

**ASSESSING DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL  
GOVERNMENT MANAGERS**

**BY**

**SHAUN WILBUR PEKEUR**

**DISSERTATION PRESENTED FOR THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR TECHNOLOGIAE IN PUBLIC MANAGEMENT  
IN THE FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT AT THE CAPE  
TECHNIKON.**

**PROMOTOR: PROF M.S. BAYAT**

**SEPTEMBER 2002**

**DECLARATION:**

**I, THE UNDERSIGNED, HEREBY DECLARE THAT THE WORK  
CONTAINED IN THIS DISSERTATION IS MY OWN ORIGINAL  
WORK AND HAS NOT PREVIOUSLY IN ITS ENTIRETY OR IN  
PART BEEN SUBMITTED AT ANY TECHNIKON OR UNIVERSITY  
FOR A DEGREE.**

.....  
**SHAUN WILBUR PEKEUR**

**DATE: SEPTEMBER 2002**

*"Never treat people in different ways according to their outward appearance."*

*James 2:1*

*(Good News Bible)*

## SUMMARY

South Africa prides itself on its "rainbow nation" status. The term "rainbow nation" has frequently been used to reflect the diversity of the South African community. In the preamble to our present constitution, it is stated that South Africa belongs to all who live in it, and that diversity epitomises the unity of its people. However, if one takes a glance around many local government offices, particular at our senior and middle level management levels, our rainbow appears less colourful than we would like to think. Whatever its meaning, diversity has become a term used freely by both the previous and present government, neither being able to define its true meaning. In fact, they have used the term diversity in so many ways and in so many contexts that it seems to mean many things. With the diversification of local authorities, a new challenge has arisen for the local government manager when resolving, or at least ameliorating, some of the difficulties arising from the widespread diversity found in the workplace. The transformation of local authorities and the implementation of affirmative action programmes were the way government thought diversity should be effected, but this alone will not ensure the employment equity local government managers are seeking. The awareness of selected local government managers (internal managing of diversity) regarding diversity will provide an insight into their acceptance of diverse groups as being a vital resource for an organisation. In return, this will also reflect the commitment of selected local government managers (external managing of diversity) in serving their diverse local communities. In this dissertation, the terms "selected local government manager(s)" will be used interchangeably with the term "public manager (s)".

The core problem, which this study addresses, revolves around the different belief windows and the effect these have on the local government manager's self-concept of diversity in the workplace. A belief window refers to an invisible window through which one views diversity. This dissertation will attempt to provide the insights and awareness levels of local government managers in respect of diversity management as expounded in the paragraphs that follow.

The theories of diversity management in the workplace are explored. The focus is on the definition of terms within the study; what managing diversity is not; why diversity management; the different



dimensions of diversity; the differences between managing diversity, valuing of differences and affirmative action; models for managing diversity in the workplace; and the consequences of ignoring diversity in the workplace.

The management of diversity awareness in local government is the essence within the research. The focus is on the nature of management in local government, macro and micro environmental factors influencing diversity management in local government and the challenges managing diversity offer to the local government manager.

The research focuses on the behaviour-modelling framework for managing diversity awareness in local government. The focus is on the nature of diversity awareness in local government; the study of behaviour in the workplace; four different behaviour models existing in the workplace; variables that influence the individual behaviour of public managers towards diversity in the workplace; and the basic principles guiding the behaviour of public managers towards acknowledging diversity in the workplace.

The development of a research framework and a measuring instrument (in the form of a questionnaire) to assess the diversity awareness of local government managers was the next focus. The SPSS/PC SYSTEM was used to statistically analyse the data from the survey. The overall response data was divided into dependent and independent variables.

The *dependent variables* refer to the attitudinal or behavioural responses of the respondents to diversity in the workplace. Four attitudinal or behavioural responses were identified:

Naïve offenders are people who are neither aware of bias or prejudice nor of their impact. They are further unaware of the pain and damage they may cause.

Perpetuators are people who are aware of bias and prejudice, but persist in behaviour which reinforces and rewards bigotry.

Avoiders (silent supporters) are people who are aware of bias, but tolerate unjust behaviour.

Change agents are people who take action, when appropriate, helping to bring about long-term change.

Fighters are people who attack real and imagined prejudice. They watch for signs of discrimination and bring about change, but often pay a high price for this.

The *independent variables* refer to responses in respect of gender, age, marital status, highest educational qualification, home language, religion, job position and the period of time the respondent has been working for his or her current employer.

Finally, this research provides a background to the development of a normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace. The model focuses on the purpose of diversity awareness; the different belief windows and paradigms of diversity management; the management styles which influence the behaviour of local government managers; the results of ignoring diversity; and feedback on the valuing of diversity in the workplace.

Recommendations based on the results of the survey are made to improve the diversity awareness level of local government managers working in the Nelson Mandela Metropole.

## OPSOMMING

Suid Afrikaners is klaarblyklik baie trots op hul reputasie as die "reënboognasie". Die term word veral baie gebruik om die diversiteit van die Suid Afrikaanse gemeenskap uit te wys. In die inleiding van ons huidige grondwet word dit ook duidelik gestel dat Suid Afrika aan almal behoort wat daarin woon, en dat diversiteit 'n toonbeeld is van die eenheid wat daar bestaan onder sy mense. By naderende ondersoek blyk dit egter dat ons reënboog, veral op senior en middle bestuur, nie so kleurvol in baie van ons munisipaliteite is nie. Wat die term ookal beteken, diversiteit het 'n algemeen aanvaarbare konsep vir beide die vorige en die huidige regerings geword. Beide regerings was egter nie in staat om betekenis te verleen aan die term nie. Die term diversiteit is in soveel verskillende maniere en kontekste omskryf dat die term baie betekenis gekry het. Die diversifisering van die staatsdiens het aan plaaslike owerheidsbestuurder 'n nuwe uitdaging daar gestel, naamlik, hoe om die vraagstukke voortspruitend uit diversiteit in die werksplek op te los of minstens te versag. Die regering het gedink dat diversiteit beter by wyse van die transformering van die staatsdiens asook die implimentering van regstellende aksies hanteer sou kon word, maar dit op sigself kan nie die gelykheid bring waarna plaaslike owerheids werkers streef nie. Die bewusmaking van plaaslike owerheids bestuurders m.b.t diversiteit (interne bestuur van diversiteit) sal vir hulle 'n geleentheid bied om diverse groepe as 'n belangrike hulpbron vir 'n organisasie te beskou. In teenstelling hiermee sal dit ook 'n toonbeeld wees van die plaaslike owerheids bestuurder se bereidwilligheid (eksterne bestuur van diversiteit) om die diverse Suid Afrikaanse gemeenskap te dien. In hierdie proefskrif sal die term "geselekteerde plaaslike owerheidsbestuurder (s)" vervangbaar wees met "openbare bestuurder (s)".

Die kernprobleem wat deur hierdie proefskrif aangespreek word is die verskillende sienings en die gevolg hiervan op die owerheidsbestuurder se selfkonsep van diversiteit in die werksplek. Die proefskrif verskaf die volgende insigte en bydraes met betrekking tot die bewusmaking van plaaslike owerheidsbestuurders ten opsigte van diversiteit in die werksplek:

'n Agtergrond word verskaf ten opsigte van die teorie oor diversiteit in die werksplek. Die fokus is op die terme rondom diversiteit, wat diversiteitsbestuur *nie* is nie, die noodsaaklikheid van

diversiteitsbestuur, die verskillende diversiteitsdimensies wat die werksomgewing van die plaaslike owerheidsbestuurder beïnvloed, die betekenis verskille tussen diversiteitsbestuur, die waardering van diversiteit en regstellende aksie, modelle vir diversiteitsbestuur en die gevolge as diversiteitsbestuur in die werksplek geïgnoreer word.

Diversiteitsbestuur en bewusmaking in plaaslike regering vorm die grondslag van hierdie navorsing. Die fokus is op die aard van bestuur in plaaslike regering, makro en mikro omgewings faktore wat diversiteitsbestuur in plaaslike owerhede beïnvloed en die uitdagings wat diversiteit aan die plaaslike owerheids bestuurder in die werksplek stel.

'n Agtergrond word verskaf van die ontwikkeling van 'n gedragsraamwerk waarbinne diversiteit in die werksplek ondersoek kan word. Die fokus is op die aard van diversiteitsbestuur en bewusmaking in plaaslike regerings, die bestudering van gedrag in die werksplek, die vier gedragsvlakke teenwoordig in die werksplek, veranderlikes wat die gedrag van individuele plaaslike owerheidsbestuurders t.o.v diversiteit bepaal en die basiese beginsels wat as kennisname dien vir plaaslike owerheidsbestuurders t.o.v hulle gedrag teenoor diversiteit in die werksplek.

Daar word gefokus op 'n navorsingsraamwerk en 'n metingsinstrument (vraelys) wat gebruik is om die diversiteitsvlakke van plaaslike owerheids bestuurders in die werksplek te ondersoek. Die SPSS/PC SISTEEM is gebruik om die data te ontleed. Die reaksie op die data is ingedeel in afhanklike en onafhanklike veranderlikes. Die *afhanklike veranderlikes* het gefokus op die gedrag en houdingsreaksie van respondente. Vier gedrag en houdingsreaksies is geïdentifiseer:

Naïewe oortreders is mense wat nie van hul eie vooroordeel of partydigheid bewus is nie, en ook nie van die impak daarvan nie. Hulle is onbewus van die pyn en skade wat hulle veroorsaak.

Perpetueerders is mense wat bewus is van vooroordeel, maar wat voortgaan met gedrag wat bekrompenheid versterk en beloon.

Ontwykers (stille ondersteuners) is mense wat van vooroordeel bewus is, maar verdraagsaam is teenoor onregverdige optrede.

Veranderingsagente is mense wat tot optrede oorgaan indien dit gepas is, en help om langtermynveranderings teweeg te bring.

Vegters is mense wat werklike en denkbeeldige vooroordeel aanval. Hulle waak teen diskriminasie en bring verandering teweeg, maar betaal dikwels 'n hoë prys in die proses.

Die *onafhanklike veranderlikes* verwys na die geslag, ouderdom, huwelikstatus, hoogste opvoedkundige kwalifikasie, huistaal, godsdiens, rang en tydperk wat die respondent al in diens van sy of haar werkgewer is.

Laastens word daar gefokus op die ontwikkeling van 'n normatiewe model wat gebruik kan word om diversiteit onder plaaslike owerheidsbestuurders te ondersoek. Die model fokus op die doelwit met die bewusmaking van diversiteit, die verskillende benaderings tot diversiteit wat in die werksplek gevolg word, die bestuursstyle wat die wyse waarvolgens plaaslike bestuurders en die struikelblokke wat die aanvaarding en waardering van diversiteit kan beïnvloed, die verskillende bestuurssindrome wat die gedrag en houdings van openbare bestuurders kan beïnvloed, die gevolge van wanneer diversiteit in die werksplek geïgnoreer word, en terugvoering m.b.t die evaluering van diversiteit in die werksplek.

Aanbevelings is gebaseer op die resultate van die ondersoek en is gedoen om die vlakke van diversiteits bewusmaking van die plaaslike owerheidsbestuurders in die Nelson Mandela Metropool te verhoog.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly I should like to thank my **CREATOR AND HEAVENLY FATHER** for giving me the strength, the faith, the endurance, the potential and the knowledge to make all this possible.

I should also like to thank the following people:

My beautiful wife, Beatriz, for her patience, her faithful support, her love and her daily encouragement.

My two children, Nathan and Kaylynn for their patience and love in allowing their Dad to complete his studies.

My parents, Karel and Katy Pekeur, for their love, support and the everyday encouragement that they gave to me all my life.

My two sisters, Elminn and Sandy Pekeur, for their support.

My Mother-in-law, Victoria Costa, for her support.

To Professor Mohammed Saheed Bayat for his dedicated and unselfish assistance, particularly his promptitude in evaluating the progress and constantly phoning home to motivate me to complete my studies and making sure that Nathan checks up on me.

Also, for Prof. Bayat's mentorship in my studies and during my career over the past thirteen years and who has taught me the art of networking and acted as a role model for me. His support and belief in me has not gone unnoticed during my career and years of study.

Professor Miemie Struwig at Vista University for her support and guidance.

To Barbara Olivier at Vista University for acting as my statistician.

Carol York who assisted me in the typing of my dissertation.

The Cape Technikon for giving me the opportunity to complete my studies.

Colleagues at the Cape Technikon such as Associate Professor Liz Van Aswegan and Michelle Warwick for editorial support, Prof Andre Slaboert, Pieter de Jager, Labeeqah Schuurman, Errol Francke, Debbie Jacobs, Brendon Pretorius, Amiena Salie, Shamiela Sulayman, Daan de Goede, Eugene Fester and Jacques West for encouraging and supporting me.

Peter Broodryk at the Nelson Mandela Metropole and Lieutenant-Colonel Van Straaten from the Port Elizabeth Police Services, for being my coordinators during the research survey.

The personnel at the Port Elizabeth University library, Vista University library (Port Elizabeth) and Cape Technikon, specifically Mesdames Omayya Allie, Anne du Toit and Zaba Tshabalala for their friendly assistance.

To all the respondents for their willingness and honesty to take part in the survey

To all my schoolteachers that encouraged and supported me throughout the years.

To all my family for their support and words of encouragement.

# ASSESSING DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Summary	iv
Opsomming	vii
Acknowledgments	x
<b>CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION</b>	
1.1 Background to the problem	1
1.2 Defining the research problem	4
1.3 Research sub-problem	7
1.4 Research hypotheses and assumptions	8
1.5 Purpose and objectives of the study	9
1.6 Delimitation of the study	10
1.7 Importance of and motivation for the study	11
1.8 Related studies and debates	13
1.9 Research methodology	14
1.9.1 Literature review	15



1.9.2 Research design	16
1.9.3 Research survey	16
1.9.4 Data interpretation	17
1.9.5 Model construction	17
1.10 Organisation of the study	17

## **CHAPTER 2: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR MANAGING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE**

2.1 Introduction	20
2.2 What is diversity?	20
2.2.1 Managing of diversity	21
2.2.2 Diversity awareness	21
2.2.3 Diversity climate	21
2.2.4 Valuing of differences	22
2.2.5 Equal opportunity	22
2.2.6 Equal employment opportunity	22
2.2.7 Affirmative action	22

2.2.8 Stereotyping	23
2.2.9 Prejudice	23
2.2.10 Discrimination	23
2.2.11 Paradigm	23
2.2.12 Attitude	24
2.2.13 Behaviour	24
2.2.14 Behaviour modelling	24
2.2.15 Behaviour modification	24
2.2.16 Gender	24
2.2.17 Organisational culture	25
2.2.18 Public Sector	25
2.2.19 Local Government	25
2.2.20 Local Government Management	25
2.2.21 Local Government Manager	25
2.2.22 Local Authority	26
2.2.23 Governmental institutions	26

2.2.23.1 Governmental	26
2.2.23.2 Institutions	26
2.3 What managing of diversity is not?	27
2.4 Why diversity management?	29
2.5 Dimensions of diversity	32
2.5.1 Primary dimensions of diversity	32
2.5.2 Secondary dimensions of diversity	33
2.6 The differences between managing diversity, valuing diversity and affirmative action	34
2.7 Models for managing diversity in the workplace	35
2.7.1 Awareness-based diversity training model	35
2.7.2 Skills-based diversity training model	39
2.7.3 The Battaglia skills'-diversity model	40
2.7.4 The Williams skills diversity model	40
2.7.5 The Griggs diversity model	40
2.7.6 The Londen and Rosener diversity model	44
2.7.7 The Davis, Proctor & Fuhr model	45

2.8 Approaches to diversity in the workplace	48
2.9 Summary	50

## **CHAPTER 3: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR MANAGING DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

3.1 Introduction	52
3.2 The nature of management in local government	52
3.2.1 Values and principles at the heart of management in local government	53
3.2.2 Political management in local government	55
3.2.3 Development management in local government	56
3.3 Macro and Micro environmental factors influencing diversity management in local government	57
3.3.1 Political	57
3.3.2 Economical	61
3.3.3 Technological	63
3.3.4 Educational	66
3.3.5 Religious	69
3.3.6 Cultural	70

3.3.7 Social	74
3.3.7.1 Work	75
3.3.7.2 Time and space	75
3.3.7.3 Social communication	77
3.3.7.4 Relationship and roles	77
3.3.7.5 Rituals and superstitions	79
3.3.7.6 Value of group versus group allegiances	79
3.3.8 Racial	80
3.3.9 Gender	84
3.3.10 Sexual orientation	86
3.3.11 Physical disability	88
3.3.12 Age	90
3.3.13 Language	96
3.3.14 Organisational culture and climate	98
3.4 The challenges of managing diversity for the local government manager	101
3.5 Summary	102

## **CHAPTER 4: A BEHAVIOUR MODELLING FRAMEWORK FOR DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

4.1 Introduction	103
4.2 The nature of diversity awareness in local government	103
4.3 The study of behaviour in the workplace	106
4.4 Behaviour models in the workplace	107
4.4.1 Naïve offender behaviour model	108
4.4.2 Perpetuator behavioural model	108
4.4.3 Avoider behavioural model	108
4.4.4 Change agent behavioural model	109
4.4.5 Fighter behavioural model	109
4.5 Variables determining the individual behaviour of local government managers towards diversity awareness in the workplace	110

4.5.1 Values	111
4.5.1.1 Values of the community	111
4.5.1.2 Values of the local government managers	114
4.5.1.3 Values of the organisation/department	117
4.5.2 Attitudes	120
4.5.3 Personality	124
4.5.4 Ability	125
4.5.5 Motivation	126
4.5.6 Perception	126
4.5.7 Learning	128
4.5.8 Individual behaviour	128
4.6 Methods for managing behavioural change in the workplace	132

4.7 Basic principles guiding the behaviour of local government managers towards diversity awareness in the workplace	136
--	-----

4.8 Summary	141
-------------	-----

## **CHAPTER 5: A RESEARCH DESIGN TO ASSESS THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS IN THE WORKPLACE**

5.1 Introduction	142
------------------	-----

5.2 Research methodology framework	142
------------------------------------	-----

5.3 Research Design	143
---------------------	-----

5.4 Measuring of variables	147
----------------------------	-----

5.4.1 Definition of concepts	147
------------------------------	-----

5.4.2 Measurement and measurement scales	149
--	-----

5.4.3 Reliability, validity and sensibility of measures	152
---	-----

5.5 Research sampling	153
-----------------------	-----

5.5.1 Sampling methods	153
------------------------	-----

5.5.2 Sampling procedure	154
--------------------------	-----



5.5.3 Determination of the sample size	157
5.6 Data collection	159
5.6.1 Method used for collecting the data	159
5.6.2 Pilot Study	163
5.7 Problems, constraints and response to survey	164
5.8 Data analysis and interpretation of results	163
5.8.1 Data analysis of results	168
5.8.2 Interpretation of results	178
5.9 Summary	182

## **CHAPTER 6: DEVELOPMENT OF A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR ASSESSING THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS**

6.1 Introduction	184
6.2 The use of models to investigate diversity awareness in local government	184
6.2.1 Types of models	186
6.2.2 Identifying the sources for building a model	188
6.2.3 Components of a model	188

6.2.4 Factors limiting the usage of models by local government managers	189
6.3 A normative model for managing diversity awareness in local government	190
6.3.1 The purpose of diversity awareness (Phase One)	191
6.3.2 Beliefs on diversity management (Phase Two)	193
6.3.2.1 New ideas	194
6.3.2.2 Different opinions	196
6.3.2.3 Positive reinforcement	196
6.3.2.4 Opposing viewpoints	197
6.3.2.5 Criticism	197
6.3.3 Paradigms on diversity management in the workplace (Phase Three)	198
6.3.3.1 Paternalistic paradigm	199
6.3.3.2 The equal opportunity paradigm	200
6.3.3.3 Black advancement paradigm	201
6.3.3.4 Affirmative action paradigm	204
6.3.3.5 Discrimination and fairness paradigm	206
6.3.3.6 Access and legitimacy paradigm	207

6.3.4 Management styles influencing the behaviour pattern of local government managers regarding diversity in the workplace (Phase Four)	208
6.3.4.1 The Doer Syndrome	208
6.3.4.2 The Pygmy Syndrome	209
6.3.4.3 The Impostor Syndrome	210
6.3.4.3.1 The Super Person Syndrome	210
6.3.4.3.2 The Ugly Duckling Syndrome	211
6.3.4.4 The Napoleon Syndrome	211
6.3.4.5 The Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde Syndrome	211
6.3.4.6 The Hamlet Syndrome	214
6.3.4.7 The Godfather Syndrome	215
6.3.5 Results and feedback (Phase Five)	216
6.4 Summary	219
 <b>CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>	
7.1 Concluding summary	221
7.2 Findings of survey	223
7.3 Recommendations	223

## **APPENDIX**

Appendix 1.1: A complete list of the roles, behaviours and attitudes of public managers	233-236
Appendix 1.2: Examples of establishing the reliability of examples	237-238
Appendix 1.3: Examples of what a researcher should look for when the operational validity of a measure needs to be evaluated	239-240
Appendix 1.4-1.5: Examples of establishing operational validity	241-245
Appendix 1.6: Letter used to ask permission to conduct a survey in the workplace	246-247
Appendix 1.7: Questionnaire used in survey	248-254
Appendix 1.8: Original data analysis of survey	255
Dependent variables (Pilot Study)	256-279
Dependent variables (Nelson Mandela Metropole)	276-295
Dependent variables (Port Elizabeth Police Service)	296-315
Appendix 1.9: A detailed description of the different ways of processing information	316-321
Appendix 1.10: A comparison of the different management syndromes affecting the acknowledgment of diversity in the workplace	322-324

**REFERENCES**

**MATERIAL CONSULTED AS REFERENCES IN THE STUDY** 325

**MATERIAL CONSULTED FOR BACKGROUND INFORMATION  
BUT NOT CITED AS REFERENCES IN THE STUDY** 340

**LIST OF FIGURES**

1.	Figure 1.1 Distribution of staff by race between 1996 and 1999	2
2.	Figure 1.2 Composition of staff by race and skills, 1999	3
3.	Figure 1.3 Johari windows on diversity in the workplace	5
4.	Figure 2.1 Primary and secondary dimensions of diversity	33
5.	Figure 2.2 The differences between managing diversity, valuing of differences and affirmative action	36
6.	Figure 2.3 The differences between managing diversity, valuing of differences and affirmative action	37
7.	Figure 2.4 Awareness-based diversity training model	38
8.	Figure 2.5 Skills-based diversity training model	40
9.	Figure 2.6 Battaglia's skills diversity model	41
10.	Figure 2.7 The Williams diversity model	42
11.	Figure 2.8 The Griggs and Louw diversity model	43
12.	Figure 2.9 Londen and Rosener diversity model	46
13.	Figure 3.1 The Macro and micro environmental factors influencing diversity management in the workplace	56

14.	Figure 3.2 A schematic framework of the socio-economic challenges facing South Africa	63
15.	Figure 3.3 Skills category of the South African labour force 1965-2005	65
16.	Figure 3.4 Socio-technical system approach to job design	66
17.	Figure 3.5 Differences in work related values	76
18.	Figure 3.6 The effects on two related groups of cooperation and competition	78
19.	Figure 3.7 Barriers with regard to indirect racial discrimination	83
20.	Figure 3.8 Common differences in communication styles between women and men	85
21.	Figure 3.9 Checklist on how to respect people with disabilities	90
22.	Figure 3.10 Annual increment in the male labour force by age group, 1960-2005	94
23.	Figure 3.11 A breakdown of the South African Public service according to age, 2000	95
24.	Figure 3.12 Different South African greetings	98
25.	Figure 3.13 Factors influencing the organisational climate and culture	99
26.	Figure 4.1 Behaviour modelling framework on diversity management in the workplace	104

27.	Figure 4.2 Relationship of the different cultural values shared by people	106
28.	Figure 4.3 Selected contributions to literature on roles, behaviours and attitudes of public service managers	107
29.	Figure 4.4 Variables influencing the individual behaviour of individuals at work	110
30.	Figure 4.5 Values concerning public administration	112
31.	Figure 4.6 Public administration guidelines with regards to the acknowledgment of community values, legal rules and some of the basic fundamental human rights of an individual	115
32.	Figure 4.7 The seven level hierarchy of personal values	118
33.	Figure 4.8 Character foundation of a Canadian Public service manager	119
34.	Figure 4.9 Some characteristics and consequences of the three patterns of behaviour	120
35.	Figure 4.10 Positive reaction to positive attitudes	121
36.	Figure 4.11 Negative reaction to negative attitudes	122
37.	Figure 4.12 A work related example of the three components of attitude	122
38.	Figure 4.13 Factors that lead to change in attitude	123



39.	Figure 4.14 Factors contributing to personality differences	124
40.	Figure 4.15 Factors contributing to public manager's perceptions on diversity in the workplace	127
41.	Figure 4.16 The perceptual process according to Schermerhorn	127
42.	Figure 4.17 Personal and situational determinants of behaviour	129
43.	Figure 4.18 Approaches to change in the workplace	133
44.	Figure 4.19 Three change approaches in the workplace	133
45.	Figure 4.20 A description of each step to be taken within the organizational behaviour modification process	135
46.	Figure 4.21 A comparison of the four processes of learning behaviour and its interaction with diversity in the workplace	137
47.	Figure 4.22 Personal and situational strategies influencing the work behaviours of naïve offenders, perpetrators, and avoiders	138
48.	Figure 5.1 Research methodology framework	142
49.	Figure 5.2 Framework for measuring variables within a study	148
50.	Figure 5.3 An operational definition of the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace	149
51.	Figure 5.4 Different measurement scales and their characteristics	150

52.	Figure 5.5 An example of a nominal scale	150
53.	Figure 5.6 Numbers assigned to job satisfaction	150
54.	Figure 5.7 Numbers assigned to the diversity awareness survey	151
55.	Figure 5.8 Three dimensions of reliability	152
56.	Figure 5.9 Non-probability sampling	154
57.	Figure 5.10 Probability sampling	155
58.	Figure 5.11 Advantages of probability and non-probability sampling	156
59.	Figure 5.12 Sampling steps followed in this study	156
60.	Figure 5.13 The simple random technique	157
61.	Figure 5.14 The stratified random technique	158
62.	Figure 5.15 Comparing mail, telephone and in-person surveys	160
63.	Figure 5.16 A checklist for using the interviewer-administered and the self-administered questionnaire	161
64.	Figure 5.17 Categorizing of the type of questions asked within the questionnaire	162
65.	Figure 5.18 The different characteristics interpretation of a manager's behaviour towards diversity	167

66.	Figure 5.19 The scores and interpretation of individual public managers' behaviours towards diversity awareness (Pilot Study)	169
67.	Figure 5.20 The scores and interpretation of individual public managers' behaviours towards diversity awareness (Nelson Mandela Metropole)	170
68.	Figure 5.21 The scores and interpretation of individual public managers' behaviours towards diversity awareness (South African Police Port Elizabeth)	170
69.	Figure 5.22 A comparison of scores and interpretations regarding the behaviour characteristics of individual public managers'	171
70.	Figure 5.23 (a) A gender comparison of scores and interpretations regarding the behaviour characteristics of individual public managers' towards diversity (Nelson Mandela Metropole)	172
71.	Figure 5.23 (b) A gender comparison of scores and interpretations regarding the behaviour characteristics of individual public managers' towards diversity (Port Elizabeth Police Services)	173
72.	Figure 5.24 A comparison of behaviour characteristics towards diversity according to management level (Nelson Mandela Metropole)	173
73.	Figure 5.25 A comparison of behaviour characteristics towards diversity according to management level (Port Elizabeth Police Services)	174
74.	Figure 5.26 Age of respondents in the Nelson Mandela Metropole according to management level	179
75.	Figure 5.27 Age of respondents in the Port Elizabeth Police Services according to management level	179

76.	Figure 5.28 Gender composition at Management level within the Nelson Mandela Metropole	180
77.	Figure 5.29 Gender composition at Management level within the Port Elizabeth Police Services	180
78.	Figure 6.1 The differences between open and closed models	186
79.	Figure 6.2 The differences between schematic and symbolic models	187
80.	Figure 6.3 The differences between mathematical and computer models	187
81.	Figure 6.4 Examples of variables and their values	189
82.	Figure 6.5 Diversity Awareness Reality Model	191
83.	Figure 6.6 A framework of the development of ideas	195
84.	Figure 6.7 A reference framework for processing information	198
85.	Figure 6.8 The apartheid model	200
86.	Figure 6.9 The osmosis model for equal opportunity	201
87.	Figure 6.10 Obstacles to black advancement	202
88.	Figure 6.11 Importance of black managers entering the organization	203
89.	Figure 6.12 Questions to ask about people one does not know and ten common characteristics shared by people	218

90.	Figure 6.13 Eight pre-conditions organizations have to follow when making a paradigm shift regarding diversity management	219
91.	Figure 7.1 A schematic framework of Chapter 7	222

### **LIST OF TABLES**

1.	Table 3.1 Age distribution of the labour force according to race	95
2.	Table 5.1 Responses to the pilot survey	165
3.	Table 5.2 Responses to the main survey	165
4.	Table 5.3 Overall response to the survey	166

## **CHAPTER 1: ASSESSING THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS**

### **1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM**

In any country, the public service is an integral political and social institution, which provides administrative and symbolic reference points in terms of, among other things, national unity, social continuity and national development goals. The pre-1994 public service, which was staffed mainly by White, male, Afrikaans-speaking South Africans, was not representative of any of the above symbolic references. Blacks occupied senior positions in the homelands (which were not recognised by the international community because they were viewed as part of the apartheid structures), or in bureaucracies that dealt exclusively with government-decreed "own affairs" administrations. During apartheid, positions within the public service occupied by Blacks were menial, with few exceptions (Hugo, 1989:3). According to Reddy and Choudree (1996:26), official pronouncements over the years "continued to emphasise that the government was committed to the concept of a white public service where integration would not be tolerated and in which non-whites would accordingly not be trained for employment. As far as the Indian and Coloured communities were concerned, their participation in administration and public service activities was limited to the service of their own people in their own areas". Bayat and Meyer (1994:272) elaborate further on this by stating that "if one looks at the history and composition of the present public service, it has portrayed a picture of White Afrikaner affirmative action policies since the inception of National Party rule in 1948". South Africa, in terms of the segregation practices which developed from the colonial era, and culminated in apartheid, has generated a public service caste. The higher decision and policy-making echelons of the service have been dominated by individuals from ascriptive (White, male, Afrikaans-speaking, Christian-Calvinist) and subjective (Nationalist Party-supporting) backgrounds. Public sector employment policies (especially those of 1948 when the National Party came into power) with regard to Blacks in the public service were "based on the ideological reasoning that the destiny of Blacks lay in their own areas. Consequently, any departure from this principle, particularly in regard to Black participation in institutions created by the state, would be tantamount to igniting Black expectations of a political future with White South Africans" (Reddy & Choudree, 1996:26). Segregation in the

public service was not only by race but also by gender. For example, senior level management positions at central government level were largely held by White males, while senior bureaucrats in the former self-governing territories and TBVC states were almost all Black. In addition, lower grade positions such as professional staff (teachers and nurses) or service positions, tended to be occupied by Blacks. Women were noticeably absent from the higher echelons of most of these systems (McLennan *et al.*, 1995:102).

The installation of a new government in 1994 brought about a severing with the past, placing South Africa on the threshold of dealing with its diversity on a large scale. This, according to Bayat and Meyer (1994:272), applied specifically to the civil service, which has had to reflect through a demographic structure of being reasonably representative of all the groups in society. The new government's approach to human resource management in the Public Service is to use affirmative action and transformation as elements to ensure structural change in the workplace. The vision is to ensure that human resource management in the Public Service will result in a diverse, competent and well-managed workforce, capable of and committed to delivering high quality services to the people of South Africa (White Paper on Human Resource Management, 1997:9). These changes are needed so that the Public Service can gain legitimacy among the majority of its citizens. As a result, Blacks, Coloureds, Asians and women now have a greater part to play in the South African public service. By 31 December 1997, Africans (Blacks) made up 31% of the staff, Whites 59%, Coloureds 6%, and Indians 4%. The distribution of staff according to race (between 1996 and 1999) is depicted in Figure 1.1, while Figure 1.2 depicts the composition of staff according to skill and race in 1999. According to the Public Service Commission Report (1997:45) women comprised 54% of the staff in 1997.

**FIGURE 1.1 DISTRIBUTION OF STAFF BY RACE BETWEEN 1996 AND 1999 (PUBLIC SERVICE REVIEW REPORT, 2000:6 OF 10 IN CHAPTER THREE)**

	Year	African	White	Asian	Coloured	Total
National Departments	1996	4.4	2.9	0.1	0.5	7.9
	1999	4.1	1.7	0.1	0.5	6.4
Service Departments	1996	12.2	7.7	1.4	1.3	22.6
	1999	12.9	6.5	1.4	1.5	22.3
Provincial Administrations	1996	47.4	12.8	1.7	7.6	69.5
	1999	54.1	8.5	2	6.7	71.3

**FIGURE 1.2 COMPOSITIONS OF STAFF BY RACE AND SKILLS, 1999 (PUBLIC SERVICE REVIEW REPORT, 2000:7 OF 10 IN CHAPTER THREE)**

	African	Asian	Coloured	White	% of overall public service
Lower skilled	88	2	9	2	19
Skilled	74	4	9	13	22
Highly skilled production	66	4	9	21	55
Highly skilled supervision	42	6	6	47	3
Management	28	5	6	61	0
Senior management	47	7	9		

Structural changes and the acceptance of differences are not the only aspects with regard to managing change within the Public Service. The post-1994 government acknowledged that achieving numerical balance alone would not be enough to create a multi-cultural workforce, because cultural diversity extends beyond race, gender and disability. Other cultural differences also need to be taken into account, for example, the differences between people of different age groups and between those who are married and those who are single. Differences between those who have children and those who do not, between those who live in rural areas and small towns, and those who are city-dwellers, also need attention. Fitzgerald (in Bayat & Meyer, 1994:132) refers to a survey that highlights the problems facing the post-1994 government. The survey polled the views of the country's most influential elite, including the top bureaucracy of directors-general, deputy directors-general and chief directors at central level and in the four provincial administrations, as well as the chief executive officers of the major metropolitan councils. The report findings indicated continuing strong support for apartheid policies among some 40 per cent of this group of senior public administrators. The finding must be of grave concern in terms of smooth transition and satisfactory administrative reforms in line with the needs, values and ethos of a new non-racial government. This outline makes it clear that any incoming non-racial and democratically elected government would have to grapple with and transform the skewed consciousness of the previous apartheid era. This current study addresses this precarious issue; it assesses the diversity awareness and behavioural awareness of local government managers regarding diversity; and suggests a normative model of what the researcher considers to be an effective, yet realistic model, which is likely to ensure effective diversity management in local government within South Africa.



## 1.2 DEFINING THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

Although the 1994 government incorporated the variables for change in the workplace, namely structure, technology and task, insufficient attention has, however, been given to the people approach component with regard to diversity. The government neglected to ensure the following organisational development arrangements as depicted by Greiner (in Sing, 1986:55-57), namely, it did not apply sufficient pressure from the top to change the behavioural outlook of high ranking officials towards diversity and also neglected to take sufficient action to discourage negative behaviour towards diversity. The latter happened because no intervention and re-orientation of public officials to change their thinking on diversity has taken place.

Recognition of diversity awareness initiatives and problems relating to diversity were not acknowledged and diagnosed. Adequate research with regard to the problem of managing diversity has not been conducted and this has made it difficult for public officials to identify which positive behaviour is acceptable in acknowledging and managing diversity in the workplace. Also, the introduction of a diversity awareness climate in the workplace has not been encouraged. There has not been an unfreezing, changing or moving and refreezing process for behavioural change in the workplace. Unfreezing, according to Lewin (in Sing, 1986:54-55) "involves making the need for change so obvious that the individual or group can readily see and accept it". Unfreezing occurs naturally in situations that are sufficiently unsettling, and in which established modes of behaviour no longer work. Before people become willing to change their behaviour, they must understand that their old behaviour is no longer effective or is somehow inadequate to meet the demands of their particular situation or problem. Changing or moving is the bringing about of specific changes through the development of new values, attitudes and behaviours. Refreezing is the recognition and acceptance of the new behavioural pattern, which forms the new norm of behaviour in the workplace. In the people approach, change can be brought about in an institution by changing the behaviour of people (Sing, 1986:50). According to Smith (1994:129), this is important because a person's behaviour is "a true reflection of what he or she truly believes".

**The core problem, which this study addresses, revolves around the different belief windows and the effect these have on the local government managers' self-concept of diversity in the workplace.**

A belief window refers to an invisible window through which an individual views the world. According to Hanks, Pulsipher and Pulsipher (1997:11) it is called a “belief window”, because beliefs are the things that filter our view of the world. It influences the way we perceive others, the way we read situations, the feelings we have about ourselves. And if there is information we do not wish to “see”, we use our window as a shield to keep it away from us. A belief window also reflects the way we think. Munroe (2001:23) states: “The way a person thinks about himself is a key to how he will think about others and to his general outlook on life.” In other words, what is viewed is the way diversity is seen not in terms of visual sense of sight, but in terms of perceiving, understanding (thinking) and interpreting (behaviour). One way to understand the influence of beliefs on the self-concept and behaviour of local government managers regarding diversity is through the Johari window, depicted in Figure 1.3. The Johari window represents a filter of how local government managers view diversity.

**FIGURE 1.3 JOHARI WINDOW ON DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE (PEARSON & NELSON, 1985:42)**

	KNOWN TO SELF	UNKNOWN TO SELF
KNOWN TO OTHERS	OPEN SELF (PUBLIC)	BLIND SELF
UNKNOWN TO OTHERS	HIDDEN SELF (PRIVATE)	UNKNOWN TO SELF

The **first quadrant** represents the open self, which refers to information that is known to one person and to others. According to Pearson and Nelson (1985:42), this quadrant refers to aspects like one's name, nickname, gender, age, religious affiliation or membership. With regard to a behavioural outlook on diversity, the above quadrant refers to a local government manager who is aware of his/her own biases and prejudices, but persists in behaviour which reinforces and rewards bigotry. The colleagues of this type of local government manager will also be aware of the behaviour. Grote (1991:5) refers to a person possessing this type of behaviour as a perpetrator.

The **second quadrant**, the blind self (not known to self), represents information that is not known to oneself but is known to others. Included here would be behaviours in which one engages in of which one is unaware; for example, local government managers who are unaware that they, through their behaviour, are discriminating against, judging or isolating people (from diverse backgrounds) who work with them. Grote (1991:5) classifies such a person as a naïve offender. Naïve people are not aware of their biases and prejudices and the impact, pain and damage they cause.

The **third quadrant**, the hidden self, refers to information that one is aware of about oneself but which one has not shared with others; for example, an individual local government manager who is aware of bias behaviours that may discriminate against, judge or isolate people from diverse backgrounds but still tolerates them. Such a person is an avoider (Grote, 1991:5). Avoiders are silent supporters (aware of biases) of unjust behaviours.

The **fourth quadrant**, the unknown self, refers to information that is unknown to the self and unknown to others. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1988:277), in Freudian psychology this refers to the subconscious or unconscious. McGraw (1999:47) states that a bias about which someone else is unaware can be potentially even more dangerous than if they were partial and knew about it. Levy (in Bayat & Meyer, 1994:194) refers to a practice that subconsciously and unconsciously impacts on people from diverse backgrounds in the workplace. According to Levy, indirect apartheid is a form of systematic discrimination that is insidious. Treating people in exactly

the same way does not necessarily avoid discrimination or achieve equality of opportunity. Indirect discrimination can occur even when people are treated the same. Too often, unnecessary job requirements restrict the proportion of women or of one racial group, which is unable to comply with these (inflated) requirements. Sometimes these job requirements may be necessary to perform the job effectively, but more often than not they are used because they are convenient or give the appearance of change, but things effectively remain the same.

According to Grote (1991:5), change agents and fighters will challenge the above-mentioned behaviours. "Change agents are people who take action when appropriate and assist in bringing about long-term change. Fighters attack real and imagined prejudices. They look out for discriminating signals and bring about change, but often pay a high price for this." Behavioural change in this regard, according to Smit and Cronje (1992:244) refers to "efforts to redirect and improve the behaviour or attitude of employees". Smith (1994:167) and Covey (1989:2) state that changing incorrect beliefs or changing people's roles by shifting paradigms can correct negative behaviours. In short, the way diversity was perceived (belief windows), affected the self-concept of local government managers, which was mirrored in their behaviour towards diversity in the workplace, producing results that were not conducive to ensuring, for example, integration in the workplace.

### **1.3 RESEARCH SUB-PROBLEM**

The **sub-problem**, which the study addresses, is of a two-fold nature. The **first part** of the sub-problem revolves around the diversity awareness of local government managers towards the diversities which exist in local government, and the way they discriminate against, judge or isolate people (from diverse backgrounds) who work with them. The **second part** revolves around the behavioural awareness of local government managers towards diversity in the workplace. Behavioural awareness is a reflection of what an individual local government manager believes about diversity. Diversity awareness helps a local government manager to evaluate undesirable behaviour towards diversity and to plan action steps to modify the behaviour.

## 1.4 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES AND ASSUMPTIONS

Although local government went through a process of transformation to ensure that it was more representative of the broader diverse community, it was merely an exercise in structural change. Structural change should not be the only mechanism of the current government to bring about change in the workplace. The focus should also be on behavioural change, especially that of individuals and groups in the organisation (public sector). A balance is needed for structural as well as behavioural change with regard to diversity in the workplace. The study is based on the following **theoretical assumptions**, namely:

- To change local government for the better, local government managers must be given the opportunity to change the way they think and interact with others.
- Changing the thinking of local government managers cannot be done through increased training or through command-and-control management approaches alone because one cannot command local government managers to alter their attitudes, beliefs, skills, capabilities, perceptions, or level of commitment.
- The practice of learning within local government involves developing tangible activities like new governing ideas, innovations in infrastructure, and new management methods and tools for changing the way people conduct their work. Given the opportunity to take part in these new activities, people will develop an enduring capability for change. The process will pay back the organisation with far greater levels of diversity, commitment, innovation and talent.
- Diversity can contribute to improved service delivery, can increase efficiency and effectiveness, reduce costs, and at the same time improve the quality and extend the benefits of public services to all South Africans. Diversity is also seen as a tool to ensure a stable public service.

The **research hypotheses** for the study are:

- Diversity awareness will help a local government manager become more aware of diversity in the workplace.

- Diversity awareness will help a local government manager become aware of ways in which he or she discriminates against, judges, or isolates people from diverse backgrounds.
- Diversity awareness will help a local government manager to evaluate his or her own behaviour and to plan action steps to modify any undesirable behaviour.
- A local government manager's behaviour towards diversity in the workplace is a reflection of what he or she truly believes about diversity.
- Effective behavioural change starts with changing ideas (or paradigms).

## **1.5 PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study is to review the various theories on diversity management in the workplace. It also sets out to help the individual local government manager become aware of ways in which he or she discriminates against, judges or isolates others concerning diversity, and to plan action steps to modify any undesirable behaviour that is discovered. It aims to develop an understanding of why local government managers do the things they do, with specific reference to the behavioural attributes of local government managers concerning diversity. The purpose of the study is also to incorporate the Diversity Awareness Reality Model as a normative framework for managing diversity within local government (see Chapter 6). The Diversity Awareness Reality Model provides a framework for understanding how beliefs affect one's actions, and how one can understand one's own beliefs and the beliefs of others. It is called the Diversity Reality Model because it helps one to step back from oneself away from most of the filtering influences of our belief windows and see the world more clearly. It gives one a reality check, and is also a powerful tool for understanding motivation and behaviour. If local government managers are aware of differences, such awareness will produce results, which, in turn, will produce a reaction whereby managers will:

- Acknowledge and value diversity as a vital resource in the workplace (self awareness).
- Not ignore differences, but understand why people are different and use that understanding to foster a climate which enhances a culture of diversity in the workplace (belief).

- In return, reduce prejudice, hate, stereotyping, cultural insensitivity, discrimination, and increased frustration among diverse workers which could help in creating a workplace where workers from diverse backgrounds feel appreciated and work together amiably (rule).
- Increase the effective utilisation of diversity within local government (results).
- Put diversity in perspective regarding its role in preparing the way for integration into the workplace (feedback).

The following **research objectives** have been postulated to achieve the purpose of the study, namely:

- To investigate the theory on diversity management.
- To develop a theoretical framework for managing diversity awareness in local government.
- To develop a theoretical framework for understanding the behaviour of public service managers towards diversity in the workplace.
- To empirically utilise a measuring instrument to assess the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace.
- To incorporate the Diversity Awareness Reality Model as a normative framework for managing diversity in local government.

## **1.6 DELIMITATION OF STUDY**

Diversity awareness covers a vast field. There is a plethora of literature on managing diversity in the private and public sector. Managing diversity specifically has become a well-discussed subject for research in the public sector. It is therefore essential to remain within the purpose and objectives of the study to prevent possible overlapping with other research projects or studies. It is further essential to narrow down the field of study to make it more meaningful, helpful, acceptable and practical for the local government manager. The study, therefore, will *only* focus on achieving the research objectives as indicated under Section 1.5. The research focus is on the subject field of public administration and more specifically local government management. The locus of the study is on local government and more specifically on local government managers in the workplace. Local government

managers working at the Nelson Mandela Metropole were selected as a case study group. For comparative analysis purposes, managers working for the South African Police Services within the Nelson Mandela Metropole were also selected. They were selected because the nature of their work is grounded in the same purposes, conditions and tasks of local government.

## **1.7 IMPORTANCE OF AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

South Africa is facing many political, social and economic changes. A major one is the challenge of a diverse workforce, which needs to be recognised and properly managed in order to be able to utilise the public's demands for a greater variety of government services. Neither the Colonial nor the National Party governments made an effort to promote an understanding of diversity, focus on creating a diversity awareness climate and encourage public officials to learn more about other cultures in the workplace. Both governments contributed to the creation of a behavioural pattern that focused more on people's outward appearances than on their value as a vital resource for an organisation. In fact, no pride was taken in outward appearances, which further resulted in people losing their true identity at great expense to their positive attitude and job productivity. According to Chapman (1996:76), if one is in a minority culture, one will try so hard to be one of the majority that one loses one's own identity at great expense to one's own positive attitude and job productivity.

The negative behavioural modelling pattern created with regard to diversity is still in place even after the introduction of a new government of national unity in 1994. This behavioural modelling pattern focuses on skin colour and on widening the rift between the different cultural groups, continuing to discriminate, and create prejudice, stereotyping and bias among diverse groups in the workplace, emphasising the individual perceptual differences existing between diverse groups, especially those between black and white groups. This behavioural modelling pattern was successfully implemented by the previous National Party government, which "treated cultural differences between white and black as genetic differences. Many blacks secretly fear this because they (like whites) do not understand that the differences are rooted in experience and not in genes" (Kotze, 1993:xii).



To prosper in the future it is important to understand and make better use of diversity in business, education, government, and in society in general. The solution to South Africa's racial problems will not only be solved by managing diversity, managing change and affirmative action programmes, but by the recognition and acceptance of the diversity of others and by acknowledging and valuing the same. Ross-Gordon et al. (1990:50) state that because "minorities and whites live in socially and geographically segregated communities, their perceptions of the other race or ethnic group are likely to be shaped by stereotyped images encountered in the broadcast and print media and by observations of like-race family, friends and colleagues". It is possible that through their own limited awareness local government managers could allow other people's (family, friends, peers, etc.) limited understanding to influence the way they perceive diversity in the workplace. According to Chapman (1996:114), "it is normal for people to have mental attitudes against those of a different culture especially if they never had the opportunity to work with a person from that culture". Therefore, the existence of a research programme dealing with diversity awareness as a means of ensuring a paradigm shift in the workplace is crucial. Not only could diversity awareness contribute to the removal of prejudice and racism, but it could also ensure peaceful integration, fairness, equity, advancement opportunities, and adequate access to training and mutual enrichment in the workplace. If local government managers are made more aware of diversity in the workplace, they could modify their behaviour to become respectful and trusting towards all people, empowering them, and ensuring productive working relationships.

A paradigm shift is needed that will move local government managers (including politicians) from one way of seeing the world to another. This is a paradigm shift that creates powerful changes. But the first and most important requirement to managing change is having an accurate map. A local authority has to ensure that it is in possession of a correct map in dealing with diversity in the workplace. According to Covey (1992:29), the key to an accurate map is that one needs to become more aware of one's basic paradigms, maps, or assumptions, and the extent to which one has been influenced by one's experiences. One needs to take responsibility for the influences of paradigms through examining and testing them against reality. By listening to others and being open to their perceptions one gets to understand and develop a far more objective view. One needs to understand that when two or more people see things differently both can be right, and one needs to have a mutual understanding and

respect for that. It is important to understand that our paradigms, correct or incorrect, are the source of our attitude and behaviours, and ultimately our relationship with others.

The study makes a necessary contribution with regard to the transformation of the public sector and the service which it provides to South African society. Schwella et al (1996:12) regard diversity as "an emergent approach within public resource management which demands consideration". The study also contributes to the development of public administration and public management, more specifically to the field of local government management. It provides a broader background together with further knowledge of the behavioural awareness of local government managers towards diversity awareness. The most important foundational contribution that the study wishes to make is, that "a diverse staff can address a wider variety of problems than a monolithic organisation" (Picard in Bayat & Meyer, 1994:266).

## **1.8 RELATED STUDIES AND DEBATES**

According to Pekeur (1995:48) "diversity has become one of the most frequently used words of our time but a word almost never defined. Diversity has been used in discussions ranging from politics to entertainment. Diversity is also used in so many different ways in so many contexts that it seems to mean all things to all people". Diversity has also been seen as part of the sweeping changes in the structure, culture and management of the public service. Wilson and Iles (1991:27) describe this as the new managerialism, or new public management, which concerns principally the importation of private sector concepts and techniques into the public sector. Johnson and Redmond (2000:1) state that for most organisations, the business case for managing diversity is compelling. As a moral imperative, diversity is carrying a lot of weight, owing to the elements of discrimination, racism, sexism or homophobia that are present. Managing diversity programmes in the United Kingdom focuses, for example, on creating an awareness of the inhibiting nature of forms of discrimination as a forerunner to tackling developmental issues and ensuring equal opportunities. Human and Bowmaker-Falconer (1992:25) state that in the USA, managing diversity programmes focuses more on constituting a substitute for a more direct engagement with racism and sexism. According to Pomerleau (1994:87), the purpose of managing diversity programmes in the USA was to ensure the

transformation of the American workforce (which was historically white male dominated) into the most culturally, ethnically, racially, and sexually diverse workforce in the world. The American transformation model regarding diversity in the workplace was constructed on a plan that ensured the conversion of the traditional culture-specific workplace into a transcultural workplace. Pomerleau (1994:87-89) identifies the following ideological approaches to the managing of diversity in the USA, namely, the assimilativist, pluralist, dualist, chauvinist, transmutationist, and representative. For Behrens (1993:5), diversity management is a central, organising idea in the management of equal opportunities issues at work. Gordon (1992:29) concludes by stating that diversity management is about improving corporate performance. Both authors have different views of the meaning of diversity. They focus on the central theme, of acknowledging differences (otherness), ensuring equity and the improvement of the performance and potential of the individual. When expanding on the definition of diversity, one encounters a risk in the sense that one contributes to a "state of denial" regarding the special problems of protected groups. Human and Bowmaker-Falconer (1992:25) state that with regard to South Africa, it would appear that managing of diversity programmes has tended to follow the American model.

## 1.9 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Brynard and Hanekom (1997:28) state: "Research methodology, or methods of collecting data necessitates a reflection on the planning, structuring and execution of the research in order to comply with the demands of truth, objectivity and validity." The research methodology is aimed at testing the nature of the dimensions referred to in Sections 1.2 - 1.5 dealing with the purpose and objectives of the study. The research methodology consists of the following:

- Literature review
- Research design
- Empirical survey
- Data interpretation
- Model construction.

### **1.9.1 LITERATURE REVIEW**

A literature search was undertaken to assess the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace (Section 1.8 within this chapter also refers). Information for the research was divided into primary and secondary sources. According to Brynard and Hanekom (1997:28): “When researchers collect their own data, it is called primary data. Should they use data collected by other researchers concerning other research problems, this data is referred to as secondary data.”

- **Primary Sources**

The technique used in obtaining useful information was that of personal interviews by means of a questionnaire. Struwig (1996:56) identifies two types of questionnaires which can be used for data collection, namely, interviewer-administered questionnaires and self-administered questionnaires. The interviewer-and self-administered questionnaire methods will be used. The questionnaire was divided into two sections: Section A (dependent variables) and Section B (independent variables). Appendix 1.7 refers to the questionnaire that was used in the survey.

- **Secondary Sources**

Journals and newspaper articles, books, computer searches, abstracts, statistical indexes, periodical indexes, models and other publications were studied enabling the review of existing knowledge on the subject matter of diversity awareness in the workplace. Information not obtainable from publications, but relevant to the specific study purpose, was gathered through interviews and discussions with peers. Reference is made to the knowledge, background information, beliefs and impressions of professionals regarding diversity awareness in local government. The peers referred to are experts in the subject field (the majority being from the private sector), colleagues from academia and practitioners in the public sector and local government. Reference was made to training prospectuses

of institutions such as the Canadian Centre for Management Development, Training and Development Canada, and the British Civil Service College. This was done in order to focus on how diversity is addressed and promoted in the above-mentioned countries' public service. The Harvard method of citation is used.

### **1.9.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

Based on the purpose and aims of the study, the research approach was quantitative in approach and descriptive in method and was conducted in the natural work environment of the local government managers. Leedy (1985:134) refers to the descriptive survey method as the normative survey method and states further that observation is not restricted to the conventional sense of perceiving with the eyes as the only source of data. Descriptive survey studies could be conducted where the means of observation could be questionnaires, interviews and the tape-recording of data. The cross-sectional design is also used to show relationships among variables of interest at one point in time. In Chapter 5, a more detailed framework is given of the research methodology used to assess the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace.

### **1.9.3 RESEARCH SURVEY**

A survey of local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole and managers of the South African Police Services within the same metropole was conducted to assess the diversity awareness of these managers. This was achieved by the distribution of a self-administered questionnaire which consisted of two main sections:

- **Section A** (dependent variables) pertaining to the attitudinal or behavioural responses of the respondents to diversity in the workplace.
- **Section B** (independent variables) requesting biographical information in respect of gender, age, marital status, highest educational qualification, home language, religion, job position and the period of time the respondent has been working for his or her current employer.

#### **1.9.4 DATA INTERPRETATION**

The data interpretation comprised the following:

- An analysis of the behavioural responses of local government and managers in the South African Police Services within the Nelson Mandela Metropole.
- An analysis of the behaviour response of both male and female respondents to diversity.
- An analysis of the behaviour response to diversity at management level.
- An analysis of the age of managers in comparison with management level.

#### **1.9.5 MODEL CONSTRUCTION**

After the completion of the literature study and empirical research, a normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers with regard to the Nelson Mandela Metropole was developed and proposed. Chapter 6 refers to the components of the model on how to manage diversity awareness within the Nelson Mandela Metropole.

#### **1.10 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

This study is organised into seven chapters. The study will be divided into four parts: the first part, (Chapters 2 to 3), focuses more on the theoretical orientation of managing diversity and of diversity management in local government. The second part of the dissertation focuses on the behavioural awareness of local government managers to diversity awareness and the research design to assess the diversity awareness of local government managers. The third part (Chapter 6) focuses on the development of a normative model for managing diversity awareness in local government, and the final part of the dissertation focuses on recommendations and also concludes the study. The sequence of the dissertation is as follows:

**Chapter 1** focuses on a general introduction to the problem of managing diversity and diversity awareness in the public sector; the research problem and sub-problem of the study; research hypotheses and assumptions; purpose and objectives of the study; delimitation of the study; importance of and motivation for the study; related studies and debates; the research methodology of the study; and the organisation of the study.

**Chapter 2** focuses on the definition of terms within the study; what managing diversity is not; the reasons for diversity management; the different dimensions of diversity; the differences between managing diversity, valuing of differences and affirmative action; models for managing diversity in the workplace; approaches to diversity in the workplace; and the consequences of ignoring diversity in the workplace.

**Chapter 3** deals with the nature of management in local government; macro and micro environmental factors influencing diversity management in local government; and the challenges managing diversity offers to the local government manager.

**Chapter 4** deals with the behaviour modelling framework for managing diversity in the workplace; the nature of diversity in local government; the study of behaviour in the workplace; the four different behaviour models existing in the workplace; the variables that influence the individual behaviour of local government managers towards diversity in the workplace; and the basic principles guiding the behaviour of public managers towards acknowledging diversity in the workplace.

**Chapter 5** focuses on the method of research used to investigate the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace.

**Chapter 6** focuses on the normative model which was used as a framework for managing diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace; the use of other models to investigate diversity awareness; the purpose of diversity awareness; the different paradigms influencing diversity

awareness; the syndromes which influence the behaviour of managers; the results of ignoring diversity in the workplace; and the importance of feedback in acknowledging and valuing of diversity in the Diversity Awareness Reality Model.

**Chapter 7** makes a general conclusions and recommendations regarding the study.



## **CHAPTER 2: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Managing diversity in is not a new idea to South Africa. It was an issue, according to Wallis (in Hanekom and Thornhill, 1995:73) that similarly occupied the minds of those charged with governing since the first days of settler colonisation. An early approach in South Africa to managing diversity was the introduction of institutional separation and the creation of racially based legislatures. Managing diversity became more reinforced and distorted through the ideology of apartheid, which created vested interests associated with ethnicity and territory. South African society was characterised by Blacks, Whites, Coloureds and Asians living in geographically and socially segregated communities created by the many apartheid structures and former policies.

Johnson and Redmond (2000:1) state that for most organisations the business case for managing diversity is compelling because chances are that individuals from diverse backgrounds will be undervalued, underdeveloped, underused and probably harassed as well. Organisations that seriously tackle diversity issues find that there are very real and tangible benefits that impact directly on the bottom line.

The purpose of this chapter is to review the various theories on diversity management in the workplace. Consequently, it first defines the term diversity, is as well as other terms relating to the study. Then it explains what managing diversity is not and why diversity management is needed. The focus is also on the different dimensions of diversity, the differences between diversity management, valuing of differences and affirmative action. Some of the models used for managing diversity in the workplace are also covered, and lastly this chapter deals with the approaches to diversity in the workplace.

### **2.2 WHAT IS DIVERSITY ?**

For the purpose of the study, the definition of Londen and Rosener (1991:3) is used to define the

term diversity. Both authors have distinguished themselves on the subject and are also regarded as experts in the field of managing diversity. According to both authors, diversity is defined as otherness, or those human qualities that are different from one's own, and the groups to which one belongs, yet present in other individuals and groups. Others are people who are different from oneself along one or several dimensions such as age, ethnicity, gender and race. Other terms and concepts that relate to the above definition and purpose of this study are:

### **2.2.1 MANAGING OF DIVERSITY**

Managing of diversity is defined as a process whereby a person is utilised to his or her fullest potential (Van der Merwe, 1992:27). Thomas (1991:10) defines managing diversity as "a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all employees". The definition by Sanders (in Ingraham & Romzek, 1994:251) captures the essence of the study; namely, managing diversity means "the fully utilising of the potential skills and resources of people from different backgrounds, including racial and ethnic groups, religious groups, age groups and groups of people with different handicaps".

### **2.2.2 DIVERSITY AWARENESS**

Diversity awareness is defined as having knowledge of or being informed about differences among various groups in the workplace. According to Thomas (1991:25), diversity awareness also focuses on creating awareness, acceptance and understanding of individual differences in the workplace.

### **2.2.3 DIVERSITY CLIMATE**

According to Schneider and Reichers (in Kossek & Zonia, 1993:63), "climate is generally conceived as the influence of work contexts on employee behaviour and attitudes, which are grounded on perceptions. Climate research assumes that people attach meaning to or make sense of clusters of psychologically related events". Diversity climate, for the purpose of the study, is defined as the perceptions or beliefs that people share in their work context, which are then

reflected in their attitude and behaviour towards the acknowledgement or rejection of diversity in the workplace.

#### **2.2.4 VALUING OF DIFFERENCES**

Valuing of differences is defined as "a management philosophy that assumes that we will be more successful as individuals, work teams, organisations, and a society if we acknowledge, respect and work with the differences that we have" (Londen & Rosener, 1991:26).

#### **2.2.5 EQUAL OPPORTUNITY**

Mercer (1986:10) defines equal opportunity as "(i) respect for the individual as a distinct and unique human being; (ii) equal pay for equal work; (iii) equal benefits/prerequisites; (iv) equal application of recognition and (v) the absence of racial discrimination".

#### **2.2.6 EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY**

Equal employment opportunity is defined as the "policy and principle underlying laws that are designed to provide equal treatment and employment opportunities as far as recruitment, service and advancement are concerned, and to prohibit any discrimination based on grounds such as religion, national origin, sex, or age" (Fox & Meyer, 1995:44).

#### **2.2.7 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

Affirmative action is a term which, when defined, has multifarious meanings. Scarpelo & Ledvinka (1988:146) define affirmative action from a private sector perspective as "recruiting groups that are underrepresented in the employer's workforce, changing managing attitudes by eliminating the prejudice they may have towards groups that are underrepresented in the employer's workforce, removing discrimination in the workplace, and the giving of preferential treatment to members of under represented groups". Fox and Meyer (1995:5) define affirmative action from a public sector perspective as "a positive action taken by employers in hiring, upgrading jobs and in other

service oriented actions to eliminate job discrimination and to ensure equal employment opportunities".

### **2.2.8 STEREOTYPING**

Stereotyping is defined as a "fixed and distorted generalisation made about all members of a particular group. It ignores individual differences and also represents rigid judgements made about others that do not take into account the specifics of the person or the situation" (Londen & Rosener, 1991:58).

### **2.2.9 PREJUDICE**

Prejudice is defined as a "set of beliefs and includes a belief in inherited characteristics". Eyes, hair and other physical traits can be inherited. Family, friends, peers, schools, teach beliefs. Prejudices also include ethnocentrism, which is the tendency to judge all other cultures by one's own standards (Macdonald series, 1990b: Appendix A).

### **2.2.10 DISCRIMINATION**

Discrimination is defined as "behaviours that are based on prejudice. It includes any treatment which puts a group at a disadvantage, for example, intentional discrimination, whereby certain groups are deliberately excluded, or unconscious or systematic discrimination, where policies or qualifications discriminate inadvertently against people (Macdonald series, 1990a: Appendix A)."

### **2.2.11 PARADIGM**

Fox and Meyer (1995:93) define paradigm as an overarching set of beliefs and unquestioned assumptions that are widely accepted by researchers and practitioners in a discipline. These assumptions are used to guide research and to solve problems. According to Covey (1992:23) the term paradigm refers to a model, theory, perception, assumption, or frame of reference.

### **2.2.12 ATTITUDE**

According to Chapman (1996:19), most psychologists define attitude as a mind set that causes a person to respond in a characteristic manner to a given stimulus. Chapman (1996:19) defines attitude as "the way you look at your environment". Fox and Meyer (1995:9) define attitude as the "tendency or preparedness of an individual or a group to react in a predictable manner".

### **2.2.13 BEHAVIOUR**

Behaviour is defined as "observable action" of which talking is an example (Fox and Meyer, 1995:12).

### **2.2.14 BEHAVIOUR MODELLING**

Behaviour modelling is defined as "a social learning theory that provides trainees with the opportunity to observe another person (a model) who exhibits the desired behaviour and is rewarded for that behaviour" (Scarpelo & Ledvinka, 1988:491).

### **2.2.15 BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION**

Behaviour modification is defined as "a process that focuses on the application of contingent rewards in order to bring about behavioural change. It involves the management of a three-phase process of behaviour modification, namely unfreezing, movement and refreezing (Wagner & Hollenbrook, 1995:257 and Mullins, 1993:665)."

### **2.2.16 GENDER**

Gender is defined as "a person's sex being either male or female". For the purpose of the study, and for convenience, the term "he" will be used to denote both the male and female person.

### **2.2.17 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Organisational culture is defined as "the totality of the attitudes, norms, beliefs and perspectives shared by the majority of the members of an organisation" (Bennet, 1992:145).

### **2.2.18 PUBLIC SECTOR**

Public sector is defined as " that portion of an economy where the economic and non-economic activities are under the control and direction of the state. The state owns all resources in this sector and uses them to achieve whatever goals it may have" (Fox & Meyer, 1995:106).

### **2.2.19 LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

De Beer and Lourens (1995:3) define local government as an autonomous and people-oriented tier of government. It is the tier of government that is closest to the public, which can best address and have their local interests and needs at heart. Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997:2-3) define local government as a decentralised, representative institution with general and specific powers devolved to it by a higher tier of government (central or provincial) within a geographically defined area. This situation changed with the adoption of the 1996 Constitution. Local government functions are now contained in the constitution, schedule 4 part B.

### **2.2.20 LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGEMENT**

According to Stewart (1995:3), management within local authorities is grounded in the purposes, conditions and tasks of local government. Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997:3) define local government management as the system of managing the affairs of a locally established authority.

### **2.2.21 LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGER**

According to Craythorne (1997:438), the management level in the service of a municipal council comprises the town clerk/chief executive officer, and the heads of department. A municipal

manager (or local government manager) is an employee who is functionally responsible to the council for his job functions (e.g., a head of department), or an employee who, by virtue of his position, shares in the management of an organisational unit (e.g., a deputy assistant head of a department). The term local government manager can also be compared with the term public administrator. A public administrator is defined as "a public employee with managerial responsibilities" (Fox & Meyer, 1995:105).

### **2.2.22 LOCAL AUTHORITY**

Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997: 3) define a local authority as an organisation comprising elected and appointed officials, which operates within a specific geographical area to provide services for its local community. A local authority has a relatively well-defined area of jurisdiction with a right to govern its own initiative, but is subject to constitutional provisions as well as central and provincial legislation.

### **2.2.23 GOVERNMENTAL INSTITUTIONS**

According to Hanekom *et al.* (1996:86-87), the word governmental institution derives more meaning by separating the two concepts.

#### **2.2.23.1 GOVERNMENTAL**

Funk and Wagnalls (in Hanekom *et al.*, 1996:86) define governmental as "relating or pertaining to government. Government means the act of governing, or the state c. being governed and refers to the executive and legislative bodies of state".

#### **2.2.23.2 INSTITUTIONS**

Funk & Wagnalls dictionary (in Hanekom *et al.*, 1996:86-87) define an institution as that which is "instituted or established, or a corporate body or established institution and organised for public use. An established institution such as a government department, corporation or commission

means an institution maintained by the state and receiving financial support out of public funds". South African government institutions are divided into three levels, also known as spheres namely Central, Provincial, and Local government.

