

**EMPLOYMENT EQUITY AND EMPLOYEE MORALE AT A SELECTED PUBLIC
SERVICE ORGANISATION IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

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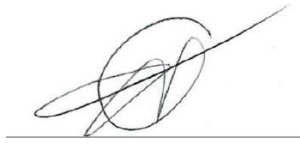
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DECLARATION

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Faraaz Omar', is written over a horizontal line. The signature is stylized with loops and a long horizontal stroke extending to the right.

Signed

Date

ABSTRACT

During the apartheid regime, previously disadvantaged South Africans (SAnS) were severely impacted and limited in terms of employment opportunities. The rationale for affirmative action (AA) within SA today is therefore clear. The apartheid government was actively committed to legislative discrimination, and it is thus the duty of the present SAn government to eradicate these injustices. It is clear that there are mixed feelings about AA, since supporters view it as a positive measure that has created opportunities for development, while challengers perceive it as discriminating against those who are not beneficiaries of the policy. One of the challenges of AA in the workplace is that it may create the stigma that previously disadvantaged employees are hired solely because of their gender or skin colour. Terms often associated with AA include 'a drop in standards,' 'racism,' 'unfair treatment,' 'tokenism' and 'reverse discrimination,' 'incompetence' and 'less qualified.' This stigma leads to questions regarding the competence of previously disadvantaged employees which ultimately create resentment in the workplace, affecting employee morale (EM). This research study aimed to determine whether there was any statistically significant correlation between perceptions of employment equity (EE) and EM at a selected public service organisation in Cape Town. To achieve this, quantitative data was collected via a questionnaire and analysed through the use of both descriptive and inferential statistics. The sample of 167 employees completed Likert-scale questionnaires. Perceptions of EE and EM were generally satisfactory, and a strong, positive correlation was identified between perceptions of EE and EM. There were no significant differences in perceptions pertaining to EE and EM on the grounds of race or gender, or between white and non-white respondents. Recommendations and suggestions are offered for future researchers and any interested parties.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Ishmet and Shamsunissa Omar, who have been a constant source of support and encouragement.

I also dedicate this thesis to all my former students. You may have called me teacher – but I was the one learning.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Meaning
EE	Employment equity
AA	Affirmative action
EM	Employee morale
EEA	Employment Equity Act
SA(n)	South Africa(n)

GLOSSARY

Term	Definition
Employment equity	“To promote equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination” (Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998, South Africa, 1998:5).
AA	“Measures designed to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce of a designated employer” (Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998, South Africa, 1998:9).
Designated groups	“Black people, women and people with disabilities” (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011:321).
Tokenism	“Tokenism occurs when a company appoints a person (from a previously disadvantaged group) not because they believe that the person has the necessary skills for the position, but because it will look good to the public to have such a person in that position” (Pienaar, 2009:38).
Morale	“An intangible concept referring to how positive and supportive a group feels toward the organisation to which it belongs” (Ngambi, 2011:764).
Motivation	“Motivation relates to one’s intensity, direction and persistence of effort towards the achievement of a goal” (Robbins et al., 2009:539).

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This logical process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 1.1: Outline of Chapter One

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• 1.1) Introduction and background• 1.2) Research problem statement• 1.3) Research questions investigated in this study• 1.4) Objectives of the study• 1.5) Hypotheses• 1.6) Declineation of the study• 1.7) Research methodology• 1.8) Significance of the study• 1.9) Summary
Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity
Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation
Chapter Four: Research methodology
Chapter Five: Research findings
Chapter Six: Discussion of results
Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

1.1 Introduction and background

The apartheid regime (1948-1994) was established on the premise of separating SAn along racial lines, with regard to where they lived, where they went to school, where they worked and where they were buried (Van der Walt, 1994). The political history of SA during this era was therefore characterised by unfair discrimination (Hitchcock & Vinding, 2004). Different groups of people were not allowed the same educational or employment opportunities (Miller, 2000). The ruling political party at the time (the National Party), went as far as to implement an employment programme in terms of which specific high positions in companies were reserved for white (usually Afrikaans-speaking) men (Coetzee & Vermeulen, 2003). The SAn government's migrant labour policies reinforced the view that non-whites were only acceptable when they were working in a temporary capacity within a "white environment" (Engdahl & Hauki, 2001). Black workers were limited to mainly unskilled work and were afforded few opportunities for development (Van der Walt, 1994). The corporate environment was founded on Western culture. Most white managers ensured that Western ideals shaped the overall concept of modernisation (Leonard, 2005).

