the bank

The number of years that employees have been working at the bank ranges from 1 to 39 years. As indicated in table 7.8, the majority of employees (52%) have been working at the bank for less than 7 years. The bank thus has a young workforce in terms of years of service. It is interesting to note that 56,6 percent of the Blacks have been employed by the bank for less than 7 years. Blacks who have been employed by the bank for 8 years or more amount to 16,2 percent only. One could thus assume that affirmative action appointments occur mainly at entry-level positions. Overall, the average period for which employees have been working at the bank is 10,35 years.

7.7.7 Staff category

According to the number of respondents at top management, middle management and supervisory level, the bank appears to be somewhat “overmanaged”. Clerical staff form 52 percent of the workforce, whereas management (top, middle and supervisors) form 48 percent. According to table 6.1 in chapter 6, blacks, coloureds and asians formed only 10 percent of management in 2002. According to this study, the representation of blacks, coloureds and asians has increased to 13,6 percent. It is hardly an improvement if one considers the fact that the bank aims to increase the representation of blacks, coloureds and asians in managerial positions to 26 percent in 2005. It is interesting to note that male and female employees are equally represented in managerial positions. Figure 7.4 illustrates the composition of the respondents according to staff category.

FIGURE 7.4: RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO STAFF CATEGORY



7.7.8 Highest qualification

The educational qualifications of clerical staff do not seem to play a huge role at the bank since 68 percent have a grade 12 or lower qualification. Overall, 49 percent of employees have only a grade 12 or lower qualification. Employees at top and middle management level seem to be well qualified since 77 percent of top managers and 43 percent of middle managers have a degree or higher qualification (see table 7.9). The average qualification that employees have at the bank is a one-year certificate.

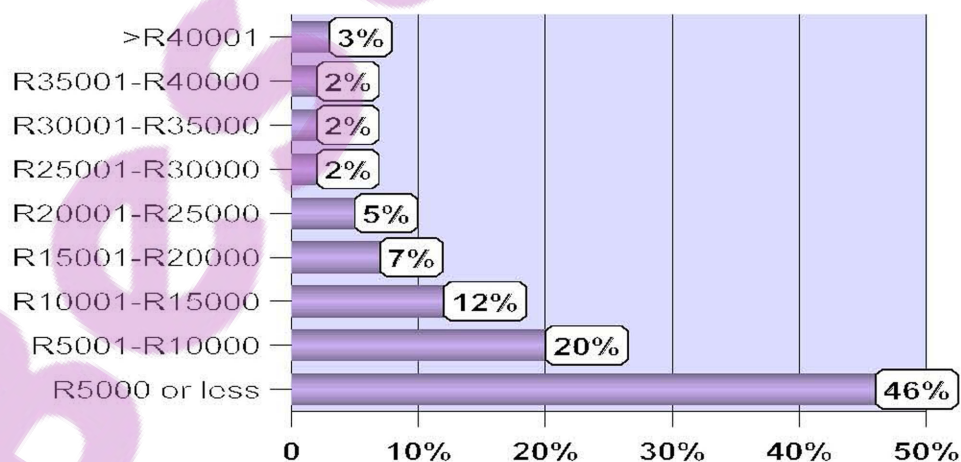
TABLE 7.9: EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

	< Grade 12	Grade 12	Certificate 1 year	Diploma 3 years	Degree	Hons degree	Master's degree	Doctor's degree
Top mngt	0	0	1	2	5	2	1	2
Middle mngt	0	18	12	26	24	11	7	0
Supervisor	4	33	9	7	1	2	0	0
Clerical	12	104	29	24	8	2	0	0
TOTAL	16	155	51	59	38	17	8	2

As mentioned earlier, the bank has made further contributions towards the realisation of the aims of South African education, training and development legislation by registering the first learnership in the banking sector.

7.7.9 Gross monthly salary

The salaries paid by the bank seem to be market related. Since 46 percent of the workforce consists of clerical staff, it makes sense that 45,6 percent of employees receive a salary of R5 000 or less per month. The reason for this could also be that the majority of employees are still young and have been working at the bank for a short period of time. The average salary of employees at the bank is R9 681 per month. Top managers receive salaries ranging from R30 000 to R40 000 and higher per month, while the salaries of middle managers range from R10 000 to R40 000 per month. Supervisors receive up to R15 000 per month. Owing to the poor representation of blacks, especially at managerial level, only 10 percent of blacks receive salaries higher than R10 000 per month. Figure 7.5 illustrates the different salary levels of respondents.

FIGURE 7.5: RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO MONTHLY SALARY

7.7.10 Employment equity appointment

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they had been appointed on the strength of affirmative action initiatives. Their responses with regard to staff category (top, middle and supervisors), gender and ethnicity are depicted in table 7.10.

TABLE 7.10: EMPLOYMENT EQUITY APPOINTMENTS

EE APPOINTMENT	MANAGERS	FEMALE	BLACKS
YES	5,3%	15,5%	20,6%
NO	81,4%	59,1%	42,8%
NOT SURE	13,1%	25,3%	36,5%

Only a few managers (5,3%) believe that they have been appointed on the basis of affirmative action initiatives. Since the bank has not yet been that successful in appointing blacks in managerial positions, it makes sense that such a low percentage of managers feel that they have been appointed on the strength of affirmative action. Ethnicity appears to play a larger role than gender when it comes to affirmative action perceptions because blacks (20,6%) are more inclined to believe that they have been appointed on the basis of affirmative action rather than because they are females (15,5%).

7.8 LEVELS OF MEASUREMENT

Most measuring instruments in the human behavioural sciences yield measurements at the nominal and ordinal levels. For practical purposes, however, scores on, say, standardised tests, attitude scales and self-constructed questionnaires can probably be regarded as satisfactory approximations of interval measurement (Kerlinger, 1988). In nominal measurement, the numbers assigned to individuals only serve to distinguish them in terms of the attribute being measured, such as gender, age or ethnicity. The statistics that were used for nominal data included the mode, frequencies and coefficients of associations.

Since the purpose of this study was to determine employees' perceptions on and attitudes towards affirmative action fairness, and how these impact on their commitment, the study measured the employees' attitudes by means of interval scales. This study made use of a six-point Likert scale. The statistics that were used for interval data included the mean (average score for a group), frequencies, standard deviation and Pearson's product moment correlation (a statistic used to measure the degree of association between two interval or ratio variables). T-test statistics (for two groups) and one-way analysis of variance (for more than two groups) were used to measure any statistical significant difference between the means and distributions of samples. These tests determine whether an observed difference in the means of groups is sufficiently large to be attributed to a change in some variable or whether it could merely have occurred by chance (Welman & Kruger, 2001).

Most studies have treated organisational justice as a dependent variable, measuring the perceptions of organisational justice of some situation. One of the better uses of a measure of organisational justice would be to compare and distinguish between perceptions of fairness and related concepts, such as the treatment of affirmative action employees and employee commitment. Here perceptions of affirmative action fairness would act as a dependent variable and the treatment of affirmative action employees as the independent variables. In instances where the biographical factors of employees were used to determine their effect on the perceptions of and attitude towards affirmative action fairness, the biographical factors became the independent variables and the perceptions and attitudes of employees regarding affirmative action fairness and the treatment of affirmative action employees, the dependent variables. The research, for example, could indicate that women (independent variable) are more concerned about being treated with respect (dependent variable) than men.

7.9 STATISTICAL METHODS

Various factors have to be considered before an appropriate statistical method for data interpretation can be selected. In this research, the sample size and the number of variables that needed to be analysed simultaneously, were the determining factors. To address these issues properly, a number of statistical techniques were used as the basis for the interpretation of the data. These included univariate and multivariate data analysis, correlations and factor analysis. Issues such as means and standard deviations, as well as the level of statistical significance, were also considered. However, before the data could be interpreted, it was necessary to consider the question of parametric versus nonparametric statistics.

One of the issues that is often raised in survey research is whether the statistical technique used for the interpretation of the data, is the most suitable. Two types of statistics, namely parametric and nonparametric are available for research. According to Kerlinger (1988), a parametric statistical test depends on a number of assumptions about the population from which the samples used in the test are drawn. The best-known assumption is that the population scores are normally distributed, the variances of the groups are equal and the dependent variable is approximate interval scale (Morgan & Griego, 1998). A nonparametric or distribution-free statistical test depends on no assumptions about the form of the sample population or the values of the population parameters.

There is huge controversy about the use of the two types of statistics. Gardner (1975) has no objection to the use of parametric statistics, whereas Bradley (1972) advocates nonparametric methods — both viewpoints are compelling and valid. However, in the light of Kerlinger's (1988) remarks that the best advice is to use parametric statistics as well as the analysis of variance routinely but to keep a sharp eye on the data for gross departures from normality, the researcher decided to adopt this approach in this study.

7.10 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

A complex research approach was followed. Descriptive, associational and comparative statistics were used to analyse the data. The appropriate statistical procedures were selected according to guidelines provided by various authors (Morgan & Griego, 1988; Clark & Watson, 1995; Cooper & Emory, 1995; Kanji, 1999; Steyn, 1999, 2000). The SPSS for Windows Statistical Package, Release 11 and 12.5, was applied for all the statistical procedures.

The choice of statistical procedures was also based on the level of measurement achieved in the research. In this study, nominal and interval scales were used as the level of measurement in collecting the biographical data (independent variables). Biographical data involve a single variable and are usually the starting point in descriptive analysis. Descriptive data analysis makes use of averages (means), standard deviation, percentages, histograms and frequency distributions for each variable of interest. A frequency distribution shows in absolute or relative (percentage) terms how often (popular) the different values of a variable are among the units of analysis. Biographical and organisational questions are usually categorical — hence it is usual to give frequency distributions of the responses to such questions. Because descriptive statistics do not involve inferential statistics they merely describe or summarise data, and should therefore be analysed by nonparametric methods (Morgan & Griego, 1998).

A six-point Likert scale was used to measure the perceptions of employees towards affirmative action fairness, the treatment of affirmative action employees in the workplace and how employees behave in the workplace. Owing to the inherent limitation of scaling psychological measurements (ie equal intervals between successively higher numbers) the level of measurement can only be regarded as approximate equal intervals (Kerlinger, 1986; Morgan & Griego, 1998). Nevertheless it was deemed appropriate to use the more familiar and powerful parametric statistics such as analysis of variance, correlation and multiple regression analysis.

7.11 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

7.11.1 Factor analysis¹

In the behavioural sciences, factor analysis is frequently used to uncover the latent structure (dimensions) of a set of variables and to assess whether instruments measure substantive constructs (Cortina, 1993). Hatcher (1994) recommends that the exploratory factor analysis procedure should be used when attempting to determine the number and content of factors measured by an instrument. However exploratory factor analysis (EFA) looks to uncover the underlying structure of relatively large sets of variables. "It is based on a *a priori* assumption that any variable in the questionnaire may be associated with

¹ *Although factor analysis is a complex associational technique, it is discussed as part of descriptive statistics because it describes the factors identified and helps the reader to understand the research results when reference is made to the various factors.*

any factor. There is no prior theory and one uses factor loadings to intuit the factor structure of the data" (www2.chass.ncsu.edu. 2002:2).

As mentioned previously, there are primarily two methods of extracting the factors from a set of data: *principal components analysis* or *principal factor analysis*. The method chosen will matter more to the extent that the sample is small, the variables are few, and/or the communality estimates of the variables differ. Principal components analysis is the more common method and seeks the set of factors which can account for all the common and unique variance in a set of variables. Principal factor analysis seeks the least number of factors which can account for the common variance (correlation) of a set of variables and thus do not consider unique variances. Principal factor analysis thus accounts for the covariation among variables whereas principal components analysis accounts for the total variance of variables.

In the present study, a principal factor analysis was done for each of the sections, namely: (1) the employees' perceptions of the fairness of affirmative action, (2) the treatment of AA employees in the workplace, and (3) behaviour in the workplace. The statistical software package SPSS for Windows was used for the majority of statistical procedures.

The steps followed in the factor analysis were as follows:

7.11.1.1 Computing of a matrix of correlations between the items

7.11.1.2 Subjecting the correlation matrix to a factor analysis

7.11.1.3 Deciding on the number of factors (dimensions) to be extracted

In the present study, the eigenvalues were plotted against the factor numbers and Cattell's so-called "scree test" was performed which involved studying the slope of the plotted eigenvalues (Kimm & Mueller, 1978). The eigenvalue for a given factor measures the variance in all the variables which is accounted for by that factor. If a factor has a low eigenvalue, then it is contributing little to the explanation of variances in the variables and may be ignored. For the purposes of this study, all factors with eigenvalues lower than one were ignored. An inspection of the eigenvalues usually reveals a drop since the first factor provides the largest eigenvalue and thereafter the eigenvalues drop until they become insignificant (lower than one). The point at which the graph levels off indicates the number of factors to be extracted.

7.11.1.4 Extracting an x-number of factors

Criteria for determining the number of factors include the following:

- *Kaiser criterion.* Dropping all factors with eigenvalues under 1.
- *Scree plot.* The Cattell scree test plots the factors as the X axis and the corresponding eigenvalues as the Y axis. As one moves to the right, the eigenvalues drop. When the drop ceases and the

curve makes an elbow towards a less steep decline, Cattell's scree test recommends dropping all further factors after the one starting the elbow.

- *Variance explained criteria.* Some researchers simply use the rule of keeping enough factors to account for 90 percent (sometimes 80 percent) of the variation.
- *Comprehensibility.* Although not a strictly mathematical criterion, many researchers limit the number of factors to those whose dimension of meaning is readily comprehensible. Often this is the first two or three. This study made use of the Kaiser criterion, scree plot test and comprehensibility of factors to determine the number of factors to be extracted.

7.11.1.5 *Rotating the factor solution to a more interpretable solution*

Rotation serves to make the output more understandable and is usually necessary to facilitate the interpretation of factors. The sum of eigenvalues is not affected by rotation, but rotation will alter the eigenvalues of particular factors and will change the factor loadings. Since multiple rotations may explain the same variance but may have different factor loadings, and since factor loadings are used to intuit the meaning of factors, different meanings may be ascribed to the factors, depending on the rotation — a problem some cite as a drawback to factor analysis. The Varimax rotation is orthogonal, which means that the factors remain uncorrelated throughout the rotation process. In this study, the Varimax rotation was used because it is the most common rotation option and yields results which make it as easy as possible to identify each variable with a single factor (Morgan & Griego, 1998).

The Varimax rotation results in a factor matrix and the values in the matrix are called factor loadings. By studying all those items that have high loadings on a particular factor, and asking oneself what the common nature of these items is, one might be able to infer the nature of the factor. The challenge is to give such a factor a theoretical name that describes it as a dimension or factor. All significant factor loadings are typically used in the interpretation process, but variables with higher loadings influence to a greater extent the name selected to represent a factor.

This study considered as significant all factor loadings higher than or equal to 0,40. This cut-off point of 0.40 is largely arbitrary and cannot be applied mechanically. The researcher should also use judgement based on theoretical considerations. It may happen, for instance, that an item shows a high loading on two or more factors, in which case the researcher must decide to which factor the item should belong. The exclusion of relevant variables and the inclusion of irrelevant variables in the correlation matrix being factored will affect, often substantially, the factors which are uncovered. Knowing the factorial structure in advance helps one to select the variables to be included and yields the best analysis of factors. However, this is not simply a matter of including all relevant variables or deleting variables arbitrarily in order to have a "cleaner" factorial solution, because this will result in erroneous conclusions about the factor structure (Kim & Mueller, 1978). In order to determine which variables to keep, this study

considered the *factor loadings*, the *cross-loading of items* on more than one factor, and the *reliability* and *importance* of a variable according to the theory.

7.11.2 Reliability analysis

The internal consistency reliability test is of particular importance because it measures the degree to which all the items in a measurement/test measure the same attribute. Internal consistency thus implies a high degree of generalisability across the items within the test. Cronbach's alpha is the most common estimate of internal consistency of items in a scale.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation coefficients are used to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instrument (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha reflects important information on the proportion of error variance contained in a scale. Owing to the multiplicity of the items measuring the factors, the Cronbach coefficient alpha is often considered to be the most suitable since it has the most utility of multi-item scales at the internal level of measurement (Cooper & Emory, 1995).

In addition to estimating internal consistency from the average correlation, the formula for alpha also takes into account the number of items according to the theory that the more items there are, the more reliable a scale will be. The widely accepted social science cutoff is that alpha should be 0.70 or higher for a set of items to be considered a scale. That 0.70 is as low as one may wish to go is reflected in the fact that when alpha is 0.70, the standard error of measurement will be over half (0.55) a standard deviation (Morgan & Griego, 1998). Alpha is a sound measure of error variance, and can be used to confirm the unidimensionality of a scale, or to measure the strength of a dimension once the existence of a single factor has been determined (Cortina, 1993)

The internal consistency coefficient, cronbach alpha, was computed for each of the factors identified, and is discussed in the next chapter.

7.11.3 Analysis of item distribution

Descriptive statistics (eg means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the distribution of the values of each item included in the different factors. Measures of location (mean), spread (standard deviation), and shape (skewness and kurtosis) were calculated. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), the mean and standard deviation are called dimensional measures (in other words, expressed in the same units as the measured quantities). By contrast, skewness (sk) and kurtosis (ku) are regarded as nondimensional measures. Skewness is an index that characterises only the shape of the distribution. When sk is approximately 0, a distribution approaches symmetry. Kurtosis is a measure of a distribution's "peakness/flatness". According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), there are three different types of kurtosis:

- peaked or leptokurtic distributions — scores cluster heavily in the centre (a positive ku value)
- flat or platykurtic distributions — evenly distributed scores and facts flatter than a normal distribution (a negative ku value)
- intermediate or mesokurtic distributions — neither too peaked nor too flat (a ku value close to 0)

As with skewness, the larger the absolute value of the index, the more extreme the characteristic of the index will be.

7.12 COMPARATIVE STATISTICS

7.12.1 Students' t-test

Comparative statistics test for differences between groups by making use of analysis of variance. Basic difference questions involve one independent and one dependent variable and use t-tests or ANOVA. The t-test is appropriate when one has an independent variable with two categories and a continuous dependent, and wishes to test the difference between the means of the various categories of the independent variable. In this study, Students' t-test was used to compare the mean scores for the dependent variables between two categories within six different biographical variables.

7.12.2 One-way analysis of variance

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to uncover the main and interaction effects of categorical independent variables on an interval dependent variable and is used when there is a single interval dependent and one independent variable with three or more categories. The key statistic in ANOVA is the F-test of difference of group means, testing if the means of the groups formed by values of the independent variable are different enough not to have occurred by chance. If the group means do not differ significantly then one can infer that the independent variable(s) did not have an effect on the dependent variable (www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/anova.htm). ANOVA assumes that the dependent variable is an approximate interval scale, normally distributed in the population, and the variances of the groups are equal. If the assumptions are not markedly violated, one should make use of parametric one-way ANOVA.

In this study, one-way ANOVA was used to determine the effect of *education*, *salary* and *employment equity appointments* on organisational justice and the other behavioural domains since all of these variables had three categories.

7.12.3 N-way univariate analysis of variance

The SPSS program help function provides the following description for n-way univariate analysis of variance:

The General Linear Model (GLM) univariate procedure provides regression analysis and analysis of variance for one dependent variable by one or more factors and/or variables. The factor variables divide the population into groups. Using the General Linear Model procedure,

it is possible to test the effects of other variables on the means of various groupings of a single dependent variable. The interactions between factors as well as the effects of individual factors can be investigated.

In addition, after an overall F-test has shown significance between factors (groups), post hoc tests to evaluate differences between specific means can be applied. Estimated marginal means can be calculated to predict mean values for the cells in the model.

7.12.4 Multivariate analysis of variance

Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used to determine the main and interaction effects of categorical variables on multiple dependent interval variables. MANOVA, like ANOVA, makes use of one or more categorical independents as factor variables, but unlike ANOVA, there is more than one dependent variable. ANOVA tests the differences in the means of the interval dependent for various categories of the independent(s), while MANOVA tests the differences in the centroid (vector) of means of the multiple interval dependents, for various categories of the independent(s). Researchers may also perform intended comparison or post hoc comparisons in order to determine which values of a factor contribute most to the explanation of dependents (www2.chass.ncsu.edu).

According to the SPSS program help function, the GLM multivariate procedure provides analysis of variance for multiple dependent variables by means of one or more factor variables or covariates. The factor variables divide the population into groups. Using this general linear model procedure, it is possible to test the null hypotheses about the effects of factor variables on the means of various groupings of a joint distribution of dependent variables. Both interactions between factors and the effects of individual factors can thus be investigated. In addition, the effects of covariates and covariate interactions with factors can be included. After an overall F-test has shown significance, post hoc tests are used to evaluate differences between specific means. The post hoc multiple comparison tests are performed separately for each dependent variable.

7.13 ASSOCIATIONAL STATISTICS

7.13.1 Correlation analysis

Relationships or associations also play a vital role in data analysis. Whenever it is necessary to determine the relationship between two variables and, if there is one, the nature and strength thereof, measures of associations or correlation analysis must be employed. Correlation analysis is not only directed at discovering whether a *relationship* exists between two variables, but also analyses the *direction* and *magnitude* of the relationship (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 1997).

Correlations estimate the extent to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in the other and are indicated by the correlation coefficient (r). Correlation coefficients can range from +1.00 to -1.00. A correlation of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive relationship, a correlation of 0.00 indicates no

relationship, and a correlation of -1.00 indicates a perfect negative relationship (Welman & Kruger, 1999). The magnitude of the relationship refers to the significance level of the relationship between two variables. The significance level is used to indicate the maximum risk one is willing to take in rejecting a true null hypothesis. Hence a significance level should always be associated with the probability of making a mistake. Thus when one selects the 5 percent significance level ($p \leq 0,05$) to conduct a hypothesis test, one is in fact saying that one will conduct the test in such a way that one will only reject the null hypothesis when in fact it is true — 5 times out of 100. Therefore, if the result of a test is such that the value obtained has a probability of occurrence of less than or equal to the specified significance level, then the test result is significant (<http://www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/pa765/signif.thm>). The level of significance used in this study is discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

According to Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (1997), the fact that two variables are related does not prove causality. Since the influence of other variables cannot always be isolated in determining relationships, causal inferences on the basis of correlation results cannot be drawn. All that an association measure expresses is the degree of covariation between two variables. Since association refers to the strength of a relationship, high levels of association between independent variables may lead to misinterpretation of results and research inferences.

7.13.2 Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression is a statistical technique that allows the researcher to predict the score on one variable on the basis of scores on several other variables. Many researchers use the term “independent variables” to identify those variables they think will influence some other so-called “dependent variable”. Independent variables are known as predictor variables and dependent variables as criterion variables.

If two variables are correlated, then knowing the score on one variable enables the researcher to predict the score on the other. The stronger the correlation, the closer the scores will fall to the regression line and therefore the more accurate the prediction will be. Multiple regression is simply an extension of this principle, where one variable is predicted on the basis of several others. In both ANOVA and multiple regression, the researcher seeks to determine what accounts for the variance in the scores observed. In ANOVA, he or she tries to determine how much of the variance is accounted for by the manipulation of the independent variables. In multiple regression the researcher does not directly manipulate the independent variables but instead, simply measures the naturally occurring levels of the variables to see if this helps to predict the score on the dependent variable.