### 2.3 WHAT MANAGING DIVERSITY IS NOT

Managing diversity is not another term for black advancement, affirmative action, change management, accelerated development, or equal opportunities. For example, in South Africa, the development of black managers was primarily focussed on preparing Blacks to enter into and function in a "white" environment.

Managing diversity is *not* about a manager pretending that he regards all cultures as equal, when secretly he does not truly believe that this is the case. If negative expectations and perceptions of Black cultures are not addressed, for example, that "blacks have smaller brains than whites" (Copeland, 1988b: 54), managing diversity programmes will have no more impact than black advancement programmes (Human & Bowmaker-Falconer, 1992:26).

Managing diversity is *not* about reinforcing cultural differences. In South Africa this is problematic, apartheid having created an "us" and "them" syndrome, in which Whites were perceived as belonging to the dominant culture with the black culture being treated as inferior. Apartheid also paved the way for racial stereotypes and prejudice, hence the proliferation of black advancement programmes which claim that blacks as a group have certain deficiencies which need to be overcome before they can function effectively (Human & Bowmaker-Falconer, 1992:27). These activities have reinforced stereotyping concerning black underperformance and the tendency to judge people with a stereotyped image instead of on individual ability (Human, 1992a: 5). An ideal environment could be one in which no one is advantaged or disadvantaged and in which everyone is "us".

Managing diversity is not about saying: "Let's accept them as they are and extol the richness of cultural diversity, and everything will be alright" (Human & Bowmaker-Falconer, 1992:26-28).



Racism and sexism cannot be glossed over; they are issues which must be addressed, however uncomfortable the process may be.

Managing diversity is *not* a human relations' approach, nor is it merely about treating people kindly or bringing them together (Fuhr, 1992b:30 and Van der Merwe, 1992:27). It is also not a new management skill. Good managers have always managed with sensitivity towards individual differences.

Managing diversity does *not* mean a lowering of standards, a sense that "anything goes". The goal must be to manage diversity in such a way to attain the same or higher levels of productivity from the diverse workforce as was previously obtained from the homogeneous workforce, and to do this without artificial programmes, standards or barriers.

Managing diversity does *not* mean controlling or containing diversity. It means enabling every member of a workforce to perform to his potential. It means getting from employees, firstly, everything "we have a right to expect, and, secondly, if we do it well - everything they have to give" (Thomas, 1990a: 112). If the old homogeneous workforce performed dependably at 80% of its capacity, then the first result means also getting 80% from the new heterogeneous workforce. The second result (the icing on the cake), the unexpected upside that diversity may perhaps produce as a bonus, means getting 85% to 90% from everyone in the organisation.

Managing diversity is *not* an issue exclusively related to a human resources or personnel department but is primarily a (top) management issue. Management's commitment in this matter must not only be verbal, and a similar commitment is required from staff and workers alike (Jamieson, 1991:10).

Managing diversity is *not* only a workplace issue. It is, in fact, an international, global issue. In the private sector managing diversity refers to business relations with international clients, how to manage business deals, joint ventures or alliances, and advertising across different cultures. In the public sector it refers to how to manage diplomatic relations with international or neighbouring countries with different cultural backgrounds, and how to manage a culturally diverse community

with different needs. Managing diversity is *not* an issue which needs only to be addressed in private sector organisations. Managing diversity is just as important in government and non-profit organisations as it is in private sector, profit-oriented companies. The issue is not profits, but the opportunity to realise an organisational mission. Whether for profit or for the accomplishment of social goals, performance counts and valuing diversity can improve performance (Copeland, 1988a: 56).

## 2.4 WHY DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT?

Every individual enters the workplace with a unique perspective shaped by dimensions and past experiences. As a result, while employees may work in the same offices, read the same memoranda, and attend the same meetings, they are likely to experience the office, the memoranda and the meetings differently. The reasons for diversity management would be:

- A denial that diversity is an issue in the workplace, leading to a lack of awareness and sensitivity about differences, thus further contributing to a lack of trust in how others perceive and respond to diversity issues in the workplace. This has led to restrictions on reporting bad news up the line, which prevents organisations and managers from learning about the diversities of all of its people.
- The perception that diversity is an issue outside one's own reality, leading to biased and prejudiced behaviour towards diversity in the workplace, the equation of difference with efficiency, lack of commitment from top and middle management and a lack of collaboration among diverse groups in the workplace. According to Galagan (1993b: 49), this is caused by "some people's unwillingness to accept something unless they have experienced it themselves".
- The perception that managing diversity is merely a good gesture or a "quick fix method". Better to fix *them* (people from different backgrounds) than *us*, because those who already hold positions in organisations, typically white men, possess the appropriate behaviour and skills to hold these positions. People who are different should assimilate into the existing

corporate culture and learn the behaviour, skills and strategies of the white men who created and maintained the culture and who are believed to have superior abilities (Fine, Johnson & Ryan, 1990:305). According to Thomas (1994:62), managing diversity is a long-term process, not a quick fix solution. Johnson and Redmond (2000:6) state further that if one wants to bring about change one must deal with the rules of behaviour to which people are expected to adhere, and the attitude they bring to the workplace.

- The effects of applying an incorrect management style in the workplace that focuses too narrowly on processes and ignores people. According to Johnson and Redmond (2000:5-6), the new paradigm is to consider every person in the organisation as an important individual, worthy of respect, the receiver of fair treatment and opportunities to develop and to contribute. This requires a culture led from the top, where senior managers face the prejudices they have developed from their youth.
- Sometimes managing diversity becomes too much of a paradox for managers because of the fact that recognising differences could also be perceived as discriminatory. This situation was, according to Chen (in Brown & Sussman, 1995:57), created by the quagmire of laws and practices which demands equal treatment. Chen (1992:32) further states: "In their effort to manage diversity, companies will run into the legal wall of Equal Employment Opportunities that states that people cannot be treated differently because of their race, sex, age, religion or handicap. Ironically, the legislation intended to eliminate discrimination and allow protected classes to advance in the workplace may be a stumbling block to economically driven attempts to make the most of each employee."
- Poor career planning for diverse managers and workers, a lonely, hostile, unsupportive working environment for non-traditional (diverse) managers, lack of organisational know-how on the part of non-traditional managers, greater comfort in dealing with one's own kind, and difficulty in balancing family and career (Morrison, 1993:40) force organisations to look at the management of diversity in the workplace. According to Johnson and Redmond (2000:4), managing diversity is much more than equality of opportunities for women, and race relations. It involves seeking out and removing obstacles that individuals face as they look for

advancement - whether this relates to gender, race, background, age or sexual orientation. It also ensures that people are not disadvantaged because of their accent or where they live.

- Factors such as "the costs of implementation, fear of hiring under-skilled and uneducated employees, a strong belief in a system that favours merit, annoyance at reverse discrimination, a perception that there has been a good deal of progress and that diversity is not a top priority issue, the need to dismantle the existing systems to accommodate diversity and the sheer size of an organisation further stress the need for diversity management" (Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1993:224-226).
- Changes in the demographic profile of the workforce made organisations consider the desirability of managing a diverse workforce more effectively. According to Wise (in Ingraham & Romzek, 1994:241), the public sector experiences a greater influx of diverse workers, especially those groups which have been previously excluded from government. These disadvantaged groups, which include women, different races and people with disabilities, believe that they will obtain a better overall return and better conditions of employment for their labour than in the private sector. Wise states further that although the affinity of disadvantaged groups for public sector employment is rational in an economic sense, it raises questions about the role of the civil service as a vehicle for enhancing possibilities for social equity within a society.
- Changes in the expectations of diverse people. People from diverse backgrounds, be they race, creed, background, gender, age, sexual orientation or disability, are no longer willing to be treated unfairly in the workplace. Johnson and Redmond (2000:1), as well as Londen and Rosener (1991:21-22) state that diversity will also result in different needs and expectations among workers in the workplace.

The following key policies and procedures need to be addressed if the management of diversity is to be understood, in particular:

- Recruitment
- Selection
- Induction and orientation
- Appraisals
- Reward systems
- Discipline and grievance
- Harassment and bullying
- Disability
- Discrimination
- Language and culture
- Information systems.

## **2.5 DIMENSIONS OF DIVERSITY**

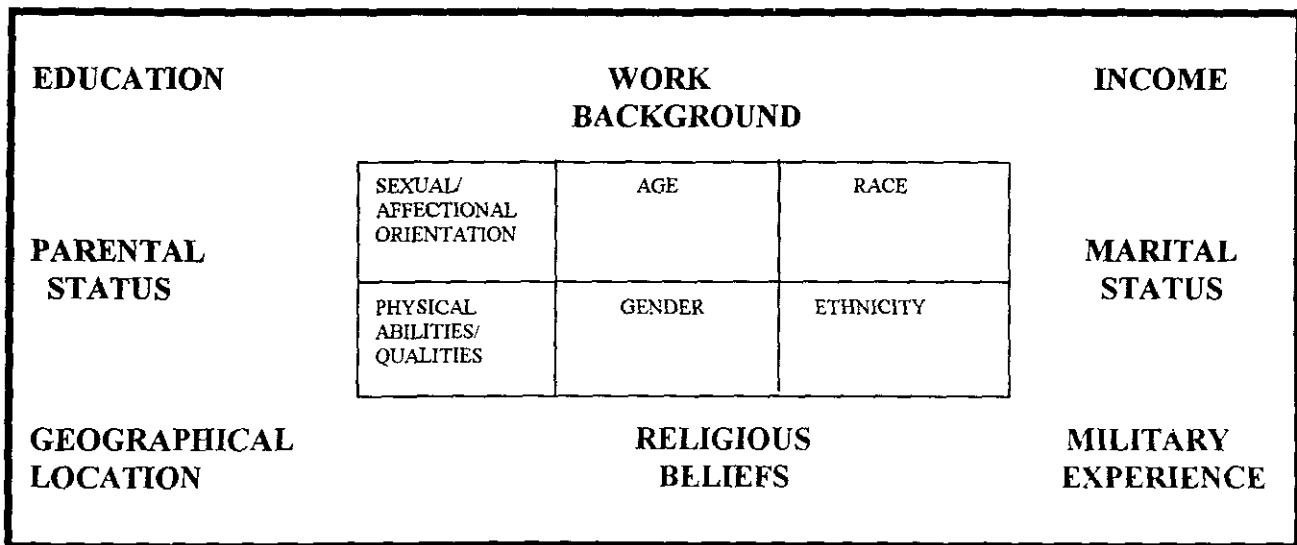
Londen and Rosener (1991:18-20) distinguish between the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity. They use the word *dimension* to describe the properties and characteristics which constitute the whole person. According to them, all individuals have a number of characteristics or dimensions by which they are measured, and no style or dimension stands alone. See figure 2.1.

### **2.5.1 PRIMARY DIMENSIONS OF DIVERSITY**

Primary dimensions of diversity are those immutable human differences which are inborn and/or which exert an important influence on our early socialisation and an ongoing impact throughout our lives. They represent the core of our identities, which are:

- Age
- Ethnicity
- Gender
- Physical abilities/qualities
- Race
- Sexual orientation.

**FIGURE 2.1 PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DIMENSIONS OF DIVERSITY (LONDON & ROSENER, 1991:20)**



### 2.5.2 SECONDARY DIMENSIONS OF DIVERSITY

Secondary dimensions of diversity are those which can be changed. They are mutable differences that are acquired, discarded and/or modified throughout people's lives. They include but are not limited to:

- Educational background
- Geographic location
- Income
- Marital status
- Military experience
- Parental status
- Religious status
- Work experience.

Janet Elsea (in Gardenswartz and Rowe, 1993:392-393) states that the nine most important characteristics of people in a society are the following:

- Skin colour
- Gender

- Age
- Appearance
- Facial expressions
- Eye contact
- Movement
- Personal space
- Touch.

## **2.6 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MANAGING DIVERSITY, VALUING OF DIVERSITY AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

Galagan (1993a: 33) identifies the following differences between managing diversity, valuing of diversity and affirmative action. Managing diversity is a behavioural approach, with the emphasis on building specific skills and creating policies which draw the best from every employee. Effort forms the yardstick for monitoring progress towards the achievement of objectives and goals. The valuing of diversity is more of a qualitative approach, while affirmative action is a quantitative approach. In the valuing of differences the main emphasis is on appreciating differences and the establishment of environments in which every person will feel accepted and valued. Organisational surveys on attitudes and perceptions serve as indicators of the progress achieved in the workplace. According to Thomas (1991: 25), valuing of differences endeavours to foster greater awareness and acceptance of individual differences, and greater understanding of the nature and dynamics of individual difference. Valuing of differences assists participants in understanding their own feelings and attitudes towards people who are different, in exploring how differences could be tapped as assets in the workplace, and in enhancing work relations between people who are different. Thomas (1991:25) further states: "Acceptance, tolerance and understanding of diversity are not by themselves enough to create an empowered work force. To empower a diverse group of employees to reach their full potential, managing diversity is needed." Affirmative action places more emphasis on achieving equality of opportunities in the workplace. Statistical reports and analyses serve as yardsticks for progress. According to Jenner (1994:11), diversity management focuses on diverse needs of employees such as childcare, family leave and flexible holiday schedules, not the cultural diversity of employees.

Diversity management also requires the putting in place of policies and procedures that empower managers to meet the diverse needs of employees. Valuing of diversity centres around interpersonal qualities, such as race, gender and language, and affirmative action directs attention to laws which guide recruitment and promotion. Figures 2.2 and 2.3 refer to more differences between managing diversity, valuing of diversity and affirmative action as identified by Galagan (1993a: 33) and Thomas (1991b: 28).

## **2.7 MODELS FOR MANAGING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE**

Brown and Sussman (1995:57) state: "Managing diversity is about people who are not like you and do not aspire to be like you." It is important, when choosing or designing a model, that managers and trainers keep their employees in mind. As Carnevale and Stone (1994:29) point out, organisations could use a wide range of initiatives in their efforts to acknowledge, value and manage diversity in the workplace. Thomas (1994: 61) cautions managers and trainers regarding the approach they choose in promoting diversity awareness in the workplace and warns that with diversity training "one is likely to face a mixed bag of confusion, disorder, approval, reverence, bewilderment, and even hostility". One of the most popular methods of managing diversity is diversity awareness training. The following seven models serve as examples of how to encourage diversity awareness and how to manage diversity in the workplace. Carnevale and Stone (1994:30-31) refer to two of the seven models for managing diversity awareness in the workplace, namely:

- An Awareness-Based Diversity Training Model; and
- A Skills-Based Diversity-Training Model.

### **2.7.1 AWARENESS-BASED DIVERSITY TRAINING MODEL**

Awareness-Based Diversity Training represents a more cognitive approach to diversity training in the workplace. Figure 2.4 refers to the Awareness-Based Diversity-Training Model



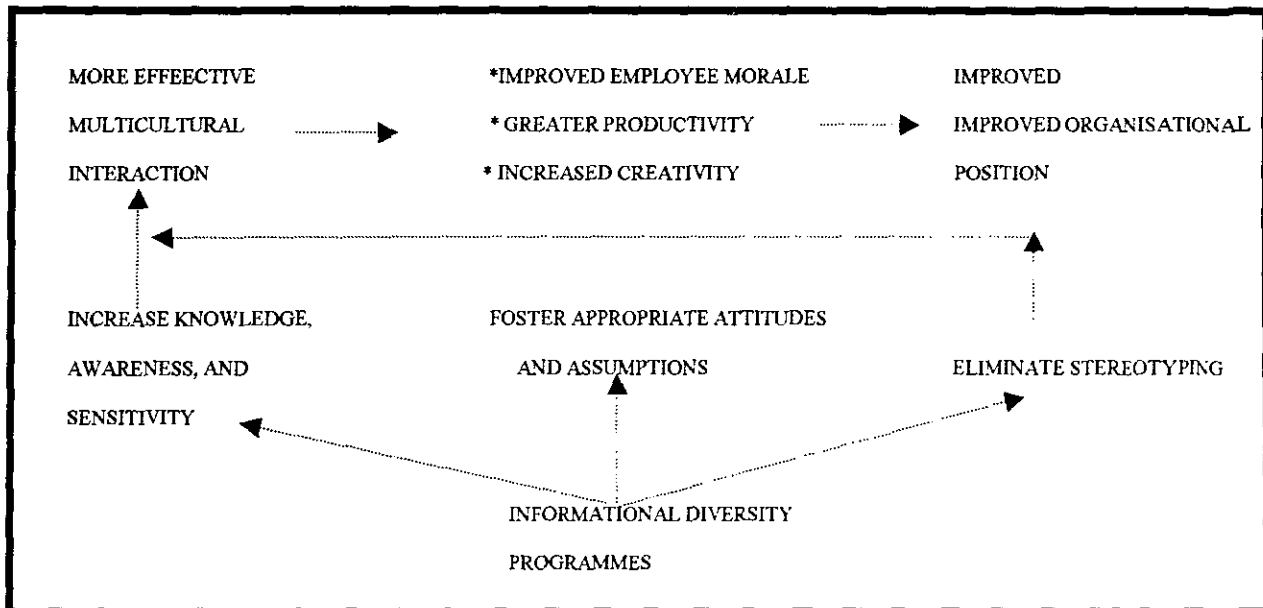
**FIGURE 2.2 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MANAGING DIVERSITY, VALUING OF DIVERSITY AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION (GALAGAN, 1993a:33)**

<b>MANAGING DIVERSITY</b>	<b>VALUING OF DIVERSITY</b>	<b>AFFIRMATIVE ACTION</b>
<p><b>Strategically driven</b> Behaviour and policies are seen as contributing to organisational goals and objectives, such as profit and productivity and are tied to rewards and results.</p> <p><b>Pragmatic</b> The organisation benefits: morale, profits and productivity increase.</p> <p><b>Synergy model</b> Model assumes that diverse groups will create new ways of working together effectively in a pluralistic environment.</p> <p><b>Opens the system</b> Efforts affect managerial practices and policies.</p> <p><b>Resistance</b> Due to denial of demographic realities, the need for alternative approaches and the benefits of change. It also arises from the difficulty of learning new skills, altering existing systems and finding the time toward synergistic solutions.</p>	<p><b>Ethically driven</b> Moral and ethical imperatives drive this culture change.</p> <p><b>Idealistic</b> Everyone benefits. Everyone feels valued and accepted in an inclusive environment.</p> <p><b>Diversity model</b> Model assumes that groups will retain their own characteristics and shape the organisation as well as be shaped by it, creating a common set of values.</p> <p><b>Open attitudes, minds and the culture</b> Efforts affect attitudes of employees.</p> <p><b>Resistance</b> Due to fear of change, discomfort with differences and a desire to return to the good old days.</p>	<p><b>Legally driven</b> Written plans and statistical goals for specific groups are utilized. Reports are mandated by EEO laws and consent decrees</p> <p><b>Remedial</b> Specific target groups benefit as past wrongs are remedied. Previously excluded groups have an advantage.</p> <p><b>Assimilation model</b> Model assumes that groups brought into system will adapt to existing organisational norms.</p> <p><b>Opens doors</b> Efforts affect hiring and promotion decisions in the organisation.</p> <p><b>Resistance</b> Due to perceived limits to autonomy in decision-making and perceived fears of reverse discrimination.</p>

**FIGURE 2.3 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MANAGING DIVERSITY, VALUING OF DIFFERENCES AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION (THOMAS, 1991:28)**

<b>VARIABLES</b>	<b>AFFIRMATIVE ACTION</b>	<b>VALUING DIFFERENCES</b>	<b>MANAGING DIVERSITY</b>
<b>GOAL</b>	Creation of a diverse work force Upward mobility for women and minorities	Creation of diverse work force Establishment of quality interpersonal relationships	Management of diverse workforce Full utilisation of human resources
<b>MOTIVE</b>	Legal, moral and social responsibility	Exploitation of "richness" that can flow from diversity	Attainment of competitive advantage
<b>PRIMARY FOCUS</b>	Acting affirmatively "Special" efforts	Understanding, respecting and valuing differences among various groups in the context of the business enterprise	Managing (creating an environment appropriate for full utilisation of a diverse workforce -emphasis on culture and systems). Includes white males
<b>BENEFITS (PRIMARY)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Creation of a diverse work force</li> <li>• Upward mobility for women and minorities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mutual respect among groups</li> <li>• Creation of diverse work force</li> <li>• Upward mobility for minorities and women</li> <li>• Greater receptivity of affirmative action</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Enhanced overall management capability</li> <li>• Natural creation of diverse workforce</li> <li>• Natural upward mobility for minorities and women</li> <li>• Competitive advantage for companies moving forward on the vanguard</li> <li>• Escape from frustrating cycle</li> </ul>
<b>CHANGES</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Artificial</li> <li>• Creates own backlash</li> <li>• Requires continuous intense commitment</li> <li>• Cyclical benefits</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emphasis on interpersonal relations</li> <li>• Low emphasis on systems and culture</li> <li>• Low emphasis on "management"</li> <li>• Cyclical benefits</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Requires long-term commitment</li> <li>• Requires mindset shift</li> <li>• Requires modified definitions of leadership and management</li> <li>• Requires mutual adaptation by company and individual</li> <li>• Requires system changes</li> </ul>

**FIGURE 2.4 AWARENESS-BASED DIVERSITY TRAINING MODEL (CARNEVALE & STONE, 1994:30)**



Carnevale and Stone (1994:30) identify the following objectives of the Awareness-Based Diversity Model, namely:

- To provide information on diversity, ranging from anecdotes to statistical presentations, which illustrate the necessity for diversity training.
- To heighten awareness and sensitivity through the uncovering of biases and hidden assumptions through exercises aimed at helping managers to get in touch with themselves and their feelings about diversity.
- To assess attitudes and values.
- To correct and avoid stereotypes and myths by encouraging managers to view others as individuals rather than as representatives.
- To foster individual and group sharing.
- To ensure more effective multicultural interaction.
- To improve employee morale, productivity and creativity.
- To improve the organisation's competitive position.

According to Gerber (in Carnevale & Stone, 1994:31), diversity awareness training has the following limitations, namely:

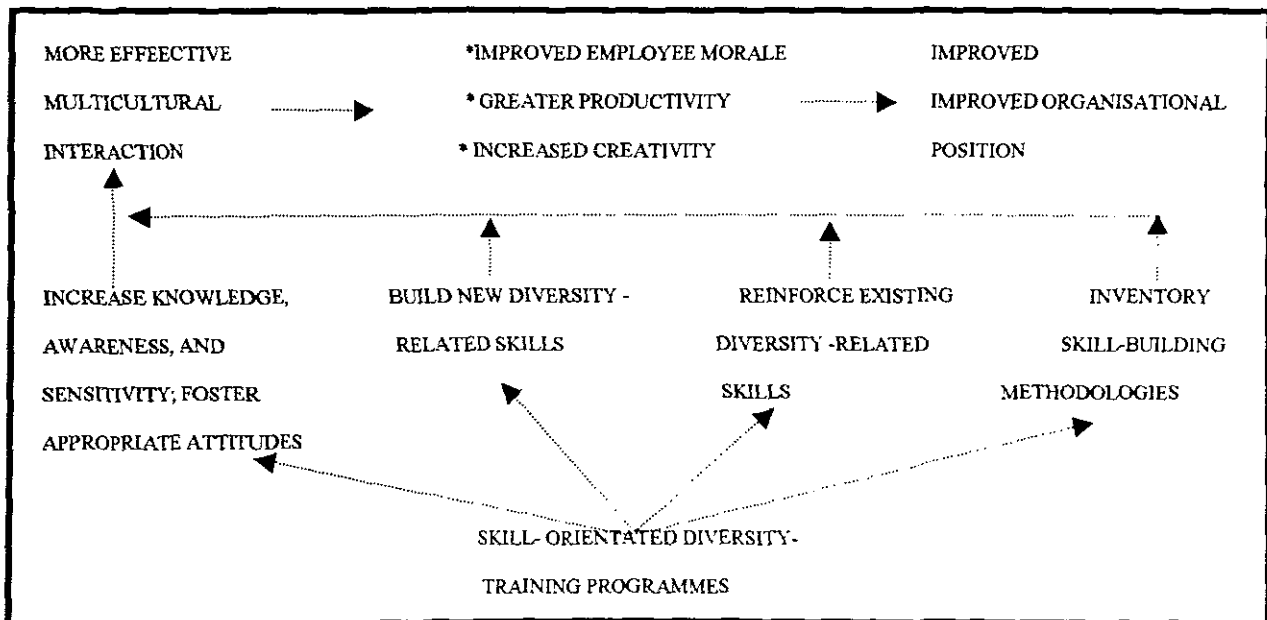
- It is too psychological and unmeasurable.
- It does not provide skills enabling managers to act more effectively.
- It puts too much pressure on managers to immediately change their behaviour and attitude towards diverse groups.
- Managers may be at a loss as to what to do with their new knowledge without skills training in dealing with differences (Gerber in Carnevale & Stone, 1994:31).

### **2.7.2 SKILLS-BASED DIVERSITY TRAINING MODEL**

Skills-Based Diversity Training represents a more behavioural approach to diversity training in the workplace. The two approaches, according to Carnevale and Stone (1994:31), are closely interrelated because of the latter being based on increased awareness of diversity related issues. Skills-based diversity training focuses on:

- Providing tools for promoting effective interaction in a heterogeneous work setting.
- Building new diversity interaction skills.
- Reinforcing existing diversity related skills.
- Inventorying of skills-based methodologies.
- Increasing knowledge awareness and sensitivity.
- Fostering appropriate attitudes.
- Ensuring more effective multicultural interaction.
- Improving employee morale, greater productivity and increased creativity.
- Increasing the organisation's competitive edge.

Carnevale & Stone (1994:31) state that skills-based training is relatively new and that authorities differ about the specific skills mix required for the effective management of diversity. They refer to other authors on skills for managing diversity and awareness in the workplace. Figure 2.5 refers to the Skills-Based Diversity Training model.

**FIGURE 2.5 SKILLS-BASED DIVERSITY TRAINING MODEL (CARNEVALE & STONE, 1994:31).**

### 2.7.3 THE BATTAGLIA SKILLS DIVERSITY MODEL

The Battaglia skills diversity model (in Carnevale & Stone, 1994:31) focuses on the diverse skills needed for creating a collaborative working environment. In Figure 2.6, the four skills needed by managers and trainers in the Battaglia diversity model are outlined.

manage diversity in the workplace.

### 2.7.4 THE WILLIAMS SKILLS DIVERSITY MODEL

In this model, Williams (in Carnevale & Stone, 1994:32) focuses on the specific skills needed by a manager and trainer to manage diversity in the workplace. Figure 2.7 refers to the skills depicted in the Williams model.

### 2.7.5 THE GRIGGS AND LOUW DIVERSITY MODEL

The focus of the Griggs and Louw diversity model is on building cross-cultural relationships and on leveraging differences in the workplace. As Griggs and Louw (1995:24) point out, managing a diverse team of people can be very challenging "but leveraging the potential of a diverse team to

**FIGURE 2.6 BATTAGLIA'S SKILLS DIVERSITY MODEL (IN CARNEVALE & STONE, 1994:32-33)**

<b>CROSS-CULTURAL UNDERSTANDING SKILLS</b>	Encompasses knowledge about how and why diverse team members act the way they do, and respect for differing cultural operating styles.
<b>INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS</b>	Ability to communicate across cultural differences. Effectiveness at intercultural communication is a skill that requires patience, awareness, and constant checking of the interaction process to detect barriers.
<b>FACILITATION SKILLS</b>	Ability to mediate differences and help others negotiate misunderstandings.
<b>FLEXIBILITY OR ADAPTATION SKILLS</b>	Ability to modify expectations, re-adjust operating norms, try new approaches, and be patient.

achieve high performance is tricky. The organisation that tries to do so may find that instead of successfully utilising a rich reservoir of talent, it has stumbled into a messy thicket of bruised egos and cultural misunderstandings". The Griggs diversity model consists of four interlinking stages:

- Stage 1: Initiating the relationship (Forming).
- Stage 2: Surfacing conflict (Storming).
- Stage 3: Forging a team (Norming).
- Stage 4: Leveraging differences (Performing).

In Figure 2.8 the characteristics of the four stages of the Griggs model are identified as well as the skills needed by managers.

**FIGURE 2.7 WILLIAMS'S DIVERSITY MODEL (IN CARNEVALE & STONE, 1994:32)**

SELF AWARENESS	Ability to recognise the assumptions one has harboured about those who are different.
CLEAR HEADEDNESS	A refusal to rely on stereotypes, instead using valid individual character and skills assessments when allocating job assignments and promotions or when rendering other key decisions.
OPENNESS	A readiness to share knowledge with diverse groups and to provide them with access to mentors who can help them penetrate invisible barriers and move up in the organisation.
CANDOUR	Ability to engage in constructive dialogue about differences, whether they are individual, ethnic, cultural, or organisational.
ADAPTABILITY	Willingness to change old rules that discourage or thwart the full realisation of the benefits of diversity.
EGALITARIANISM	The commitment to encourage employees to grow professionally and to participate fully in the success of the organisation.

**FIGURE 2.8 GRIGGS'S AND LOUW DIVERSITY MODEL (GRIGGS & LOUW, 1995:27)**

<u>CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FOUR STAGES</u>	<u>SKILLS NEEDED AT EACH STAGE</u>
<p><b>STAGE 1 INITIATING THE RELATIONSHIP (FORMING)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discomfort lies beneath the surface.</li> <li>• Pseudo-relationship and community are on the surface.</li> <li>• The group focuses on irrelevant differences.</li> <li>• There are high levels of diversity "noise" (assumptions, biases and stereotypes).</li> <li>• Subtle yet serious differences and values lie below the surface and need to be discovered.</li> <li>• Distinctions between relevant and irrelevant differences and real projected issues are unclear.</li> </ul>	<p><b>STAGE 1 SKILLS (UNCOVER)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Clarify sources of discomfort.</li> <li>• Clarify vision: ask if assumptions about visions, decision plans and actions are the same. Uncover real and relevant differences by asking open-ended questions.</li> <li>• Be flexible in personal styles of initiating relationships</li> <li>• Learn a new way of listening to the meaning or intentions behind a person's words; intentions may be the same but cultures express them differently.</li> <li>• Differentiate between cultural misunderstandings, diversity issues and relationship dynamics.</li> <li>• Find common ground.</li> </ul>
<p><u>CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FOUR STAGES</u></p> <p><b>STAGE 2 SURFACING CONFLICT (STORMING)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differences and suppressed tension begin to surface.</li> <li>• Hostile cycles become apparent.</li> <li>• When conflict is not handled effectively, masking and shutdown become apparent.</li> <li>• Expressions of handling challenges differ greatly across cultures.</li> <li>• Group members have different responses to the challenges of space, time, issues of the group versus the individual, and approaches to work.</li> <li>• While challenges are the same across differences, they can be handled differently.</li> <li>• Polarisation and ethnocentrism conflicts appear.</li> <li>• Team members begin to realise that "my reality is not your reality".</li> <li>• They face the challenges of trying to understand the meaning of intention behind the expression.</li> </ul>	<p><u>SKILLS NEEDED AT EACH STAGE</u></p> <p><b>STAGE 2 SKILLS (BUILD BRIDGES OF UNDERSTANDING)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Build bridges, to understand, and notice the sore nerves. Leverage to prevent more costly nerves later.</li> <li>• Practise a new kind of understanding, involving accurate empathy rather than inaccurate empathy.</li> <li>• Work on facilitation skills.</li> <li>• Good communication is not enough - be authentic and real, and unmask your true self.</li> <li>• When you make a mistake recognise it quickly and recover.</li> <li>• Handle all conflict.</li> <li>• Leverage sore nerves.</li> </ul>



<p><b><u>CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FOUR STAGES</u></b>  <b>STAGE 3 FORMING A TEAM (NORMING)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The team member's comfort level is increasing.</li> <li>• The differences below the surface have been identified.</li> <li>• Sore nerves are recognised and explored.</li> <li>• The group is finding a way of being together. Moving from "I" to "we".</li> <li>• The group is finding its own cultural dictates (norms, rules, ways of being, and values) so that it can operate in a co-operative and mutually beneficial way.</li> <li>• The team values and respects individuals and recognises the generative power of two or more.</li> </ul>	<p><b><u>SKILLS NEEDED AT EACH STAGE</u></b>  <b>STAGE 3 SKILLS (BALANCE)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Create an open space in which individuals can exist and co-exist.</li> <li>• Deal with ambiguity.</li> <li>• Develop flexible feedback skills; be able to give feedback so that everyone is comfortable, and respect differences in the ways people give and receive feedback.</li> <li>• Balance differences and similarities, depending on the goal.</li> <li>• Develop mentoring skills.</li> <li>• Establish common ground and norming.</li> </ul>
<p><b><u>CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FOUR STAGES</u></b>  <b>STAGE 4 LEVERAGING DIFFERENCES (PERFORMING)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An individual's performance is valued and respected; personal responsibility is high.</li> <li>• The group is committed to the "self" and personal confidence (yet keeps its focus on group task and structure), to each member of the team being valued, to the team as a whole and to its vision of the task; and to the leaders of the team or organisation.</li> <li>• Co-operation exists; synergy is likely.</li> <li>• Members have a common vision and commitment to decisions and actions; assumptions are clear, and differences are sorted out.</li> <li>• The team can differentiate between good conflict and bad.</li> </ul>	<p><b><u>SKILLS NEEDED AT EACH STAGE</u></b>  <b>STAGE 4 SKILLS (LEVERAGING AND LEADING WITH DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Be able to deal with ambiguity</li> <li>• Know how to achieve balance in the group rather than focusing on individual approaches</li> <li>• Be flexible.</li> <li>• Handle conflict constructively.</li> <li>• Know how to handle conflict and tension that comes from irrelevant differences.</li> <li>• Tolerate creative tension to move toward a higher outcome.</li> <li>• Understand that relationship building is a process; recognise the need for ongoing learning.</li> <li>• Know when the additive power is needed (2+3=4), and when the multiplicative power is needed (2x3x4).</li> </ul>

### 2.7.6 LONDEN AND ROSENER'S DIVERSITY MODEL

The Londen and Rosener (1991: 196-215) diversity model focuses on the building of a culture of diversity in the workplace. A workplace where the "institutional environment is built on the values of fairness, diversity, mutual respect, understanding, and co-operation; where shared goals,

rewards, performance standards, operating norms, and a common vision of the future guide the efforts of every employee and manager". The model consists of three phases, namely:

- Phase 1: Setting the stage.
- Phase 2: Education and change implementation.
- Phase 3: Ongoing maintenance activities.

Figure 2.9 refers to aims and activities in each phase of the Londen and Rosener diversity model. All the above-mentioned diversity models emphasise the skills and behaviours needed by organisations, managers and trainers to manage diversity in the workplace

### 2.7.7 THE DAVIS AND PROCTOR, AND FUHR MODELS

The Davis and Proctor (1989:120-122) and Fuhr (1993:18) models focus on the steps local government managers and supervisors need to follow when confronting racial issues and fears in the workplace.

**Firstly**, racial differences, and their potential salience should be acknowledged. Workers should acknowledge their colleagues, supervisors or managers' racial differences. This will convey a sensitivity to and awareness of the potential significance of race in establishing peaceful relationships at work. It will further convey to workers their colleagues', supervisors' and/or managers' ability to handle their feelings regarding race. It is best to ask the worker whether he has racial concerns and issues rather than problems. The reason for this is that if one asks the question: "Do you have problems with my race", the answer one will receive will obviously be "No!". The question: "How do you think my being white and your being non-white might affect our working together?" could be asked. One could further say: "If during the course of our meetings you have concerns on issues pertaining to race, please feel free to discuss them." If the worker assures his colleague, supervisor or manager that race is not an issue, the latter could reply, "I don't think it will be a barrier either."

**Secondly**, supervisors/managers could also suggest to their workers that if they do not understand

**FIGURE 2.9 LONDON AND ROSENER DIVERSITY MODEL (1991: 196-215)**

<b>PHASE 1</b>	<p><b>SETTING THE STAGE</b></p> <p>Acknowledging the fundamental difference between equal employment and valuing diversity.</p> <p>Endorsing the value of diversity and communicating this through the organisation.</p> <p>Articulating a pluralistic vision.</p>
<b>PHASE 2</b>	<p><b>EDUCATION AND CHANGE IMPLEMENTATION</b></p> <p>Providing awareness education to minimise culture clashes and improve work relationships among all employees.</p> <p>Enlisting support for change from employees at all organisational levels.</p> <p>Diversifying work groups and decision-making groups</p> <p>Creating benefit plans that reflect diverse employee priorities.</p> <p>Tying individual and group rewards to consistent behaviour that values diversity.</p> <p>Creating structures to support organisational change.</p> <p>Developing coaching and tutoring mechanisms to enhance individual and work group effectiveness.</p>
<b>PHASE 3</b>	<p><b>ONGOING MAINTENANCE ACTIVITIES</b></p> <p>Periodic cultural audits that examine organisational practices, norms, and so on, and their impact on diverse employees.</p> <p>Periodic employee opinion surveys to identify emerging diversity issues and measure effectiveness of current activities.</p> <p>Annual survey feedback for individual managers identifying specific pluralistic leadership strengths and areas for improvement.</p> <p>Basic awareness training for new employees and advanced seminars for those who are interested.</p> <p>Continuous monitoring of recruitment, hiring, development, and promotion trends to ensure that they reflect the organisation's commitment to the valuing of employee diversity</p>

something which is said, because of their different backgrounds, they should feel free to say so at any time. Supervisors/managers must show initiative in working hard at understanding their workers' situation. If, on the other hand, workers prefer not to work with someone from a

different race group, an opportunity has been provided to make such feelings clear. The most important message conveyed by the workers' initiative is in acknowledging the racial issue, their desire to understand and help supervisors/managers and also their ability to discuss what is often a sensitive issue. Supervisors/managers should also challenge their own racial fears and those of their subordinates by creating forums for discussion where people of diverse race, culture and gender can openly debate their differences.

**Thirdly**, supervisors/managers who are willing to work and to understand their workers better should acknowledge that their social reality would be different from that of a worker who comes from a different race group. Supervisors/managers should at all times not be too modest to show workers prior personal or practical experience which would enable the supervisors/managers to better understand racial factors important to workers.

**Fourthly**, supervisors must convey respect as well as a sense of honesty and credibility, thereby establishing a basis for a trusting working relationship with workers. Workers should be shown that their supervisors/managers are capable of offering help. Supervisors/managers should also listen attentively, summarising and reflecting to ensure accuracy of understanding and offer options on office arrangements so that workers can select interpersonal distances acceptable to them. Supervisors/managers should not address racism through forced integration but through acceptance and respect for the diversity of others.

**Fifthly**, supervisors/managers should not adopt a "one size fits all" approach, but rather create a more flexible culture, viewing people as individuals. They should create an equity council to seek and eradicate existing inequalities in policies, practices and procedures. Supervisors/managers should therefore develop a culture of tolerance and accountability, refraining from judgemental behaviour. Only when racial sensitivity and ethnicity, fear, anxiety, arrogance, discrimination, hate, stereotyping, prejudice and perceptions have been eradicated, will a proper working environment be created. Such a work environment will ensure that people will feel accepted, respected and recognised as being able to make meaningful contributions. Differences are regarded as assets or vital resources and not as a weakness, and people are viewed as individuals and not merely as members of specific racial, cultural or ethnic groups.

**Lastly**, supervisors/managers should create an environment which is receptive to affirmative action and supportive of its candidates. This could be done through the education and training of all employees from the different race groups with regard to the need for confronting racial issues and inevitability of affirmative action (Davis & Proctor, 1989:120-122).

## **2.8 APPROACHES TO DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE**

According to Bennet (1992:180-181), approaches to diversity in the workplace are usually based on people's experience of differences. Differences go beyond the obvious physical differences. There are differences in communication styles, professional experience, functional expertise, management levels, training, education and work ethics (Caudron, 1994:56). For Berthelot (1994:7), "learning to respect and value workplace diversity starts with self-appraisal, but many people resist taking the first steps". Berthelot (1994:7) identifies the following nine diversity dance syndromes followed by organisations, managers and individuals when approaching diversity in the workplace. They are:

- **THE OSTRICH WIGGLE**

Managers or individuals who bury their heads in the sand denying the changes diversity demands.

- **THE SABOTAGE SKULK**

Managers or individuals who manipulate or undermine efforts to enhance and embrace diversity.

- **THE TIPTOE SIDE-STEP**

Managers or individuals who merely go through the motions of participating in diversity initiatives, not expending any energy or effort.

- **THE WISHFUL WALLFLOWER WALTZ**

Managers and individuals who want to take part in diversity awareness but fear attracting an unwelcome spotlight.

- **THE TOO-BASIC TWO-STEP**

Managers and individuals who talk a lot about their commitment to diversity but never get out to the dance floor.

- **THE CRISIS CRUNCH**

Managers and individuals who panic and make a last-minute date for the diversity dance to avoid a day in court or other impending calamity. Once they arrive they only pay perfunctory attention.

- **THE POOR-PARTNER SQUIRM**

Managers and individuals who struggle to master the dance of diversity whilst paired with partners who do not know how to lead.

- **THE TOE-TRAMPLER'S TUMBLE**

Managers and individuals who feel stamped on by diversity "facilitators" who lack the necessary skills, experience and sensitivity to guide the initiative successfully

- **THE PANTING PANDEMONIUM**

Managers and individuals who organise the event, loading the programme with so much energy that people end up exhausted, resentful and ready to pack it in and go home. Other approaches to diversity awareness in the workplace are:

- **DENIAL**

Denial can come in two forms: a denial that diversity is an issue and denial that there are differences in the workplace. Denial that diversity is an issue can be attributed, according to Galagan (1993b: 46), to a lack of awareness. "A denial of differences occurs when physical or social isolation precludes any contact at all with significant differences. It leads to a situation where one's own worldview is unchallenged as central to all reality. In extreme cases of denial, cultural differences may be attributed to sub-human status. The Nazi attempts to eliminate undesirables' serve as references" (Bennet, 1992:182-183).

## ■ DEFENCE

This refers to organisations and managers who build defences against diversity in the workplace. According to Bennet (1992:183), this could be an "attempt to counter the perceived threat to the centrality of one's world view". The most common defence strategy is "negative stereotyping wherein undesirable characteristics are attributed to every member of a culturally distinct group. Another defence strategy is the assumption of cultural superiority" (Bennet, 1992:183).

## ■ MAINTAINING THE STATUS QUO

One approach to diversity is to maintain the status quo and to reform the person whose behaviour is different, for example: "Male managers send women to assertiveness training, hoping they will come back able to make their points and ask for things the way a man does" (Galagan, 1993b:49).

## ■ DIVERSITY AWARENESS

With this approach, organisations, managers and individuals are made aware of ways in which they discriminate against, judge or isolate those who work for or with them or who apply for employment. The focus here is on awareness of diversity issues in the workplace. Awareness training is one method used in this approach. "Awareness training aims at heightening awareness of diversity issues and revealing workers' unexamined assumptions and tendencies to stereotype" (Carnevale & Stone, 1994:30).

## ■ ACCEPTANCE, ADAPTATION AND INTEGRATION

With this approach, managers learn to respect, acknowledge and value differences in the workplace. There is an acceptance of behavioural and value differences. "The acceptance of differences allows the adaptation of behaviour and thinking to these differences. The most common form of adaptation is empathy" (Bennet, 1992:184-185). Acceptance and adaptation further ensure the way to integration in the workplace. Approaches such as denial, defence and maintenance of the status quo could also become barriers to diversity in the workplace.

## 2.9 SUMMARY

McDowell & Beliles (1992:5) state: "Man is a reflection of his Creator, who is a unity (God is

one), yet He is also diverse (God is a triune Being). Man are alike in many ways (there is unity among mankind), yet no two men are alike (there is also diversity)." In South Africa, diversity cannot be overlooked. In the Preamble to the present constitution (South Africa, 1996), it is stated that South Africa's diversity resembles the unity of its people. The Preamble illustrates a change in attitude and behaviour towards the value of diversity in South Africa. For the South African public service, a paradigm shift regarding diversity management will ensure a diverse, competent and well-managed workforce, capable of and committed to delivering high quality services to all the people of South Africa. In this chapter, the different theories on diversity management are examined. It is highlighted that diversity has become one of the most frequently used words of our time and a word almost never defined. The chapter also focuses on what diversity is, what it is not and why diversity management is needed in the workplace. The different dimensions of diversity and the differences between diversity management, valuing of differences and affirmative action are also discussed. Lastly, the chapter also focuses on the models used for managing diversity and the approaches to diversity in the workplace.

In **Chapter 3** the focus is on growing diversities, which local government managers will encounter. The focus is on the nature of management within local government, macro and micro environmental factors influencing diversity management in local government, and the challenges managing diversity poses to the local government manager in the workplace.



## **CHAPTER 3: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR MANAGING DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Gildenhuis (1997b:1) states: "Local government in South Africa will never be the same again. The change to democracy and the transformation away from a centralised autocratic system dominating local government from above, places more responsibility on local governments to govern efficiently and effectively for satisfying the most basic needs of the people in their municipalities." One of the most challenging tasks confronting local government managers is to resolve, or at least ameliorate, some of the difficulties arising from the wide diversity found in the workplace. The management of change, and affirmative action programmes alone, will not obtain the employment equity workers are seeking in the workplace. The management of diversity is needed to create employment equity in the workplace: a workplace encompassing everyone. Appropriate techniques for handling diversity must be found. These will have to become integral to the whole environment's accepting diverse groups as vital resources in an organisation. The ultimate aim in the democratisation and transformation of local government in South Africa is not to widen the rift between the various groups, but to foster understanding between them, thereby streamlining local government and enhancing its efficiency. In this chapter, the focus is on diversity management in local government. Consequently, it firstly focuses on the nature of management within local government. Secondly, it explains different macro and micro dimensions affecting the management of diversity in local government, and lastly, it explores the challenges facing the local government manager in managing diversity.

### **3.2 THE NATURE OF MANAGEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

The nature of management in local government is reflected in its goal and objectives, which are to ensure that a local authority governs itself to ensure that the most basic needs of the local community within its area of jurisdiction are being met. Stewart (1995:5) state: "Management in local government has to be understood as part of the public domain, but also

with its own special purposes and conditions. Those purposes and conditions reflect the nature of local authorities as political institutions constituted for local choice in government and as organisations for the delivery of public services.” Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997:3) define the purpose of local government within the parameters of service rendering, which is a utilitarian consideration, and democracy, which is a civic consideration. According to Gildenhuis (1997b:8), the nature and purpose of management within local government is also defined by its goal. The goal of management in local government is to create favourable circumstances within its municipality and its legal jurisdiction for the attainment of a satisfactory quality of life for each of its citizens. If management structure processes and styles do not reflect the purpose and conditions of the tasks to be carried out, then management, according to Stewart (1995:3), will be ineffective. The following three components reflect the nature of management in local government.

### **3.2.1 VALUES AND PRINCIPLES AT THE HEART OF MANAGEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

According to Stewart (1995:3-4), many of the decisions made by local government involve value choices. Local Authorities are constituted to make value choices by their elected base. The value choice is not about how to achieve, but about what to value. The value choices of Local Authorities also lie within the services they provide. Management in local government must support value choice and political process, for they are at the heart of local government. Ismail, Bayat and Meyer (1997:8-11) identify the following values and principles that should be encompassed by management in local government, which are:

- Local government must promote a high standard of professional ethics in its overall system of government and management.
- Local government must use its resources efficiently and effectively.
- Local government must be development oriented, which incorporates physical development as well as the facilitation of human development.
- Local government must promote fairness, reasonableness and impartiality, and have no bias.

- Local government must respond to the needs of local people.
- Local government must promote public participation in the management of its affairs.
- Local government must be accountable to its electorate and, where necessary, to other stakeholders.
- Local government must promote transparency and supply the public with timely and sufficient information.
- Local government must promote good human resource development practices.
- Local government must be broadly representative of the population it serves.
- Local authorities must provide reasons for decisions taken and communicate those to the public.
- Local government must administer its daily affairs within the framework of the laws of the country and do nothing that will purposefully harm the rights of any individual.
- Local authorities must become income- and not expenditure-driven, and thereby avoid budgeting for deficits.

Gildenhuis (1997b:5) states that a local authority's organisational structure should also create circumstances for effective and efficient management especially if the management of local government is to ensure proper service delivery. According to Gildenhuis (1997b:5-6), the following organisational principles should apply to management in local government, namely:

- The organisation must provide for "joint management" by management teams at all management levels of the organisational hierarchy. This means that high-level, middle-level and lower-level decisions must be taken jointly in a democratic way by all managers at the applicable levels.
- The hierarchical structure of the organisation must provide for the optimum span of control.
- The hierarchical structure of the organisation must provide for both formal and informal horizontal and vertical communication lines.

- The organisational structure of the organisation must provide for clear definitions of goals, objectives, functions and service activities.
- For each position in the hierarchical structure, proper job descriptions and job evaluations must be drawn up.

### 3.2.2 POLITICAL MANAGEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Stewart (1995:15) states: "Management in local government is set within a political management system and the role of management must be to support the legitimate political process of the local authority". "A local government manager must have an understanding and acceptance of the political process within local government. Management in local government must be aimed at helping the local government manager (Stewart, 1995:25-26):

- To accept the legitimacy of political control.
- To understand the necessity of that control in present government.
- To be sensitive to the politics of the authority.
- To be aware of how those politics are changing.
- To have an understanding of political structure and of the processes of political decision-making.
- To have skills in communication in a political setting.
- To be able to adjust working behaviour to different settings.
- To understand the conventions that can support the political process but not deny the rights of opposition councillors, and be prepared to face the dilemmas that can arise.
- To be able to adjust to new conventions in the changed reality of the hung authority.
- To understand how management approaches that support and respond to the political process can be developed.
- To be capable of dealing with the stresses implicit in a political-management system.

According to Stewart (1995:11), one should not view the political process as a constraint on management, but as setting the purpose for management in local government

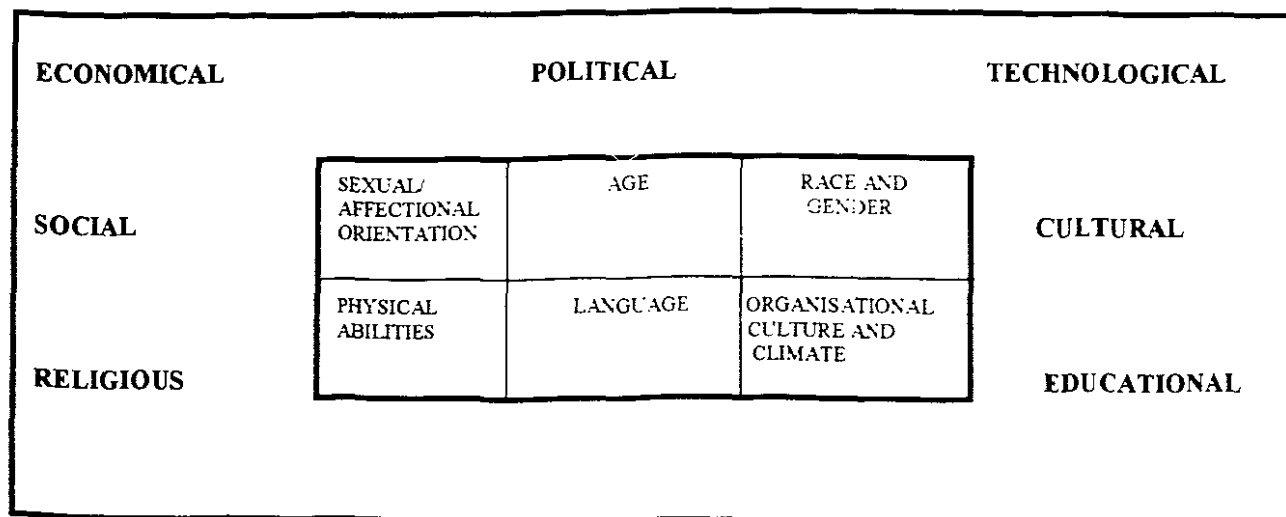
### 3.2.3 DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Management within local government works closely with elected representatives to ensure local government operates within the framework of being developmentally oriented. “Developmental local government is local government committed to working with citizens and groups within the community to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives” (*White Paper Local Government*, 1998:17). Management within local government has to ensure that the developmental outcomes of local government are achieved. These key outcomes are:

- Provision of household infrastructure and services.
- Creation of liveable, integrated cities, towns and rural areas.
- Local economic development.
- Community empowerment and redistribution (*White Paper on Local Government*, 1998:22).

A number of macro and micro environmental factors that will have an effect on the management of diversity in local government will now be highlighted. These issues could influence the external and internal work environments of the local government manager. See figure 3.1.

**FIGURE 3.1 MACRO AND MICRO ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS INFLUENCING DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**



### 3.3 MACRO AND MICRO ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS INFLUENCING DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

According to Sing (1986:50), "public institutions are under constant pressure to change in accordance with demands originating from external and internal environments. The phenomenon of change embodies several dimensions such as transformation, substitution, adaption, alteration, managing innovation, renewal and reformation". Chikane (*in Report on Integrated Democratic Governance*, 2001:3) states that the pressure to change is to ensure that with each passing year more distance is put between the apartheid rule of our past and the democratic governance of our present. The public sector is constantly influenced by factors in the environment within which it functions and in turn it also influences the environment (Schwella in McLennan, 1995:25). Fox *et al.* (1991) divide these influences into general and specific components. The general component includes the political, social, economic, cultural and technological aspects of the environment. The specific environment includes suppliers, competitors, regulators and consumers. The public sector is further inextricably influenced by the diverse values of the community, public officials (political as well as career officials) and institutions.

#### 3.3.1 POLITICAL

Stewart (1995:15) states: "As society changes so does the politics of local government. According to Hodge and Anthony (1991:79), all organisations are to some degree affected by the political system they function in. McLennan (1995:110) and the *Presidential Review Commission Report* (1998:1 of 34 in Chapter 3) state that apartheid as a political system contributed to the public service being characterised by:

- Rigid racial and ethnic segregation.
- Fragmentation, duplication and waste.
- Poor and outdated management practices.
- A regulatory bureaucratic culture.

- Lack of accountability and transparency.
- Poorly paid and demotivated staff.
- Conflictual labour relations.

The public service structure inherited from the apartheid political system also promoted and defended the social and economic system of apartheid and served the material needs and interest of a minority group. “In forging ahead with the processes of reconciliation, reconstruction and development, the South African public service will have a major role to play as the executive arm of government. To fulfil this role effectively, the service will need to be transformed into a coherent, representative, competent and democratic instrument for implementing government policies and meeting the needs of all South Africans” (*White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service*, 1995: 1 of 3 in Chapter 1). The political system, that is, government and political process, is an important variable in managerial decision making. Besides the usual parliamentary and extra-parliamentary role-players, as in so many countries throughout the world, South Africa too has its fair share of political extremists; they are radicals who do not want to resolve political issues amicably. For the local government manager, diversity becomes a challenge when political differences or intolerance becomes part of the workplace. Examples are: a local government manager who uses his position of authority to promote the ideology of a specific political party; a public manager who uses politics to discriminate against workers; workers who use politics as an excuse to shirk responsibility at work; workers who use politics to promote their career development; and workers who use politics to turn conflict at work into a racial issue. Political differences and intolerance in the workplace could also contribute to different values, attitudes and perceptions among workers. If not managed well, this could lead to a negative atmosphere among workers in the workplace. A climate of political neutrality must therefore be encouraged in the public sector. The government must further ensure a climate in which the needs of the community are always put first by the civil servants under its control. According to the Presidential Review Commission Report (1998:2 of 34 in Chapter 3), government politically opted for a more “strategic change management” approach to administrative reform, which had important implications for both the functions and structures

of the public service in the new South Africa. At the functional level it involved the move towards a service that is:

- Need based.
- Mission driven and result oriented.
- Strategic in focus.
- Based on a facilitative rather than controlling state.
- Committed to quality.

At the structural level it involved the move towards a more *organic*, integrative and adaptive model of corporate governance with an increasing emphasis on:

- The decentralisation and devolution of decision-making power.
- The corresponding strengthening of managerial responsibility and accountability for results.
- The democratisation of internal work procedures.
- The establishment of flatter organisational structures.
- The introduction of improved forms of cooperation and coordination (vertical as well as horizontal).
- The development of teamwork and a project-based approach to work.
- The development of new forms of task - related rather than rule - based cultures.
- The incorporation of civil society bodies into the governance process.

The *Public Service Review* (1999/2000, 1 of 3 in Chapter 1) states that one should not forget that the public service tends to be the *most complex organisational system* in any country. When any country undertakes to reform its public service, it is taking its biggest organisational transformation challenge. Because of the political nature of the process, a wide range of actors and interests needs to be consulted, which makes the complexity of a public reform exercise more immense. *The Public Service Review Report* (1999/2000: 1 of 3 in Chapter 1) states that given this complexity, the process tends to move more slowly than



many people would like. An example would be the difficulties that Apla soldiers (the PAC's military wing) encountered on their integration into the South African National Defence Force. Apla soldiers made claims that they were discriminated against and that Umkhonto we Sizwe soldiers (the ANC military wing) and current South African National Defence Force members were receiving preferential treatment. Apla soldiers further claimed that they were being paid less than Umkhonto we Sizwe and South African National Defence force members (SABC Television News: 11-08-1994).

A key challenge faced by government is to make a decision as to what kind of public service it wants for the people of South Africa. *The White Paper on Local Government* (1998:81) identifies the following requirements needed for political leadership in local government, namely that it:

- Provides community-wide leadership and vision.
- Constantly builds capacity to make policy judgement.
- Is accountable and transparent.
- Builds partnerships and coalitions.
- Represents the diversity of interest.
- Demonstrates value for money.

Stewart (1995:17-18) identifies the following elements of change brought about by the political environment within local government, which are:

- The growth of party control.
- Changing policy differences between political parties.
- The emergence of the full-time councillor.
- The growing importance of the manifesto.
- The changing styles of leadership.
- The growing influence of the local political party.
- Challenges to established patterns of work.

- The hung authority.
- Political appointments.
- A wide range of political issues.
- New settings for the councillor.
- Communications over the officer-councillor divide.
- A change of style.

According to Fox *et al.* (1991:19), public organisations will always be influenced by national power structures and processes, such as political parties, pressure and interest groups, and political and executive authorities. These international and national power structures and processes are often analysed in terms of their nature, power positions, influence, legitimacy and stability. The results of such analysis have to be considered by local government managers when exercising their management functions. Local government managers also have the responsibility to familiarise themselves with the political system and to adjust to it. At the same time, however, they have the opportunity of influencing the political system in a manner which will benefit their organisations (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:81).

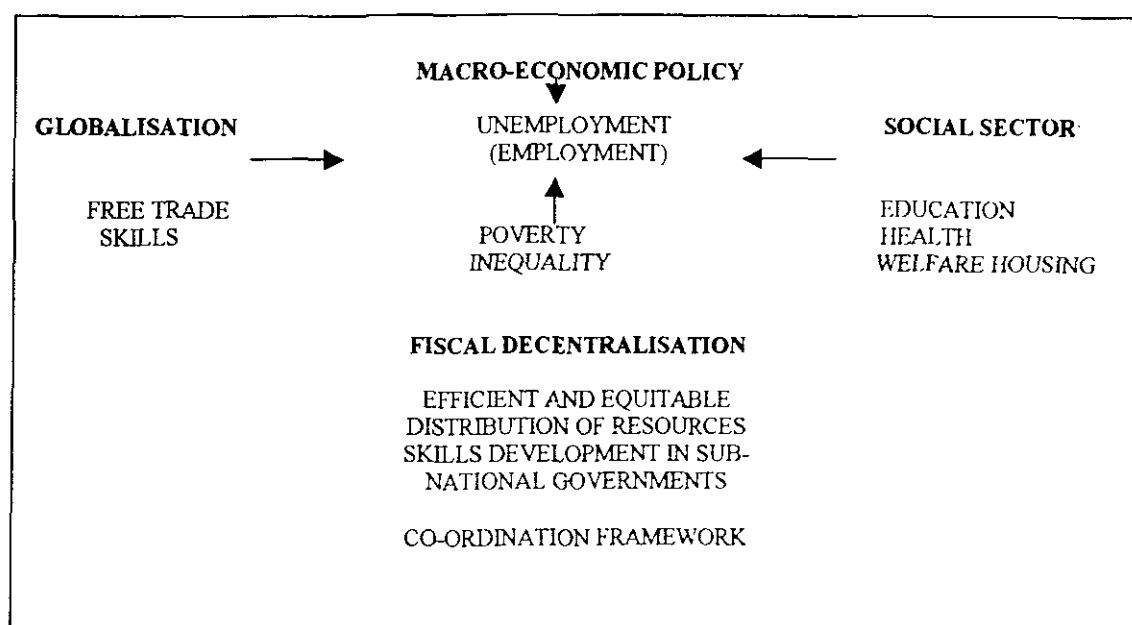
### 3.3.2 ECONOMICAL

Organisations exist within some type of economic system which exerts an influence on how they behave (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:81). The state of a country's economy is, therefore, another important factor, which influences the work environment of the public manager. Hodge and Anthony (1984:65 in Fox *et al.*, 1991:19) state that the economic system of a society is the way in which it creates and distributes wealth. According to Cronje (1993:57), the economic wellbeing of a community is further measured by the range and number of products and services produced. The economy is further influenced by technology, politics, social and international environments and national economic factors such as the structure of the economy, patterns of economic growth, inflation, rates of exchange, balance of payment trends and savings and investment trends (Fox *et al.*, 1991:19). These cross-influences cause continuous changes in the economic growth rate, levels of employment, consumer income, rate of inflation and the general state of the economy, indicated by either prosperity or

adversity (Cronje, 1993:57). Van Niekerk (1988:269) states that it is expected that approximately 5,5 million black workers will enter the South African labour market during the last four years of the 20th century. This implies a growth in the black labour market of 3,3% per year. Black labour's contribution to the economy will also increase from 69% to 77% during this period. Currently, the black labour market provides 4% of South Africa's entrepreneurs. This is expected to increase to 90% by the year 2011. Therefore, an additional 476 000 new work opportunities will have to be created annually. It also means that South Africa's current labour market of 13,6 million will increase to 23,1 million by the year 2011. Women's contribution to the labour market will grow annually to 3,2% until the year 2011 and that of men by only 2,4%. The public service, on the other hand, is reducing its role of job provider in the various regional economies of the country. Greater emphasis is now placed on shifting the importance of the public service as a job provider to other economic players. "The public service contribution to the economic active population has dropped from 7,9% in 1996 to 6,7% in 1999. In 1996 the public service constituted 12,9% of all employment opportunities. The figure dropped to a mere 8,9% by the end of 1999" (*Public Service Review Report* (2000:3 of 10 in Chapter 3). For the public manager, the economy poses many challenges. According to the *Draft White Paper on Higher Education* (1997:4 of 26 in Chapter 1), segregation and apartheid have shaped patterns of ownership, wealth distribution, employment practices and educational arrangements in the South African economy. A core economy has emerged with relatively sophisticated mining, manufacturing and service sectors, a developed technological infrastructure, a relatively skilled labour force and an advanced financial system. Certain features of this core economy affect the challenges to higher education. The performance of the economy has been relatively poor, with per capita income lagging behind the average for middle-income economies worldwide, accompanied by low investment rates. Income distribution in South Africa is among the most unequal in the world. Even when the core economy grew at its fastest, its record in job creation and income distribution was inadequate. South Africa has one of the world's highest unemployment rates. Within the formal employment sector there is an increasing shift towards those with skills developed through education and training, a trend conforming to industrialising and industrialised economies elsewhere. Pillay (2001:7) identifies six other key socio-economic challenges that relate to:

- Macro-economic policy.
- The labour market.
- Poverty and inequality.
- The social sector.
- Globalisation and the South African economy.
- Fiscal decentralisation. See figure 3.2.

**FIGURE 3.2 A SCHEMATIC FRAMEWORK OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHALLENGES FACING SOUTH AFRICA (PILLAY: 2001:27)**



### 3.2.4 TECHNOLOGICAL

If there is a single diversity factor certain to dictate change in requirements for effective public management, it is scientific and technical progress. For example, public managers in the early 1950s had no need to worry about computer matching, electronic theft, hackers violating the privacy of individual citizens or simply how to make intelligent acquisitions from extremely complicated and rapidly changing computer technology (Bozeman, 1990:211-212). Nowadays, technology has important implications for the public manager

because the availability and/or state of technology helps to set standards of management decision-making. That is why, according to Van Wyk (1988:260 in Fox *et al.*, 1991:20), it is vital that public managers consider the importance of technology. The interaction between the technological environment and public organisations should encourage public managers to:

- Cope with the changing technological environment by understanding the nature of these changes and by broadening their skills to handle these changes.
- Learn to monitor technological change and discern patterns as well as the impact of such patterns on other policy areas.
- Actively explore the link between technology and public policy as dominant issues of the future which will require unique skills and understanding (Fox *et al.*, 1991:20).
- Identify more effective methods of communication, facilitated directly and immediately, because organisations with information will expand much faster than those without, especially since quick accessing of information has become a prerequisite for efficient management.
- Take note of new management techniques and the influence they have on contemporary management (Van Niekerk, 1988:268).

Diversity factors which the local government manager should take into account, include the nature of technology, trends in technological development, and the cultural and social impact of the uses of technology on the local government manager himself, as well as on the community. The need for highly skilled manpower on the one hand, and the high value of unemployment and unskilled manpower on the other, are some of the other factors the local government manager should take note of (Fox *et al.*, 1991:20). In response to the changes created by new technology, higher-level skills are needed throughout the labour market, among both managers and their employees. Figure 3.3 shows the skills categories in the labour force.