Decades of racial oppression later, SA finally saw the advent of democracy in 1994 and were able to join and compete in global markets (Van der Heyden, 2013). In order to steer the country towards progress and transformation, apartheid laws were eradicated, and learning, training and fair employment practices were promoted as essential fundamentals in effective competition for companies of different sizes and sectors (Smith & Roodt, 2003). This new era spelt out a new dawn for staffing processes. Numerous new laws and regulations were promulgated, the most significant of which (in terms of rectifying past injustices) was the Employment Equity Act No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) (EEA) (Portnoi, 2003). These legislative measures were introduced to encourage equal opportunities, remove unfair labour practices and implement AA processes to redress the disadvantages experienced by designated groups in the past (Esterhuizen, 2008). The aim was to create an equitable work environment (Hlongwane, 2013). Legislation was deemed essential to enforce transformation, as it was believed that organisations would not empower an adequate number of previously disadvantaged employees of their own free will (Leonard & Grobler, 2006). Despite the implementation of these laws, however, competing in the job market continued to be difficult for blacks, females and people with disabilities

(Mputa, 2016). This was generally due to differences in the standards and quality of education dating back to the apartheid era and beyond (Nyoka & Lekalake, 2015).

It has been over two decades since the introduction of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), yet the SAn labour market continues to be characterised by racial inequalities (Booyesen, 2007, Mputa, 2016) and the debate surrounding the implementation of the legislation continues. Equity in organisations is fundamental to eradicating gender and class discrimination, however, the EE measures have become associated with damaging phrases and terms, such as 'drop in standards,' 'racism,' 'unfair treatment,' 'tokenism,' 'reverse discrimination,' 'incompetence' and 'less qualified' (Motileng, 2004). Employment equity measures have been accused of creating racial tensions and resentment in the workplace, thereby having a detrimental impact on EM (Fotheringham, 2010, cited in Jooste, 2014:13). This negativity causes low self-esteem and morale among the employees concerned through reinforcing negative stereotypes of them. Eventually, it leads to a drop in productivity that affects not only the employees but an organisation as a whole (Manson, 2014).

1.2 Research problem statement

More than two decades since the introduction of EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), there are indicators that organisations are continuously aiming to achieve equitable representation of designated groups through numerical goal setting (Van Der Heyden, 2013). The setting of numerical goals is essential in implementing EE measures (Esterhuizen, 2008), however employers should understand that the overall purpose of EE is twofold and that equitable representation or "getting the numbers right" is but one step (Thomas, 2001). The second step entails fair treatment and the elimination of unfair discrimination. Organisations should therefore take into account employees' perceptions of and attitudes towards these measures (Klarsfeld et al., 2014). Both recipients and non-recipients of EE tend to harbour negative feelings towards EE. On the one hand, recipients may fear tokenism and marginalisation when appointed in designated positions (Heilman et al., 1997). On the other hand, non-recipients not only question the ethical fairness of EE, but also fear revenge from previously disadvantaged individuals as well as the limitation of their career prospects (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010). Organisations tend to merely play a number, while key components to the process, including training and diversity management, are overlooked (Human, 2005). If left unresolved, the negative perceptions associated with

EE may have a detrimental impact on both employees and the organisation, leading specifically to a decline in EM and the consequences thereof (Jooste, 2014).

This study thus investigates the correlation between perceptions of EE and EM, and whether these perceptions differ significantly on the grounds of race, gender and between whites and non-whites, at a selected public service organisation in Cape Town. The selected public service organisation had made decisions covered by the different segments of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), which were challenged in several courts in SA, including the Labour Court, the Labour Appeal Court and the Constitutional Court. In 2016, these decisions were eventually found, by the Constitutional Court of SA, to constitute unfair discrimination. It was decided by the Labour Court that the public service organisation had acted unlawfully and was in breach of their obligations in terms of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998).

1.3 Research questions investigated in this study

1.3.1 Main research questions investigated in this study

- Is there a relationship between perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019?

1.3.2 Sub-research questions investigated in this study

In addition to the main research question, the following sub-research questions are highlighted:

Sub-research question 1

- Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale between men and women at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019?