When performing a multiple regression analysis, attention should be focused on the *beta value*. This value is a measure of how strongly each independent variable (predictor variable) influences the dependent variable (criterion variable). The beta is measured in units of standard deviation — thus the higher the beta value, the greater the impact of the predictor variable on the criterion variable will be.

Multiple correlation (R) is a measure of the correlation between the observed value and the predicted value of the criterion variable. The *R Square* (R^2) indicates the proportion of the variance in the criterion variable which is accounted for by the model. In essence, this is a measure of how well a prediction of the criterion variable can be made by knowing the predictor variables. However, R^2 tends to somewhat over-estimate the success of the model, and the *adjusted R^2* value therefore gives the most useful measure of the success of the model.

When choosing a predictor variable, one should make sure that it correlates with the criterion variable, but not strongly with the other predictor variables. The term "*multicollinearity*" is used to describe the situation in which a high correlation is detected between two or more predictor variables. Such high correlations cause problems when trying to draw inferences about the relative contribution of each predictor variable to the success of the model. There are different ways to assess the relative contribution of each predictor variable. In the "simultaneous" method (enter method), the researcher specifies the set of predictor variables that make up the model. In the stepwise method, each predictor variable is entered in sequence and its value assessed. If adding the variable contributes to the model then it is retained, but all other variables in the model are then retested to see if they are still contributing to the success of the model. If they no longer contribute significantly they are removed. This method should thus ensure that the researcher ends up with the smallest possible set of predictor variables included in the model.

In this study, the researcher decided to use the "stepwise" multiple regression method because it results in the most parsimonious model. This could be particularly important to determine the minimum number of variables needed to measure and predict the criterion variable.

7.14 ANALYSIS OF COMPLIANCE WITH SPECIFIC ASSUMPTIONS

7.14.1 Sampling adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test was conducted to establish whether the item intercorrelation would comply with the criterion of sample adequacy set for factor analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistics are based on partial correlation and the anti-image correlation of items. Linked to the anti-image correlation matrix is the measure of sampling adequacy (MSA). The scores of MSA can range from zero to one, but the overall score must be higher than 0.70 if the data are likely to factor well (Morgan & Griego, 1998). Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998) propose the following guidelines in interpreting the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's sampling adequacy:

Outstanding	: MSA > 0.90 - 1
Metorius	: MSA > 0.80 – 89
Middling	: MSA > 0.70 – 79
Mediocre	: MSA > 0.60 – 69
Miserable	: MSA > 0.50 – 59
Unacceptable	: MSA < 0.50

If the KMO score is less than 0.50 there is no systematic covariation in the data and the variables are essentially independent (bmj.bmjournals.com/cgi, 13/03/2004).

7.14.2 Sphericity

Sphericity means that data are uncorrelated. Factor analysis, however, assumes that each of the variables in a set of variables are associated with one another. Moderate significant intercorrelations between items are required to uncover the latent structure of a set of variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity measures the absence of correlations between variables. Bartlett's statistics test whether a correlation matrix is an identity matrix — that is, that the items are unrelated. A high Chi-square value with a low p value ($p < 0.001$) indicates a significant relationship between the items, which indicates that the data are suitable for factor analysis (Morgan & Griego, 1998).

7.14.3 Homogeneity of variance

ANOVA assumes equal variances across groups or samples. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance can be used to verify the assumption that the variances of groups are equal. Levene's test statistic is designed to test for equality of variance across groups against the alternative that variances are unequal for at least two groups. If Levene's F is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), then variances are significantly different and the assumption of equal variances is violated (Morgan & Griego, 1998).

7.14.4 Equality of covariance

The assumption for a multivariate approach is that the vector of the dependent variables follows a multivariate normal distribution, and the variance-covariance matrix is equal across the cells formed by the between–subject effects (SPSS help function).

The Box's M test tests MANOVA's assumption of homoskedasticity using the F distribution. If $p(M) < 0,05$, the covariance is significantly different and the assumption of equality of covariance is violated (www2.chass.ncsu.edu, 2002).

7.15 STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Conventionally, most researchers use the levels 0.05 and 0.01 as levels of significance for statistical tests performed. These levels are quite severe and are used when the purpose is to limit the risk of incorrectly rejecting the null hypotheses, or concluding a significant result erroneously. Such errors are referred to as type-I errors. In the medical sciences, where an error could have severe consequences, such errors must be kept low. Often, however (eg in the human sciences), the consequences of a type-I error are not that severe and researchers are merely concerned with missing a significant result, known as a type-II error.

7.15.1 Practical significance

The reason for making use of samples is that they enable one to study the properties of a population within the limitations of time and money. In such cases the statistical significance tests are used to show that the results are significant. The p-value is a criterion of this, giving the probability that the obtained value or larger could be obtained under the assumption that the null hypothesis (eg no difference between the means) is true. A small p-value (eg smaller than 0.05) is considered as sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant. However, statistical significance does not necessarily imply that the result is important in practice because these tests have a tendency to yield small p-values (indicating significance) as the size of the data sets increases.

Most researchers are compelled to consider the results they obtain as a subpopulation of the target population owing to the weak response of the planned random sample. These data should then be considered as small populations for which statistical inferences and p-values are not relevant. Statistical inference draws conclusions about the population from which a random sample was drawn, using the descriptive measures that have been calculated. Instead of only reporting descriptive statistics in these cases, effect sizes can be determined. Practical significance can be understood as a large enough difference to have an effect in practice.

7.15.1.1 Practical significance of differences between means

The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of differences (d) when t-tests were used (Steyn, 1999):

where

Mean_A = mean of the first group

Mean_B = mean of the second group

SD_{MAX} = highest standard deviation of the two groups

The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of the means of more than two groups (Steyn, 1999):

where

Mean_A = mean of the first group

Mean_B = mean of the second group

Root MSE = root mean square error

Cohen (1988) recommends the following cutoff points for the practical significance of differences between means.

d = 0.20	small effect
d = 0.50	medium effect
d = 0.80	large effect

A cutoff point of $d = 0.50$ (medium effect) was set for the practical significance of differences between means.

7.15.1.2 *Practical significance for univariate and multivariate analysis*

N-way ANOVAs and MANOVAs were used to determine the effect of the biographical characteristics (independent variables) on the perceptions of the sample with regard to the behavioural domains. Where statistical significant main and interaction effects were found, partial eta squared was calculated to determine the practical effect size.

Partial eta squared (η_p^2) is the proportion of the effect + error variance attributable to the effect, and is calculated by means of the following formula:

$$\eta_p^2 = SS_{\text{effect}} / (SS_{\text{effect}} + SS_{\text{error}})$$

The SPSS calculates the partial eta squared values, which indicates the contribution (effect size) of each factor, independently of the number of variables included in the model. According to Cohen's effect sizes, the following cutoff points apply if partial eta squared is to be of practical significance:

$\eta_p^2 = 0.01$	small effect
$\eta_p^2 = 0.06$	medium effect
$\eta_p^2 = 0.14$	large effect

A cutoff point of 0.06 (medium effect) was used to report on the practical significance of the results.

7.15.1.3 *Practical significance (effect size) for correlation between variables*

In many cases it is necessary to know whether a relationship between two variables is practically significant — for example, between the treatment of AA employees in the workplace and perceptions of affirmative action fairness. The statistical significance of such relationships is determined with correlation coefficients (r), but one actually wants to know whether the relationship is large enough to be important. In this case, the effect size is determined by using the absolute value of r and relating it to the cutoff points for practical significance recommended by Cohen (1988).

r = 0.10	small effect
r = 0.30	medium effect
r = 0.50	large effect

A cutoff point of $r = 0.30$ (medium effect) was set to decide on the practical significance of correlations between variables.

7.15.1.4 *Practical significance (effect size) for multiple regression*

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the portion of variance in affirmative action justice perception that is predicted by the treatment of AA employees. According to Cohen (1988), the effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regression is determined by applying the following formula:

$$f^2 = R^2/(1-R^2)$$

Cohen (1988) recommends the following values of f^2 to assess the effect size of R^2 :

$f^2 = 0.02$	small effect
$f^2 = 0.15$	medium effect
$f^2 = 0.35$	large effect

A cutoff point of 0.35 (large effect) was set for the practical significance of f^2 .

7.16 SUMMARY

This chapter focused mainly on the statistical applications involved in determining the fairness of affirmative action, the treatment of affirmative action employees and how employees behave in the workplace. The discussion dealt with the population, method of sampling, the design and layout of the questionnaire, the type of questionnaire used, the design of questions, the pretesting of the questionnaire and the correlations and factor analysis methods used in the study. Statistics such as factor analysis, reliability analysis, analysis of item distribution, analysis of variance (t-test, ANOVAs, MANOVAs) and correlation and multiple regression analysis were utilised in this study to provide a basis for discussion of the results as set out in chapter 8. Practical significance and effect sizes were discussed and specific cutoff points recommended as guidelines to determine if the results were of practical significance. The reporting of effect sizes is encouraged by the American Psychological Association (APA) in their Publication Manual (APA, 1994).

Chapter 8 will discuss the results and their interpretation, and provide conclusions of the research proposals as formulated in chapter 1.

Chapter 8

RESULTS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a theoretical discussion of the research and statistical methodology. This chapter focuses on the interpretation and discussion of the research results. Factor analysis, reliability and item analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA), correlation and multiple regression analysis are all reported and interpreted.

8.2 FACTOR ANALYSIS

As mentioned previously, the statistical technique particularly appropriate to determine the dimensional nature of a number of variables is factor analysis. It is a procedure that groups items on the basis of correlations. The main aim of factor analysis is to describe a larger number of variables by means of a smaller set of composite variables. This statistical technique is excellent for the investigation of the underlying structure of a questionnaire. Those items that refer to or share the same dimension, should correlate with one another and factor analysis uses this to uncover composite variables. These composite variables are also known as “factors” and aid the substantive interpretation of data.

In the present study a principal factor analysis with varimax rotation was done for each of the sections. The purpose was to identify the latent variables underlying AA fairness, treatment of AA employees in the workplace and the commitment of employees.

The factor analysis of sections B, C and D of the questionnaire will now be discussed. The tables and figures below illustrate the eigenvalues, scree plots and rotated factor matrices for each of the sections.

8.2.1 Perceptions of the fairness of affirmative action (section B)

In the first round of exploratory factor analysis, the 40 items of AA fairness were intercorrelated and rotated to form a simple structure by means of the varimax rotation. In order to determine which variables to keep, the factor loadings, the cross-loading of items on more than one factor, the reliability and importance of a variable were taken into consideration before deleting certain items. After deleting 11 items, another factor analysis was done. Based on Kaiser’s criterion, four factors were postulated (see table 8.2). As indicated in table 8.1, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for measuring sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity display satisfactory results. The KMO value (0.933) is greater than 0.7 which means the data set is likely to factor well. Bartlett’s test rejects the hypothesis (at $p < 0.001$) that the correlation matrix

8.2

is an identity matrix, without significant correlations between variables. Both diagnostic tests confirm that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

TABLE 8.1: KMO MEASURE AND BARTLETT'S TEST: AA FAIRNESS

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.933
	Approx Chi-Square	5374.294
	df	406
	Sig	0.000

TABLE 8.2: EIGENVALUES AND TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FACTORS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS

Factor	Initial	% of	Cumulative %	Rotation Sums of	% of	Cumulative %
	Eigenvalues			Total		
	Total	Variance		Total	Variance	
1	10.904	37.601	37.601	4.423	15.253	15.253
2	3.287	11.335	48.937	3.680	12.691	27.944
3	1.214	4.187	53.123	3.664	12.635	40.579
4	1.161	4.003	57.126	2.905	10.016	50.595
5	0.909	3.134	60.260			
6	0.868	2.992	63.252			
7	0.837	2.885	66.137			
8	0.790	2.724	68.861			
9	0.737	2.540	71.402			
10	0.677	2.334	73.735			
11	0.628	2.165	75.900			
12	0.597	2.057	77.958			
13	0.559	1.927	79.885			
14	0.527	1.819	81.704			
15	0.514	1.774	83.477			
16	0.502	1.729	85.207			
17	0.473	1.630	86.836			
18	0.454	1.566	88.402			
19	0.426	1.470	89.872			
20	0.399	1.376	91.247			
21	0.375	1.293	92.540			
22	0.353	1.218	93.758			
23	0.347	1.197	94.955			
24	0.290	1.001	95.955			
25	0.279	0.962	96.917			
26	0.269	0.927	97.844			
27	0.240	0.827	98.671			
28	0.197	0.680	99.351			
29	0.188	0.649	100.000			

According to the eigenvalues in table 8.2, four factors have eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which is a common criterion for a factor to be useful. The scree plot (fig 8.1) below supports a four factor solution.

FIGURE 8.1: SCREE PLOT - FACTOR ANALYSIS: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS

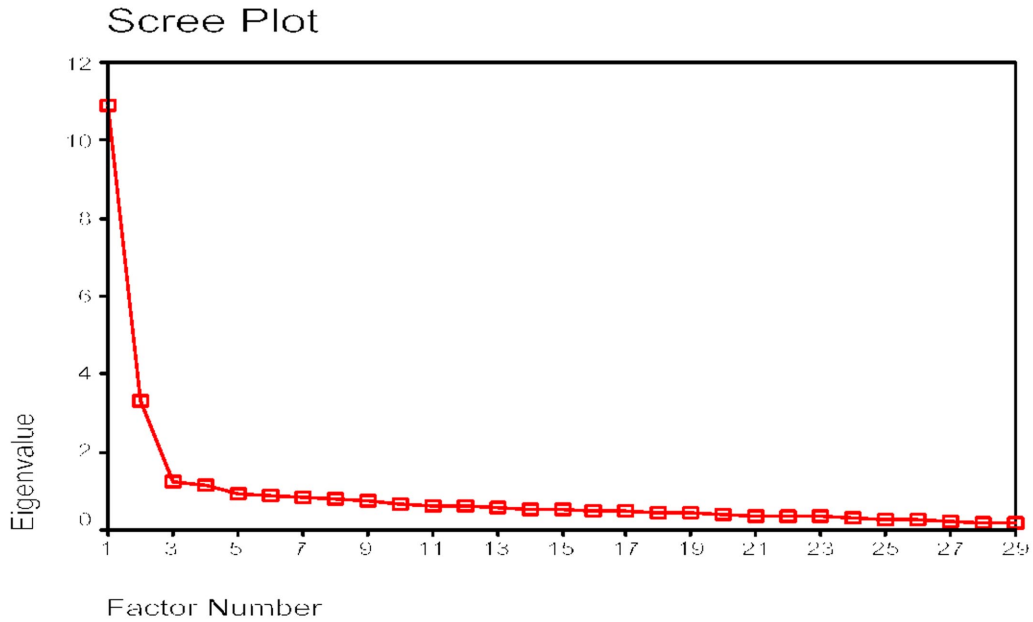


TABLE 8.3: ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1				
Recognise the value of AA employees	0.727			
AA employees are capable	0.644			
Guiding AA iro realistic career expectations	0.590			
Informing employees about EE policy	0.572			
Training supervisors to manage diversity	0.519			
Accommodating AA culture when socialising	0.507			
Accurate and complete records available	0.491			
Informing: EE implications for careers	0.488			

TABLE 8.3 (continued)

8.4

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 2				
All employees' careers equally important		0.681		
Opportunity to appeal		0.677		
Equal chance to influence selection decision		0.614		
Joint decision making		0.550		
Mechanisms to protect against discrimination		0.520		
Applying rules/procedures strictly & consistently		0.491		
Adjust systems to integrate AA employees		0.435		
Factor 3				
Apply selection criteria consistently			0.742	
Use accurate performance data for evaluation			0.702	
Same performance standards			0.681	
Use predetermined, job-related selection criteria			0.601	
Use more than one performance appraiser			0.503	
Disciplinary action applied strictly and consistently			0.447	
Factor 4				
Giving black managers token positions				0.682
Training AA employees to replace jobholder				0.668
Unrealistically high salaries for AA managers				0.653
Appointing/promoting less qualified people				0.650
Recruiting AA people through provisions in ad				0.504
Use EE plan and workforce profile to appoint				0.481
Focus on development/advancement of AA				0.464
Use criteria (ethnicity, gender) to appoint				0.434

Section B of the questionnaire attempts to determine how employees form perceptions of the fairness of AA. As discussed in chapter 4, employees' perceptions about the fairness of AA are influenced by the actual outcome of an AA decision (distributive fairness), the procedures applied in making an AA decision (procedural fairness) and the way they are treated during the AA intervention (interactional fairness). The results of the study support the theory and identified four factors in respect of fairness. Each of these factors will now be discussed.

8.2.1.1 Factor B1: interactional justice

This factor includes issues relating to how employees are treated and which employees regard as important when judging the fairness of AA. The elements of this factor include recognising the value and abilities of employees from designated groups, helping employees from designated groups to build realistic career expectations, keeping employees informed about employment equity issues, training supervisors to manage diversity, having complete and accurate records available about any decisions that were based

on employment equity provisions and accommodating diverse cultures. The focus is primarily on how employees are treated and how interpersonal relationships influence employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA.

8.2.1.2 Factor B2: procedural justice - input

This factor refers to the procedures in particular, the opportunities employees receive to influence the final outcome of or decision about AA issues. The elements of this factor include regarding all employees' careers as equally important, allowing employees to appeal, affording employees the opportunity to influence a selection decision, making use of joint decision making, providing mechanisms to protect employees against discrimination, applying rules and procedures strictly and consistently, and adjusting systems to integrate AA employees.

8.2.1.3 Factor B3: procedural justice - criteria/standards

This factor also refers to the procedures used to handle AA issues, but focuses on the criteria or standards used in making a decision. The elements of this factor include applying selection criteria consistently, using accurate performance data when evaluating an employee, applying the same performance standards to all employees, using predetermined, job-related selection criteria, using more than one person to appraise an employee's performance, and taking disciplinary action strictly and consistently.

8.2.1.4 Factor B4: distributive justice

This factor refers to the actual decision on or outcome of AA. When a decision is based on the following, employees perceive it as unfair: giving black employees token positions, training AA employees to replace current jobholders, paying unrealistically high salaries to AA managers, appointing or promoting less qualified employees, recruiting AA employees by means of special provisions in advertisements, making selection decisions on the basis of the employment equity plan and workforce profile, focusing on the development and advancement of AA employees and making selection decisions on the basis of criteria such as ethnicity and gender.

8.2.2 Treatment of AA employees in the workplace (section C)

In the first round of exploratory factor analysis, the 26 items on treatment of AA employees in the workplace were intercorrelated and rotated to form a simple structure by means of the varimax rotation. To determine which variables to keep, the factor loadings, the cross-loading of items on more than one factor, and the reliability and importance of a variable were taken into consideration before deleting certain items. After deleting four items, another factor analysis was performed. Based on Kaiser's criterion, four factors were postulated. As indicated in table 8.4, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for measuring sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity display satisfactory results. The KMO value (0.942) is above 0.7 which means the data set is likely to factor well. Bartlett's test rejects the hypothesis (at $p < 0.001$) that the

correlation matrix is an identity matrix, without significant correlations between variables. Both diagnostic tests confirm that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

TABLE 8.4: KMO MEASURE AND BARTLETT'S TEST: TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.942
	Approx. Chi-Square	5457.667
	df	231
	Sig.	0.000

TABLE 8.5: EIGENVALUES AND TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FACTORS OF TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.197	50.894	50.894	4.107	18.667	18.667
2	1.578	7.171	58.065	3.793	17.239	35.906
3	1.284	5.837	63.902	3.000	13.638	49.544
4	1.009	4.584	68.487	2.742	12.462	62.006
5	0.742	3.374	71.861			
6	0.666	3.029	74.890			
7	0.636	2.891	77.781			
8	0.568	2.581	80.362			
9	0.533	2.425	82.787			
10	0.460	2.089	84.876			
11	0.425	1.930	86.806			
12	0.376	1.709	88.516			
13	0.369	1.677	90.192			
14	0.334	1.519	91.711			
15	0.315	1.432	93.143			
16	0.296	1.346	94.490			
17	0.265	1.202	95.692			
18	0.257	1.168	96.860			
19	0.206	0.936	97.796			
20	0.190	0.862	98.658			
21	0.157	0.716	99.374			
22	0.138	0.626	100.000			

According to the eigenvalues in table 8.4, four factors have eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which is a common criterion for a factor to be useful. The scree plot (see fig 8.2) below supports a four-factor solution.

FIGURE 8.2: SCREE PLOT - FACTOR ANALYSIS: TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE

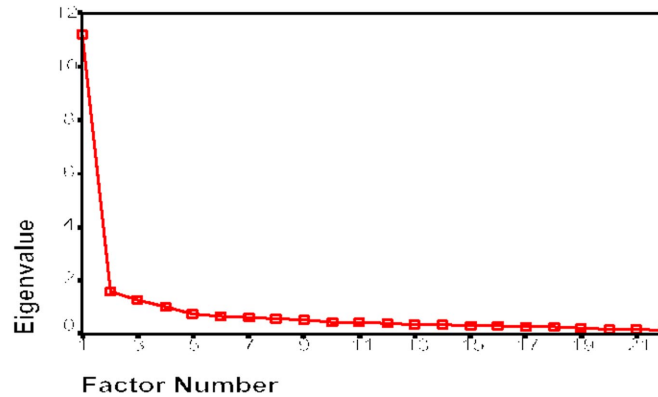


TABLE 8.6: ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1				
Significant and important jobs	0.646			
Opportunity to use initiative or judgment	0.627			
Challenging jobs	0.623			
Variety of skills and competencies	0.616			
Jobs that provide feedback on performance	0.591			
Jobs that require cooperation with others	0.579			
Jobs with clearly defined tasks	0.577			
Determine their own work pace, order of tasks	0.494			
Factor 2				
Treated with respect and dignity		0.868		
Listened to when they make suggestions		0.676		
Free do discuss problems with co-workers		0.653		
Recognised for work done well		0.575		
AA employees are seen as contributors to success		0.573		
Social events consider cultural differences		0.463		

TABLE 8.6 (continued)

8.8

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 3				
Responsible for assignments and projects			0.861	
Responsible for equipment and facilities			0.719	
Responsible for initiating assignments and projects			0.664	
Responsible for budgets and expenditures			0.595	
Factor 4				
Expected to meet realistic performance standards				0.721
Expected to meet realistic workloads				0.583
Held accountable for their decisions				0.567
Personally responsible for work performed				0.558

Section C of the questionnaire attempts to determine how AA employees are treated in the workplace. As discussed in chapter 5, employees are most concerned about being treated *fairly* and with *respect*, to work in an environment of *trust* and to have supervisors who are *concerned* about their well-being. The results of the study support the theory and identified four factors relating to how AA employees are treated in the workplace. Each of these factors will now be discussed.