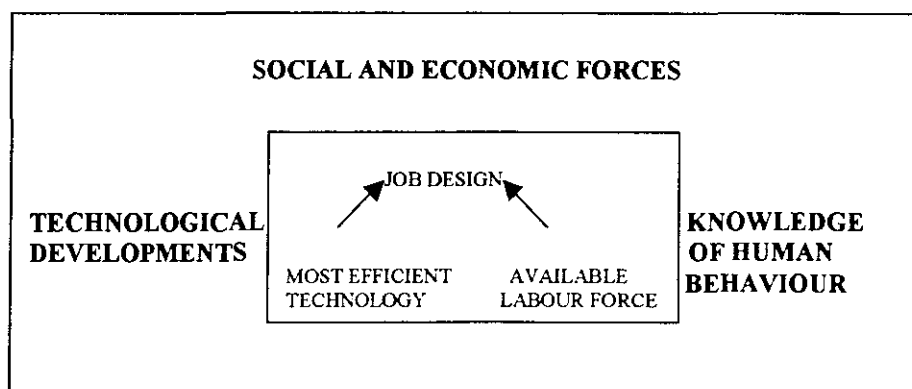
As workers become more skilled, managers must have the technical know-how to understand their work, although the change in the nature of the workforce is demanding more of managers than merely increased knowledge. As better-educated, more skilled people move into the workforce, they expect more from their jobs and their work environment. These

**FIGURE 3.3 SKILLS CATEGORIES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN LABOUR FORCE 1965 TO 2005 (SADIE, 1991:23)**

CATEGORY	1965	1975	1985	2005
Category I	2,8	2,7	2,7	2,0
II	7,4	9,5	11,8	12,5
III	31,7	35,4	35,8	37,0
IV	58,1	52,4	49,7	48,5
<b>TOTAL</b>	100,00	100,0	100,00	100,00
		<b>ABSOLUTE</b>	<b>NUMBERS</b>	
Category I	195 100	241 300	319 400	411 900
II	516 000	863 000	1 416 500	2 515 800
III	2 223 600	3 222 800	4 287 900	7 441 600
IV	4 070 100	4 775 900	5 949 600	9 786 900
<b>TOTAL</b>	7 004 800	9 103 000	11 973 400	20 156 200

expectations force managers to rethink conventional ideas about motivation, leadership, and organisational design. Technological advancement further has an effect on recruiting or placing people in the right jobs. Figure 3.4 refers to socio-technical systems, which recognise both the human factor (socio) and the technical factor (technological) in the design of jobs. The whole person is considered, and the range of factors impinging on the machine interface is explicitly considered in a systems framework (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:423). It is clear that technology, as a diversity factor, cannot be overlooked by the local government manager, and that it will still have a very important role to play in the future. Unfortunately, the picture, which emerges of the future public manager, is one in which the requirements may well exceed the talents of most individuals (Bozeman, 1993:213).

**FIGURE 3.4 SOCIO-TECHNOLOGICAL SYSTEM APPROACH TO JOB DESIGN (HODGE & ANTHONY, 1991:423)**



### 3.3.4 EDUCATIONAL

South Africa's apartheid policy has left a seemingly indelible stamp on the educational system, in many cases resulting in an educational backlog among the black population. In the years that lie ahead, this backlog will have to be eliminated and remedial steps taken as an interim measure to accommodate those who have suffered as a result of the deficiencies of the educational system(s), ensuring equal access for everyone. This is the main aim of the Reconstruction and Development Programme of the new Government of National Unity. "We must develop an integrated system of education and training that provides equal opportunities to all irrespective of race, colour, sex, class, language, age, religion, geographical location, or politics or other opinion. It must address the development of knowledge and skills that can be used to produce high-quality goods and services in such a way as to enable us to develop our cultures, our society and our economy. Education must also promote understanding, tolerance, and friendship among all South Africans and must advance the principles contained in the Bill of Rights" (RDP, 1993:60).

*The Draft White Paper on Higher Education* (1997: 4 of 26 in Chapter 1) has set itself several related purposes, namely to:

- Meet the learning needs and aspirations of individuals through the development of their intellectual abilities and aptitudes. It equips individuals to make the best use of their talents and of the opportunities offered by society for self-fulfilment.
- Provide the labour market, in a knowledge-driven and knowledge-dependent society, with the high-level competencies and expertise necessary for the growth and prosperity of a modern economy.
- Take responsibility for the socialisation of enlightened, responsible and constructively critical citizens.
- Directly engage in the creation, transmission and evaluation of knowledge

With regard to human resource development, not only was education affected by apartheid, but **training and development** as well. Pekeur (1992:1-5) highlighted the unequal training received by unskilled and semi-skilled workers in the civil service and the effect it had on the performance of these workers. *The Commission on Higher Education Reports* (2000:7 of 48 in Chapter 1) points out that equity should mean more than access into higher education. It must incorporate equity of opportunity - environments in which learners, through academic support, excellent teaching and mentoring and other initiatives, genuinely have every chance of succeeding. Equity, to be meaningful, also entails ensuring that learners have access to quality education, and graduate with the relevant knowledge, competencies, skills and attributes that are required for any occupation or profession. According to Human and Bowmaker-Falconer (1992:26), it would appear that historically, in both this country and the USA, the development of black people was (and in many instances still is) conceptualised simply in terms of putting knowledge and skills into black people and then expecting them to function in a "white" world which remains fundamentally unchanged. If they fail to perform, the conclusion is that they are lazy, stupid and uneducable and that blacks just do not have what it takes. This was one of the primary reasons why development programmes failed. In some cases, it cost blacks their jobs. Another reason for the failure of development programmes was the comfort levels that existed in some organisations.

The latter point can be illustrated by the example quoted by Copeland (1988b:53), one that is probably common in many public sector organisations in South Africa. "There are few



women and fewer minorities [in South Africa it will be the majorities] at the top. There is the excuse that women and blacks haven't been in the labour pool long enough to work [their way] up, but that is questionable. There are plenty of women and minorities qualified for any one of those jobs. The real reason is comfort level. People are comfortable with others who look, act, and think like themselves. So the people in power bring in others like themselves. This distrust of the abilities of others causes discrimination." Other managers have biases so deeply rooted that they find themselves either rejecting people who are different from themselves, insisting on traditional male and female roles. "Some try to be different, even though they may experience confusion and feel a little overwhelmed. This may be because they are not clear about the difference or nature of the difference present in today's workforce. Perhaps they are confused about why management practices taught in the past that worked so well for so long are now obsolete" (Jamieson, 1991:8). The Government's commitment to promote active labour market policies and ensure democracy, non-racism, non-sexism, equity and redress to avoid the pitfalls of the past, is well demonstrated in the legislative framework it established, namely the:

- White Paper on Public Service Transformation, 1995.
- Batho Pele White Paper, 1997.
- Employment Equity Act, 1998.
- White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, 1998.
- Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa, 2001.
- Presidential Review Commission Report, 1998
- Public Service Act, 1994.
- Public Service Regulations, 1999.
- Skills Development Act, 1998.
- Skills Development levels, 1999.
- The National Skills Development Strategy for South Africa, 2001.
- The South African Qualification Authority Act, 1995.

### 3.3.5 RELIGIOUS

Approximately 68 per cent of South Africans profess to be Christians. Minority religious groups such as, Hindus (1,5 percent), Moslems (Islam) [2 per cent], indigenous beliefs and animist (28,5percent) also need to be accommodated (<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/sf.html>). Despite the predominance of Christianity in South Africa, it appears that in the past people of colour could rarely testify to having experienced genuine Christian love and respect. In fact, racially mixed congregations were prohibited in some churches, which actually meant that blacks were not allowed into white churches. In many instances this led to a belief among blacks that the Holy Bible was only for whites and that blacks were not mentioned in it. God, it was believed, supported only white people and forgot about black people during apartheid in South Africa. For Christians to live amicably together is non-negotiable, as epitomised by the words of King (1992:3): "People, I just want to say, can we all get along? Can we stop making it horrible? We're stuck here for a while. Let's try to work it out." A new Bill of Fundamental Rights entrenches religious freedom as a basic right.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), provide for freedom of all religions. The Bill of rights states that: "There shall be freedom to worship and tolerance of all religions, and no State or official religion shall be established. The institution of religion shall be separate from the State, but nothing in this Constitution shall prevent them from co-operating with the State with a view to furthering the objectives of this Constitution, nor from bearing witness and commenting on the actions of the State. Places associated with religious observance shall be respected, and no one shall be barred from entering them on grounds of race" (Togni, 1994:Appendix A:238). However, the possibility now exists that Christian religious instruction may cease to be compulsory at schools. School curricula previously underpinned the Christian-National ideology. In terms of Chapter 3 of the Interim Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1993 (Act 200 of 1993), an appropriate authority must authorise an institution to provide religious instruction. The government-of-the-day could therefore possibly withhold permission to do so. This action could lead to the propagation of humanism and/or secularism. Another possibility is that, despite the freedom of religion entrenched in the Bill of Rights for the transformation period,

discrimination in respect of religion may still occur in the sense that religious freedom may not be respected in the workplace.

The following example by Scarpelo and Ledvinka (1988:143) could serve as reference: "One airline employee whose religion observed Saturday Sabbath challenged the seniority rules that forced him to work on Saturdays. The airline asked for volunteers to trade shifts with him, but when nobody volunteered, it refused to make the trade forcibly. Nor would the airline agree to pay someone else overtime to do the employee's work or allow the employee to work only four days a week, taking Saturday off. Did the airline make reasonable accommodation? It certainly did not go out of its way to accommodate the employee's religious observance." This example will serve as a challenge to the new Government of National Unity because, although the Bill of Rights for the transformation provides for religious freedom, it is not foolproof with regard to discrimination on the grounds of religious beliefs. The First Amendment to the United States Constitution states that the "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof". Some observers have argued that this clause prohibits Congress from passing any law telling any private party to conform to the religious demands of others.

The term "religious" includes all aspects of religious observance and practice as well as belief. An employer should demonstrate that he is able to reasonably accommodate an employee's or prospective employee's religious observance without undue hardship for the conduct of the employee's business. A reappraisal of the role of religion in South African society is needed because of the country's religious diversity.

### **3.3.6 CULTURAL**

Culture refers to patterns of behaviour and thinking by which means members of groups interact with one another. These patterns are shaped by ethnicity, religion, social and economic status, ideology, gender, lifestyle, knowledge, belief(s), art, artefacts, morals, law, custom(s), norms, values, symbols and many other factors (Kemp, 1992b:58). It also implies rules for behaviour, those understood and those implied (McGee, 1972:196). Culture is

usually learnt and handed down from generation to generation (Adey, 1990:41), i.e., the social heritage of people, viz. the learnt patterns for thinking, feeling and acting which characterise a population or society, including the expression of these patterns in material things (Van der Zander, 1988:58). A cross-fertilisation of values and the intercultural contact needed could not occur because South Africans were isolated from one another for many years by apartheid measures, which accentuated diversity. The result was that each group, minorities and majorities, became parochial in its outlook and gradually developed an intolerance of others' customs and cultural traits. The situation arose where we perceived those who differed culturally from us as the "other":

The world consists of us and them;  
 We are right, they are wrong;  
 We are good, they are bad;  
 We are beautiful, they are ugly (Simons, 1989:14).

The various groups took their own subjective cultural experiences and perceptions as the point of departure. According to Malan (1993:5), South African society is further structured in such a way that certain cultural master codes dominate others, e.g., those of race (white/black is the norm and white is often considered to be superior), sex (male), class (middle-class, white-collar workers), education (high school/university), religion (Christian/Protestant), wealth and status (ownership of a residence, car), age (productive adulthood), language proficiency (literate, in command of Standard English or Afrikaans) and other positions of power. These codes are often used as filters to brand others as inferior. All this has contributed to an ethos of ethnocentrism in South Africa. The term ethnocentrism refers to the tendency to assume that one's own culture and way of life is superior to all others (*Society Today*, 1973:528). Xenocentrism could also be the belief that the products, styles or ideas of one's own society are inferior to those that originated elsewhere, e.g., those imported from overseas. The culture and identity crisis among the Coloured people of being "inferior" to Whites arose because, despite the fact that they shared the "oppressor's" language, they were "racially mixed" and were uncertain where they belonged in the South African context (Schaeffer, 1989:81-82).

Culture also accommodates differences in beliefs, values, norms, mores, symbols and

ideologies. In this regard, it is not only religious beliefs which tend to be taken for granted when one refers to beliefs, but also ordinary (everyday) beliefs. Ordinary beliefs or views are broad statements, which reflect people's assessments and awareness of their interaction with their environment and others (Adey,1990:41). Beliefs could be coupled with occupation, social class, gender, age and also physiological and physical limitations, e.g., the belief that women are incapable of doing strenuous manual work. South Africans may have to move towards cultural relativism, which implies the understanding of another person's beliefs and behaviour in terms of that person's specific culture (Kogod,1991:7). Values are concepts, goals or activities defined as significant in a society things worth being or doing or having (McGee, 1972:208). Sometimes values come from beliefs, which guide people towards customs or acceptable behaviour within the society. Such values tend to be lasting and are not easily changed. They also influence perceptions and attitudes (Adey,1990:41). Understanding values in an intercultural context should start with an analysis of one's own values. Which values are important to one and one's group, and which values are ascribed to one's group by other groups?

“Norms define what is required or acceptable (proper) behaviour in certain groups or situations ... they imply that the individual should, ought to or must follow identifiable behavioural patterns” (*Society Today*, 1973:41). Norms include law, custom, morality, propriety, etiquette and usages (McGee, 1972:202). Mores are a special group of norms about which the members of society are extremely conscious and which they regard as essential (vital) for the well being of the group (*Society Today*, 1973:530). There is an air of inviolability surrounding mores. In fact, those who violate mores could be punished (*Society Today*, 1973:42). Mores are customary or habitual rules for behaviour passed on from generation to generation (i.e., from the ancestors) (McGee, 1972:202). Mores involve matters of health, sex, religion, property and other activities (*Society Today*, 1973:530).

Every culture also has its own symbols. A national flag, for example, is an important symbol, which rallies emotions and allegiance. The symbols of a religion are important to a member of that particular religion or denomination. The Voortrekker Monument is of great importance in the Afrikaner culture (Adey, 1990:41). Blacks viewed apartheid as a symbol of

domination, which took away their freedom. For Afrikaners it was simply a method to protect their own freedom and culture. Currently, almost all major national symbols have a Western basis, with the exception of natural emblems. For symbols to appeal to most South Africans, they should reflect the essence of Africa as a mother archetype, while simultaneously acknowledging ties with Europe and Asia. A symbol should be acceptable to everybody, and to ensure acceptability, it should incorporate most of the following characteristics:

- It should be unifying, with most members of the population seeing it as representative of "our" country.
- It should not be divisive. Although it may reflect the rich diversity of the country and its peoples, it should in no way represent domination and exploitation of any kind.
- It should embody important, shared universal values such as tolerance, fairness, equality and patriotism and should be easily associated with the same.
- It should represent shared ideals and inspirations. It should inspire the people to strive towards peace, freedom, prosperity, security, etc. (Malan, 1993:Appendix C:6).

According to Malan (1993:10), ideologies within a culture can be seen as systems of ideas and values, particularly by those concerned with social life on which political programmes are often based. For example, the ideology behind the politics of apartheid to protect the rights and values of the whites was formulated around the following myths: "If blacks are given more rights, then the whites in South Africa will be driven out or have no say in government. Blacks have no tradition of democracy; if they were to be given political power, a dictatorship would inevitably follow. Black South Africa is not made up of one nation, but of different ethnic groups who want to determine their own separate destinies. In any case, if left to their own devices, these different groups would all lapse into faction-fighting and intertribal wars; and blacks are generally quite satisfied with conditions. It is the agitators who stir things up" (Fredman *et al.*, 1983:5-12). The ideology of self-determination propagated by "certain" Afrikaners can also serve as an example.

Culture plays an important role within the workplace. For the local government manager, it could become a destructive factor if he ignores its importance and sensitive nature.

### **3.3.7 SOCIAL**

In South African society, Blacks, Whites, Coloureds and Asians generally live in geographically and socially segregated communities created by the numerous apartheid structures and the erstwhile segregation policies. These communities seldom had any contact on a personal level, certainly not until they either enrolled at a tertiary institution or gained employment. Their perceptions of other races were shaped by stereotyped images created by the observation of like-race family, friends and colleagues, rather than by personal experience(s) (Ross-Gordon et al., 1990:50). This isolation created a climate of prejudice and misunderstanding in South African society. Perception is the way one selects, sorts, arranges, processes and interprets stimuli and information from one's environment to synthesise it into what considers to be a meaningful and structured approach to one's world (Adey, 1990:41). Prejudice is a set of preconceived beliefs (opinions) and includes ethnocentrism, which is the tendency to judge other cultures by one's own standards (Eurocentricism would entail judging all others in terms of Western-European standards). Prejudice contends that characteristics or traits are inherited, while beliefs are taught by family, friends, peers and teachers (MacDonald Series, 1990a). Social diversity is sometimes tied to class, rank and status. Classes are sometimes identified as groups, sometimes as social categories; in fact they may be either (Chinoy, 1964:86). A rank is a person's position in the hierarchy of domination or subordination (McGee, 1972:203). Status is a place or position in the system of social relationships. Status is a special kind of role imposed on the individual as a consequence of his perceived membership in a socially significant category. The principal status is sex, age and race (McGee, 1972:207).

Social diversity will provide public sector managers with another challenge, especially when they have a multicultural diverse workforce. The socialisation pattern of a multicultural workforce will differ from culture to culture. This becomes even more of a challenge when every cultural group sees its process of socialisation as the correct one. In fact, every group's

social experience with regard to certain issues in the workplace will further differ in issues such as:

### **3.3.7.1 WORK**

Differences will exist between diverse groups with regard to attitudes toward work, the locus of control, and the proper relationship between the task effort and social interaction. The example by Kotze (1993:12) is mentioned in this regard. He distinguishes between individual consciousness (a Western character trend) and collective consciousness (an African cultural trend): "To the individual consciousness work has intrinsic value: they (a Westerner) will toil for the sake of their personal careers first and foremost, since a career is the primary vehicle by which social standing is enhanced." His professional achievements as well as diligence and reliability in the workplace will therefore judge the individual. The collective consciousness, which generally does not show equal enthusiasm for diligence and reliability, will understandably be a source of exasperation. They (Africans) are perceived as being lazy, without initiative, unreliable, prone to absence from work (frequently attending funerals, visiting ill relatives or for other obscure reasons). According to Kotze (1993:13), there are three reasons for this behavioural pattern among blacks. Firstly, their collective consciousness simply attaches too much value to social life for it to be subordinate to the demands of employment. Secondly, black workers, for reasons such as poverty, are dependent on a social group or network since their jobs cannot provide all their needs - they therefore simply cannot afford to give their undivided loyalty to their jobs. Thirdly, black workers often do not feel part of the workplace, because they are people for whom active, social belonging is a natural and vital part of living. Figure 3.5 by Munter (1993:71) refers to some of the differences in work-related values.

### **3.5.7.2 TIME AND SPACE**

Time is experienced differently from social group to social group. In African cultures, time is experienced in a manner different from the Western culture. According to Malan (1993:15) and Kotze (1993:15), the Western culture sees "time as money" or defined in terms of



**FIGURE 3.5 DIFFERENCES IN WORK-RELATED VALUES (MUNTER, 1993:71)**

DIMENSIONS DIFFERENTIATED	COMMUNICATION IMPLICATIONS
<p><b>1. POWER DISTANCE</b> Extent to which power is unequally distributed, centralised, and autocratic- and such leadership is accepted by all members.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Highest power distance cultures: Philippines, Venezuela, Mexico</li> <li>• Lowest power distance cultures: Israel, Denmark, Austria</li> <li>• United States: somewhat low (15 out of 40)</li> </ul>	<p><b>COMMUNICATION STYLE, AUDIENCE SELECTION</b></p>
<p><b>2. INDIVIDUALISM/COLLECTIVISM</b> Extent to which people define themselves as individuals or part of a larger group.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Most individual cultures: United States, Australia, Great Britain</li> <li>• Most collective cultures: Saudi Arabia, Venezuela, Columbia, Peru</li> <li>• United States: Fairly low (9 out of 40)</li> </ul>	<p><b>COMMUNICATION STYLE, AUDIENCE SELECTION</b></p>
<p><b>3. UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE</b> Extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Highest uncertainty avoidance: Japan, Portugal, Greece</li> <li>• Lowest uncertainty avoidance: Singapore, Hong Kong, Denmark</li> <li>• United States: Fairly low (9 out of 40)</li> </ul>	<p><b>AUDIENCE MOTIVATION</b></p>
<p><b>4. MASCULINITY/FEMINITY</b> Extent to which dominant values emphasise assertiveness and materialism ("masculine") versus people concern for others, and quality of life ("feminine")</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Most masculine cultures: Japan, Austria, Switzerland, Italy</li> <li>• Most feminine cultures: Sweden, Norway, Netherlands, Denmark</li> <li>• United States: Somewhat masculine (28 out of 40)</li> </ul>	<p><b>AUDIENCE MOTIVATION</b></p>

economic surplus, prosperity and the future. Being late for work is almost tantamount to stealing, and arriving late for a meeting is regarded as rude. Punctuality is important in the Western culture, whereas in the African culture, quality of work is more important than

arriving on time. Africans define time in terms of the past (revering ancestors and elderly people) and the immediate present, regarding punctuality as irrelevant.

People from Western cultures need more physical private space. If this space is invaded, in a lift, for example, eyes are averted and if physical contact is made, people become decidedly uncomfortable. According to Malan (1993:15), Germans need a lot of physical space. Therefore, situations which give rise to feelings of being socially "drowned" cause intense emotional discomfort. These people would then experience a lack of personal identity and obliteration of the ego (Kotze, 1993:10). People from African cultures require far less physical space. They are able to crowd into the restricted space of a small room or vehicle with no sign of emotional unease. This is not to say that there is no limit to their tolerance in this regard (Kotze, 1993:8).

### **3.3.7.3 SOCIAL COMMUNICATION**

People with a collective consciousness (African culture) are socially more open when it comes to communication, whereas people with an individual consciousness (Western culture) are socially closed. Those from an African culture will, with the greatest ease, conduct a conversation across the width of a busy street. This is not rowdiness, but, in fact, part of their social openness. The opposite holds true in the Western culture. When Westerners converse they use a soft, confidential tone. When two or more of them enter a lift and find just one other person already in it, they tend to terminate their conversation immediately (Kotze, 1993:8). This, in a sense, also affects the use of body language in the workplace. Greater emphasis is placed on eye contact in the white culture than in the black culture. Misinterpretations of body language can definitely contribute to prejudice and even mistrust.

### **3.3.7.4 RELATIONSHIPS AND ROLES**

Building and understanding relationships is another challenge facing the public manager. Misunderstandings resulting from cultural differences, distrust, racial tension, inter-group conflict, competition and/or a climate of non-co-operation could affect group and inter-group

relationships at work. The influence of culture on group and inter-group relations cannot be ignored. For one group, co-operation may be very important, for another, individualism or competition may be more important in group or inter-group relations. Figure 3.6 shows the effect group and inter-group co-operation and competition, or individuality, may have on the performance and relations of workers in the workplace.

**FIGURE 3.6 THE EFFECTS OF GROUP AND INTER-GROUP CO-OPERATION AND COMPETITION ON THE PERFORMANCE AND RELATIONS OF WORKERS IN THE WORKPLACE (GRAHAM, 1994:42)**

	<b>CO-OPERATION</b>	<b>COMPETITION</b>
<b>Substitutability</b>	Individuals will substitute for each other to achieve goal.	There will be separate efforts to wrest goal from the other party.
<b>Inducibility</b>	Mutuality: good faith.	Division: conflict.
<b>Communication</b>	Full; open; truthful.	Unreliable; misleading; limited; impoverished.
<b>Perception</b>	Positive; open; flexible.	Poor, divergent.
<b>Task orientation</b>	Joint effort.	Imposed by the stronger upon the weaker party.
<b>Behaviour</b>	Based on trust.	Based on strength and fear.
<b>Evaluation of acts</b>	Constructive support.	Suspicious, denigratory
<b>Settlement of conflicts</b>	On basis of trust; adjustment and co-ordination	On basis of fear and mistrust; solution imposed by stronger party.
<b>Use of resources</b>	Division of labour, efficient use of resources.	Duplication of work; waste of resources.
<b>Pathogeny</b>	Vested interests; nepotism; over-conformity; rigidity (don't rock the boat); group-think.	Perceptual distortion; self deception, the dialogue of the deaf, unwitting involvement towards escalation of conflict: coercion, mirror-imaging; stereotyping; simplistic thinking; mistrust.

The following example by Lowen (1993: 12) shows the effect culture has on group and inter-group relations: "Training managers say that in racially mixed seminars and workshops they

can pick up this difference through body language. If white employees disagree with what is being said they will frown, shake their head, raise their hand and express their opinion. Black employees remain passive and will only express their opinion after talking with the group." Role expectations between cultures also vary considerably. Gender, status, family and situational role variations may result in strained and confusing interaction in the workplace.

### **3.3.7.5 RITUALS AND SUPERSTITIONS**

One culture's "intelligent practices" are often considered to be another culture's rituals and superstitions. A worker's behaviour may seem odd or unacceptable to others but may be perfectly normal in his or her own cultural context. An example: a black employee requests compassionate leave because his father has died and he needs to attend the funeral. His leave is granted. Two months later he makes the same request (Lowen, 1993:12). This time the funeral could be that of an uncle, who in the black culture is also regarded as a father, deserving of the same respect given to a biological father. For someone from the Western culture this may seem highly suspicious. The immediate thought could be that this person is either taking a chance, is very stupid, or just plain lazy. It could be just the opposite. The snake is perceived by Western culture as a dangerous reptile, but Japanese culture regards it as having very important healing powers. If understood, the behaviour of others may therefore call for correction rather than punishment (Lowen, 1993:12)

### **3.3.7.6 VALUE OF GROUP VERSUS INDIVIDUAL ALLEGIANCES**

Perhaps the most outstanding cross-cultural difference is the way in which people adjust to others through a series of events in which they as individuals and as part of a group are involved. This has a very distinct effect on the management styles that are successful for different groups. Allegiances help us understand and predict individual behaviour in the workplace (Sheldon & Cushner, 1990:92). This point could be illustrated by the differences in family ties between African and Western cultures. Africans tend to have a more extended concept of family than whites; consider the elaborate use of "brother and sisters" (Malan, 1993:16). Children from most African cultures regard themselves as group members rather

than as independent individuals. Children from Western cultures, on the other hand, are educated to become individualists who will eventually become independent of their family and survive in a highly technological, competitive environment. They are taught to be assertive, creative and use their initiative (Lowen, 1993,12-13). It is therefore important that the local government manager takes note of the social diversity of his diverse workforce.

### **3.3.8 RACIAL**

"Race", according to Kuper (1984:3), is a biological term, which draws attention to some aspects of an individual's physical make-up, among them the colour of his skin, the shape of his eyes, the texture of his skin, his bone size and body proportions. These features are used to identify a person as belonging to certain racial group. The very fabric of South African society was organised around the notion of "race". The term "race" in South Africa had a negative impact on its black people. It was the instrument used to discriminate against people of colour, called direct racial discrimination. Direct racial discrimination arises when one person treats another less favourably than he would treat someone else on racial grounds (Howard, 1984:33). This treatment robbed people of colour of their youth, family and friends, causing great pain over many generations

Unfortunately, racial differences were of decisive importance in the workplace. Whites occupied the top positions, while other groups were expected to supply the necessary cheap labour to industry, farms and mines (Kuper, 1984:55). Fuhr (1992b:29) describes the challenge with regard to racial discrimination in the workplace as follows: "Now that the end of apartheid is in sight, most white managers will tell you that racial discrimination in the work environment is a thing of the past. Ask the same question of black workers and the response is often quite the opposite. Managers tend to play down the role of racism in their organisational problems, preferring to lay the blame on the government's apartheid practices. They claim that forced segregation should now be remedied by bringing people together. In other words by applying a process of assimilation." According to Fuhr, this will not work because integrating two fundamentally unequal races will merely result in the dominant white race imposing its will on blacks. This means that blacks must change to fit into the existing

white culture of the organisation and that the status quo will remain unchanged. Steve Biko, who proclaimed that too many white managers treated black employees like "abnormal whites", challenged this notion. In their attempt to create "white" blacks, white managers crushed the spirit of their black workers (Fuhr, 1992b:29).

Fear of other groups is one of the results of racism. White and Black South Africans grew up with the belief that they were not to trust one another. Whites perceived Blacks as the enemy who wanted to take away from them all that they had worked for. They were regarded as inferior, and therefore had no right to expect the same privileges enjoyed by Whites. Blacks were an enraged, unpredictable people who had no respect for the white man and were bent on exacting revenge. Black people grew up fearing that they could at any time be harassed, arrested or killed, lose their property or be cheated out of promotion at work. They felt that Whites could not be trusted because one never knew what they would do next (Fuhr, 1992b: 29-30). These fears were formulated around myths which developed regarding the other groups because Black and White South Africans were segregated from one another for such a long time. The media unfortunately perpetuated these myths. These fears led to racial sensitivity, anxiety and arrogance in the workplace. Most White South African managers learned to manage within a racially segregated society. They learned how to live with racism and, in many cases, how to take advantage of it. They learned the power of instilling fear and how best to manipulate it. The sentiment was that Blacks only respected someone they feared (Fuhr, 1993:15).

Many White managers did not know how to solve racism in the workplace. As a result, blacks would tend to make their white employees anxious, pointing out the perceived dangers behind affirmative action programmes e.g., reverse discrimination, the feeling being that White people would lose their jobs and standards would be lowered to allow Black people entry to top positions. Some White managers were inclined to arrogance, acting in a superior manner. They felt they were always right and, if you were Black, you were always wrong. On the other hand, Black managers feared that White managers would arrange themselves into groups working against them, would manipulate them and that Whites had hidden agendas. To many Blacks who made it to the top committed themselves to a conspiracy of silence

regarding racism. Black managers were scared to talk because they believed that White managers would think they were radicals, intent on causing problems in the workplace. Such dismissed managers would not be promoted and receive competitive salaries because of their reputation in the organisation. They were scared of losing their privileges (service benefits) and of being fired. Some Black managers were inclined to "act White", trying to forget the bad experiences they went through as black people (Voices, 1993: a programme shown on National Network Television). Fear therefore encouraged a culture of mistrust between Black and White.

Despite all this, Black people at this stage generally seem to be willing to forget the past and focus on the future. The then ANC spokesperson, Carl Niehaus (in Sonn, 1993:30-31) says that against the backdrop of history, it is nothing short of remarkable that Black people have adhered to the basic principle of non-racialism and that they are willing to embrace those white people who are willing to change. For an atmosphere of non-racialism to exist in South Africa, people should start the process of change within themselves, a change that will ensure better attitudes and a sense of co-operation between all race groups. The process of managing racial diversity in the workplace will not be successful if the work environment is not tolerant of diversity. A change in organisational culture and management style is vital. If this does not happen, a process of indirect racial discrimination may result. Indirect racial discrimination refers to treatment which may be described as formal equality between racial groups - treatment that is or could be discriminatory in its effect on one particular racial group. Examples of different kinds of barriers are highlighted in Figure 3.7 (Howard, 1984:33).

In 1995 the New Government of National Unity stated that it intended setting up race monitors, defined as "affirmative action monitoring mechanisms", to ensure that affirmative action was carried out in both the public and private sectors. According to the ANC, companies may be required to keep records of employees and, in some cases, even of customers. This is needed to monitor steps to end discrimination on the grounds of race and gender (Stuart, 1994:1). In the Public Service, the Reconstruction and Development Programme will probably focus more on specific racial classifications and racial quotas. Within two years of the implementation of the Programme, recruitment and training should

begin reflecting South African society in terms of race, class and gender. The composition of personnel in the public sector, including parastatals, should in future be a true reflection of the national distribution of race and gender (Stuart, 1994:2).

**FIGURE 3.7 EXAMPLE OF POSSIBLE BARRIERS, WHICH CREATE INDIRECT AND DIRECT RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN THE WORKPLACE 7 (HOWARD, 1984:33)**

- You rely on existing staff to introduce new applicants, and your workforce is at present predominantly white.
- Vacancies are not advertised widely.
- Your applicants are drawn mainly from one agency, school or job centre in a white area, or from a college, technikon or university where ethnic minorities are under represented.
- The organisation has a white image.
- The employment agencies you use do not refer ethnic minority applicants.

Mr Tony Leon, Leader of the Democratic Party, which was not part of the Government of National Unity, states that race-based quotas would not be lawful in terms of the new constitution. Clearly, imbalances have to be addressed and people who were disadvantaged in the past have to benefit from new initiatives. Race and gender were factors, but it would be completely inappropriate to make race the focus of government programmes. Mr Leon also says that one couldn't arrive at a non-racial situation by working on the basis of race; one has to strike a balance (Stuart, 1994:2).

Racial discrimination and fear of other groups will not disappear overnight. It will take time before any real change is evident. The situations in Rwanda and Bosnia should serve as examples of the destructiveness of racism and ethnicity to the people of South Africa. South



Africa should avoid a similar situation at all costs. The failure of apartheid is ample proof of the futility of attempts to segregate people on the basis of race. The new Government of National Unity should never lose sight of this fact.

### 3.3.9 GENDER

Women make up a growing proportion of the South African labour force. It is expected that more and more women will enter the labour market, and at a much faster rate than men. In 1961, men and women made up 79% and 21% respectively of the labour force in South Africa. According to the *Sunday Times* (1994:3) that meant one in every 20 women was economically active. By 1991, the proportion of men in the labour force had dwindled to 61%. By 2011, a further decrease of 3% to 58% is expected. In contrast to the male labour force, in 1991, one in four women had moved into the workplace (*Sunday Times*, 1994:3). Matsau (1994:15) and the *Sunday Times* (1994:3) further stated that women at that time constituted 36% to 41% of the total labour force in South Africa, but that only 3% of them held professional, managerial or executive positions. Thus, in a country of an estimated 35 million people, only about half a million women have reached the higher career levels. Figure 3.8 refers to differences in communication styles between women and men

As a group, **women** are prone to stereotyping. Common stereotypes are:

- They are chatty and bitchy.
- They are not serious about their careers.
- They are emotionally unstable.
- They "sleep" their way up the career ladder.
- They are indecisive and less competent (than men).
- They are more prone to absence from work (than men).
- They are less committed to their jobs and their organisation (than men) (Londen & Rosener, 1991:67).

Stereotypes that have been created about **men** are:

- They think they know everything.
- They have a macho attitude.
- They suppress their feelings.
- They prefer subservient women.
- They believe those nurturing men are wimps.
- They are chauvinists (Londen & Rosener, 1991:67 and Human, 1992a: 7).

**FIGURE 3.8 COMMON DIFFERENCES IN COMMUNICATION STYLES BETWEEN WOMEN AND MEN (LAABS, 1994:84)**

WOMEN	MEN
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Process-orientated (End sentences in questions - This is a chair?)</li> <li>• Story telling</li> <li>• Nodding head means hearing information</li> <li>• More eye contact</li> <li>• Need less "ear" time</li> <li>• Ask directions this promotes relationship building</li> <li>• Don't grab the floor during meetings</li> <li>• Speak more softly</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Finite (End sentences in definitives - This is a chair)</li> <li>• Succinct</li> <li>• Nodding head means yes</li> <li>• Less eye contact</li> <li>• Need more "ear" time</li> <li>• Don't ask directions - inhibit hierarchical relationships</li> <li>• Grab the floor during meetings</li> <li>• Speak more loudly</li> </ul>

Because of stereotyping and misconceptions regarding women employees, they are undervalued in the workplace. Men receive more support up the professional ladder, which enables them to make the choices which suit their lives best (Matsau, 1994:14). Socially, women are still excluded from the exclusive "old boys' networks". Other societal pressures and traditional values demand that women be more submissive and play a subservient role to men. Those women, who dare to escape the traditional net and wander off towards the boardroom, are confronted by the same attitudes (Matsau, 1994:15). Other issues that need attention with regard to equality for women in the workplace are:

- Improved measures to handle sexual harassment in the workplace should be introduced.
- No discrimination with regard to salaries between men and women should be allowed.
- Medical schemes must ensure the same dependent status for women as for men.
- Retirement age and retirement schemes must be the same as for men.
- Maternity leave must be allowed and accepted as natural career breaks by organisations.
- Flexi-time must be investigated and adopted.
- Workplace crèches should be established (Katz, 1992:16-17).

Perhaps the legal reforms relating to the status of women in the new South African Constitution of 1996, Act 108 of 1996, which enshrines non-racism and non-sexism, as well as the new marriage and land laws and the family code, could lay the foundation for gender equality (Loxten, 1993d, 17). Furthermore, the view that women do not need to work is contradicted by past and present experience. Women have always worked to help sustain their families. What has varied has been the location and conditions of labour (Fernandez, 1991:91).

### **3.3.10 SEXUAL ORIENTATION**

Sexual orientation is another issue which needs the attention of the public manager in the workplace. People from the homosexual orientation are also considered in the South African Constitution. South Africa's gay and lesbian population is estimated to be around 3,6 million (Kooma, 1994a:11). South African homosexuals wish to claim their human rights through visibility. According to Kooma (1994a:11), this is not a novel approach. In Britain, homosexuals stormed parliament to demand that the age of consent for homosexual men be dropped from 21 to 16 years. The American gay community is always aggressively and visibly in the news. In South Africa, the annual Gay Pride march is the main homosexual event on the calendar. The Gay and Lesbian Organisation of the Witwatersrand (GLOW), the most vocal group in the region, claims a membership of just below a thousand (Kooma, 1994b:11). Stereotyping which has been used against lesbians and gay men is:

- Not fit to be parents.
- Sexual beings first and foremost.
- Sexually aggressive ("hit on straights").
- Unclean and unholy.
- Immoral.
- All infected with the Aids virus.
- Choose not to be straight.

Stereotypes used against heterosexual people are that they are:

- Insensitive.
- Homophobic.
- Uptight about their own sexuality.
- Less feminine .
- Less masculine (Londen & Rosener, 1991:68).

Sexual orientation is a very sensitive and sometimes emotional issue in the workplace. In fact it has often been regarded as a taboo issue. People of homosexual orientation do not talk about their beliefs/feelings in the workplace because of a fear of being victimised. Homosexuality affects work relations, socialisation patterns and communication trends in the workplace. According to Segal (1995:27-33), this is caused by the following arguments of supervisors:

- Homosexual orientation is different from race because orientation is a matter of choice.
- There are health concerns about working with gay people.
- Whatever rights gays and lesbians may have in the workplace must be regarded as ordinary to the supervisor's own religious beliefs.

It is essential that the local government manager should take note of this and handle problems which may occur with the greatest sensitivity.

### 3.3.11 PHYSICAL DISABILITY

Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, refers to the individual's fundamental rights and states that "No person shall be unfairly discriminated against, directly or indirectly, and, without derogating from the generality of this provision, on one or more of the following grounds in particular: race, gender, sex, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, **age**, **disability**, religion, conscience, belief, culture or language."

People with physical disabilities encounter the same types of discrimination in the workplace as people from different racial and gender backgrounds. They are also subject to stereotyped labelling, perceptions and prejudice. In many cases this is due to a lack of information and ignorance regarding physically disabled people in the workplace. Examples of physical disability stereotyping of differently abled and physically abled are:

#### **Differently abled people are:**

- Intellectually impaired.
- Charity cases "fortunate to have jobs".
- Have no romantic/sexual/emotional life.
- Have their success qualified: "Not bad for a handicapped person".
- Not productive.
- Should be pitied.
- Cannot carry own load.

#### **Physically abled people:**

- Assume all disabilities can be seen and recognised.
- Are patronising.
- Deny own frailty/mortality.
- Are amazed at accomplishments of differently abled.
- Tend to overreact (Londen & Rosener, 1991:67-68).

Another tendency is to assess the work potential of a disabled person purely in terms of his disability. The person's capacity for work and personality traits such as a sense of responsibility, perseverance, loyalty, skilfulness, punctuality and commitment, all important for holding down and getting ahead in a job, are often overlooked. Those with physical disabilities are clearly not given a fair chance to prove themselves in the workplace. This hampers their position with regard to promotion, career development and support systems. Managing diversity regarding physical disability in the workplace is a sensitive issue because most people do not feel comfortable speaking about it. They may ignore it and/or feel threatened by it. On the other hand, people with disabilities want their colleagues to become aware of what they can do. It is obvious that management often does not know how to handle people with disabilities. The issue of workers with Aids serves as a clear example of this. The various disabilities can be classified as follows:

#### Sensory

- Sight (the blind and the partially sighted).
- Hearing (the deaf and the hard of hearing).
- Mental retardation.
- Learning problems.
- Emotional problems (including psychiatric problems).

#### Physical

- Orthopaedic (paraplegic, quadriplegic, back and limb complaints).
- Cerebral palsy.
- Epilepsy.
- Other (cardiac problems, hernias, peptic ulcers, diabetes, tuberculosis, Aids  
(*Compendium of Training*, 1993:137).

The World Health Organisation Expert Committee on Medical Rehabilitation (in *Compendium of Training*, 1993:136) defines disability and the occupationally handicapped as

follows: Disability is the reduction of the functional ability to lead a fruitful daily life. It is the result of not only a mental and or physical impairment, but also the individual's inability to adjust to the situation. Impairment is a permanent or transitory pathological condition (illness) resulting in a dimension of lack of occupational functions. A handicapped person is one whose physical and/or mental well-being is temporarily or permanently impaired, whether congenitally or through age, illness or accident, with the result that his self-reliance, schooling or employment is impeded. In addition to people with physical and mental disabilities, there are large numbers at work with disabling illnesses and addictions. Advancements in medicine have helped these people to remain at work longer. Today many people with heart disease, cancer, diabetes, multiple sclerosis, Aids and drug and alcohol addictions are working (Jamieson, 1991:25). Organisations can respond by making special recommendations. For changes to come about with regard to managing physical disability diversity, the right work environment should be created, one which provides equality with other workers should be made possible. Figure 3.9 refers to a checklist to encourage respect for people with disabilities.

**FIGURE 3.9 CHECKLIST ON HOW TO RESPECT PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES (JOHNSON & REDMOND, 2000:144)**

Avoid words such as "handicapped".	Refer to people with disabilities
Don't classify people with medical labels.	Many people do not conform to the stereotypes suggested by these labels
Do not refer to an individual as if she is a "condition".	Refer to her as a person with epilepsy, not as an "epileptic".
Avoid words that invite pity, or that imply frailty or dependence, phrases such as "crippled by", "suffering from", "afflicted by" or "a victim of".	Talk instead about this person who has hearing difficulties, or about a person with cerebral palsy
Do not refer to an individual as mentally handicapped when you mean someone with learning difficulties.	Do not confuse mental illness with learning problems.
Do not refer to someone as "an invalid", wheelchair bound or confined to a wheelchair.	Describe such an individual as a wheelchair user or a person who uses a wheelchair.

### 3.3.12 AGE

Age is a diversity factor that has not received that much attention in the South African work situation. In fact, little research has been done regarding age as a factor of influence in past

and future career and development paths in the workplace. Age is viewed as an important factor in job requirements, job access, promotion, salaries (income) and more recently as a tool to make way for change. For example, the research of Rosen and Jerdee (in R Taylor, 1992 :198), found that age stereotyping affected personnel decisions, with managers tending to withhold promotion and development opportunities from older workers with the same qualifications as younger employees. In the new South Africa, age has become a major issue: a factor predominantly used as a technique to implement affirmative action in the public sector, to get rid of much "dead wood" and to allow "new blood" (or new thoughts/ideologies) to enter the civil service. Early retirement packages are being offered to ensure an environment of non-resistance to change.

Age has become one of the discriminating factors used in the workplace against both younger and older employees. Age stereotyping frequently used against younger employees is:

- They are wet behind the ears and they know nothing.
- They have no respect for traditions.
- They lack experience and therefore have no credibility.
- They are not loyal.
- They cannot be trusted with much responsibility.
- They have not reached full maturity and have little wisdom.

Stereotyping against older employees is:

- They are less motivated to work harder.
- They are "dead wood".
- They are resistant to change and cannot learn new methods.
- They have plateaued at 40 and are burnt out at 50.
- They are "fire" proof.
- They are too old to be trained or retrained.
- They are not compatible in relating to younger workers.



- Their memories are deteriorating.
- They are weighed down by family obligations.
- They are subject to physical limitations (ill health, etc.).
- They hamper young people's career development (Londen & Rosener, 1991:46; Kelly, 1990:46).

The USA Employment Act of 1967 (amended in 1978) is an example of legislation which provides protection against age discrimination. The Act makes age discrimination unlawful but only when it is directed against people aged 40 to 70 years. It is not unlawful for a manager to discriminate against those under 40 because he considers them too young. The Act of 1967 reads as follows:

"(a) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer (a.1) to fail or refuse to hire or to discharge any individual or otherwise discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, because of such individual's age.

(f) It shall not be unlawful for an employer, employment agency, or labour organisation:

(f.1) to take any action otherwise prohibited...where age is a bona fide, or where occupational qualification is reasonably necessary to the normal operation of the particular business, or where the differentiation is based on reasonable factors other than age" ( USA Employment Act of 1967 in Scarpello and Ledvinka, 1988:140-141).

Individuals cannot be forced to retire before age 70 except for documented health or performance related reasons. The law provides no protection for people in the USA under the age of 40. Klingner *etal.* (1985:69) state that "one effect of this law, though certainly not intended, has been to delay the advancement of minorities and women into managerial positions". In South Africa, little or no protection is provided against age discrimination.

Umlaw (1992:17) states that the major motivation for young blacks to pursue degrees is the access to opportunity this will provide in the private sector. "They expect to be able to secure a job which will provide them with growth, promotion and development aspects as well as salary packages which will provide for both their basic and esteem needs. They often labour under the misconception that their qualifications alone will be enough to place them on the higher echelons of management. They, like white, coloured and Indian students, are also being put under a lot of pressure at the university or technikon to perform academically well. They then soon discover that their academic qualifications are not the sole determination of success. Skills and especially experience, they are told, is what they lack the most and in many instances it is a factor being used to count against them."

On the other hand, older workers (aged 65+) want to return to work because they want to:

- Earn money.
- Get health insurance and other benefits.
- Develop new skills.
- Use time productively.
- Feel useful and needed.
- Stay in touch with current developments.
- Provide structure to their days.
- Retain a sense of doing something worthwhile.

Although they are strong motivators, stereotyping, self-generated fears and other barriers are working against older people (Kelly, 1990:45). Figure 3.10 represents the annual increment over a consecutive time period in the male South African labour force by age group, 1960 to 2005 (Sadie, 1991:10). Three age categories are identified: the age of accession (15 to 29), the prime age category (30 to 49) and the mature age group (50+). According to Sadie (1991:9-11), it is clear that among the non-Black groups there will be an ever diminishing number of young people to the labour force, to the extent of exhibiting an absolute decline in numbers towards the end of the century. The result will be an ageing of the labour force,

which will remain for the most part beneficial in that the prime age group will continue to strengthen in relative terms, although among Indians and Whites this tendency will be overshadowed by the expansion of the mature age category. The Black group will also benefit from a relative strengthening of the prime age category, accompanied by a more or less stationary share of the 50+ category. Sadie (1991:11) also found that the number of young people added to the labour force would continue to grow considerably, almost tripling between 1980 to 1985 and 2000 to 2005. With regard to experience, the number of Blacks in the labour force will remain small compared to that of the White male labour force. The number can be deduced from the following age distributions of the labour force (Table 3.1 refers).

**FIGURE 3.10 ANNUAL INCREMENT IN THE MALE LABOUR FORCE BY AGE GROUP, 1960-2005 (SADIE, 1991:10)**

Population group	1960-1970	1980-1985	1985-1990	1990-1995	1995-2000	2000-2005
<b>Whites</b>						
15-29	10 800	4 000	1 200	-100	-4 600	-7 000
30-49	7 700	15 400	9 300	5 400	3 600	4 900
50+	5 400	3 800	3 000	6 600	7 200	3 700
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>23 900</b>	<b>23 200</b>	<b>13 500</b>	<b>11 900</b>	<b>6 200</b>	<b>1 500</b>
<b>Indians</b>						
15-29	1 800	690	1 320	1 290	580	-250
30-49	1 970	3 310	2 870	2 540	2 040	2 570
50+	590	920	1 340	1 560	1 960	1 660
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>4 360</b>	<b>4 920</b>	<b>5 530</b>	<b>5 390</b>	<b>4 580</b>	<b>3 980</b>
<b>Coloureds</b>						
15-29	4 890	7 320	6 270	2 320	-1 160	-1 270
30-49	4 020	7 340	11 390	13 990	14 050	12 430
50+	1 210	1 320	2 070	2 350	3 380	5 050
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>10 120</b>	<b>16 040</b>	<b>19 370</b>	<b>18 660</b>	<b>16 270</b>	<b>16 210</b>
<b>Blacks</b>						
15-29	28 930	29 100	47 000	58 100	74 300	85 000
30-49	34 470	60 100	85 000	91 500	112 000	115 000
50+	5 660	18 600	19 000	23 700	31 000	43 000
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>69 060</b>	<b>107 800</b>	<b>150 300</b>	<b>173 300</b>	<b>217 400</b>	<b>244 100</b>

A balance is needed which makes provision for the career development of both young and old workers in the workplace. The Reconstruction and Development Programme of the ANC

**TABLE 3.1 AGE DISTRIBUTION OF LABOUR FORCE ACCORDING TO RACE (SADIE, 1991:11).**

<u>Age</u>	<u>Blacks</u>	<u>Whites</u>
	%	%
15-29	40,3	24,3
30-49	45,1	50,5
50+	14,6	25,3

(1993:73) supports a national youth service programme. By doing this, they have given recognition to the important role the youth of South Africa must play in the building of a new country. The aim of the programme is to give young people structured work experience, while continuing with their education and training. It further serves as a method of capacity building. South Africa needs skilled and experienced people and many are found within the mature age group. They could serve as mentors for the prime age group who will eventually take over from them. It is therefore important to remove prejudice regarding age from the workplace. Figure 3.11 refers to the breakdown of the South African Public Service according to the age of the public servants.

**FIGURE 3.11 A BREAKDOWN OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE ACCORDING TO AGE (PUBLIC SERVICE REVIEW REPORT 2000: 8 OF 10 IN CHAPTER 3)**

	% of total public service in location	Under 30	30-49	Over 50
Gauteng	10	8	10	13
Western Cape	6	4	6	6
Free State	5	4	5	6
Eastern Cape	12	8	12	18
Northern Province	11	5	11	13
Kwa-Zulu Natal	14	13	14	14
Northern Cape	1	1	1	2
North West	6	4	6	7
Mpumalanga	5	3	5	5
National Dept	29	49	27	16

### 3.3.13 LANGUAGE

A variety of languages is spoken on national and regional levels in South Africa. The most widely spoken black language is Zulu (38,8 per cent) followed by North Sotho (15,1 per cent) and Xhosa (12,7 per cent). As far as English and Afrikaans are concerned, 83 per cent of the Coloured people use Afrikaans as their mother tongue, as opposed to 57,6 per cent of Whites. The Asians (95,1 per cent) prefer English as their mother tongue (South Africa Central Statistical Service, 1994:8,1991 Census). The twelve official languages of South Africa are Sindabele, Sepedi, Sesotho, Siswati, Setswana, Afrikaans, English, Tsonglo (Shangaan), Venda, Xhosa, Zulu and Sign Language (Togni, 1994:Appendix A: 238). Currently only a very small percentage of Whites, Coloureds and Asians are able to speak a black language.

For communication to be successful, it is necessary to depend on the ability of people to communicate with each other and to use each other's language successfully (Behrens, 1990:92). Language constitutes the heart of culture and identity and our perception of reality. The moment something is named, it exists. When people are greeted in their own language it elicits a warm and friendly response (Malan, 1993:7). Unfortunately, political and economic factors have made the language issue in South Africa rather controversial. This has caused social inequalities, cultural divides and racial cleavages. To secure properly remunerated employment in the public sector, and to a lesser extent in the private sector, prospective employees had to be proficient in the "official" languages of the Republic of South Africa, namely English and Afrikaans. This meant that, until recently, most Blacks found such employment unobtainable because their mother tongue was neither English nor Afrikaans and their proficiency in these languages was usually unsatisfactory. Such language proficiency differences or other similar sensitive issues will have to be accommodated and/or acknowledged in the new South Africa. Language diversity should be regarded as a significant asset for any country, and not as a stumbling block, because it is indicative of the rich, interesting fabric forming society. However, such diversity could be divisive and could lead to misunderstanding, friction and even intense conflict should the different groups lack an awareness and appreciation of one another's language; not comprehend or, even worse,

refuse to acknowledge other groups' symbols, traditions, values, aspirations and modes of expression (Prinsloo in Marais, 1988:287).

A further issue playing a significant role within language diversity is intercultural communication, sometimes referred to as cross-cultural communication. The term cross-cultural implies a comparison of some phenomena across cultures. For example, if one were to study self-disclosure within two different cultures, say German and Japanese, one would be examining cross-cultural communication (De Vito, 1988:433). Intercultural communication entails communication between two or more people from different cultures. Interracial communication refers to communication between different races (De Vito, 1988:432). Successful intercultural communication depends on mutual respect, honesty, openness, availability, willingness, the ability to really listen and preferably some knowledge of the other culture (Du Preez, 1989:14). Body language or eye contact could demonstrate the difficulty experienced with intercultural communication. In some Black cultures, eye contact is viewed as disrespectful, while in the White culture it may be viewed as a sign of mistrust if the person does not maintain eye contact. "Western culture acknowledges that eye contact during conversations between two people is normal and important for effective communication since it reinforces interest. In South African black culture eye contact has different norms: in many tribes, it is accepted that eye contact from junior to senior should be unobtrusive. The Zulu culture prescribes the avoidance of eye contact as a sign of respect. For example, a Zulu son would not gaze directly into his father's eyes for an extended time, as lowered eyes denote respect. This avoidance of eye contact causes intra-cultural communication barriers as well, when a Zulu is talking to a black from a tribe whose culture does not necessarily prescribe the wary use of eye contact" (Behrer s, 1990:93). In black culture, it seems that the perpendicular nod during a conversation is not an indication of agreement, acceptance or understanding; it merely serves as a conversational catalyst (Asante and Davids in Malan, 1993:15).

Greeting and addressing others also plays a role within intercultural communication. According to Malan (1993:14) it is important to address others by their names, pronounce names correctly and to use the name as often as possible. Words for greeting others in a

specific region should be learnt. This immediately establishes an atmosphere of respect and readiness to communicate within the other person's area of reference. Fortunately the equivalents for "good morning/afternoon/evening and goeiemôre/goeiemiddag/goeienaand" are the same in African languages ("good evening" in Sesotho is "fonaneng"). Figure 3.12 refers.

**FIGURE 3.12 DIFFERENT SOUTH AFRICAN GREETINGS**

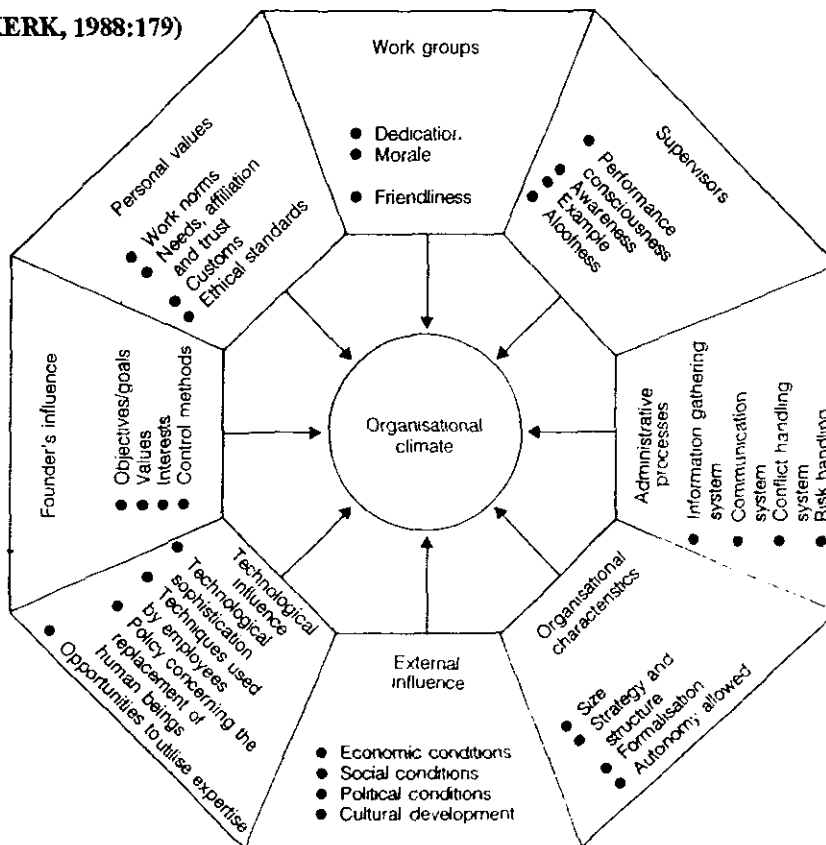
AFRIKAANS	N SOTHO	ZULU	XHOSA	TSWANA	SESOTHO
Goeie môre	Dumela/Thobela	Sawubona	Molo/Bhota	Dumela	Dumela/Dumelang
Hoe gaan dit ?	Le kae ?	Ninjani ?	Kunjani ?	O tsogile jang ?	O/le sa phela ?
Totsiens	Sala gabotse	Sala Kahle	Nisala kakuhle	Sala sentle	Sala (ng) hantle

Africans greet each other in loud voices. This is viewed as rowdiness in the Western culture. Kotze (1993:8) sees this as simply a manifestation of the social openness of the African culture. Differences in perception are reflected in ways of greeting. "Affluent persons use a firm grip when they shake hands, while looking each other boldly in the eye. To them a limp grip is perceived as a lack of drive or will to progress. In reality the limp grip is an expression of social amiability and the lack of fierce inter-individual competition. The firm grip on the other hand, is usually accepted with some embarrassment by African people, they do not know what to make of it as handshakes are supposed to be friendly messages of goodwill and brotherhood, and not aggressive rude challenges" (Kotze, 1993:16).

### 3.3.14 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CLIMATE

The above-mentioned diversity factors will affect the organisational culture and climate in, which the local government manager operates. Figure 3.13 refers to the factors influencing an organisational culture and climate. Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988:70) says that an organisation's culture will usually follow the dominant culture of a society. They further state: "The influence of societal culture on the culture of many organisations can be seen through values that delineate social status, social roles and social beliefs and thus establish

**FIGURE 3.13 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE AND CULTURE (VAN NIEKERK, 1988:179)**



norms of appropriate behaviour." An example is the emphasis placed on education as an important instrument for gaining social status within an organisation or community. Someone is considered to be a white-collar worker when he has a degree or diploma, and a blue-collar worker when he is without a degree or diploma. These norms have little to do with job related criteria, but allocate more status to white-collar jobs. This too will be reflected in an organisation's culture.

Society's views of appropriate roles influence the way women and people from different race groups are treated when they enter the labour market. The appropriate role for women was thought to be in the home, not at work. Those who had to work could only get low-level jobs (Scarpello & Ledvinka, 1988:71). Blacks have to overcome racial stereotyping. In the past they were perceived to be unsuitable for higher-level jobs. Excuses made included "If blacks were given more rights, then the whites in South Africa will be driven out or have no say in government" (Fredman *et al.*, 1983:5). Once again, this had nothing to do with job-related



criteria but with societal values, which had an effect on societal roles and beliefs. In return, this affected the culture of many organisations in South Africa. It further gave way to an organisational climate where exclusivity and favouritism were perceived to be the norm. South Africa had a bureaucracy staffed mainly by white, male, Afrikaans-speaking South Africans. Blacks occupied responsible positions, but only in the homelands (which were not recognised by the international community because they were viewed as part of the apartheid structures) or in bureaucracies that dealt exclusively with government decreed "own affairs".

In the past, the organisational climate in South Africa did not encourage open or participative management systems. Creativity or innovation was not seen as integral to managers' skills; there was a general reluctance to adapt to or to accept the existence of a diverse workforce as a vital resource; the merit system was strongly favoured and the best person for the job was viewed as the acceptable norm for organisations. According to Gardenswartz and Rowe (1993:224), this, too, was regarded as acceptable in the United States. Not only was the best or only person for a job traditionally regarded as a man, but a white man

Organisations have been coerced, virtually kicking and screaming, to implement steps to level the playing fields. The perception still exists that an affirmative action candidate is someone chosen to satisfy the demands of political correctness, not because he may happen to be the best candidate for the job. An organisational culture which does not recognise that employees in lower level jobs have much to contribute to the workplace, will find it difficult to adapt to the changes facing organisations. That was the essence of Pekeur's study (1992:1-5), in which he demonstrated that the South African civil service's organisational culture did not recognise the potential of its low-skilled and semi-skilled employees. An organisational culture and climate, where progress towards change was slow, was created in the South African public sector. A failure to confront differences in attitudes, values, behaviour, experiential background, expectations, language and a lack of trust could easily lead to a Theory X management style (Gardenswartz & Rowe, 1993:225). A Theory X management style refers to a culture in which managers have little faith in the knowledge, skills, abilities and/or diversities of their subordinates and therefore do not use the latter's talents in decision-making. Public managers should rather pursue a Theory Y management style. Theory Y

managers, who are changing negative cultures in their organisations, believe that all employees have much to contribute to organisational goal achievement (McGregor, 1960 in Scarpello & Ledvinka, 1988:71).

### **3.4 THE CHALLENGES OF MANAGING DIVERSITY FOR THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGER**

According to Dorais (1994:49), "the external environment of public administration will clearly remain one of [cultural] diversity. It is therefore important for managers wishing to adapt to the environment, and function effectively in it, to understand and recognise the ways in which collective conditioning influences their management and practice". The local government manager must not regard managing diversity as a stumbling block, but as an opportunity and a challenge. If local government managers are not aware of or do not acknowledge the diversities in the workplace, how can they encourage their workers to serve and satisfy the needs of a diverse community? According to Reddy and Choudree (1996:27), it is important that we have public managers who "are sensitive to the values of individuals and groups and act responsively to individual problems, needs and values as well as those of specific groups; assure programme efficiency and effectiveness in an open system; strive for social equity and justice; do not infringe on the basic liberties of individuals; and act according to a professional code of conduct that would require a commitment to social equity". The major challenge facing the local government manager is that he must develop the following skills to enable him to manage a diverse workforce:

- effective communication with employees from diverse cultural backgrounds;
- the coaching and developing of people who are diverse in many aspects including age, education, ethnicity, gender, physical ability, race and sexual orientation;
- the provision of objective performance feedback based on substance rather than on style;
- assistance in creating an organisational climate which nurtures and utilises the rich array of talents and perspectives that diversity can offer (Londen & Rosener, 1991:5);

- unlearning practices rooted in the old mind set that "we" are always right and "they" are always wrong;
- shifting organisational culture, revamping policies, creating new structures and redesigning human resource systems (Jamieson, 1991:7);
- addressing diversity through participative management;
- encouraging commitment, firstly from his own side and then among workers; and
- tolerating differences.

### **3.5 SUMMARY**

The management of diversity within a local authority is not a new idea to local government in South Africa. It is a management issue that has occupied the minds of those charged with governing since the first days of settler colonisation. A reactive response in handling diversity was the introduction of institutional separation - the creation of racially based legislatures. The management of diversity in local government was further distorted by apartheid, which created vested interest associated with ethnicity and territory. In Chapter 3 the focus is on change, which includes the transformation of local government from a former instrument of discrimination, control and domination to an enabling agency that can consolidate democracy and reflect the diversity of the community. The focus is on the nature of management within the local government, and the different macro and micro dimensions affecting the management of diversity in local government. The challenges facing the local government manager in managing diversity in the workplace are examined.

In **Chapter 4**, the focus is on the building of a behaviour-modelling framework of diversity awareness in local government.

## **CHAPTER 4: A BEHAVIOUR MODELLING FRAMEWORK FOR DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

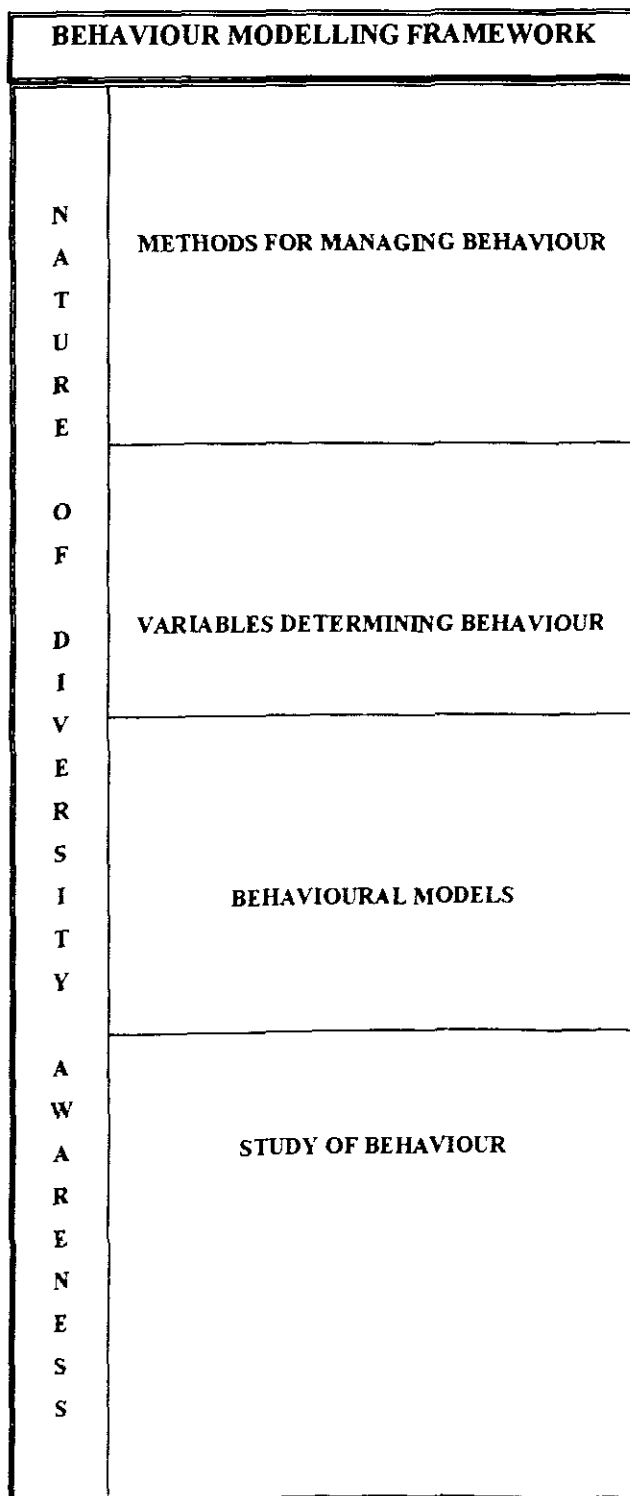
### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

Since managing diversity is one of the elements of change that is currently being experienced in the public sector, this chapter deals with a behaviour-modelling framework that is necessary for managing the behaviour of local government managers towards diversity awareness in the workplace. This chapter, therefore, builds on what has been stated in Chapter 1, namely, that a local government manager's behaviour towards diversity in the workplace is a reflection of what he or she truly believes about diversity. Consequently, this chapter deals firstly with the nature of diversity awareness within local government. Secondly, it deals with the study of behaviour and behavioural models in the workplace. Thirdly, it deals with the variables determining the behaviour characteristics of local government managers towards diversity. Fourthly, it deals with methods for managing behavioural change in the workplace, and lastly, with the basic principles underlying a behavioural framework for managing diversity awareness in the workplace. Figure 4.1 illustrates the behaviour-modelling framework for managing diversity awareness in local government

### **4.2 THE NATURE OF DIVERSITY AWARENESS WITHIN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Diversity is not a new term in local government. In countries like Canada and Britain, diversity awareness is one of the essential skills a public service manager must have. Diversity forms part of the interpersonal skills a Canadian public service manager needs to perform his work. In Britain, managing diversity training programmes focus more on ensuring equality of opportunity in the workplace and on key issues line managers need to address in promoting diversity at work. The programmes further focus on disability awareness and the management thereof, together with the combating of sexual harassment in the workplace (*British Civil Service College Catalogue*, 1993-1994). The nature of diversity awareness within local government is such, that despite the differences diversity brings, all people share certain values. Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (in Clarke, 1994:53) identify

**FIGURE 4.1 BEHAVIOUR MODELLING FRAMEWORK FOR DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**



the following five cultural diversity values shared by all human beings, namely: our relationship to nature; our relationship to the supernatural; our relationship to human beings; our time orientation; and our activity orientation. Figure 4.2 shows the relationship of the cultural values as summarised by Munter (1993:70). According to Clarke (1994:58), trainers and managers should be careful not to view universal value orientations as points along a continuum or as dichotomies, since both these views have limitations. According to Clarke, both are static and also encourage stereotyping and negative attributions. Clarke (1994:59) formulates three principal guidelines for managers and trainers when using comparative value orientations:

- **All possibilities exist in every culture.**

According to Clarke (1994:59) this means, "when we say that two cultures are different, we actually are describing the value orientations of most people in each culture. Others in these cultures may have other value orientations".