Sub-research question 2

- Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees in terms of race at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019?

Sub-research question 3

- Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town between white and non-white employees in 2019?

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study are as follows:

1.4.1 Main objective:

- To investigate the relationship between perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at a selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

1.4.2 Sub-objectives:

In addition to the main research objectives, the following sub-objectives are highlighted:

Sub-objective one

- To investigate whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale differ significantly between men and women at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

Sub-objective two

- To investigate whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town differ significantly in terms of race in 2019.

Sub-objective three

- To investigate whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town differ significantly between white and non-white employees in 2019.

1.5 Hypotheses

This research study endeavoured to accept or reject the hypotheses below:

H_{0a}: There is no correlation between perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

H_{1a}: There is a correlation between perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

H_{0b}: There are no statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale between men and women at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town 2019.

H_{1b}: There are statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale between men and women at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town 2019.

H_{0c}: There are no statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees in terms of race at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

H_{1c}: There are statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees in terms of race at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

H_{0d}: There are no statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale between white and non-white employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

H_{1d}: There are statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale between white and non-white employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019.

1.6 Delineation of the study

Delineation of research refers to specific boundaries around the research study in which the researcher can deal with adequately within the limits of the study (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006). This research study was conducted at a public service organisation in Cape Town, South Africa. It was limited to a sample of 200 respondents, all from the

same selected public service organisation. This research study targeted a sample which included African, Indian, Coloured, Chinese and white employees, both male and female, all directly or indirectly impacted by EE.

1.7 Research methodology

It should be noted that a comprehensive discussion and justification for the research methodology employed in this study are presented in Chapter Four, however, a brief overview of the research methodology is provided below.

1.7.1 Theoretical framework

A plethora of theories have been put forward suggesting that employees seek fairness in terms of what they have contributed to their job. In this study, Adams' (1963) equity theory was selected as the theoretical framework. Equity theory is premised on the notion that if employees perceive their inputs (e.g. hard work, loyalty, etc.) are greater than their outcomes (job security, career development, etc.), they may experience decreased morale. Given the nature of EE, it is contended that non-recipients of EE (i.e. white males) will compare their own input-output ratio with that of recipients of EE (i.e. blacks, females and people with disabilities), and will for the most part construe that ratio as favourable to recipients of EE. According to equity theory, non-recipients will consequently attempt to restore a balance by either adjusting their input (e.g. decreasing productivity at work, etc.), output (battle for a promotion, etc.), or alternatively, change their comparison group by resigning and moving to a different organisation.

1.7.2 Research philosophy

This research study adopted and applied the positivism philosophy. Positivism philosophy is based on a philosophical approach known as logical positivism (Welman et al., 2005). This philosophy is based on the grounds of factual data and uses the quantitative research methodology.

1.7.3 Research approach

This research study entailed the collection of primary data through means of a questionnaire. The quantitative research paradigm was thus followed during this research study, owing to the nature and objectives of this research study. The overall

rationale for selecting this approach is that it allows the researcher to gather data from a large sample of respondents in an efficient and economical manner (Andrew, Pedersen and McEvoy, 2019) and equally important is that the sample may be selected in such a way as to be representative of the entire research population (McLeod, 2018).

1.7.4 Research design

The survey research design method was selected for this study, with the use of self-administered questionnaires. It allowed for the collection of data from a large number of respondents simultaneously, which is efficient (Welman et al., 2005), while being an inexpensive, quick and accurate way of assessing information about the population.

1.7.5 Population

The population in this study comprised employees of a public service organisation in Cape Town that had undergone a number of EE interventions. The population included individuals who were members of designated groups according to the EE Act – black, Coloured, Indian and Chinese men and women, plus employees with disabilities – as well as non-designated individuals (white males). These employees were of different ages, with varying levels of education and job status. The main reason for selecting this population for the study is that the organisation concerned has undergone specific EE initiatives, namely implementing a gender policy, as well as a recruitment, transfer and terminations policy, in order to address issues relating to unfair discrimination (Republic of South Africa. Department of Correctional Services, 2017). A sexual harassment committee has also been established, which is in line with the provisions of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) (South Africa. Department of Correctional Services, 2017).