8.2.2.1 Factor C1: Task autonomy

This factor refers to the level of autonomy employees from designated groups have in the workplace. The elements of this factor include the significance, importance and difficulty of jobs performed by AA employees, the opportunity they have to use their initiative and judgment, the extent to which the job allows them to use a variety of skills and competencies, whether they receive feedback on performance, the level of cooperation required to perform a task, the extent to which tasks are defined, and whether they are allowed to determine their own work pace and the order in which tasks need to be completed.

8.2.2.2 Factor C2: Respect

This factor refers to the way employees from designated groups are treated in the workplace, and in particular how they are treated as human beings. According to this factor, employees feel that they are treated with respect when they are treated with dignity, listened to when they make suggestions, free to discuss problems with co-workers, recognised for work done well, regarded as contributors to the success of the department and their cultural differences taken into consideration at social events.

8.2.2.3 Factor C3: Responsibility

This factor refers to the responsibility with which employees from designated groups wish to be entrusted. Employees from designated groups want to accept responsibility for important tasks such as specific

assignments and projects, equipment and facilities, initiating assignments and projects, and budgets and expenditures.

8.2.2.4 Factor C4: Realistic expectations

This factor refers to the way employees from designated groups expect to be treated with regard to expectations. It indicates that AA employees should be expected to meet realistic performance standards and workloads. In addition, they expect to be held accountable for their decisions and the work they perform.

Each of these factors comprises three or more variables recommended by Thurstone (Kimm & Mueller, 1978).

8.2.3 Commitment (section D)

In the first round of exploratory factor analysis, the 37 items in respect of commitment were intercorrelated and rotated to form a simple structure by means of the varimax rotation. In order to determine which variables to keep, the factor loadings, the cross-loading of items on more than one factor, the reliability and importance of a variable were taken into consideration before deleting certain items. After deleting 16 items, another factor analysis was performed. Based on Kaiser's criterion, four factors were postulated. As indicated in table 8.6, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure for measuring sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's test of sphericity display satisfactory results. The KMO value (0.879) is greater than 0.7 which means the data set is likely to factor well. Bartlett's test rejects the hypothesis (at $p < 0.001$) that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, without significant correlations between variables. Both diagnostic tests confirm that the data are suitable for factor analysis.

TABLE 8.7: KMO MEASURE AND BARTLETT'S TEST: COMMITMENT

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.875
	Approx. Chi-Square	2479.872
	df	190
	Sig.	0.000

TABLE 8.8: EIGENVALUES AND TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FACTORS OF COMMITMENT

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.120	30.601	30.601	3.606	18.032	18.032
2	2.308	11.539	42.140	1.871	9.353	27.384
3	1.441	7.207	49.347	1.811	9.055	36.439
4	1.144	5.718	55.065	1.658	8.290	44.729
5	0.927	4.634	59.699			
6	0.862	4.311	64.010			
7	0.802	4.008	68.018			
8	0.756	3.778	71.796			
9	0.711	3.553	75.349			
10	0.681	3.406	78.755			
11	0.619	3.093	81.848			
12	0.564	2.820	84.668			
13	0.530	2.649	87.317			
14	0.482	2.408	89.725			
15	0.460	2.298	92.023			
16	0.382	1.911	93.934			
17	0.344	1.720	95.654			
18	0.330	1.648	97.302			
19	0.312	1.558	98.860			
20	0.228	1.140	100.000			

According to the eigenvalues in table 8.7, four factors have eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which is a common criterion for a factor to be useful. The scree plot (fig 8.3) below supports this solution.

FIGURE 8.3: SCREE PLOT - FACTOR ANALYSIS: COMMITMENT

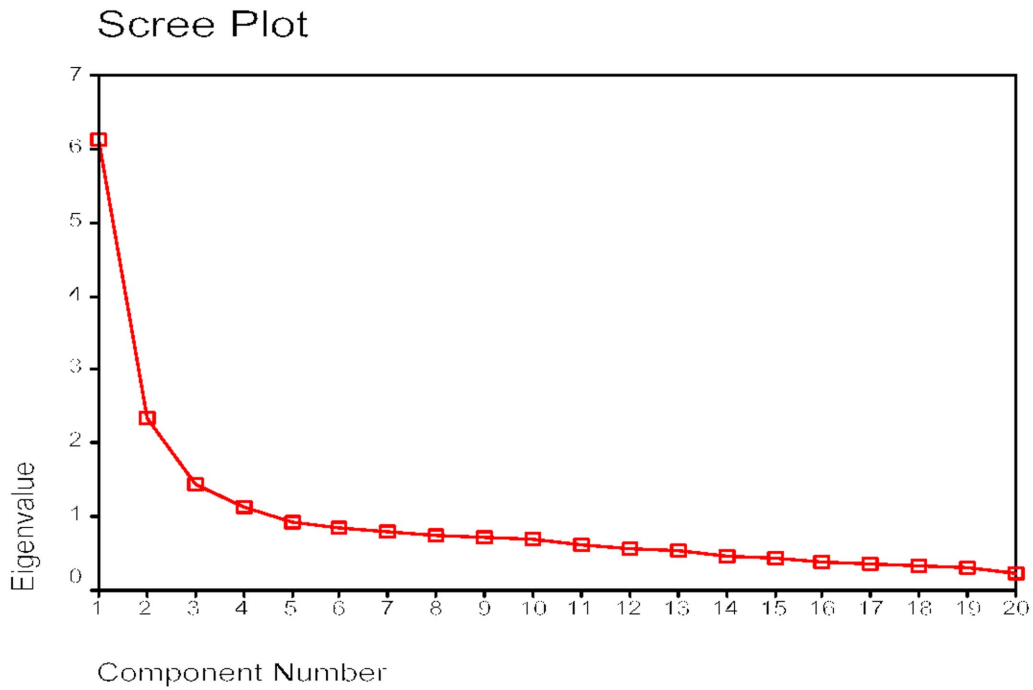


TABLE 8.9: ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR COMMITMENT

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1				
Treats bank property with care	0.754			
Obeys bank rules and regulations	0.667			
Concerned about the bank's image	0.613			
Keeps workplace clean and tidy	0.578			
Punctual	0.552			
Does not take unnecessary long breaks	0.515			
Helps others with heavy workloads	0.495			
Stays informed about the bank	0.499			
Prevents problems with colleagues	0.460			
Never absent without a valid reason	0.432			

TABLE 8.9 (continued)

8.12

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 2				
Enjoys job		0.793		
Pleasant work environment		0.618		
Sense of personal satisfaction - good work		0.579		
Factor 3				
Shares ideas for new projects/improvements			0.663	
Makes suggestions to improve operations			0.645	
Attends and participates in bank meetings			0.562	
Factor 4				
Not resigning -obligation to remain				0.736
Not resigning - like my job				0.666
Seldom think about resigning				0.504
Not resigning - costs too high				0.413

Section D of the questionnaire attempts to determine employees' commitment by means of their behaviour in the workplace. As discussed in chapter 5, the behaviour of employees can be grouped into five categories: *altruism*, *courtesy*, *sportsmanship*, *conscientiousness* and *civic virtue*. Inkeles (1969) identifies three categories of work behaviour, namely *obedience*, *loyalty* and *participation*. The results of the study support the theory, and identified four factors relating to how employees behave in the workplace. Each of these factors will now be discussed.

8.2.3.1 Factor D1: Obedience (conscientiousness)

This factor refers to the way employees adhere to rules and procedures and behave according to group norms. The elements of this factor include treating bank property with care, obeying bank rules and regulations, being concerned about the bank's image, keeping the workplace clean and tidy, being punctual and not taking unnecessary long breaks, helping others with heavy workloads, staying informed about the bank, preventing problems with colleagues, and having valid reasons for staying away from work.

8.2.3.2 Factor D2: Job satisfaction

This factor refers to employees' satisfaction with their jobs. According to this factor, employees are satisfied with their jobs when they enjoy working, have a pleasant work environment and experience a sense of personal satisfaction when they perform well.

8.2.3.3 Factor D3: Participation (civic virtue)

An important aspect of employees' commitment is the extent to which they participate and are involved in work-related issues. The elements of this factor include the opportunity employees are afforded to share ideas or make suggestions on new projects or changes, and whether they attend and participate in bank meetings.

8.2.3.4 Factor D4: Loyalty

Loyalty plays a vital part of employees' commitment and is often measured by their attitudes toward remaining with the organisation. According to this factor there are various reasons why employees will not resign. The first is because they feel they have an obligation not to resign. The second is because they like their jobs, and lastly, they cannot afford to resign because the costs are too high. Resigning would, in such instances, mean losing accumulated leave days and retirement contributions.

Each of these factors consists of three or more variables which are recommended by Thurstone (Kimm & Mueller, 1978).

8.2.4 Factorial reliability

The internal consistency coefficient, Cronbach alpha (Lemke & Wiersma, 1976), was computed for each of the factors identified. The means, variance, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis for the total sample regarding the identified factors and the Cronbach alpha values are provided in tables 8.10 to 8.21.

TABLE 8.10: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR B1 (INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
B22	3.8099	1.2962	.7395	.8619
B24	3.8630	1.3482	.6905	.8663
B15	4.2962	1.4295	.6098	.8745
B20	3.9038	1.3956	.6748	.8677
B21	3.9152	1.4568	.5646	.8793
B23	3.7384	1.4368	.6350	.8719
B34	4.2170	1.4040	.6235	.8730
B25	3.8475	1.2709	.7038	.8655
Statistics for Scale	Mean 31.5910	Variance 67.4864	Std deviation 8.2150	Variables 8
Skewness		-.198	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.222	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 8	Alpha = .8844

TABLE 8.11: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR B2 (PROCEDURAL JUSTICE: INPUT)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
B10	3.8343	1.6914	.7161	.8330
B 7	3.6793	1.5562	.6628	.8410
B 5	3.6287	1.6098	.6262	.8463
B 1	3.8459	1.4372	.6253	.8465
B13	3.7304	1.5665	.6573	.8418
B12	3.9566	1.5742	.6257	.8463
B 8	3.7936	1.3480	.5293	.8583
Statistics for Scale	Mean 26.4689	Variance 64.3630	Std deviation 8.0227	Variables 7
Skewness		-.006	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.717	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 7	Alpha = .8642

TABLE 8.12: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR B3 (PROCEDURAL JUSTICE: CRITERIA)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
B28	3.7493	1.4665	.7776	.8439
B30	3.9766	1.4698	.7714	.8449
B29	3.9708	1.5441	.7495	.8481
B27	3.8830	1.3276	.6383	.8670
B31	3.6058	1.6404	.5895	.8769
B16	3.0640	1.5689	.6197	.8706
Statistics for Scale	Mean 23.2494	Variance 50.9708	Std deviation 7.1394	Variables 6
Skewness		-.147	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.711	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 6	Alpha = .8796

TABLE 8.13: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR B4 (DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
B39	3.5572	1.6099	.5576	.7786
B40	3.5906	1.4311	.6199	.7702
B19	3.5868	1.7129	.5111	.7869
B11	3.6841	1.6475	.5259	.7839
B 6	4.3848	1.3826	.4864	.7893
B 2	4.0671	1.4238	.4536	.7938
B 9	4.1652	1.3850	.4833	.7879
B32	4.2674	1.3660	.5283	.7837
Statistics for Scale	Mean 31.3033	Variance 61.1748	Std deviation 7.8214	Variables 8
Skewness		-.194	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		.029	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 8	Alpha = .8064

TABLE 8.14: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR C1 (TASK AUTONOMY)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
C2	3.9395	1.2728	.7016	.9007
C5	3.0287	1.2500	.7955	.8924
C7	3.0776	1.3249	.7742	.8942
C1	3.8818	1.1599	.6968	.9011
C3	3.9856	1.1829	.7408	.8974
C4	4.3006	1.1406	.7134	.8998
C6	4.1902	1.1713	.7358	.8979
C8	3.6424	1.3054	.5527	.9140
Statistics for Scale	Mean 32.0465	Variance 59.4969	Std deviation 7.7134	Variables 8
Skewness		-.235	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.103	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 8	Alpha = .9112

TABLE 8.15: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR C2 (RESPECT)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
C21	4.3797	1.3383	.8614	.8649
C20	4.0862	1.3190	.7758	.8778
C25	3.9684	1.4862	.7446	.8821
C11	4.1826	1.4218	.7192	.8858
C22	4.0665	1.4339	.6977	.8891
C24	3.9971	1.3968	.6033	.9027
Statistics for Scale	Mean 24.6805	Variance 47.2988	Std deviation 6.8774	Variables 6
Skewness		-.505	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.358	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 6	Alpha = .9014

TABLE 8.16: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR C3 (RESPONSIBILITY)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
C15	3.5607	1.3209	.7206	.8322
C16	3.2478	1.4311	.6578	.8593
C17	3.6715	1.2871	.8015	.8011
C18	3.7098	1.3664	.7111	.8359
Statistics for Scale	Mean 14.1898	Variance 20.9942	Std deviation 4.5819	Variables 4
Skewness		.039	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.423	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 4	Alpha = .8687

TABLE 8.17: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR C4 (REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
C13	4.1264	1.2959	.7058	.8025
C14	4.2435	1.2124	.7566	.7810
C 9	4.2261	1.2110	.6740	.8159
C10	4.2219	1.2433	.6244	.8366
Statistics for Scale	Mean 16.8179	Variance 16.9983	Std deviation 4.1229	Variables 4
Skewness		-.214	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.657	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 6	Alpha = .8500

TABLE 8.18: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR D1 (OBEDIENCE)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
D 6	5.5072	0.6849	.7160	.8130
D 2	5.3582	0.7809	.6160	.8180
D 5	5.2730	0.9301	.6440	.8140
D 9	5.3075	0.8306	.5360	.8250
D 4	5.3266	0.8982	.5400	.8240
D 3	5.2779	1.0450	.4910	.8310
D 1	4.8539	0.9907	.4880	.8300
D 8	4.9685	1.0836	.5510	.8240
D11	5.7176	0.6572	.3860	.8370
D13	5.2845	0.8724	.4470	.8320
Statistics for Scale	Mean 52.8748	Variance 32.2510	Std deviation 5.6789	Variables 10
Skewness		-.975	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		1.143	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 10	Alpha = .8400

TABLE 8.19: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR D2 (JOB SATISFACTION)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
D25	4.6801	1.2147	.6787	.5725
D26	4.4957	1.2940	.6170	.6543
D27	5.2882	0.9902	.5033	.7733
Statistics for Scale	Mean 14.4640	Variance 8.3753	Std deviation 2.8940	Variables 3
Skewness		-.873	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.885	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 3	Alpha = .7602

TABLE 8.20: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR D3 (PARTICIPATION)

Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
D17	4.4783	1.1915	.5550	.6598
D10	4.8510	1.0937	.6457	.5500
D 7	5.0948	1.0879	.4888	.7304
Statistics for Scale	Mean 14.4241	Variance 7.4635	Std deviation 2.7319	Variables 3
Skewness		-.853	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.858	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 3	Alpha = .7364

TABLE 8.21: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS - FACTOR D4 (LOYALTY)

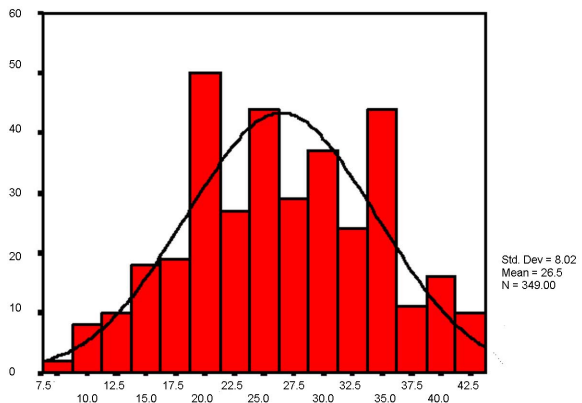
Item statistics	Mean	Std Deviation	Corrected Item Total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
D29	3.4121	1.5444	.5960	.5730
D31	4.1034	1.4955	.6030	.5710
D15	3.8736	1.6103	.4910	.6400
D30	3.1676	1.5890	.2950	.7550
Statistics for Scale	Mean 14.5567	Variance 20.6320	Std deviation 4.5423	Variables 4
Skewness		-.151	S/error skewness	.131
Kurtosis		-.297	S/error kurtosis	.260
Reliability Coefficients		N = 349	Number of items = 4	Alpha = .7040

As indicated in tables 8.10 to 8.21, the reliability of the factors, as measured by alpha, are all above 0.70 and none of the items, if deleted, increases the internal consistency of items in a factor. It thus proves that an item belongs to a particular factor.

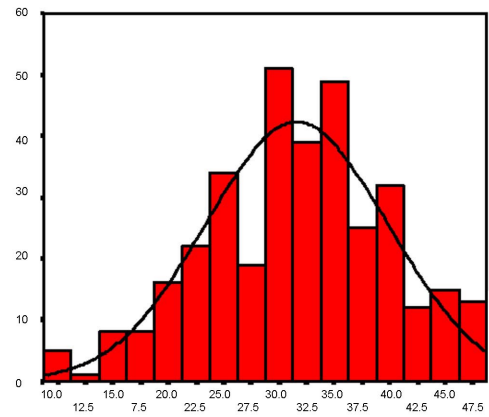
Before the factors can be used in other statistical analysis, it is also necessary to examine statistics such as the mean, variance, skewness, kurtosis and standard deviations. Figure 8.4 provides the descriptive statistics of the factors discussed above.

FIGURE 8.4: MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF FACTORS FOR ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

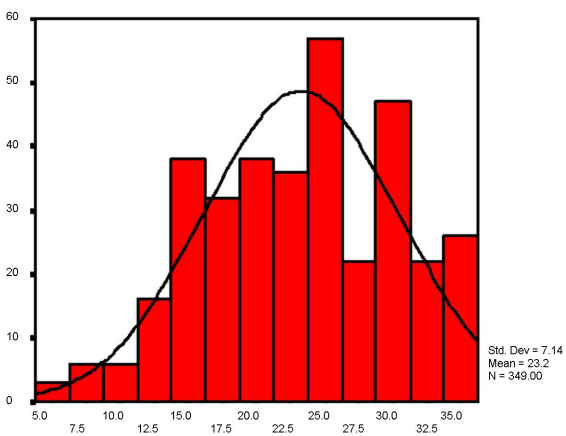
PROCEDURAL JUSTICE: INPUT



INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE



PROCEDURAL JUSTICE: CRITERIA



DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

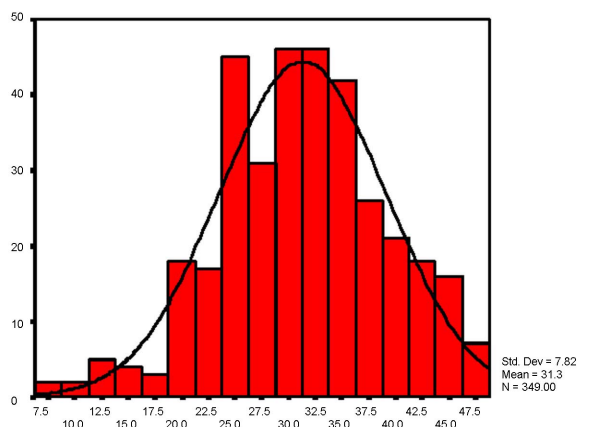


FIGURE 8.5: MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF FACTORS FOR TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE

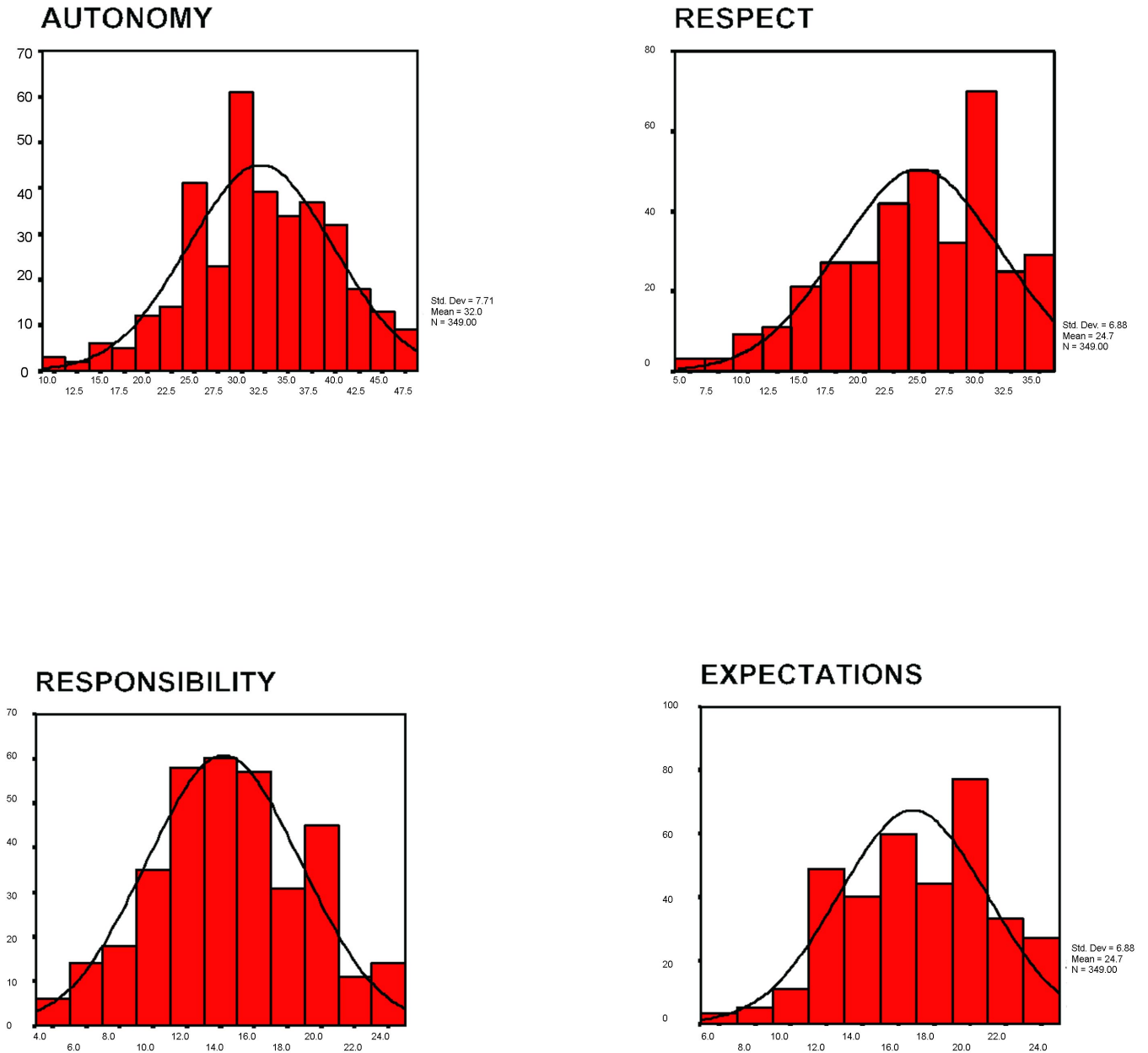
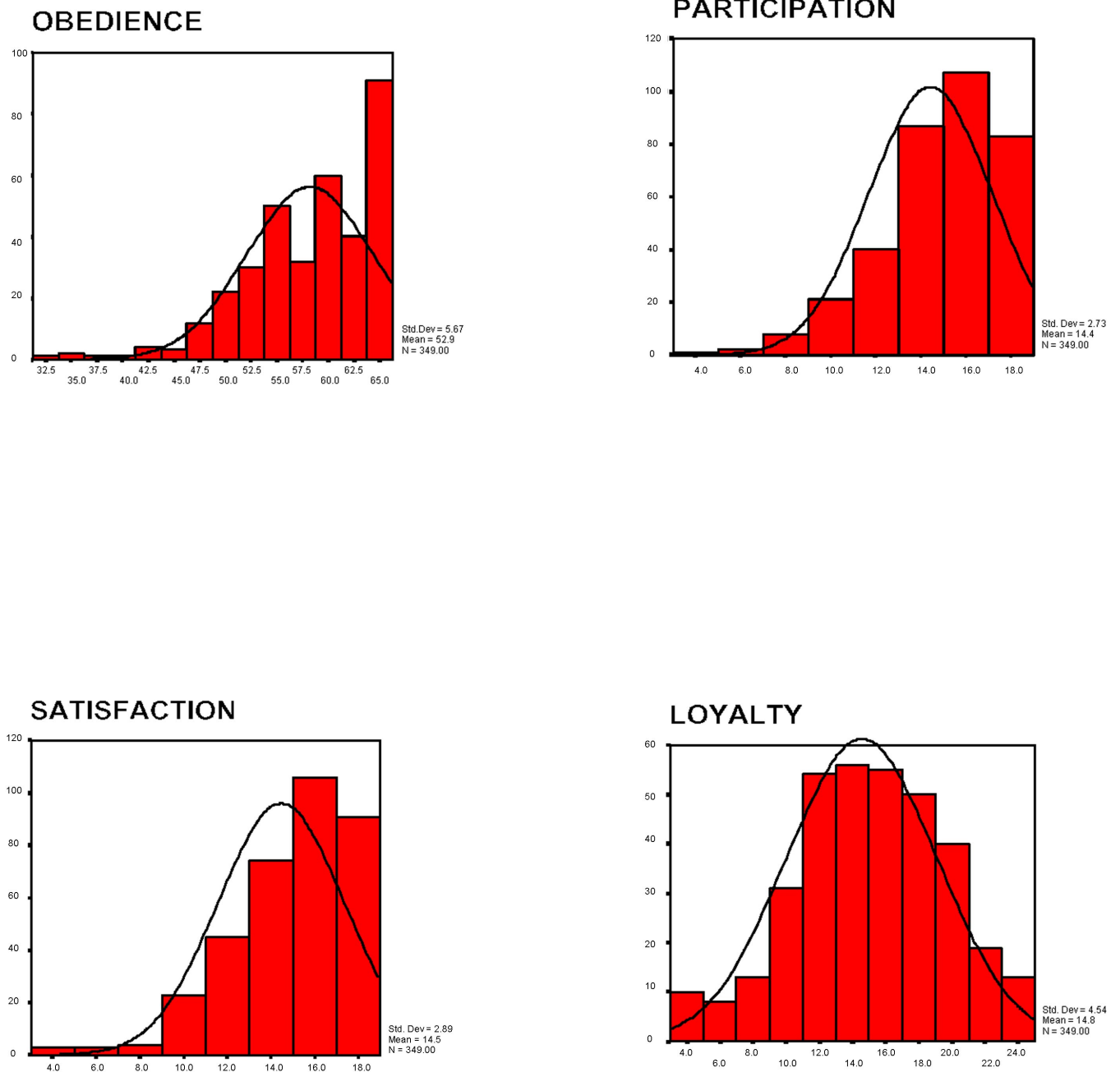