- **All values are positive in their own context.**

"This also means that differences are valuable in their own right. These differences should be seen as opportunities for stimulating thought, creativity and problem solving" (Clarke, 1994:59)

- **All cultures fight against change.**

As a way of ensuring their survival, cultures generally choose the status quo. Despite this approach, cultures are, according to Clarke (1994:59), constantly changing. Clarke (1994:59) concludes by stating that "as we apply the universal value orientations, let us remember to avoid stereotyping, to appreciate differences, and to champion change. Comparative value orientations should only be used to examine, explore and analyse diversity or culture and not to predict actual behaviour" (Clarke, 1994:58-59).

**FIGURE 4.2 RELATIONSHIPS OF THE DIFFERENT CULTURAL VALUES SHARED BY PEOPLE (MUNTER, 1993:70)**

<i>ATTITUDE TOWARD</i>	<i>RANGE</i>	<i>RANGE</i>	<i>RANGE</i>
<b>NATURE</b>	<b>Submit to nature</b> Life determined by God/fate	Harmony with nature Live in harmony with nature	Mastery over nature Control and challenge nature
<b>TIME</b>	<b>Past tradition</b> Goals of past are sufficient	Present moment Goals reflect present demands	Future goals Goals directed towards future
<b>SOCIAL RELATIONS</b>	<b>By rank or class</b> Authoritarian decision-making	By entire group Group decision-making	By individual Individual decision-making
<b>ACTIVITY</b>	<b>Being</b> , not accomplishing, most important; minimise work	Inner development most important	Accomplishments and future most important, maximise work
<b>HUMANITY</b>	<b>Basically evil</b> Initial lack of trust, people won't change, control necessary.	Mixture good and evil Initial choice, people can change	Basically good Initial trust, controls unnecessary

### 4.3 THE STUDY OF BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE

The study of behaviour in the workplace is not new to the public sector and more specifically to public management. Rainey (in Lynn & Wildavsky, 1990:175) identifies the following four dimensions that can influence the development of public management: the classificatory or taxonomic dimension; the research or theory dimension; the institutional dimension; and the role or behavioural dimension. In the role/behavioural dimension the focus is on research, analysing the actual behaviour and roles of public managers. Figure 4.3 shows some of the selected contributions to literature on the roles, behaviour, and attitudes of public managers, as identified by Rainey (in Lynn & Wildavsky, 1990:177). Appendix A.1.1 provides a more complete list of the roles, behaviours and attitudes of public managers. Research which analyses the behaviour and roles of public managers, is developing

at a consistent pace. According to Rainey (in Lynn & Wildavsky, 1990:177), "this work too, is limited, diverse, and fragmented. Yet it leads towards a fairly optimistic conclusion". The role or behavioural dimension can in a way also influence the role of public management within government.

**FIGURE 4.3 SELECTED CONTRIBUTIONS TO LITERATURE ON THE ROLES, BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES OF PUBLIC MANAGERS (RAINEY IN LYNN AND WILDAVSKY, 1990:177)**

<p><b>Buchanan, 1974,1975</b> Compared questionnaire responses from managers in four "typical" federal agencies and four large business firms</p>	<p>Public managers lower on satisfaction with work and co-workers, job involvement, organisational commitment, and perceived organisational constraints and rules. Buchanan suggested that the findings reflect weaker hierarchical authority, greater diversity of personnel, and weaker commitment expectations in public organisations. This is due to civil service rules, political interventions, diffuse goals, and complex bureaucratic procedures.</p>
<p><b>Porter and Lawler, 1968</b> Survey of managerial attitudes of 635 managers in four public and three private organisations</p>	<p>Public managers were much less likely to feel that pay in their organisations depended on performance and that their own pay represented a reward for good performance.</p>
<p><b>Rhinehart, Barrel, De Wolfe, Griffin, and Spaner, 1969</b> Compared supervisory personnel in one federal agency to managers in Porter's (1962) sample from industry, with management level as a control variable.</p>	<p>Federal managers lower on all thirteen items in Porter satisfaction scale. Differences were statistically significant only on social and self-actualisation need satisfaction for all levels. For higher levels, federal managers lower on autonomy and self-actualisation.</p>

#### 4.4 BEHAVIOUR MODELS IN THE WORKPLACE

Hellbriegel and Slocum (1991:476) state. "Unlike traits, behaviours can be seen and learned. If behaviours can be learned, then individuals can be trained to lead more effectively." The local government manager's behavioural approach and leadership style, therefore, plays an important role in the managing of diversity in the workplace. The following four behavioural models with regard to diversity management will be discussed. The four behavioural models are:



#### **4.4.1 NAÏVE OFFENDER BEHAVIOUR**

Local government managers with the above behaviour are not aware of their biases and prejudices towards people from diverse backgrounds. They are not even aware of the impact of their behaviour on themselves and the departments they work in. They can even be unaware of the pain and damage they cause through their behaviour. The problem with this type of behaviour is that a local government manager who is unaware of his or her own biases and prejudices can potentially be more dangerous than one who is partial and aware of it.

#### **4.4.2 PERPETUATOR BEHAVIOURAL MODEL**

A local government manager with this type of behavioural pattern is aware that his behaviour is offensive to other colleagues in the workplace. Perpetuators are aware that they are biased and prejudiced towards diversity in the workplace. They make derogatory comments about co-workers from diverse backgrounds. According to Grote (1991:5), people with perpetrator behavioural patterns are "in danger of being sued or fired". Perpetuators who wish to change their behaviour must do it by breaking away from old habits that encourage them to be perpetrators. Johnson and Redmond (2000:3) state "it is important for directors and senior managers to face their prejudice, which each one developed during their upbringing. According to them, the extent to which one is prejudiced against people of another country, another race, another religion or whatever depends very much on one's social conditioning. This is very difficult to recognise at times, and even when one has recognised it, it is difficult to handle".

#### **4.4.3 AVOIDER BEHAVIOURAL MODEL**

Local government managers falling into the avoider behavioural pattern are aware of their own and others' bias towards diversity in the workplace. Despite working on their own prejudices, avoiders are reluctant to point out or address inappropriate behaviour by colleagues or the management cadre. In this regard, inappropriate behaviour refers to discrimination (gender or racial) or the encouragement

of bias or prejudicial behaviour towards people from diverse backgrounds. Avoiders think by playing it safe, or by keeping quiet, nothing will happen to them. The avoider type of behaviour is often also perceived as acceptance. According to Grote (1991:5), "avoiders are sometimes thought of as silent supporters".

#### **4.4.4 CHANGE AGENT BEHAVIOURAL MODEL**

Local government managers who have the change agent behavioural pattern are aware of their own biases and prejudices and also those of their co-workers and/or management cadre. Change agents differ from avoiders in that they confront co-workers or the management cadre who have biased or prejudiced behaviour. Change agents are fully aware of the consequences and negative impact of acting with bias or prejudice. Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:163) elaborate on this by stating "Public managers who act as change agents, may be more thoughtful and cautious because they are (or should be!) fully aware of the culture, limitations and environment of the public service, and because they have to live with the consequences of their actions." Local government managers with the change agent behavioural pattern will direct their behaviour either at individuals, groups or structural processes. According to Grote (1991:5), change agents also "help to bring about long range change".

#### **4.4.5 FIGHTER BEHAVIOURAL MODEL**

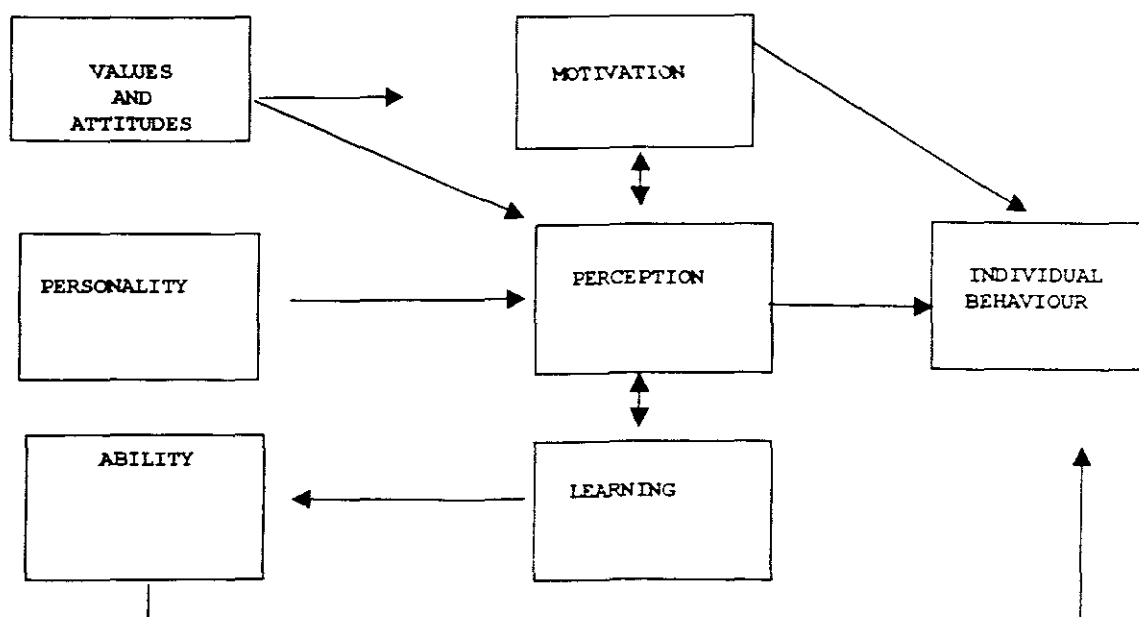
Local government managers with a fighter behavioural pattern are aware of any behaviour which seems to be biased or prejudiced. They are called fighters because they usually confront co-workers or management who show biased or prejudiced behaviour. Fighters will go out of their way to help people from diverse backgrounds to succeed in the workplace. For them the utilisation of potential is important. They don't see diverse co-workers as a threat in the workplace. Fighters often pay a price for their behaviour. According to Grote (1991:6), "fighters may get a reputation for fighting, and after a while people may begin to discount what they are saying and even avoid them". According to Grote (1991:6), they should examine their behaviour carefully to determine areas that might indicate those

which are too sensitive when no discrimination or bias has actually taken place. Before one can start with the process of behaviour modification in local government, it is important to know what the variables are that could influence the behavioural attitude of local government managers towards diversity awareness in the workplace.

#### 4.4 VARIABLES DETERMINING THE BEHAVIOURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS TOWARDS DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN THE WORKPLACE

According to Smit and Cronje (1992:264), it is essential that managers take note of the variables influencing the individual behaviour of employees in an organisation. Figure 4.4 shows the variables as indicated by Smit and Cronje (1992:264). According to Roux, Brynard, Botes, Fourie (1997:251), people's behaviour in the workplace also depends on their reaction to certain stimuli. Roux *et al.* (1997:251) identifies two types of stimuli, namely, external and internal stimuli. An external stimulus refers to the way people's perception is influenced by their environment. Roux *et al.* (1997:251) explains this by stating "although

FIGURE 4.4 VARIABLES INFLUENCING THE INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR OF INDIVIDUALS AT WORK (SMIT & CRONJE, 1992:264)



people may see the same object, their perceptions of it are never the same due to the physical factors (visual, acuity, age, illness)". The environment also influences the way diversity is perceived in the workplace. Chapter 3 confirms the diversities affecting the work environment of the local government manager and also the way diversity is perceived in local government. Internal stimuli refer to the way thoughts, feelings, emotions, values, attitude, personality, ability, motivation and perception influence the behaviour of individuals at work. The variables influencing the individual behaviour of local government managers towards diversity are the following:

#### **4.5.1 VALUES**

Every local government manager has his own value system, which in turn will influence what he perceives to be right or wrong. A local government manager will prioritise the values most important to his life. Values will, therefore, not only reflect the way a public manager will approach his work, but will, in addition, determine the way relationships will be built with people at work. Values will determine and reflect the local government manager's behaviour towards diversity in the workplace. According to Smit and Cronje (1992:265) the values and value systems most important to an individual will influence his attitude, level of motivation, perception and individual behaviour. The values of a local government manager are further influenced by the values of

- The community.
- Local government managers themselves.
- The organisation/department.

##### **4.5.1.1 VALUES OF THE COMMUNITY**

The values of the community include the beliefs and sentiments people have about the nature of public administration, its purpose, and the expected behaviour of public organisations and officials (Klingner, 1983:7). Values further influence what is acceptable and unacceptable to society. According to

Hanekom, Rowland and Bain (1987:156), values also indicate "the importance allocated by the individual to activities, experiences or phenomena, and provide the individual with a guideline for his personal conduct". Before 1990, local government management in South Africa was influenced by the values created by apartheid. These values were built on ignorance towards the black community. Ignorance caused by the regime of that time contributed to the negative perception blacks had of local government. It was then perceived to be a "whites only" subject. The following point made by Schwella (in McLennan, 1995:25) serves as a reference to what could happen if the values of society are ignored: "If the system does not operate in an acceptable way it will receive signals in this regard. A failure to make the necessary evolutionary adaptations, will result in pressures to address growing disequilibrium within the society by means of revolutionary change." Klingner (1983a:7) identifies three sets of values that influence people's attitudes towards public organisations and officials. He subdivided the three values into three models: the cynical model, the ideal model, and the rational model (Figure 4.5 refers). These three values are relevant to our current South African situation

**FIGURE 4.5 VALUES CONCERNING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (KLINGER, 1983:10)**

<b>MODEL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION</b>			
<b>CHARACTERISTICS</b>	<b>CYNICAL MODEL</b>	<b>IDEAL MODEL</b>	<b>RATIONAL MODEL</b>
<i>NATURE OF GOVERNMENT</i>	<b>BAD</b>	<b>GOOD</b>	<b>NEUTRAL</b>
<i>PURPOSE OF PUBLIC AGENCIES</i>	Protect the interests of rich and powerful people	Protect all persons from circumstances beyond their control	Achieve common goals more easily than can be done individually
<i>HOW PUBLIC AGENCIES MAKE DECISIONS</i>	Them that has the gold "makes the rules"	Equal opportunity for access and participation in decisions	Power is based on control of resources (money, power)
<i>CHARACTERISTICS OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATORS</i>	Selfish, short-sighted, dishonest	Selfless, intelligent, honest	Average, influenced by their own values and goals and those of others around them
<i>HOW WE KNOW THE DECISIONS ARE GOOD</i>	Continued protection of the rich and powerful elite	Liberty and justice for all	Continued legitimacy and ability to collect taxes

The **first** set of values holds that public administration is basically evil; government is used to oppress the majority to benefit the minority. Administrative decisions are made according to the immutable rule of politics. "Those who have the gold make the rules." All the talk about democracy and equality

and the right of individuals is just that. People holding this set of values also maintain that administrative policies support the interests of the wealthy and powerful and are more severe on burglary than on white-collar crime. Public administrators are perceived to be corrupt, lazy, and shortsighted. The result is a growing bureaucracy that makes decisions contrary to the interests of society. A minister's decision that the building of toilets for a community is of more importance than the construction of houses, could serve as an example. Those who support this set of values also believe that the situation will continue until increased taxation and debt force a taxpayers' revolt, or the collapse of the economy. Scandal, corruption and mismanagement in high places will encourage this community further in their cynical perception of the values of public administration

The **second** set of values holds the opposite. People who support these values believe that public administration is basically good, a value that would have had much support among many of the apartheid regime. They believe that government sometimes restricts individual freedom unnecessarily, however it must often operate that way to provide freedom for community members and to protect them from conditions beyond their control. People therefore have equal access to decision-making and are further entitled to equal protection under the law. Local government managers are civil servants who are, for the most part, competent, honest and intelligent people. The government does well towards the people by improving their lives through well-planned and evaluated programmes. At the same time, the government does this at a lower cost and in a more equitable manner than an individual would have done (Klingner, 1983a: 10).

The **third** set of values developed out of the two conflicting sets of values and holds that public administration is neither good nor bad. Those who hold these values believe that government can achieve goals more easily than any individual. Power is based on control over the following resources if public organisations are to survive: money, information, political support, and general public opinion. Public administrators are no more honest and no more selfish than they themselves perceive others to be. Their own values and goals influence those around them. Government will continue to function as long as it can muster the bases of support (taxes, loyalty, and participation) the system requires (Klingner, 1983a:11).

Local government managers should take note of these values, because in a way they underline how people judge public administration. Values regarding public administration will also be influenced by political, social, cultural and economic background. Diverse values will, therefore, always be present. According to Klingner (1983a:12), that is why one should not interpret one's own values as being the same as those of others. The foundation on which public administration is built ensures the acknowledgement and valuing of diversity (differences). According to Cloete (1994:63), "public administration is recognised as a distinctive field of work because of the requirements that those who practise public administration (i.e., the political office bearers and public officials), have to respect specific guidelines (sometimes referred to as tenets or principles) that govern their conduct when they carry out their work". The diverse nature of the community is protected within the Interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993 and the Constitution of 1996. Figure 4.6 shows the basic values and principles governing public administration in South Africa with regard to the acknowledgement of community values, legal rules and some of the fundamental human rights of an individual

#### 4.5.1.2 VALUES OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS

Local government managers are being appointed to serve the people and not for personal gain. Despite this, local government managers have their own sets of values, which have a direct influence on public administration as a whole. Hanekom, Rowland and Bain (1987:157) state that the "values held by public officials could be one of the causes of ethical dilemmas, especially because of the fallibility of man, his greed for power, personal aggrandisement, wealth and status, rather than his endeavour to render unbiased service and to adhere to professional norms". The following five societal factors, as identified by Bayat and Meyer (1994:34-40) and Schwella (in McLennan, 1995:26-27), influence the values held by local government managers for public administration and the attitude they will need to have towards the community.

The **first** factor refers to the political context of public administration. Schwella (in McLennan, 1995:26), states that public administration functions are under political direction and that the ideal would be to keep them under the control of the people. Civic consideration should, therefore, always

**FIGURE 4.6 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION GUIDELINES WITH REGARD TO THE ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF COMMUNITY VALUES, LEGAL RULES AND SOME OF THE BASIC FUNDAMENTAL HUMAN RIGHTS OF AN INDIVIDUAL (IN CLOETE, 1986:27-33 AND THE CONSTITUTION OF 1996 IN GILDENHUYS, 2000:93)**

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION VALUES, PRINCIPLES AND GUIDELINES WITH REGARD TO COMMUNITY VALUES AND LEGAL RULES	BASIC FUNDAMENTAL HUMAN RIGHTS
<p>Public administration is governed by the following democratic values and principles:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained.</li> <li>(2) Efficient, economical and effective use of resources must be promoted.</li> <li>(3) Public administration must be development-oriented.</li> <li>(4) Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias.</li> <li>(5) People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making.</li> <li>(6) Public administration must be accountable.</li> <li>(7) Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information.</li> <li>(8) Good human resource management and career development practices to maximise human potential must be cultivated.</li> <li>(9) Public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people.</li> </ol> <p>Public managers should abide by rules of legality:</p> <p><u>Intra vires</u>: within his/her jurisdiction.  <u>Ultra vires</u>: outside of his/her jurisdiction.  <u>Audi alteram partem</u>: listen to the other side.  <u>Bona fide</u>: justifiable reason for act.  <u>Mala fide</u>: without a justifiable reason for the act.</p>	<p>Everyone shall have the right to <u>equality</u> before the law and to equal protection by the law.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to <u>life</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to respect for and protection of his/her <u>dignity</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to <u>freedom and security</u> of the person.</p> <p>No person shall be subject to <u>servitude or forced labour</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to <u>privacy</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to <u>freedom of conscience, religion, thought, belief and opinion</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to <u>basic education</u> and to equal <u>access to educational institutions</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to use <u>the language</u> and to <u>participate in the cultural life of his/her choice</u>.</p> <p>Every person shall have the right to <u>fair labour practices</u>.</p>



be taken into account. Values such as legitimacy, democracy, fairness, representivity, equity, reasonableness, political efficiency, responsiveness, responsibility and accountability are important (Bayat & Meyer, 1994:35 and Schwella, Burger, Fox, Muller, 1996:15-16). The **second** factor refers to the societal context of public administration. Public administration exists primarily for the good of society, which means that it must, under political direction, provide services to the people. Schwella (in McLennan, 1995:27) states that the needs and aspirations of the people should be a guiding force in public administration. It is therefore important for public administration to take social considerations into account. Values such as public participation, self-help, sustainable development, empowerment, civil co-operation, self-reliance, relevance, equality, social equity, social responsibility, justice, empathy, nation building, rule of law, professionalism and entrepreneurship should be noted (Bayat & Meyer, 1994:36 and Schwella, Burger, Fox, Muller, 1996:17-18).

The **third** factor refers to the economic context of public administration. Public administration extracts economic resources from society, providing it with significant services and products. It therefore needs to take utilitarian considerations into account. Values such as relevant technology, effectiveness, efficiency and productivity are very important (Schwella in McLennan, 1995:26).

The **fourth** factor refers to the administrative context of public administration. The term "administrative context" refers to the systems and processes used by bureaucracies. The main responsibility of public managers is to render efficient services to the community. According to Bayat and Meyer (1994:39-40), that is why it is important that public managers should be educated and trained to instil the following values within themselves: systems of justice and equity in the context of different cultures and institutions of government; the rights, obligations and responsibilities of individuals and groups within the social and political system; the purpose and limitations of government as an institution for fostering economic and social progress and cultural values; standards of objectivity, effectiveness, impartiality, integrity and probity in the conduct of public affairs and maintaining a professional public service; a system of public communication that fosters understanding and participation by its citizens; and a system of government that ensures the responsiveness and accountability of public managers.

The last factor refers to the cultural context of public administration. The public service of today is very different from the public service before 27 April 1994. It is becoming increasingly representative of all the racial groups in South Africa. "Owing to the presence of different cultures in a country, conflicting value judgements can be made which could affect the political activities of the government and the opposition, and also directly influence the quality of the administration of public affairs" (Hanekom, Rowland & Bain, 1987:157). According to Klinger (1983:11), public managers should know and understand their own values and those of the individuals they work with before making assumptions. Figure 4.7 shows seven levels of values held by individuals to decisions made in the workplace. Figure 4.8 shows the personal attributes and value characteristics of a Canadian public service manager in the workplace.

#### **4.5.1.3 VALUES OF THE ORGANISATION/DEPARTMENT**

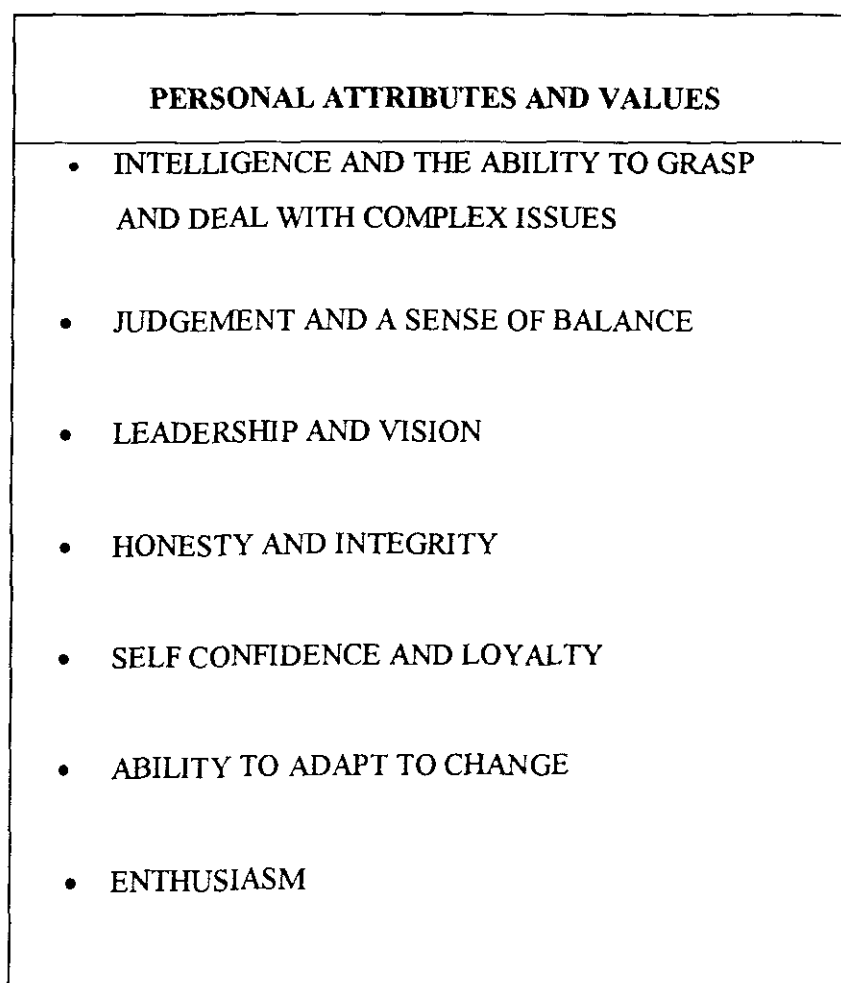
The values held by local government managers are, in addition, carried into the organisation or department where they work. These values may, for example, indirectly influence the values of that specific public sector organisation or department with regard to its organisational culture

The opposite can also occur when public managers are influenced by the values created by the organisation or department where they work. Golembiewski (1976:11) states: "The catalogue of influencing factors is endless. The personality of a forceful executive, the legislative mandate of the agency, the clientele served, the history surrounding an organisation's birth, even the office architecture: these and many other factors can influence organisational styles." If an organisation or department has a value structure that influences people, and the way they are managed at work, that style can be difficult to unlearn, especially, according to Golembiewski (1976:11), when people have learned, sometimes painfully, what their job is and how it should be performed. Golembiewski (1976:12) identifies three patterns of bureaucracy, their characteristics, and the consequences they could have on the value structure of an organisation or department (See figure 4.9)

**FIGURE 4.7 THE SEVEN LEVEL HIERARCHIES OF PERSONAL VALUES (SMIT & CRONJE, 1992:266)**

LEVEL	DESIGNATION	DESCRIPTION
1	Reactive	People who are unaware of themselves and others and react only to basic physiological needs (e.g. babies).
2	Tribalistic	These individuals are very dependent and strongly influenced by tradition and the power of authority figures
3	Egocentric	These people believe in individualism, are aggressive and selfish and respond mainly to power.
4	Conformist	These individuals find it difficult to accept others with different values, but want others to accept their values
5	Manipulative	These people manipulate other people and things to attain their own objectives. They are materialistic, manipulative or conformist.
6	Sociocentric	These are people who feel that it is more important to be liked by others than to get somewhere in life. They are not all materialistic, manipulative or conformist
7	Existential	These people easily tolerate others with different values. They are outspoken about rigid systems, restrictive policies, status symbols and the arbitrary use of power

**FIGURE 4.8 CHARACTER FOUNDATION OF A CANADIAN PUBLIC SERVICE MANAGER (CANADIAN CENTRE FOR MANAGEMENT, 1989:4).**



The values of an organisation or department have not only affected the behaviour of the people working there, but also the relationship with the community at large. Smit and Cronje (1992:265) further state: "It is important that management should realise that employees have different values". Job reservation serves as an example of an organisational value the previous National Party government, which had an impact on the behaviour of black workers in the workplace. According to Fredman *et al.* (1983:45), "job reservation was a burning issue for the vast majority of blacks. Deep frustration was caused by the limited promotion opportunities open to them, a result of reserving

certain skilled jobs for whites. Job reservation also had the result of increasing competition for those jobs which were open to blacks, thus keeping wages down”.

**FIGURE 4.9 SOME CHARACTERISTICS AND CONSEQUENCES OF THE THREE PATTERNS OF BUREAUCRACY (GOLEMBIEWSKI, 1976:12)**

<i>MOCK BUREAUCRACY</i>	<i>REPRESENTATIVE BUREAUCRACY</i>	<i>PUNISHMENT-CENTERED BUREAUCRACY</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Some outside agent, perhaps a headquarters staff group, imposes rules. Neither superiors nor subordinates in the unit affected participate in establishing the rules or in enforcing them.</li> <li>• There is usually little conflict between superiors and subordinates.</li> <li>• Joint violation and evasion of rules is supported by shared norms.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Both superiors and subordinates initiate rules and help enforce them.</li> <li>• There is some tension but little overt conflict</li> <li>• Joint respect of rules is supported by participation of superiors and subordinates, their common education about problems, and their consensus about solutions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rules arise from pressures by superiors or subordinates, but not both, so that one feels imposed upon by the other and attempts evasion</li> <li>• There is usually much tension and conflict</li> <li>• Rules are enforced by punishment based on norms of either superiors or subordinates, but not of both</li> </ul>

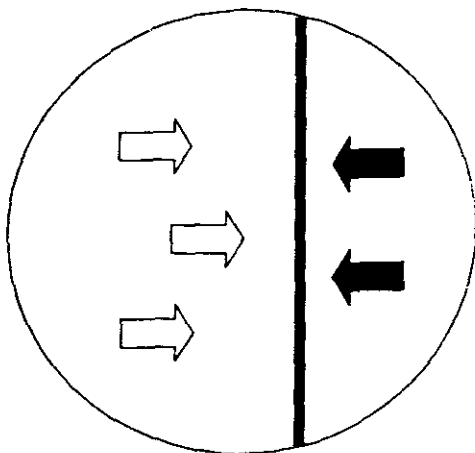
#### 4.5.2 ATTITUDE

According to Schermerhorn (1997:60), attitudes "focus on specific people or objects". For example, one's attitude towards one's job could determine how successful one will be in one's job. One's attitude towards people could determine one's working relationship with people in the workplace. Attitude can also be directed towards one's supervisors, the amount of money that one is earning and life itself. Smit and Cronje (1992:268) further state that "attitudes are formed by learning and experience. A new employee who, for the first time in his life, has a woman as a head of his section,

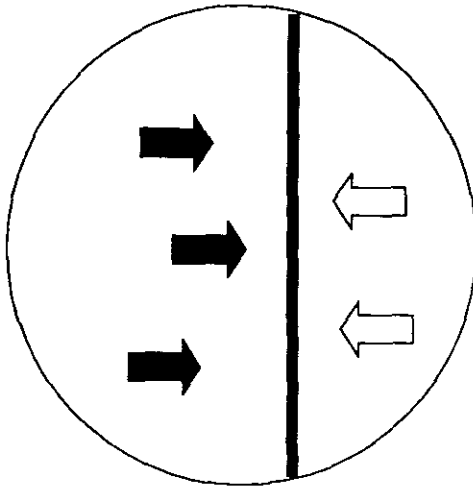
might be reprimanded because of his sloppy appearance. This experience might cause him to develop a negative attitude towards women as managers". According to Chapman (1996:18), attitude "is the way you view and interpret your environment. Some people can push unpleasant things out of sight and dwell largely on positive factors. Others seem to enjoy the unpleasant and dwell on the negative factors". People who focus on positive issues always keep their attitudes positive and push the negative factors aside. Negative people always push positive factors aside to allow negative attitudes to take control of them. Figures 4.10 and 4.11 illustrate the relationship between positive and negative attitudes. People that allow themselves to be positively influenced by diversity in the workplace will react positively to it. People who see diversity as something negative in the workplace will react negatively to it. Schermerhorn (1997:60) divides attitude into three further components, namely:

- A cognitive component.
- An affective component.
- A behavioural component.

**FIGURE 4.10 POSITIVE REACTION TO POSITIVE ATTITUDES**



**FIGURE 4.11 NEGATIVE REACTION TO NEGATIVE ATTITUDES**



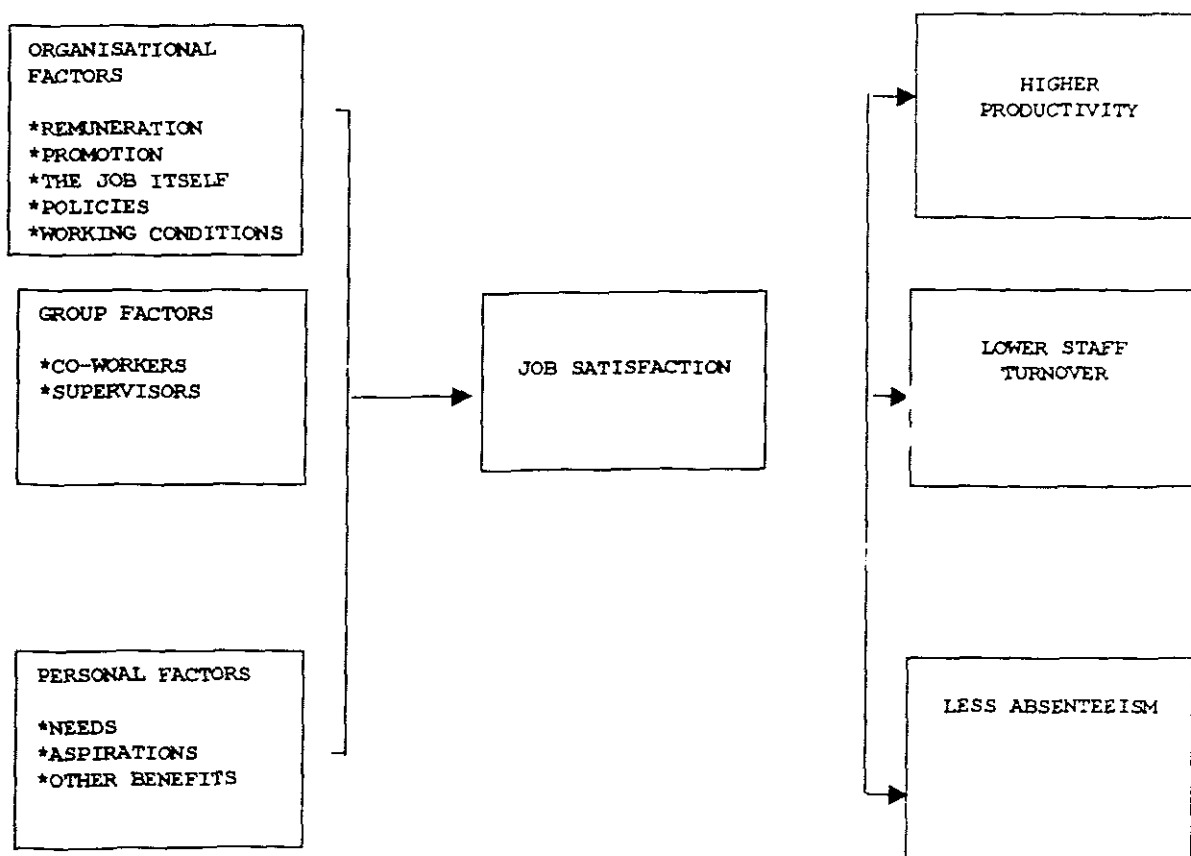
The cognitive component of attitudes includes the beliefs, opinions, knowledge, or information a person possesses. The affective component of an attitude is the specific feelings regarding the impact of cognitive attitudes. The behavioural component is the intention to behave in a certain way based on specific feelings. Figure 4.12 shows a work-related example of the three components of attitude

**FIGURE 4.12 A WORK RELATED EXAMPLE OF THE THREE COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE**

COGNITIVE COMPONENT	AFFECTIVE COMPONENT	BEHAVIOURAL COMPONENT
Beliefs and values create →  Women are bossy	feelings that influence →  I dislike women in authority	individual behaviour.  I have no future in this department where women are in charge. I am quitting my job

Smit and Cronje (1992:268) state that "it is difficult to change attitudes especially if an employee continually has new experiences every day and therefore develops new attitudes". By changing the organisational factors, the group factors and the personal factors, the negative attitude of employees, according to Smit and Cronje (1992:268), can be changed. Figure 4.13 refers to the factors that can lead to a change in attitude in the workplace. Local government managers should take note of issues like personal space, touch, movement, and appearance, values and perceptions that can influence officials' attitudes towards diversity in the workplace. Chapman (1996:114) states that "cultural attitudes are mental sets for or against those of a different culture especially if you never had the opportunity to work closely with a person from that culture. A positive attitude should be that culturally different people could contribute diverse ideas that can help departments find creative solutions to problems that an homogeneous team might not discover". Schermerhorn (1997:60) concludes that one should remember: "An attitude, like a value, is a hypothetical construct; that is, one never sees, touches, or actually isolates an attitude."

FIGURE 4.13 FACTORS THAT LEAD TO CHANGE IN ATTITUDE (SMIT & CRONJE, 1992:269)

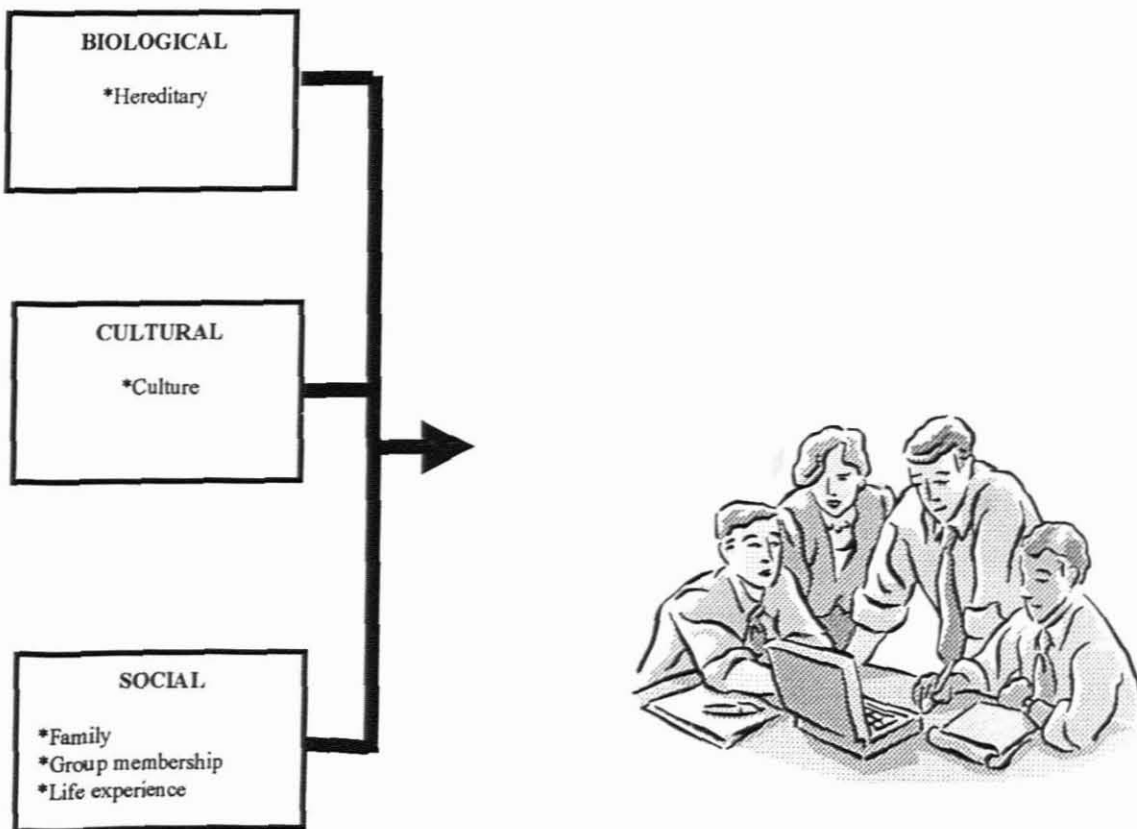




### 4.5.3 PERSONALITY

According to Smit and Cronje (1992:269), "an individual's personality largely determines how he perceives, evaluates and reacts to his environment". Figure 4.14 indicates the factors that can contribute to personality differences. Many of these issues have been dealt with in Chapter 3 under cultural and social diversity. The role personality plays with regard to diversity is also reflected in the way one was brought up, the way one was taught to relate to people from diverse backgrounds and one's relationship with a specific group (race, political affiliation, religious grouping). Knowledge of personality differences will, in addition, give the local government manager a better understanding of personality traits of diverse workers in the workplace.

FIGURE 4.14 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO PERSONALITY DIFFERENCES



#### 4.5.4 ABILITY

According to Schermerhorn (1997:46), ability refers to a person's capacity to perform the various tasks required for a given job. Factors that could influence ability in relation to diversity in the workplace are:

- Educational background.
- Geographical background.
- Physical ability.
- Income.
- Marital status.
- Parental status.
- Work experience.
- Age.
- Appearance.
- Gender.

#### 4.5.4 ABILITY

According to Schermerhorn (1997:46), ability refers to a person's capacity to perform the various tasks required for a given job. Factors that could influence ability in relation to diversity in the workplace are:

- Educational background.
- Geographical background.
- Physical ability.
- Income.
- Marital status.
- Parental status.
- Work experience.
- Age.
- Appearance.
- Gender.

#### 4.5.5 MOTIVATION

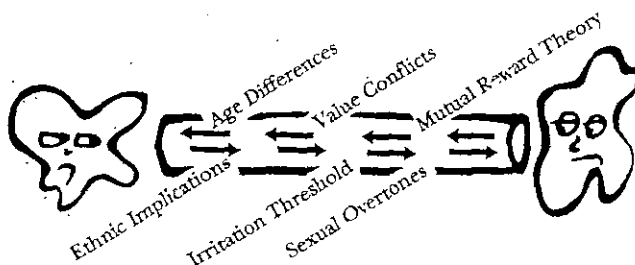
Motivation plays an important role within an organisation and influences the individual behaviour of workers in the workplace. Motivation is also important to the local government manager. He needs to know and be able to understand what motivates diverse groups of people in the workplace. According to Casse (1981:69), in the context of cultural differences, managers tend to approach motivation from false assumptions "that people with different cultural backgrounds share in some basic needs". People are not always motivated the same way. According to Casse (1981:69), "it is quite true that human beings do share in some common basic needs. But the point is that those needs are valued differently according to various cultures and that the cultural expressions or actualisations of those needs also differ from one culture to another". A local government manager's perception of and reaction to his work environment will also determine and reflect the individual behaviour of the local government manager in the workplace. Casse (1981:69) holds that "one does not motivate people but one helps people motivate themselves". Schermerhorn (1997:87) confirms this by stating that "what proves motivational as a reward system in one culture may not work in another. We should be sensitive to these issues and avoid being parochial or ethnocentric by assuming that people in all cultures are motivated by the same things in the same way".

#### 4.5.6 PERCEPTION

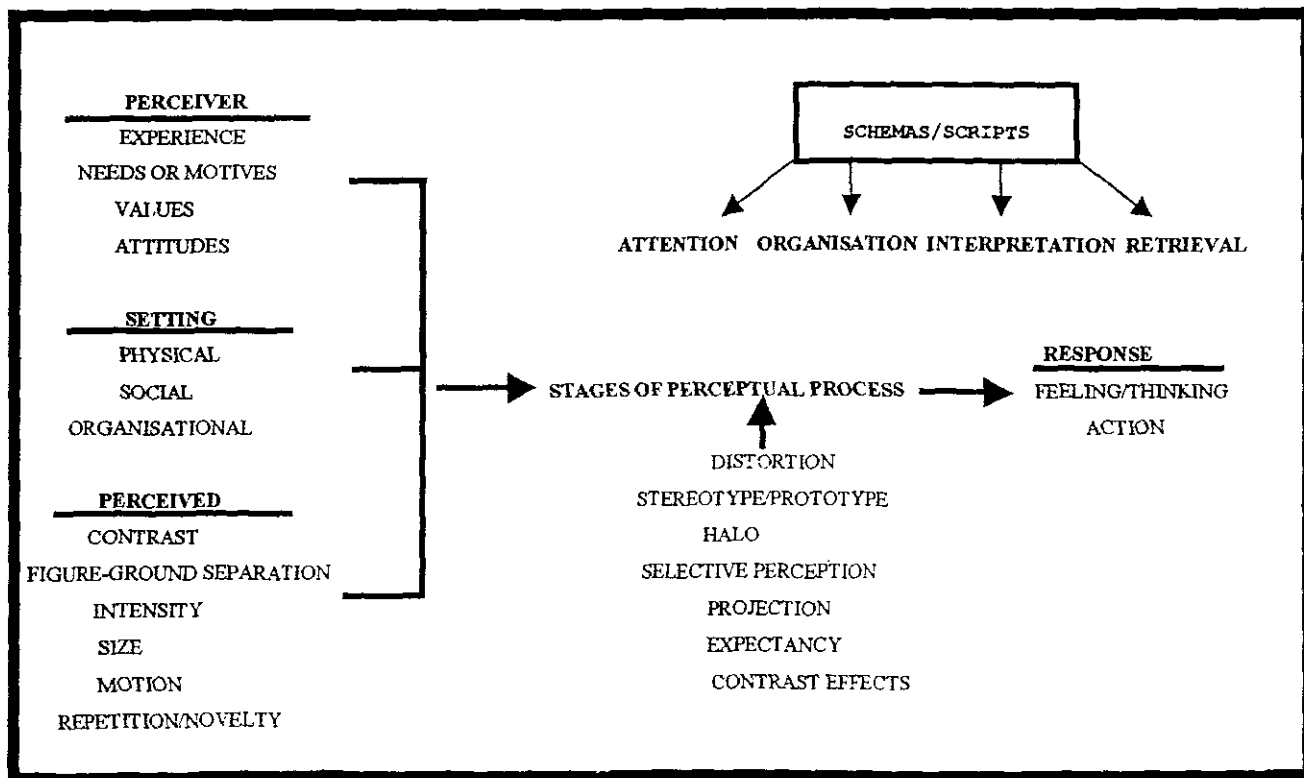
Here perception refers to how local government managers perceive workers who are different from them on the basis of gender, race, age, geographical background, level of income, education, values, norms and beliefs. According to Smit and Cronje (1992:277), "these differences in perceptions may be due to the perceiver, the object being perceived and the context in which perceptions occur. Employees' interests, expectations as well as their previous experiences will also influence what the perceiver perceives". Schermerhorn (1997:67-68) illustrates this by giving an example of a perception that was created by an African belief system against women. "Africans believe that women on a ship would drive away fish or anger the mermaids into starting up a squall." Such gender perceptions, according to Schermerhorn (1997:67), are part of the overall perceptual components of individual

behaviour in the workplace. Figure 4.15 shows other factors that can also influence an individual local government manager's perception of diversity in the workplace. Figure 4.16 displays the perceptual process according to Schermerhorn (1997:71).

**FIGURE 4.15 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS' PERCEPTION OF DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE.**



**FIGURE 4.16 THE PERCEPTUAL PROCESS ACCORDING TO SCHERMERHORN (1997:71)**



#### **4.5.7 LEARNING**

Learning focuses on how the local government manager's behaviour has been shaped by previous learning experiences regarding diversity. According to Smit and Cronje (1992:279), an employee's behaviour can be shaped in four ways:

- By positive reinforcement.
- By negative reinforcement.
- By punishment.
- By extinction..

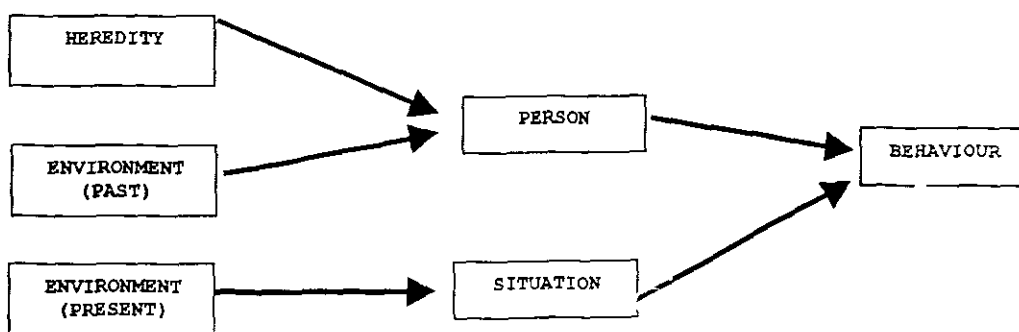
Positive reinforcement, according to Schermerhorn (1997:139), refers to "the administration of positive consequences that tend to increase the likelihood of repeating the behaviour in similar settings". An example of positive reinforcement towards diversity is when a local government manager is praised for his positive behaviour towards people from diverse backgrounds in the workplace. "Negative reinforcement is the withdrawal of negative consequences which intend to increase the likelihood of repeating the behaviour in a situation in a similar setting; it is also known as avoidance" (Schermerhorn, 1997:142). An example of negative reinforcement is when a local government manager is frequently being made aware of his discriminatory behaviour towards people from diverse backgrounds. This continues until the negative behaviour is stopped. According to Smit and Cronje (1992:280), punishment means "the creation of an unpleasant situation to eliminate undesirable behaviour. Behaviour extinction occurs when any reinforcement that supports behaviour is eliminated".

#### **4.5.8 INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR**

Scarpello and Ledvinka (1988:18) identify the following causes of individual behaviour in the workplace:

- An individual's heritage, which refers to the individual's roots of creation and genetic makeup.
- The environment and its impact on the behaviour of the individual. Environment can be divided into present and past situations. Past situations are an individual's past experiences (for example, childhood). Present situations are what the individual is currently experiencing.
- Situational factors or characteristics of the individual's present environment or surroundings that affects the person at the time of the behaviour in question. Examples from the individual's work environment, according to Scarpello & Ledvinka (1988:19), are "the immediate tasks to be completed by the individual, the compensation system, the individual's relationship with co-workers and the nature of the total organisation. Situational aspects can also include factors outside the work environment, such as the person's family life and the values of the community in which the person lives". Figure 4.17 indicates personal and situational determinants of behaviour.

**FIGURE 4.17 PERSONAL AND SITUATIONAL DETERMINANTS OF BEHAVIOUR**



According to Botes (1994:251), an individual's behaviour in the workplace is, in addition, influenced by the following components, namely:

- **THE AIM OF THE BEHAVIOUR**

This refers to what the individual wishes to achieve with his behaviour, or the desire or need an individual wishes to satisfy. It could be a dream, goal, and/or vision that an individual has of becoming successful in the work that he is performing. People from diverse backgrounds also have dreams they wish to achieve.

- **READINESS OF THE BEHAVIOUR**

This refers to the individual's preparedness to do whatsoever he can to achieve whatever he wishes. Botes (1994:101) states that if "a person comes face to face with a situation that is unknown to him or that he has not been trained for, he cannot achieve his goal and therefore has no readiness to pursue the matter. If anything should occur which is acceptable and understandable to the individual, he will exhibit readiness to react to the situation, either by doing his duty, or helping someone in distress, or by displaying any other type of behaviour depending on his type of interpretation of the situation".

- **SITUATIONS THAT INFLUENCE BEHAVIOUR**

This refers to the individual's reaction to the environment in achieving his goals. An individual from a diverse background, who has a lot of potential but who is being kept back by a supervisor who is against diverse people being promoted, could cause a situation whereby the supervisor refuses or neglects to develop the diverse individuals. An employee could leave and a valuable person would be lost to the department.

- **INTERPRETATION OF BEHAVIOUR**

According to Botes (1994:101), "before a person can act in any way at all, he has to interpret the situation in which he finds himself. Only then can he decide what his reaction will be". A person's



individual behaviour and the decision that he makes will also be determined by his previous experience in a similar situation.

- **BEHAVIOUR REACTION**

Reaction refers to the action an individual takes when he realises that his desires will or will not be achieved. According to Botes (1994:101), "a person will do enough to satisfy a need or desire, or in other words ensure that his reaction is sufficient to fulfil his needs or desires".

- **EFFECTS OF BEHAVIOUR**

"The effect or result of a person's actions confirms or disproves his interpretation of a situation" (Botes, 1994:101). If a person from a diverse background discovers that his career development is limited, his behaviour may no longer be of a goal-oriented nature. This could, in addition, affect his behaviour towards productivity, effectiveness and efficiency.

- **BEHAVIOUR FRUSTRATIONS**

When a person cannot satisfy his needs, aims, goals and visions, he will feel frustrated. This will be reflected in his behaviour in the workplace. According to Botes (1994:101), if an individual is "continually obstructed in his attempt to satisfy his needs, this can lead to severe stress, emotional outbursts or even violent behaviour. On the other hand the person may, because of egocentric characteristics, become introverted and build up tension internally". It is important for a public manager to make himself aware of behaviour that could discriminate against people from diverse backgrounds. Values, attitudes, personality, ability, motivation, perceptions and learning are all factors that could influence a public manager's behaviour towards diversity in the workplace. An awareness of these influences will help the local government manager to identify and understand the undesirable behaviour and to reinforce positive behaviour that will contribute to the building of positive working relationships.

#### 4.6 METHODS FOR MANAGING BEHAVIOURAL CHANGE IN THE WORKPLACE

The Canadian Public Service Commission and Treasury Board (1989:1) states, "Managing in the public service has always been a challenging and demanding task. In the coming decade and beyond, it will become increasingly so. The pace of change in local government will accelerate as societal values, the nature of work itself and the composition of the work force change." Forcing a local government manager to suddenly change his behaviour will not be easy, especially if he was exposed to certain behaviour over a long period of time. According to Machiavelli (in Metcalfe, 1990:211), the reason is "It must be considered that there is nothing more difficult to carry out, nor more doubtful of success, nor more dangerous to handle, than to initiate a new order of things. For the reformers have enemies in all those who profit by the older order, and only lukewarm defenders in all those who would profit by the new order. This lukewarmness arises partly from fear of their adversaries, who have the laws in their favour; and partly from the incredulity of mankind, who does not truly believe in anything new until it has had actual experiences of it." In other words, people will only adjust their behaviour when they can benefit from it. Smit and Cronje (1992:242-243) and Sing (1986:50) identify the following alternative approaches to change in the workplace:

- Structural change.
- Behavioural change (people).
- Technological change.
- Task change.

Figures 4.18 and 4.19 show the approaches to change in the workplace. Both Smit and Cronje (1992) and Sing (1986) emphasise the importance of behavioural change. According to Sing (1986:51), the following aspects of change need to be focused upon:

- Skills.
- Ability.
- Perceptions.

- Attitude.
- Interpersonal relations.
- Inter-group relations.
- Intra-group relations.

FIGURE 4.18 APPROACHES TO CHANGE IN THE WORKPLACE (SING: 1986:51)

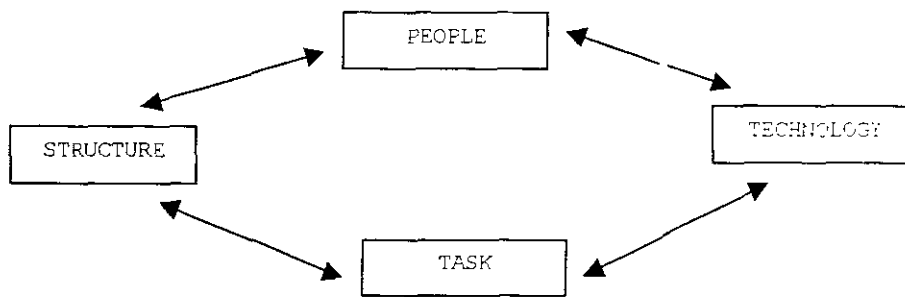
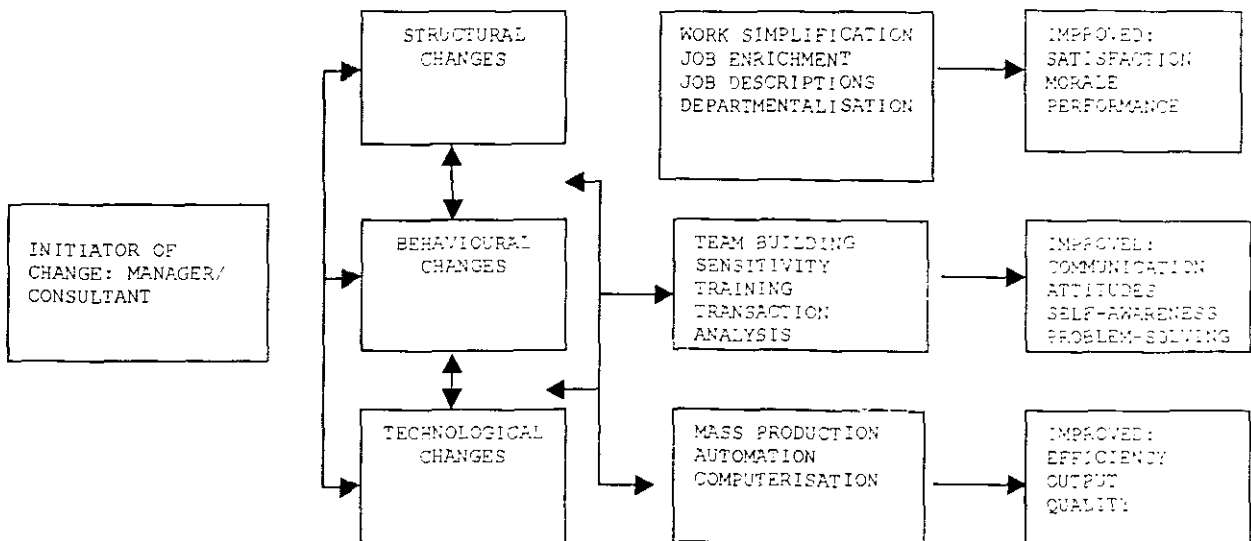


FIGURE 4.19 THREE-CHANGE APPROACH IN THE WORKPLACE (SMIT & CRONJE, 1992:243)



Organisational behaviour modification and individual behaviour modification are used as techniques for managing behaviour change in the workplace. According to Baron (1983:69), behaviour often produces consequences. "The nature of these consequences, in turn then determines whether specific actions are repeated or abandoned." According to Fox *et al*, 1991:167, as a technique, behaviour modification attempts "to shape, improve and direct behaviour of members of institutions through concentration on consequences." Behaviour yielding positive consequences is strengthened or rewarded. Behaviour followed by negative consequences is avoided. According to Fox *et al*, 1991:168) "behaviour that is not rewarded, or is punished, is less likely to be repeated". Schermerhorn (1997:143) states that managers should use punishment with caution because resentment and sabotage usually accompany punishment. According to Baron (1983:68) and Sherman (1996:248), the main purpose of behaviour modification is to shape or mould human behaviour and to achieve behavioural change. Five basic steps are usually followed in behavioural modification:

- Managerial trainees view videos in which a model manager is portrayed in dealing with an employee in an effort to improve or maintain the employee's performance.
- The training group discusses the model for effective behaviour.
- Trainees practise desired behaviour using role-playing, as other trainees observe (each participant acts out the desired behaviour).
- The trainer and other trainees provide feedback and social reinforcing such as praise, approval, encouragement and attention during the whole process.
- Throughout the training emphasis is placed on transferring the training to the job (Carrell, 1995:420 and Sherman, 1996:248).

**Organisational behaviour modification** is a technique that is used, according to Baron (1983:72), for "shaping effective behaviour in persons in organisational settings". According to Baron (1983:72), the following basic steps are followed with organisational behaviour modification:

Step one: Identification of critical behaviours.

Step two: Measurement of the rate at which the behaviours are occurring.

- Step three: Functional analysis of the behaviour.
- Step four: The development of a specific intervention strategy.
- Step five: Systematic evaluation of the outcomes. Figure 4.20 gives a description of each step of organisational behaviour modification.

**FIGURE 4.20 A DESCRIPTION OF EACH STEP TO BE TAKEN WITHIN THE ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION PROCESS**

<b>STEP</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION</b>
<b>Selection of critical behaviours</b>	Selection of behaviours that play a key role in job performance. These can be suggested by immediate supervisors or identified by expert consultants.
<b>Measurement of behaviour</b>	Determination of the rate at which critical behaviours are occurring. This information is necessary for evaluating the success of the organisational behaviour modification programme used.
<b>Functional analysis</b>	Careful examination of current behaviours being shown by employees to determine what consequences each produces, what conditions lead to their occurrence, etc.
<b>Design intervention</b>	Development of specific steps for modifying the critical behaviours. This involves careful attention to identification of effective positive reinforcers and arranging conditions so that these contingent upon performance of the desired behaviours.
<b>Systematic evaluation</b>	Final behaviour by employees is compared with that prior to the start of the project to assess changes produced by organisational behaviour modification process. These should be in directions desired.

Both individual behavioural modification and organisational behaviour modification are modelling techniques that focus on the principle of learning by observing. In this regard, learning refers to the learning of new forms of behaviour by observing the actions of others. The process of observational learning involves the following of four sub-processes as identified by Baron (1983:76-77). The first process focuses on the model. The model refers to the person whose behaviour will be observed, studied and learned. Baron (1983:76) states that "any characteristic of another person that attracts our attention - high status, physical attractiveness, high expertise - will tend to facilitate modelling". The second process focuses on the retention of the model's behaviour. The emphasis is placed on a verbal description or visual image of the model's observable behavioural action. The third process focuses on one's ability to reproduce the model's behaviour. Baron (1983:76) states that "if we are unable to do so (reproduce behaviour) because of physical limitations or other factors, it may be difficult for vicarious learning to take place". The fourth and final part of the process focuses on the role motivation plays in adapting the model's behaviour. According to Baron (1983:76), encouragement plays an important part in adapting the desired behaviour. The absence of it will ensure that no observational learning will occur. Figure 4.21 shows a comparison of how the four processes of learning behaviour will interact with regard to diversity awareness in the workplace. Figure 4.22 illustrates two personal and situational strategies for influencing the work behaviour of perpetrators and avoiders in the workplace.

#### **4.7 BASIC PRINCIPLES GUIDING THE BEHAVIOUR OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS TOWARDS DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN THE WORKPLACE**

Baron (1983:78) identifies five key principles that will help managers in guiding their own behaviour and that of their employees in the workplace. **Firstly**, clarify the contingencies. In other words "make sure that they (managers/employees) know just what actions will and will not yield desired positive outcomes". **Secondly**, be sure to reward, not punish, desired behaviour. According to Baron (1983:78), employees who are energetic or hardworking are sometimes punished instead of being rewarded for doing their work very well. Baron (1983:78) illustrates this as follows: "In many organisations, it is considered downright dangerous to have a totally clear desk. The reason for this is

**FIGURE 4.21 A COMPARISON OF THE FOUR PROCESSES OF LEARNING BEHAVIOUR AND THEIR INTERACTION WITH DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN THE WORKPLACE**

<b>BEHAVIOUR MODEL</b>	<b>RETENTION OF BEHAVIOUR</b>	<b>REPRODUCE BEHAVIOUR</b>	<b>MOTIVATION</b>
<b>PERPETUATOR &amp; AVOIDER</b>	<p>DO NOT TAKE ACTION WHEN ENCOUNTERING INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE.</p> <p>DO NOTHING ABOUT OR AVOID INCIDENTS WHEN THERE IS EVIDENCE OF DISCRIMINATION OR BIAS IN THE WORKPLACE.</p>	<p>TRAINEE WILL AVOID OR TAKE NO ACTION WHEN ENCOUNTERING INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE.</p> <p>DO NOTHING WHEN THERE IS EVIDENCE OF DISCRIMINATION OR BIAS IN THE WORKPLACE.</p>	<p>DO NOT ENCOURAGE EMPLOYEES OR AVOID TELLING THEM THAT THEY ARE VALUABLE, COMMITTED AND HARDWORKING.</p>
<b>CHANGE AGENT &amp; FIGHTER</b>	<p>TAKE ACTION WHEN ENCOUNTERING INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE.</p> <p>MAKE A DIFFERENCE WHEN THERE IS CLEAR EVIDENCE OF DISCRIMINATION OR BIAS.</p>	<p>TRAINEE WILL ALSO TAKE ACTION WHEN ENCOUNTERING INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE.</p> <p>MAKE A DIFFERENCE WHEN THERE IS CLEAR EVIDENCE OF DISCRIMINATION OR BIAS.</p>	<p>CHANGE AGENTS AND FIGHTERS WILL ENCOURAGE THEIR EMPLOYEES BY TELLING THEM THAT THEY ARE VALUABLE, COMMITTED AND HARDWORKING.</p>

**FIGURE 4.22 PERSONAL AND SITUATIONAL STRATEGIES FOR INFLUENCING THE WORK**

### BEHAVIOURS OF NAÏVE OFFENDERS, PERPETUATORS AND AVOIDERS

NAIVE OFFENDER, PERPETUATOR & AVOIDER BEHAVIOUR	POSSIBLE PERSONAL FACTOR	POSSIBLE PERSONAL PROGRAMME	POSSIBLE SITUATIONAL FACTOR	POSSIBLE SITUATIONAL PROGRAM
<p>MAKE DEROGATORY COMMENTS ABOUT DIVERSE WORKERS</p> <p>HAS BIAS AND PREJUDICE TOWARDS DIVERSE WORKERS</p> <p>AWARE THAT BEHAVIOUR IS AN OFFENCE TO DIVERSE WORKERS</p> <p>RELUCTANT TO ADDRESS INAPPROPRIATE BEHAVIOUR</p> <p>HOPE THAT BY PLAYING IT SAFE AND BY KEEPING QUIET NOTHING WILL HAPPEN</p> <p>AVOIDER BEHAVIOUR INDICATES ACCEPTANCE</p>	<p>ATTITUDE OF THE PERSON</p> <p>STABILITY OF THE PERSON</p> <p>PERCEPTION OF THE PERSON</p> <p>POOR INTERPERSONAL AND INTERGROUP RELATIONSKILLS</p> <p>ABILITY LEVEL OF PERSON TO WORK WITH DIVERSITY</p>	<p>TRAINING IN PEOPLE MANAGEMENT SKILLS THAT FOCUS ON:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* DIVERSITY AWARENESS</li> <li>* CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION</li> <li>* INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS</li> <li>* INTERGROUP RELATIONS</li> <li>* TEAM BUILDING</li> <li>* PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT</li> </ul> <p>ENCOURAGE THE PERSON TO TOLERATE DIFFERENCES</p> <p>MUST LEARN TO VALUE AND APPRECIATE THE FULL SPECTRUM OF DIVERSITY</p> <p>ENCOURAGE BEHAVIOUR TO SUPPORT DIVERSITY</p>	<p>LACK OF COMMITMENT ON ALL LEVELS OF MANAGEMENT AND BY INDIVIDUAL EMPLOYEES</p> <p>ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE NOT SUPPORTIVE OF DIVERSITY</p> <p>NO INTEGRATION IN THE WORKPLACE</p> <p>RESISTANCE TO CHANGE</p> <p>OPPORTUNITIES FOR CAREER ADVANCEMENT ARE NOT BASED ON POTENTIAL.</p> <p>CLIMATE OF DISCRIMINATION EXISTS</p> <p>BIAS AND PREJUDICE TOWARDS DIVERSE GROUPS ARE ENCOURAGED</p> <p>NO ENCOURAGEMENT FOR BEHAVIOUR THAT SUPPORTS THE VALUING OF DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE</p>	<p>CREATE A DIVERSITY AWARENESS CLIMATE</p> <p>CREATE FORUMS FOR HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING</p> <p>CREATE AWARENESS AND SKILLS-BASED DIVERSITY TRAINING PROGRAMMES FOR NEW AND CURRENT EMPLOYEES</p> <p>BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION PROGRAMMES</p> <p>ENDORSE THE VALUE OF DIVERSITY AND SEND THROUGH THE ORGANISATION</p> <p>CONTINUOUS MONITORING OF RECRUITMENT, HIRING, DEVELOPMENT, AND PROMOTION TRENDS TO ENSURE THAT IT REFLECTS THE ORGANISATION'S COMMITMENT TO THE VALUING OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY</p> <p>REWARD BEHAVIOUR THAT VALUES DIVERSITY</p>

simple: being too much on top of one's work may yield negative results. This can take the form of extra work, increased responsibilities or negative reactions from peers." **Thirdly**, choose appropriate



reinforcers. Different people seek different rewards. As a manager, one should focus on the rewards that encourage the most positive behaviour from one's employees. "Some focus mainly on financial benefits, others crave praise and recognition, and still others place great value on interesting and varied work" (Baron, 1983:78).