1.7.6 Sample

The selected public service organisation had approximately 500 employees and therefore the study aimed to achieve a sample size of 200. This research study utilised the most popular form of non-probability sampling, namely availability sampling, to source 200 respondents. This was deemed to be a sufficient number of respondents to serve as a basis for making inferences. The rationale for selecting availability sampling is its convenience, which allowed the study to obtain a desirable sample size

in a relatively short time (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009), however, a key drawback of availability sampling is that it offers no guarantees that the sample will be representative (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009).

1.7.7 Research measuring instrument

This research study made use of a self-administered Likert-scale questionnaire, comprising 59 statements and 14 sections that measured respondents' perceptions of EE and EM. The research instrument was evaluated in terms of reliability and validity.

1.7.8 Data collection process

This research study utilised "drop-off and pick-up" method, which is a less commonly used yet effective method of administering questionnaires. This method usually results in higher response and completion rates (Jackson-Smith et al., 2016) and fewer non-response issues (Singer, 2006). Questionnaires were personally distributed to respondents and were retrieved on the same day personally by the researcher.

1.7.9 Statistical analysis

The data obtained during this study was analysed quantitatively, making use of SPSS v.25. This enabled expression of the data in terms of descriptive statistics, in order to summarise the data; and inferential statistics, in order to interpret the research findings. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine statistically significant differences.

1.7.10 Reliability

One of the most widely used methods of determining reliability is to examine internal consistency, which refers to the extent to which the elements in an instrument are correlated and measuring the same construct. On the basis thereof, a Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient test was conducted to measure internal consistency among the six EE and five EM dimensions. The section of the measuring instrument measuring perceptions of EE achieved an overall Cronbach reliability score of 0.92, whereas the questionnaire measuring EM achieved a Cronbach's Alpha score of 0.93. Both sections of the instrument therefore comfortably exceeded the general acceptance level of 0.75.

1.7.11 Validity

Content and construct validity were tested to evaluate the validity of the EE and EM scales. Content validity in this study was assured as the questionnaire represents content discussed in the two literature reviews (Chapters 2 and 3). To ensure construct validity a factor analysis was conducted, using a Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO).

1.7.12 Ethical considerations

A number of ethical steps were taken in this research study in order to guarantee the moral acceptability of this research study, including obtaining formal ethical clearance and permission from both the public service organisation and the university ethics committee. During the data collection process, respondents were informed of the purpose and nature of the study and were given the right to refuse to participate and withdraw at any time. Respondents were assured about privacy and confidentiality, and the measures taken to ensure this, such as avoiding asking respondents for any information that could identify them, and storing all hard copies of data in a locked cabinet.

1.8 Significance of the research

In the context of this research study, an issue worth further investigation was identified, with specific reference to the relationship between EE and EM at a selected public service organisation in Cape Town, South Africa. This research study aimed to add value to relevant stakeholders, including employees and management of the public service organisation, and the body of knowledge in the field of human resource management, as mentioned below.

This research study has immense significance by contributing both academically and practically. From an academic perspective, this research study may contribute by adding to the existing literature within the field of human resource management. There is a plethora of literature done on EE, however, this research study focuses on the impact EE has on EM, conducted specifically for the public service organisation and therefore, this research study may fill the gap in literature about EE and EM.

From a practical perspective, the main significance of this research study is that it sheds some light as to whether there is a relationship between EE and EM at the selected public service organisation. Once managers have this knowledge and information, they may take corrective action measures.

The findings of this study provide key insights into how employee perceptions of EE impact on EM. This generates new theoretical perspectives on the impact of EE on EM, and additionally, emerging issues are identified to guide future researchers in the field, and lastly, the findings of this study could be used as a basis for future research related to EE and EM. Understanding the relationship between EE and EM may assist managers and supervisors to better deal with their employees.

1.9 Summary

This chapter provided a clear background pertaining to the research problem and introduced and shaped the foundation for this research study in motivating the reasons for the investigation. Stemming from the area of concern, a research problem was identified, and a main research question was posed, along with three sub-research questions, a primary research objective and three secondary objectives.

In the context of this research study, the research philosophy (positivism philosophy), research approach (quantitative research) and the theoretical framework (Adams' (1963) equity theory) that were chosen for this study were provided. The research method that was deployed to execute this research ("drop-off and pick-up" method) was highlighted. Several other issues were highlighted as well, including the delineation of the research study, ethical considerations pertaining to this research study, and lastly, the significance of the study to relevant stakeholders was briefly explained.