FIGURE 8.6: MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF FACTORS FOR COMMITMENT



As mentioned earlier, two types of statistics, namely parametric and nonparametric are available when deciding on the most appropriate statistical method. A parametric test is appropriate when the population score is normally distributed, the variances of the groups are equal and the dependant variable is an interval scale. In order to determine whether a factor is normally distributed, the skewness and kurtosis should not be more than 2.5 times the standard error of skewness and kurtosis.

With reference to tables 8.10 to 8.21, this means that the *skewness* of a factor should be less than 0.32 (0.131×2.5) and the *kurtosis* should be less than 0.65 (0.260×2.5) for a factor to be regarded as normally distributed. A closer look at the skewness and kurtosis of factors D1 (obedience), D2 (satisfaction) and D3 (participation) indicates that the skewness and kurtosis do not meet these requirements — hence these factors are not normally distributed. This means that nonparametric statistics will have to be used in some cases.

8.3 COMPARATIVE STATISTICS

8.3.1 Students' t-test of difference of means

Students' t-test is appropriate when an independent variable with two categories and one continuous dependent are used, and the difference between the means of the various categories of the independent variable need to be tested. The data sets of the following variables were collapsed: gender, ethnicity, marital status, number of years in current position, number of years' service at the bank and staff category. After the data sets were collapsed, the difference between the means of the independent variables were determined.

Tables 8.22 to 8.27 indicate how the various groups (male/female, blacks/whites, married/single, etc) differ with regard to the various behavioural domains (factors). Since the dependent variables are approximately normally distributed and measured on a scale that at least approximates interval data, parametric t-tests were used. The SPSS program provided applicable statistics where Levens F test was significant and the assumption of normality was violated.

8.3.1.1 Gender

According to table 8.22, men and women differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) with regard to *obedience* ($p = 0.046$) and *loyalty* ($p = 0.004$). According to the mean scores, women ($\bar{x} = 58.688$) are more inclined to adhere to rules and regulations than men ($\bar{x} = 57.303$), and women ($\bar{x} = 15.064$) as opposed to men ($\bar{x} = 13.589$), display greater loyalty towards the bank. These differences, however, are not of practical significance since all the practical significance values are less than 0.50.

8.3.1.2 Ethnicity

According to table 8.23, there are statistical significant differences ($p < 0.001$) between blacks' and whites', perceptions of *organisational justice*; how employees from designated groups are *treated* in the workplace; and how employees *behave* in the workplace. The only two factors on which blacks and whites do not differ are work satisfaction ($p = 0.083$) and loyalty ($p = 0.131$). As indicated, it is also important to consider the *practical* significance of a difference. The differences between blacks and whites are of practical significance only with regard to *distributive justice* ($d = 0.93$), *autonomy* ($d = 0.60$) and *respect* ($d = 0.54$). With regard to distributive justice, the mean scores indicate that the actual decisions taken on AA issues strongly influence whites' perceptions ($\bar{x} = 33.755$) about the fairness of AA. Blacks ($\bar{x} = 27.069$), on the other hand, are less concerned about most of the decisions taken on AA when forming a perception of the fairness of AA. A possible explanation could be that most AA decisions favour blacks and they are therefore unlikely to question the fairness of a decision.

Regarding treatment in the workplace, blacks, unlike whites, believe that they receive little autonomy ($\bar{x} = 28.962$) and respect ($\bar{x} = 22.118$). However, blacks and whites seem to be equally satisfied and loyal. This is surprising if one considers the fact that blacks believe that they are treated with little respect and are given little responsibility.

8.3.1.3 Marital status

According to table 8.24, married and single employees differ significantly ($p < 0.001$) with regard to *distributive justice* ($p = 0.003$), *work satisfaction* ($p = 0.002$) and *participation* ($p = 0.007$). These differences, however, are not of practical significance since all the practical significance values are less than 0.50. According to the mean scores, married employees ($\bar{x} = 32.251$) regard distributive justice issues as vital to the fairness of AA. Married employees are also more satisfied ($\bar{x} = 14.869$) and participative ($\bar{x} = 14.738$) than single employees.

8.3.1.4 Number of years in current position

According to table 8.25, employees with more than two years of service in a specific position differ significantly from employees with less than two years of service with regard to *loyalty*. The two-tailed significance value ($p = 0.019$) is less than 0.05 which indicates that this difference is statistically significant. Although the mean scores indicate that employees with more years of service ($\bar{x} = 15.093$) tend to be slightly more loyal, the effect size ($d = 0.31$) of the difference between employees with one to two years of service and employees with more than two years is so small that it is negligible.

8.3.1.5 Years service at the bank

Table 8.26 indicates that significant differences ($p < 0.05$) exist between employees with seven or more years of service and employees with less than seven years' service. There are statistically significant differences between these two groups of employees with regard to *distributive justice* ($p = 0.000$), how AA employees are treated with regard to *autonomy* ($p = 0.004$) and *respect* ($p = 0.001$), and their behaviour in

terms of *satisfaction* ($p=0.006$), *participation* ($p=0.027$) and *loyalty* ($p=0.028$). However the practical significance of these differences is small ($d<0.50$), and one can therefore conclude that the number of years' service has only a minor effect on the perceptions of the fairness of AA, treatment of AA employees in the workplace and commitment. According to the mean scores, although these are not conclusive, employees with more than seven years of service ($\bar{x}=33.041$) seem to regard distributive justice issues as critical to the fairness of AA. They also believe that employees from designated groups do receive autonomy ($\bar{x}=33.205$) and are treated with respect ($\bar{x}=25.849$) in the workplace. Regarding commitment, employees with more than seven years of service tend to be more participative ($\bar{x}=14.744$) and loyal ($\bar{x}=15.093$). Since there is a significant association ($\eta = 0.498$) between years of service at the bank and ethnicity, it is possible that ethnicity rather than the number of years of service determines perceptions of AA fairness and the treatment of AA employees.

8.3.1.6 Staff category

According to table 8.27, there are significant differences ($p<0.05$) between management and clerical staff in respect of *distributive justice* ($p=0.000$), *autonomy* ($p=0.005$), *respect* ($p=0.004$) and *participation* ($p=0.000$).

As far as the practical significance of differences between management and clerical staff is concerned, it is only with regard to *distributive justice* ($d>0.50$) that the difference is of any practical importance. AA decisions such as giving AA employees token positions, paying unrealistically high salaries to AA managers, appointing less qualified employees, focusing on the development and advancement of AA employees, and making selection decisions based on criteria such as ethnicity and gender play a prominent role in forming perceptions about the fairness of AA. According to the mean scores, management view distributive justice ($\bar{x}=33.442$), the criteria used when dealing with AA issues ($\bar{x}=24.173$) and the way people are treated ($\bar{x}=32.541$) as vital considerations when forming perceptions about the fairness of AA. In contrast to the opinion of clerical staff, management believe that employees from designated groups are given autonomy ($\bar{x}=33.233$) and treated with respect ($\bar{x}=25.757$). Management appear to be more satisfied ($\bar{x}=14.799$) and participative ($\bar{x}=14.985$) than clerical staff.

TABLE 8.22: STUDENTS' T-TEST: COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES OF **GENDER** GROUPINGS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Gender	N	Mean	Std deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p	Practical significance d
					F	Sig				
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Male	120	30.946	8.316	0.279	0.598	-1.062	347	0.289	
	Female	229	31.929	8.160			-1.055	237.761	0.292	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	Male	120	25.773	7.802	0.083	0.774	-1.174	347	0.241	
	Female	229	26.834	8.129			-1.189	250.584	0.235	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	Male	120	23.088	7.023	0.234	0.629	-0.306	347	0.760	
	Female	229	23.334	7.213			-0.309	247.451	0.758	
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Male	120	31.427	8.600	4.581	0.033*	0.213	347	0.832	
	Female	229	31.239	7.400			0.203	212.544	0.839	
C. AUTONOMY	Male	120	32.414	7.377	1.760	0.185	0.643	347	0.520	
	Female	229	31.854	7.893			0.657	256.423	0.512	
C. RESPECT	Male	120	24.512	6.614	1.732	0.189	-0.332	347	0.740	
	Female	229	24.769	7.024			-0.338	254.762	0.735	
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Male	120	14.388	4.251	2.925	0.088	0.585	347	0.559	
	Female	229	14.086	4.752			0.605	266.241	0.546	
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	Male	120	16.737	4.218	0.093	0.760	-0.264	347	0.792	
	Female	229	16.860	4.081			-0.261	234.867	0.794	
D. OBEDIENCE	Male	120	57.303	6.267	0.174	0.677	-1.999	347	0.046	0.22
	Female	229	58.688	6.088			-1.981	235.710	0.049	
D. SATISFACTION	Male	120	14.204	2.901	0.047	0.829	-1.216	347	0.225	
	Female	229	14.600	2.888			-1.215	240.791	0.226	
D. PARTICIPATION	Male	120	14.783	2.488	2.137	0.145	1.784	347	0.075	
	Female	229	14.236	2.839			1.859	270.971	0.064	
D. LOYALTY	Male	120	13.589	4.080	1.910	0.168	-2.912	347	0.004	0.31
	Female	229	15.064	4.696			-3.042	272.917	0.003	

* Unequal variance

TABLE 8.23: STUDENTS' T-EST: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF **ETHNIC** GROUPINGS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Ethnic group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p	Practical significance d
					F	Sig.				
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Black	128	29.950	9.564	15.113	0.000*	-2.870	347	0.004	0.27
	White	221	32.542	7.175			-2.663	210.389	0.008	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	Black	128	25.345	8.208	0.001	0.971	-2.000	347	0.046	0.21
	White	221	27.120	7.859			-1.977	255.987	0.049	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	Black	128	21.787	7.215	0.031	0.861	-2.945	347	0.003	0.32
	White	221	24.097	6.972			-2.918	257.958	0.004	
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Black	128	27.070	7.094	0.316	0.574	-8.436	347	0.000	0.93
	White	221	33.755	7.159			-8.457	267.335	0.000	
C. AUTONOMY	Black	128	28.962	8.018	3.278	0.071	-5.961	347	0.000	0.60
	White	221	33.833	6.947			-5.739	235.719	0.000	
C. RESPECT	Black	128	22.118	7.442	11.642	0.001*	-5.517	347	0.000	0.54
	White	221	26.165	6.068			-5.227	224.418	0.000	
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Black	128	13.462	4.506	0.381	0.538	-2.270	347	0.024	0.25
	White	221	14.611	4.583			-2.281	269.052	0.023	
C. EXPECTATIONS	Black	128	16.053	4.343	2.939	0.087	-2.662	347	0.008	0.28
	White	221	17.261	3.932			-2.592	244.411	0.010	
D. OBEDIENCE	Black	128	57.132	6.438	0.631	0.428	-2.505	347	0.013	0.26
	White	221	58.837	5.944			-2.452	248.423	0.015	
D. SATISFACTION	Black	128	14.092	3.232	4.197	0.041*	-1.833	347	0.068	
	White	221	14.679	2.663			-1.742	226.349	0.083	
D. PARTICIPATION	Black	128	13.665	2.903	3.015	0.083	-4.039	347	0.000	0.41
	White	221	14.864	2.532			-3.895	237.011	0.000	
D. LOYALTY	Black	128	14.074	4.752	1.797	0.181	-1.514	347	0.131	
	White	221	14.836	4.403			-1.484	249.113	0.139	

* Unequal variance

TABLE 8.24: STUDENTS' T-TEST: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF **MARITAL STATUS** GROUPINGS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Marital status	N	Mean	Std deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p	Practical significance d
					F	Sig				
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Single	132	31.067	8.774	1.992	0.159	-0.953	346	0.341	
	Married	216	31.933	7.870			-0.928	254.065	0.354	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	Single	132	26.400	8.318	0.873	0.351	-0.088	346	0.930	
	Married	216	26.477	7.858			-0.086	264.852	0.931	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	Single	132	22.657	7.357	0.521	0.471	-1.166	346	0.245	
	Married	216	23.576	6.994			-1.151	266.178	0.251	
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Single	132	29.725	7.762	0.222	0.638	-2.953	346	0.003	0.33
	Married	216	32.251	7.734			-2.950	276.226	0.003	
C. AUTONOMY	Single	132	31.261	8.548	5.969	0.015*	-1.421	346	0.156	
	Married	216	32.467	7.102			-1.359	238.931	0.175	
C. RESPECT	Single	132	24.087	7.145	1.068	0.302	-1.226	346	0.221	
	Married	216	25.019	6.707			-1.208	263.511	0.228	
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Single	132	14.132	4.557	0.109	0.741	-0.194	346	0.846	
	Married	216	14.231	4.617			-0.195	279.797	0.846	
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	Single	132	16.995	4.188	0.001	0.975	0.615	346	0.539	
	Married	216	16.714	4.098			0.612	272.323	0.541	
D. OBEDIENCE	Single	132	57.742	5.944	0.003	0.956	-1.090	346	0.276	
	Married	216	58.486	6.321			-1.106	290.183	0.269	
D. SATISFACTION	Single	132	13.804	3.289	7.065	0.008*	-3.375	346	0.001	0.32
	Married	216	14.869	2.556			-3.179	226.673	0.002	
D. PARTICIPATION	Single	132	13.898	2.985	3.987	0.047*	-2.809	346	0.005	0.28
	Married	216	14.738	2.524			-2.698	242.267	0.007	
D. LOYALTY	Single	132	14.321	4.820	2.399	0.122	-0.788	346	0.431	
	Married	216	14.717	4.373			-0.770	256.423	0.442	

* Unequal variance

TABLE 8.25: STUDENTS' T-TEST: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF **NUMBER OF YEARS IN CURRENT POSITION** GROUPINGS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Years in current position	N	Mean	Std deviation	Levene's Test		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p	Practical significance d
					F	Sig.				
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	1-2 years	159	31.551	9.059	9.513	0.002*	-0.004	341	0.997	
	3-66 years	184	31.555	7.397			-0.004	305.079	0.997	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	1-2 years	159	27.066	8.014	0.112	0.739	1.537	341	0.125	
	3-66 years	184	25.738	7.948			1.536	333.027	0.126	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	1-2 years	159	23.566	7.450	1.015	0.314	0.899	341	0.369	
	3-66 years	184	22.871	6.875			0.893	324.414	0.372	
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	1-2 years	159	30.924	8.165	0.545	0.461	-0.897	341	0.370	
	3-66 years	184	31.688	7.603			-0.893	325.625	0.373	
C. AUTONOMY	1-2 years	159	31.825	7.799	0.069	0.794	-0.213	341	0.832	
	3-66 years	184	32.001	7.499			-0.212	329.643	0.832	
C. RESPECT	1-2 years	159	24.243	7.357	5.681	0.018*	-1.021	341	0.308	
	3-66 years	184	25.005	6.458			-1.012	317.085	0.312	
C. RESPONSIBILITY	1-2 years	159	13.802	4.573	0.059	0.808	-1.356	341	0.176	
	3-66 years	184	14.471	4.541			-1.355	333.132	0.176	
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	1-2 years	159	16.582	4.073	0.126	0.723	-0.877	341	0.381	
	3-66 years	184	16.973	4.154			-0.879	335.608	0.380	
D. OBEDIENCE	1-2 years	159	57.890	5.723	0.573	0.450	-0.758	341	0.449	
	3-66 years	184	58.399	6.586			-0.766	340.988	0.444	
D. SATISFACTION	1-2 years	159	14.229	3.059	2.155	0.143	-1.232	341	0.219	
	3-66 years	184	14.617	2.761			-1.223	321.313	0.222	
D. PARTICIPATION	1-2 years	159	14.371	2.586	0.730	0.393	-0.273	341	0.785	
	3-66 years	184	14.451	2.782			-0.274	339.161	0.784	
D. LOYALTY	1-2 years	159	13.905	4.568	0.076	0.783	-2.352	341	0.019	0.25
	3-66 years	184	15.057	4.484			-2.349	331.934	0.019	

* Unequal variance

TABLE 8.26: STUDENTS' T-TEST: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF YEARS' SERVICE AT THE BANK GROUPINGS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Years service	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p	Practical significance d
					F	Sig.				
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	1-7 years	173	31.011	8.824	4.588	0.033*	-1.273	343	0.204	
	8-39 years	172	32.140	7.603			-1.274	336.217	0.204	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	1-7 years	173	26.360	8.225	0.164	0.686	-0.138	343	0.890	
	8-39 years	172	26.479	7.900			-0.138	342.593	0.890	
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	1-7 years	173	22.692	7.232	0.023	0.879	-1.370	343	0.172	
	8-39 years	172	23.746	7.054			-1.370	342.876	0.172	
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	1-7 years	173	29.599	7.932	0.005	0.945	-4.167	343	0.000	0.43
	8-39 years	172	33.041	7.398			-4.168	341.607	0.000	
C. AUTONOMY	1-7 years	173	30.809	7.714	0.556	0.456	-2.914	343	0.004	0.31
	8-39 years	172	33.205	7.556			-2.914	342.924	0.004	
C. RESPECT	1-7 years	173	23.402	7.201	4.803	0.029*	-3.345	343	0.001	0.34
	8-39 years	172	25.849	6.360			-3.347	338.298	0.001	
C. RESPONSIBILITY	1-7 years	173	13.746	4.615	0.030	0.862	-1.955	343	0.051	
	8-39 years	172	14.705	4.496			-1.955	342.859	0.051	
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	1-7 years	173	16.448	4.265	2.836	0.093	-1.731	343	0.084	
	8-39 years	172	17.215	3.960			-1.732	341.410	0.084	
D. OBEDIENCE	1-7 years	173	57.763	5.907	0.029	0.864	-1.326	343	0.186	
	8-39 years	172	58.645	6.448			-1.325	340.047	0.186	
D. SATISFACTION	1-7 years	173	14.032	3.013	2.417	0.121	-2.741	343	0.006	0.1
	8-39 years	172	14.880	2.730			-2.742	340.088	0.006	
D. PARTICIPATION	1-7 years	173	14.093	2.824	1.164	0.281	-2.220	343	0.027	0.23
	8-39 years	172	14.744	2.619			-2.220	341.353	0.027	
D. LOYALTY	1-7 years	173	14.019	4.502	0.102	0.750	-2.201	343	0.028	0.24
	8-39 years	172	15.093	4.562			-2.201	342.876	0.028	

* Unequal variance

TABLE 8.27: STUDENTS' T-TEST: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF **STAFF CATEGORY** GROUPINGS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Staff category	N	Mean	Std deviation	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed) p	Practical significance d
					F	Sig				
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Management	168	32.541	7.495	4.061	0.045*	2.092	347	0.037	0.21
	Clerical	181	30.709	8.759			2.104	344.761		
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	Management	168	26.914	7.585	1.226	0.269	0.998	347	0.319	
	Clerical	181	26.056	8.408			1.002	346.723		
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	Management	168	24.173	6.945	0.038	0.846	2.344	347	0.020	0.25
	Clerical	181	22.392	7.229			2.347	346.583		
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Management	168	33.442	7.490	0.321	0.571	5.094	347	0.000	0.54
	Clerical	181	29.319	7.615			5.097	345.826		
C. AUTONOMY	Management	168	33.233	6.701	9.759	0.002*	2.795	347	0.005	0.27
	Clerical	181	30.945	8.416			2.819	339.258		
C. RESPECT	Management	168	25.757	5.858	18.242	0.000*	2.846	347	0.005	0.27
	Clerical	181	23.681	7.584			2.873	336.094		
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Management	168	14.645	4.273	1.381	0.241	1.794	347	0.074	
	Clerical	181	13.767	4.825			1.802	346.251		
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	Management	168	16.793	3.997	1.327	0.250	-0.108	347	0.914	
	Clerical	181	16.841	4.248			-0.108	346.934		
D. OBEDIENCE	Management	168	58.460	5.630	4.449	0.036*	0.722	347	0.471	
	Clerical	181	57.982	6.650			0.727	344.150		
D. SATISFACTION	Management	168	14.799	2.402	15.015	0.000*	2.090	347	0.037	0.2
	Clerical	181	14.154	3.262			2.114	330.247		
D. PARTICIPATION	Management	168	14.985	2.351	10.650	0.001*	3.765	347	0.000	0.37
	Clerical	181	13.904	2.955			3.796	339.193		
D. LOYALTY	Management	168	14.171	4.241	3.208	0.074	-1.532	347	0.126	
	Clerical	181	14.915	4.789			-1.539	346.253		

* Unequal variance

8.3.2 One-way analysis of variance

In this study, one-way ANOVA was used for *education*, *salary* and *employment equity appointments* since all of these variables had three categories. Tables 8.28 to 8.35 indicate how the various categories of the independent variables (education level, salary and EE appointments) differ with regard to the various factors.