**Fourthly**, handle punishment with care. According to Baron (1983:78), punishment can be very effective in dealing with undesirable behaviour but frequent use can also be detrimental.

**Finally**, avoid feelings of helplessness among employees. According to Baron (1983:79), individuals could develop strong feelings of helplessness, especially when behaviour and outcomes do not connect. For example, an employee who is dedicated to completing his studies and expects to be promoted, and is not, will experience feelings of helplessness. This could lead to reduced motivation, lowered self-esteem and even depression. According to Baron (1983:79), "managers should ensure that clear connections between performance and reinforcement exist and that the persons working under their direction perceive them. To the extent that such conditions prevail, employees will tend to view their fate as being largely in their own hands". Scarpelo and Ledvinka (1988:20) also identify a very important principle relating to guiding the behaviour of public managers towards diversity awareness, namely that, "one shouldn't jump to the conclusion about whether personal or situational factors are responsible, but instead should attempt to diagnose the cause of the behaviour in question".

The following basic guidelines are important in managing diversity awareness in the workplace. The objective is not only to ensure peaceful integration in the workplace but also to encourage local government managers to behave in ways that would:

- Recognise the enormous diversities that exist in the workplace.
- Learn to value and appreciate the full spectrum of those diversities.
  
- Honour the principle of love and respect for one another.

- Tolerate differences.
- Create cultural awareness in the workplace.
- Create forums for human relations training.
- Foster an atmosphere of openness to new experiences and people.
- Encourage humility.
- Stimulate a sense of humour but use it only when appropriate.
- Practise patience.
- Engender empathy.
- Seek commitment of and foster enthusiasm in personnel.
- Stop being judgmental of people who are different.
- Change attitudes and perceptions by being an intercultural ambassador.
- Talk openly about racial and ethnic differences. These open discussions should, however not be used by the public manager to pry into his employees personal lives.
- Build an atmosphere of trust.
- Encourage commitment - the desire to work to one's fullest potential and perform beyond

expectations in an attempt to satisfy one's own needs and expectations within the framework of organisational goals (Fuhr, 1992a:14).

- Encourage unity in the workplace.
- Address diversity through participative management.
- Turn fear of others into curiosity to learn.

#### **4.8 SUMMARY**

The public sector has experienced many changes, the more recent being the transformation of local governments after the 1994 elections. Managing diversity in the workplace is one of the elements that accompanied the changes in local government. This chapter focuses on a behaviour-modelling framework that could help local government managers change their behavioural attitudes towards diversity awareness in the workplace. The first part of the framework deals with the nature of diversity awareness and the shared values of those in the workplace. The second part of the behaviour-modelling framework deals with the study of behaviour and behavioural models in the workplace, focusing on the variables determining the behaviour characteristics of local government managers towards acknowledging diversity in the workplace. The third part of the framework deals with the methods for managing behavioural change and the key basic principles that guide the behaviour of local government managers in managing diversity in the workplace.

In **Chapter 5** the focus will be on developing a research design to investigate diversity awareness in the workplace.

## CHAPTER 5: A RESEARCH DESIGN TO ASSESS DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS

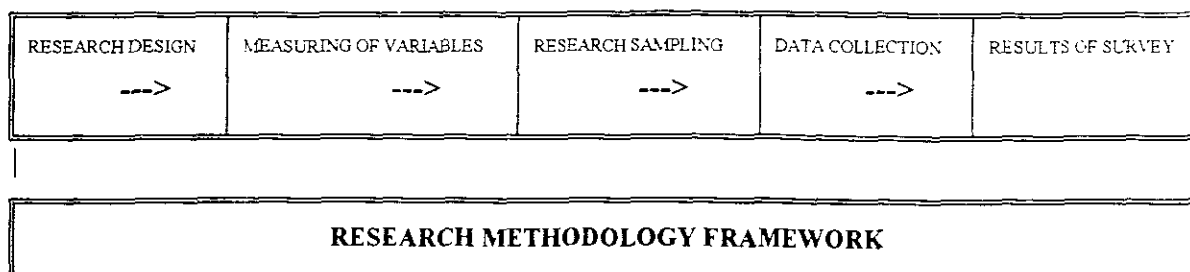
### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters an attempt was made to investigate diversity awareness in local government. Chapter 1 referred to the different race groups in South Africa who encounter each other on a personal level when enrolling at a university or obtaining some form of employment. Perceptions of other races or ethnic groups are shaped by stereotyped images created by the national broadcaster or the mass media, observations of like-race family, friends and colleagues and by personal experiences. This lack of awareness about differences creates prejudice and racism within the workplace. Chapter 2 provided a theoretical framework of diversity management and Chapter 3 referred to a theoretical framework for managing diversity in local government. Chapter 4 focused on a behaviour-modelling framework of diversity awareness in local government. Chapter 5 focuses on the research design framework used for generating the information needed to meet the required research objectives as set out in Chapter 1, the main aim being to utilise a measuring instrument to investigate the diversity awareness of local government managers in the Nelson Mandela Metropole. Chapter 5 contributes in helping the individual local government manager to become aware of ways in which he or she discriminates against, judges or isolates others concerning diversity.

### 5.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY FRAMEWORK

Figure 5.1 shows the research methodology framework used to investigate the diversity awareness of local government managers. The framework consists of five interlinked phases:

**FIGURE 5.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY FRAMEWORK**



### 5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:21), a research design is a "plan that guides decisions as to when and how often to collect data, what data to gather, from whom and how to collect data, and how to analyse the data. The term 'research design' also has both a general and a specific meaning. The general meaning of research design refers to the presentation of the plan for the study's methodology. The design should indicate the purpose of the study and demonstrate that the plan is consistent with the study's purpose. The specific meaning of research design refers to the type of study". The type of research design for a specific research project is influenced by the following factors, as identified by Struwig (1996:41-43):

#### ■ METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The researcher must decide if the data will be collected either through questionnaires, observations or experiments.

#### ■ DEGREE OF MEASURING ACCURACY

The researcher must further decide whether to use a qualitative or quantitative research approach to measure the degree of accuracy.

#### ■ MAIN OBJECTIVE OF RESEARCH

The research design could be influenced by the main objective of the research, which could be to:

- Be evaluative in nature.
- Test hypotheses.
- Conduct comparative research.
- Conduct a descriptive study.

#### ■ TIME ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

Time orientation plays a role in the choice of research design. Struwig (1996:42) refers to three types of time-oriented studies, namely cross-sectional, longitudinal and retrospective. Cross-sectional research is conducted by drawing from the past to explain the present; longitudinal research is conducted over time; and retrospective research is conducted to reflect on the past.

## ■ REASONS FOR COLLECTING THE DATA

The reason for collecting data is to determine whether primary data should be gathered or whether a secondary analysis will be sufficient.

According to Struwig (1996:43), there are two broad categories of research, namely qualitative research and quantitative research. **Qualitative research** is used to focus on:

- The characteristics of language as a means of communication or a cognitive representation of culture.
- Discovering realities.

**Quantitative research** is used when data can be expressed in numbers. The most common research designs are:

- Designs for exploratory research.
- Designs for experimental research.
- Designs for descriptive research.

Exploratory research assists the researcher in investigating a problem about which little is known. According to Struwig (1996:45), the main purpose of exploratory research is the development and clarification of ideas and the formulation of questions and hypotheses for more precise investigation later. This method also involves the gathering of a great deal of information on one or a few cases. Struwig (1996:45) further states three possible methods used for exploratory research, namely:

- The study of secondary sources of information.
- An analysis of selected cases.
- A survey of individuals who are likely to have ideas on the subject as a whole.

Struwig (1996:47) states that "one way of investigating causal theories is to test them experimentally. Experimental research is the best method to obtain the evidence necessary to infer

the existence of a causal relationship between two well defined variables". O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:57) refer to types of experimental designs, namely the classical experimental design and the randomised post-test-only design. The classical experimental design is the model for experimental research. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:57), "the classical experimental design allows the researcher to control the time order or exposure of the variables under study, to determine statistical associations among variables, and to control other possible causal factors. Properly utilized, it can provide the strongest reliable evidence of a causal relationship. It is also an excellent model for demonstrating the logic of explanatory designs". The randomised post-test-only design is an experimental design, through which the researcher, according to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:57), "can assign subjects to different groups, manipulate the independent variables, and control most environment factors. The researcher could, for example, assign some subjects to the group that are exposed to the independent variables and other subjects to groups that are not. Subjects are assigned in such a way that there is no systematic difference between the groups. This is called the random assignment".

According to Struwig (1996:46), descriptive research attempts to describe something (the demographic characteristics of the users of a given product), and the degree to which use varies with income, age and sex. The descriptive research design, according to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:21), constitutes the "basic research tools for administrators and policy analysts. It provides a wealth of information, which is easy to understand and interpret". Leedy (1985:134) identifies the following characteristics of the descriptive survey research method:

- It deals with a situation, which demands the technique of observation as the principal means of collecting the data.
- It chooses the population of the study carefully, is clearly defined and specifically delimited in order to set precise parameters for ensuring discretion to the population.
- Its data is susceptible to distortion through the introduction of bias into research design.
- Its data is organised and presented systematically so that valid and accurate conclusions may be drawn from it.

O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:21,41) identify the following studies as example designs for descriptive research, namely cross-sectional designs, longitudinal designs, time series, panel studies, case studies, focus group interviewing and meta-analysis. These studies will help the researcher to answer questions such as: how many? how much? how efficient? how effective? how adequate?

The **cross-sectional designs** are used to "show relationships among variables of interest at one point in time. Researchers may access, manipulate, and analyse the resulting database according to their own interest. **Longitudinal designs** measure variables at two or more periods and can be used to measure changes in the variables over time. **Time-series designs** demonstrate long term, cyclical, and seasonal trends in the occurrence of a variable. Time-series designs help a researcher to describe a variable over time. They are used extensively to forecast changes in a variable. Using **panel study designs**, researchers follow individual cases and obtain information on them for several time periods. This design allows the researcher to measure the changes taking place within a group as well as the change in group characteristics over time. **Case studies** provide the researcher with detail about how something happened, and why it happened. One of the strengths of case studies is that they can involve multiple sources of data collection. **Focus group interviewing** is used to obtain detailed information from a small group of individuals. **Meta-analysis** allows researchers to assemble a set of similar studies, use their data to form a single dataset, and determine what, if any, general hypotheses have been consistently supported" (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:41).

Based on the purpose and objectives of the dissertation as defined in Chapter 1 and on the brief discussion of the three types of research designs, it was decided to use the **descriptive design** in collaboration with the **cross-sectional design**. The purpose of the study is, *inter alia*, to investigate the behaviour response of public managers concerning diversity awareness in the workplace. To help achieve this, the research objectives of the study are:

- To investigate the theory of diversity management in the workplace.
- To develop a theoretical framework for managing diversity in local government.



- To develop a theoretical framework for understanding the behaviour of local government managers with regard to diversity in the workplace.
- To utilise a measuring instrument empirically to investigate the diversity awareness of public service managers in the workplace.
- To contribute to the development of a normative framework on managing diversity in local government.
- To incorporate the diversity awareness reality model as a normative model for managing diversity in local government.

Leedy (1985:133-134) refers to the descriptive survey method as the normative survey method and further states that observation is not restricted to the conventional sense of perceiving with the eyes as the only source of data. Descriptive survey studies could be conducted where the means of observation could be questionnaires, interviews and the tape-recording of data.

## **5.4 MEASURING OF VARIABLES**

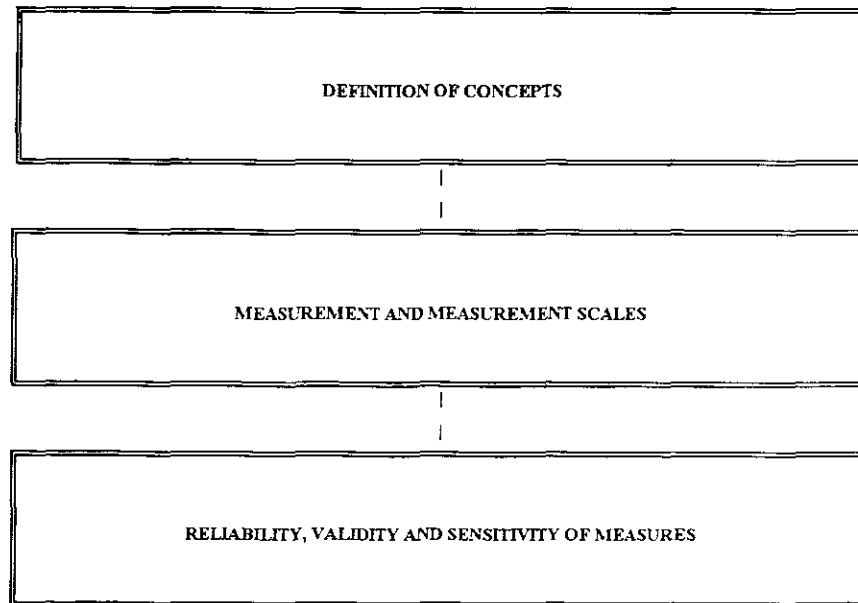
O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:107) state the following about the measuring of variables: "Measuring is the process of quantification. Quantification makes it easier to compile, analyse, and compare information and phenomena." They further warn against the other disadvantage of measuring, stating that no measure can fully describe job satisfaction, employee competence, quality of life or level of poverty. The approximations of concepts, represented by measures, have great value, but one should also recognise their limitations. They use the following framework for measuring variables within a study. Figure 5.2 refers to the three phases within this framework.

### **5.4.1 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:83) state that once a researcher has identified the variables to study, he should define and measure each one. They refer to two types of variables a researcher needs to define, namely:

- Conceptual concepts.
- Operational concepts.

**FIGURE 5.2 FRAMEWORK FOR MEASURING VARIABLES WITHIN A STUDY (O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL, 1995:83-107)**



According to O'Sullivan & Rassel (1995:83-84), the conceptual concept clarifies what the investigator (researcher) means by a concept, and it serves as a blueprint for the operational definition. Chapter 2 gives the conceptual definition of the diversity awareness of public service managers in the workplace. Diversity is defined as otherness, or those human qualities different from our own and alien to the groups to which we belong, yet present in other individuals and groups. *Others* are people who are different from us along one or several dimensions such as age, ethnicity, gender, race and sexual orientation. *Different* is defined as unlike or not the same. *Awareness* is defined as having knowledge or being informed. *Managing diversity* is defined as a way whereby one is utilised to one's fullest potential; there is both a central organising idea in the management of equal opportunities at work, and a comprehensive managerial process for developing an environment that works for all employees. The operational definition details exactly how a concept or a variable is measured and how its value is determined (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:107). Figure 5.3 refers to the operational definition of the diversity awareness of local government managers in the workplace. A total of forty statements was involved, Figure 5.3 only refers to five of these statements.

**FIGURE 5.3 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS IN THE WORKPLACE**

*Statements and Responses:* Check the response and circle the number that best answers it.

1. Do you: challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments?
2. Speak up when someone is humiliating another person or acting inappropriately?
3. Think about the impact of your comments and actions before you speak or act.
4. Refuse to participate in jokes that are derogatory to any group, culture, or sex?
5. Refrain from repeating statements or rumours that reinforce prejudice or bias?

*Assign values:*

**Step 1:** Assign values to each response, that is,

Assign 0	Neutral
Assign 4	Almost always
Assign 3	Usually
Assign 2	Seldom
Assign 1	Almost never

**Step 2:** Total the response to statements 1-4 to determine a respondent's level of diversity awareness.

**Step 3:** Group the values, for example,

Naive offender:	scores	0-39
Perpetuator:	scores	40-79
Avoider:	scores	80-119
Change agent:	scores	120-139
Fighter:	scores	140-160

#### 5.4.2 MEASUREMENT AND MEASUREMENT SCALES

Measurement, according to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:87), "applies rules for assigning numerals to the values of a variable". To determine this, you need to understand measurement scales or levels of measurement. Measures can be classified as nominal, ordinal, interval or ratio. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:89), nominal and ordinal measures may also be called categorical variables, and interval and ratio scales numerical variables. Categorical variables have labels, whereas numerical variables are simply numbered when used as devices to identify

categories. Letters of the alphabet or other symbols could also replace the numbers and the scale could be unchanged. Figure 5.4 refers to the different measurement scales and their characteristics. As pointed out, the only disadvantage of numeral scales is that values are not stated. This means, for example, that the numbering does not imply that finance is more or less important than budgeting. Figure 5.5 refers to an example of a nominal scale as depicted by O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:87). Ordinary scales, on the other hand, rank data but the exact distance separating two pieces of data cannot be determined. Figure 5.6 refers to the numbers assigned to the job satisfaction scale as depicted by O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:88).

**FIGURE 5.4 DIFFERENT MEASUREMENT SCALES AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS**

MEASUREMENT SCALES	CHARACTERISTIC
NOMINAL & ORDINAL} * CATEGORIAL VARIABLES	HAVE LABELS
INTERVAL & RATIO} * NUMERICAL VARIABLES	ARE NUMBERED

**FIGURE 5.5 AN EXAMPLE OF A NOMINAL SCALE AS DEPICTED by O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL (1995:87).**

- 1=PLANNING
- 2=PERSONNEL
- 3=FINANCE
- 4=BUDGETING
- 5=PUBLIC WORKS
- 6=ENGINEERING
- 7=PUBLIC SAFETY

**FIGURE 5.6 NUMBERS ASSIGNED TO JOB SATISFACTION (O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL, 1995:88)**

- 5=VERY SATISFIED
- 4=GENERALLY SATISFIED
- 3=NEUTRAL
- 2=GENERALLY DISSATISFIED
- 1=VERY DISSATISFIED

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:88), the values as shown in Figure 5.6, for example, cannot determine the distance between values. One cannot argue that a "very satisfied" employee is five times happier than a "very dissatisfied" employee. Personnel rankings serve as an example where results are usually categorised according to an ordinal scale. Interval and ratio scales indicate the distance between two pieces of data. Ratio scales, unlike interval scales, have a true zero value. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:88-89), a fixed zero permits one to use ratios to describe relationships between scaled objects. One can add or subtract objects measured by interval and ratio scales. One can multiply and divide objects measured by a ratio scale. Temperature scales are the most common examples of interval scales. Ratio scales are commonly used in administrative research. Frequently used ratio measures include amounts of a total budget or its components, programme costs, population size or the number of programme participants.

The ordinal scale was used as the measurement scale to rank the data for the purpose of this study. Figure 5.7 refers to the numbers assigned to the diversity awareness study. Measures should also be reliable, operationally valid, and sensitive. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:90-91), if one starts asking questions such as: "Is the difference between subjects or over time a real difference?", you are questioning its reliability. When you ask: "Does this measure actually produce data on the variable of interest?", you are questioning its operational validity. When you ask: "Is this measure sufficiently precise?", you are questioning its sensitivity.

**FIGURE 5.7 NUMBERS ASSIGNED TO THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS STUDY**

<b>Assign values to each response, that is,</b>	
Assign 0	Neutral
Assign 4	Almost always
Assign 3	Usually
Assign 2	Seldom
Assign 1	Almost never

### 5.4.3 RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND SENSITIVE MEASURES

#### ■ RELIABILITY

Reliability consists of three dimensions. (Figure 5.8 refers). Reliable measures allow a researcher to conclude that differences between subjects or over time are real differences rather than differences due to the measure or the measuring process. Reliable measures, according to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:107), will yield the same result time after time if whatever being measured has not changed. Appendix 1.2 refers to procedures to be followed in establishing the reliability of measures.

**FIGURE 5.8 THE THREE DIMENSIONS OF RELIABILITY (O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL, 1995:92)**

*Stability*: measure gives same result when applied to same phenomenon more than one time; that is, different results will only occur if the phenomenon being measured changes.

*Equivalence*: measure gives same result when applied to the same phenomenon by more than one investigator; different versions of a measure give same result when applied to the same phenomenon.

*Internal consistency*: all items constituting a measure relate to the same phenomenon.

#### ■ OPERATIONAL VALIDITY

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:108), a reliable measure is not necessarily operationally valid. Appendix 1.3 refers to what a researcher should look for when the operational validity of a measure needs to be established and Appendices 1.4 - 1.5 refer to examples of establishing operational validity as illustrated by O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:100-104).

## ■ SENSITIVITY

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:106), the sensitivity of a measure refers to its precision or calibration. A sensitive measure has sufficient values to detect variations among respondents, the degree of variations captured by a measure being appropriate to the purpose of the study.

## 5.5 RESEARCH SAMPLING

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:141), "sampling is an efficient and effective method of studying a population, whether it consists of people, files, agencies, or other units". Struwig (1996:65) states that sampling is often used when it is impossible or impractical to consult all the people in a specific category as indicated by the research project. It is important to clarify some of the concepts used in sampling. A sample, according to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:114), "is a subset of units selected from a larger set of the units and an element of a sampling unit refers to the unit about which information is sought. The elements in any specific sample would depend on the objectives of the study. The sample frame refers to the specific set of units from which the sample is actually drawn. A parameter is a characteristic of a sample. A sample design is a set of procedures for selecting the units from the population which are to be in the sample". According to Struwig (1996:65) "The population is the total set of units in which the researcher is interested, that is, the larger set from which the sample is drawn."

### 5.5.1 SAMPLING METHODS

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:141), a researcher can choose between two types of sampling designs, namely:

- Probability sampling.
- Non-probability sampling.

Figure 5.9 refers to examples of non-probability sampling and Figure 5.10 to probability sampling. Both of these sampling designs have their advantages. Figure 5.11 refers to the advantages of probability and non-probability sampling.

**FIGURE 5.9 NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING (STRUWIG, 1996:71)**

DESCRIPTION	COST AND DEGREE OF USE	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
1. <i>Convenience</i> Researcher uses most convenient sample or most economical sample.	Very low cost, extensively used.	No need for list of population.	Variability and bias of estimates cannot be measured or controlled; projecting data beyond sample inappropriate.
2. <i>Judgement</i> : An expert or experienced researcher selects the sample to fulfil a specific purpose, such as ensuring that all members have a certain characteristic.	Moderate cost, average use.	Useful for certain types of forecasting: sample guaranteed to meet a specific objective.	Bias due to expert's beliefs may make sample unrepresentative; projecting data beyond sample inappropriate.
3. <i>Quota</i> : Researcher classifies population by pertinent properties, determines desired proportion of sample from each class, and fixes quotas for each interviewer.	Moderate cost, very extensively used.	Introduces some stratification of population; does not require a list of population.	Introduces bias in researcher's classification of subjects, non-random selection within classes means error from population cannot be estimated, projecting data beyond sample inappropriate.
4. <i>Snowball</i> : Initial respondents are obtained by referral first respondents.	Low cost, used in special situations.	Useful in locating members of rare populations.	High bias because sample units are not independent; projecting data beyond sample inappropriate.

### 5.5.2 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Local government managers from the top, middle and junior levels working at the Nelson Mandela Metropole (Port Elizabeth) were selected as the target population. They were selected because they represent the leadership in the workplace; they attract and motivate employees; they reshape organisational directions; they create environments within which others can develop and they ensure the effective achievement of high quality results. The departmental telephone directory of the Nelson Mandela Metropole was used to specify the sampling frame. The probability sample method (design) was used. The sampling plan consists of two survey phases of study namely a pilot and a main study. Figure 5.12 refers to the sampling steps which were followed. Figures 5.13



**FIGURE 5.10 PROBABILITY SAMPLING (STRUWIG: 1996:72)**

DESCRIPTION	COST AND DEGREE OF USE	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
1. Simple random: Researcher assigns a number to each member of the sampling frame, then selects sample units using a random method.	High cost, not frequently used in practice (except random digit dialling).	Only minimal advance knowledge of population needed: easy to analyse data and computer error.	Requires sample frame to work from; does not use knowledge of population that researcher may have; larger errors for same sample size than stratified sampling; respondents may be widely dispersed, hence higher cost.
2. Systematic: Researcher uses natural ordering or order of sampling frame, selects an arbitrary starting point, then selects items at preselected intervals.	Moderate cost, moderately used.	Simple to draw sample; easy to check.	If sampling intervals are related to a periodic ordering of the population, increased variability may be introduced.
3. Stratified: Researcher divides the population into groups and randomly selects sub-samples from each group. Variations include proportional, disproportional, and optimal allocation of sub-sample sizes.	Low cost, moderately used.	Assures representation of all groups in sample; characteristics of each stratum can be estimated and comparisons made; reduces variability for sample size	Larger error for comparable size than other probability samples, researcher must be able to assign population members to unique cluster to prevent duplication or omission of individuals
4. Cluster: Researcher selects sampling units at random, and then does complete observation of all units in the group.	Low cost, frequently used.	If clusters are geographically defined, lowest field cost is yielded; requires listing of all clusters but of individuals only within clusters; can estimate characteristics of clusters as well as of population.	Depend on techniques combined.
5. Multistage: Progressively smaller areas are selected at each stage. Researcher performs some combination of the first four techniques.	High cost, frequently used, especially in nationwide surveys.	Depends on techniques combined.	

**FIGURE 5.11 ADVANTAGES OF PROBABILITY AND NON-PROBABILITY SAMPLING (ADAPTED**

FROM O'SULLIVAN AND RASSEL, 1995:125,129 and 141)

PROBABILITY	NON-PROBABILITY
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Makes use of random selection of units.</li> <li>• Randomisation eliminates biases which may affect the selection of units for non- probability samples.</li> <li>• Allows the correct use of sampling statistics.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Is easier, quicker, cheaper and widely used.</li> <li>• Is suitable for exploratory research.</li> <li>• Usefulness depends on the researcher's purpose, the criteria for selecting the units for the sample and how well they seem to represent the population of interest.</li> </ul>

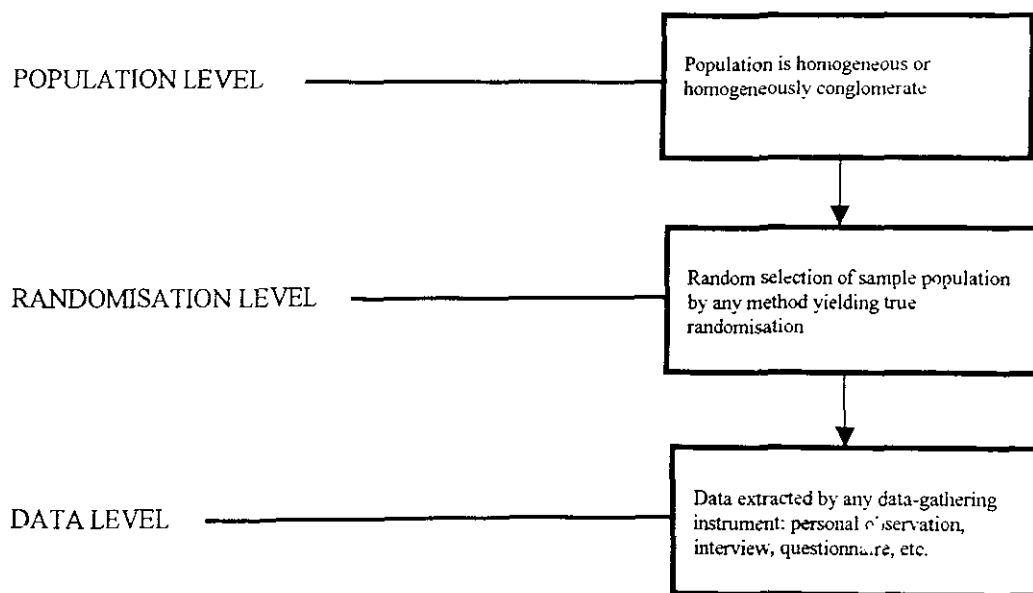
FIGURE 5.12 SAMPLING STEPS FOLLOWED IN THIS STUDY

STEPS	DESCRIPTION
1. DEFINE THE POPULATION	<p><b>Elements</b>=Managers  <b>Units</b>=Managers working in the public sector  <b>Extent</b>=All permanently appointed career managers  <b>Time</b>=Managers working unnel December 1995</p>
2. SPECIFY THE SAMPLING FRAME	Departmental telephone directory of managers working at the Nelson Mandela Metropole and Police Service.
3. SPECIFY THE SAMPLING UNIT	Only local government managers working at the Nelson Mandela Metropole.
4. SPECIFY A SAMPLING METHOD	Probability sampling method
5. DETERMINE THE SAMPLE SIZE	<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>SAMPLE SIZE</u></b></p> <p>(a) Pilot study: 200            (b) Nelson Mandela Metropole: 150            (c) Nelson Mandela Metropole Police Service: 150</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>SAMPLE LEVEL</u></b></p> <p>(a) Top management            (b) Middle management            (c) Junior management</p>
6. SPECIFY A SAMPLING PLAN	<p>(a) Pilot study: Simple random sampling            (b) Nelson Mandela Metropole and the Police Service: Stratified random sampling</p>
7. SELECT THE SAMPLE	Field work done by researcher and two coordinators.

and 5.14 refer to the simple random technique and the stratified random technique as depicted by

Leedy (1985,156-157). The simple random sampling technique was used during the pilot study of this research and the stratified random sample technique was used for the investigation at the Nelson Mandela Metropole and the South African Police Service within the Metropole. The simple random sampling was used in the pilot study because the target population was homogeneous conglomerated and because the selection of the target population was done on a random basis. The stratified random sampling was used in the main study because of the target population, which consisted of top, middle and junior level managers. An equalisation level of 50 respondents per level was built in to ensure that the population was not skewed, and that there was no bias in the levels. The researcher and two co-ordinators employed in the organisations where the research survey was conducted did the fieldwork. The role of these co-ordinators was to receive or to collect the data.

**FIGURE 5.13 THE SIMPLE RANDOM TECHNIQUE (LEEDY, 1985:156)**



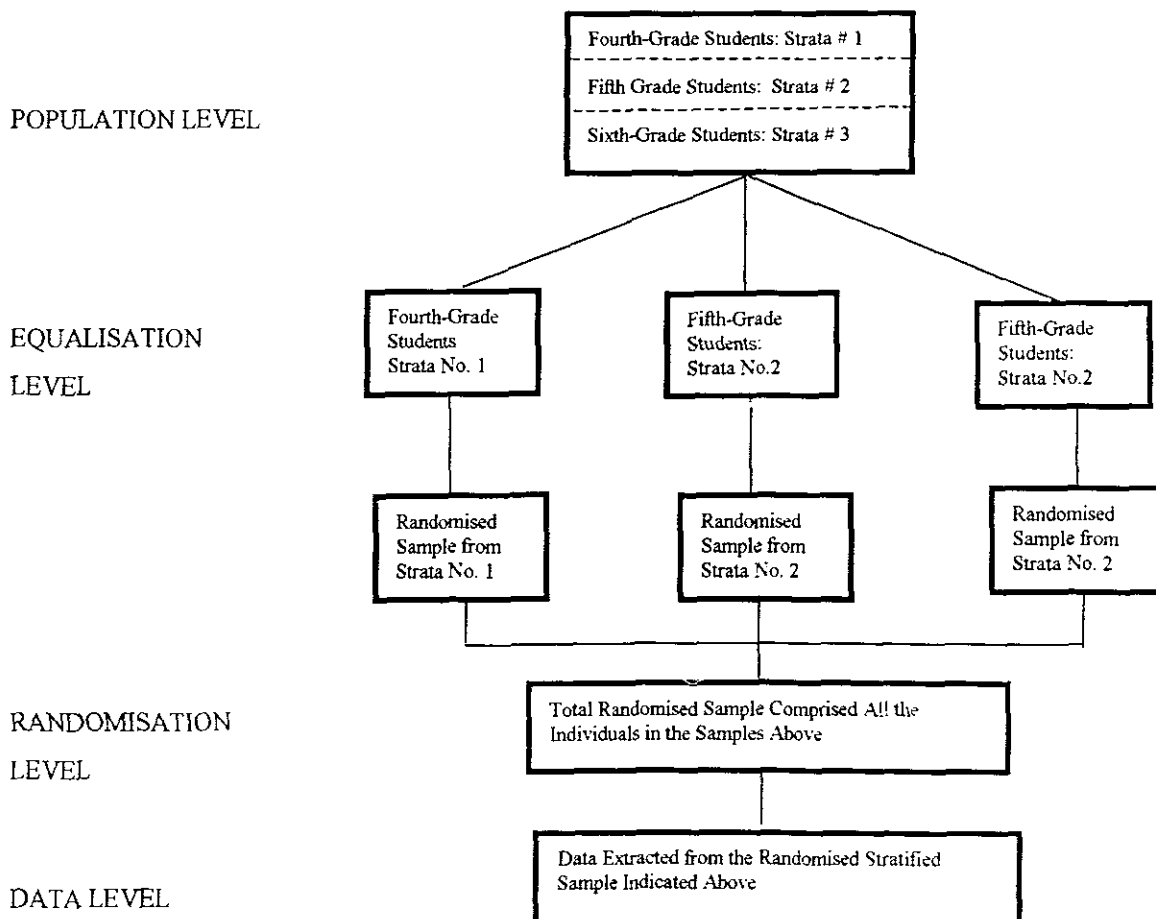
### 5.5.3 DETERMINATION OF THE SAMPLE SIZE

According to Struwig (1996:73), the decision regarding the size of a sample can be very complex. The following factors, as identified by Struwig (1996:73), and Leedy (1985:163), determined the size of the sample for this study:

- The basic characteristics of the population.
- The objectives of the research.
- Data analysis, credibility, time and financial constraints.
- Non-response factor.
- Statistical precision.
- Sample size based on judgement.
- Acknowledgement of the presence of bias.

The above factors contribute to the selection of 200 people for the pilot study and 300 people for the main study.

**FIGURE 5.14 THE STRATIFIED RANDOM TECHNIQUE (LEEDY, 1985:157)**



## 5.6 DATA COLLECTION

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:175), the nature of the study should also determine the data collection method. They identify the following methods for collecting data, namely:

- Mailed questionnaires.
- Telephone surveys.
- In-person interviewing.

Figure 5.15 refers to a comparison between the above-mentioned methods for the purpose of data collection.

### 5.6.1 METHOD USED FOR COLLECTING DATA

The questionnaire method was used for collecting the data. According to Sax (in Taylor, 2001: 249), a questionnaire is a set of questions dealing with a specific topic or related group of topics, given to a selected group of individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration. Struwig (1996:56) identifies two types of questionnaires which can be used for data collection, namely, interviewer-administered questionnaires and self-administered questionnaires. Figure 5.16 refers to a checklist when using the interviewer-administered and self-administered questionnaires. The self-administered questionnaire method was used.

In addition to this, O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:186) emphasize the *categorizing* of the *type* and *design of questions* needed to gather information regarding facts, behaviour, opinions, attitudes, motives and knowledge. "**Factual questions** elicit objective information from respondents. **Demographic questions**, such as those concerning sex, age, marital status, education, income, profession, and occupational history are factual questions that are commonly asked. **Behaviour questions** ask respondents about things they do or have done." According to Taylor (2001:249) questions on behaviour determine awareness of a particular subject and attempt to assess the current situation. "**Opinion questions** are the verbal expression of attitudes and ask people what they think about an issue or event. **Attitude questions** try to elucidate more stable, underlying

**FIGURE 5.15 COMPARING MAIL, TELEPHONE AND IN-PERSON SURVEYS (O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL, 1995:175-176)**

	<b>MAIL</b>	<b>TELEPHONE</b>	<b>IN-PERSON INTERVIEWING</b>
<b>COSTS</b>	Low cost (printing, mailing and return postage, incentives for responding)	Higher cost (personnel, equipment, telephone charges)	Highest cost (personnel, travel)
<b>RESPONSE RATE</b>	Lowest (follow-up-required)	Higher (may need to vary calling times to get a representative sampling)	Highest (problems with at-homes and refusals due to safety concerns)
<b>TURNAROUND TIME</b>	Slowest	Highest	Slow (depends on sample size and dispersion)
<b>RESPONDENTS ISSUES</b>	Convenient, especially for hard-to-reach professionals; poor if subjects are elderly or poorly educated	Most intrusive; allows easy access to dispersed populations	Convenient, if appointment scheduled; allows access to hard-to-reach populations
<b>TYPE OF INFORMATION</b>	Highly motivated respondents can look up information, write detailed answers; other respondents require clear, easily answerable questions	Avoid biases caused by respondents reading ahead; allows for probing and elaboration of answers. apparent anonymity may encourage more candid response; respondent fatigue if too long	Allows for in-depth, probing questions; good source for qualitative detail; valuable for exploratory studies; respondents-interviewer interaction may introduce bias

**FIGURE 5.16 A CHECKLIST FOR USING INTERVIEWER-ADMINISTERED AND SELF-**

**ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRES (O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL, 1995:207)****SELF ADMINISTERED SURVEYS:**

- The purpose is clearly stated in the introduction.
- Directions on how to answer are clear.
- Recipients who do not belong to the target population are identified; for example, by the use of a screening question, and are told what to do with the survey.
- Survey instrument has deadline data and information on where to return the survey.

**INTERVIEWER-ADMINISTERED SURVEYS:**

- Interviewer's introduction clearly indicates the purpose.
- Directions on how to ask questions and record answers are clear.
- Recipients who do not belong to the target population are identified, and interviewer instructions indicate if and how he should look for a replacement respondent.

**ON ALL SURVEYS AND DATA COLLECTING INSTRUMENTS:**

- Critical terms are defined.
- Abbreviations are not used.
- Conjunctions, such as "and", are avoided, since an answer may not apply to both parts of the question.
- Response must be adequate and appropriate.
- Requested data must be easily accessible.
- Item groupings are logical.

**FOR OPINION QUESTIONS**

- Question wording should be neutral, such as, " Do you favour or oppose?"
- Responses should be balanced, for example, an equal number of positive and negative responses.

beliefs or ways of looking at things. **Motive questions** ask respondents to evaluate why they behave in a particular manner, hold certain opinions or attitudes. **Knowledge questions** determine what a person knows about a topic, the extent, or accuracy of the information" (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:188). Figure 5.17 refers to an example of the categorizing of the type of questions asked in this study. Questions can also either be open-ended or close-ended. "Open-ended questions require the respondent to answer in her or his own words. Close-ended questions ask the respondents to choose from a list of responses."

**FIGURE 5.17 CATEGORIZING THE TYPE OF QUESTIONS ASKED WITHIN THE STUDY**

<b>FACTUAL QUESTIONS</b>	<p><u>Questions that indicate:</u></p> <p>Gender Age Marital status Educational qualification Language Religion Job position Years working for current employer</p>
<b>BEHAVIOUR QUESTIONS</b>	<p><u>Questions that indicate behaviour</u></p> <p>How often do I, as a manager, challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments?</p>
<b>KNOWLEDGE QUESTIONS</b>	<p><u>Questions that indicate knowledge</u></p> <p>How often do I, as a manager, make extra efforts to educate myself about other cultures?</p>

For the purpose of this study, the following responses were checked, namely: *Very Satisfied*, *Generally Satisfied*, *Neutral*, *Generally Dissatisfied* and *Very Dissatisfied*. According to O'Sullivan & Rassel (1995:188), open-ended question are valuable, but they have two major drawbacks in that they are often left unanswered and also complicate data compilation. For this reason, it was decided to make use of close-ended questions within this study. Leedy (1985: 136) also identifies the following considerations in questionnaire constructions:

- Be courteous to respondents by including statements like “would you please check”.
- Simplify questions for respondents.
- Think of the other fellow (respondent).
- Concentrate on the universals rather than on the specifics.
- Make the questionnaire as brief as possible.
- Check for consistency.
- Include a return postage envelope with your questionnaire.
- Offer the results of your study to your respondent.
- Think ahead how the data must be processed after the results are received.



The questionnaire for this study was divided into two sections: *Section A* (dependent variables) and *Section B* (independent variables). The office internal mail system was chosen to send the questionnaire to the respondents. Using the office internal mail system ensured that respondents would receive their questionnaires and also saved postage expenses. The following format was followed with regard to sequencing the questionnaire. The necessary permission was first obtained before the questionnaire was used. A letter as shown in Appendix 1.6 was attached to each questionnaire. The letter is an abridged version of the introduction used to obtain permission for using the questionnaire in the respondents' workplace. It included an introductory covering letter explaining the nature of the survey, introducing the person conducting the survey, the results of the study, the target group, general information regarding the completion of the questionnaire (confidentiality etc.), the coordinator to whom the questionnaire should be returned and a word of thanks to the respondents for their willingness to devote their valuable time to the project. Appendix 1.7 refers to the questionnaire used in this survey.

### 5.6.2 PILOT STUDY

Taylor (2001:254) states: "Before the questionnaire can be finalised, it is desirable to conduct a preliminary investigation in order to test and refine it." Such an investigation can be done by way of a pilot study. According to Leedy (1985: 136), "every researcher should give the questionnaire to at least a half a dozen friends or neighbours, to test whether there are any items that they may have difficulty in understanding or in comprehending exactly what the writer of the questionnaire is seeking to determine".

A **pilot study** was initiated, the purpose of which was to:

- Ascertain whether there were questions which respondents might find difficult to understand.
- Rephrase certain questions in such a way as to make them easily understandable in order to elicit the necessary response.

- Establish the acceptability and suitability of the questionnaire for use in this study.
- Establish the probability of favourable reception and return.
- Establish the reluctance, if any, of public managers to take part in this study.

The pilot study was conducted using a similar questionnaire among senior officials of the Western Regional Council, the Eastern Cape Community Service, and Livingstone Hospital in the Nelson Mandela Metropole. The response rate to the pilot study as seen in Table 5.1 was relatively high. From the response, the following observations were made: a well-balanced overall response rate of 51% was received during the pilot study; a percentage of 56% was obtained from both the Western Regional Council and the Eastern Cape Community Services. The low response rate of 19% received from the Livingstone Hospital was a disappointment, which brought down the overall response rate to 51%. The reason for this low response rate was that the Livingstone Hospital, at the pilot stage of the survey, was involved in industrial strike action. Top and middle management were engaged in negotiation meetings and therefore had neither the time nor the inclination to complete the questionnaires. Staff morale at the hospital was also very low owing to budget cuts which had a major impact on the quality of service delivery.

Problems highlighted by the pilot study survey were related to the questionnaire itself, more specifically to certain concepts used. The questionnaire was adapted accordingly, and definitions of unclear concepts were given. For example, the "protected class member" concept was defined and adapted for the main survey after the pilot study. The same was done for the abbreviations EEO and AA (as shown in Appendix 1.7).

## **5.7 PROBLEMS, CONSTRAINTS AND RESPONSE TO SURVEY**

From the main study (Table 5.2), an overall response of 49% was received, with 47% from the local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole and 51% from officials in the South

**TABLE 5.1 RESPONDENTS TO THE PILOT SURVEY**

PILOT STUDY	TOTAL	RESPONSE	% RESPONSE
WESTERN REGIONAL COUNCIL	100	56	56
EC COMMUNITY SERVICES	50	28	56
LIVINGSTONE HOSPITAL	50	19	38
TOTAL	200	103	51

**TABLE 5.2 RESPONDENTS TO THE MAIN SURVEY**

MAIN STUDY	TOTAL	RESPONSE	%
NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE	125	58	47
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (IN THE NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE)	100	51	51
TOTAL	225	109	49

African Police Service in the above-mentioned metropole. The high response rate from the South African Police Service in the Nelson Mandela Metropole can be attributed to the high commitment from the respondents and the fact that they had already been exposed to a process of transformation and diversity awareness programmes. The rather low response rate from the Nelson Mandela Metropole was due to the fact that many of its top and middle local government managers were too busy to respond to the questionnaires, and some managers dismissed the questionnaires as "junk mail". Other researchers who had used the Nelson Mandela Metropole for their surveys had apparently also shared this experience. A further problem was that in the Eastern Cape (including the Nelson Mandela Metropole), every matter, even a research survey, is treated as a political issue. The respondents demanded that their anonymity be ensured in case of reprisals. Owing to the culture of poor time management in the Port Elizabeth area, the time-lining framework that was set for each questionnaire to be returned could not be achieved. Instead of

completing the questionnaire in a week, most respondents took a month to do so. It should be noted that the response only represented local government managers in the Nelson Mandela Metropole. In the main study, respondents were more reluctant to respond to statements than in the pilot study. This is very visible in the section dealing with the interpretation of data. For example, in the pilot study there are more missing cases (people who did not give an answer to a statement) than in the main study. One respondent felt that the issues raised in the questionnaire did not fall within her field (or simply never arose), that the questionnaire was ambiguous, and did not cater for her specific work situation. Another respondent felt that the questionnaire was aimed at racists, that women did not belong in management, and were not members of a disadvantaged group. Another respondent felt that managers were not really exposed to people from different cultures and groups and that there were seldom opportunities to socialize with people from other cultures at work. Yet another respondent felt that local government managers in the Nelson Mandela Metropole had little control over their situation at work and that it was not applicable to learn about the richness of other cultures and to respect other groups' holidays because this had never been encouraged. Table 5.3 refers to an overall response to the survey.

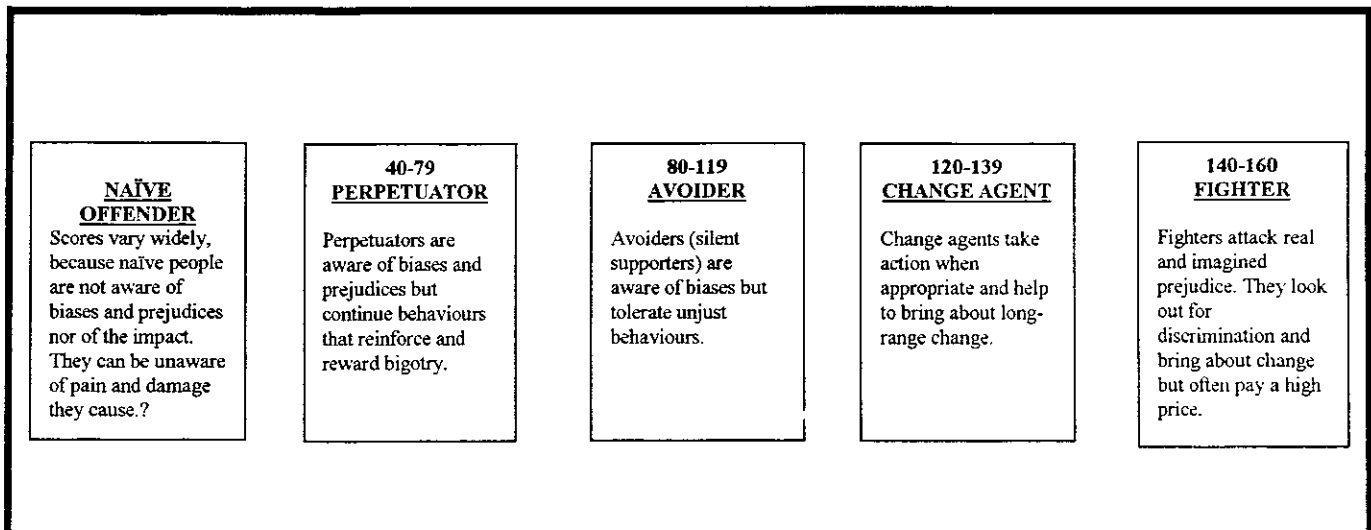
**TABLE 5.3 OVERALL RESPONSE TO THE SURVEY**

	TOTAL	RESPONSE	% RESPONSE
PILOT STUDY	200	103	52
MAIN STUDY	225	109	49
TOTAL	425	212	50

## 5.8 DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The following variables were created for the purpose of analysing the overall response data, namely dependent and independent variables. For the purpose of this study, the *dependent variables* were determined as the attitudinal or behavioural responses of the respondents to the diversity awareness questionnaire. The above results will be interpreted through the different characteristic interpretations of a manager's behaviour towards diversity (See figure 5.18).

**FIGURE 5.18 THE DIFFERENT CHARACTERISTIC INTERPRETATIONS OF A MANAGER'S BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS DIVERSITY (GROTE, 1991:5)**



The *independent variables* of the questionnaire determined the gender, age, marital status, highest educational qualification, home language, religion, job position and the period the respondent had been working for his current employer. The SPSS/PC SYSTEM was used to analyse the data for this study. Appendix 1.8 refers to the printout of the data analysis. The following concepts were referred to in the analysis of the data:

- **SPSS/PC:** "a statistical package for the social sciences. It is also a set of computer programs for the management and analysis of data. The programs are integrated, making it possible to conduct numerous types of analysis once the data has been entered and accessed" (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:480).
- **Frequency distribution:** "a table listing the variable values along with the number of cases with each value" (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:473).
- **Mode:** "is the most frequently occurring value" (Foster, 1992:178).
- **Median:** "the value that divides the distribution of scores in half: 50% of the scores fall below the median and 50% fall above it. When the scores are in ascending order, if there are an odd number of scores; the median is the middle score (Foster, 1992:178).

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:475), the median is "a measure of central tendency. It is the value of the case marking the midpoint of an ordered distribution of values. The median requires ordinal or quantitative level measurement".

- **Mean:** "a measure of central tendency found by adding all scores and dividing by the number of scores. The mean provides a score that each case would have if the variable was distributed equally among all observations" (Landman in Ferreira, 1996:298).
- **Percentage:** "a relative frequency calculated by dividing the frequency of cases with the value of a variable by the total number of cases and then multiplying this result by 100" (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:477).
- **A pilot study:** "a small study designed to test the adequacy of a proposed data collection strategy" (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:477).
- **Missing cases:** respondents who did not give an answer to a question.

### 5.8.1 DATA ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

An analysis of the **individual scores** of public and local government managers' (Pilot Study, Nelson Mandela Metropole and the South African Police Services) behaviour toward diversity awareness showed that:

- None of the public and local government managers showed naïve offender behaviour. Naïve offenders are people who are not aware of bias and prejudice, or of its impact. They are also unaware of the pain and damage that they are causing (see Figure 5.18).
- Four respondents showed perpetrator behaviour. Perpetrators are people who are aware of bias and prejudice, but persist in behaviour which reinforces and rewards bigotry (see Figure 5.18).

- Sixty-six respondents showed avoider behaviour. Avoiders (silent supporters) are people who are aware of bias, but tolerate unjust behaviour (see Figure 5.18).
- One hundred and eight respondents showed change agent behaviour. Change agents are people who take action, when appropriate, helping bring about long-term change (see Figure 5.18).
- Thirty-four respondents showed fighter behaviour. Fighters are people who attack real and imagined prejudice. They watch for signs of discrimination and bring about change, but often pay a high price for this (see Figure 5.18).

The individual scores of respondents (that is, only those public and local government managers who responded to the questionnaire), are shown in Figures 5.19, 5.20 and 5.21. Figure 5.22 represents a comparison of the behaviour characteristics of the various public and local government managers in the survey.

**FIGURE 5.19 THE SCORES AND INTERPRETATION OF INDIVIDUAL PUBLIC MANAGERS' BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS DIVERSITY AWARENESS (PILOT STUDY)**

BEHAVIOUR	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0
PERPETUATOR	4
AVOIDER	48
CHANGE AGENT	39
FIGHTER	12
	-----
	<b>103</b>

**FIGURE 5.20 THE SCORES AND INTERPRETATION OF INDIVIDUAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS' BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS DIVERSITY AWARENESS (NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE)**

BEHAVIOUR	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0
PERPETUATOR	0
AVOIDER	12
CHANGE AGENT	35
FIGHTER	11
	58

**FIGURE 5.21 THE SCORES AND INTERPRETATION OF INDIVIDUAL PUBLIC MANAGERS' BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS DIVERSITY AWARENESS (SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE)**

BEHAVIOUR	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0
PERPETUATOR	0
AVOIDER	6
CHANGE AGENT	34
FIGHTER	11
	51

**FIGURE 5.22 A COMPARISON OF SCORES AND INTERPRETATIONS REGARDING THE**



**BEHAVIOUR CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIVIDUAL PUBLIC SERVICE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS IN THE WORKPLACE.**

BEHAVIOUR	PILOT STUDY	NMM	SAPS (PE)
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0	0	0
PERPETUATOR	4	0	0
AVOIDER	48	12	6
CHANGE AGENT	39	35	34
FIGHTER	12	11	11

An analysis of the behaviour response of both **male and female** respondents to diversity showed that:

- In the Nelson Mandela Metropole study there were **no** respondents showing the naïve offender and perpetrator behavioural pattern; twelve male respondents showed the avoider behavioural pattern; thirty-one male and four female respondents showed the change agent behavioural pattern, and eight males and three females showed the fighter behavioural pattern.
- In the South African Police Service study, five males and one female showed the avoider behavioural pattern; thirty-three respondents showed the change agent behavioural pattern, and ten male and one female respondents showed the fighter behavioural pattern. Figure 5.23 (a-b) gives a comparison of the gender version of the attitude and behaviour response of public managers towards diversity.

An analysis of the behaviour response to diversity at **management level** showed that:

- In the Nelson Mandela Metropole study, two middle managers and ten junior managers showed the avoider behavioural pattern. One top manager, four middle and thirty junior managers showed the change agent behavioural pattern and eleven junior managers showed the fighter behavioural pattern.
- In the Port Elizabeth Police Service study, six junior managers showed the avoider behavioural pattern. Four top managers, two middle managers and twenty-seven junior managers showed the change agent behavioural pattern. Two top managers, three middle managers and six junior managers showed the fighter behavioural pattern. Figures 5.24 and 5.25 give a comparison of attitude and behaviour characteristics of the three levels of management that were tested in the survey.

**FIGURE 5.23 (a) A GENDER COMPARISON OF SCORES AND INTERPRETATIONS REGARDING THE BEHAVIOUR CHARACTERISTIC OF INDIVIDUAL LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS TOWARDS DIVERSITY (NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE STUDY)**

BEHAVIOUR	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0	0	0
PERPETUATOR	0	0	0
AVOIDER	12	0	12
CHANGE AGENT	31	4	35
FIGHTER	8	3	11

**FIGURE 5.23 (b) A GENDER COMPARISON OF SCORES AND INTERPRETATIONS REGARDING THE BEHAVIOUR CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIVIDUAL PUBLIC MANAGERS TOWARDS**

**DIVERSITY (SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE STUDY)**

BEHAVIOUR	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0	0	0
PERPETUATOR	0	0	0
AVOIDER	5	1	6
CHANGE AGENT	33	0	33
FIGHTER	10	1	11

**FIGURE 5.24 A COMPARISON OF BEHAVIOUR CHARACTERISTICS TOWARDS DIVERSITY ACCORDING TO LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGER LEVEL (NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE)**

BEHAVIOUR	TOP MANAGEMENT	MIDDLE MANAGEMENT	JUNIOR MANAGEMENT	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0	0	0	0
PERPETUATOR	0	0	0	0
AVOIDER	0	2	10	12
CHANGE AGENT	1	4	30	35
FIGHTER	0	0	11	11

**FIGURE 5.25 A COMPARISON OF BEHAVIOUR CHARACTERISTICS TOWARDS DIVERSITY ACCORDING TO MANAGEMENT LEVEL (SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE STUDY)**

BEHAVIOUR	TOP MANAGEMENT	MIDDLE MANAGEMENT	JUNIOR MANAGEMENT	TOTAL
NAÏVE OFFENDER	0	0	0	0
PERPETUATOR	0	0	0	0
AVOIDER	0	0	6	0
CHANGE AGENT	4	2	27	33
FIGHTER	2	3	6	11

The analysis of the response of *all* the local government and public managers within the South African Police Service in the Nelson Mandela Metropole (dependent variables and independent variables as indicated in Appendix 1.9) towards diversity awareness showed that:

- The majority of the respondents almost never challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments.
- The majority of respondents speak up when someone was humiliating another or acting inappropriately.
- The majority of the respondents are sensitive about their actions. This explains why they think about the impact of their comments and actions before they speak or act and refuse to participate in jokes that are derogatory or show bias to any group. They refrain from repeating statements or rumours which reinforce prejudice or hate, and check the past before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone.
- They recognize and challenge the bias affecting their own thinking and avoid using language which reinforces negative stereotypes.

- The majority of the respondents acknowledge that protected-class members are just as skilled and competent as they are.
- The majority of the respondents are willing to get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals, and are aware that people from other cultures also need to socialize.
- The majority of the respondents accept that not everyone has to act or look a certain way to be successful and valuable to an organisation.
- The majority of the respondents take responsibility for helping new people in their organisation. This includes making woman and people of different cultures, ages and sizes feel welcome and accepted.
- The majority of the respondents include disadvantaged members and white women in informal networks and social events.
- The majority of the respondents' state that they learn about the richness of other cultures, appreciate them and respected their holidays and events.
- The majority of the respondents ask for and plan social events in which everyone at work is able to participate.
- The majority of the respondents encourage protected-class members to speak out on their own issues and concerns and treat those issues as valid.
- The majority of the respondents will allow people from diverse backgrounds to take risks.
- The majority of the respondents encourage unity in the workplace by allowing people from different backgrounds to speak about issues and concerns both in group meetings and one-on-one.

- The majority of the respondents use participative management: by including diverse groups in decision-making; handing over responsibility to them; providing feedback on their work performance, disregarding physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability; keeping everybody informed (both formally and informally); and by sharing the written and unwritten rules of the organisation.
- The majority of the respondents state that they disregard physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability.
- The majority of the respondents want to make their organisations more pro-active in respect of affirmative action and equal opportunity guidelines and state that those who violate those policies should be confronted. They say that everyone (including diverse groups) should have equal opportunities and equal access to top positions in their organisations. They will also confront organisational policies and procedures that lead to the exclusion of anyone.
- The majority of the respondents state that they keep everyone informed, both formal and informal.
- The majority of the respondents state that they do help in providing all employees with ample training and education to succeed and to grow in their jobs.
- The majority of the respondents are willing to assist in providing all employees with ample training and education as well as being mentors, enabling them to grow and "learn the ropes".
- The majority of the respondents do encourage others in behaviour that supports cultural diversity.

- The majority of the respondents state that they do help to create a work environment in which all employees are respected and valued.
- The majority of the respondents do make an extra effort to educate themselves about other cultures.
- The majority of the respondents never call, write, or in any way protest when a book, newspaper, television show or some branch of the media perpetuate or reinforce bias or prejudice.
- The majority of the respondents refuse to join or remain a member of associations or groups which allow or reinforce values or practices that are racist, biased or prejudiced.
- The majority of the respondents in the pilot study and Nelson Mandela Metro pole seldom or almost never participate in voluntary or community activities which are change-agent efforts. Only the respondents of the Port Elizabeth Police Service state that they do this.
- The majority of the respondents do make an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds.
- The majority of the respondents do make an extra effort to indicate when something is inappropriate that could lead to prejudice (see Appendix 1.7, statement 40).
- The majority of the respondents who took part in the survey were male.
- The majority of the respondents who took part in the survey were married.
- The majority of the respondents indicated Afrikaans as their home language followed by English, Xhosa and Zulu.

- The majority of the respondents indicated Afrikaans as their home language followed by English, Xhosa and Zulu.
- The majority of the respondents had a Christian background, followed by Islamic and Hindu.
- The majority of the respondents who took part in the survey were from junior management, followed by middle management. Only the top management from the South African Police Service actively took part in the survey.
- The majority of the respondents who took part had worked for more than eleven years for their current employers.
- The majority of the respondents who took part in the Nelson Mandela Metropole survey were in the age group 46-55, followed by the 36-45, the 56-65 and the 26-35 age group. Figure 5.26 gives the age of respondents at management level within the Nelson Mandela Metropole.
- The majority of the respondents who took part in the South African Police Service survey were in the age group 36-45, followed by the 26-35 and the 46-55 age group. Figure 5.27 shows the age of respondents according to management level within the South African Police Services.
- Women were poorly represented at all three levels of management in both the Nelson Mandela Metropole and South African Police Service study. Figures 5.28 and 5.29 show the position of women at management level.

### **5.8.2 INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS**

The above results only show the attitudes and behavioural patterns of local government and public managers (working at and in the Nelson Mandela Metropole) towards diversity awareness in the



**FIGURE 5.26 AGE OF RESPONDENTS IN THE NELSON MANDELA METROPLE ACCORDING TO MANAGEMENT LEVEL**

AGE	TOP MANAGEMENT	MIDDLE MANAGEMENT	JUNIOR MANAGEMENT	TOTAL
26-35	0	1	4	5
36-45	0	1	16	17
46-55	0	3	17	20
56-65	1	1	13	15
66+	0	0	1	1

**FIGURE 5.27 AGE OF RESPONDENTS IN THE PORT ELIZABETH POLICE SERVICE ACCORDING TO MANAGEMENT LEVEL**

AGE	TOP MANAGEMENT	MIDDLE MANAGEMENT	JUNIOR MANAGEMENT	TOTAL
26-35	1	1	16	18
36-45	3	2	19	24
46-55	3	1	5	9

**FIGURE 5.28 GENDER COMPOSITION AT MANAGEMENT LEVEL WITHIN THE NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE**

<b>NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE</b>	<b>TOP MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>MIDDLE MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>JUNIOR MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>MALE</b>	1	4	45	50
<b>FEMALE</b>	0	2	6	8

**FIGURE 5.29 GENDER COMPOSITION AT MANAGEMENT LEVEL WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES**

<b>PORT ELIZABETH POLICE SERVICE</b>	<b>TOP MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>MIDDLE MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>JUNIOR MANAGEMENT</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>MALE</b>	6	4	39	49
<b>FEMALE</b>	0	1	1	2

workplace. From the response it was clear that the respondents were aware of diversity in the workplace. This unfortunately does not mean that they valued, accepted or were able to manage diversity. For example, why did the respondents state that they almost never challenged others on derogatory racial/ethnic/ sexual comments but at the same time stated that they would speak up when someone was humiliating another person? Was this fear, or just another way of avoiding

talk about such issues? Had the local government and public managers really faced their fears? It leaves the impression that public managers are not yet willing to openly challenge bias or prejudiced behaviour. Kossek and Zonia's (1993) research into the study of diversity in the workplace provides insight into why there was a difference in behavioural reaction towards diversity. According to Kossek and Zonia (1993:62), people will react differently to diversity in the workplace because of the change that it resembles. According to them "change activities have differing ramifications for groups, each with interests that may or may not overlap, thereby heightening intergroup conflict by creating increased competition for resources, and accentuating differences in goals, values and power. Changing organisations to become more multicultural is likely to adversely affect the current dominant groups (white men) by altering the distribution of power and resources, and the dominant goals of the firm" (Kossek & Zonia, 1993:62). What the Nelson Mandela Metropole study and the South African Police Service study has shown is the respondents' reaction to change, which is reflected by their behaviour response towards diversity.

According to Kossek and Zonia (1993:62), "the perceptions towards diversity efforts held by members of specific identity and organisational groups are critical to successful implementation of these largely voluntary initiatives. Members' resistance to change often hampers efforts to modify recruitment, promotion, and other policies to foster a multi-cultural work environment".

From this study, it is clear that the majority of the respondents' behavioural reactions were directed at being change agents and fighters for diversity awareness in the workplace. It is also clear from the behavioural reactions that the respondents believe that they will benefit from diversity, because one will not support something that one cannot benefit from. According to Kossek and Zonia (1993:63), "diversity is more likely to be welcomed by white women and racial-ethnic minorities, since members of these groups are most likely to believe that the work environment needs changing to better accommodate diverse employees and are also most likely to directly benefit from change in the short run".

In both the Nelson Mandela Metropole and South African Police Service this is shown by the behavioural response of the females who took part in the survey. What was clear from the study was that the male respondents were supportive of diversity in the workplace. This was significant

because, according to Kossek and Zonia (1993:64), "white men are more likely to hold negative attitudes toward diversity efforts, because such efforts to change the status quo might be viewed as resulting in a decrease in their positions and receipt of rewards". What was encouraging was that the support for diversity came from all three levels of management, namely, top, middle and junior management.

A concern still exists for those local government and public managers who indicated a behavioural reaction of being avoiders, because, according to Kossek and Zonia (1993:62), "reaction to diversity initiatives is also embedded in an organisational context". What it means is that the organisational culture/environment influences the behavioural reaction of managers towards diversity in the workplace. An organisational culture which is supportive of the behavioural reactions of avoiders and perpetuators can be very detrimental for the public sector, especially in the building of positive working relations among diverse groups in the workplace. Although the purpose and aim of the survey were not to focus on the organisational culture in which respondents are working, other research opportunities were identified.