For clarification, the chapters following Chapter One are briefly highlighted below:

Chapter 2 – Literature review: Employment equity

Chapter Two provides a comprehensive literature review of EE, highlighting the concept, history and development of AA. This is followed by a discussion of research

related to employees' experiences of and attitudes towards AA, noting arguments made in favour of and against AA. Finally, the chapter discusses the practical implications of AA by reviewing research from various countries and highlighting fundamental problems and issues surrounding AA.

Chapter 3 – Literature review: Employee morale and motivation

This chapter emphasises the importance of EM in the workplace, focusing on key factors affecting EM. There is discussion of the impact of EM on the workplace, demonstrating the benefits that can be reaped from maintaining high morale, as well as the detrimental effects of low morale. The chapter subdivides motivation theories into content theories and process theories and selects a suitable theoretical framework for the study.

Chapter 4 – Research methodology

Chapter Four justifies the quantitative research approach used in this study. The chapter outlines how data was collected and how the collected data was analysed. The chapter then goes on to highlight the components of the questionnaire used and discusses the population and sampling method used in this study. The chapter closes with a consideration of ethical issues relating to the study.

Chapter 5 – Presentation of research findings

Chapter Five presents the analysis of the data and the resultant findings. The chapter provides a brief explanation of the questionnaire response rate obtained and the demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented using descriptive statistics, while the four hypotheses are discussed using inferential statistics.

Chapter 6 – Discussion of research findings

The research findings are discussed in this chapter, in relation to the research questions, and in the context of the literature reviewed in Chapters Two and Three, and other relevant literature. The chapter is structured according to the study's research objectives and provides a discussion of the research findings based on the data obtained from the questionnaire.

Chapter 7 – Recommendations to improve employment equity and employee morale

The final chapter draws conclusions and sets out recommendations for practice based on the results of the study. The chapter concludes by identifying the limitations of the current study and providing recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW – EMPLOYMENT EQUITY

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This logical process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 2.1: Outline of Chapter Two

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study
Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity <ul style="list-style-type: none">•2.1) Introduction•2.2) Concept of affirmative action•2.3) History and development of affirmative action•2.4) Attitudes towards affirmative action•2.5) Best practices for effective implementation of employment equity•2.6) Summary
Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation
Chapter Four: Research methodology
Chapter Five: Research findings
Chapter Six: Discussion of results
Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

2.1 Introduction

Affirmative action is a concept that SAs know well but that few understand. Since its introduction, it has been responsible for various strategies designed to rectify the impact of past injustices by increasing access to employment, educational and business opportunities for blacks, women and people with disabilities (Napikoski, 2017). These groups are referred to as beneficiaries of AA. Several programmes, including quota systems, preferential recruitment and selection programmes, as well as reverse discrimination, have characterised the implementation of this controversial policy. Presently, decades after its initial promulgation and perhaps to a greater degree than at any other time in history, the execution of AA remains at the frontline of far-reaching social and economic debates (Kellough, 2006; Featherman et al., 2009). This chapter provides an overview of the literature that pertains to AA, thereby laying a foundation for this study.

First, the chapter describes the concept of AA in order to impart a general understanding of what it is, in an impartial way agreeable to both sides of the AA debate. Secondly, the chapter presents its history and development by reviewing relevant literature globally, dating back to the apartheid era, a period of white supremacy, privilege, preferential treatment and inequality. The chapter also examines the literature that relates to the black-led struggle against discrimination in a global context. The chapter therefore outlines key developments in the fight to overcome discrimination against historically disadvantaged people in various countries, but specifically SA, to understand how the concept of AA has emerged.

In attempting to review the general perceptions and challenges that AA and EE face, the succeeding section discusses arguments for and against AA. The final section of the chapter sheds some light on how employees experience AA and concludes by reviewing and comparing research on AA perceptions, attitudes and experiences.