In order to determine an appropriate post hoc test, the overall significance (F-value) and the assumption of equality of variances were investigated. Whenever the overall F-value was significant ($F < 0.05$) a post hoc test was performed. Where Levene's tests of homogeneity of variance confirmed that the assumption of equality of variance was met ($p > 0.05$), Tukey's post hoc multiple comparison technique was used to determine the statistical difference between groups. Dunnett C's-test was employed in cases where these conditions were not met ($p < 0.05$).

8.3.2.1 Education

The respondents were categorised according to three categories of education level, namely grade 12 and lower, certificate/diploma and degree. Tables 8.28 to 8.30 provide the group means, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance and the significance of the variances and the overall F-values. The results of the post hoc tests are also provided.

8.3.2.2 Salary

The respondents were categorised according to three categories of salary, level namely R5 000 or less, R5 001 - R15 000, and more than R15 000. Tables 8.31 to 8.33 provide the group means, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance and the significance of the variances and the overall F-values. The results of the post hoc tests are also provided.

8.3.2.3 Employment equity appointment

The responses of respondents regarding whether they had been appointed by means of AA were categorised into three categories, namely *yes*, *no*, and *not sure*. The number of respondents who answered "yes" was 44, while the number of respondents who answered "no" was 226. Of the respondents, 75 were "not sure" whether they had been appointed by means of AA. In order to make meaningful comparisons it was decided to use a harmonic mean sample size of 44 respondents for each of these categories. The SPSS program was used to select 44 cases by means of random sampling. Tables 8.34 to 8.35 indicate the group means, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance and the significance of the variances and the overall F-values. The results of the post hoc test are also provided.

TABLE 8.28: COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES OF THE THREE **EDUCATION GROUPS** IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Education level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test		Anova F	Significance p(F)
					F	Sig		
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Grade12 & lower	171	32.038	8.265	0.024	0.976	0.564	0.569
	Cert/Diploma	110	31.065	8.279				
	Degree	65	31.157	8.067				
	Total	346	31.563	8.223				
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	Grade12 & lower	171	27.019	7.932	1.535	0.217	0.923	0.398
	Cert/Diploma	110	26.098	8.481				
	Degree	65	25.574	7.473				
	Total	346	26.455	8.027				
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	Grade12 & lower	171	23.184	6.918	1.536	0.217	0.089	0.915
	Cert/Diploma	110	23.415	7.565				
	Degree	65	22.951	7.088				
	Total	346	23.213	7.142				
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Grade12 & lower	171	30.756	7.577	2.092	0.125	1.483	0.228
	Cert/Diploma	110	31.290	7.677				
	Degree	65	32.724	8.763				
	Total	346	31.295	7.854				
C. AUTONOMY	Grade12 & lower	171	32.044	8.036	1.294	0.275	0.327	0.722
	Cert/Diploma	110	31.588	7.728				
	Degree	65	32.554	6.789				
	Total	346	31.995	7.704				
C. RESPECT	Grade12 & lower	171	24.625	7.064	0.994	0.371	0.404	0.668
	Cert/Diploma	110	25.020	6.984				
	Degree	65	24.052	6.279				
	Total	346	24.643	6.887				

TABLE 8.28 (continued)

8.34

Behavioural domain	Education level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test		Anova F	Significance p(F)
					F	Sig		
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Grade12 & lower	171	14.043	4.677	0.253	0.776	0.180	0.835
	Cert/Diploma	110	14.311	4.510				
	Degree	65	14.378	4.489				
	Total	346	14.191	4.579				
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	Grade12 & lower	171	16.829	4.094	0.222	0.801	0.063	0.939
	Cert/Diploma	110	16.661	4.242				
	Degree	65	16.831	3.990				
	Total	346	16.776	4.111				
D. OBEDIENCE	Grade12 & lower	171	58.060	6.478	2.291	0.103	0.163	0.849
	Cert/Diploma	110	58.460	6.378				
	Degree	65	58.031	5.012				
	Total	346	58.182	6.183				
D. SATISFACTION	Grade12 & lower	171	14.497	2.965	0.543	0.581	0.043	0.958
	Cert/Diploma	110	14.400	2.944				
	Degree	65	14.415	2.686				
	Total	346	14.451	2.900				
D. PARTICIPATION	Grade12 & lower	171	14.052	2.990	4.063	0.018	3.266	0.039
	Cert/Diploma	110	14.664	2.551				
	Degree	65	14.954	2.168				
	Total	346	14.416	2.734				
D. LOYALTY	Grade12 & lower	171	15.389	4.403	0.446	0.641	6.986	0.001
	Cert/Diploma	110	13.863	4.644				
	Degree	65	13.277	4.241				
	Total	346	14.507	4.528				

In this study, because “loyalty” had an equal variance, Tukey’s test was used. Levene’s test indicated that the F-value for “*participation*” was significant (<0.05). Hence because its variance was unequal, a Dunnett C’s was used. Since the group sizes were unequal, the harmonic mean of the group sizes (98.933) was used.

TABLE 8.29: TUKEY’S HSD MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF EDUCATION IN RELATION TO LOYALTY

(I) EDUCATION	(J) EDUCATION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig	Practical significance
Grade12 & lower	Cert/Diploma	1.526*	0.544	0.015	0.34
	Degree	2.113*	0.650	0.004	0.47
Cert/Diploma	Grade12 & lower	-1.526*	0.544	0.015	
	Degree	0.587	0.696	0.678	
Degree	Grade12 & lower	-2.112*	0.649	0.004	
	Cert/Diploma	-0.587	0.696	0.678	

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

According to table 8.29, there is a significant difference in the mean loyalty scores between employees with grade 12 or lower ($\bar{x}=15.389$) and employees with a degree ($\bar{x}=13.277$). As indicated in table 7.8, mostly management and whites have degrees. One should thus be cautious about concluding that education influences an employee’s loyalty instead of considering the impact of staff category on an employee’s loyalty.

TABLE 8.30: DUNNETT C’S MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF EDUCATION IN RELATION TO PARTICIPATION

(I) EDUCATION	(J) EDUCATION	Mean difference (I-J)	Std error	Sig	Practical significance
Grade12 & lower	Cert/Diploma	-0.612	0.334	0.185	0.23
	Degree	-0.902*	0.353	0.050	0.33
Cert/Diploma	Grade 12 & lower	0.612	0.334	0.185	0.23
	Degree	-0.290	0.363	0.793	0.11
Degree	Grade 12 & lower	0.902*	0.353	0.050	0.33
	Cert/Diploma	0.290	0.363	0.793	0.11

Table 8.30 indicates statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$) in the mean participation scores between employees with different educational qualifications. Although employees with degrees seem to be more participative, the practical significance of effect size is small ($d = 0.33$).

TABLE 8.31: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF THE THREE **SALARY GROUPS** IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	Salary	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test		Anova F	Significance p(F)
					F	Sig		
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	R5 000 & less	159	31.026	8.786	2.634	0.073	0.973	0.379
	R5 001-R15 000	112	32.437	8.047				
	R15 001 & more	70	31.725	7.106				
	Total	341	31.633	8.225				
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	R5 000 & less	159	26.334	8.325	0.154	0.858	0.491	0.612
	R5 001-R15 000	112	27.101	7.872				
	R15 001 & more	70	25.985	7.608				
	Total	341	26.514	8.023				
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	R5 000 & less	159	22.685	7.207	0.101	0.990	1.161	0.315
	R5 001-R15 000	112	23.741	6.897				
	R15 001 & more	70	23.998	7.032				
	Total	341	23.302	7.074				
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	R5 000 & less	159	29.607	7.753	0.221	0.802	9.168	0.000
	R5 001-R15 000	112	31.743	7.311				
	R15 001 & more	70	34.220	7.956				
	Total	341	31.256	7.835				
C. AUTONOMY	R5 000 & less	159	31.126	8.576	8.139	0.000	3.620	0.028
	R5 001-R15 000	112	31.983	7.379				
	R15 001 & more	70	34.071	5.412				
	Total	341	32.012	7.690				
C. RESPECT	R5 000 & less	159	23.872	7.566	7.642	0.001	3.075	0.048
	R5 001-R15 000	112	24.950	6.361				
	R15 001 & more	70	26.263	5.683				
	Total	341	24.717	6.871				
C. RESPONSIBILITY	R5000 & less	159	14.133	4.934	1.979	0.140	1.902	0.151

TABLE 8.31 (continued)

8.37

Behavioural domain	Salary	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test		Anova F	Significance p(F)
					F	Sig		
	R5 001-R15 000	112	13.768	4.288				
	R15 001 & more	70	15.114	4.214				
	Total	341	14.215	4.599				
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	R5 000 & less	159	16.857	4.341	1.586	0.206	0.369	0.692
	R5 001-R15 000	112	16.583	3.956				
	R15 001 & more	70	17.114	3.903				
	Total	341	16.820	4.122				
D. OBEDIENCE	R5 000 & less	159	58.294	6.534	1.993	0.138	0.036	0.965
	R5 001-R15 000	112	58.205	6.249				
	R15 001 & more	70	58.057	5.321				
	Total	341	58.216	6.192				
D. SATISFACTION	R5 000 & less	159	14.116	3.250	4.803	0.009	2.332	0.099
	R5 001-R15 000	112	14.799	2.522				
	R15 001 & more	70	14.786	2.553				
	Total	341	14.478	2.902				
D. PARTICIPATION	R5 000 & less	159	14.054	3.014	4.376	0.013	5.991	0.003
	R5 001-R15 000	112	14.308	2.491				
	R15 001 & more	70	15.386	2.280				
	Total	341	14.411	2.750				
D. LOYALTY	R5 000 & less	159	15.115	4.925	2.924	0.055	2.217	0.111
	R5 001-R15 000	112	14.045	4.408				
	R15 001 & more	70	14.129	3.818				
	Total	341	14.561	4.565				

TABLE 8.32: TUKEY'S HSD MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF SALARY IN RELATION TO DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE

(I) SALARY	(J) SALARY	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig	Practical significance
R5 000 & less	R5 001-R15 000	-2.136	0.944	0.063	0.28
	R15 001 & more	-4.613*	1.098	0.000	0.60
R5 001-R15 000	R5 000 & less	2.136	0.944	0.063	0.28
	R15 001 & more	-2.477	1.166	0.087	
R15 001 & more	R5 000 & less	4.613*	1.098	0.000	0.60
	R5 001-R15 000	2.477	1.166	0.087	

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

According to table 8.32, there is a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) in the mean scores relating to *distributive justice* between employees earning R5 000 or less per month and employees earning R15 001 and more per month. The mean scores of employees earning low salaries ($\bar{x} = 29.607$) indicate that distributive justice strongly influences their perceptions of the fairness of AA. They are therefore most concerned about decisions affecting their financial position. Decisions on appointments, promotions, career advancement and training thus have a direct influence on their perceptions of the fairness of AA.

TABLE 8.33: DUNNETT C'S MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF SALARY IN RELATION TO AUTONOMY, RESPECT AND PARTICIPATION

Dependent Variable	(I) SALARY	(J) SALARY	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig	Practical significance
AUTONOMY	R5 000 & less	R15 001 & more	-2.945*	1.095	0.014	0.39
	R5 001-R15 000	R15 001 & more	-2.088	1.163	0.123	
RESPECT	R5 000 & less	R15 001 & more	-2.390*	0.980	0.027	0.35
	R5 001-R15 000	R15 001 & more	-1.312	1.041	0.325	
PARTICIPATION	R5 000 & less	R15 001 & more	-1.332*	0.389	0.001	0.49
	R5 001-R15 000	R15 001 & more	-1.078*	0.413	0.020	0.40

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

There are significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between the various income groups with regard to *autonomy* ($p = 0.014$), *respect* ($p = 0.027$) and *participation* ($p = 0.001$). Employees earning R5 000-00 or less believe that AA employees do not have autonomy or are treated with respect in the workplace. Contrary to this belief, employees earning R15 000-00 or more believe that AA employees do have autonomy and are treated with respect. Since income level correlates highly with staff category and ethnicity, one should guard against concluding that income level influences autonomy, respect and participation without taking into consideration the influence of variables such as staff category and ethnicity. Employees earning R15 000-00 or more appear to be more participative than employees earning less than R15 000-00. Once again, variables such as staff category (management) or ethnicity (whites) could account for the difference in participation.

TABLE 8.34: COMPARISON OF THE MEAN SCORES OF THE THREE **EE APPOINTMENT** GROUPS IN RESPECT OF THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

Behavioural domain	EE Appointment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test		Anova F	Significance p(F)
					F	Sig		
B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Yes	44	33.697	8.732	1.951	0.146	1.597	0.206
	No	44	31.178	6.257				
	Not sure	44	31.021	8.423				
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	Yes	44	28.963	8.356	2.421	0.093	2.633	0.076
	No	44	25.834	7.376				
	Not sure	44	25.804	6.401				
B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	Yes	44	23.869	7.059	0.378	0.686	0.442	0.644
	No	44	22.590	5.988				
	Not sure	44	23.011	6.427				
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Yes	44	31.897	7.675	1.299	0.276	3.344	0.038
	No	44	32.575	7.372				
	Not sure	44	28.902	6.132				
C. AUTONOMY	Yes	44	32.977	8.485	1.055	0.351	1.381	0.255
	No	44	32.345	6.949				
	Not sure	44	30.302	8.165				
C. RESPECT	Yes	44	25.298	7.719	0.800	0.452	1.388	0.253
	No	44	25.205	6.472				
	Not sure	44	23.054	7.197				
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Yes	44	15.929	4.752	1.111	0.332	4.555	0.012
	No	44	13.996	3.779				
	Not sure	44	13.114	4.819				
C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	Yes	44	17.774	3.990	0.358	0.777	3.777	0.025
	No	44	16.636	4.232				
	Not sure	44	15.301	4.443				
D. OBEDIENCE	Yes	44	58.260	5.562	0.822	0.442	0.761	0.469
	No	44	58.818	5.521				
	Not sure	44	57.264	6.792				

TABLE 8.34 (continued)

Behavioural domain	EE Appointment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levene's Test		Anova F	Significance p(F)
					F	Sig		
D. SATISFACTION	Yes	44	15.296	2.922	0.869	0.422	2.858	0.061
	No	44	14.568	2.510				
	Not sure	44	13.799	3.319				
D. PARTICIPATION	Yes	44	14.397	2.805	0.120	0.887	0.218	0.805
	No	44	14.375	2.672				
	Not sure	44	14.056	2.651				
D. LOYALTY	Yes	44	15.822	5.318	0.853	0.429	1.747	0.178
	No	44	14.636	4.177				
	Not sure	44	13.938	4.773				

TABLE 8.35: TUKEY'S HSD MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT EQUITY APPOINTMENTS IN RELATION TO DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE, RESPONSIBILITY AND EXPECTATIONS

Dependent Variable	(I) EE appointed	(J) EE appointed	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Practical significance
B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Yes	No Not sure	-0.678 2.996	1.512 1.512	0.895 0.121	
	No	Yes Not sure	0.678 3.674*	1.512 1.512	0.895 0.040	0.51
	Not sure	Yes No	-2.996 -3.674*	1.512 1.512	0.121 0.040	0.51
C. RESPONSIBILITY	Yes	No Not sure	1.933 2.815*	0.954 0.954	0.110 0.010	0.63
	No	Yes Not sure	-1.933 0.882	0.954 0.954	0.110 0.626	
	Not sure	Yes No	-2.815* -0.882	0.954 0.954	0.010 0.626	0.63
C. EXPECTATIONS	Yes	No Not sure	1.138 2.474*	0.901 0.901	0.419 0.020	0.59
	No	Yes Not sure	-1.138 1.336	0.901 0.901	0.419 0.303	
	Not sure	Yes No	-2.474* -1.336	0.901 0.901	0.020 0.303	0.59

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

There are significant differences between AA employees and employees who have not been appointed on the basis of AA with regard to perceptions of distributive justice, the responsibility accorded to AA employees and how realistic managers' expectations are of AA employees' performance. For future research, it would be worthwhile to investigate the role EE appointment plays. Since the size of each subset in the sample was only 44, it could not be regarded as being representative of the population.

8.3.3 Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA)

As mentioned in the previous chapter, multiple analyses of variance (MANOVA) is utilised to determine the main and interactional effects of partially independent categorical variables on multiple dependent variables. MANOVA is thus a complex statistic similar to ANOVA but with multiple dependent variables analysed together. MANOVA provides a multivariate F-value based on a linear combination of dependent variables, as well as univariate F-values, for each separate dependent variable. The dependent variables should be related conceptually correlated with one another at a low to moderate level. If they are too highly correlated one runs the risk of multicollinearity. If they are uncorrelated there is usually no reason to analyse them together.

The GLM procedure of SPSS (<http://search.marsfind.com/ufts.html>) was used to analyse the differences in the vectors of means between groups in respect of ethnicity, gender, staff category and age in the 12 behavioural domains. Several analyses were performed to investigate the following scenarios:

- (1) As factors *gender* and *ethnic* groups, and as covariates, age, years in current position and at the bank, educational qualification and gross salary.
- (2) As factors *gender* and *staff* groups, and as covariates, age, years in current position and at the bank, educational qualification and gross salary.
- (3) As factors *gender*, *ethnic* and *staff* groups, and as covariates, age, years in current position and at the bank, educational qualification and gross salary.

As a first step it was necessary to perform the Box's M test. This test for homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices indicates that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across the groups and that the assumption of equality has not been violated. Whenever the F-values are significant, the assumption of normality is violated. In such a case nonparametric tests should be used and the GLM procedure should be performed on rank data. In general this was found to be the case in the current study. (<http://www.med.monash.edu.au/psych/research/rda/Nonparametric%20MANOVA.htm>)

As indicated in tables 8.36 to 8.38, all the covariance matrices of the dependent variables are significant and thus unequal. The Box's M test results for the above scenarios are as follows:

TABLE 8.36: BOX'S M TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRICES IN RESPECT OF GENDER AND ETHNIC GROUPS

Box M	388.214
F	1.521
df1	234
df2	68710.158
Sig.	0,000

TABLE 8.37: BOX'S M TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRICES IN RESPECT OF GENDER AND STAFF GROUPS

Box M	374.606
F	1.462
df1	234
df2	57234.025
Sig.	0,000

TABLE 8.38: BOX'S M TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRICES IN RESPECT OF GENDER, ETHNIC AND STAFF GROUPS

Box M	511.97
F	1.463
df1	312
df2	48100.194
Sig.	0,000

Multivariate tests were performed as the next stage in the analyses of rank data.

8.3.3.1 MANOVA: behavioural domains by gender and ethnicity

The factors included *gender* and *ethnicity* groups and the covariates were age, years in current position and bank, educational qualification and gross salary

TABLE 8.39: MANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY GENDER AND ETHNICITY

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.201	6.457	0.000	0.201
	Wilks' Lambda	0.799	6.457	0.000	0.201
	Hotelling's Trace	0.252	6.457	0.000	0.201
	Roy's Largest Root	0.252	6.457	0.000	0.201
Age	Pillai's Trace	0.075	2.093	0.017	0.075
	Wilks' Lambda	0.925	2.093	0.017	0.075
	Hotelling's Trace	0.082	2.093	0.017	0.075
	Roy's Largest Root	0.082	2.093	0.017	0.075
Years in current position	Pillai's Trace	0.027	0.718	0.734	0.027
	Wilks' Lambda	0.973	0.718	0.734	0.027
	Hotelling's Trace	0.028	0.718	0.734	0.027
	Roy's Largest Root	0.028	0.718	0.734	0.027
Years of service at bank	Pillai's Trace	0.013	0.350	0.979	0.013
	Wilks' Lambda	0.987	0.350	0.979	0.013
	Hotelling's Trace	0.014	0.350	0.979	0.013
	Roy's Largest Root	0.014	0.350	0.979	0.013
Education	Pillai's Trace	0.049	1.324	0.203	0.049
	Wilks' Lambda	0.951	1.324	0.203	0.049
	Hotelling's Trace	0.052	1.324	0.203	0.049
	Roy's Largest Root	0.052	1.324	0.203	0.049
Salary	Pillai's Trace	0.066	1.805	0.047	0.066
	Wilks' Lambda	0.934	1.805	0.047	0.066
	Hotelling's Trace	0.070	1.805	0.047	0.066
	Roy's Largest Root	0.070	1.805	0.047	0.066

TABLE 8.39 (continued)

8.44

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.061	1.677	0.071	0.061
	Wilks' Lambda	0.939	1.677	0.071	0.061
	Hotelling's Trace	0.065	1.677	0.071	0.061
	Roy's Largest Root	0.065	1.677	0.071	0.061
Ethnicity	Pillai's Trace	0.143	4.289	0.000	0.143
	Wilks' Lambda	0.857	4.289	0.000	0.143
	Hotelling's Trace	0.167	4.289	0.000	0.143
	Roy's Largest Root	0.167	4.289	0.000	0.143
GENDER * ETHNICITY	Pillai's Trace	0.033	0.873	0.575	0.033
	Wilks' Lambda	0.967	0.873	0.575	0.033
	Hotelling's Trace	0.034	0.873	0.575	0.033
	Roy's Largest Root	0.034	0.873	0.575	0.033

Table 8.39 indicates that there are significant differences ($p < 0.05$) in the vectors of the mean ranks of the subsets of *ethnicity* ($F = 4.289$; $p = 0.000$), *age* ($F = 2.093$; $p = 0.017$) and *salary* ($F = 1.805$; $p = 0.047$). The following variables do not contribute to the explanation of the 12 behavioural domains ($p > 0.05$), namely the interaction between the factors, gender and ethnicity ($F = 0.873$) and the covariates, years of service in current position ($F = 0.718$), years of service at the bank ($F = 0.350$) and educational qualification ($F = 1.324$). When these variables were left out of the analysis, the following results were obtained:

TABLE 8.40: MANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY ETHNICITY, AGE AND SALARY

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.290	10.911	0.000	0.290
	Wilks' Lambda	0.710	10.911	0.000	0.290
	Hotelling's Trace	0.408	10.911	0.000	0.290
	Roy's Largest Root	0.408	10.911	0.000	0.290
ETHNIC	Pillai's Trace	0.171	5.502	0.000	0.171
	Wilks' Lambda	0.829	5.502	0.000	0.171
	Hotelling's Trace	0.206	5.502	0.000	0.171
	Roy's Largest Root	0.206	5.502	0.000	0.171
AGE	Pillai's Trace	0.111	3.351	0.000	0.111
	Wilks' Lambda	0.889	3.351	0.000	0.111
	Hotelling's Trace	0.125	3.351	0.000	0.111
	Roy's Largest Root	0.125	3.351	0.000	0.111
SALARY	Pillai's Trace	0.132	4.066	0.000	0.132
	Wilks' Lambda	0.868	4.066	0.000	0.132
	Hotelling's Trace	0.152	4.066	0.000	0.132
	Roy's Largest Root	0.152	4.066	0.000	0.132

Table 8.41 indicates the results of the tests between subject effects for the dependents measured by ethnicity, age and salary groups per factor.