## **5.9 SUMMARY**

In the first part of this chapter a research methodology design is established for investigating the diversity awareness of local government managers (at the Nelson Mandela Metropole) and public managers (South African Police Service within the metropole) in the workplace. The focus was on different research designs, measuring of variables and the research sampling method used for conducting a diversity awareness survey. With regard to the measuring of variables, the focus was on defining the conceptual and operational definitions, measuring and measurement scales, and the reliability, validity and sensitivity of concepts. In the research sampling, the different sampling methods, the steps followed in the sampling process, and the determination of the sample size were discussed. In the second part of this chapter, the diversity awareness survey design was empirically applied as a measuring instrument for investigating diversity awareness in the workplace. The methods used for collecting the data, responses to the questionnaire, analysis and interpretation of the data were discussed.

**Chapter 6** deals with the development of a normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers.

## **CHAPTER 6: DEVELOPMENT OF A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR ASSESSING THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

The South African approach to managing diversity is not unique in the world, and history has shown that the Colonial and National Party governments used transformation and affirmative action for the structural change of their governments. Both governments failed to change their behavioural outlook on diversity management, and instead used their own perceptual understanding of how to deal with diversity. They then embedded their perceptual ideas in their public officials who had to execute whatever understanding they themselves had of diversity. The perceptual understanding of diversity was further embedded in the behavioural attitudes of local government managers. A negative behavioural modelling framework was established, which formed the basis for handling diversity in local government. In Chapter 5, the diversity awareness of local government managers within the Nelson Mandela Metropole was assessed. The purpose of Chapter 6 is to introduce a normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole. The normative model is based on the assumptions made in Chapters 1 to 4, and the empirical survey in Chapter 5. The chapter focuses firstly on the use of models for investigating diversity awareness in local government. Secondly, the chapter introduces the different components of the normative model for managing diversity at the Nelson Mandela Metropole; these include the purpose of diversity awareness as well as the different beliefs and paradigms of diversity management in the workplace. Thirdly, the focus is on the management syndromes influencing diversity management, and the results of ignoring diversity awareness in local government.

### **6.2 THE USE OF MODELS FOR INVESTIGATING DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN THE WORKPLACE**

Models form an important part of developing a framework for a research project or study. According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:2), models are especially needed "after the researcher has stated the research and the question and the study's purpose. Models also include selected

elements, characteristics or events, and link them to each other". According to Pekeur, and O'Sullivan and Rassel, models are used for many purposes. Pekeur (1992:44-45) states that models:

- Provide a framework of steps to be followed.
- Serve as a map for those using them and for those who are still to use them.
- Provide an outline or illustration of procedures to be followed, ensuring and/or promoting better understanding.
- Convey an image of research professionalism.
- Define the purpose of the study.
- Make the research easier.
- Serve as a learning channel for researchers, especially illustrating how to do a research project.

O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:2-5) state that models:

- Organise the research study properly.
- Simplify reality by eliminating irrelevant details.
- Organise one's thoughts better.
- Communicate more effectively, especially with regard to the purpose of the study to others, and later to present the findings.

- Define what is meant by each element within the study.
- Put the researcher on an interactive process to collect, analyse and present data which is consistent with the study's purpose.
- Reach reasonable conclusions regarding the importance of elements and their relationship to one another.

Before using models, cognisance must be taken of the following:

### 6.2.1 TYPES OF MODELS

"Models of program planning come in all shapes and sizes. They may be simplistic in their orientation with steps one to five, or very complex, with highly developed flow charts depicting a comprehensive array of decision points" (Caffarella, 1995:20). In this study, attention will only be given to open and closed models, schematic and symbolic models, and computer and the mathematical models. Figures 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3 refer to the difference between the open and closed models as depicted by Nadler (1989:6-7), the schematic and symbolic models, and the computer and mathematical models, as depicted by O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:10-11).

**FIGURE 6.1 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN OPEN AND CLOSED MODELS (Nadler, 1989:6-7)**

OPEN MODELS	CLOSED MODELS
Outside factors exist which cannot be identified at outset.	All factors can be identified or accounted for in the model.
A working hypothesis.	Outcomes predetermined.
Descriptive.	Predictive.
Verbal.	Mathematical.



**FIGURE 6.2 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCHEMATIC AND SYMBOLIC MODELS (O'SULLIVAN AND RASSEL (1995:10-11))**

SCHEMATIC MODELS	SYMBOLIC MODELS
<p>Refer to models, which use pictures, lines, points and similar pen and pencil products to designate the elements and illustrate their relationship to each other.</p> <p>Work well for illustrative purposes and can be quickly understood.</p> <p>Serve as an elaborate checklist.</p> <p>Are less effective if they include too much detail.</p>	<p>Refer to models which use words, equations or computer programs to represent the elements and describe relationships.</p> <p>Have distinct strengths due to the potential of the language to describe the model and the allowance for full and detailed explanations of complex relationships.</p> <p>Researchers are not constrained by requirements to reduce the model to equations or computer cost.</p> <p>A full range of users can understand and interpret a verbal model, which can work with mathematical and computer models.</p> <p>Are often found in the introductory or theoretical sections of research articles.</p>

**FIGURE 6.3 THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MATHEMATICAL AND COMPUTER MODELS (O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL (1995:11)).**

MATHEMATICAL MODELS	COMPUTER MODELS
<p>Use equations to specify relations.</p> <p>Indicate whether relationships exist, what directions they take and how strong they are.</p> <p>Allow an administrator to predict needs, to estimate the impact of policy decisions and to allocate resources more efficiently.</p>	<p>Extend mathematical models</p> <p>Handle more complicated problems than mathematical models.</p> <p>Keep track of a large number of elements and the relationship among them and produce error free results.</p> <p>Differ from other models with regard to the speed, accuracy and amount of information they can manipulate.</p>

### **6.2.2 IDENTIFYING THE SOURCES FOR BUILDING A MODEL**

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:5) "to identify the elements, defend their relevance, and postulate the nature of their relationships, investigators [researchers] incorporate their own ideas and research with the following resources, namely: observations, peer interaction, review of existing knowledge, manipulating of data, and pilot testing". Identifying the source for building a model allows the researcher to identify the following:

- Elements included in studies with a similar purpose.
- Definitions currently used for the subject topic (study).
- Techniques used for measuring/investigating the subject (study).
- Further sources of data which could help in finding appropriate models, definitions and the analytic techniques of other researchers for possible incorporation into a study.
- Methods of linking the study with other studies.
- Suggestions for further research (adapted from O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:6-7).

### **6.2.3 COMPONENTS OF A MODEL**

According to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:13), models consist of variables, constants and hypotheses. Variables are observable characteristics which can have more than one varying value. If the characteristic has only one value, it does not vary. Elements which do not vary, are called constants (O'Sullivan & Rassel, 1995:13). Figure 6.4 refers to examples of variables and their values. If the researcher wants to evaluate the success of his model it needs to be tested. Models are tested by examining the relationship between the variables linked in the model. The relationship of two variables in a simple model is called a hypothesis. A hypothesis, according to O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:13), is a statement which specifies or describes the relationship

between two variables in such a way that the relationship can be empirically tested. Leedy (1985:5) defines a hypothesis as a logical supposition, a reasonable guess, or an educated conjecture which may give direction to one's thinking with respect to the problem, and thus aid in solving it. Hypotheses form the foundation of a research effort. Leedy (1985:5) states "hypotheses are a part of everyday life. They represent the natural working of the human mind. Something happens. Immediately you attempt to account for the event by a series of guesses. In so doing you are hypothesizing". O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:13) identify a very important criterion for writing a hypothesis, namely, "that it must be written clearly to help the researcher decide what data to collect and how to analyse them" .

**FIGURE 6.4 EXAMPLES OF VARIABLES AND THEIR VALUES AS IDENTIFIED BY O'SULLIVAN & RASSEL (1995:13)**

VARIABLES	VALUES
Gender	Male, Female
Job satisfaction	Very satisfied, satisfied, dissatisfied, very dissatisfied
Salary	Actual amount of salary

#### **6.2.4 FACTORS LIMITING THE USE OF MODELS BY LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS**

O'Sullivan and Rassel (1995:11) state that, despite the fact that models simplify reality; they are not frequently used by public managers in the public sector. They identify the following reasons for this, namely that local government managers:

- who build models and the people who criticise them are subject to the full range of human weaknesses;
- have limited time, money and knowledge;
- are seduced by a model's clarity and its apparent usefulness without checking its appropriateness for use by other public managers.

Pekeur (1992:46-47) identifies the following reasons why models are not used:

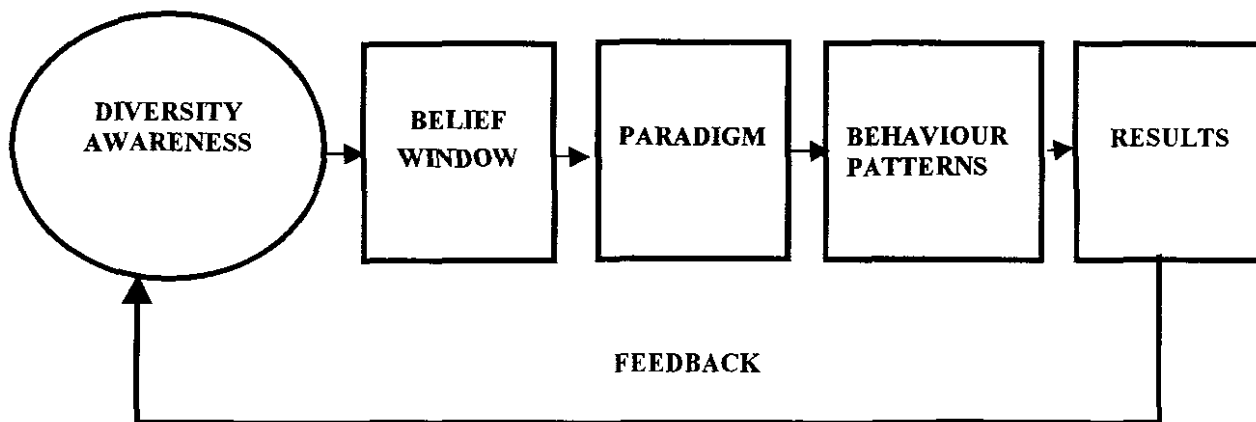
- Time pressure; Caffarella (1995:24) states that it "is difficult for many staff to develop formal training plans as called for in planning models, let alone the time to do a proper needs analysis. Furthermore, the practitioner may not have the time necessary to plod through a more formal academic text, no matter how good the proposed model may be".
- Organisational environments often do not allow public managers to use models. Pekeur (1992:46) states that in many public organisations the use of models is not encouraged. This could be due to crises that need immediate attention and/or to personnel shortages.
- A lack of knowledge regarding the use of models.
- The view that models are more of a limitation than an aid.

### **6.3 A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR MANAGING DIVERSITY AWARENESS IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Managing diversity has become a popular research subject in the public sector, and, in order to prevent possible overlapping with other research projects or studies, it was decided to build a model for investigating the diversity awareness of local government managers. Figure 6.5 refers to the Diversity Awareness Reality Model, which consists of the following interlinked phases:

- Phase 1 focuses on the purpose of diversity awareness.
- Phase 2 focuses on the belief windows through which diversity is viewed.
- Phase 3 focuses on the paradigms influencing diversity management in the workplace.
- Phase 4 focuses on the behaviour patterns (and or management syndromes) towards diversity in the workplace (Chapters 4 and 5).
- Phase 5 focuses on the results of the different behaviour patterns (Chapter 7).

**FIGURE 6.5 DIVERSITY AWARENESS REALITY MODEL**



### 6.3.1 THE PURPOSE OF DIVERSITY AWARENESS (PHASE 1)

Karen Grote (1991:1) identifies three purposes for conducting diversity awareness in the workplace. They are:

- To become aware of ways in which managers discriminate against, judge or isolate others.
- To evaluate behaviour and to plan action steps to modify any undesirable behaviour.
- To increase self-awareness.

The foundational purpose of diversity awareness within the Diversity Awareness Reality Model (DARM) is to change the mindset of local government managers and leaders regarding diversity management and the development of diverse people (employees) in local government. For example, to change the mindset of local government managers who expect people from diverse backgrounds to think, believe and behave as they do. The desired result within DARM is two-fold, namely to focus on self-awareness and to aim for a reaction. Within DARM the focus of self-awareness will be:

- To investigate the attitudes and behaviour of local government managers working in local government towards diversity (differences) in the workplace.

- To increase self awareness of differences.
- To help individual local government managers develop an awareness of their behaviour and attitudes to the various diversities which exist in the workplace and the ways they discriminate against, judge or isolate people (from diverse backgrounds) who work for or with them.
- To help the local government manager to stand apart from himself in order to examine his own thinking, motives, habits and/or tendencies that contribute to his behaviour towards diversity.

Within DARM the reaction aimed for is change. Change that incorporates imagination, conscience and independent will. *Imagination* incorporates envisioning something entirely different from what one currently is experiencing. In other words, envisioning a work environment where diversity is valued and acknowledged. "It's the endowment that enables us to see ourselves and others differently and better than we are now" (Covey & Merrill, 1994:60). *Conscience* in this regard refers to a person's inner voice telling him or her when the way he or she treats people is not acceptable. Covey and Merrill (1994:60) state: "It's our internal guidance system, which allows us to sense when we act or even contemplate acting in a way that's contrary to principle. It also gives us a sense of our unique gifts and mission." *Independent* will refer to the power to take action. Within DARM, a change in attitude or behaviour will help the public manager:

- Not to ignore differences but to understand why people are different, and to use that understanding to foster a climate which enhances a culture of diversity in the workplace.
- To acknowledge and value diversity as a vital resource in the workplace.
- To reduce prejudice, hate, stereotyping, cultural insensitivity, discrimination and increased frustration among diverse workers.

- To help create a workplace where workers from diverse backgrounds feel appreciated and get along with one other.
- To put diversity into perspective regarding its role in preparing the way for integration in local government.

### **6.3.2 BELIEF WINDOWS ON DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT (PHASE 2)**

The purpose of diversity awareness within DARM is also based on the belief windows that exist on diversity management in the workplace. As indicated in Chapter 1, a belief window refers to an invisible window through which one looks at things around oneself. It is called a belief window because beliefs are the things that filter one's view of the world. Hanks and Pulsipher (1997:11) states whether "a belief is small or big it affects the way we see". Belief Windows also define our limits and set our capabilities. Within DARM the focus is on how beliefs get placed on one's windows. Hanks *et al.* (1997:13) also state: "Beliefs do not just magically appear on our windows. We write them there ourselves. Each of us is responsible for our own Belief Window for selecting the things which will be written, although we may not always be aware of what we are writing." According to Perry (1993:59-71), beliefs shape our culture, our culture shapes the people, and the people shape their lives. The powerful influence of beliefs will affect factors such as:

- The way people think.
- How they approach problem solving.
- How they raise their children.
- How they view their spouse and how children view their parents.
- How they communicate.
- How they worship.
- Their sense of humour.
- Their diet.
- Their values.
- Their standards of beauty.

- Their laws and household policies.
- How they view others.

The information for writing down beliefs comes in different forms, for example:

### 6.3.2.1 NEW IDEAS

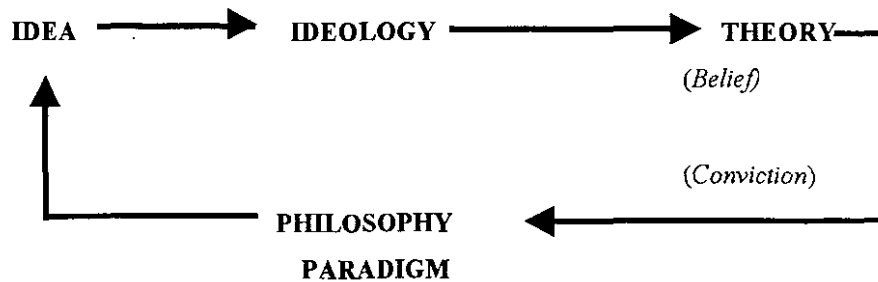
According to Tromp (1998:76), humans are bombarded with new ideas all the time. Munroe (1996) refers to ideas as seeds of creative power. He defines an idea as a captured thought. A captured thought represents a silent word. A word in return is an exposed thought. An idea forms the foundation of one's words. According to Munroe (1996), if your ideas are wrong, your thoughts will be wrong. If your thoughts are wrong, your thinking will be wrong, and if your thinking is wrong, your words will be wrong. If words are wrong your life will be wrong. Rodin (2000:76) states: "Our perception of the world is colored by our perception of who we think we are. Therefore, how we see the world will depend on how we see ourselves." You actually become what you think. A local government manager's behaviour towards diversity in the workplace is a reflection of what he truly believes about diversity. Effective behavioural change starts with changing the thinking of people. Figure 6.6 refers to a framework by Munroe (1996) on the development of an idea. Munroe (1996) states, "An idea is a captured thought, and when exposed it becomes a word. When a word (idea) becomes an established thought it becomes an ideology. When an ideology becomes a theory it becomes a belief system. When one gets convinced by a theory it becomes a philosophy or paradigm (your way of thinking/system of beliefs/mindset)." Apartheid, for example, was an established thought, which was made a belief system and eventually became the previous apartheid government's philosophy of running the country. Thus, according to Munroe (1996) the only way to change your behaviour is to change your thinking, and the only way of changing your thinking is to change your ideas. Pomerleau (1994:87-88) identifies the following ideologies on diversity management in the workplace. They are the:

#### ❖ ASSIMILATIONIST IDEOLOGY

The above ideology derives from the melting pot concept whereby individuals of all nations will



**FIGURE 6.6 A FRAMEWORK ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF IDEAS (MUNROE:1996)**



be melted into a new race. Pomerleau (1994:87) states: “The Assimilationist ideology attempts to assimilate ‘others’ into the culture, concomitantly serving to attenuate individual differences, and modifies their values and experiences to conform to the ways of the dominant group.” Critics of the ideology, Londen and Rosener (1991) in Pomerleau, 1994:88) state: “This cultural assimilation process is like expecting left-handed people to write with their right hand because they work in a culture dominated by right handers.”

#### ❖ PLURALIST IDEOLOGY

This ideology wants racial, cultural and ethnic diversity to coexist in a society which is multicultural in character with a common identity and a more intense sub-identity.

#### ❖ DUALIST IDEOLOGY

This ideology refers to the dual role a person of a minority culture has to play within a dominant culture environment. The dualist ideology depicts the younger generation of the minority culture as being frequently crossed, pressured, isolated and estranged. They have to serve as a bridge between the dominant culture and their parents’ distinct and alien culture. The younger generation employees are burdened with the stigma of marginality owing to this dual role, where they are regarded as being too supportive of the dominant culture, while at work they may be viewed as too foreign.

#### ❖ CHAUVINIST IDEOLOGY

According to Pomerleau (1994:88), this ideology is predicated on the single cause ideological culture where a class of people, charging that the Eurocentric culture is pervasively and perniciously racist, eschews assimilation, fearing that it would undercut the doctrine of liberation.

Gitlin (1993) in Pomerleau, 1994:88) states: "What began as an assertion of dignity, a recovery from exclusion and denigration, and a demand for representation has developed into a hardening of its boundaries."

#### ❖ **TRANSMUTATIONIST IDEOLOGY**

This ideology seeks to transform the culture-specific cast of the Eurocentric "one-size-fits-all model into a "common cultural strain". The idea behind the transmutationist ideology is that by comingling diversity, the problems of clashing cultures and conflicting perspectives in the workplace would be attenuated through mutual accommodation, and that the process of managing the workplace would inevitably be transmitted. If managers can be encouraged to deal with a heterogeneous workforce by adapting the transmutationist ideology, then the crisis over exclusivity, according to Pomerleau (1994:89), might be overcome through a process of guaranteeing inclusivity.

#### **6.3.2.2 DIFFERENT OPINIONS**

Local government managers are also exposed to opinions that differ from their own. Reddy and Choudree (1996:26) refer to an opinion held by the previous apartheid government regarding integration in the workplace. "Official pronouncements over the years continued to emphasise that the government was committed to the concept of a white public service where integration would not be tolerated and in which non-whites would accordingly not be trained for employment. As far as the Indian and Coloured communities were concerned their participation in administration and public service activities was limited to the service of their own people in their own areas."

#### **6.3.2.3 POSITIVE REINFORCEMENTS**

Refer to compliments and encouragements local government managers receive from peers or management structures, for example, for behaviours that encourage the acceptance of diversity in the workplace. The statement by Gordon (1992:29) serves as an example. "The advantage of starting with the premise that everybody is diverse, is that you do not make white males the subject of the work but rather part of it. The idea behind managing diversity is to learn to look at

people as individuals, to view their individual strengths and weaknesses instead of merely registering bothersome variances for arbitrary corporate norms, and to function as an organization as productively with heterogeneous workers as it once did with homogeneous ones."

#### **6.3.2.4 OPPOSING VIEWPOINTS**

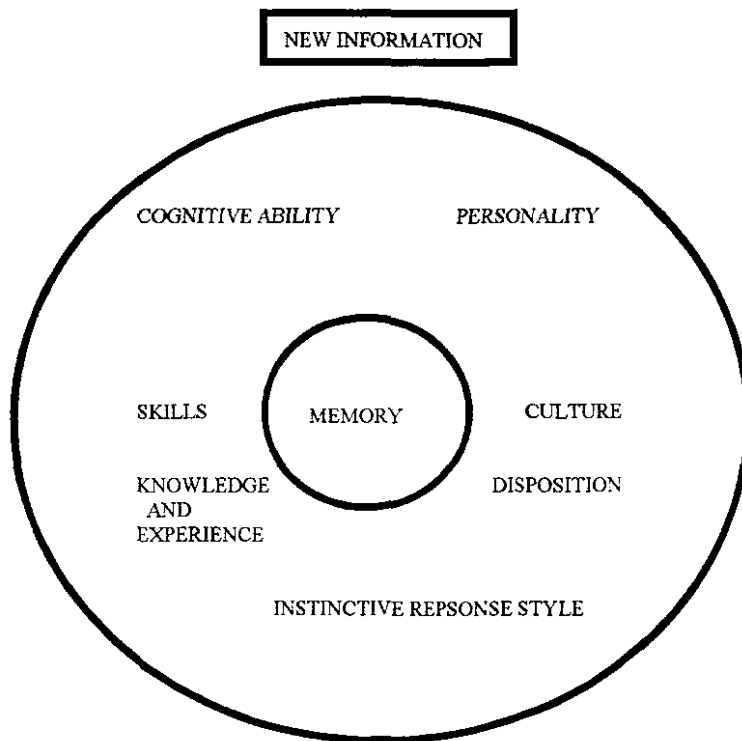
Tromp (1998:77) states that in discussions it often happens that when someone expresses an opinion, someone else voices a directly opposing view. According to Maxwell (1993:77), one reason could be when people lack ownership of an idea, they usually resist it, even when it is in their best interest.

#### **6.3.2.5 CRITICISM**

Individual local government managers receive criticism for actions taken or views expressed; for example for not contributing towards a diversity awareness climate in the workplace or for not creating more opportunities and support for women to advance to top management positions. According to Tromp (1998:77), "people will process information according to their unique perception and understanding. In making choices and interpreting information, every individual has his own distinctive way of identifying cause-and-effect relationships and selecting appropriate actions". Information is processed according to:

- Cognitive ability.
- Skills.
- Knowledge and experience.
- Instinctive response style.
- Disposition.
- Culture.
- Personality.
- Information processing competency.

Figure 6.7 refers to a reference framework on how information is processed, and Appendix 1.9 provides a detailed description of the different ways of processing information.

**FIGURE 6.7 A REFERENCE FRAMEWORK FOR PROCESSING INFORMATION (TROMP, 1998:77)**

### 6.3.3 PARADIGMS OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE (PHASE 3)

In Phase 3 the focus is on how belief windows can contribute to the development of paradigms of diversity management in the workplace. According to Covey (1989:23-24,28) "our attitudes and behaviors are also influenced by our own paradigms, which in turn affect the way we interact with other people. It affects the way we value differences in the workplace. If we keep on ignoring the value of differences but instead focus more on our own experiences, or own paradigms, we will constantly suffer from a shortage of data. A paradigm is like a map, it does not form the territory but it merely explains certain aspects of a territory. In other words, a paradigm is a theory, an explanation, or a model of something else. We have many, many maps in our head, which can be divided into two main categories: maps of the way things are, or realities and maps of the way things should be, or values. We interpret everything we experience through these mental maps. We seldom question their accuracy. We assume that the way we see things is the way they really are or the way they should be. Our paradigms become very powerful instruments especially if we see the world, not as it is, but as we are, or the way we have been conditioned to see it. When we describe what we see, we in effect describe our perceptions, our paradigms, and ourselves. When people disagree with us, we immediately, think something is wrong with them".

De Beer (1998:1-79) identifies five development paradigms that influence the valuing of differences within organizations. The same paradigms fail to see the significance or value of

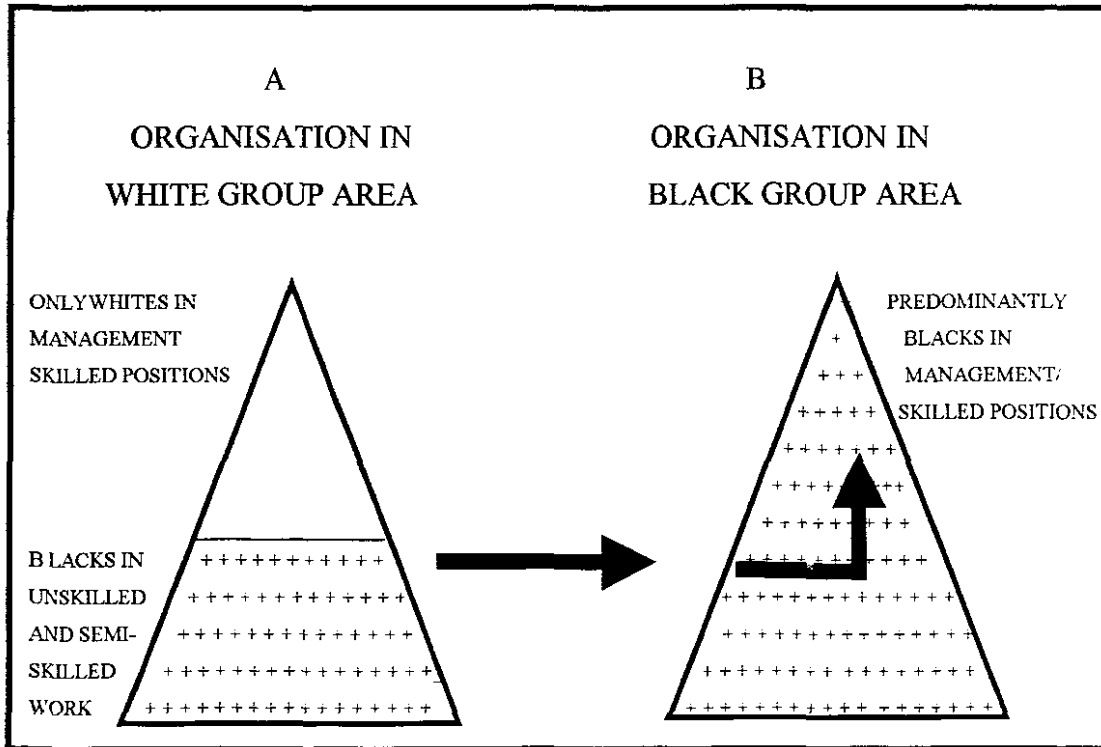
diversity in the workplace. The paradigms referred to are the paternalistic paradigm, the equal opportunity paradigm, the black advancement paradigm, the affirmative action paradigm, and the management of diversity paradigm.

### **6.3.3.1 PATERNALISTIC PARADIGM**

The paternalistic model was based on a belief system called the feudal system, which was developed during the Middle Ages. This system referred to the relationship that existed between landowner and labourers. De Beer (1998:3) states: "As the serf had to do labour for the landowners of the Middle Ages, so the black workers in South Africa had to do labour for the predominantly white property owners and employers. Managing diversity activities focuses around the social segregation of white and black workers and the introduction of Westernization policies. The policy of apartheid introduced by the Nationalist government of 1948 was to ensure that Whites and Blacks would develop in different geographical areas or environments. The Unitary Westernization policies were to ensure that organizations were managed according to the Western value system. It was also done in order to protect Western values and the Western way of life." De Beer (1998:6) further states: "The implementation of the unitary Western value system is based on the premise that the Western value system is superior to African values. Implementation of the African value system in the organization would therefore lead to inferior work standards and lower productivity." The natural reaction of the black workers was to resist total Westernization because it ignored their deep-rooted cultural heritage and nationalistic aspirations. Figure 6.8 refers to the apartheid model used to segregate the white and black workers in the workplace.

Managers with a paternalistic mindset made sure that black workers were prevented from advancing to the skilled or managerial level in a white organisation. Black workers could only advance to skilled positions and management levels in organisations operating in the black areas. In the paternalistic paradigm, employees of colour were also not expected to become involved in the decision-making process within the organisation. Because of the social segregation, negative stereotypes and attitudes developed between white and black employees, and often gave rise to an unpleasant coexistence between black and white employees in the organization.

**FIGURE 6.8 THE APARTHEID MODEL (DE BEER, 1998:9)**



### 6.3.3.2 THE EQUAL OPPORTUNITY PARADIGM

The focus of this paradigm was more on the removal of barriers that existed between white and black workers and for the creation of equal opportunities for higher positions in the workplace. According to De Beer (1998:13), the shift from the paternalistic to the equal opportunity mindset was motivated by the following factors:

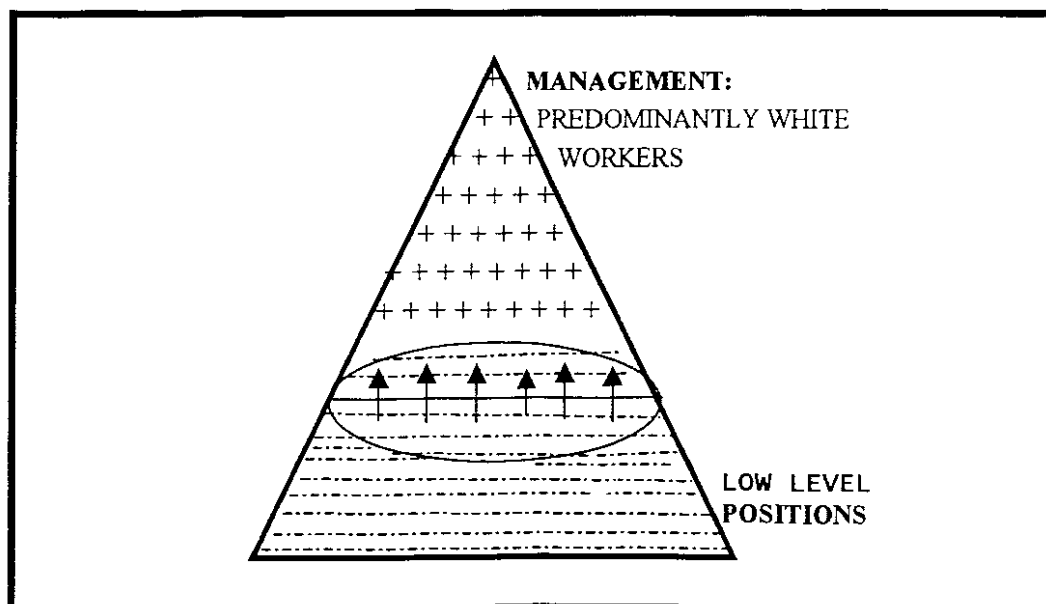
- The increasing awareness of leaders of all communities of the moral right of all human beings to be treated as equals.
- Exposure to senior positions had been withheld from black employees in the past and management felt they were morally obliged to give black employees the opportunity to develop their managerial and high level skills.
- The shortage of skilled manpower in organisations.
- A gradual shift in the values of Nationalist leaders from a pure ideological to a more pragmatic value system.
- Black employees and most of the white managers never accepted the black employees as

temporary employees and believed that they would eventually move back to their own group areas.

- Economic development in the black areas was very slow and few job opportunities were available for blacks.

Emphasis was placed on an osmosis approach for integrating blacks into skilled and management positions. Figure 6.9 refers to the Osmosis model for equal-opportunity advancement of black employees. After barriers were removed, black employees would gradually filter upwards in the organisational hierarchy. But management expected black employees to be self-driven and to develop the necessary work skills in their own time. Black employees moved very slowly into positions formerly reserved for white employees. According to De Beer (1998:18), the osmosis process was so slow that the number of blacks who moved up in the hierarchy was negligible. This state of affairs gave way to the black advancement paradigm.

**FIGURE 6.9 THE OSMOSIS MODEL FOR EQUAL-OPPORTUNITY ADVANCEMENT OF BLACK EMPLOYEES (DE BEER, 1998:18)**



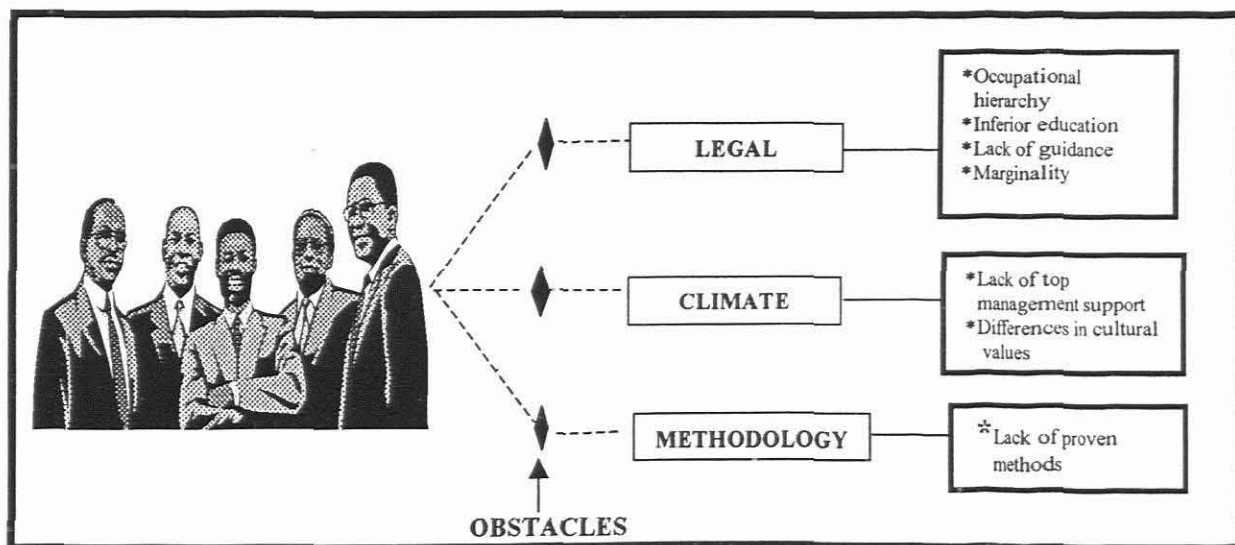
### 6.3.3.3 BLACK ADVANCEMENT PARADIGM

The black advancement paradigm came about owing to the lack of progress shown by black

employees to high-level positions. Despite the removal of inhibiting legislation, blacks still did not compete on an equal footing for skilled and managerial positions with white employees. According to Brooks (in Human, 1991b:77) this is due to numerous obstacles including educational, economic, organisational, legal and social impediments. Figure 6.10 refers to more obstacles to black advancement in the workplace. The following factors brought about the black advancement paradigm:

- Politicians and managers alike accepted that the political and economic futures of all the people of South Africa were inseparably interwoven.
- Economic pressure in the form of sanctions from the international community had a detrimental influence on profits and growth of organisations.

**FIGURE 6.10 OBSTACLES TO BLACK ADVANCEMENT (CHAROUX, 1990:6)**

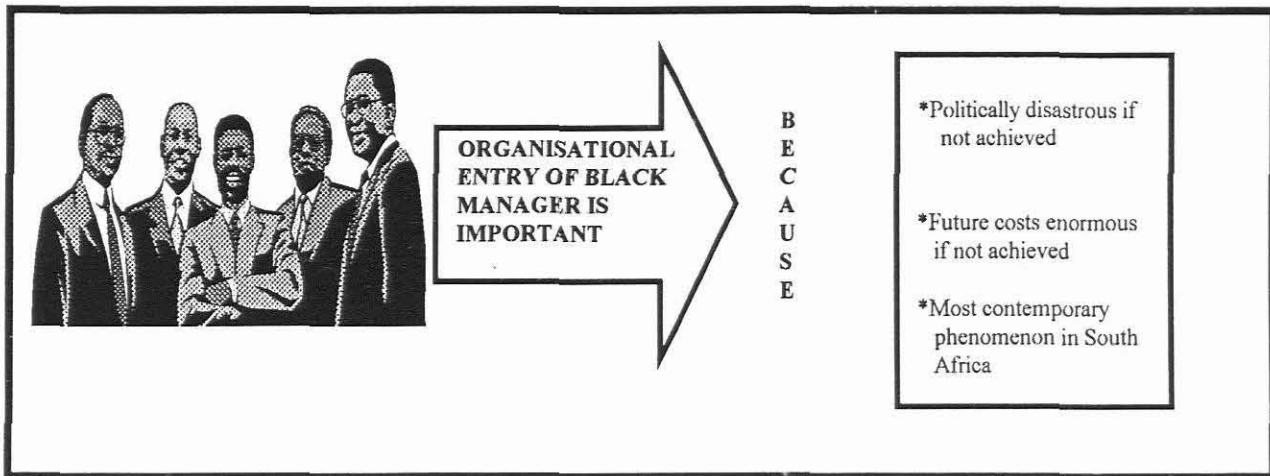


Managers realised that the formal education system used for Blacks was inadequate. In order to develop human potential, organisations accepted the responsibility to become more involved in providing basic education (in De Beer, 1998:22). Figure 6.11 refers to more reasons why black managers should enter organisations. The argument for black advancement in the public sector focuses around the appropriateness of filling posts previously held by Whites only, with Blacks.

The first reason for this, according to Hugo (1989:4), would be because “the large black section of the population using the services of the public sector now and in the future would be better



**FIGURE 6.11 IMPORTANCE OF BLACK MANAGERS' ENTRY INTO THE ORGANISATION (CHAROUX, 1990:4)**



served by having a black person in the position of bureaucrat simply because of language and cultural empathy". For this reason, the public service needs to become more demographically representative of the South African population. Secondly, by the year 2020, whites will constitute a mere 10,5% of a projected total population of 47,5 million South Africans. A public service, already short of 30 000 civil servants, will have to fill its positions with blacks. Thirdly, a growing proportion of matriculants are black, and employment must be found for them. White attitudinal response has been indicated as the biggest obstacle to black advancement within South African organisations. Brooks (in Human, 1991b: 71) states: "The National Party Government's policies have expedited the emergence of a powerful white elite and produced an artificial schism between Whites and Blacks, which is deleterious to inter-racial attitudes in general and white attitudes to black occupational advancement in particular". This behavioural modelling pattern was *successfully implemented by the previous National Party government, which "treated cultural differences between white and black as genetic differences. Many blacks secretly fear this because they (like whites) do not understand that the differences are rooted in experience and not in genes (Kotze, 1993:xii). According to Chapman (1996:114), "it is normal for people to have mental attitudes against those of a different culture especially if they never had the opportunity to work with a person from that culture". This intolerance, according to Brookes (in Human, 1991b: 77) can be explained in terms of:*

- The historical domination of skilled and semi-skilled positions in the public sector by white, Afrikaans-speaking people.

- A deficiency of black advancement initiatives in the public sector resulting in a lack of exposure of white civil servants to blacks of equivalent educational standing, which in turn, reinforced traditional racial stereotypes.
- A growing fear among white civil servants that blacks would take over their jobs in a post- apartheid South Africa.

Another characteristic of the black advancement paradigm was the number of models that were introduced in developing black managers. The majority of the models focused on orientating the black manager to the Western work ethic. The rationale, according to De Beer (1998:25), is that “if black potential high level employees are purposefully exposed to training and modern values in the work environment, these employees will develop a modern work ethic”.

#### **6.3.3.4 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PARADIGM**

The main focus of this paradigm within the public sector was to remove discriminatory practices and policies in employment, and to facilitate and promote access to the Public Service for all South Africans. The White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service (1998:1) is a testimony of the South African government’s commitment to the transformation of the Public Service into an institution whose employment practices are underpinned by equity. The ultimate aim of affirmative action is to ensure that the Public Service, which represents and draws on the talents and skills of the diverse spectrum of South African society, is not only geared towards providing better services to all sectors of society, but also to ensure legitimacy in the eyes of the South African people. According to De Beer (1998:37), affirmative action is also the enforced empowerment and occupational advancement of disadvantaged minority groups, which include women, black people and the physically disabled. The objectives of the Public Service affirmative action policy are to:

- Enhance the capacities of the historically disadvantaged through the development and introduction of practical measures that support their advancement within the Public Service.

- Inculcate in the Public Service a culture which values diversity and support the affirmation of those who have previously been unfairly disadvantaged.
- Speed up the achievement and progressive improvement of the numeric targets set out in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998:5; The Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, Chapter 3 and Report on the State of the Public Service: 2001,11-29). The following are the core underlying principles of affirmative action within the public sector:

- **Integration with human resource management and development**

Affirmative action programmes must be integrated with other human resource management and development practices, especially the management of diversity.

- **Productivity and improved service delivery**

Affirmative action programmes must promote the development of more innovative work practices, which maximise productivity and increase customer-responsiveness.

- **Cost effectiveness**

Affirmative action programmes must focus on steps which optimise the Public Service's human and financial resources.

- **Communication**

The purpose of affirmative action policies and programmes must be fully communicated to all public servants.

- **Participation**

Affirmative action programmes must be developed with the active participation of employees at all levels, and with representatives of organised labour.

- **Transparency**

Affirmative action programmes and practices must be open to scrutiny within and outside the Public Service, within reasonable limits.

- **Accountability**

Accountability for the delivery of affirmative action must be vested at the highest level of the organisation, with all line managers being vested with the responsibility of driving the process.

- **Reasonable accommodation**

Affirmative action programmes must strive to eradicate barriers to employment and advancement in the physical and organisational environment and provide support of all members of the target group.

- **Relative disadvantage**

Affirmative action must take into account the relative disadvantaged status of groups, their needs within the target group and the needs of the organisation (White Paper on Affirmative Action in the Public Service, 1998:5 and Employment Equity Act, 55 of 1998, Chapter 3).

### **6.3.3.5 DISCRIMINATION AND FAIRNESS PARADIGM**

The focus of this paradigm is on the creation of equal opportunities, fair treatment, recruitment, and compliance with government regulations. The paradigm is based on the premise that prejudice has kept members of certain demographic groupings out of organisations. To ensure fairness, organisations must comply with the regulations set by government in restructuring themselves to reflect the demographic profile of society. A management process is needed to ensure that all employees are treated equally and with respect, and to ensure that no one is given an advantage over the other. Thomas and Ely (1996:81) state: “Under this paradigm diversity is measured by how well the company achieves its recruitment and retention goals rather than by the degree to which conditions in the company allow employees to draw on their personal assets and perspectives to do their work more effectively.” The benefit of the discrimination and fairness paradigm is that it tends to increase demographic diversity and the promotion of fair treatment within the workplace. According to Thomas and Ely (1996:81), some of the limitations of this paradigm are “that its color blind, gender blind ideal is to some degree built on the implicit assumption that we are all the same”. Under this paradigm it is also not desirable for a diversified workforce to influence the organisation’s concept of work or culture. The paradigm puts pressure

on employees to make sure that important differences among them do not count. Thomas and Ely (1996:82) state: “By limiting the ability of employees to acknowledge openly their work-related but culturally based differences, the paradigm actually undermines the organisation’s capacity to learn about and improve its own strategies, processes, and practices.” By doing so, people are also kept from identifying with their work - a critical source of motivation and self-regulation.

#### **6.3.3.6 ACCESS-AND-LEGITIMACY PARADIGM**

The access-and-legitimacy paradigm focuses on the acceptance and celebration of differences in a multicultural society where ethnic groups are gaining more consumer power. The premise of this paradigm is that organisations have a need for a demographically diverse workforce in order to help them gain access to even more differentiated segments. A diverse workforce is also needed to help organisations to understand and serve their customers better and to gain legitimacy with them. “Diversity isn’t just fair; it makes business sense” (Thomas & Ely, 1996:83). A characteristic of an organisation using this paradigm is that it almost always operates in an environment in which there is increased diversity among customers, clients or the labour pool and therefore a clear opportunity or imminent threat exists to the organisation. The paradigm has its strengths. According to Thomas and Ely (1996:83), “its market based motivation and the potential for competitive advantage that it suggests are often qualities an entire company can understand and therefore support”. A limitation is that organisations supporting this paradigm tend to emphasise the role of cultural differences in the workplace more without really analysing those differences to see how they actually affect the work that is done. For example, “access-and-legitimate leaders are too quick to push staff with niche capabilities into differentiated pigeon holes without trying to understand what those capabilities really are and how they could be integrated into the organization’s mainstream work. However, once the organization appears to be achieving its goal, the leaders seldom go on to identify and analyze the culturally based skills, beliefs, and practices that worked so well. Nor do they consider how the organization can incorporate and learn from those skills, beliefs, or practices in order to capitalize on diversity on the long run” (Thomas & Ely, 1996:83-84). According to Thomas and Ely (1996:83), a strong paradigm is needed that encourages open and explicit discussion of what identity group differences really mean and how they can be used as sources of individual and organisational

effectiveness. A paradigm is needed that will also assist an organisation in what to do once it has achieved its diversity numbers.

#### **6.3.4 MANAGEMENT SYNDROMES INFLUENCING THE BEHAVIOUR PATTERN OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS REGARDING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE (PHASE FOUR)**

Flamholtz and Randle (1987:5;23-170) identify the following management syndromes influencing the performance of managers in the workplace. Elements within these syndromes could represent a manager's attitude and/ or behavior towards acknowledging diversity awareness in the workplace.

##### **6.3.4.1 THE DOER SYNDROME**

According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:5), the Doer Syndrome refers to the phenomenon where people who have been promoted to managerial roles continue to think and act like technicians, functional specialists or "doers" rather than true managers. They are individuals occupying entry-level positions within the organisational hierarchy and in many cases are following examples set by doers before them. They find the transition from being doers to real managers very difficult. The doer is a local government manager who believes with regard to the managing of diversity that employees from other racial, sexual or cultural groups cannot do their work properly (or cannot be entrusted with responsibilities), and that he as local government manager has to do it for them. Another characteristic of doers is that they tend to base their self-esteem on their own performance rather than on the performance of their staff. They put more value on their own potential and tend to overlook the vast potential a diverse work group will have. Flamholtz and Randle (1987:27) put it as follows: "... even after they are promoted to management positions, they continue to explicitly and implicitly evaluate their own performance in terms of their ability as doers rather than as managers. Consequently these individuals tend to emphasize performance rather than managerial activities". Doers will spend most of their time performing tasks rather than planning the work of others, delegating tasks, supervising work and further developing their workers. Individuals who suffer from the doer syndrome may even believe

that the only way of being a good manager is to focus only on themselves. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:28), they may, "therefore, feel that they are in competition with their workers for the position of being an expert. They feel frustrated by workers who possess greater expertise". This type of syndrome can be very disruptive for a diverse work group. The manager could spend most of his time in maintaining his own expertise without utilising the expertise of a diverse work group as a vital resource. Individuals belonging to that diverse group will develop feelings of frustration. They may feel that their expertise is of less importance than that of their manager. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:28), individuals suffering from the doer syndrome suffer from an inability to handle control: "Whenever control is given up, the likelihood that the task will be completed exactly as the individual himself or herself would have completed it, decreases". Doers are highly uncomfortable with this and try to retain as much control as possible. They also turn out to be poor delegators, attempting to keep all decision-making authority to themselves, and because of this, doers are usually overburdened managers. Many of them, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:28), suffer from burnout and failure because they have no time to perform their managerial responsibilities adequately.

#### **6.3.4.2 THE PYGMY SYNDROME**

The Pygmy Syndrome is a follow-on to the doer syndrome. It refers, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:92), "to the tendency of a manager to feel threatened by talented workers, and, consequently, to surround himself or herself with people who are relatively weak. By selecting only such people, the manager can feel like a giant among pygmies". Elements of the Pygmy Syndrome could be present in a local government manager who feels threatened by people from different racial, sexual and/or cultural groups. This is unfortunately not an uncommon situation in the public sector, where people with potential are not recognised and utilised because individual public managers view them as a threat, not a blessing. Those suffering from this syndrome often feel inadequate; their sense of inadequacy is kept under control as long as they perceive themselves as the best at some task in their immediate environment. A person appointed through affirmative action could react in this way. When someone more competent threatens the manager's position, the reaction would be to eliminate the competition by humiliating the person so that he is forced to resign. Another symptom of the Pygmy Syndrome is when managers tend

to compete with their workers for more recognition. "I'm still the best guy in the field" (Flamholtz & Randle, 1987:92). Co-workers frequently challenge the authority of Pygmy Syndrome managers. The individual manager suffering from the Pygmy Syndrome will in turn act with hostility. In many cases, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:92-93), managers will use their position of power as a buffer to scare workers off. By doing this, the manager believes that no one will dare question his authority.

### **6.3.4.3 THE IMPOSTER SYNDROME**

The Impostor Syndrome contains elements influencing diversity awareness in the workplace. Elements of this syndrome could be found in a multi-cultural local government manager (coming from a different race or sex, or a person with disabilities from a different cultural group) who was promoted to a management position previously reserved for a specific group only. The new manager is perceived to be an impostor. The Impostor Syndrome comes in two variations: Super Person and Ugly Duckling.

#### **6.3.4.3.1 THE SUPER PERSON SYNDROME**

The Super Person Syndrome is present in individuals who always have to be the best (perfectionist), at the same time suffering from fear of failure. Because of their perfectionistic nature they often fail to recognise the potential and good qualities of their subordinates. Clinging to the Super Person Syndrome greatly undermines their ability as managers. Since the role of a manager is so ill defined, super person managers will spend most of their time trying to find out what other managers are doing to be perfect, resulting in nothing getting done. They could later be perceived, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:38), as indecisive, since they often take so long to act. The desire to be perfect, coupled with the fear of failure, leads to a tendency among super people to be ineffective delegators. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:38), super people do not like to delegate tasks to subordinates because they believe that others will not live up to their own standards of excellence. The opposite could occur when super people managers believe their standards of excellence to be lower than the standards of their workers. Super people also follow a more directive style of management and tend to act more as performers of tasks than



as managers. As a result, they usually end up doing more and more tasks, which in turn increases their own personal stress levels. "Their workers may come to believe that their manager does not trust them. The productivity and morale of the work group may drop and the Super Person may soon find that he is a failure as a manager" (Flamholtz & Randle, 1987:38). Managers suffering from the Super Person Syndrome place themselves in a situation in which they need to compete with their workers in order to protect their own self-esteem. The Super Person perceives co-workers with greater expertise and potential as a threat to his position of being "the best" and will try to compete with workers, ignoring his or her responsibility as manager. Managers suffering from the Super Person Syndrome have a variety of personal and interpersonal problems. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:39), the inability to overcome this syndrome can have profound effects on the individual's ability to perform effectively in a managerial role.

#### **6.3.4.3.2 THE UGLY DUCKLING SYNDROME**

The Ugly Duckling Syndrome is present in those individual local government managers who believe that they are worthless. Their feelings of worthlessness are often created by external factors outside their control. Perceptions and stereotyping are some of the factors which could contribute to these feelings. A female local government manager, for example, who finds herself in a male-dominated environment, could suffer from feelings of failure. Ugly Duckling Syndrome managers believe that they have reached their position of authority through pure luck and not because they are regarded as competent in their profession. They are prone to delegate tasks which they should have done themselves. Managers with this syndrome enjoy challenging tasks, because they offer a risk of failure. Ugly Duckling Syndrome managers believe, since they perceive themselves to be worthless, that others (including workers) must at the least, be as skilful as they are. The ugly ducklings, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:44), have "such a low opinion of themselves that they find it difficult to give praise to others. These individuals believe that lack of criticism is the same as praise". This situation could, however, be detrimental to an organisation because workers are not being motivated to achieve the organisation's goals. Ugly ducklings also tend to make ineffective decisions, because these increase their chance of failure. This, then, proves to them and to others that they are worthless and inadequate. This in the end can obviously not be productive for an organisation. According to Flamholtz and Randle

(1987:45) "the ugly ducklings also depend a lot on their workers to assist them in the decision-making processes which could be very effective". Too much of it, unfortunately, could confuse workers with no one really knowing who is in charge. The biggest problem, however, is that those managers suffering from the ugly duckling syndrome are never satisfied with themselves unless they have failed. Success to them is undeserved.

#### **6.3.4.4 THE NAPOLEON SYNDROME**

The Napoleon Syndrome consists of elements closely related to the other syndromes. It represents managers who suffer from inferiority or an inadequacy complex. Inferiority refers to individuals feeling that they have weaknesses which could handicap them in relation to power. Feelings of inadequacy often have their basis in real or imagined physical shortcomings, e.g., short stature, a speech impediment, colour of skin and disability. This could be overcome either through compensation or overcompensation. Compensation refers to constructive steps to overcome weaknesses such as attending classes to improve certain skills. Overcompensation occurs when the individual does not acknowledge his own weakness and tries to overcome by gaining superiority over others (Adler in Flamholtz and Randle, 1987:71). A manager in local government who feels inferior to or threatened by the vast potential of a diverse work group and resists change could have symptoms of the Napoleon Syndrome. The same applies to a manager who has obtained his position of authority through an affirmative action process and is anxious that he may not be competent enough for the job. Managers suffering from the Napoleon Syndrome have a low self-esteem and a high need for control. They tend to focus more on their own needs than on the needs of others, often abusing their powers.

#### **6.3.4.5 THE DR JEKYLL AND MR HYDE SYNDROME**

Flamholtz and Randle (1987:101) state that the Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde Syndrome is not only found in literature. In many modern-day work environments, managers suffer from a split role syndrome, being both Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde. They can have a pleasant personality and at the same time can behave tyrannically. They can be managers who acknowledge potential held by a diverse work group, but may not want to utilise it. The split, according to Flamholtz and Randle

(1987:101), is sometimes "so complete that those who experience only the person out of his or her work role are unable to believe that the individual they know as friendly and easy going is uncaring and domineering when directing the actions of workers". Individuals suffering from this syndrome have a high need for acceptance, control and self-esteem. When success is achieved, the Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde believes that his behaviour has to change accordingly. "He or she can no longer behave as one of the guys or gals" (Flamholtz & Randle, 1987:101). Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde managers know that the main responsibility of a manager is to exercise control over workers and that the need to be liked by those whom they supervise is inconsistent with their own needs for control and self-esteem. They are aware of the fact that the only way their self-esteem can be enhanced is by ensuring that the organisation achieves its goals. It is therefore important to them when they exercise control not to be too friendly with their workers.

Sufferers from this syndrome find ways to separate their need to be liked from their need for control and self-esteem. The Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde manager uses control over the actions of workers as a method to ensure his success in the workplace. This he achieves by enforcing the rules of control set by the organisation where he works. Workers who do not comply with these rules are usually heavily reprimanded, sometimes even in public. Hence, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:102), "workers of the Dr Jekyll and Mr Hyde syndrome tend to describe their managers as unreasonable and domineering. Since they are only exposed to the Mr Hyde side they believe that their manager does not really care about their needs". Like the Napoleon Syndrome managers, the Hyde Syndrome managers develop buffers for controlling workers, thereby ensuring that their authority is never challenged. Another strategy is to ensure that their superiors never see their Mr Hyde side personality. Flamholtz and Randle (1987:102) state that "whenever they are successful at this strategy, superiors and peers find it difficult to believe a worker who complains that his or her manager is abusive and unreasonable. They will attribute subordinates' complaints as without sound proof and more as his or her inability to work in a group". In South Africa, complaints by workers about Mr Hyde syndrome managers are usually branded as either racist or sexist. Individuals suffering from this syndrome usually realise they have a problem. This realisation, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:102), is usually "triggered by a critical incident such as the departure of one or more workers for reasons such as personality problems". To the manager, this could sometimes come as a shock, because of the belief that he was only

behaving like an effective manager. He will, in some instances, begin to work hard at changing the way he manages, in order to become a more effective manager.

#### 6.3.4.6 THE HAMLET SYNDROME

Managers who do not know how to make decisions effectively and efficiently suffer from the Hamlet Syndrome. Decision-making represents a threat to both their self-esteem and their need to be liked. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:117): "They fear that if they make the wrong decision, they will be seen as inadequate. If they make a decision that nobody likes, then others will resent them." Hamlets therefore tend to delegate all their decision-making responsibilities to peers or workers and tend to do nothing at all themselves, hoping that the problem will resolve itself. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:118), the Hamlet Syndrome can be divided into three variations:

The *Information Seeker Hamlets* suffering from this variation believe that they can only make rational and effective decisions if they are allowed enough time to collect information. They will then spend all their energy on finding all the possible alternatives before making a decision. There is, of course, nothing wrong with thorough research but Information Seeker Hamlets tend to carry it to the extreme. "They continue to collect information until a higher authority presses them to make a decision. If no such pressure exists they may postpone the decision indefinitely until, eventually, the decision is made for them" (Flamholtz & Randle, 1987:118).

The *Buck-passer*. Managers suffering from this variation deny their decision making responsibility by passing it on to either a worker or a peer. This avoidance of decision-making responsibility often leads to frustration among individual superiors and workers. In the end, tasks are not completed and problems remain unresolved.

The *Agoniser*. They are "individuals who are paralyzed by an intense fear that the decisions they make will, somehow, hurt them, their organization or other employees" (Flamholtz & Randle, 1987:118-119). Like the Information Seeker, the Agoniser has an intense fear of not having enough information but does not seek further information. A very interesting characteristic of

Agonisers is that they openly avoid responsibility. They only take those decisions which could benefit them directly. Agonisers do not like planning and delegating, resulting in workers doing nothing or whatever they please. Flamholtz and Randle (1987:119) state that "the Hamlet's superior may begin to wonder whether they have promoted a true leader, and if this individual is constantly seeking their advice before making a decision, the answer to their question will be a flat, No".

#### 6.3.4.7 THE GODFATHER SYNDROME

The Godfather Syndrome is displayed by managers who have a lot of power together with the ability to reward or punish others at whim. However, underneath this image of power lies a deep-seated insecurity in the sense that they believe themselves to be unworthy, or suffering from some weakness which could be exploited by others to destroy them. In an effort to reduce their insecurity they hide behind a veil of power established by surrounding themselves with weak people who are dependent on the Godfather manager to satisfy their needs. They surround themselves with people who have good credentials of which the Godfather becomes the owner. By hiring and controlling these people, the Godfather can show that he is a significant person. The only reward the Godfather expects from his or her subordinates is their loyalty and respect for his power. This, according to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:57), serves three purposes. "First, to increase the Godfather's sense of self worth, secondly, if the Godfather has loyal workers, the chances are minimized that the inadequacies he is trying to hide will be revealed and thirdly, by having loyal workers, the Godfather is able to provide himself with strong protection from outsiders who may attempt to injure him." The Godfather Syndrome consists of two variations, the Malevolent Godfather and the Caretaker Godfather. *Malevolent Godfathers* believe that all people are worthless and seek to prove this by constantly humiliating and degrading those over whom they have control. They will charm people into joining and afterwards will start devaluing them. Flamholtz and Randle (1987:57) state: "Once the Malevolent Godfather has acquired people, he derives a great deal of amusement from playing with them. He likes to put people against one another in a sort of organizational chess game and then watch what happens, never really caring what the outcome is." Another characteristic of managers suffering from the Malevolent Godfather syndrome is a deep-rooted anger. The only difference between Malevolent

Godfathers and Caretaker Godfathers lies in their motives. The *Caretaker Godfather* plays a more benign role than the Malevolent Godfather. He is like a benevolent autocrat or parental figure because his need is to take care of people. In comparison with the Malevolent Godfather, the Caretaker Godfather is a strong influential manager to whom others naturally look for help and support. Flamholtz and Randle (1987:63) state that "this type of Godfather does not necessarily want to humiliate people, and he may only inadvertently make them dependent on him. He is merely being strong for them and providing what they tell him they need". His self-esteem is satisfied through the value workers put on his ability to provide in their needs. According to Flamholtz and Randle (1987:63), this situation can change dramatically if the Caretaker Godfather "comes to believe that, even though he is providing them with ample resources to satisfy their needs, they are still not loyal to him, and he will feel betrayed and will lash out at those who have betrayed him". The actions of others can, in essence, be responsible for transforming the once benign Caretaker Godfather into an angry Malevolent Godfather. Appendix 1.10 offers a comparison of the different management syndromes affecting the acknowledgement of diversity awareness in the workplace.

### **6.3.5 RESULTS AND FEEDBACK (PHASE 5)**

Results within Phase 5 not only refer to the consequences of one's behaviour but also reflect one's thinking towards diversity in the workplace. According to Gaub (2000:1), one needs to understand that wrong thinking does not produce right results. The following examples by Londen and Rosener (1991:12-13) illustrate the results of how belief windows and paradigms on diversity management can influence diversity awareness in the workplace:

- A high turnover of workers from other groups, which in turn will contribute to high recruiting and retraining costs.
- An increase in discrimination complaints owing to the mismanagement of diverse employees.
- A flare-up of everyday conflicts over a comment, gesture or joke, perhaps delivered without malice, but perceived as an insult, will create tension between co-workers.
- Deliberate acts of sabotage, aimed at making co-workers who are different look bad in

corporate turf battles between members of different ethnic and racial groups, which in turn could lead to a waste of time and money.

- Absenteeism, associated with psychological stress owing to poor communication and misunderstanding between diverse employees, could result in an enormous amount of personal energy and creativity being wasted on active resistance to change.
- Increased frustration among diverse workers which could lead to low productivity and morale as well as a lack of motivation (Londen & Rosener, 1991:12-13).
- Diverse workers could feel that they are being devalued owing to the discrimination against them. They may react with cynicism, caution or guarded optimism when changes unfold. This in turn could contribute to a loss of commitment and loyalty, increased disrespect for authority, lack of teamwork and esprit de corps, lack or total absence of respect for and recognition of differences, and the growing perception that no opportunities exist in the workplace for advancement of people from diverse backgrounds.
- Stereotyping and labelling of people from diverse backgrounds which will lead to misunderstanding on various issues, for example, why certain employees are promoted.
- Workers could feel threatened and concerned about the possible effects of current and future change on their jobs and career goals. They could also feel that they are being unfairly treated when certain people such as expatriates are promoted (when diversity is eventually recognised by management) (Jamieson, 1991:8).

Phase 5 is also a mirror reflection of one's mindset of what one truly believes about diversity. Feedback helps one to step back from one's own life and reflect on how one could have been thinking, why one has been thinking, not seeing what one was supposed to see, choosing the behaviours one chose and the consequences of the chosen behaviour. Feedback within Phase 5 also helps one realise that diversity awareness as a tool for managing diversity can only work if one's own beliefs are in line with reality, and that negative behaviours can be overcome through changing incorrect beliefs. McGraw (1999:47) states: "People in general are suspicious of those they don't live with, work with, worship with, and grow up with." You have to meet those people where they are in terms of what they believe and then persuade them to move their beliefs in line with reality thinking. "You must understand someone and know what makes them tick before you

can connect with them. They need to see similarities between you and your values and their own. That is the basis of bonding” (McGraw, 1999:47). As a result, one needs to establish the kinds of things one will need to know to deal effectively with people from a diverse background in the workplace. But one needs to make a conscious commitment to learn about how and why people do what they do. In doing so, one will find that different things drive the behaviour of different people. Figure 6.12 refers to questions one should ask to understand people and the ten most common characteristics shared by people.