2.2 Concept of affirmative action

The plethora of AA views and understandings resulted in two main points of views: some view AA as a way of granting preference to women and particular racial groups, while others perceive it as a means to promote equal opportunities for all, regardless of race. The term denotes a process that is inevitably controversial and open to various interpretations that depend in part on one's personal beliefs, views and ideals. While

some identify it as a means of ending past inequalities, others view it as a process that redresses poor education, prejudice, racism and the unequal distribution of wealth. Hence it is not always clear what people mean when they use the term. According to the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), AA has usually been closely associated with issues of employment: “AA measures are measures designed to ensure that suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce of a designated employer.” Conceptually, however, AA reaches far beyond the context of employment (Wingrove, 1995; Deane, 2005; Nieli, 2012:174). It can be applied in matters such as land redistribution, the improvement of educational systems, the granting of government tenders, and grants for previously disadvantaged company owners (Van der Westhuizen & Wessels, 2011:162; Erasmus & Schenk, 2008:105).

Thomas et al. (1996:6) provides this somewhat general definition of AA:

“AA has been seen as a means of correcting historical injustices and as an attempt to work from there to eventually creating level playing fields where everyone can compete, based upon equal access to education, training and other opportunities formerly restricted to the white minority population.”

The main thrust of this definition is that AA empowers all citizens to compete in the marketplace, based on fair access to education, training and other opportunities that were previously limited to whites. This requires procedures and programmes that offer preference to blacks, women and people with disabilities in job recruitment, entry into higher education and other distributions of social benefits. The primary criteria for AA, according to this definition, are race, disability, gender, religion and ethnic origin. (Thomas, et al., 1996).

According to *The Black Leader* (1994), cited in Motileng (2004:11), a narrower, more corporate-focused definition proposes that AA is:

“A broad policy of making a concerted effort to employ black people in businesses, and to advance blacks into senior positions with real powers to make decisions”

In the corporate context, AA should thus be seen as a deliberate and concerted effort to increase opportunities for all formerly disadvantaged communities by way of training and development, which will allow them to progress to positions where they were not formerly represented (Combs & Gruhl, 1986).

Affirmative action is therefore not an end in itself, but rather a means towards achieving equality in job opportunities, admission into universities, and other distributions of social benefits, in order to correct the wrongs of the past. It should be used to counteract existing discrimination against historically disadvantaged groups. While it may not offer a perfect solution for organisations wanting to eliminate inequalities as a result of past injustices, if implemented correctly and professionally it remains the most effective solution to obtain equal employment opportunities for all (Herbert, 1994).

The next section examines the history and development of AA by reviewing literature dating back to the apartheid era and beyond.

2.3 History and development of affirmative action

This section provides a chronological overview of the history and development of AA within a SAn context. The overview distinguishes five phases, namely: paternalism; equal opportunities; black advancement; AA; and, lastly, top-down AA (De Beer, 1998; Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003).

Globally speaking, AA first appeared in the 1940s in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Motileng, 2004). The core issue for AA was its opposition to discrimination on the grounds of race, colour, sex, property, birth or any other related status (Wingrove, 1995). The term AA was founded on the concept of 'socio-economic equality', which became well-known during the 1960s after it was introduced into popular discourse in the United States by the then President, John F. Kennedy (McElroy, 2001). The concept was mainly focused on rectifying institutional discrimination, overturning decisions and policies that were inherently discriminatory. The people affected by them were intentionally side-lined; many were unemployed and extremely poor. Laws were thus established to grant preferential access to essentials such as education and employment for black Americans as a means to rectify the mistakes of the past (Kivel, 2001). These laws were acceptable for two reasons: first, because people of colour were the victims of white Americans determined to exclude them; and secondly, because disadvantaged people could only compete fairly with the privileged elite by having fair access to basics such as education. While this took place in America, SA was reasonably familiar with this scenario owing to the political, social

and economic injustices caused by years of apartheid. As in the United States, AA was promulgated in SA to correct the wrongs of the past (Motileng, 2004).

The following section examines the evolution of AA from its inception to the dawn of democracy in SA. This will enable a greater contextual understanding of its current nature and practices.

2.3.1 Time period: 1650s – 1970s: Paternalism

The paternalistic approach originated in the feudal system of the Middle Ages, when labourers were effectively indentured to landowners. The central belief was that these workers were unable to function independently, and required someone who “knew best” to guide them. In the twentieth century the SAn government’s migrant labour policies reinforced the view that non-whites were only acceptable when they were working in a temporary capacity within a “white environment.” Black workers were limited to mostly unskilled work and were afforded few opportunities for development. Three preconceptions regarding black workers influenced organisational structures: their perceived inferior intellectual traits, their lack of education or training to prepare them for the working environment, and the threat posed by their ethnic difference (Van der Walt, 1994:21; Engdahl & Hauki, 2001:11).