TABLE 8.41: ANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY ETHNICITY, AGE AND SALARY

SOURCE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	F	SIG <0.01	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
CORRECTED MODEL	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	2.301	0.077	0.020
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.972	0.406	0.009
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	3.431	0.017	0.030
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	25.149	0.000	0.185
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	11.639	0.000	0.095
	RANK of C. RESPECT	8.504	0.000	0.071
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	3.874	0.010	0.034
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	1.837	0.140	0.016
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	4.528	0.004	0.039
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	5.660	0.001	0.049
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	6.919	0.000	0.059
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	9.803	0.000	0.081
INTERCEPT	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	52.422	0.000	0.136
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	58.305	0.000	0.149
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	54.683	0.000	0.141
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	35.972	0.000	0.098
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	67.032	0.000	0.168
	RANK of C. RESPECT	46.942	0.000	0.124
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	62.128	0.000	0.158
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	67.098	0.000	0.168
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	45.478	0.000	0.120
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	20.431	0.000	0.058
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	46.371	0.000	0.123
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	18.877	0.000	0.054
ETHNICITY	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	3.123	0.078	0.009
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	1.904	0.169	0.006
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	4.073	0.044	0.012
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	38.580	0.000	0.104
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	25.441	0.000	0.071
	RANK of C. RESPECT	15.430	0.000	0.044
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	3.101	0.079	0.009
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	4.141	0.043	0.012
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	5.539	0.019	0.016
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	0.013	0.911	00.00
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	7.253	0.010	0.021
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	0.463	0.497	0.001

TABLE 8.41 (continued)

8.46

SOURCE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	F	SIG <0.01	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
AGE	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	0.297	0.586	0.001
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.192	0.662	0.001
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	0.068	0.794	0.000
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	3.605	0.058	0.011
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	0.166	0.684	0.000
	RANK of C. RESPECT	1.540	0.216	0.005
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	0.382	0.537	0.001
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	0.130	0.719	0.000
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	3.676	0.056	0.011
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	12.226	0.001	0.036
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	0.275	0.601	0.001
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	23.113	0.000	0.065
SALARY	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	0.304	0.582	0.001
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.071	0.791	0.000
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	1.552	0.214	0.005
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	1.215	0.271	0.004
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	0.948	0.331	0.003
	RANK of C. RESPECT	0.048	0.827	0.000
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	5.065	0.025	0.015
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	0.223	0.637	0.001
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	4.927	0.027	0.015
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	0.042	0.838	0.000
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	3.418	0.065	0.010
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	11.212	0.001	0.033

As indicated in table 8.41, on the 0.01 level of significance, there are significant differences between the ethnic groups with regard to *distributive justice* ($F_{1,347}=38.580$; $p=0.000$), *autonomy* ($F_{1,347}=25.441$; $p=0.000$), *respect* ($F_{1,347}=15.430$; $p=0.000$) and *participation* ($F_{1,347}=7.253$; $p=0.007$). The mean rank scores show that whites regard distributive justice issues ($\bar{x}=206.710$) as crucial to the fairness of AA. In contrast to blacks, whites believe that AA employees are accorded autonomy ($\bar{x}=198.310$) and treated with respect ($\bar{x}=196.300$). Regarding participation, whites ($\bar{x}=190.780$) appear to be more participative than blacks ($\bar{x}=146.570$). As far as age is concerned, people differ in respect of satisfaction and loyalty. Older employees tend to be more satisfied and loyal than their younger counterparts. However, when the effect size of these differences, as measured by partial eta squared, is taken into consideration, the differences have a moderate to small effect ($\eta_p^2 < 0.14$)

8.3.3.2 MANOVA: behavioural domains by gender and staff category

The factors included *gender* and *staff* groups, and the covariates were age, years in current position and at the bank, educational qualification and gross salary.

TABLE 8.42: MANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY GENDER AND STAFF

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.168	5.174	0.000	0.168
	Wilks' Lambda	0.832	5.174	0.000	0.168
	Hotelling's Trace	0.202	5.174	0.000	0.168
	Roy's Largest Root	0.202	5.174	0.000	0.168
Age	Pillai's Trace	0.077	2.132	0.015	0.077
	Wilks' Lambda	0.923	2.132	0.015	0.077
	Hotelling's Trace	0.083	2.132	0.015	0.077
	Roy's Largest Root	0.083	2.132	0.015	0.077
Years in current position	Pillai's Trace	0.025	0.668	0.782	0.025
	Wilks' Lambda	0.975	0.668	0.782	0.025
	Hotelling's Trace	0.026	0.668	0.782	0.025
	Roy's Largest Root	0.026	0.668	0.782	0.025
Years of service at bank	Pillai's Trace	0.023	0.594	0.847	0.023
	Wilks' Lambda	0.977	0.594	0.847	0.023
	Hotelling's Trace	0.023	0.594	0.847	0.023
	Roy's Largest Root	0.023	0.594	0.847	0.023
Education	Pillai's Trace	0.043	1.146	0.322	0.043
	Wilks' Lambda	0.957	1.146	0.322	0.043
	Hotelling's Trace	0.045	1.146	0.322	0.043
	Roy's Largest Root	0.045	1.146	0.322	0.043
Salary	Pillai's Trace	0.049	1.312	0.210	0.049
	Wilks' Lambda	0.951	1.312	0.210	0.049
	Hotelling's Trace	0.051	1.312	0.210	0.049
	Roy's Largest Root	0.051	1.312	0.210	0.049
Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.054	1.454	0.140	0.054
	Wilks' Lambda	0.946	1.454	0.140	0.054
	Hotelling's Trace	0.057	1.454	0.140	0.054
	Roy's Largest Root	0.057	1.454	0.140	0.054
Staff	Pillai's Trace	0.061	1.669	0.073	0.061
	Wilks' Lambda	0.939	1.669	0.073	0.061
	Hotelling's Trace	0.065	1.669	0.073	0.061
	Roy's Largest Root	0.065	1.669	0.073	0.061
GENDER * STAFF	Pillai's Trace	0.019	0.501	0.913	0.019
	Wilks' Lambda	0.981	0.501	0.913	0.019
	Hotelling's Trace	0.020	0.501	0.913	0.019
	Roy's Largest Root	0.020	0.501	0.913	0.019

With reference to table 8.42, the following variables do not affect the behavioural domains: years of service in current position ($p=0.782$), years of service at the bank ($p=0.847$), educational qualification ($p=0.322$), salary ($p=0.210$) and gender * staff ($p=0.913$).

Table 8.43 indicates the results of multivariate tests that have excluded the above variables, except for gender.

TABLE 8.43: MANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY AGE, GENDER AND STAFF

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG	PARTIAL ETA
				<0.05	SQUARED
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.245	8.848	0.000	0.245
	Wilks' Lambda	0.755	8.848	0.000	0.245
	Hotelling's Trace	0.324	8.848	0.000	0.245
	Roy's Largest Root	0.324	8.848	0.000	0.245
Age	Pillai's Trace	0.126	3.928	0.000	0.126
	Wilks' Lambda	0.874	3.928	0.000	0.126
	Hotelling's Trace	0.144	3.928	0.000	0.126
	Roy's Largest Root	0.144	3.928	0.000	0.126
Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.069	2.024	0.022	0.069
	Wilks' Lambda	0.931	2.024	0.022	0.069
	Hotelling's Trace	0.074	2.024	0.022	0.069
	Roy's Largest Root	0.074	2.024	0.022	0.069
Staff	Pillai's Trace	0.124	3.876	0.000	0.124
	Wilks' Lambda	0.876	3.876	0.000	0.124
	Hotelling's Trace	0.142	3.876	0.000	0.124
	Roy's Largest Root	0.142	3.876	0.000	0.124

Table 8.44 indicates the results of the test between subject effects for the dependents by age, gender and staff groups.

TABLE 8.44: ANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY AGE, GENDER AND STAFF

SOURCE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	F	SIG	PARTIAL
			<0.01	ETA
				SQUARED
CORRECTED MODEL	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	2.953	0,033	0.025
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	1.857	0.137	0.016
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	2.701	0.046	0.023
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE	13.770	0.000	0.109
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	3.299	0.021	0.028
	RANK of C. RESPECT	3.840	0.010	0.033
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	1.429	0.234	0.012
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	0.439	0.725	0.004
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	3.908	0.009	0.033
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	6.866	0.000	0.057
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	4.986	0.002	0.042
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	13.270	0.000	0.105

TABLE 8.44 (continued)

8.49

SOURCE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	F	SIG <0.01	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
INTERCEPT	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	46.630	0.000	0.121
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	47.860	0.000	0.124
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	47.260	0.000	0.122
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE	23.140	0.000	0.064
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	45.290	0.000	0.118
	RANK of C. RESPECT	32.540	0.000	0.088
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	59.850	0.000	0.150
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	46.250	0.000	0.120
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	30.030	0.000	0.081
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	19.180	0.000	0.054
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	45.340	0.000	0.118
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	7.624	0.006	0.022
AGE	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	0.905	0.342	0.003
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.610	0.435	0.002
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	0.866	0.353	0.003
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE	12.350	0.001	0.035
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	1.404	0.237	0.004
	RANK of C. RESPECT	4.733	0.030	0.014
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	0.000	0.943	0.000
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	1.000	0.318	0.003
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	5.174	0.024	0.015
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	13.150	0.000	0.037
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	1.691	0.194	0.005
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	28.520	0.000	0.078
GENDER	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	3.612	0.058	0.011
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	4.358	0.038	0.013
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	2.202	0.139	0.006
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE	0.875	0.350	0.003
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	0.613	0.434	0.002
	RANK of C. RESPECT	2.144	0.144	0.006
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	0.000	0.932	0.000
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	0.250	0.617	0.001
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	6.440	0.012	0.019
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	4.572	0.033	0.013
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	0.166	0.684	0.000
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	8.878	0.003	0.026
STAFF	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	3.680	0.056	0.011
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.836	0.361	0.002
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	3.809	0.052	0.011
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE	11.240	0.001	0.032
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	4.578	0.033	0.013
	RANK of C. RESPECT	1.809	0.180	0.005
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	3.171	0.076	0.009
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	0.264	0.608	0.001
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	0.000	0.957	0.000
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	0.277	0.599	0.001
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	6.095	0.014	0.018
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	7.948	0.005	0.023

Table 8.44 shows that on the 0.01 significant level, differences exist between the age, staff category and gender groups in respect of the behavioural domains. Older employees appear to be more concerned about *distributive justice* issues ($F_{3,343}=12.350$; $p=0.000$) and are more *satisfied* ($F_{3,343}=13.150$; $p=0.000$) and *loyal* ($F_{3,343}=28.520$; $p=0.000$). Although there are significant differences between the views of managers ($\bar{x}=207.060$) and clerical staff ($\bar{x}=121.540$) about the way *distributive issues* ($F_{1,347}=11.240$; $p=0.000$) influence perceptions of AA fairness, this difference has a low effect size ($\eta_p^2=0.032$). The mean rank scores indicate that clerical staff ($\bar{x}=183.380$) are more loyal than managerial staff ($\bar{x}=166.490$), but as in the previous case, the effect size ($\eta_p^2=0.023$) is minimal.

Regarding gender, there are significant differences in respect of loyalty ($F_{1,347}=8.878$; $p=0.000$). According to the mean rank scores, women ($\bar{x}=177.980$) are far more loyal than men ($\bar{x}=155.310$). The effect size, however, is minimal ($\eta_p^2=0.026$). Only age has a medium effect on the perceptions of the respondents regarding loyalty to the bank.

8.3.3.3 MANOVA: behavioural domains by gender, ethnicity and staff category

The factors included *gender, ethnicity and staff category* and the covariates were age, years service in current position, years service at bank, educational qualification and salary.

TABLE 8.45: MANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY GENDER, ETHNICITY AND STAFF

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.179	5.533	0.000	0.179
	Wilks's Lambda	0.821	5.533	0.000	0.179
	Hotelling's Trace	0.218	5.533	0.000	0.179
	Roy's Largest Root	0.218	5.533	0.000	0.179
Age	Pillai's Trace	0.078	2.145	0.140	0.078
	Wilks's Lambda	0.922	2.145	0.140	0.078
	Hotelling's Trace	0.085	2.145	0.140	0.078
	Roy's Largest Root	0.085	2.145	0.010	0.078
Years in current position	Pillai's Trace	0.026	0.681	0.770	0.026
	Wilks's Lambda	0.974	0.681	0.770	0.026
	Hotelling's Trace	0.027	0.681	0.770	0.026
	Roy's Largest Root	0.027	0.681	0.770	0.026
Years of service at bank	Pillai's Trace	0.015	0.382	0.969	0.015
	Wilks's Lambda	0.985	0.382	0.969	0.015
	Hotelling's Trace	0.015	0.382	0.969	0.015
	Roy's Largest Root	0.015	0.382	0.969	0.015
Qualification	Pillai's Trace	0.040	1.056	0.397	0.040
	Wilks's Lambda	0.960	1.056	0.397	0.040
	Hotelling's Trace	0.042	1.056	0.397	0.040
	Roy's Largest Root	0.042	1.056	0.397	0.040

TABLE 8.45 (continued)

8.51

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
Salary	Pillai's Trace	0.050	1.324	0.204	0.050
	Wilks's Lambda	0.950	1.324	0.204	0.050
	Hotelling's Trace	0.052	1.324	0.204	0.050
	Roy's Largest Root	0.052	1.324	0.204	0.050
Ethnicity	Pillai's Trace	0.121	3.483	0.000	0.121
	Wilks's Lambda	0.879	3.483	0.000	0.121
	Hotelling's Trace	0.137	3.483	0.000	0.121
	Roy's Largest Root	0.137	3.483	0.000	0.121
Staff	Pillai's Trace	0.062	1.663	0.070	0.062
	Wilks's Lambda	0.938	1.663	0.070	0.062
	Hotelling's Trace	0.066	1.663	0.070	0.062
	Roy's Largest Root	0.066	1.663	0.070	0.062
Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.046	1.220	0.268	0.046
	Wilks's Lambda	0.954	1.220	0.268	0.046
	Hotelling's Trace	0.048	1.220	0.268	0.046
	Roy's Largest Root	0.048	1.220	0.268	0.046
ETHNICITY * STAFF	Pillai's Trace	0.048	1.283	0.227	0.048
	Wilks's Lambda	0.952	1.283	0.227	0.048
	Hotelling's Trace	0.051	1.283	0.227	0.048
	Roy's Largest Root	0.051	1.283	0.227	0.048
ETHNICITY * GENDER	Pillai's Trace	0.042	1.121	0.342	0.042
	Wilks's Lambda	0.958	1.121	0.342	0.042
	Hotelling's Trace	0.044	1.121	0.342	0.042
	Roy's Largest Root	0.044	1.121	0.342	0.042
STAFF * GENDER	Pillai's Trace	0.023	0.601	0.841	0.023
	Wilks's Lambda	0.977	0.601	0.841	0.023
	Hotelling's Trace	0.024	0.601	0.841	0.023
	Roy's Largest Root	0.024	0.601	0.841	0.023
ETHNICITY * STAFF * GENDER	Pillai's Trace	0.028	0.725	0.727	0.028
	Wilks's Lambda	0.972	0.725	0.727	0.028
	Hotelling's Trace	0.029	0.725	0.727	0.028
	Roy's Largest Root	0.029	0.725	0.727	0.028

Based on the results of the multivariate tests, the following variables do not affect the behavioural domains: number of years of service in current position ($p=0.770$), years of service at bank ($p=0.969$), educational qualification ($p=0.397$), salary ($p=0.204$), gender ($p=0.268$), as well as the following interactions: ethnicity * gender ($p=0.342$), staff * gender ($p=0.841$), and ethnicity * staff * gender ($p=0.727$). With the exception of staff, the variables which do not affect the behavioural domains were deleted and the following multivariate results obtained:

TABLE 8.46: MANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY ETHNICITY, STAFF AND AGE

EFFECT		VALUE	F	SIG <0.05	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
INTERCEPT	Pillai's Trace	0.274	10.333	0.000	0.274
	Wilks's Lambda	0.726	10.333	0.000	0.274
	Hotelling's Trace	0.378	10.333	0.000	0.274
	Roy's Largest Root	0.378	10.333	0.000	0.274
ETHNICITY	Pillai's Trace	0.161	5.234	0.000	0.161
	Wilks's Lambda	0.839	5.234	0.000	0.161
	Hotelling's Trace	0.191	5.234	0.000	0.161
	Roy's Largest Root	0.191	5.234	0.000	0.161
STAFF	Pillai's Trace	0.125	3.913	0.000	0.125
	Wilks's Lambda	0.875	3.913	0.000	0.125
	Hotelling's Trace	0.143	3.913	0.000	0.125
	Roy's Largest Root	0.143	3.913	0.000	0.125
AGE	Pillai's Trace	0.098	2.978	0.001	0.098
	Wilks's Lambda	0.902	2.978	0.001	0.098
	Hotelling's Trace	0.109	2.978	0.001	0.098
	Roy's Largest Root	0.109	2.978	0.001	0.098

TABLE 8.47: ANOVA: BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS BY ETHNICITY, STAFF AND AGE

SOURCE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	F	SIG <0.01	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
ETHNICITY	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	2.556	0.111	0.007
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	1.687	0.195	0.005
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	3.387	0.070	0.010
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	35.430	0.000	0.095
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	25.413	0.000	0.070
	RANK of C. RESPECT	15.327	0.000	0.043
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	3.619	0.060	0.011
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	7.264	0.000	0.021
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	5.416	0.020	0.016
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	0.017	0.897	0.000
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	5.769	0.020	0.017
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	1.817	0.179	0.005
STAFF	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	0.700	0.403	0.002
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.010	0.925	0.000
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	0.817	0.367	0.002
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	1.419	0.234	0.004
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	0.071	0.789	0.000
	RANK of C. RESPECT	0.133	0.716	0.000
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	1.195	0.275	0.004
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	2.384	0.124	0.007
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	1.953	0.163	0.006
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	0.000	0.994	0.000
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	3.032	0.080	0.009
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	15.715	0.000	0.044

TABLE 8.47 (continued)

8.53

SOURCE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	F	SIG <0.01	PARTIAL ETA SQUARED
AGE	RANK of B. INTERACTIONAL	0.240	0.624	0.001
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Input)	0.162	0.687	0.000
	RANK of B. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (Criteria)	0.169	0.681	0.000
	RANK of B. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	3.953	0.050	0.012
	RANK of C. AUTONOMY	0.021	0.885	0.000
	RANK of C. RESPECT	1.220	0.270	0.004
	RANK of C. RESPONSIBILITY	0.186	0.666	0.001
	RANK of C. REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS	0.070	0.792	0.000
	RANK of D. OBEDIENCE	2.470	0.117	0.007
	RANK of D. SATISFACTION	12.270	0.000	0.035
	RANK of D. PARTICIPATION	0.402	0.527	0.001
	RANK of D. LOYALTY	22.435	0.000	0.062

According to table 8.47, there are significant differences ($p < 0.01$) between the mean rank scores of whites ($\bar{x} = 207.350$) and blacks ($\bar{x} = 120.420$) in respect of distributive justice issues ($F_{1,347} = 35.430$; $p = 0.000$). Whites regard distributive justice issues as crucial when forming perceptions about the fairness of AA. Whites and blacks also have different perceptions of the way AA employees are treated in respect of *autonomy* ($F_{1,347} = 25.413$; $p = 0.000$) and *respect* ($F_{1,347} = 15.327$; $p = 0.000$). Contrary to what blacks feel, whites believe that AA employees are treated with respect ($\bar{x} = 195.140$), have autonomy in their jobs ($\bar{x} = 198.220$) and supervisors do have realistic expectations ($\bar{x} = 185.070$) of them.

The only significant difference between the views management and clerical staff has to do with loyalty ($F_{1,346} = 15.715$; $p < 0.001$). According to the mean rank scores, clerical staff ($\bar{x} = 183.380$) appear to be more loyal and would thus be less inclined to resign. However, when the effect size of the above differences is taken into consideration, all the differences seem to have a moderate to small effect on the behavioural domains ($\eta_p^2 < 0.14$).

Regarding the analysis of all the MANOVAs and ANOVAs, it is clear that there are primarily three biographical variables that affect employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA, namely ethnicity, staff category and age. All three of these biographical variables have medium effect sizes which need to be considered for their practical implications.

8.4 ASSOCIATIONAL STATISTICS

8.4.1 Correlation

The product-moment correlation coefficients between the various factors were determined. The results are provided in tables 8.48 to 8.50. In instances where the distribution of scores was skewed, Spearman's rank order correlations were computed. Cohen (1985) sets a cutoff point of 0.30 (medium effect) for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

TABLE 8.48: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN JUSTICE AND TREATMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

	Pearson correlation	AUTONOMY	RESPECT	RESPONSI- BILITY	REALISTIC EXPECTATIONS
INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.610* .000 349	.588* .000 349	.398* .000 349	.478* .000 349
PROCEDURAL JUSTICE: (Input)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.516* .000 349	.534* .000 349	.346* .000 349	.470* .000 349
PROCEDURAL JUSTICE: (Criteria)	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.558* .000 349	.543* .000 349	.369* .000 349	.493* .000 349
DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.422* .000 349	.394* .000 349	.224* .000 349	.196* .000 349

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As expected, the way AA employees are treated in the workplace plays a major role in employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA with regard to interpersonal relationships. The correlation analysis between AA fairness perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace supports research findings by Skarlicki and Folger (1997) which emphasised that when supervisors show adequate sensitivity towards and concern for employees, treating them with dignity and respect, these employees seem more willing to tolerate injustices such as unfair pay distribution and unfair procedures that would otherwise contribute to poor commitment. It is thus possible to conclude that a supervisor personifies the organisation for an employee.