**FIGURE 6.12 QUESTIONS TO ASK ABOUT PEOPLE YOU DON'T KNOW AND TEN COMMON CHARACTERISTICS SHARED BY PEOPLE (FROM MCGRAW, 1999:48-50)**

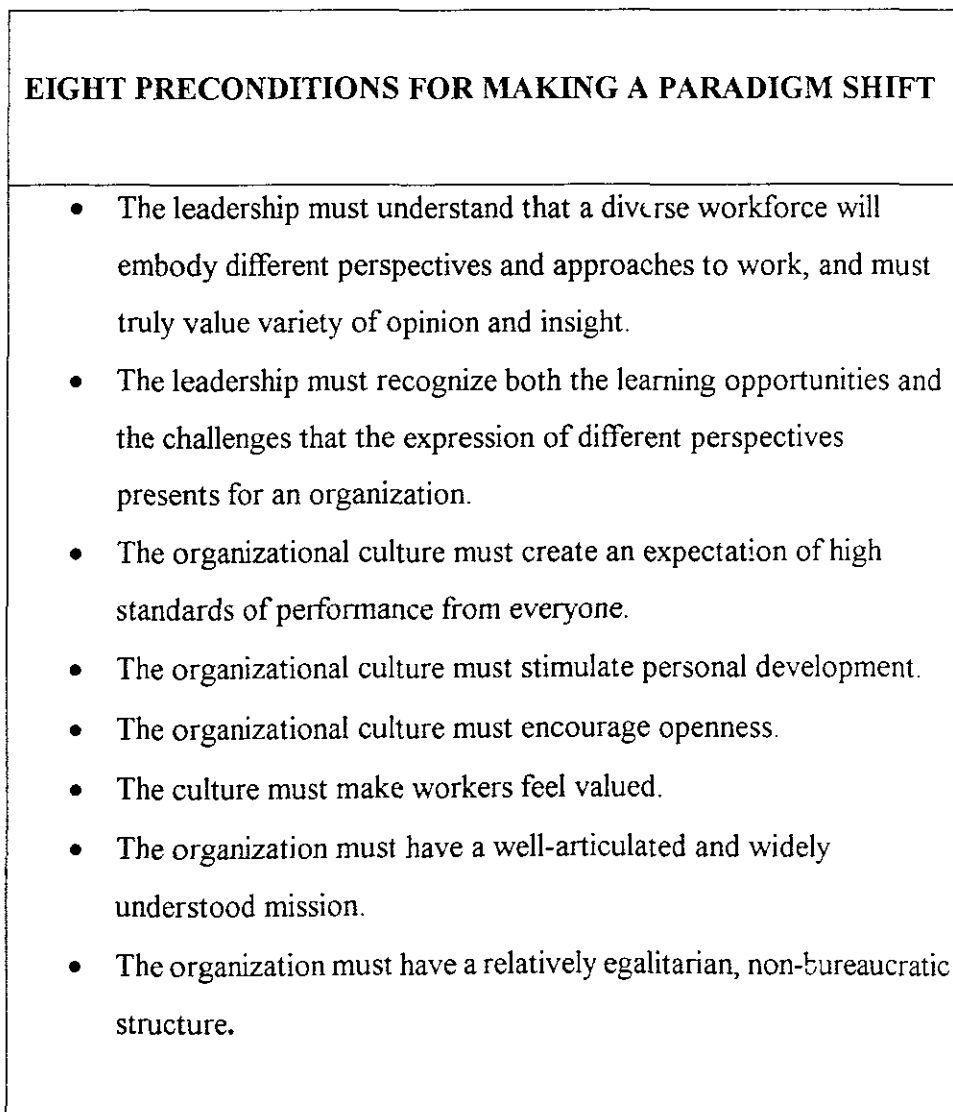
QUESTIONS TO ASK ABOUT PEOPLE YOU DON'T KNOW	TEN COMMON CHARACTERISTICS OF PEOPLE
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What do they value most in their lives: For example are ethics a big deal?</li> <li>• What are their expectancies and beliefs about how life does and should work?</li> <li>• What resistance or predispositions, fears, biases, prejudices do they have?</li> <li>• What positions or approaches or philosophies are they most likely to reject or accept?</li> <li>• What do they need to hear from a person in order to conclude that that person is fundamentally “okay” and to be trusted?</li> <li>• What sort of things do they consider relevant?</li> <li>• How do they feel about themselves?</li> <li>• What do they want most in their lives?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The number one fear among all people is rejection</li> <li>• The number one need among all people is acceptance.</li> <li>• To manage people effectively, you must do it in a way that protects or enhances their self-esteem.</li> <li>• Everybody approaches every situation with at least some concern about “what’s in it for me”</li> <li>• Everybody wants to talk about things that are important to him or her personally.</li> <li>• People hear and incorporate only what they understand.</li> <li>• People like, trust, and believe those who like them.</li> <li>• People often do things for other than the apparent reasons.</li> <li>• Even people of quality can be, and often are, petty and small.</li> <li>• Everybody wears a social mask. You must look beyond the mask to see the person.</li> </ul>

Thomas and Ely states: “Diversity should be understood as the varied perspectives and approaches to work that members of different identity groups bring.” Figure 6.13 refers to eight preconditions that will help to position organisations to use identity–group differences in the service of organisational learning, growth, and renewal. For the post-1994 government, managing diversity goes well beyond a demographically representative workforce. The focus is on “the



contribution diversity can make to improve service delivery, to increase efficiency and effectiveness, reduce costs, at the same time improving the quality and extending the benefits of public services to all South Africans. Diversity is also seen as a tool to ensure a stable public service" (*White paper on Human Resource Management in the public sector*, 1997:26).

**FIGURE 6.13 EIGHT PRECONDITIONS ORGANISATIONS HAVE TO FOLLOW WHEN MAKING A PARADIGM SHIFT REGARDING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE (THOMAS & ELY, 1996:85-86)**



#### 6.4 SUMMARY

A normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers within the Nelson Mandela Metropole was developed and proposed in this chapter. The model is based on

the time management model of Smit (1994) and the input and outputs model of Hanks & Pulsipher (1997). This was followed by a brief discussion on the use of models to investigate diversity awareness in local government. The normative model for managing diversity awareness was explained. The model consists of the following five interlinked phases. In Phases 1 and 2 the focus was on the purpose of diversity and the different belief windows influencing the thinking of local government managers regarding diversity in the workplace. Phase 3 is on the paradigms influencing diversity management and Phase 4 on the various management syndromes which influence the attitude and behaviour of local government in acknowledging diversity in the workplace. Phase 5 focuses on the results of ignoring diversity awareness and the role of feedback within the Diversity Awareness Reality Model.

**Chapter 7** focuses on a general conclusion and recommendations regarding diversity awareness in the workplace.

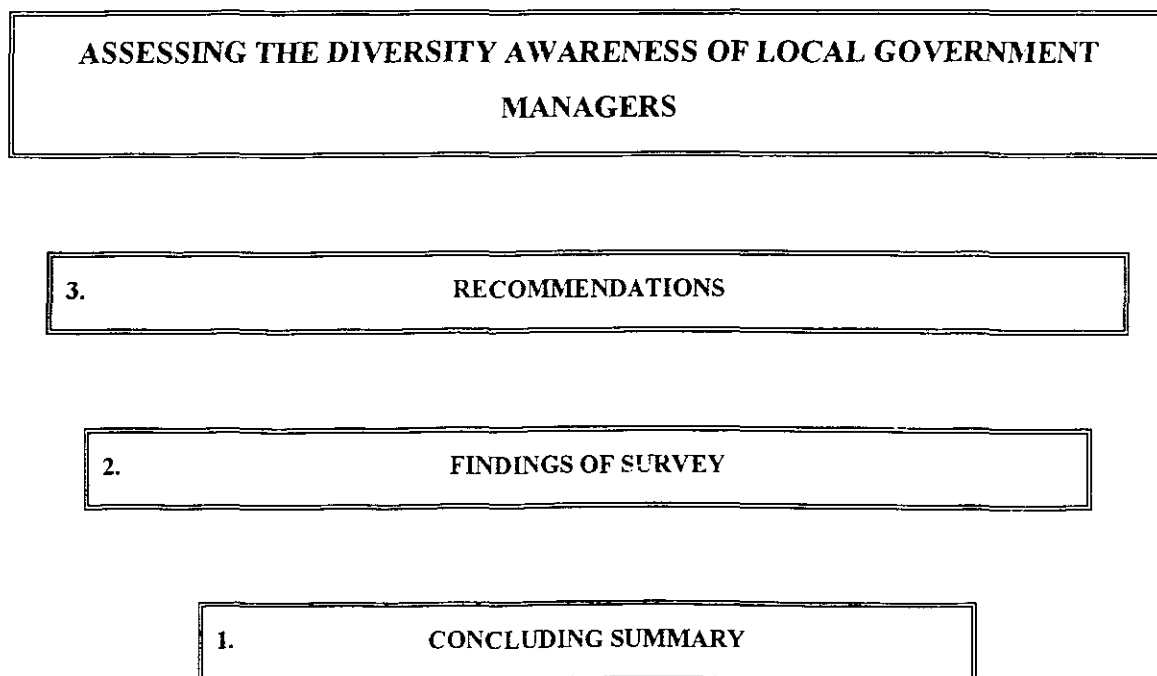
## **CHAPTER 7: ASSESSING THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.1 CONCLUDING SUMMARY**

As stated in the general introduction, the civil service of any country is an important political and social institution, and often provides administrative and symbolic reference points in terms of national unity, social continuity and national development goals. Public institutions are under constant pressure to change in accordance with demands originating from their external and internal environments. These changes embody several dimensions such as transformation, substitution, adaptation, alteration, managing innovation, renewal and reformation. The public service tends to be the most complex organisational system in any country, and when a country undertakes to reform its public service, it is also taking its biggest organisational transformation challenge. This dissertation aimed at investigating the diversity awareness level and behavioural response of local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole concerning diversity in the workplace and making them aware of ways in which they discriminate against, judge or isolate others concerning diversity, and to plan action steps to modify any undesirable behaviour that is discovered (Chapter 1); to investigate the theory of diversity management in the workplace (Chapter 2); to develop a theoretical framework of diversity management in the public sector, and more specifically local government (Chapter 3); to develop a behaviour modelling framework of managing diversity awareness in the workplace in order to develop an understanding of why public managers do the things they do, especially the behavioural attributes of public service managers concerning diversity (Chapter 4); to develop and implement a measuring instrument to assess the diversity awareness of local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole in the workplace (Chapter 5); and lastly to develop a normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers (Chapter 6). Figure 7.1 gives a schematic framework of Chapter 7. As stated in the general introduction, the dissertation was further divided into three parts. The first part focused on the theory of diversity management which is necessary in the workplace by identifying what managing diversity is *not* and the need for diversity

management, the different dimensions of diversity in the workplace, the differences between managing diversity, valuing of differences and affirmative action, models for managing diversity, the parameters of diversity in the public sector, and the challenges managing diversity offers to the public sector manager. The second part focused more on the diversity awareness and behavioural response of local government managers towards diversity awareness in the workplace. The third and last part of the dissertation focused on assessing the diversity awareness and the development of a normative model for managing diversity awareness in local government. This part was built on the theoretical literature on diversity management and data that was received on the behavioural response of local government managers towards diversity awareness in the workplace. The dissertation emphasised the importance of recognising and accepting diversity, and the need for a research programme dealing with diversity awareness as a means of ensuring peaceful integration in the workplace. The findings of the diversity awareness and behavioural response of local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole towards diversity in the workplace will now be highlighted.

**FIGURE 7.1 A SCHEMATIC FRAMEWORK OF CHAPTER 7**



## 7.2 FINDINGS OF SURVEY

### 7.2.1 THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS RESPONSE LEVEL OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS CONCERNING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE HAS SHOWN THAT:

- The majority of the respondents almost never challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments or speak up when someone is humiliating another or acting inappropriately.
- The majority of the respondents are sensitive about their actions. This explains why they think about the impact of their comments and actions before they speak or act and refuse to participate in jokes that are derogatory or show bias to any group. They refrain from repeating statements or rumours which reinforce prejudice or hate, and check the past before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone. They recognise and challenge the bias affecting their own thinking, and avoid using language which reinforces negative stereotypes.
- The majority of the respondents acknowledge that protected-class members are just as skilled and competent as they are, that they are willing to get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals, are aware that people from other cultures also need to socialise, and that not everyone has to act or look a certain way to be successful and valuable to an organisation.
- The majority of the respondents are taking responsibility for helping new people in their organisation. This includes making women and people of various cultures, ages and sizes feel welcome and accepted even in informal networks and social events.
- The majority of the respondents state that they learn about the richness of other cultures, appreciate them and respect their holidays and events; that they will ask for and plan social

events in which everyone at work is able to participate, and that they encourage colleagues to behave in a way that supports cultural diversity.

- The majority of the respondents encourage protected-class members to speak out on their own issues and concerns, and treat those issues as valid, and will also allow people from diverse backgrounds to take risks.
- The majority of the respondents encourage unity in the workplace by allowing people from different diverse backgrounds to speak about issues and concerns both in group meetings and one-on-one; this also contributes to a work environment in which all employees are respected and valued.
- The majority of the respondents use participative management, for example, by including diverse groups in decision-making; handing over responsibility to them as often as they do to others; providing feedback on their work performance; disregarding physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability; keeping everybody informed (both formally and informally); and by sharing the written and unwritten rules of the organisation.
- The majority of the respondents want to make their organisations more pro-active in respect of affirmative action and equal opportunity guidelines, and state that those who violate those policies should be confronted. They say that everyone (including diverse groups) should have equal opportunities and equal access to top positions in their organisations. They will also confront organisational policies and procedures that lead to the exclusion of anyone. The majority of the respondents also state that they keep everyone in the workplace (including diverse groups) informed, both formally and informally.
- The majority of the respondents state that they assist in providing all employees with

ample training and education to succeed and to grow in their jobs, and act as mentors, enabling them to grow and "learn the ropes".

- The majority of the respondents do not call, write, or in any way protest when a book, newspaper, television show or some branch of the media perpetuate or reinforce a bias or prejudice and they also refuse to join or remain a member of associations or groups allowing or reinforcing values or practices that are racist, biased or prejudiced.
- The majority of the respondents in the pilot study and the Nelson Mandela Metropole seldom or almost never participate in voluntary or community activities which are change-agent efforts. Only the respondents of the Port Elizabeth Police Service state that they do. The majority of the respondents also state that they do make an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds and do indicate when something is inappropriate which could lead to prejudice.

**7.2.2 THE BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSE OF INDIVIDUAL PUBLIC AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS CONCERNING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE HAS SHOWN THAT:**

- Fifty-two of the public managers in the pilot study behave in a manner relating to being perpetrators and avoiders, and the other fifty-one behave as change agents and fighters.
- Forty-six of the local government managers at the Nelson Mandela Metropole and forty-five of the Port Elizabeth Police Service public managers display behaviour patterns of change agents and fighters, as against twelve of the local government managers in the Nelson Mandela Metropole of being perpetrators, and six public managers in the Port Elizabeth Police Services of being avoiders.

**7.2.3 THE BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSE OF BOTH FEMALE AND MALE PUBLIC AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS CONCERNING DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE HAS SHOWN THAT:**

- Thirty of the fifty-nine female respondents in the pilot study display behavioural patterns of change agents and fighters; the other twenty-nine females of being perpetrators and avoiders. The response level of the females in the pilot study was also higher than that of the males.
- Twenty-three of the males in the pilot study have behavioural patterns of being perpetrators and avoiders; the other twenty-one male respondents have behavioural patterns of being change agents and fighters.
- The majority of the male and female respondents in the Nelson Mandela Metropole and Port Elizabeth Police Service display behavioural patterns of being change agents and fighters.
- In both the Nelson Mandela Metropole and Port Elizabeth Police Service study, women are poorly represented at both senior management and middle management levels.

**7.2.4 THE BEHAVIOURAL RESPONSE OF PUBLIC AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS ACCORDING TO MANAGEMENT LEVEL WITH REGARD TO DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE HAS SHOWN THAT:**

- The majority of the behavioural response in the Nelson Mandela Metropole and Port Elizabeth Police Service comes from public and local government managers working at the junior management level of the organisation, followed by middle management. A limited response was received from top management.
- Ninety of the one hundred and nine respondents (from all three levels of management) in the



Nelson Mandela Metropole and Port Elizabeth Police Service display behavioural patterns of being change agents and fighters concerning diversity in the workplace.

### 7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, and emerging from the results of the research, the following recommendations are made:

- Local government managers should acknowledge, value and appreciate the full spectrum of diversity in the public sector, and see it as a vital resource in the workplace. They should adjust themselves to a mind set of multiculturalism in the workplace, at the same time keeping in mind the fact that diversity awareness and managing diversity are about people who are not like them and who do not aspire to be like them.
- Local government managers should acknowledge that diversity goes beyond physical differences, including differences in geographical area, communication styles, cultural leadership, problem-solving, professional experience, functional experience, management level, training and education, and work ethics.
- Local government managers should focus on obtaining commitment not only from individuals or the organisation, but also from everyone in the workplace. In so doing, they should themselves refrain from judging people who are different from them by perhaps analysing their own biases and prejudice, and by being sensitive to cultural differences.
- Local government managers should change their attitudes and perceptions towards diversity by talking openly about racial and ethnic differences (these open discussions should, however, not be used by the public manager/supervisor to pry into the employees' personal lives). They could become intercultural ambassadors by learning the home language of someone from a

cross-cultural background, and by just being aware of cultural differences pertaining to verbal and non-verbal signs.

- Local government managers should approach diversity awareness from three levels simultaneously, namely individually, interpersonally and organisationally. They could address diversity through participative management, especially through work-related decisions, building an atmosphere of trust, and thereby encouraging commitment to work to their fullest potential and performance beyond expectations. This would lead to interpersonal and organisational fulfilments. Public managers and organisations in the public sector should adopt a long-term commitment towards diversity awareness and its management in the workplace.
- Local government managers should recognise that with a diverse workforce it is preferable having a management style which focuses on working with people rather than for people.
- Local government managers should be aware that managing a diverse workforce is not an easy task because of people's humanistic nature.
- Local government managers should imbed the following basic guidelines into their behaviour for managing diversity awareness in the workplace. The aim of the principles is to encourage public managers to behave in a way that would:
  - Recognise the enormous diversities that exist in the workplace.
  - Learn to value and appreciate the full spectrum of that diversity.
  - Honour the principle of love and respect for one another.
  - Tolerate differences.

- Create cultural awareness in the workplace.
- Create forums for human relations training.
- Foster an atmosphere of openness to new experiences and people.
- *Encourage humility.*
- Stimulate a sense of humour but use it only when appropriate.
- Practise patience.
- Engender empathy.
- Seek commitment from and foster enthusiasm in personnel.
- Stop being judgemental of people who are different from them.
- Change attitudes and perceptions by being intercultural ambassadors.
- Build an atmosphere of trust and unity in the workplace.
- Encourage commitment. Desire to work to their fullest potential and perform beyond expectations in attempting to satisfy their own needs and expectations within the framework of organisational goals.
- Address diversity through participative management.
- Turn fear of the other into curiosity to learn more from workers.

- Avoid behaviour that discriminates against, encourages prejudice, stereotyping and bias against people of diverse backgrounds in the workplace.
- Acknowledge that one of the ways of changing their behavioural outlook on diversity is to move out of their comfort zone.

### **A NORMATIVE MODEL PROPOSED:**

A normative model was proposed which was to be used for investigating the diversity awareness of local government managers now and in the future. This normative model is a model that can be adapted to any sphere of government be it at a National or at a Provincial Level and its applicability is flexible.

The following recommendations are made with regard to **organisational and departmental arrangements** concerning diversity awareness and the behavioural change of local government managers in the workplace. The recommendations are based on the responses that were received from top, middle and junior management to the survey (see Figures 6.24-6.25).

- Managing the successful implementation of diversity requires support right down from top management to worker level.
- Top management should encourage and commit themselves to the creation of a diversity awareness climate in the workplace. This can be done by creating a work environment in which all employees are respected and valued, encouraging public managers to participate in community activities which are change-agent efforts, and encouraging public service managers to make an effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds.

- Senior, middle and junior management should encourage diversity awareness initiatives in the workplace.
- For the desired transformation to take place, the leadership of the Nelson Mandela Metropole and the public service should change their own behavioural outlook and attitude on diversity, and apply sufficient pressure from the top to change the behavioural outlook of middle and junior management, as well as workers, towards diversity.
- Top management should also discourage negative behavioural patterns and reward desired behavioural patterns towards diversity by intervention and re-orientation of public officials to change their thinking on diversity, and by encouraging behaviour that supports cultural diversity. *Punishment should also be handled with care.*
- Top management should also in conjunction with other role players (middle management, staff associations and trade unions), identify the contingencies; in other words, what positive behaviour is acceptable in acknowledging and managing diversity in the workplace.
- Top management should commit themselves to the bringing about of specific changes through the development of new values, attitudes and behaviours.
- Top management should also recognise and accept the new behaviour pattern which forms the new norm of behaviour with regard to diversity in the workplace.
- Women should get more recognition at all three levels of management (senior, middle and junior) in order to reflect the demographic composition of the country in the workplace (see Figures 6.28-6.29).

- Personnel policies and practices regarding the management of diverse people need to be integrated with the total process of management within the organisation.
- Strategies need to be implemented to ensure that the public service organisations targeted within this study can obtain, develop and retain diverse employees with the requisite skills and behaviour.
- The leadership and motivation of diverse employees is the responsibility of all managers, not just a task for the human resource specialist.
- Managing diversity training programmes should first focus on the human *being* and then on the *doing* and *having* side of diversity training. In other words, focus on who the person is, before moving on to what the person should do and should be (the changes the person should implement).

## **APPENDIX**

### **APPENDIX 1.1: A COMPLETE LIST ON THE ROLES, BEHAVIOURS AND ATTITUDES OF PUBLIC MANAGERS**

**Sample/Procedure****Findings/Conclusion****Lau, Pavett, and Newman, 1980**

Compared U.S. Navy civilian executives to executives from a number of service and manufacturing firms.

Found general similarities in the work of the two types of managers, although the public managers devoted more time to "fire drills" and crisis management.

**Boyatzis, 1982**

Study of managerial competencies in four federal agencies and twelve Fortune 500 firms.

Private managers higher on "goal and action" competencies. This is attributed to absence of clear performance measures, such as profits and sales, in the public sector. Private managers also higher on leadership competencies of "conceptualization" and "use of oral presentations." This is attributed to more strategic decision making in the private sector and greater openness and standard procedures in the public sector.

**Mintzberg, 1972**

Observational study of the work of five executives from a variety of organizations, including a hospital director and a superintendent of a large school system.

The study indicated marked similarities in work roles of the five. The managers in public and "quasi-public" organizations - the school administrator and hospital administrator, respectively - spent more time in contact with directors and with external interest groups. The contacts were more structured and formalized (e.g., formal meetings) and the public administrators received more "status requests". Findings attributed to the broader public concern with the organization's activities and, particularly for the school administrator, the relation to the political system.

**Rainey, 1979, 1983b**

Compared questionnaire responses from middle manager in four state agencies and one defence installation and four private firms.

Public managers lower on satisfaction with co-workers and promotion, relation of extrinsic rewards (pay, promotion, firing) to performance, and perceived value of monetary incentives, and slightly lower on perceived organizational formalization (rules, channels). Public managers much higher on perceived constraints on extrinsic rewards under personnel rules.

**Author, year****Sample/Procedure****Findings/Conclusions****Comparative Observations by Experienced Practitioners or Consultants****Golembiewski, 1985**

Observations based on personal experience and a review of research on organizational development and behavior in public organizations

Distinctive properties of public organizations include: multiple access to external authorities, multiple interests and reward structures, and competing affiliations outside the organizational hierarchy for organizational members. These conditions result in limited delegation of authority, need for security, procedural regularity and caution, among managers a weak sense of identity as "professional managers," and general differences in organizational culture due in part to civil service rules and weak performance-reward relations.

**Blumenthal, 1983**

Views of experienced practitioner.

Federal executives have less control over their organizations than business executives. The organizations are more conglomerated and diverse. Congress and the press are more influential. The decision process is more cumbersome.



**Dunlop, 1979**

Views of experienced practitioner.

Government management involves shorter time perspectives due to political pressure and turnover of political appointees, less clarity of performance measures, more personnel constraints, more emphasis on equity, more importance of the press, Congress, and courts.

**Comparisons of Judgmental or Opportunity Samples of a Variety of "Public" and "Private" Organizations****Kaufman, 1981a**

Observational, descriptive study of six federal bureau chiefs.

Much of bureau chief's work is generic management: motivating, communicating, decision making. Political environment highly significant, however. Relations with Congress very important.

**Kurke and Aldrich, 1983**

Replication of Mintzberg study, observing four executives including a school system

Mintzberg's findings replicated and supported, including findings that public managers spend much more time in contact with directors and outside groups. The school administrator spent much more time in formal No differences on role conflict and ambiguity, task variability and analysability, goal clarity, self-reported motivation and job involvement.

**Buchanan, 1974, 1975**

Compared questionnaire responses from managers in four "typical" federal agencies and four large business firms.

Public managers lower on satisfaction with work and co-workers, job involvement, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational constraints and rules. Buchanan suggested that the findings reflect weaker hierarchical authority, greater diversity of personnel, and weaker commitment expectations in public organizations. This is due to civil service rules, political interventions, diffuse goals, and complex bureaucratic procedures.

**Porter and Lawler, 1968**

Public managers were much less likely to feel that pay in their organizations depended on performance and that their own pay represented a reward for good performance.

**Rhinehart, Barrell, DeWolfe, Griffin, and Spaner, 1969**

Compared supervisory personnel in one federal agency to managers in Porter's (1962) sample from industry, with management level as a control variable.

Federal managers lower on all thirteen items in Porter satisfaction scale. Differences were statistically significant only on social and self-actualization need satisfaction for all levels. For higher levels,

**Paine, Carroll, and Leete, 1966**

Compared managers in one federal agency to managers in Porter's (1962) industry sample who were comparable in age and level.

Federal managers lower on all thirteen items in Porter need satisfaction scale, with greater differences on job security, autonomy, and self-actualization. Authors cautioned that agency was under political pressure and concerns over job security may have had "halo effect" on other items.

**Author, year  
Sample/Procedure**

**Findings/Conclusions**

---

**Comparisons of Samples from Analogous Organizations or Task Units in the Public and Private Sectors**

**Solomon and Greenberg, 1982**

Compared 125 top managers in public enterprises to 125 private top managers in Israel, on nineteen climate items.

Public enterprise managers lower on perceived relations between rewards and performance. No differences on freedom, delegation, participation.

**Lachman, 1985**

Compared chief executives in 91 private firms and 40 public enterprises in Israel, on perceived external influences and on work satisfaction.

No differences on perceived external influences on decision processes. Public enterprise executives lower on satisfaction with extrinsic rewards (financial reward, work, social relations) and intrinsic rewards (challenge, growth, etc.), but Lachman concluded that these differences were not important.

**Meyer, 1979**

Qualitative and quantitative study of structural change using a national sample of state and local finance agencies.

Public bureaucracies particularly open to external pressures for changes. Their hierarchies were stable, but there were frequent changes in subunit composition. Personnel systems were increasingly formalized over time due to federal emphasis on civil service rules. External pressures for structural change were mediated by the political position and behaviors of agency leaders. Meyer concludes that public bureaucracies have no alternative to Weberian hierarchy and tend to be evaluated in terms of conformity with higher authority.

## **APPENDIX 1.2: EXAMPLES OF ESTABLISHING THE RELIABILITY OF EXAMPLES**

***Operational validity:***

Evidence that a measure is named correctly and that it measures what it was intended to measure.

***Evidence of a measure's operational validity:***

**Face validity:** evidence that establishes the legitimacy of a measure; those who interpret or act on data accept it as producing appropriate information.

**Content validity:** evidence that a measure's indicators taken as a whole adequately represent the phenomenon of interest.

**Criterion validity:** empirical evidence that the measure acts as expected. Concurrent validity compares data produced by the measure of interest to data produced by an alternative measure to see if the data are consistent. Predictive validity applies only to measures produced to predict a future outcome, for example, success in a job or in school.

**Construct validity:** evidence that measures of a theoretical construct correlate with theoretically linked variables and do not correlate with other variables. Construct validity is primarily of interest to researchers.

***Evaluating the evidence:***

Evidence that the measure is content and criterion valid strengthens one's position that an appropriate measure has been used. Nevertheless, whether a measure is accepted as operationally valid or not depends on the user's purpose and conceptual definition.

***When to determine operational validity:***

Operational validity should be determined prior to testing a model, collecting data, or introducing an intervention. Because of the role of judgment, if data are being collected for use by administrator or legislators, the validity of the measure should be reviewed with them prior to data collection.

**APPENDIX 1.3: EXAMPLES OF  
WHAT A RESEARCHER SHOULD  
LOOK FOR WHEN THE  
OPERATIONAL VALIDITY OF A  
MEASURE NEEDS TO BE  
EVALUATED**

**Reliability:** Evidence that a measure accurately distinguishes between subjects or over time. If a measure is reliable, one can assume that differences between subjects or over time are real differences.

***Evidence of a measure's reliability:***

Qualitative method: Used to evaluate the reliability of any measure. Depending on the purpose of the measure, qualitative evidence of reliability may be sufficient.

***Interrater reliability:*** used if more than one investigator collects data on a measure. Interrater reliability produces empirical evidence demonstrating the equivalence of scores assigned by different raters.

***Test-retest:*** used to demonstrate empirically the stability of a measure. Test-retest will not produce useful evidence of reliability if the first testing is likely to affect the responses to the retest.

***Internal consistency:*** used to demonstrate empirically that several items of a single measure are homogeneous.

**Alternative forms:** used to demonstrate empirically that two different forms of a measure are equivalent in assigning scores to subjects. Administrative researchers, other than those who construct tests, rarely use this method.

***When to determine reliability:***

Reliability should be determined prior to testing a model, collecting data, or introducing an intervention. Internal consistency may be determined after collecting data, but prior to data analysis. Specific problems such as ambiguous terms may be overlooked until after the data are collected or analyzed.

***Relative nature of reliability:***

The degree of accuracy required depends on the purpose of the measure. A measure may be reliable for one purpose and not another.

## **APPENDIX 1.4-1.5: EXAMPLES OF ESTABLISHING OPERATIONAL VALIDITY**

### EXAMPLE 4.4      Creating a Content-Valid Measure

**Problem:** Develop a measure of managerial career success in order to compare managers from different countries.

**Procedure:**

1. Systematically identify elements to be included:
  - a. Research team drew on its training to identify elements of managerial career success: age, organizational level attained, organizational size.
  - b. Effect of organizational level and size on career success discussed. Age, as an indicator of rate of advancement, compared to alternative indicators.
2. Determine the relative importance of the elements:  
Researchers did not explicitly discuss.
3. Formulate a measure that includes the elements and weighs them according to their relative importance:
  - a. Created equation:

$$M = B/T \times 1/A \times S \times 1000$$

where:

B/T = Number of levels below manager/total levels in organization

A = Age

S = Size, ordinal scale, ranging from 1 to 7

M = Managerial Success Rating

- b. Equation assigns most importance to S, then B/T, then A.
  - c. Items to gather written data:
    - B, How many levels of supervision are there *below* your position?
    - T, How many levels of supervision are there in your *total* organization or company from the first level supervisor to the chief executive?
    - S, Approximately how many employees are there in your total organization or company?
    - A, Date of birth?
4. Show how the measure incorporates these elements and accounts for differences in their importance:
  - a. Items can be demonstrated to represent elements identified in Step 1, i.e., organizational level attained, organizational size, and age.
  - b. Total measure (*M*) can be checked by using different hypothetical figures for E, T, S and A, and comparing values of *M* to see if they were logically consistent. For example, presidents of larger organizations received higher *M* values than presidents of smaller organizations.

Source: B.M. Bass and P.C. Burger, *Assessment of Managers* (New York: The Free Press, 1979), pp. 37-44



### **EXAMPLE 4.5      Creating a Written Work-Knowledge Test Based on Job Analysis**

**Problem:** Create a written test of job knowledge to evaluate applications for accounting positions.

**Measure:** Knowledge of accounting.

**Procedure to establish content validity:**

1. Systematically identify elements to include in measure:
  - a. Interview job holders and their supervisors about tasks performed by agency accountants.
  - b. Review materials discussing accountants' work.
  - c. Write a pool of questions covering tasks (identified during steps 1a and 1b):
    - (1) Technical experts review questions.
    - (2) Eliminate questions if >50 percent of experts said tasks were actually learned on job (50 percent cutoff an arbitrary standard).
  
1. Determine relative importance of these elements:
  - a. Ask job incumbents to rate each question using a scale ranging from 0 (lowest) to 7 (highest) on: importance, frequency, relevance.
  - b. Keep questions with mean >4.0 and standard deviation <2.5 (arbitrary standards).
  
2. Create a measure that includes these elements and weighs them according to their relative importance:
  - a. Identify knowledge needed to perform these tasks (repeat steps 1a and 1b).
  - b. Write job-knowledge statements.
  
3. Show how measure incorporates these elements, and account for differences in their importance:
  - a. Submit to technical experts.
  - b. Keep items if >70 percent of experts consider knowledge essential (arbitrary standard)
  - c. Review final measure for consistency with information collected in Steps 1 through 3.

SOURCE: G.A. Kesselman and F.L. Lopez, "The Impact of Job Analysis on Employment Test Validation for Minority and Nonminority Accounting Personnel," *Personnel Psychology*, 1979: 91-108.

### EXAMPLE 4.6 An Application of Concurrent Validity

**Problem:** Determine whether self-reported information about pay and benefits corresponds to employer records.

*Measures to be validated:*

**Pay:** operationally defined as respondent's answer to "How much does your income from your job figure out to be per year, before taxes and other deductions are made?"

**Benefits:** operationally defined as respondent's answer to "Here are some fringe benefits. Tell me whether or not (employer name) makes each available to you."

*Procedures to establish the criterion validity of measures:*

1. Select validated measures similar to the measures being validated:
  - a. Pay: employer records on individual annual salary.
  - b. Benefits: employer policies indicating availability.
2. Administer the measures and criteria to subjects:
  - a. Interview 444 employees from three organizations (gathered data on measures).
  - b. Review personnel records of same 444 employees (gathered data on criteria).
3. Relate the measures being validated to the criteria:
  - a. Annual salary reported by employees compared with annual salary found in employer records.
  - b. Benefits reported by employees compared with benefits reported in employer policy statements.
4. Examine the relationships and decide whether the criterion and the measure being validated vary together:
  - a. Pay: 20.53 percent of the respondents overstated their pay, and 8.57 understated it.
  - b. Benefits: for common benefits such as paid vacation, >15 percent did not indicate that they received available benefits. Paid sick leave, medical insurance, retirement usually accurately reported.

**Discussion:** Procedure checked the reliability and criterion validity of measure. Self-reported pay measure is not operationally valid, since the errors tend to be systematic; that is, pay is overstated. The number of errors in both directions of the self-reported pay measure suggests that it has weak reliability. Self-reporting of common fringe benefits seems reliable and operationally valid; self-reporting of less common benefits such as stock options or profit sharing tends to be unreliable. Whether to use self-reports or employer records depends on the purpose of study; use self-reports for studies of employee perceptions and employer records for studies of behavioural data.

SOURCE: N. Gupta and T.A. Beehr, "A Test of the Correspondence between Self-Reports and Alternative Data Sources about Work Organizations," *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 1982: 1-13.

## EXAMPLE 4.7      An Application of Predictive Validity

**Problem:** Identify a method for predicting dangerous behaviour.

**Measures validated:** Clinical procedures to establish: a person's motivation ( $M$ ), including history of aggression ( $H$ ), internal inhibitions ( $I$ ), and situational factors ( $S$ ). Then, a method to combine these factors, e.g.,  $I - (M+H+S)$ ; if  $I > 0$ , violent acts are unlikely.

**Criterion measure:** Arrest for a serious assaultive act.

**Procedures for validating measure:**

1. Clinical assessment to determine whether patients classified as dangerous should be released. Release recommended for 386 patients classified as non-dangerous. Release not recommended for 49 patients; however, court released them.
2. Collection of data on arrest for serious assaultive behaviour during the next five years.

**Covariation of measure and criterion:**

1. Data show 8 percent of those considered non-dangerous committed an assaultive act (false negative)
2. Data show 65 percent of those considered dangerous did not commit an assaultive act (false positive)

**Discussion:** Validity of measure limited by number of false positives, which must be evaluated in the context of the consequences of incorrectly labelling a person as "dangerous". Roughly two out of three persons considered too dangerous for release were not found to have committed an assaultive act within the follow-up period. Research critics have questioned the validity of the criterion measure and have asked how many of the false positives committed violent acts without being caught. Also, questions have been raised about the external validity of generalizing from data gathered in an institutional setting in order to predict behaviour in an open community.

**SOURCES:** E.I. Magargee. "The Prediction of Dangerous Behavior," *Criminal Justice and Behavior* 3 (March 1976): 3-21, and J. Monahan, *The Clinical Prediction of Violent Behavior* (Washington, DC: Alcohol, Drug Abuse, and Mental Health Administration, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1981). Data and procedures adapted from H. Kozol et al., "The Diagnosis and Treatment of Dangerousness," *Crime and Delinquency* 18:371-392.

**APPENDIX 1.6: LETTER USED TO  
ASK PERMISSION TO CONDUCT  
SURVEY IN THE WORKPLACE**

**RESEARCH SURVEY: ASSESSING THE DIVERSITY AWARENESS OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT MANAGERS**

Dear Dr, Mr, Mrs, Ms

Management in the public sector has always been a challenging and demanding task. In the coming decade and beyond, it will become increasingly so.

One of the most challenging tasks facing the local government manager will be to resolve, or at least ameliorate, some of the diversities found in the workplace. To address this challenge a study that is aimed at measuring the diversity awareness of local government managers' has been undertaken by an individual member of the Department of Public Management at Cape Technikon, Cape Town. It is envisaged that this study will provide important data towards the further development of the subject field of Public Management. The aim of the research is also to develop a normative model for assessing the diversity awareness of local government managers.

Kindly complete the attached questionnaire, and return it in the enclosed envelope through your internal mail to the coordinator, Mr Peter Broodryk. The result of the study will be available on request.

No names or other identification mechanisms have to be furnished and complete anonymity is guaranteed. All information will be treated as strictly confidential and it will be impossible to identify any individual on the strength of the results included in the final report.

Thank you for your willingness to devote some of your valued time to this project. I trust that you will respond speedily to my request.

S W PEKEUR  
Department of Public Management

## **APPENDIX 1.7: QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN SURVEY**

## APPENDIX 1

## DIVERSITY AWARENESS QUESTIONNAIRE

## Section A

How often do you, as a local government manager

		Almost Never	Seldom	Usually	Almost Always
1	Challenge others on racial/ethnic/sexually derogatory comments?	1	2	3	4
2	Speak up when someone is humiliating another person or acting inappropriately?	1	2	3	4
3	Think about the impact of your comments and actions <i>before you speak or act?</i>	1	2	3	4
4	Refuse to participate in-jokes that are derogatory to any group, or reflect bias?	1	2	3	4
5	Refrain from repeating statements or rumours that reinforce prejudice or bias?	1	2	3	4
6	Check out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone?	1	2	3	4
7	Recognise and challenge the biases that affect your own thinking?	1	2	3	4
8	Avoid using language that reinforces negative stereotypes?	1	2	3	4
9	Assume and convey the message that *designated (and non-designated) groups are as skilled and competent as others are?	1	2	3	4
10	Get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals?	1	2	3	4
11	Realise members of another culture have a need to socialise with and reinforce one another and connect as a group?	1	2	3	4
12	Accept and reinforce the fact that not everyone has to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to your organisation?	1	2	3	4
13	Take responsibility for helping new people join my organisation, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes, to feel welcome and accepted?	1	2	3	4
14	Include designated members, including women, in the informal networks and/or social events?	1	2	3	4
15	Learn about and appreciate the richness of other cultures and respect their holidays and events?	1	2	3	4

Page Total \_\_\_\_\_

\* Designated members refer to black people, women, people with disabilities, race or language groups etc.

**PLEASE TURN OVER**

		Almost Never	Seldom	Usually	Almost Always
16	Ask for and plan social events in which all people are able to participate?	1	2	3	4
17	Encourage designated members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treat those issues as valid?	1	2	3	4
18	Encourage designated members, including women, to take risks?	1	2	3	4
19	Listen to the ideas of designated members and give them credit both one-on-one and in-group meetings?	1	2	3	4
20	Include designated members in decision-making processes that affect them?	1	2	3	4
21	Empower designated members by handing over responsibility to them as often as I do to others?	1	2	3	4
22	Provide straightforward and timely feedback to designated members, including women?	1	2	3	4
23	Share the written and unwritten rules of your organisation with those from different cultures?	1	2	3	4
24	Disregard physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability?	1	2	3	4
25	Take responsibility for helping your organisation meet legal (*EEO/AA) guidelines?	1	2	3	4
26	Follow and reinforce organisational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violate those policies?	1	2	3	4
27	Consider designated members, including women, for all opportunities and positions you have influence over?	1	2	3	4
28	Keep all others, including designated members, in the information loops, both formal and informal?	1	2	3	4
29	Help provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow?	1	2	3	4
30	Provide formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including designated members, so they can learn the ropes?	1	2	3	4

Page Total \_\_\_\_\_

X EEO (Equal Employment Opportunities)  
X AA (Affirmative Action)

**PLEASE TURN OVER**



		Almost Never	Seldom	Usually	Almost Always
31	Make the extra effort to help your organisation retain designated employees?	1	2	3	4
32	Reinforce (encourage) others for behaviours that support cultural diversity?	1	2	3	4
33	Confront organisational policies and producers that lead to the exclusion of anyone?	1	2	3	4
34	Do all you can to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers are respected and valued?	1	2	3	4
35	Make extra efforts to educate yourself about other cultures?	1	2	3	4
36	Call, write, or in some way protest when a book, newspaper, television show, or some branch of media perpetuates or reinforces a bias or prejudice?	1	2	3	4
37	Refuse to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allow or reinforce values or practices that are racist, biased, or prejudiced?	1	2	3	4
38	Participate in volunteer or community activities that are change-agent efforts?	1	2	3	4
39	Make extra efforts to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds?	1	2	3	4
40	Say, AI think that's inappropriate, when you think something indicated prejudice?	1	2	3	4

Page Total \_\_\_\_\_

**PLEASE TURN OVER**

**SECTION B**  
**CLASSIFICATION DATA**

PLEASE PROVIDE THE REQUIRED INFORMATION BY MAKING AN (X) AT THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER.

1. **Please indicate your gender:**

Male	
Female	

2. **In what age group do you fall?**

18-25	
26-35	
36-45	
46-55	
55-65	
66+	

3. **What is your current marital status?**

Married	
Never Married	
Widow/Widower	
Divorced	
Co-habiting	

4. **What is your highest educational qualification?**

Std 8 and lower	
Std 9	
Std 10	
Matric plus diploma(s)	
Matric plus degree(s)	
Other (Please specify)	
.....	

**PLEASE TURN OVER**

5. **Indicate your home language**

Zulu	
Afrikaans	
English	
Xhosa	
Venda	
Tsongo (Shangaan)	
Setswana	
Siswati	
Sesotho	
Sepedi	
Sindabele	
Other (Please specify)	
.....	

6. **Indicate your religion**

Dutch Reformed	
Anglican	
Methodist	
Baptist	
Roman Catholic	
Moravian	
Zion Christian Church	
Order of Ethiopia	
Islam	
Hindu	
Bhuddism	
Others (Please specify)	
.....	

7. **Please indicate your race group (for example White or Black)**

.....

8. **What is your current job position?**

.....

9. **For how long have you been working for your current employer?**

0-5 years	
6-10 years	
11 years +	

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION**

## **APPENDIX 1.8: ORIGINAL DATA ANALYSIS OF SURVEY**

<b>Dependent variables (Pilot Study)</b>	<b>256-275</b>
<b>Dependent variables (Nelson Mandela Metropole)</b>	<b>276-295</b>
<b>Dependent variables (Port Elizabeth Police Service)</b>	<b>296-315</b>

## 1. DEPENDENT VARIABLES (pilot study )

### Statement 1

Do you challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments?

STATEMENT 1			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	25	24.8	0
2	44	43.6	0
3	21	20.8	0
4	11	10.9	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

TABLE 1.1 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 1

Table 1.1 shows that respectively 43% and 25% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never challenged others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments. Respectively 21% and 11% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

### Statement 2

Do you speak up when someone is humiliating another person or acting inappropriately?

STATEMENT 2			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	2.0	0
2	17	16.7	0
3	64	62.7	0
4	19	18.6	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

TABLE 1.2 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 2

Table 1.2 shows that respectively 63% and 18% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always spoke up when someone was humiliating another person or acting inappropriately. The remaining 19% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 3**

**Do you think about the impact of your comments and actions before you speak or act?**

STATEMENT 3			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.0	0
2	13	12.6	0
3	51	49.5	0
4	38	36.9	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	103	100.0	0

**TABLE 1.3** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 3

Table 1.3 shows that respectively 49% and 37% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always thought about the impact of their comments and actions before they spoke or acted. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did.

**Statement 4**

**Do you refuse to participate in jokes that are derogatory to any group, or bias?**

STATEMENT 4			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	13	12.7	0
2	24	23.5	0
3	40	39.2	0
4	25	24.5	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.4** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 4

Table 1.4 shows that respectively 39% and 25% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always refused to participate in jokes that were derogatory and/or bias to any group. The remaining 36% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 5**

**Do you refrain from repeating statements or rumours that reinforce prejudice or hate?**

STATEMENT 5			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	9	8.8	0
2	13	12.7	0
3	48	47.1	0
4	32	31.4	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.5** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 5

Table 1.5 shows that respectively 47% and 31% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always refrained from repeating statements or rumours that reinforced prejudice or hate. The remaining 22% of respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 6**

**Do you check out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone?**

STATEMENT 6			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.0	0
2	9	8.7	0
3	59	57.3	0
4	34	33.0	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	103	100.0	0

**TABLE 1.6** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 6

Table 1.6 shows that respectively 57% and 33% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always checked out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone. The remaining 10% of respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did.



**Statement 7****Do you recognize and challenge the biases that effect your own thinking?**

STATEMENT 7			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	9	8.7	0
3	65	63.1	0
4	29	28.2	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	103	100.0	0

**TABLE 1.7** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 7

Table 1.7 shows that respectively 63% and 28% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always recognised and challenged the biases that affected their own thinking. The remaining 9% of respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 8****Do you avoid using language that reinforces negative stereotypes?**

STATEMENT 8			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	3.0	0
2	7	6.9	0
3	55	54.5	0
4	36	35.6	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

**TABLE 1.8** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 8

Table 1.8 shows that respectively 54% and 36% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always avoided language that reinforces negative stereotypes. The remaining 10% of respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 9**

**Do you assume and convey the message that protected-class members are as skilled and competent as others?**

STATEMENT 9			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	7.0	0
2	21	21.0	0
3	52	52.0	0
4	20	20.0	0
0	3	MISSING	3
TOTALS	103	100.0	3

**TABLE 1.9** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 9

Table 1.9 shows that respectively 52% and 20% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost conveyed the message that protected-class members are as skilled and as competent as others. The remaining 28% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Three respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 10**

**Do you get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals?**

STATEMENT 10			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.0	0
2	25	24.3	0
3	47	45.6	0
4	30	29.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	103	100.0	0

**TABLE 1.10** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 10

Table 1.10 shows that respectively 45% and 29% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always got to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals. The remaining 25% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 11**

**Do you realize that members of other cultures have a need to socialize with and reinforce one another and connect as a group?**

STATEMENT 11			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	2.0	0
2	12	11.8	0
3	56	54.9	0
4	32	31.4	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.11** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 11

Table 1.11 shows that respectively 55% and 31% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always realized that members of other cultures had a need to socialize with and reinforce one another and connect as a group. The remaining 14% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never realized that. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 12**

**Do you accept and reinforce the fact that not everyone has to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to your organization?**

STATEMENT 12			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.0	0
2	10	9.7	0
3	48	46.6	0
4	44	42.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	103	100.0	0

**TABLE 1.12** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 12

Table 1.12 shows that respectively 46% and 42% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always accepted and reinforced the fact that not everyone had to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to their organization. The remaining 11% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never accepted that.

**Statement 13**

**Do you take responsibility for helping new people in your organization, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes, to feel welcome and accepted?**

STATEMENT 13			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.0	0
2	7	6.9	0
3	33	32.4	0
4	61	59.8	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.13** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 13

Table 1.13 shows that respectively 60% and 32% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually took responsibility for helping new people in their organization, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes to feel welcome and accepted. The remaining 8% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 14**

**Do you include protected-class members, including women, in informal networks and/or social events?**

STATEMENT 14			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0	0
2	18	18.4	0
3	42	42.9	0
4	38	38.1	0
0	5	MISSING	5
TOTALS	103	100.0	5

**TABLE 1.14** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 14

Table 1.14 shows that respectively 42% and 38% of the respondents stated that they included protected-class members, including women, in informal networks and/or social events. The remaining 18% of respondents stated that they seldom did. Five respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 15**

**Do you learn about and appreciate the richness of other cultures and respect their holidays and events?**

STATEMENT 15			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	2.0	0
2	19	18.8	0
3	45	44.6	0
4	35	34.7	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	3

**TABLE 1.15** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 15

Table 1.15 shows that respectively 44% and 35% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always learned about and appreciated the richness of other cultures and respected their holidays and events. The remaining 21% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 16**

**Do you ask for and plan social events in which all people are able to participate?**

STATEMENT 16			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	8	7.8	0
2	37	36.3	0
3	33	32.4	0
4	24	23.5	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.16** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 16

Table 1.16 shows that 44% of the respondents stated that they seldom asked for and planned social events in which all people were able to participate. The remaining 56% of respondents stated that they usually did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 17**

**Do you encourage protected-class members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treat those issues as valid?**

STATEMENT 17			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	7.0	0
2	20	20.0	0
3	42	42.0	0
4	31	30.1	0
0	3	MISSING	3
TOTALS	103	100.0	3

**TABLE 1.17** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 17

Table 1.17 shows that respectively 42% and 30% of the respondents stated that they encouraged protected-class members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treated those issues as valid. The remaining 27% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Three respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 18**

**Do you encourage protected-class members, including women, to take risks?**

STATEMENT 18			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	11	10.9	0
2	28	27.7	0
3	47	46.5	0
4	15	14.5	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

**TABLE 1.18** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 18

Table 1.18 shows that respectively 46% and 15% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always encouraged protected-class members, including women, to take risks. The remaining 38% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 19**

Do you listen to the ideas of protected-class members and give them credit, both one-on-one and in group meetings?

STATEMENT 19			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	5	4.9	0
2	16	15.7	0
3	49	48.0	0
4	32	31.4	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

TABLE 1.19 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 19

Table 1.19 shows that respectively 48% and 31% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always listened to the ideas of protected-class members and gave them credit, both one-on-one and in group meetings. The remaining 21% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 20**

Do you include protected-class members in decision-making processes that affect them?

STATEMENT 20			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	5	5.1	0
2	11	11.1	0
3	40	40.4	0
4	43	43.4	0
0	4	MISSING	4
TOTALS	103	100.0	4

TABLE 1.20 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 20

Table 1.20 shows that 84% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually included protected-class members in decision-making processes that affect them. The remaining 16% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Four respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 21**

**Do you empower protected-class members by handing over responsibility to them as often as you do to others?**

STATEMENT 21			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	4	3.9	0
2	13	12.7	0
3	56	56.9	0
4	27	26.5	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.21** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 21

Table 1.21 shows that 83% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always empowered protected-class members by handing over responsibility to them as often as they did to others. The remaining 17% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did answer this statement.

**Statement 22**

**Do you provide straightforward and timely feedback to protected-class members, including women?**

STATEMENT 22			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	5	4.9	0
2	12	11.8	0
3	38	37.3	0
4	47	46.1	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.22** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 22

Table 1.22 shows that respectively 46% and 37% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually provided straightforward and timely feedback to protected-class members, including women. The remaining 15% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.



**Statement 23**

**Do you share the written and unwritten rules of your organization with those from different cultures?**

STATEMENT 23			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	6.9	0
2	14	13.7	0
3	39	38.2	0
4	42	41.2	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.23** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 23

Table 1.23 shows that respectively 41% and 38% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always shared the written and unwritten rules of their organization with those from different cultures. The remaining 21% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 24**

**Do you disregard physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability?**

STATEMENT 24			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	4	3.9	0
2	13	12.7	0
3	46	45.1	0
4	39	37.9	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.24** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 24

Table 1.24 shows that respectively 45% and 38% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always disregarded physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability. The remaining 17% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 25**

**Do you take responsibility for helping your organization meet legal (Equal Employment Opportunities/Affirmative Action) guidelines?**

STATEMENT 25			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	8	8.1	0
2	17	17.2	0
3	35	35.4	0
4	39	39.4	0
0	4	MISSING	4
TOTALS	103	100.0	4

**TABLE 1.25** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 25

Table 1.25 shows that respectively 39% and 35% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually took responsibility for helping their organization meet legal (EEO/AA) guidelines. The remaining 25% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Four respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 26**

**Do you follow and reinforce organizational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violate those policies?**

STATEMENT 26			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	6.9	0
2	11	10.8	0
3	50	49.0	0
4	34	33.3	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.26** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 26

Table 1.26 shows that respectively 49% and 33% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always followed and reinforced organizational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violated those policies. The remaining 18% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 27**

**Do you consider protected-class members, including women, for all opportunities and positions you have influence over?**

STATEMENT 27			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	3.0	0
2	11	10.9	0
3	47	46.5	0
4	40	39.6	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

**TABLE 1.27** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 27

Table 1.27 shows that respectively 46% and 40% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always considered protected-class members, including women, for all opportunities and positions they have influence over. The remaining 14% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 28**

**Do you keep all others, including protected-class members, in the information loops, both formal and informal?**

STATEMENT 28			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	4	4.0	0
2	9	9.1	0
3	52	52.5	0
4	34	34.5	0
0	4	MISSING	4
TOTALS	103	100.0	4

**TABLE 1.28** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 28

Table 1.28 shows that respectively 53% and 34% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always kept all others, including protected-class members, in the information loops, both formal and informal. The remaining 13% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Four respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 29**

**Do you help provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow?**

STATEMENT 29			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	2.9	0
2	10	9.8	0
3	36	35.3	0
4	53	52.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.29** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 29

Table 1.29 shows that respectively 52% and 35% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually helped provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow. The remaining 13% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 30**

**Do you provide formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including protected-class members, so they can "learn the ropes"?**

STATEMENT 30			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	6.9	0
2	11	10.9	0
3	35	34.7	0
4	48	47.5	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

**TABLE 1.30** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 30

Table 1.30 shows that respectively 47% and 35% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually provided formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including protected-class members, so they could "learn the ropes". The remaining 18% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 31**

**Do you make the extra effort to help your organization retain protected-class employees?**

STATEMENT 31			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	12	12.5	0
2	19	19.8	0
3	46	47.9	0
4	19	19.8	0
0	7	MISSING	7
TOTALS	103	100.0	7

**TABLE 1.31** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 31

Table 1.31 shows that 68% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to help their organization retain protected-class employees. The remaining 32% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Seven respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 32**

**Do you reinforce (encourage) others for behaviours that support cultural diversity?**

STATEMENT 32			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	17	17.2	0
2	20	20.2	0
3	48	48.5	0
4	14	14.1	0
0	4	MISSING	4
TOTALS	103	100.0	4

**TABLE 1.32** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 32

Table 1.32 shows that 62% of the respondents stated that they reinforced (encouraged) others for behaviours that support cultural diversity. The remaining 38% of respondents stated that they never did. Four respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 33**

**Do you confront organizational policies and producers that lead to the exclusion of anyone?**

STATEMENT 33			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	19	18.6	0
2	20	19.6	0
3	41	40.2	0
4	22	21.6	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.33** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 33

Table 1.33 shows that 61% of the respondents stated that they confronted organizational policies and producers that led to the exclusion of anyone. The remaining 39% of respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 34**

**Do you do all you can to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers are respected and valued?**

STATEMENT 34			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	2.0	0
2	4	4.0	0
3	35	34.7	0
4	60	59.4	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

**TABLE 1.34** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 34

Table 1.34 shows that respectively 59% and 35% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually did all they could to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers are respected and valued. The remaining 6% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 35**

**Do you make extra effort to educate yourself about other cultures?**

STATEMENT 35			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	6	6.0	0
2	24	24.0	0
3	43	43.0	0
4	27	27.0	0
0	3	MISSING	3
TOTALS	103	100.0	3

**TABLE 1.35** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 35

Table 1.35 shows that 70% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to educate themselves about other cultures. The remaining 30% of respondents stated that they never did. Three respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 36**

**Do you call, write, or in some way protest when a book, newspaper, television show, or some branch of media perpetuates or reinforces a bias or prejudice?**

STATEMENT 36			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	37	36.3	0
2	36	25.3	0
3	14	13.7	0
4	15	14.7	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	103	100.0	1

**TABLE 1.36** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 36

Table 1.36 shows that respectively 36% and 35% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom called, wrote, or in some way protested when a book, newspaper, television show, or some branch of media perpetuated or reinforced bias or prejudice. The remaining 29% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 37**

**Do you refuse to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allow or reinforce values or practices that are racist, biased, or prejudiced?**

STATEMENT 37			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	15	14.9	0
2	9	8.9	0
3	27	26.7	0
4	50	49.5	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	103	100.0	2

**TABLE 1.37** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 37

Table 1.37 shows that 76% of the respondents stated that they refused to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allowed or reinforced values or practices that were racist, biased, or prejudiced. The remaining 24% of respondents stated they almost never or seldom did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 38**

**Do you participate in volunteer or community activities that are change-agent efforts?**

STATEMENT 38			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	20	20.8	0
2	35	36.5	0
3	28	29.2	0
4	13	13.5	0
0	7	MISSING	7
TOTALS	103	100.0	7

**TABLE 1.38** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 38

Table 1.38 shows that 57% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never participated in volunteer or community activities that are change-agent efforts. The remaining 43% of respondent stated that they usually or always did.



**Statement 39**

Do you make an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds?

STATEMENT 39			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	8	8.0	0
2	29	29.0	0
3	44	44.0	0
4	19	19.0	0
0	3	MISSING	3
TOTALS	103	100.0	3

TABLE 1.39 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 39

Table 1.39 shows that 63% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds. The remaining 37% of respondents stated that they never did. Three respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 40**

Do you say, "*I think that's inappropriate*", when you think something indicated prejudice?

STATEMENT 40			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	3.0	0
2	27	27.3	0
3	46	46.5	0
4	23	23.2	0
0	4	MISSING	4
TOTALS	103	100.0	4

TABLE 1.40 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 40

Table 1.40 shows that 70% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always said "*I think that's inappropriate*", when they thought something indicated prejudice. The remaining 30% of respondents stated they never did. Four respondents did not answer this statement.

## 2. DEPENDENT VARIABLES (NELSON MANDELA METROPOLE)

### Statement 1

Do you challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexually comments?

STATEMENT 1			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	13	22.8	0
2	10	17.5	0
3	23	40.4	0
4	11	19.3	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

TABLE 2.1 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 1

Table 2.1 shows that 60% of the respondents stated that they challenged others on derogatory racial/ ethnic/sexual comments. The remaining 40% of respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

### Statement 2

Do you speak up when someone is humiliating another person or acting inappropriately?

STATEMENT 2			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.7	0
2	4	6.9	0
3	27	46.6	0
4	26	44.8	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

TABLE 2.245 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 2

Table 2.2 shows that respectively 47% and 45% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always spoke up when someone was humiliating another person or acting inappropriately. The remaining 8% of respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 3**

**Do you think about the impact of your comments and actions before you speak or act?**

STATEMENT 3			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	2	3.4	0
3	35	60.3	0
4	21	36.2	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.3** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 3

Table 2.3 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they thought about the impact of their comments and actions before they spoke or acted. The remaining 4% of respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 4**

**Do you refuse to participate in jokes that are derogatory to any group, or bias?**

STATEMENT 4			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	12.3	0
2	17	29.8	0
3	17	29.8	0
4	16	28.1	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.4** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 4

Table 2.4 shows that 57% of the respondents stated that they refused to participate in jokes that were derogatory and/or bias to any group. The remaining 43% of respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 5**

**Do you refrain from repeating statements or rumours that reinforce prejudice or bias?**

STATEMENT 5			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.2	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	19	32.8	0
4	36	62.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.5** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 5

Table 2.5 shows that 95% of the respondents stated that they refrained from repeating statements or rumours that reinforced prejudice or bias. The remaining 5% of respondents stated that they almost never did.

**Statement 6**

**Do you check out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone?**

STATEMENT 6			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	26	44.8	0
4	32	55.2	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.6** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 6

Table 5.49 shows that all of the respondents stated that they checked out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone.

**Statement 7**

**Do you recognize and challenge the biases that affect your own thinking?**

STATEMENT 7			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	32	55.1	0
4	24	42.9	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	58	100.0	2

**TABLE 2.7** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 7

Table 2.7 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they recognized and challenged the biases that affected their own thinking. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 8**

**Do you avoid using language that reinforces negative stereotypes?**

STATEMENT 8			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.7	0
2	6	10.3	0
3	29	50.0	0
4	22	37.9	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.8** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 8

Table 2.8 shows that 89% of the respondents stated that they made an effort to avoid using language that reinforced negative stereotypes. The remaining 11% of respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 9**

**Do you assume and convey the message that protected-class members are as skilled and competent as others?**

STATEMENT 9			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	11	19.0	0
3	21	36.2	0
4	26	44.8	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.9** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 9

Table 2.9 shows that 81% of the respondents stated that they assumed and conveyed the message that protected-class members were as skilled and competent as others. The remaining 19% of respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 10**

**Do you get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals?**

STATEMENT 10			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.5	0
2	14	24.6	0
3	23	40.4	0
4	18	31.6	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.10** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 10

Table 2.10 shows that 71% of the respondents stated that they got to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals. The remaining 27% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 11**

**Do you realize members of other cultures have a need to socialize with and reinforce one another and connect as a group?**

STATEMENT 11			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	3	5.2	0
3	25	43.1	0
4	28	48.3	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

TABLE 2.11 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 11

Table 2.11 shows that respectively 48% and 43% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually realized that members of other cultures have a need to socialize with and reinforce one another and connect as a group. Respectively 5% and 3% of the remaining respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 12**

**Do you accept and reinforce the fact that not everyone has to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to your organization?**

STATEMENT 12			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	1	1.7	0
3	25	43.1	0
4	30	51.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

TABLE 2.12 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 12

Table 2.12 shows that 95% of the respondents stated that they accepted and reinforced the fact that not everyone had to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to their organization. The remaining 5% of respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did.

**Statement 13**

**Do you take responsibility for helping new people in your organization, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes, to feel welcome and accepted?**

STATEMENT 13			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	1	1.7	0
3	14	24.1	0
4	43	74.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.13** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 13

Table 2.13 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they took responsibility for helping new people in their organization, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes, to feel welcome and accepted.

**Statement 14**

**Do you include protected-class members, including women, in informal networks and/or social events?**

STATEMENT 14			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	2	3.4	0
3	21	36.2	0
4	33	56.9	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.14** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 14

Table 2.14 shows that respectively 57% and 36% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually included protected-class members, including women, in informal networks and/or social events. The remaining 7% of respondents stated that they never did.



**Statement 15**

Do you learn about and appreciate the richness of other cultures and respect their holidays and events?

STATEMENT 15			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	11	19.0	0
3	35	60.3	0
4	12	20.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.15** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 15

Table 2.15 shows that 81% of the respondents stated that they learned about and appreciated the richness of other cultures and respected their holidays and events. The remaining 19% of respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 16**

Do you ask for and plan social events in which all people are able to participate?

STATEMENT 16			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	12.1	0
2	19	32.8	0
3	14	24.1	0
4	18	31.0	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.16** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 16

Table 2.16 shows that 55% of the respondents stated that they asked for and planned social events in which all people were able to participate. The remaining 45% of respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 17**

**Do you encourage protected-class members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treat those issues as valid?**

STATEMENT 17			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	6	10.3	0
3	25	43.1	0
4	25	43.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.17** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 17

Table 2.17 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they encouraged protected-class members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treated those issues as valid. The remaining 14% of respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 18**

**Do you encourage protected-class members, including women, to take risks?**

STATEMENT 18			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	7	12.3	0
2	19	33.3	0
3	19	33.3	0
4	12	21.1	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.18** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 18

Table 2.18 shows that 54% of the respondents stated that they encouraged protected-class members, including women, to take risks. The remaining 46% of respondents stated they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 19**

**Do you listen to the ideas of protected-class members and give them credit, both one-on-one and in group meetings?**

STATEMENT 19			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.8	0
2	1	1.8	0
3	22	38.6	0
4	33	57.9	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.19** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 19

Table 2.19 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they listened to the ideas of protected-class members and gave them credit, both one-on-one and in group meetings. The remaining 4% of respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 20**

**Do you include protected-class members in decision-making processes that affect them?**

STATEMENT 20			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	2	3.4	0
3	20	34.5	0
4	34	58.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.20** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 20

Table 2.20 shows that 93% of the respondents stated that they included protected-class members in decision-making processes that affected them. The remaining 7% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 21**

**Do you empower protected-class members by handing over responsibility to them as often as you do to others?**

STATEMENT 21			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	3	5.3	0
3	23	40.4	0
4	31	54.4	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

TABLE 2.21 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 21

Table 2.21 shows that 94% of the respondents stated that they empowered protected-class members by handing over responsibility to them as often as they did to others. The remaining five per cent of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 22**

**Do you provide straightforward and timely feedback to protected-class members, including women?**

STATEMENT 22			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.8	0
2	3	5.3	0
3	24	42.1	0
4	29	50.9	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

TABLE 2.22 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 22

Table 2.22 shows that 93% of the respondents stated that they provided straightforward and timely feedback to protected-class members, including women. The remaining 7% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 23**

**Do you share the written and unwritten rules of your organization with those from different cultures?**

STATEMENT 23			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.7	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	18	31.0	0
4	39	67.2	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.23** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 23

Table 2.23 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they shared the written and unwritten rules of their organization with those from different cultures. The remaining 2% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 24**

**Do you disregard physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability?**

STATEMENT 24			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.5	0
2	2	3.5	0
3	16	28.1	0
4	37	64.9	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.24** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 24

Table 5.67 shows that 93% of the respondents stated that they disregarded physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability. The remaining 7% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 25**

**Do you take responsibility for helping your organization meet legal (Equal Employment Opportunities/Affirmative Action) guidelines?**

STATEMENT 25			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.5	0
2	4	7.0	0
3	19	33.3	0
4	32	56.1	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.25** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 25

Table 2.25 shows that respectively 56% and 33% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually took responsibility for helping their organization meet legal (\*EEO/AA) guidelines. The remaining 11% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 26**

**Do you follow and reinforce organizational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violate those policies?**

STATEMENT 26			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.7	0
2	7	12.1	0
3	20	34.5	0
4	30	51.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.26** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 26

Table 2.26 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they followed and reinforced organizational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violated those policies. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 27**

**Do you consider protected-class members, including women, for all opportunities and positions you have influence over?**

STATEMENT 27			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	3	5.2	0
3	14	24.1	0
4	41	70.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.27** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 27

Table 2.27 shows that 94% of the respondents stated that they considered protected-class members, including women, for all opportunities and positions they have influence over. Five percent of respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 28**

**Do you keep all others, including protected-class members, in the information loops, both formal and informal?**

STATEMENT 28			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	1	1.7	0
3	26	44.8	0
4	31	53.4	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.28** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 28

Table 2.28 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they kept all others, including protected-class members, in the information loops, both formal and informal. The remaining 2% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 29**

Do you help provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow?

STATEMENT 29			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	1	1.7	0
3	19	32.8	0
4	38	65.5	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

TABLE 2.29 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 29

Table 2.29 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they helped provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow. The remaining 2% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 30**

Do you provide formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including protected-class members, so they can "learn the ropes"?

STATEMENT 30			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	1	1.7	0
3	22	37.9	0
4	35	60.3	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

TABLE 2.30 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 30

Table 2.30 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they provided formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including protected-class members, so they could "learn the ropes". The remaining 2% of the respondents stated that they never did.



**Statement 31**

**Do you make an extra effort to help your organization retain protected-class employees?**

STATEMENT 31			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	5	8.8	0
2	13	22.8	0
3	21	36.8	0
4	18	31.6	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.31** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 31

Table 2.31 shows that 68% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to help their organization retain protected-class employees. The remaining 32% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 32**

**Do you reinforce (encourage) others for behaviours that support cultural diversity?**

STATEMENT 32			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.6	0
2	10	18.5	0
3	32	59.3	0
4	9	16.7	0
0	4	MISSING	4
TOTALS	58	100.0	4

**TABLE 2.32** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 32

Table 2.32 shows that 67% of the respondents stated that they reinforced (encouraged) others for behaviours that support cultural diversity. The remaining 33% of the respondents stated that they never did. Four respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 33**

**Do you confront organizational policies and producers that lead to the exclusion of anyone?**

STATEMENT 33			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	11	19.0	0
3	30	51.7	0
4	15	25.9	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.33** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 33

Table 2.33 shows that 77% of the respondents stated that they confronted organizational policies and producers that led to the exclusion of anyone. The remaining 23% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 34**

**Do you do all you can to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers are respected and valued?**

STATEMENT 34			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	10	17.2	0
4	48	82.8	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.34** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 34

Table 2.34 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they did all they could to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers were respected and valued.