Table 8.48 indicates a significant and positive relationship between procedural justice and the treatment of AA employees in the workplace. The results suggest that procedural and interactional justice are capable of functioning as substitutes for each other.¹ Distributive justice, however, interacted only at low levels with responsibility ($r=0.224$) and realistic expectations ($r=0.196$). The association is not of practical significance ($r<0.30$).

A corollary of this implication is that perceptions of fairness based on interactional justice may be the easiest perceptions of fairness to manage. Distribution of outcomes may be constrained by forces outside the manager's control. Similarly, the presence or absence of fair procedures may be a function of organisation policy. By comparison, the fairness of the interactions between managers and employees is often a matter of a manager's being sensitive to the interests of the employees and convincing them that it is in the manager's interest to be fair.

¹ The intercorrelation coefficients of all the behavioural factors are set out in annexure C.

TABLE 8.49: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN JUSTICE AND COMMITMENT

Spearman's rank order		OBEDIENCE	SATISFACTION	PARTICIPATION	LOYALTY
Nonparametric correlations					
INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	Correlation	.304*	.353*	.286*	.234*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	349	349	349	349
PROCEDURAL (Input)	Correlation	.207*	.312*	.245*	.193*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	349	349	349	349
PROCEDURAL (Criteria)	Correlation	.215*	.339*	.233*	.161*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.002
	N	349	349	349	349
DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	Correlation	.280*	.231*	.289*	.123
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.022
	N	349	349	349	349

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficients in table 8.49 indicate that all the factors are positively correlated. On the 0.30 cutoff point for practical significance of the correlation coefficient, distributive justice does not appear to have a major effect on the commitment of employees. There is, however, a significant relationship between interactional justice and employees' behaviour with regard to obedience ($r=0.304$) and satisfaction ($r=0.353$). Satisfaction appears to be a direct result of the way employees are treated ($r=0.353$), the opportunities they are afforded to provide input ($r=0.312$) and the criteria used to make decisions ($r=0.339$). In this regard, it is interesting to note that distributive justice does not have a significant influence on employees' loyalty ($r=0.123$), since they seem to be much more concerned about the way they are treated. According to table 8.49, employees appear to be more obedient ($r=0.304$) when they perceive interactions to be fair.

TABLE 8.50: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE AND COMMITMENT

Spearman's rank order		OBEDIENCE	SATISFACTION	PARTICIPATION	LOYALTY
Nonparametric correlations					
AUTONOMY	Correlation Coefficient	.340*	.398*	.404*	.201*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	349	349	349	349
RESPECT	Correlation Coefficient	.351*	.391*	.348*	.205*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	349	349	349	349
RESPONSIBILITY	Correlation Coefficient	.228*	.281*	.299*	.203*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	349	349	349	349
EXPECTATIONS	Correlation Coefficient	.300*	.371*	.327*	.173*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001
	N	349	349	349	349

* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficients in table 8.50 indicate that there is a positive and significant relationship ($r > 0.30$) between the treatment of AA employees and commitment. According to this table, the autonomy AA employees have, plays a major role in their commitment when it comes to obedience ($r = 0.340$), satisfaction ($r = 0.398$) and participation ($r = 0.404$). There is also a positive and significant relationship ($r > 0.30$) between respect shown and obedience ($r = 0.351$), satisfaction ($r = 0.391$) and participation ($r = 0.348$). AA employees appear to be more satisfied ($r = 0.371$), obedient ($r = 0.300$) and participative ($r = 0.327$) when the employer has realistic expectations of them.

8.4.2 Multiple regression

The scores in respect of the treatment of AA employees in the workplace were used to predict employees' perceptions about the fairness of AA. Organisational justice consists of four dimensions, namely interactional justice, procedural justice: criteria, procedural justice: input and distributive justice. Each of these forms of justice was used as a dependent (criterion) variable and the factors relating to treatment in the workplace as independent (predictor) variables. The results and conclusions of these multiple regression models are as follows:

8.4.2.1 Multiple regression of treatment of AA employees in the workplace with interactional justice perceptions

TABLE 8.51: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

Regression model: interactional justice			R = 0.638	R ² = 0.408	f ² = 0.69*	df = 2.346
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				9.784		
Autonomy	0.610	0.372	205.360	0.411	<0.001	37.2
Respect	0.638	0.408	119.029	0.351	<0.001	3.6

* Practical significance: $f^2 \geq 0.35$ (large effect)

As indicated by the value of multiple correlation, there is a significant relationship ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables autonomy and respect and the dependent variable, interactional justice. The more autonomy employees have and respect they are shown, the more likely they are to perceive AA as interactionally fair. Autonomy explains 37.2 percent of the variance in the perceptions of interactional justice whereas respect explains 3.6 percent of the variance. It is interesting to note that perceptions of the interactional fairness of AA are not influenced by ethnicity or staff category. The multiple correlation of 0.64 is practically significant ($f^2 = 0.69$) (large effect). Table 8.51 shows that autonomy and respect for AA employees are the best predictors of interactional justice perceptions.

8.4.2.2 *Multiple regression of treatment of AA employees in the workplace with procedural justice (input) perceptions*

TABLE 8.52: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (INPUT) PERCEPTIONS

Regression model: Procedural justice (inputs)			R = 0.567	R ² = 0.321	f ² = 0.47*	df = 3.345
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				7.156		
Respect	0.534	0.285	138.518	0.357	<0.001	28.5
Autonomy	0.560	0.313	78.934	0.191	<0.001	2.8
Realistic expectations	0.567	0.321	54.403	0.261	<0.001	0.8

* Practical significance: $f^2 \geq 0.35$ (large effect)

As indicated by the value of the multiple correlation, there is a significant relationship ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables respect, autonomy and realistic expectations and the dependent variable, procedural justice:input. The more respect and autonomy employees have and the more realistic expectations are about their performance, the more likely they will be to perceive that they have had an opportunity to influence AA decisions. Respect explains 28.5 percent, autonomy 2.8 percent and realistic expectations 0.8 percent of the variance in the perceptions of the procedural fairness of AA. Ethnicity and staff category do not play a role in influencing employees' perceptions about how fair the opportunities they are afforded to provide input are. The multiple correlation of 0.57 is practically significant with a large effect size ($f^2 = 0.47$).

8.4.2.3 *Multiple regression of the treatment of AA employees in the workplace on procedural justice (criteria) perceptions*

TABLE 8.53: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH PROCEDURAL JUSTICE (CRITERIA) PERCEPTIONS

Regression model: Procedural justice (criteria)			R = 0.593	R ² = 0.351	f ² = 0.54*	df = 3.345
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				5.018		
Autonomy	0.558	0.285	156.867	0.250	<0.001	31.1
Respect	0.586	0.313	90.691	0.261	<0.001	3.3
Realistic expectations	0.593	0.321	62.260	0.224	<0.001	0.7

* Practical significance: $f^2 \geq 0.35$ (large effect)

There is a significant multiple correlation ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables autonomy, respect and realistic expectations and the dependent variable, procedural justice:criteria. The more autonomy and respect employees have, and the more realistic expectations about their performance are, the more likely they are to perceive the criteria used in making AA decisions to be fair. Autonomy explains 31.1 percent, respect 3.3 percent and realistic expectations 0.7 percent of the variance in the perceptions of the fairness of the criteria used to make AA decisions. Ethnicity and staff category, however, do not influence employees' perceptions of the fairness of the criteria used. The multiple correlation of 0.59 is practically significant ($f^2 = 0.54$) (large effect).

8.4.2.4 Multiple regression of ethnicity and the treatment of AA employees in the workplace with distributive justice perceptions

TABLE 8.54: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF ETHNICITY AND THE TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

Regression model: distributive justice			R = 0.547	R ² = 0.299	f ² = 0.43*	df = 4.344
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				18.783		
Autonomy	0.442	0.178	75.086	0.371	<0.001	17.8
Ethnicity	0.517	0.267	62.950	4.543	<0.001	8.9
Realistic expectations	0.330	0.284	45.709	-0.454	<0.001	1.8
Respect	0.547	0.299	36.662	0.218	<0.001	1.4

* Practical significance: $f^2 \geq 0.35$ (large effect)

Ethnicity was coded as a dummy variable. Binary codes 1 and 0 were used where whites were coded as 1 and blacks as 0, 1 presenting the omitted reference group. A significant beta coefficient for any included group means that the group is significantly different from the reference group. There is a significant multiple correlation ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables of autonomy, ethnicity, realistic expectations and respect and the dependent variable, distributive justice. According to the regression model, it would seem that the more autonomy employees have, the more likely they will be to perceive AA decisions as fair. Autonomy explains 17.8 percent and the other variables 12.1 percent of the variance in employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA decisions. The results indicate that ethnicity does play a prominent role when employees form perceptions of the fairness of AA. This makes sense because blacks are more likely to perceive decisions taken about AA to be fair compared with whites. The multiple correlation of 0.55 of the regression model is practically significant with a large effect size ($f^2 = 0.43$)

Attempts were also made to determine how justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees relate to employees' commitment. The factors pertaining organisational justice and treatment of AA employees in the workplace were correlated with commitment. The results and conclusions of these multiple regression models are as follows:

8.3.2.5 *Multiple regression of justice perceptions and treatment in the workplace with obedience***TABLE 8.55: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH OBEDIENCE**

Regression model: Obedience			R = 0.378	R ² = 0.143	f ² = 0.17*	df = 3.345
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				46.663		
Autonomy	0.339	0.115	44.990	0.165	<0.001	11.5
Distributive justice	0.364	0.133	26.470	0.103	<0.001	1.8
Interactional justice	0.378	0.143	19.150	0.096	<0.001	1.0

* Practical significance: $f^2 < 0.35$; $f^2 \geq 0.15$ (medium effect)

There is a significant multiple correlation ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables autonomy, distributive and interactional justice and the dependent variable, obedience. The autonomy employees are accorded, and how fair they perceive AA decisions to be, including how well they are treated in the workplace, have a positive relationship with their willingness to obey rules and regulations. Autonomy explains 11.5 percent, distributive justice 1.8 percent and interactional justice 1.0 percent of the variance in employees' obedience levels. Employees' preparedness to adhere to rules and conform to group norms are thus a direct result of the way they are treated in terms of the type of jobs they are assigned, the opportunity afforded to apply their skills and competencies and to determine their own work pace and methods. Obedience is also influenced by the outcome of AA decisions (distributive fairness). It is worthwhile noting that obedience is not influenced by ethnicity or staff category. The multiple correlation of 0.38 is practically significant ($f^2 = 0.17$) (medium effect).

8.4.2.6 *Multiple regression of justice perceptions and treatment in the workplace with satisfaction***TABLE 8.56: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH SATISFACTION**

Regression model: satisfaction			R = 0.447	R ² = 0.200	f ² = 0.25*	df = 2.346
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				8.686		
Autonomy	0.422	0.178	75.309	0.116	<0.001	17.8
Interactional justice	0.447	0.200	43.163	0.065	<0.001	2.1

* Practical significance: $f^2 < 0.35$; $f^2 \geq 0.15$ (medium effect)

There is a significant multiple correlation ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables autonomy and interactional justice and the dependent variable, satisfaction. The more autonomy employees have, and the more they are treated in an interactionally fair manner, the more satisfied they will be. Autonomy explains 17.8 percent and interactional justice 2.1 percent of the variance in employees' satisfaction levels. As in the case of obedience, ethnicity or staff category do not influence employees' satisfaction levels. The multiple correlation of 0.44 is practically significant ($f^2 = 0.25$) (medium effect).

8.4.2.7 Multiple regression of staff category, justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace with participation

TABLE 8.57: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF STAFF CATEGORY, JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH PARTICIPATION

Regression model: participation			R = 0.427	R ² = 0.182	f ² = 0.22*	df = 2.346
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				10.485		
Autonomy	0.403	0.163	67.400	0.135	<0.001	16.3
Staff category	0.427	0.182	38.539	-0.772	<0.001	2.0

* Practical significance: $f^2 < 0.35$; $f^2 \geq 0.15$ (medium effect)

There is a significant multiple correlation ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables, autonomy and staff category and the dependent variable, participation. The autonomy employees have and their job category, have a direct influence on their preparedness to participate in work-related matters. Autonomy explains 16.3 percent and staff category 2.0 percent of the variance in employees' participation scores. The negative beta coefficient for the predictor staff category indicates that management tend to be more participative than clerical staff. The regression model has a medium effect size of $f^2 = 0.22$.

8.4.2.8 Multiple regression of age, staff category, justice perceptions and treatment of AA employees in the workplace with loyalty

TABLE 8.58: MULTIPLE REGRESSION OF AGE, STAFF CATEGORY, JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND TREATMENT OF AA EMPLOYEES IN THE WORKPLACE WITH LOYALTY

Regression model: loyalty			R = 0.393	R ² = 0.154	f ² = 0.18*	df = 4.338
Predictor variables	R	R ²	F	Beta	p	% Variance
(Constant)				3.433		
Interactional justice	0.262	0.069	25.150	0.120	<0.001	6.9
Age	0.316	0.100	18.816	0.124	<0.001	3.1
Staff category	0.379	0.143	18.917	2.210	<0.001	4.4
Responsibility	0.393	0.154	15.437	0.114	<0.001	1.1

* Practical significance: $f^2 < 0.35$; $f^2 \geq 0.15$ (medium effect)

There is a significant multiple correlation ($p < 0.001$) between the independent variables, interactional justice, age, staff category, responsibility and the dependent variable, loyalty. If employees are treated respectfully and humanely this has a direct influence on their loyalty towards the organisation. The job level of an employee also influences his or her loyalty. The positive beta coefficient (2.210) for the predictor staff category indicates that clerical staff appear to be more loyal than managerial staff. The loyalty of staff is also influenced by the fairness of AA decisions. Interactional justice explains 6.9 percent, age 3.1 percent, staff category 4.4 percent and responsibility 1.1 percent of the variance in employees' loyalty levels. The multiple correlation of 0.39 is practically significant ($f^2 = 0.18$) (medium effect).

8.5 SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the results of the survey. Using a factor analysis, four factors relating to organisational justice were identified, namely interactional, procedural:input, procedural:criteria and distributive justice. The four factors that were identified with regard to treatment of AA employees in the workplace included task autonomy, respect, responsibility and realistic expectations. The four factors identified for commitment included obedience, job satisfaction, participation and loyalty.

On completion of the factor analysis, the reliability of the various factors was analysed. The reliability of the factors, as measured by Cronbach alpha, was all above 0.70.

Statistical tests such as Students' t-test of difference of means, one-way analysis of variance, multiple analysis of variance and multiple regression analysis were used to investigate the relationship between the various behavioural domains and employee groupings.

This concludes the analysis of the statistical tests performed. The next chapter summarises the principal findings and makes recommendations for future research.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

South African organisations are under immense pressure to comply with legislation on employment equity provisions. However, as discussed in chapter 2, it is not only a matter of meeting employment equity targets - attention needs to be focused on the question of how to implement employment equity. This includes the questions of fairness. Fairness principles provide an opportunity to mitigate some of the adverse organisational consequences stemming from individuals' resentment-based resistance to change. An organisation's obligation to employees entails far more than fair treatment with regard to the salaries and benefits given in exchange for labour (distributive justice) and with respect to the implementation of policies and procedures that determine those levels of compensation (procedural justice). In addition, organisations are morally obliged to treat their employees with sufficient dignity as humans (interactional justice). As organisations in globally competitive markets are less able to offer traditional rewards (lifelong employment, promotions, long-term compensation), one of the only means at their disposal to induce employees to stay is to foster an environment that communicates that it values the employees. In such instances, interactional justice plays a major role in influencing employees' attitudes and the behaviours required for successful performance, even under conditions of adversity and loss, which is often the case with AA.

The fairness of AA, from an organisational justice perspective, has not yet been researched in South Africa and little is known about how perceptions of AA fairness affect employees' commitment, and hence the success of organisations. One of the challenges facing organisations is to find a way of implementing AA programmes without creating negative employee attitudes.

This chapter provides an overview and a summary of the principal findings of the study and also outlines topics for future research. The focus in the discussion of the results will be on answering the research questions. To avoid overinterpretation of the research results, only the statistically significant findings with practical implications will be discussed.

9.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary purpose of this study was to identify the major components (factors) of AA fairness and to develop a measuring instrument (questionnaire) which could be used to measure the perceived fairness of AA. The factor analysis extracted four factors related to AA fairness, namely *interactional justice*, *procedural justice(input)*, *procedural justice(criteria)* and *distributive justice*.

9.2

Perceptions of the fairness of AA are also influenced by the way AA employees are treated. Using factor analysis, four factors relating to the treatment of AA employees were identified: *task autonomy*, *respect*, *responsibility* and *realistic expectations on the part of supervisors*.

Another aim of the study was to determine how perceptions of the fairness of AA influence employees' commitment. With regard to employees' commitment, the factor analysis yielded four factors: *obedience*, *participation*, *satisfaction* and *loyalty*.

In an attempt to determine what biographical factors influence employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA, the various employee groups (ethnicity, gender, staff category, age etc.) were compared with one another.

Finally, the study attempted to determine the relationship between organisational justice, the treatment of AA employees and employees' commitment.

9.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In order to meet the research objectives, a literature and empirical study were conducted. The literature study focused on fairness principles, outlined AA practices that influence employees' perceptions of fairness and identified work behaviours associated with employees' commitment.

On completion of the literature study, a measuring instrument, namely a questionnaire, was developed. The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect information on respondents' biographical details, their perceptions of and attitudes toward AA fairness, their perceptions of the treatment of AA employees and their commitment.

By means of a disproportionate, stratified sampling method, a list of all permanent employees, categorised according to ethnicity, gender and staff category was obtained from the case bank. Table 9.1 provides a schematic representation of the grouping of respondents, the population and sample size of each group as well as the response rate.

With reference to table 9.1, the response is in line with the composition of the population - hence the response rate of 20,3 percent in this study is satisfactory.

TABLE 9.1: POPULATION, SAMPLE AND RESPONSE RATE OF EACH EMPLOYEE GROUP

	POPULATION		SAMPLE	RESPONS E	RESPONSE RATE
ETHNICITY					
Blacks	12 007 (40%)		688	128	18,6%
Whites	17 681 (60%)	100%	1032	221	21,4%
GENDER					
Men	10 088 (34%)		585	120	20,5%
Women	19 600 (66%)	100%	1135	229	20,2%
STAFF CATEGORY					
Top management	253				
Middle management	5 975	29%	498	168	33,7%
Supervisory level	2 502				
Clerical staff	20 958	71%	1222	181	14,8%
TOTAL	29 688	100%	1720	349	20,3%

9.4 RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this study, a principal factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed for each of the sections. The purpose was to identify the latent variables underlying AA fairness, treatment of AA employees in the workplace and the commitment of employees.

9.4.1 Major components of affirmative action fairness

Consistent with the findings of previous research on organisational justice, the factor analysis identified the following four factors:

Interactional justice. This factor refers to the manner in which employees are treated. As far as AA is concerned, this means that employees want to be recognised and regarded as capable and competent workers. Information on career prospects and employment equity policies should also be communicated to them. Employees value any efforts made to accommodate their cultural needs.

Procedural justice(input). This factor refers to the procedures, and in particular, the opportunity employees are afforded to influence any decisions made about AA. Issues such as allowing all employees to apply for positions or appeal against decisions, making use of joint decision making, providing mechanisms to protect employees against discrimination, applying rules and procedures consistently and adjusting systems to integrate AA employees successfully, largely determine how fair procedures seem to be.

Procedural justice(criteria). This factor refers to the criteria or standards used when implementing AA. Actions such as applying selection criteria consistently, using accurate performance data when evaluating an employee, applying the same performance standards to all employees, using job-related selection criteria and taking disciplinary action strictly and consistently, play a major role in influencing employees' perceptions of the procedural fairness of AA.

Distributive justice. This factor refers to the actual decision taken about AA. Decisions such as granting black employees token positions, training AA employees to replace current job incumbents, paying unrealistically high salaries, appointing less qualified employees for EE reasons, focusing on the development and advancement of AA employees and basing selection decisions on criteria such as ethnicity and gender, influence employees' perceptions of the distributive fairness of AA decisions.

9.4.2 Major components of the treatment of affirmative action employees

According to the results of the factor analysis, the treatment of AA employees can be grouped into the following four factors:

Task autonomy. This factor refers to the level of task autonomy employees from designated groups are granted in the workplace. The elements of this factor include the significance, importance and difficulty of the jobs assigned to AA employees, the opportunities they are afforded to use their initiative and judgment, the extent to which the job allows them to use a variety of skills and competencies, whether or not they receive feedback on their performance, the level of cooperation required to perform a task, the extent to which tasks are defined, and whether or not they are allowed to determine their own work pace and methods.

Respect. According to this factor, employees are treated with respect when they feel that they are treated with dignity, are listened to when they make suggestions, are free to discuss problems with co-workers, are recognised for work well done, are regarded as contributors to the department's success and their cultural differences are taken into consideration at social events.

Responsibility. This factor refers to the responsibility assigned to employees from designated groups. These employees should be allowed to accept responsibility for important tasks such as specific assignments and projects, working with equipment and facilities, initiating assignments and projects, and budgets and expenditures.

Realistic expectations. According to this factor, supervisors should have realistic expectations about AA employees' performance standards and workloads. In addition, AA employees should be held accountable for their decisions and performance.

9.4.3 Major components of employee commitment

The factor analysis identified the following four factors in terms of how committed employees behave at work:

Obedience. This factor refers to employees' adherence to rules and procedures and behaviour according to group norms. The elements of this factor include treating bank property with care, obeying bank rules and regulations, being concerned about the bank's image, keeping the workplace clean and tidy, being punctual and not taking unnecessarily long breaks, helping others with heavy work loads, staying informed about the bank, preventing problems with colleagues, and having valid reasons for staying away from work.

Job satisfaction. This factor refers to employees' satisfaction with their jobs. According to this factor, employees are satisfied when they enjoy doing their job, have a pleasant work environment and have a sense of personal satisfaction when they perform well.

Participation. An important aspect of employees' commitment is the extent to which they participate and are involved in work-related issues. This factor includes the opportunity employees have to share ideas or make suggestions on new projects or changes, and whether or not they attend and participate in bank meetings.

Loyalty. Loyalty is a vital part of employees' commitment, and is often measured by employees' attitudes towards remaining with the organisation. According to this factor, there are various reasons why employees do not resign. The first is that they feel they have an obligation not to resign; secondly they like their jobs; and lastly they cannot afford to resign because the costs are too high.

9.5 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE VARIOUS EMPLOYEE GROUPS REGARDING PERCEPTIONS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS

In order to determine what biographical factors influence employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA, the means of the various employee groups were compared. The biographical factors which played a key role are discussed below.

(1) Gender

Men and women differ significantly with regard to obedience and loyalty. Women are more willing to adhere to rules and regulations and display greater loyalty towards the bank.

(2) Ethnicity

There are statistically significant differences between blacks and whites with regard to perceptions of distributive justice, the treatment of AA employees regarding respect and task autonomy and how participative employees are. Distributive justice issues play a vital role in whites' formation of perceptions of the fairness of AA. Contrary

to what blacks feel, whites believe that AA employees are treated with respect and are accorded autonomy. Whites appear to be more participative than blacks.