**Statement 35****Do you make an extra effort to educate yourself about other cultures?**

STATEMENT 35			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	1.8	0
2	13	22.8	0
3	30	52.6	0
4	13	22.8	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.35** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 35

Table 2.35 shows that 75% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to educate themselves about other cultures. The remaining 25% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 36****Do you call, write, or in some way protest when a book, newspaper, television show, or some branch of media perpetuates or reinforces a bias or prejudice?**

STATEMENT 36			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	21	36.2	0
2	21	36.2	0
3	11	19.0	0
4	5	8.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.36** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 36

Table 2.36 shows that 73% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom called, wrote, or in some way protested when a book, newspaper, television show, or some branch of media perpetuated or reinforced a bias or prejudice. The remaining 27% of the respondents stated that they did.

**Statement 37**

**Do you refuse to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allow or reinforce values or practices that are racist, biased, or prejudiced?**

STATEMENT 37			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	6	10.5	0
2	5	8.8	0
3	13	22.8	0
4	33	57.9	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.37** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 37

Table 2.37 shows that 80% of the respondents stated that they refused to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allowed or reinforced values or practices that were racist, biased, or prejudiced. The remaining 20% of the respondents stated that they did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 38**

**Do you participate in volunteer or community activities that are change-agent efforts?**

STATEMENT 38			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	20	34.5	0
2	14	24.1	0
3	17	29.3	0
4	7	12.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.38** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 38

Table 2.38 shows that 59% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom participated in volunteer or community activities that are change-agent efforts. The remaining 41% of the respondents stated that they did.

**Statement 39**

**Do you make an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds?**

STATEMENT 39			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.3	0
2	18	31.6	0
3	25	43.9	0
4	11	19.3	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	58	100.0	1

**TABLE 2.39** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 39

Table 2.39 shows that 63% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds. The remaining 37% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 40**

**Do you say, "I think that's inappropriate", when you think something indicated prejudice?**

STATEMENT 40			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.4	0
2	6	10.3	0
3	34	58.6	0
4	16	27.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	58	100.0	0

**TABLE 2.40** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 40

Table 2.40 shows that 85% of the respondents stated that they say, "I think that's inappropriate", when they thought something indicated prejudice. The remaining 15% of the respondents stated that they never did.

### 3. DEPENDENT VARIABLES (Port Elizabeth Police Service)

#### Statement 1

Do you challenge others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexually comments?

STATEMENT 1			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	16	31.4	0
2	9	17.6	0
3	16	31.4	0
4	10	19.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

TABLE 3.1 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 1

Table 3.1 shows that 51% of the respondents stated that they challenged others on derogatory racial/ethnic/sexual comments. The remaining 49% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did.

#### Statement 2

Do you speak up when someone is humiliating another person or acting inappropriately?

STATEMENT 2			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	3	5.9	0
3	28	54.9	0
4	19	37.3	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

TABLE 3.2 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 2

Table 3.2 shows that 92% of the respondents stated that they spoke up when someone was humiliating another person or acting inappropriately. The remaining 8% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 3**

**Do you think about the impact of your comments and actions before your speak or act?**

STATEMENT 3			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	2	3.9	0
3	24	47.1	0
4	25	49.0	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.3** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 3

Table 3.3 shows that 97% of the respondents stated that they thought about the impact of their comments and actions before they spoke or acted. The remaining 3% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 4**

**Do you refuse to participate in jokes that are derogatory to any group, or bias?**

STATEMENT 4			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.9	0
2	4	7.8	0
3	29	56.9	0
4	15	29.4	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.4** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 4

Table 3.4 shows that 87% of the respondents stated that they refused to participate in jokes that were derogatory and/or bias to any group. The remaining 13% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 5**

**Do you refrain from repeating statements or rumours that reinforce prejudice or bias?**

STATEMENT 5			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	4	7.8	0
3	20	39.2	0
4	26	51.0	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.5** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 5

Table 3.5 shows that 90% of the respondents stated that they refrained from repeating statements or rumours that reinforced prejudice or bias. The remaining 10% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 6**

**Do you check out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone?**

STATEMENT 6			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	2	3.9	0
3	20	39.2	0
4	29	56.9	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.6** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 6

Table 3.6 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they checked out reality before repeating or believing rumours or assumptions about anyone. The remaining 4% of the respondents stated that they never did.



**Statement 7****Do you recognise and challenge the biases that affect your own thinking?**

STATEMENT 7			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	2	3.9	0
3	28	54.9	0
4	21	41.2	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.7** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 7

Table 3.7 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they recognised and challenged the biases that affected their own thinking. The remaining 4% of the respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 8****Do you avoid using language that reinforces negative stereotypes?**

STATEMENT 8			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	19	37.3	0
4	32	62.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.8** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 8

Table 3.8 shows that respectively 62% and 37% of the respondents stated that they avoided using language that reinforced negative stereotypes.

**Statement 9**

**Do you assume and convey the message that protected-class members are as skilled and competent as others?**

STATEMENT 9			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	7	13.7	0
3	32	62.7	0
4	12	23.5	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.9** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 9

Table 3.9 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they assumed and conveyed the message that protected-class members were as skilled and as competent as others. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 10**

**Do you get to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals?**

STATEMENT 10			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	6	11.8	0
3	25	49.0	0
4	19	37.3	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.10** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 10

Table 3.10 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they got to know people from different cultures and groups as individuals. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 11**

**Do you realize members of other cultures have a need to socialize with and reinforce one another and connect as a group?**

STATEMENT 11			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	1	2.0	0
3	25	49.0	0
4	24	47.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.11** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 11

Table 3.11 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they realized members of other cultures had a need to socialize with and reinforce one another and connect as a group. The remaining 4% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom did.

**Statement 12**

**Do you accept and reinforce the fact that not everyone has to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to your organisation?**

STATEMENT 12			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	18	35.3	0
4	33	64.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.12** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 12

Table 3.12 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they accepted and reinforced the fact that not everyone had to act or look a certain way to be successful in or valuable to their organisation.

**Statement 13**

**Do you take responsibility for helping new people in your organisation, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes, to feel welcome and accepted?**

STATEMENT 13			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	8	15.7	0
4	43	84.3	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.13** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 13

Table 3.13 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they took responsibility for helping new people in their organisation, including women and people of various cultures, ages, and sizes, to feel welcome and accepted.

**Statement 14**

**Do you include protected-class members, including women, in informal networks and/ or social events?**

STATEMENT 14			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	24	47.1	0
4	27	52.9	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.14** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 14

Table 3.14 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they included protected-class members, including women, in informal networks and or social events.

**Statement 15**

**Do you learn about and appreciate the richness of other cultures and respect their holidays and events?**

STATEMENT 15			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	4	7.8	0
3	24	47.1	0
4	22	43.1	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.15** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 15

Table 3.15 shows that 90% of the respondents stated that they learnt about and appreciated the richness of other cultures and respected their holidays and events. The remaining 10% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 16**

**Do you ask for and plan social events in which all people are able to participate?**

STATEMENT 16			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	4.0	0
2	7	14.0	0
3	21	42.0	0
4	20	40.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.16** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 16

Table 3.16 shows that 82% of the respondents stated that they asked for and planned social events in which all people were able to participate. The remaining 18% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 17**

**Do you encourage protected-class members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treat those issues as valid?**

STATEMENT 17			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	5	10.0	0
3	22	44.0	0
4	22	44.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.17** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 17

Table 3.17 shows that 88% of the respondents stated that they encouraged protected-class members to speak out on their issues and concerns and treated those issues as valid. The remaining 12% of the respondents stated they never did.

**Statement 18**

**Do you encourage protected-class members, including women, to take risks?**

STATEMENT 18			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	4	8.0	0
2	14	28.0	0
3	23	46.0	0
4	9	18.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.18** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 18

Table 5.101 shows that 64% of the respondents stated that they encouraged protected-class members, including women, to take risks. The remaining 36% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 19**

Do you listen to the ideas of protected-class members and give them credit, both one-on-one and in group meetings?

STATEMENT 19			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	17	34.0	0
4	33	66.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.19** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 19

Table 3.19 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they listened to the ideas of protected-class members and gave them credit, both one-on-one and in group meetings.

**Statement 20**

Do you include protected-class members in decision-making processes that affect them?

STATEMENT 20			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	17	34.0	0
4	33	66.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.20** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 20

Table 5.103 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they included protected-class members in decision-making processes that affected them.

**Statement 21**

**Do you empower protected-class members by handling over responsibility to them as often as you do to others?**

STATEMENT 21			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	1	2.0	0
3	26	52.0	0
4	22	44.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.21** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 21

Table 3.21 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they empowered protected-class members by handling over responsibility to them as often as they did to others. The remaining 4% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 22**

**Do you provide straightforward and timely feedback to protected-class members, including women?**

STATEMENT 22			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	2	4.0	0
3	21	42.0	0
4	27	54.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.22** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 22

Table 3.22 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they provided straightforward and timely feedback to protected-class members, including women. The remaining 4% of the respondents stated that they seldom did.



**Statement 23**

**Do you share the written and unwritten rules of your organisation with those from different cultures?**

STATEMENT 23			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	2	4.0	0
3	18	36.0	0
4	30	60.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.23** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 23

Table 3.23 shows that 96% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always shared the written and unwritten rules of their organisation with those from different cultures. The remaining 4% of the respondents stated that they seldom did.

**Statement 24**

**Do you disregard physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability?**

STATEMENT 24			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	4.1	0
2	4	8.2	0
3	23	46.9	0
4	20	40.8	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	51	100.0	2

**TABLE 3.24** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 24

Table 3.24 shows that 87% of the respondents stated that they disregarded physical characteristics when interacting with others and when making decisions about competence or ability. The remaining 13% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 25**

**Do you take responsibility for helping your organisation meet legal (Equal Employment Opportunities/Affirmative Action) guidelines?**

STATEMENT 25			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	4	8.0	0
3	19	38.0	0
4	26	52.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

TABLE 3.25 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 25

Table 3.25 shows that 90% of the respondents stated that they almost always or usually took responsibility for helping their organisation meet legal (EEO/AA) guidelines. The remaining 10% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 26**

**Do you follow and reinforce organisational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violate those policies?**

STATEMENT 26			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	23	46.9	0
4	26	53.1	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	51	100.0	2

TABLE 3.26 Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 26

Table 3.26 shows that a 100% of the respondents stated that they followed and reinforced organisational policies regarding equal treatment, including confronting others who violated those policies. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 27**

**Do you consider protected-class members, including women, for all opportunities and positions you have influence over?**

STATEMENT 27			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	1	2.0	0
3	17	34.7	0
4	31	63.3	0
0	2	MISSING	2
TOTALS	51	100.0	2

**TABLE 3.27** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 27

Table 3.27 shows that 98% of the respondents stated that they considered protected-class members, including women, for all opportunities and positions they had influence over. The remaining 2% of the respondents stated that they seldom did. Two respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 28**

**Do you keep all others, including protected-class members, in the information loops, both formal and informal?**

STATEMENT 28			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	25	52.1	0
4	23	47.9	0
0	3	MISSING	3
TOTALS	51	100.0	3

**TABLE 3.28** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 28

Table 3.28 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they kept all others, including protected-class members, in the information loops, both formal and informal. Three respondents did not answer this statement.

**Statement 29**

**Do you help provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow?**

STATEMENT 29			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	15	30.0	0
4	35	70.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.29** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 29

Table 3.29 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they helped provide all employees with ample training and education to succeed in their jobs and to grow. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 30**

**Do you provide formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including protected-class members, so they can learn the ropes?**

STATEMENT 30			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	17	34.0	0
4	33	66.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.30** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 30

Table 3.30 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they provided formal or informal mentoring to new employees, including protected-class members, so that they could learn the ropes. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 31**

**Do you make the extra effort to help your organisation retain protected-class employees?**

STATEMENT 31			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	1	2.0	0
2	6	12.0	0
3	27	54.0	0
4	16	32.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.31** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 31

Table 3.31 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to help their organisation retain protected-class employees. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they never did. One respondent did not answer this statement.

**Statement 32**

**Do you reinforce (encourage) others for behaviours that support cultural diversity?**

STATEMENT 32			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.9	0
2	5	9.8	0
3	34	66.7	0
4	9	17.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.32** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 32

Table 3.32 shows that 84% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always reinforced (encouraged) others for behaviours that supported cultural diversity. The remaining 16% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 33**

**Do you confront organisational policies and producers that lead to the exclusion of anyone?**

STATEMENT 33			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	3.9	0
2	5	9.8	0
3	29	56.9	0
4	15	29.4	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.33** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 33

Table 3.33 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they confronted organisational policies and producers that lead to the exclusion of anyone. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they never did.

**Statement 34**

**Do you do all you can to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers are respected and valued?**

STATEMENT 34			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	0	0.0	0
2	0	0.0	0
3	9	17.6	0
4	42	82.4	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.34** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 34

Table 5.117 shows that 100% of the respondents stated that they did all they could to help create a work environment in which all employees and customers were respected and valued.

**Statement 35****Do you make an extra effort to educate yourself about other cultures?**

STATEMENT 35			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.9	0
2	4	7.8	0
3	30	58.8	0
4	14	27.5	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.35** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 35

Table 3.35 shows that 86% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to educate themselves about other cultures. The remaining 14% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 36****Do you call, write, or in some way protest when a book, newspaper, television, or some branch of media perpetuates or reinforce a bias or prejudice?**

STATEMENT 36			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	8	15.7	0
2	27	52.9	0
3	10	19.6	0
4	6	11.8	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.36** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 36

Table 3.36 shows that 68% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never called, wrote, or in some way protested when a book, newspaper, television, or some branch of media perpetuated or reinforced a bias or prejudice. The remaining 32% of the respondents stated that they did.

**Statement 37**

**Do you refuse to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allow or reinforce values or practices that are racist, biased, or prejudiced?**

STATEMENT 37			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	4	7.8	0
2	1	2.0	0
3	14	27.5	0
4	32	62.7	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.37** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 37

Table 3.37 shows that 91% of the respondents stated that they refused to join or remain a member of associations or groups that allowed or reinforced values or practices that were racist, biased, or prejudiced. The remaining 9% of the respondents stated that they almost never or seldom refused.

**Statement 38**

**Do you participate in volunteer or community activities that are change agent efforts?**

STATEMENT 38			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	3	5.9	0
2	17	33.3	0
3	21	41.2	0
4	10	19.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.38** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 38

Table 3.38 shows that 61% of the respondents stated that they participated and volunteered for community activities that were change agent efforts. The remaining 39% of the respondents stated that they never did.



**Statement 39**

**Do you make an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds?**

STATEMENT 39			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	4	7.8	0
2	9	17.6	0
3	27	52.9	0
4	11	21.6	0
0	0	0.0	0
TOTALS	51	100.0	0

**TABLE 3.39** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 39

Table 3.39 shows that 74% of the respondents stated that they made an extra effort to get to know individuals from diverse backgrounds. The remaining 25% of the respondents stated that they seldom or almost never did.

**Statement 40**

**Do you say "I think that's inappropriate" when you think something indicated prejudice?**

STATEMENT 40			
VALUES	FREQUENCY	VALID PERCENT	MISSING CASES
1	2	4.0	0
2	6	12.0	0
3	29	58.0	0
4	13	26.0	0
0	1	MISSING	1
TOTALS	51	100.0	1

**TABLE 3.40** Frequency distribution, percentage and missing cases of statement 40

Table 3.40 shows that 84% of the respondents stated that they usually or almost always said "I think that's inappropriate" when they thought something indicated prejudice. The remaining 16% of the respondents stated they never did.

## **APPENDIX 1.9: A DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF THE DIFFERENT WAYS OF PROCESSING INFORMATION**

**SOME DIFFERENCES IN COGNITIVE CAPABILITY**

<b>DIMENSIONS</b>	<b>SPECTRUM OF COGNITIVE ABILITY</b>
Handling of complexity	Grasping the essence of arguments and forwarding constructive solutions as opposed to inability to understand the real issues, and contributing little other than nit-picking and introducing irrelevant issues.
Conceptual thinking	Thinking at a conceptual level and in generic terms as opposed to discomfort with vagueness and preference for explicit details.
Creativeness	Making cognitive leaps from the current reality thereby creating new ideas, hypotheses and paradigms as opposed to inability to see new ways and preference for maintaining the status quo.
System thinking	Seeing issues and entities in their wider context, and identifying relationships and implications as opposed to failure to see beyond the most direct and obvious relationships, missing the contextual implications.
Operational orientation	Grasping operational implications of decisions and ideas as opposed to disregard for operational issues and practical difficulties.
Operating horizon	Seeking long-term advantage and strategic alignment as opposed to short-term focus seeking immediate gain.
Computation	Quantitative orientation preferring information in computational form as opposed to preference for soft information and discussion.
Tolerance for ambiguity	Need for clarity and detail as opposed to comfort with vagueness and uncertainty.
Receptiveness	Responding to the ideas and opinions of others, integrating those views with his or her own to form new insights as opposed to stubborn disregard of the views of others.

### SOME DIFFERENCES IN SKILLS

SKILL	SPECTRUM OF SKILL
Technical task-related	Comfortable with the technicalities of the subject matter as opposed to unable to make a meaningful contribution due to technical incompetence.
Interpersonal	Challenges the opinions of other individuals without offending as opposed to inability to criticize without losing the co-operation of fellow participants.
Persuasive	Makes opinions and ideas understandable to others and is skilled in convincing others that his or her opinion is the preferred option as opposed to inability to impress ideas and opinions on others.
Facilitative	Handles discussions in such a way that people interact positively even in conflict situations as opposed to disrupts constructive discussions through his or her behavior and opinions.

### SOME DIFFERENCES IN KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES	SPECTRUM OF KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE
Knowledge and experience regarding the specific subject or function	Familiarity with intricacies and specifics of subject or function as opposed to ignorance regarding the subject matter, and the issues involved.
Experience in working collaboratively	Extent to which the individual is experienced in working jointly with others and building consensus as opposed to limited exposure to group work and collaborative exercises.
Experience in intra and inter organizational politics	Extent to which the individual is experienced in organizational behavior as opposed to lack of awareness of the impact of organizational power blocks and informal associations.

### KOLBE'S INSTINCTIVE RESPONSE STYLES

<b>RESPONSE STYLE</b>	<b>CHARACTERISTICS OF THOSE WHO INSTINCTIVELY POSSESS THE RESPONSE STYLE</b>
Quick start	Spontaneous, intuitive, fluent with ideas, deadline and crisis orientated. Likes challenges and taking risks.
Implementor	Hands-on and task orientated, preferring tangible things. Has a strong sense of form and substance.
Fact finder	Precise, logical, thorough and objective. Likes dealing with detail and complexity.
Follow through	Methodical, systematic, focused and structured. Seeks order and efficiency, and prefers predictability. Meticulous planners and designers.

### SOME DIFFERENCES IN DISPOSITION

<b>DISPOSITION</b>	<b>CHARACTERISTICS OF THOSE WHO ARE HIGH VERSUS THOSE WHO ARE LOW RELATING TO THE DISPOSITION</b>
Dogmatism	Preference to use own reasoning ability to decipher beliefs and opinions as opposed to dependence on experience.
Risk-taking	Willingness to take risks as opposed to a careful and risk-avers attitude to life.
Locus of control	Events perceived by the individual as being controlled by his or her own actions and internal processes as opposed to belief in luck, destiny or forces that control life.
Internal/External orientation	Concern with external physical and social environment as opposed to concern with own feelings and thoughts.

### SOME DIFFERENCES IN CULTURE

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES	EXPLANATION
Ethnicity	The ethnic group to which the person belongs, and the extent to which this influences his or her viewpoints and interactions with people from other ethnic groups.
Religion	The moral and religious convictions of the person and how it influences his or her world view and interactions with people who do not share their convictions.
Language	The preferred language of communication used by the person and his or her ability to express viewpoints clearly.
Political orientation	The political viewpoints of the person and the extent to which it influences his or her interactions with others.

### SOME DIFFERENCES IN PERSONALITY

DIMENSION	CHARACTERISTICS OF THOSE WHO ARE HIGH VERSUS THOSE WHO ARE LOW ON THE PARTICULAR DIMENSION
Extraversion	Talkative, frank, adventurous and sociable as opposed to silent, secretive, cautious and reclusive.
Agreeableness	Good-natured, gentle and co-operative as opposed to irritable, jealous, headstrong and negativistic.
Conscientiousness	Fussy, responsible and persevering as opposed to careless, undependable, unscrupulous and willing to quit.
Emotional stability	Poised, calm and composed as opposed to nervous, anxious and excitable.
Ethics	Maintains high moral ground, honest and above board in all situations as opposed to willingness to cut corners, distort information and bend rules to suit his or her arguments or personal situation.

### INFORMATION PROCESSING COMPETENCY

<b>COMPETENCY</b>	<b>DESCRIPTION OF COMPETENCY</b>
Exploration	Ability to do a purposeful search of the available facts, and form an accurate and unbiased opinion.
Linking	Ability to analyse information systematically and link related chunks of information.
Structuring	Ability to order, categorise, mentally represent and integrate information to make it useful and meaningful.
Logical reasoning	Ability to discover logical patterns in information and converge to an opinion.
Lateral creation	Ability to come up with new and extraordinary ideas.
Memory	Ability to store and retrieve information.

**APPENDIX 1.10: A COMPARISON  
OF THE DIFFERENT  
MANAGEMENT SYNDROMES  
AFFECTING THE  
ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF  
DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE**



**APPENDIX 1.10 (A): A COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SYNDROMES EFFECTING THE  
ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE (FLAMHOLT & RANLE: 1987:5, 23-170)**

<b>DOER SYNDROME</b>	<b>PYGMY SYNDROME</b>	<b>SUPERPERSON SYNDROME</b>	<b>UGLY DUCKLING SYNDROME</b>
Individual managers who think and act more like technicians or functional specialist than true managers.	Feel threatened by talented subordinates.	Suffers of symptoms of always having to be the best and of being a failure.	Suffers from a feeling of worthlessness.
Base their self-esteem on their own performance rather than on the performance of their staff.	Surrounds themselves with weak people to create the feeling of being giants among pygmies.	Do not recognize the potential and good qualities of their subordinates.	Likes challenging tasks because they offer a high risk of failure.
Evaluate their own performance in terms of their ability as doers than as managers.	Feel inadequate with themselves.	Constantly have to prove themselves.	Believe they reach their current management position through pure luck.
Believe the only way to stay the best is to focus on yourself only.	Inadequacy is kept under control as long as they perceive themselves to be the best.	Have a variety of personal and interpersonal problems.	Depend on their subordinates to assist them in making decisions.
Compete with subordinates for being the best.	Compete with subordinates.	Compete with subordinates to protect their self-esteem.	Perceive others to be at least as skilful as they are.
Feel frustrated with subordinates who possess greater expertise.	Eliminate competent subordinates through humiliations or by firing them.	Perceive everybody with more potential as a threat.	
Unable to handle control.	Use their position of power as a buffer to scare subordinates.	Act more as performers of tasks than as managers.	

**APPENDIX 1.10 (B): A COMPARISON OF THE DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SYNDROMES EFFECTING THE  
ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE (FLAMHOLT & RANLE: 1987:5, 23-170)**

<b>NAPOLEON SYNDROME</b>	<b>JEKYLL AND HYDE SYNDROME</b>	<b>HAMLET SYNDROME</b>	<b>GODFATHER SYNDROME</b>
Suffers from an inferiority complex and has low self-esteem and a high need for control.	Suffers from a split role syndrome and has both pleasant and tyrannically personalities.	Represents individuals who do not know how to make decisions effectively and efficiently and decision-making represents a threat to both their self-esteem and need to be liked.	Believe themselves to be unworthy with weaknesses which could be exploited by people and has power to reward or punish people.
Feels weak and inadequate when compared with other people.	Has a high need for acceptance, control and self-esteem.	Have an intense fear of making wrong decisions.	By hiring and controlling people they think they are significant.
Feelings of inadequacy are based on real or imagined shortcomings.	Believes that when you exercise control friendliness is not needed.	<p>Consist of three variations:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Information seeker</li> <li>• Buck passer</li> <li>• Agoniser</li> </ul> <p><i>Information seeker</i> believes you can only make decisions when you have enough information.</p> <p><i>Buck passer</i> denies their decision-making responsibilities.</p> <p><i>Agoniser</i> has an intense fear of not having enough information but doing nothing about it.</p>	Surround themselves with weak people who are dependant on them.
Surround themselves with weak people to increase their sense of self worth and control.	Individual managers suffering from this syndrome realize that they have a problem.		Subordinates must show loyalty and respect for his power.
	Make sure superiors don't see their bad behavioural side.		<p>Consist of two variations:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Malevolent Godfather</li> <li>• Caretaker Godfather</li> </ul> <p><i>Malevolent Godfather</i> believes everybody is worthless. Likes to put people against each other. Have deep rooted anger.</p> <p><i>Caretaker Godfather</i> plays a more benign role and does not want to humiliate people. Feels betrayed if people are not loyal to him.</p>

## REFERENCES

### MATERIAL CONSULTED AS REFERENCES IN THE STUDY

- Adey, A.D. 1990. *Getting it right: the manager's guide to business communication*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Anderson, J.A. 1993. Thinking about diversity. *Training and Development*: 59-60, April.
- Baron, R.A. 1983. *Behaviour in organisations: understanding and managing the human side of work*. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bayat, M.S. & Meyer, I.H. 1994. *Public administration: concepts, theory and practice*. Pretoria: Southern Book Publishers.
- Behrens, R. 1993. *Managing diversity*. South African Development Unit, Eskom. Public Administration Workshop, 28 June – 3 July, 1993.
- Behrens, S.J. 1990. Cross-cultural communication in the reference encounter: a South African perspective. *South African Journal of Library and Information Science*, 58(1):87-96.
- Bennet, J.M. 1992. Modes of cross-cultural training: conceptualising cross-cultural training as education. *Intercultural Relations*, 10(2):145, 180-185.
- Berry, J.W. 1992. *Cross-cultural psychology: research and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Berthelot, D. 1994. Dancing around diversity. *Training and Development*: 7, November.
- Blumrosen, T. s.a. *Elements of an affirmative action statute concerning employment and contracting some suggestions*. Rutgers, State University of New Jersey. Fulbright Scholar visiting University of Stellenbosch Business School.
- Botes, P. 1994. *Aspects of supervision: a guide for the contemporary public manager*. Pretoria: Southern Book Publishers.
- Bowmaker-Falconer, A. 1993. Bumpy journey to employment equity. *Die Suid Afrikaan*: 12-14, May/June.
- Bozeman, B. (ed.). 1993. *Public management: the state of the art*. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey Bass.
- Bozeman, B. & Straussman, J.D. 1990. *Public management strategies: guidelines for managerial effectiveness*. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass.
- British Civil Service College catalogue*. 1993-1994. London: HMSO.

- Brock, J. 1984. *Managing people in public agencies*. University Press of America.
- Brown, K. & Sussman, L. 1995. Phong Sui-Ming vs Burgers-R Us: cultural diversity or cultural discrimination? *Business Horizons*: 51-58, March/April.
- ↳ Brynard, P.A. & Hanekom, S.X. 1997. *Introduction to research in public administration and related disciplines*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Butler, K. 1993. Toward a bias-free workplace. *Training and Development*: 47-49, November.
- Caffarella, R.S. 1995. *Programme development and evaluation resource book for trainers*. New York: John Wiley.
- Canada. Public Service Commission and Treasury Board. 1989. *Profile of the public service manager*. [Training policy pamphlet].
- \* Carnevale, P. & Stone, C. 1994. Diversity beyond the golden rule. *Training and Development*: 29-33, October.
- Carrel, M.R. 1995. *Human resource management: global strategies for managing a diverse workforce*. London: Prentice-Hall.
- Casse, P. 1981. *Training for the cross-cultural mind: a handbook for cross-cultural trainers and consultants*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. s.l.: s.n.
- Castelli, J. 1990. Education forms common bond: diversity in the workplace. *HR Magazine*: 46-49, June.
- Caudron, S. 1990. Monsanto responds to diversity. *Personnel Journal*: 72-78, November.
- Caudron, S. 1992. US West finds strength in diversity. *Personnel Journal*: 40-44, March.
- Caudron, S. 1994. Diversity ignites effective work teams. *Personnel Journal*: 56, September.
- Chapman, E.N. 1996. *Your attitude is showing: a primer of human relations*. 8<sup>th</sup> ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Charoux, E. 1990. *Coaching and the black manager*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Chase, G. & Reveal, E.C. 1983. *How to manage in the public sector*. New York: Random House.
- Chen, C. 1992. The diversity paradox. *Personnel Journal*: 32, January.
- Chinoy, E. 1964. *Society: an introduction to sociology*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Random House.

- Clarke, C. 1994. Making diversity more manageable. *Training and Development*: 53-59, September.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1986. *Introduction to public communication*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1994. *Public administration and management*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Commission on Higher Education Reports*. 2000. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- Compendium of Training, 1993. Department of Manpower. Pretoria.
- Copeland, L. 1988a. Making the most of cultural differences at the workplace. Part 1. *Personnel*: 56, June.
- Copeland, L. 1988b. Valuing diversity. Part 2: Pioneers and champions of change. *Personnel*: 53-54, July.
- Council for Scientific and Industrial Research. National Institute for Personnel Research. 1979. *Determinants of the progress of black workers in the work situation: an exploratory study of a theoretical model*. Pretoria: CSIR.
- Covey, S.R., Merrill, A.R. & Merrill, R.R. 1995. *First things first: to live, to love, to learn, to leave a legacy*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Covey, S.R. 1989. *The seven habits of highly effective people: restoring the character ethic*. London: Simon & Schuster.
- Covey, S.R., 1997. *The seven habits of highly effective families*. New York. Golden Books.
- Cox, T.H. 1991. Managing cultural diversity: implications for organisational competitiveness. *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(3):45-56.
- Crane, D.P. & Jones, W.A. 1985. *The public manager's guide*. Bureau of National Affairs.
- Cronje, J. (ed.). 1993. *Introduction to business management*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Pretoria: Southern Book Publishers.
- Craythorne, D.L. 1997. *Municipal administration: a handbook*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Cape Town: Juta.
- Daniel, R. 1993. Managing diversity and the bottom line. *Human Resource Management*, 8(10).
- Davis, L.E. & Proctor, E.K. 1989. *Race, gender and class: guidelines for practice with individuals, families and groups*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

- De Beer, H. 1998. *Development paradigms: from paternalism to managing diversity*. Randburg: Knowledge Resources.
- De Beer, J. & Lourens, L. 1995. *Local government: the road to democracy*. Midrand: Educum.
- De Vito, J.A. 1988. *Human communication: the basic course*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Dovido, J. 1993. *The subtlety of racism*. Training and development, April, pp 51-57.
- Dorais, L.E. 1994. Management of cultural diversity and the public service. *Optimum*, 24:49, Spring.
- Du Preez, H. 1989. *Rondom interkulturele kommunikasie in Suid-Afrika*. Pretoria: Uniboek.
- Ecole Nationale D'Administration. 1995. *Entry into the public service and training of public servants*. Paris: Ecole Nationale D'Administration. [Pamphlet].
- Employment Equity Act: See *South Africa Employment Equity Act*.
- Fernandez, J.P. 1991. *Managing a diverse workforce: regaining the competitive edge*. Toronto: Lexington Books.
- Ferreira, I.W. 1996. *A normative model for managing orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Durban-Westville, Durban.
- Fine, M.G., Johnson, F.L. & Ryan, M.S. 1990. Cultural diversity in the workplace. *Public Personnel Management*, 19(3):305-319.
- Flamholtz, E.G. & Randle, Y. 1987. *The inner game of management: how to make the transition to a managerial role*. New York: Amacom.
- Flynn, G. 1995. Do you have the right approach to diversity? *Personnel Journal*, October. Pp68-75.
- Foster, J.U.J. 1992. *Starting SPSS/PC+: a beginner's guide to data analysis*. New York: Sigma.
- Fox, W. & Meyer, I. 1995. *Public administration dictionary*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Fox, W., Schwella, E. & Wissink, H. 1991. *Public management*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Fredman, S., Nell, M. & Randall, P. 1983. *The narrow margin: how black and white South Africans view change*. Cape Town: David Philip.
- ✓ Fuhr, I. 1991a. Addressing diversity in participative management. *The Innes Labour Brief*, 3(1):56-61.

- Fuhr, I. 1991b. Trust building: business challenge for the future. *Human Resource Management*: 10-12, September.
  - Fuhr, I. 1992a. Building trust through the management of diversity. *Human Resource Management*: 14-17, May.
  - ^ Fuhr, I. 1992b. Managing diversity. *People Dynamics*: 28-31, August.
  - Fuhr, I. 1993. Confronting racism. *People Dynamics*: 14-18, June.
  - Galagan, P.A. 1993a. Navigating the differences. *Training and Development*: 29-33, April.
  - Galagan, P.A. 1993b. Trading places at Monsanto. *Training and Development*: 46-49, April.
- Gardenswartz, L. & Rowe, A. 1993. *Managing diversity: a complete desk reference and planning guide*. New York. Co-published by Business One, Irwin/Pheiffer.
- Gaub, K. 2000. *Re-arranging your mental furniture*. Shippensburg: Destiny Image.
- Gerber, P.D. 1987. *Human resource management*. Pretoria: Southern Book Publishers.
- Gildenhuis, J.S.H. 1997a. *Ethics and professionalism in the public sector*. [Unpublished].
- Gildenhuis, J.S.H. 1997b. *Restructuring your local government: a practical guide*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Gluckman, S. 1990. Coping with change: critical for our future survival. *Human Resource Magazine*, April. pp 12
- Goldstein, J. & Leopold, M. 1990. Corporate culture vs. ethnic culture. *Personnel Journal*: 83-92, November.
- Golembiewski, R.T. 1976. *Perspectives on public management: cases and learning designs*. Itasca, N.Y.:Peacock.
- Good news Bible: today's English version*. 1981. Cape Town: Bible Society of South Africa.
- Gordon, J. 1992. Rethinking diversity. *Training*: 23-30, January.
- Graham, P. 1994. *Integrative management: creating unity from diversity*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Green, S.B. 1991. Racial differences on job analysis questionnaires: an empirical study. *Public Personnel Management*, 20(2), Summer.

- Greenblo, R. 1991. Equitable employment practices: a necessity for the new organisation. *IPM Journal*: 5-7, July.
- \* Griggs, L.B. & Louw, L.L. 1995. Diverse teams: breakdown or breakthrough? *Training and Development*: 22-29, October.
- Grote, K. 1991. *Diversity awareness profile: manager's version and individual version*. San Diego, Calif.: Pfeiffer.
- Haight, G. 1994. Managing diversity: learning to integrate the workforce is of strategic importance to South African managers. *Empowering Black Managers: The South African Experience*, 1(2):4-5.
- Hanekom, S.X., Rowland, R.W. & Bain, E.G. 1987. *Key aspects of public administration*. Johannesburg: International Thomson Publishing Southern Africa.
- Hanekom, S.X. & Thornhill, C. 1996. *The public sector manager*. Durban: Butterworths.
- Hanks, K., Pulsipher, G.L. & Pulsipher, D. 1997. *Five secrets to personal productivity*. Rev. ed. Salt Lake City, Utah: Franklin Covey.
- Harms, L.S. 1973. *Intercultural communication*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Hellbriegel, D. & Slocum, J.W. 1991. *Management*. 6<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Addison Wesley.
- \* Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K.H. 1988. *Management of organizational behaviour: utilizing human resources*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Hodge, B.J. & Anthony, W.P. 1991. *Organisation theory*. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hoecklin, L.A. 1993. Managing cultural differences for competitive advantage. *The Economist Intelligence Unit: Special Report No. P656*. London: The Economist.
- Hofstede, G. 1984. *Culture's consequences: international differences in work related values*. Vol. 5. London. Sage.
- Horward, M. 1984. *A measure of equality: monitoring and achieving racial equality in employment*. London: Commission for Racial Equality.
- (<http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/sf.html>)
- Hugo, P. 1989. Black access to the South African bureaucracy: an equal opportunity and affirmative action perspective. *Critical Choices for South Africa*, (8):3-8, January. [Published by the Institute for the Study of Public Policy, Dept of Political Studies, University of Cape Town].
- Human, L. 1991a. *Advancement, affirmation and diversity: what South Africa can learn from the USA*. *IPM Journal*,:7, August.



Human, L. (ed.). 1991b. *Educating and developing managers for a changing South Africa*. Cape Town: Juta.

Human, L. 1992a. *The development of black and female managers in South Africa: why many affirmative action programmes fail*. University of Stellenbosch Business School. [Unpublished].

Human, L. 1992b. *Some myths about managing diversity in South African companies*. University of Stellenbosch Business School. [Unpublished].

Human, L. 1993. What often goes wrong. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*: 12, May/June.

Human, L. 1995. Multiculturalism and managing diversity: are they the same? *Human Resources Management*: 8-10, May.

Human, L. & Bowmaker-Falconer, A. 1992. Managing diversity: just another way of avoiding the issues. *People Dynamics*: 25-26, September.

Ingraham, P.W., Romzek, B.S. and associates. 1994. *New paradigms for government: issues for the changing public service*. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass.

*Interviews. Interviewing Aboriginal peoples: a practical guide to cross cultural interviews*. 1989. Cross-cultural Consulting.

Ismail, N., Bayat, S. & Meyer, I. 1997. *Local government management*. Johannesburg: international Thomson Publishing Southern Africa.

Jamieson, D. 1991. *Managing workforce 2000: gaining the diversity advantage*. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass.

Jenner, L. 1994. Diversity management: what does it mean? *Human Resource Focus*, 71:11, January.

Johnson, R. & Redmond, D. 2000. *Diversity incorporated: managing people for success in a diverse world*. New York: Prentice-Hall.

Kellough, J.E. 1990. Integration in the public workplace: determinants of minority and female employment in federal agencies. *Public Administration Review*: 557-565, September/October.

Kelly, J.L. 1990. What went wrong? *Personnel Journal*: 43-47, January.

Kemp, N. 1992a. Affirmative action: legal obligation or prudent business? *Human Resource Management*, 8(6).

Kemp, N. 1992b. *Labour relations strategies: an intercultural approach*. Cape Town: Juta.

- Kennedy, J. & Everest, A. 1991. Put diversity in context. *Personnel Journal*: 50-54, September.
- Khoza, H. 1994. Strategic issues for management in a democratic South Africa. *Empowering Black Managers: The South African Experience*, 1(2).
- King, R. 1992. *The Plain Truth: A Magazine of Understanding*: 3, October.
- Klingner, D.E. 1983. *Public administration: a management approach*. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin.
- Klingner, D.E. 1985. *Public personnel management: contexts and strategies*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Kogod, S.N. 1991. *A workshop for managing diversity in the workplace*. San Diego, Calif.: Pfeiffer.
- Kohls, L.R. s.a. *Developing intercultural awareness*. s.l.: Society for Intercultural Education.
- Kooma, S. 1994a. Crusade for visibility of gay people. *Sowetan*: 11, July.
- Kooma, S. 1994b. Gays launch own campaign. *Sowetan*: 11, July.
- Kossek, E.E. & Zonia, S.C. 1993. Assessing diversity climate: a field study of reactions to employer efforts to promote diversity. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 14: 61-80.
- Kotze, J.C. 1993. *In their shoes: understanding black South Africans through their experiences of life*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Kroon, A. 1992. To resist or not to resist: employee reaction to change. *Human Resource Management*, 8(3).
- Kruger, W.J. (ed.). 1986. *Intertaal/kultuurkommunikasie in die Oos Kaap//Interlanguage/cultural communication in the Eastern Cape*. Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth Publication Series.
- Kuper, J. 1984. *Race and race relations*. London: Batsford.
- Laabs, J.J. 1994. Kinney narrows the gender gap. *Personnel Journal*: 83-89, August.
- Landis, D. (ed.). 1983. *Handbook of intercultural training*. New York: Pergamon.
- Lee, D.S. 1990. *The basis of management in public organisations*. Peter Lang, New York.
- Leedy, P.D. 1985. *Practical research: planning and design*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: Macmillan.

- Lefton, R.E. 1980. *Improving productivity through people skills*. Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger.
- Legum, M. 1993a. Saying no to the deficit model of affirmative action. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.
- Legum, M. 1993b. Understanding racism: developing good practice. *Trace Two*, 2(1), February.
- Leonard, B. 1991. Managing the diverse workforce. *Human Resource Magazine*: 37-39; 98, April.
- Lerner, A.W. & Wanat, J. 1993. *Public administration: scenarios in public management*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Lombard, E. 1993. Avstig's view on ethnicity. *Trace Two*, 2(1), February.
- Londen, M. & Rosener, J. 1991. *Workforce America! Managing employee diversity as a vital resource*. Donnelley. Chicago, Illinois.
- Lowen, C. 1993. Affirmative action programmes need language training support. *Human Resource Management*: 12, February:12-13.
- Lynn, N.B. & Wildavsky, A. 1990. *Public administration: the state of the discipline*. Chatham House, New York.
- MacDonald Series. 1990a. *Aboriginal issues today*. Vol. 2. Cross Cultural Communications International.
- MacDonald Series. 1990b. *Designated group retention: a guide to effective staff management*. Cross Cultural Communications International.
- Malan, L. 1993. *Meeting the other: a guide for the development of intercultural awareness*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Mancusi, J.L. 1991. Another view of the golden rule (managing the diverse workforce). *Human Resource Magazine*: 102-104, April.
- Marais, H.C. (ed.). 1988. *South Africa: perspectives on the future*. Cape Town: Owen Burgess.
- Martin, J.N. (ed.). 1986. Theories and methods in cross-cultural orientation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 10(2).
- Matsau, N. 1994. Women in management: a unique leadership role. *Empowering Black Managers*, 1:15.
- Maxwell, J.C. 1993. *Developing the leader within you*. Milton Keynes: Word Publishing.

- McDowell, K. & Beliles, M.A. 1992. *Liberating the nations: a study of Biblical principles in public affairs*. Providence Foundation.
- McGee, R. 1972. *Points of departure: basic concepts in sociology*. Dryden.
- McGraw, P.C. 1999. *Life strategies: doing what works, doing what matters*. London: Vermilion.
- McLennan, A. 1995. *Managing sustainable development in South Africa*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Melting pots (diversity). 1993. *People Dynamics*: 5, June.
- Mercer, E.B. 1986. What does equal opportunity mean? *Institute for Personnel Management Journal*: 10-12, June.
- Metcalf, L. 1990. *Improving public management*. European Institute of Public Administration/ Sage, New York.
- Morrison, A. & Crabtree, K.M. 1993. *Developing diversity in organisations: a digest of selected literature*. Centre for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, NC.
- Mullins, L.J. 1993. *Management and organisational behaviour*, London: Pitman.
- Munroe, M. 1996. *International Third World Leadership Conference*. Bahamas. [Audio-tapes].
- Munroe, M. 2001. *The burden of freedom*. Creation House. Miami, FL.
- Munter, M. 1993. Cross-cultural communication for managers. *Business Horizons*: 70, May/June.
- Nadler, L. 1989. *Designing training programmes: the critical events model*. Boston, Mass.: Addison Wesley.
- Oakley-Smith, T. 1993. Managing diversity is part of the business strategy. *Human Resource Management*, 8(10).
- O'Sullivan, E. & Rassel, G.R. 1995. *Research methodology for public administrators*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Longman.
- Ott, J.S. 1991. *Public management: the essential readings*. Nelson Hall. New York.
- Pearson, J.C. & Nelson, P.E. 1985. *Understanding and sharing: an introduction to speech communication*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown.
- Pekeur, S.W. 1992. 'n Model vir die ontwikkeling van 'n oriënteringsopleidingsprogram vir ongeskoolde en half geskoolde werkers. Ongepubliseerde MA-verhandeling, Universiteit van Stellenbosch.

Pekeur, S.W. 1995. Managing of diversity: a word commonly used but seldom defined. *Protechnica: a bulletin for academic staff*, 11(2):48-61.

Perry, J.L. 1993. Strategic human resource management. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 13(4), pp59-71.

Petrini, C.M. 1993. The language of diversity. *Training and Development*: 35-37, April.

Pillay, 2001. South Africa's key socio-economic challenges: issues for discussion: new agenda. *South African Journal of Socio-economic Policy*, (2):7-27.

Pomerleau, R. 1994. A desideratum for managing the diverse workplace. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 14(1): 85-100.

*Presidential review commission report*. 1998. Government Printers. Pretoria.

*Public Service review report*. 2000. Government Printers. Pretoria.

Raad vir Geesteswetenskaplike Navorsing. 1993. *Interkulturele dialoog: 'n RGN werkwinkel oor skakeling tussen kultuurgroepe*, 24-25 Maart 1993.

Raad vir Geesteswetenskaplike Navorsing. s.a. *Opleiding en die plasing van die gestremde persoon*. RGN/NOR ondersoek. RGN Onderwysnavorsingprogram, no. 15. Pretoria: RGN.

Rainey, H.G. 1991. *Understanding and managing public organisations*. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey Bass.

RDP: See *Reconstruction and Development*.

*Reconstruction and Development Pamphlet*. 1993.

Reddy, P.S. & Choudree, R.B.G. 1996. Public service transformation and affirmative action perspectives in South Africa. *Public Personnel Management*, 25(1):25-39.

*Report on international democratic governance*. 2001. Pretoria: Government Printer.

*Report on the State of the Public Service*. 2001. Pretoria: Government Printer

RGN: See Raad vir Geesteswetenskaplike Navorsing.

Rodin, R.S. 2000. *Stewards in the Kingdom*, Downers Grove:Illinois, InterVarsity Press.

Ross-Gordon, J.M., Martin, L. & Briscoe, D.B. 1990. *Serving culturally diverse populations*. No. 48. San Francisco, Calif.: Jossey-Bass.

Roux, N, Brynard, P, Botes, P & Fourie, D.1997. *Critical issues in public management and administration in South Africa*. Pretoria. Kagiso Tertiary.

Rubaii-Barrett & Beck, A.C. 1993. Minorities in the majority: implications for managing cultural diversity. *Public Personnel Management*, 22(4):503-518.

SABC Television News. 1994. 11 August.

Sadie, J.L. 1991. *The South African labour force: 1960-2005*. Pretoria: University of South Africa, Bureau of Market Research. Research Report, no. 178.

Samovar, L.A. 1988. *Intercultural communication: a reader*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Wadsworth. Massachusetts.

Santora, J.E. 1991. *Kinney shoe step into diversity*. *Personnel Journal*:72-77. September.

Scarpello, V.G. & Ledvinka, J. 1988. *Personnel human resource management: environments and functions*. Boston, Mass.: PWS-Kent.

Schaeffer, R.T. 1989. *Sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Schermerhorn, J.R. 1997. *Organisational behaviour*. New York: John Wiley.

Segal, J.A. 1995. The unprotected minority? *Human Resource Magazine*: 27-33, February.

Sheldon, S.V. & Cushner, K. 1990. Understanding cultural diversity can improve intercultural relations. *NASSP Bulletin*: 90-92.

Sherman, A. 1996. *Managing human resources*. South Western College Publishers.

Simons, G.F. 1989. *Working together: how to become more effective in a multicultural organization*. Crisp.

Sing, D. 1986. Change and public institutions. *Bulletin: Current Issues in Law and Public Administration*. University of Zululand Institute for Public Service and Vocational Training. June.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje, G.J. 1992. *Management principles*. Cape Town: Juta.

Smith, H.W. 1994. *The 10 natural laws of successful time and life management: proven strategies for increased productivity and inner peace*. New York: Warner Books.

Snowdon, F.M. 1983. *Before color prejudice: the ancient view of blacks*. Boston, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

*Society today*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. 1973. CRM Random House. New York.

Sonn, J. 1993. Changing attitudes and perceptions. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*: 30-31, May/June.

- South Africa. 1996. *Central Statistical Service Census*. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1993. *Central Statistical Service Census*. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1994. *Public Service Commission Report*. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1996. *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. Central Statistical Service. 1994. *South African statistics*. Pretoria: Central Statistical Service.
- South Africa. Department of Public Service and Administration. 1997. Managing people in a transformed public service: White Paper on human resource management in the public service. *Government gazette*, 390(18594):7-59, December 3. [Notice 2011 of 1997.]
- South Africa. *Employment Equity Act*, 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. National Training Board. 1993. *Compendium of training*. May.
- Sowel, T. 1991. A world view of cultural diversity. *Society*: 37-43, November/December.
- Stewart, J. 1995. *Understanding the management of local government: its special purposes, conditions and tasks*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Pitman/Institute of Local Government Studies.
- Struwig, F.E. 1996. *Guidelines for master's and doctoral degree students: Department of Business Management study manual*. Port Elizabeth: Vista University.
- Stuart, B. 1994. Government will set up race monitors. *The Citizen*: 2, June. *Sunday Times Supplement*. 1994. July 24:3.
- Suid-Afrika. Departement van Mannekrag. Nasionale Opleidingsraad. 1984. *Kompendium van opleiding*. Pretoria: Staatsdrukker.
- Support for the disabled in two acts. 1992. *Personnel Management Plus*, July.
- Sutermeister, R.A. 1976. *People and productivity*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Swiss, J.E. 1991. *Public management systems: monitoring and managing government performance*. Boston, Mass.: Prentice-Hall.

- Taylor, J.D. 2001. *Evaluating the new local government mandate in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality, with reference to the role performed by the councillors.* Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Durban-Westville, Durban.
- Taylor, T.J. 1992. *Mutual understandings: scepticism and the theorizing of language and interpretation.* Routledge. New York.
- Tearle, R. 1992. *Managing transition: new ways of thinking about your business.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Thomas, D. & Ely, R. 1996. Making differences matter: a new paradigm for managing diversity. *Harvard Business Review*, 74(5):79-90.
- Thomas, R.R. 1991. *Beyond race and gender: unleashing the power of your total workforce by managing diversity.* New York: AMACOM.
- Thomas, T.R. 1990. From affirmative action to affirming diversity. *Harvard Business Review*: 107-117, March/April.
- Thomas, V.C. 1994. The downside of diversity. *Training and Development*, January.
- Thomson, R. 1993. Cultural differences can enhance organizational growth. *Human Resource Management*: 4-6, May.
- Togni, L. 1994. *The struggle for human rights: an international South African perspective.* Cape Town: Juta.
- Triandis, H.C. (ed.). 1980. *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology perspectives: vol 1.* Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tromp, P.J. 1998. *Creating a meeting of minds: a manager's and facilitator's guide to effective collaboration.* Randburg: Knowledge Resources.
- Umlaw, Z. 1992. Black graduate expectations. *People Dynamics*: 6-18, July.
- Valentine, S. 1993. Race against time? SA ignores racism at its peril. *Democracy in Action*, 7(3):1-8, May.
- Van Aswegen, A. 1992. *Interkulturele kommunikasie en die behoefte aan opleiding daarin.* Pretoria: RGN.
- Van den Berg, G.C. 1988. Perseptuele verskille tussen werknemers en bestuur ten opsigte van swart vooruitgang in die werksituasie. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 10(3), September/December.
- Van der Lingen, B. 1994. Diversiteit 'n werklikheid. *Publico*, 14(4):5-6, Augustus.



Van der Merwe, H. 1993. Beyond "baasskap": can Afrikaner ethnicity be reconciled with black majority rule? *Track Two*, 2(1), February.

Van der Merwe, M. 1992. Bestuur van diversiteit. *Publico*: 27, Augustus.

Van der Zander, J.W. 1988. *The social experience: an introduction to sociology*. New York: Random House.

Van Niekerk, W.P. 1988. *Contemporary management*. Durban: Butterworths.

Van Wyk, P. 1994. Vroue kan hul man staan in professies. *Rapport*: 18, Julie 3.

*Voices*. 1993. A programme shown on National Network Television, 1994.

Wagner, J.A. & Hollenbeck, J.R. 1995. Management of organisational behaviour, June Russel, Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Hall.

*White Paper on affirmative action in the public service*. 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

*White Paper on higher education. (Draft)*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

*White Paper on human resource management in the public sector*. 1997. Pretoria: Government Printer.

*White Paper on local government*. 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

*White Paper on the transformation of the public service*. 1995. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Williams, V. 1993. Affirmative action: reality or fantasy? *Democracy in Action*, 6(3), June.

Wilson, P.A. 1994. Cultural diversity: an organisational asset. *Public Manager*, 23: 27-30, Fall.

Wilson, M & Iles, P.A. 1999. Managing diversity: an employment and service delivery challenge, *The International Journal of Public sector Management*, 12: 27-48.

Wise, L.S. 1990. Social equity in civil service systems. *Public Personnel Management*: 567-575, September/October.

Wissink, H.F. 1992. *An investigation into the management of information technology in local government*. Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Stellenbosch.

Wooldridge, B. 1991. The turbulent environment of public personnel administration: responding to the challenges of the changing workplace of the twenty-first century. *Public Personnel Management*, 20(2).

**MATERIAL CONSULTED FOR BACKGROUND INFORMATION BUT NOT  
CITED AS REFERENCES IN THE STUDY**

*Affirmative action. Working paper of the Constitutional Development Service.* April 1993.

Andrews, Y. 1992. Affirmative action: a suspected equaliser? *SAIPA*, 27(1), March.

Barrier, M. 1992. Doing well what comes naturally. *Nation's Business*: 25, September.

Bezuidenhout, G. 1993. Affirmative action requires a strategic management approach. *Human Resource Management*, June.

*Beyond apartheid: human resources in a new South Africa.* 1991. Report of a Commonwealth Expert Group prepared for the Heads of Government Meeting, Harare.

Bird, A. 1993. A new type of swart gevaar? *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.

Blanchette, D.P. 1994. Technology transfer in a culturally diverse workforce: part 1. *Industrial Management*, 36(4):31-32, July.

Bochner, S. 1982. *Cultures in contact: studies in cross-cultural interaction.* Pergamon.

Boonzaier, E. 1993. Staging ethnicity: lessons from Namaqualand. *Track Two*, 1(2), February.

*Business Day.* 1994. Cultural diversity leads to increased creativity. 14 July.

Chan, S. 1993. Imagined ethnicity. *Track Two*, 2(1), February.

Charoux, E. 1992. Towards an affirmative action strategy. *Human Resource Management*, February.

Chimes, M. & Schmidt, P. 1990. What I read over my summer vacation. *Readings on Cultural Diversity*, 64:44-46, September/October.

Christie, P. 1993. African competency based affirmative action needed. *Human Resource Management*, May.

Chusmir, L. 1990. A shift in values is squeezing older people. *Personnel Journal*: 48-55.

Cleghorn, J.C. 1992. Diversity: the key to quality business. *Vital Speeches of the Day*: 212-215, November.

- Cleveland, H. 1995. The limits of cultural diversity. *The Futurist*: 23-26, March/April.
- Cochius, D.D. 1986. Mentorship: a structured methodology for black advancement. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Cole, S. 1995. Contending voices: futures, culture and development. *Futures*, 27(4):473-481.
- Collins, S. 1993. Ethnicity: a nine letter word. *Track Two*, 2(1), February.
- Conner, D. 1992a. The management of change: welcome to day 29. *Human Resource Management*, August.
- Conner, D. 1992b. Resilience: managing diversity key areas for effecting change. *Human Resource Management*, June.
- Corpuz, R. 1992. Unifying the community through cultural diversity. *Public Management*: 16-20, October.
- Cross, E. 1990. A lesson from Zimbabwe. *Productivity SA*, February/March.
- Culture fairness of the assessment centre. 1989. *IPM Journal*, August.
- De Bruyn, F. 1992. Work values: a key to finding common ground. *Human Resource Magazine*, June.
- Derison, D.R. & Miohra, A.K. 1995. Towards a theory of organisational culture and effectiveness. *Organisation Science*, 6(2):204-223, March/April.
- Dhlomo, O. 1993. The ethnic factor: how it could figure in a new constitution. *Tract Two*, 2(1), February.
- Discussion paper on human resource development*. 1991. Prepared by the COSATU Human Resource Committee, for the Commonwealth Expert Group Meeting, April 1991.
- Donohue, J.W. 1991. Great books of the whole wide world: notes and quotes. *America*, 164(12), March.
- Douglas, C. 1994. Most affirmative action programmes will backfire. *Weekend Argus*, December.
- Du Preez, P.H. 1992. Modern management and African tradition: a matter of reconciliation. *Human Resource Management*, February.
- Du Toit, D. 1993. Social change, organisations and female labour. *Human Resource Management*, February.

Education and training to support black/female advancement. 1993. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.

Edwards, A. 1991. The enlightened manager: how to treat all your employees fair. *Working woman*: 45-51.

Ehrenberg, R.G. 1995. Do teachers' race, gender, and ethnicity matter? Evidence from the national longitudinal study of 1988. *Industrial and Labour Relations Review*, 48(3), April.

Elliot, J.A. 1994. Enhancing diversity in business doctoral education. *Selections: The Magazine of the Graduate Management Admission Council*: 8-27.

Fenton, B. 1993. Honest workplace conversations. *People Dynamics*: 15-17, January.

Forsyth, P. 1993. The real Zulu: how political conflict has forged variants of Zuluness. *Track Two*, 2(1), February.

Francis, J.L. 1995. Training across cultures. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 6(1):101.

Frost, T. 1993. Affirmative action; the South African reality. *Human Resource Management*, June.

Gumbi, M. 1993. Beyond affirmative action. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.

Gunsch, D. 1993. Games augment diversity training. *Personnel Journal*: 78-83, June.

Halverson, C.B. 1993. *Cultural-context inventory: the effects of culture on behaviour and work style*. Annual Developing Human Resources, Pfeiffer.

Hanson, J. & Fox, W. 1995. Communicating across cultures. *Training and Development*, January.

Harris, V. 1995. Moving ahead on cultural change. *People Management*: 30-33, March.

Havenga, A.A. 1993a. Affirmative action: pros and cons. *Human Resource Management*, June.

Havenga, A.A. 1993b. Education crisis: solution critical. *Human Resource Management*, July.

Heger, K. 1994. Battleground or common ground: the US workplace in a multilingual era. *IABC Communication World*: 18, December 11.

Henderson, G. 1994. *Cultural diversity in the workplace: issues and strategies*. Quorum.

- Hofmeyer, K. 1986. Black advancement in Zimbabwe: some lessons for South Africa. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Hofmeyer, K. 1989. Why employee advancement programmes fail. *IPM Journal*, August.
- Hood, J. 1991. Strength in diversity: black private schools. *Current*: 20-25, June.
- Huss, A. 1986. Black advancement and the employment codes. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Janse, P.W. 1986. Conditioning the environment for black advancement. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Jennings, B. 1994. Cultural diversity meets end-of-life documents. *Hospital and Health Reports*: 72, September.
- Joubert, T.D. 1993. Affirmative action: creating social harmonisation. *Human Resource Management*, June.
- Kandoba, R., Fullerton, J. & Ahmed, Y. 1995. Managing diversity: succeeding where equal opportunities has failed. *Equal Opportunities Review*, 59:31-37.
- Kantor, B. 1993. Affirmative action only hurts. *Financial Mail*, February.
- Khoza, R. 1986. A black management perspective. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Khoza, R. 1993. Afrocentric management approach. *The Black Leader*, June.
- Leonard, B. & Leonard, S. 1993. Duavata: working together in Fiji. *Training and Development*: 36-44, January.
- Lerner, W.E. & Wanat, J. 1993. *Public administration: scenarios in public management*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Lindeque, G. 1991. Human resource challenges in a future South Africa. *Human Resource Management*, 7(5):17.
- Loxton, L. 1993a. Empowering the people. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.
- Loxton, L. 1993b. Getting a fair share. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.
- Loxton, L. 1993c. Learning from others. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.
- Loxton, L. 1993d. Women losing out once again? *Die Suid-Afrikaan*: 17, May/June.
- Lowery, M. 1995. The war on equal opportunity. *Black Enterprise*, 24:148-154, February.

- Luthans, F. 1995. Doing business in Central and Eastern Europe: political, economic and cultural diversity. *Business Horizons*, September/October.
- Maré, G. 1993. Born ethnic? *Track Two*, 2(1), February.
- Mafuna, E. 1993. Changing the corporate mindset: the affirmative action mission. *Human Resource Management*, June.
- Magwaza, J.B. 1991. Diversity the workforce: there is no choice but affirmative action. *IPM Journal*, October.
- Manning, T. 1993. Affirmative action not an extra optional extra. *Human Resource Management*, June.
- Maphai, V.T. 1993. One phrase, two distinct concepts. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.
- Martens, P. 1992. Systematic approach needed for effective organisation culture. *Human Resource Management*, 8(2).
- Maynard, N.H. 1994. Diversity a priceless asset. *Public Relations Journal*, January.
- Mbatha, M. 1992. Black empowerment or black advancement? *People Dynamics*, February.
- Mbigi, L. 1992. Unhu or Ubuntu: the basis for effective human resource management. *People Dynamics*, October.
- McCann, R. 1991. Cross-cultural integration in the transitional South Africa. *Human Resource Management*: 18-19, July.
- McKinney, W.R. 1991. The impact on utility, race and gender using three standard methods of scoring selection examinations. *Public Personnel Management*, 20(2), Summer.
- Mercer, E.B. 1986. What does equal opportunity mean? *IPM Journal*, June.
- Mohlamme, J.S. 1993. Black advancement: constraints and frustrations. *Human Resource Management*, April.
- Morrison, A. 1993. Leading diversity. *Training and Development*, April.
- Mourika, M. 1991. Europe's cultural diversity: a plea for cultural coexistence. *Current*: 17-19, December.
- Mphelo, C. 1990/1991. Discrimination and the new South Africa. *IPM Journal*, December/January.
- Mpufane, J. 1992. Affirmative action: distributing opportunities for advancement. *Human Resource Management*, October.

- Muller, H.J. 1994. Managing diversity in health service organisations. *Hospital and Health Service Administration*, 39(4):415-434.
- Neff, P.J. 1995. Cross-cultural research teams in a global enterprise. *Research Technology Management*, 38(3), May/June.
- Nelton, S. 1992. Winning with diversity. *Nation's Business*: 18-24, September.
- Ntseare, K. 1986. Black advancement in Pick 'n Pay. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Olivier, A. 1992. A practical option for affirmative action programmes. *People Dynamics*, August.
- Parker, G.M. 1994. Cross-functional collaboration. *Training and Development*: 49-53, October.
- Pascoe, A. 1986. Equal opportunity: what does it imply? *IPM Journal*, June.
- Pattison, L. 1993. The empowerment buzzword: stop talking and start doing! *Human Resource Management*, June.
- Payne, R. 1991. Taking stock of corporate culture. *Personnel Management*: 26-29, July.
- Phases of an affirmative action programme. 1993. *Die Suid-Afrikaan*, May/June.
- Pheiffer, L. 1991. Black workers' perception of race discrimination in organizations. *IPM Journal*, July.
- Posner, B.G. & Rothstein, L.R. 1994. Reinventing the business of government. *Harvard Business Review*, May/June.
- Prosser, M.H. 1978. *The cultural dialogue: an introduction to intercultural communication*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Pruet, M.R. 1986. Is there a need for black advancement? *IPM Journal*.
- Qodashe, M. 1986. Black advancement issues. *IPM Journal*, June.
- Ream, D. 1992. Employment outreach: a quality approach to workforce diversity. *Public Management*: 18-20, June.
- Rens, A. 1991. Cultural shock and how to manage it. *Human Resource Management*, July.
- Robinson, R.K. 1992. Affirmative action plans in the 1990s: a double-edge sword? *Public personnel Management*, 21(2).
- Roodt, A. 1992. Black advance: personal and corporate responsibility. *Human Resource Management*, August.

- Sachs, A. 1993. ANC viewpoint on ethnicity. *Track Two*, 2(1), February.
- Sebesho, M.K. 1986. Black advancement in business: some observations. *IPM Journal*.
- Sharp, J. 1993. Staging ethnicity: lessons from Namaqualand. *Track Two*, 2(1), February.
- Smit, T.O. 1992. Black advancement is only one side of the coin. *Human Resource Management*, October.
- Soares, K.C. 1992. Societies in transformation. *Human Resource Management*, September.
- Solomon, C.M. Global opportunities: demand that HR rethink diversity. *Personnel Journal*: 49-50, July.
- South Africa. 1993. *Affirmative action. Working paper of the Constitutional Development Service*, April 1993.
- Sowel, T. 1989. Affirmative action: a worldwide disaster. *Commentary*, December.
- Steffey, M.N. 1995. Training in the kaleidoscope. *Training and Development*, April.
- Steyn, P. 1993. The education crisis: a bleak picture indeed. *Human Resource Management*, July.
- Strauss, A. 1992. Community diversity: synergy source for the 1990s. *Public Management*: 22-24, March.
- Sugimoto, N. 1990. What went wrong? *Personnel Journal*: 43, January.
- Sunoo, B.P. 1994. Tapping diversity on America's newsrooms. *Personnel Journal*, November.
- Toffler, A. (ed.). 1991. Cultural shock and how to manage it. *Human Resource Management*: 22, July.
- Training and Development*. 1993. In practice: work teams demonstrate diverse advantages. October.
- Tucker, S.H. & Thompson, K.D. 1990. Will diversity equal opportunity and advancement for blacks? *Black Enterprise*: 50, November.
- Unity through workforce diversity: a practical guide to valuing diversity*. 1993. IPM workshop, Cape Town, 24 June 1993.
- Veiga, F. 1995. Emerging cultural values among Russian managers: what will tomorrow bring? *Business Horizons*, July/August.



Veres, J.G., Green, S.B. & Boyles, W.R. 1991. Racial differences on job analysis questionnaire: an empirical study. *Public Personnel Management*, 20(2):135-144.

Walton, S.J. 1994. *Cultural diversity in the workplace*. Mirror Press.

Wessels, J.S. 1992. Training for equal opportunities in the public service. *SAIPA*, 27(1), March.

Wilson, P.A. 1994. Cultural diversity: an organisational asset. *The Public Manager*, 23(3).

Williams, M.L. & Bauer, T.N. 1994. The effect of a managing diversity policy on organisational attractiveness. *Group and Organisation Management*, 19(3):295-308, September.

Wood, R. 1995. Black managers via white corporation: some dilemmas. *Human Resource Management*: 12, May.

Zemke, R. 1995. Woo-woo on runway one-niner. *Training*, 32, April.