(3) *Marital status*

Married and single employees differ significantly when it comes to distributive justice, work satisfaction and participation. Married employees regard distributive justice issues as critical to the fairness of AA. Married employees also seem to be more satisfied and participative than their single counterparts.

(4) *Number of years' service at the bank*

There are significant differences between employees with seven or more years of service and employees with less than seven years of service. Employees with seven or more years of service seem to be extremely concerned about distributive justice issues when forming perceptions of the fairness of AA and appear to be more participative and loyal than employees with less than seven years of service. Furthermore, they believe that AA employees do have autonomy and are treated with respect.

(5) *Staff category*

There are significant differences between management and clerical staff in respect of *distributive justice, autonomy, respect and participation*.

As far as the practical significance of differences between management and clerical staff are concerned, it is only with regard to *distributive justice* that the difference is of any practical importance. AA decisions such as giving AA employees token positions, paying unrealistically high salaries to AA managers, appointing less qualified employees, focusing on the development and advancement of AA employees, and making selection decisions based on criteria such as ethnicity and gender play a big role when forming perceptions about the fairness of AA. Management views distributive justice as integral to forming perceptions of the fairness of AA. In contrast to the opinion of clerical staff, management believe that employees from designated groups are granted autonomy and are treated with respect. Management appears to be more satisfied and participative than clerical staff.

(6) *Salary*

Respondents were categorised according to three categories of salary level, namely R5000 or less, R5001 to R15 000, and more than R15000. There is a significant difference relating to *distributive justice* between employees earning R5000 or less per month and those earning R15001 and more per month. Distributive justice is crucial to employees earning low salaries because it has a direct bearing on their financial position. Decisions about appointments, promotions, career advancement and training thus play a major role when employees form perceptions of the fairness of AA.

The MANOVAs and associated ANOVAs indicated that only ethnicity, age and job category had a significant effect on the differences between the groups' perceptions of the fairness of AA.

9.6 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION FAIRNESS AND THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

9.6.1 How the treatment of affirmative action employees influence perceptions of fairness

Multiple regression statistics were used to predict how the treatment of AA employees influences employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA. There is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of AA fairness and the treatment of AA employees. The results indicated that the more task autonomy and respect accorded to employees, the more likely they will be to perceive decisions about AA to be fair.

Distributive justice, which has a low correlation with interactional and procedural justice, is not significantly related to the treatment of employees. This means that employees might be willing to tolerate injustices such as the promotion of an AA candidate as long as the decision was taken in a procedurally and interactionally fair manner.

It was interesting to note that ethnicity does not feature when it comes to perceptions of the procedural and interactional fairness of AA. It does, however, play a role in distributive justice perceptions. This means that whites regard certain decisions such as the appointment and promotion, allocation of tasks, and opportunities provided for growth and development of AA employees as an integral part of forming perceptions of the fairness of AA.

9.6.2 How perceptions of the fairness of affirmative action influence employees' commitment

This study also aimed to determine whether or not perceptions of the fairness of affirmative action influence employees' commitment regarding *obedience, satisfaction, participation and loyalty*.

(1) *Obedience*

Employees' willingness to adhere to rules and conform to group norms (obedience) are a direct result of the way they are treated in terms of task autonomy (type and significance of jobs assigned), fairness of decisions taken (salary increases, promotions, etc and the way they are treated (being recognised, informed about developments, guided and accommodated in the workplace). Obedience, however, is not influenced by ethnicity or staff category.

(2) *Satisfaction*

The satisfaction level of employees is strongly influenced by the amount of task autonomy they have and how fairly they are treated.

(3) *Participation*

Employees' willingness to participate in work-related activities is directly related to the amount of task autonomy they have and their job level. Management tend to participate more than clerical staff. Ethnicity does not influence employees' participation levels - hence there is no difference between whites' and blacks' participation levels.

(4) *Loyalty*

Employees' loyalty is directly related to the way they are treated, their job level, the responsibilities assigned to them and the perceived fairness of decisions taken. The more employees are treated in a humane and respectful manner, the more likely they are to remain loyal to the organisation.

9.7 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Overall, the results suggest that the measures of distributive, procedural and interactional justice are sufficiently reliable and valid to capture the perceived fairness of AA programmes. However, elements that influence overall perceptions of fairness may depend on the type of organisation, leadership style, etc, and support Greenberg's (1987) concerns about the context sensitivity of justice perceptions. Researchers should thus endeavour to select measures that incorporate elements that are relevant to specific contexts, and support the need for caution in generalising the results of AA fairness research across organisational contexts. Not limiting the sample to a single organisation could solve some of the problems related to the context sensitivity of perceptions of AA fairness.

One limitation in this study arises from the use of such a comprehensive questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of 116 questions and took approximately 30 minutes to complete. This could have influenced respondents' willingness to complete it.

Another limitation concerns the interpretation of section B of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked to indicate how much certain actions influenced their perceptions of the fairness of AA. Some of the answers provided by respondents gave the impression that they had evaluated the statements according to how AA fairness was *dealt with* at the bank.

The commitment behaviours that were investigated represent a subset of the many types of behaviours found in organisations. Perceived injustices produce a range of responses including psychological distress, sabotage, withdrawal and theft (Greenberg, 1987) - hence the need for future research to explore contextual moderators in order to improve the prediction of employees' responses to perceived justice/injustice.

Although items from other questionnaires were used to compile this questionnaire, the researcher feels that better items could have been selected. This may explain why the distribution of scores of the factors for

commitment was not normal and did not yield significant results. This is also reflected in the low practical significance values (effect sizes) of the multiple regression models.

9.8 MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

With reference to the differences between the various employee groups regarding perceptions of AA fairness, there are only two biographical factors that influence employees' perceptions: ethnicity and age. Whites and older people base their perceptions of the fairness of AA on *distributive justice* issues. If management thus wish to promote sound labour relations, the following human resource practices should be avoided:

- allocating token positions to black managers
- training AA employees to replace existing employees
- paying unrealistically high salaries to AA managers
- appointing or promoting less qualified people

Since management are compelled to meet employment equity targets, it is virtually impossible to avoid the above mentioned practices. Although management might be aware of the issues that create negative perceptions, they face conditions that constrain their ability to put the viewpoints of employees first. What management could do, however, is to implement these practices in a procedurally and interactionally fair manner. Any AA decision should thus be taken in the following ways:

- Acknowledge the value, capabilities and competencies of AA employees by assigning meaningful and significant jobs to them.
- Recognise the value of other employees by appointing and promoting AA employees who are capable of doing their share of the work.
- Inform employees about employment equity targets so that they understand why preference should be given to AA employees.
- Provide all employees with an equal chance of applying for positions and make no preliminary selection decision on the basis of the ethnicity of the applicant.
- Apply rules and procedures consistently so that all employees, irrespective of ethnicity, receive the same treatment.
- Use the same selection or performance standards for all employees irrespective of their ethnicity, age or gender.
- Use more than one performance appraiser so that employees feel that they are treated fairly and that prejudice does not influence the evaluation.
- Make use of a management style that facilitates joint decision making.

Since age and ethnicity are correlated (older employees are mainly white employees because of the employment practices followed in previous years), it is possible that it is not so much age but ethnicity that influences employees' perceptions of the fairness of AA.

It is interesting to note that gender does not play a significant role when it comes to forming perceptions of the fairness of AA. Men and women feel more or less the same when issues such as token positions, training AA employees to replace other employees, paying unrealistic salaries and appointing less qualified people are considered.

With reference to the treatment of AA employees in the workplace, there are significant differences between the ethnic groups in respect of task autonomy and respect. Whites believe that blacks do have autonomy and are treated with respect. Blacks, on the other hand, do not see it in the same way. According to the results of the study, the way employees are treated has a major impact on their commitment (work behaviour). Employees who have autonomy and are treated with respect are more obedient, satisfied and participative. Since whites and blacks have different views on how they believe AA employees are treated, management should determine, by means of a survey, what employees regard as autonomy and respect.

From a management point of view, supervisors should provide AA employees with significant, stimulating and challenging tasks, allow them to use their own judgment and initiative, enable them to apply a variety of skills and competencies, provide them with feedback on performance and outline expectations clearly. Participation and involvement should be encouraged by noting suggestions made by AA employees and giving recognition for work well done.

Because there are various factors that could influence an employee's decision to remain with an organisation (ie unemployment conditions), staff category is only partially responsible for employees' loyalty. Management should, however, keep the motivational value of promotions in mind when trying to retain the services of core personnel.

9.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The findings of this study support those of other researchers (Gopinatha & Becker, 2000; Harris, 2000; Konovsky, 2000; Saxby et al, 2000; Simerson et al, 2000; Tata, 2000) who suggest that the treatment of employees, rather than rewards or the perceived fairness of the organisational system, may be more important in the manifestation of organisationally desirable behaviours. If management apply procedures and treat employees fairly they will directly influence employees' commitment. If management wish to create an work atmosphere that elicits commitment, they must strive to improve the perceived fairness of their interactions with subordinates.

Many managers face conditions that may constrain their ability to reward employees equitably. Budgets and other monetary restrictions are often outside managerial control. Similarly, the formal procedures in an organisation may be beyond a manager's influence. However, the sensitivity with which a manager treats his or her subordinates and the ability to demonstrate fair intentions is relatively controllable by managers. Managers who wish to build a committed workforce need to realise that employees will be committed only if they believe that they themselves are being treated fairly. A key antecedent to performance and commitment appear to be employees' perceptions of fair treatment, an aspect of employee interaction completely under the control of most managers. Organisations should thus focus on improving the perceived fairness of managerial behaviours. Managers should receive training on the importance of being consistent, unbiased, truthful, and respectful in assigning jobs, conducting evaluations, and administering rewards and punishment.

This study represents a vital step towards a better understanding of the dimensionality of AA fairness. Examining the relationships between perceptions of fairness, the treatment of AA employees and employee commitment should ultimately contribute to more effective management of AA in the workplace.

APPENDICES

COVER LETTER

APPENDIX A

Dear Sir / Madam

COMPLETION OF A RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE FAIRNESS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

You are invited to participate in a study on affirmative action. The purpose of this study is twofold: firstly, to identify issues which influence the fairness of affirmative action and, secondly, to determine how well the bank has managed affirmative action as part of its leadership and culture transformation process.

Although affirmative action has been widely researched, the fairness thereof from an organisational justice perspective has not yet been researched in South Africa, and little is known of how perceptions and assumptions of affirmative action fairness affect the commitment of employees. In order to determine how successful the bank has managed affirmative action, the department Organisation Development Research wishes to obtain information about employees' perceptions on, assumptions about and attitudes towards affirmative action.

You are part of a selected sample of employees who are requested to complete the enclosed questionnaire. We know how valuable your time is and appreciate your efforts. The completion of the questionnaire should, however, take you no longer than 30 minutes. Your inputs will play a valuable part in our efforts in the change and transformational journey the bank leadership and culture have embarked on.

The processing of research results is undertaken by the University of South Africa (UNISA) and the results will be communicated to Dr Willem de Jager at the case bank Head Office: Organisational Development Research department. The results will be utilized as an input for further leadership and culture change and transformation workshops towards establishing a culture of justice and inclusion that values diversity in the bank.

Your responses will be treated as confidential. Please complete the questionnaire as soon as possible and return it in the self-addressed envelop to:

Mrs M Coetzee
UNISA: Department of Human Resource Management
PO Box 392
PRETORIA, 0001.

Thank you for assisting us in this survey.

Dr Willem de Jager
ORGANISATION DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH

A PERSONAL PARTICULARS (please tick the appropriate block)

1	GENDER	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
---	--------	------	--------------------------	--------	--------------------------

2	ETHNICITY	Black	<input type="checkbox"/>
		White	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Asian	<input type="checkbox"/>

3	AGE (years)	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
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4	MARITAL STATUS	Single (incl divorced, widowed)	<input type="checkbox"/>	Married (incl living together)	<input type="checkbox"/>
---	----------------	---------------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------------	--------------------------

5	CURRENT POSITION (job title)	<input type="text"/>
---	------------------------------	----------------------

6	NUMBER OF YEARS' SERVICE IN CURRENT POSITION	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
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7	NUMBER OF YEARS' SERVICE AT BANK	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
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8	STAFF CATEGORY	Top management E/F	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Middle management M/P	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Supervisory level T	<input type="checkbox"/>
		Clerical staff A/B	<input type="checkbox"/>

10.4

9 HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Lower than grade 12		Degree	
Grade 12		Honours degree	
Certificate (1 year)		Master's degree	
Diploma (3 years)		Doctor's degree	

10 MONTHLY GROSS SALARY (benefits excluded)

5 000 or less		25 001 - 30 000	
5 001 - 10 000		30 001 - 35 000	
10 001 - 15 000		35 001 - 40 000	
15 001 - 20 000		More than 40 000	
20 001 - 25 000			

11 HAVE YOU BEEN APPOINTED TO YOUR CURRENT POSITION BY MEANS OF EMPLOYMENT EQUITY?

Yes		No		Not sure	
-----	--	----	--	----------	--

Answer the following questions about your supervisor:

12 ETHNICITY OF SUPERVISOR

Black		White		Coloured		Asian	
-------	--	-------	--	----------	--	-------	--

13 GENDER OF SUPERVISOR

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

B AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

To what extent do the following influence the **fairness** of affirmative action? Note that the survey does not attempt to determine how affirmative action is implemented in the bank but rather how you feel the following practices influence the fairness of affirmative action.

	How much do the following influence the fairness of affirmative action?	Not at all To a very great extent					
		1 ← → 6					
1	Joint decision making by all interested parties.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Using criteria such as ethnicity, disability and gender when making appointment decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Treating people from designated groups differently because of their personal circumstances such as childcare and transport problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Viewing white females as members of a designated group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Affording all applicants with an equal chance for influencing the selection decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Targeting people from designated groups to apply for a job by means of employment equity provisions in advertisements.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Enabling employees to appeal when they feel that they have been discriminated against because of affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Adjusting current traditions, systems and practices so that employees from designated groups can be integrated successfully.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Focussing on the development and advancement of employees from designated groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Regarding all employees' career advancement as equally important.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Appointing/promoting less qualified people from designated groups for employment equity purposes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Applying procedures and rules strictly and consistently to all employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	How much do the following influence the fairness of affirmative action?	Not at all To a very great extent					
		1 ← → 6					
13	Providing mechanisms such as suggestion boxes, grievance and disciplinary procedures and open-door policies to protect employees sufficiently against any unfair or discriminatory treatment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Explaining to employees “unfavourable” decisions, such as not being promoted because of affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Informing employees about the employment equity policy, objectives and targets.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Taking disciplinary action strictly and consistently against all employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Paying all employees comparable salaries even though employees from designated groups may still need further training.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Viewing and treating all employees from designated groups as “affirmative action” appointments.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Paying unrealistically high salaries to employees from designated groups in managerial positions in order to meet employment equity targets.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Training supervisors to manage a diverse workforce.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Making provision for affirmative action employees’ culture and traditions when organising social events.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Recognising the value affirmative action employees bring to the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Informing employees about the implications of employment equity for their career plans.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Recognising that employees from designated groups are capable of performing difficult tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Guiding employees from designated groups in having realistic career expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10.7

	How much do the following influence the fairness of affirmative action?	Not at all To a very great extent					
		1 ← → 6					
26	Employing more employees on a contract basis because of employment equity legislation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Using predetermined, job-related selection criteria when making selection decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Applying selection criteria consistently to all applicants.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Using the same performance standards for all employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Making use of accurate performance data when evaluating employees' performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Making use of more than one appraiser when evaluating an employee's performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Referring to the employment equity plan and the profile of the current workforce when appointing personnel.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Focussing on the needs of employees from designated groups when compiling training and development programmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Having accurate and complete records available in respect of appointments, promotions, transfers, performance appraisals, disciplinary hearings etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Management expressing regret when an individual cannot be promoted on account of affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Management being prepared to admit when affirmative action played a role in making a decision.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	Providing feedback and comments without referring to any affirmative action issue.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Providing employee benefits that meet the needs of a diverse workforce.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	Giving black managers token positions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	Training employees from a designated group to replace current job incumbents.	1	2	3	4	5	6

C TREATMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

To what extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements on the treatment of employees from designated groups in the workplace?

	Employees from designated groups in the bank	Strongly disagree Strongly agree					
		1 ←	→ 6
1	Are given jobs that allow them to use a variety of skills and competencies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Are given significant and important jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Are given jobs that provide them with feedback on their work performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Are given jobs that require co-operative work with other workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Are given jobs that give them the opportunity to use their personal initiative or judgment in completing the task.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Are given jobs with clearly defined tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Are given challenging jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Are allowed to determine their own work pace, order of tasks and work methods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Are given a high degree of personal responsibility for the work they do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Are being held accountable for the decisions they make.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Are recognized for work done well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Are given jobs in which they have to handle new problems or unpredictable situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Are expected to handle realistic workloads.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Are expected to meet realistic performance standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Are responsible for initiating assignments and projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Are responsible for budgets and expenditures.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Employees from designated groups in the bank	Strongly disagree Strongly agree					
		1 ←	2	3	4	5	→ 6
17	Are responsible for carrying out assignments and projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	Are responsible for equipment and facilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Are required to refer all decisions to their supervisors for approval.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Are being listened to when they make suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Are treated with respect and dignity.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Are not seen as an employment equity initiative only, but people who can make a contribution to the success of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Are provided with adequate office equipment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Are at ease when attending social events because such events do take cultural differences into consideration.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Feel free to discuss personal and/or work related problems with co-workers and supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	(Women) are able to compete with men on an equal footing despite having to attend to family responsibilities. (unable to travel or work overtime)	1	2	3	4	5	6

D COMMITMENT

To what extent do you agree/disagree with the following statements on your behaviour at work? PLEASE BE HONEST!!

		Strongly disagree Strongly agree					
		1 ← → 6					
1	I help others who have heavy work loads.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I obey bank rules, regulations and procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I do not take unnecessarily long breaks or extra breaks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am punctual.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I am concerned about the image of the bank.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I treat bank property with care.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I attend and participate in meetings about the bank.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I stay informed about the bank.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I keep my workplace clean and tidy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I make suggestions to improve operations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I do not stay away from work without a valid reason.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	I do everything possible to meet deadlines, even if it means working overtime without pay.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	I attempt to prevent problems with colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I complain about trivial matters because it will help to correct problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I seldom think about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree Strongly agree					
		1 ← → 6					
16	I only attend work-related meetings if required.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I share ideas for new projects or improvements widely.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I perform extra duties and responsibilities only if they enhance my career prospects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I complete tasks beyond what is required.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	I mind my own business and do not interfere with others' dishonesty and wrongdoing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I express my opinions honestly even if others differ from me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I show up for work early so that I can get things ready.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	I use bank property (printer, telephone, fax) for personal use.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I do not mind working for a different company as long as the type of work is similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I find my work environment pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I regard my job as a eight-to-five job which enables me to make a living.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I will not resign because the bank has done a lot for me and I feel obliged to continue employment with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I cannot resign because the costs associated with leaving the bank are too high (eg retirement, medical and leave benefits).	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I will not resign because I like my job and enjoy working for the bank.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I make the most of learning opportunities provided to me by the bank.	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly disagree Strongly agree					
		1 ← → 6					
33	I doubt whether hard work will lead to a promotion because of employment equity requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	I stay with the bank mainly because of the scarcity of alternative employment opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	I attend social functions regularly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I will consider a job offer from another company only if it is <i>considerably</i> better than my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I regard my colleagues as friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AA FAIRNESS AND THE BEHAVIOURAL DOMAINS

APPENDIX C

		BINTERAC	B.P.INPU	B.P.CRIT	B.DISTRI	C.OUTONO	C.RSPECT	C.RSPONS	C.EXPECT	D.OBEDIE	D.SATISF	D.PARTIC	D.LOYAL
BINTERAC	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000 .	0.732 0.000	0.739 0.000	0.364 0.000	0.610 0.000	0.588 0.000	0.398 0.000	0.478 0.000	0.301 0.000	0.373 0.000	0.297 0.000	0.257 0.000
B.P.INPUT	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.732 0.000	1.000 .	0.726 0.000	0.221 0.000	0.516 0.000	0.534 0.000	0.346 0.000	0.470 0.000	0.218 0.000	0.329 0.000	0.253 0.000	0.226 0.000
B.P.CRIT	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.739 0.000	0.726 0.000	1.000 .	0.202 0.000	0.558 0.000	0.543 0.000	0.369 0.000	0.493 0.000	0.216 0.000	0.338 0.000	0.229 0.000	0.169 0.002
B.DISTRI	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.364 0.000	0.221 0.000	0.202 0.000	1.000 .	0.422 0.000	0.394 0.000	0.224 0.000	0.196 0.000	0.264 0.000	0.240 0.000	0.243 0.000	0.163 0.002
C.OUTONO	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.610 0.000	0.516 0.000	0.558 0.000	0.422 0.000	1.000 .	0.764 0.000	0.580 0.000	0.737 0.000	0.339 0.000	0.422 0.000	0.403 0.000	0.214 0.000
C.RSPECT	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.588 0.000	0.534 0.000	0.543 0.000	0.394 0.000	0.764 0.000	1.000 .	0.588 0.000	0.656 0.000	0.311 0.000	0.386 0.000	0.310 0.000	0.205 0.000
C.RSPONS	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.398 0.000	0.346 0.000	0.369 0.000	0.224 0.000	0.580 0.000	0.588 0.000	1.000 .	0.585 0.000	0.238 0.000	0.259 0.000	0.295 0.000	0.185 0.001
C.EXPECT	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.478 0.000	0.470 0.000	0.493 0.000	0.196 0.000	0.737 0.000	0.656 0.000	0.585 0.000	1.000 .	0.286 0.000	0.368 0.000	0.333 0.000	0.182 0.001
D.OBEDIE	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.301 0.000	0.218 0.000	0.216 0.000	0.264 0.000	0.339 0.000	0.311 0.000	0.238 0.000	0.286 0.000	1.000 .	0.376 0.000	0.596 0.000	0.276 0.000
D.SATISF	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.373 0.000	0.329 0.000	0.338 0.000	0.240 0.000	0.422 0.000	0.386 0.000	0.259 0.000	0.368 0.000	0.376 0.000	1.000 .	0.396 0.000	0.461 0.000
D.PARTIC	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.297 0.000	0.253 0.000	0.229 0.000	0.243 0.000	0.403 0.000	0.310 0.000	0.295 0.000	0.333 0.000	0.596 0.000	0.396 0.000	1.000 .	0.219 0.000
D.LOYAL	Pearson (r) Sig. (2-tailed)	0.257 0.000	0.226 0.000	0.169 0.002	0.163 0.002	0.214 0.000	0.205 0.000	0.185 0.001	0.182 0.001	0.276 0.000	0.461 0.000	0.219 0.000	1.000 .

University of Pretoria etd – Coetzee, M. (2005)

Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N = 349.

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