The corporate environment was founded on Western culture during this period. Most white managers ensured that Western ideals shaped the overall concept of modernisation, relating to economic, social, educational, political and religious spheres (Leonard, 2005). To obtain more worthwhile employment opportunities, non-white employees had committed themselves to urbanisation and aspects of Western culture, however, they were never expected to be involved in decision making. During the 1960s and 1970s, negotiation committees in the working environment became a reality but were rarely successful owing to the distrust of employees, since committee members were usually selected by management (De Beer, 1998).

The focus of the government from the 1940s on was to uplift ‘poor whites’. The government developed some infrastructure in black areas, in terms of housing, jobs and education, but not nearly to the same extent as in predominately white areas, where “vast amounts of money were spent” (De Beer, 1998).

This era was characterised by the general absence of opportunities for black SAn employees, however, the following era, namely *Equal Opportunities*, recognised the need for the development of black SAn employees, provided that these employees reject 'African values' in support of Western work values (De Beer, 1998; Miller, 2000).

2.3.2 Time period: 1970s – 1980: Equal opportunities

This era was critical for the development of AA in SA, as it saw the eradication of laws that related to work restrictions. This marked a considerable improvement in the area of human rights. Increased awareness among leaders of the moral rights of all human beings, irrespective of the colour of their skin, was the primary ideal that led to this approach. The changing ethos resulted in the Wiehahn Commission Report (1979), which formalised the attitude that each worker is equal in front of the law, and hence all workers should be allowed to advance within their careers (Madi, 1993; Du Plessis & Fouché, 2015).

Macro-economic policies still relied on apartheid laws during this era, however, leaders began to realise that all races were economically interdependent. Black residents in cities who were previously seen as 'temporary', were now regarded as permanent despite their limited social rights. The government realised that it needed to improve the isolated non-White education systems, and attempted to do so after the 1976 uprising and continued unrest in the 1980s (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003; Spector, 2013).

This era also gave rise to resistance against "special development programmes" for non-whites. Training was considered irrelevant to business, its benefits unappreciated. White managers dreaded reverse racism, and both white and non-white workers disliked the idea of being singled out for these programmes. This approach was considered to have a "peacock effect", as Black workers were not usually appointed in client services, public affairs, community relations and industrial relations positions during this time (De Beer and Radley, 2000:28; Roediger, 2002).

At the same time many organisations began to recognise the values of non-white employees and started to accept and appreciate the reality of ethnic diversity. During this time, non-white employees, albeit a few, were deemed to have grown sufficiently thanks to modernisation to be moved into senior management positions (De Beer,

1998). White employees felt that work and production standards had declined to accommodate more non-white employees (Cantle, 2012).

The type of consultation forums in organisations during this period can be labelled as restricted, though they existed. Non-white workers were primarily consulted in matters relating to production, and labour unions become more influential (De Beer, 1998). In this era, most organisations extended benefits to employees such as medical insurance, housing subsidies and pension funds, but non-white employees were mainly excluded and little was done to advance black communities. Some organisations concentrated on 'grassroots development' by building schools and providing transport for non-whites to their workplace (De Beer, 1998).

2.3.3 Time period: Early 1980s – late 1980s: Black advancement

The macro environment endured radical changes during this period. Growth from the "Equal Opportunity" approach to the "Black Advancement" approach was brought about by three features: the realisation by politicians that the political and economic futures of all races were intertwined; great worldwide pressure through economic sanctions; and the realisation that organisations rather than government would have to assume responsibility for training and development programmes (De Beer, 1998:22; Graham, 2013).

The delivery of basic education eventually became a cornerstone of organisations' social responsibility. Funds were allocated for internal training and development initiatives which were seen as an attempt to correct past injustices between white and non-white employees, and hence several laws that separated races in the workplace were eliminated at this point. However, non-white employees were seldom represented on a managerial level and reached a "glass ceiling" fairly rapidly (Van Sittert-Triebel, 1996).

Organisations began to understand that employees' home and early school environment were essentially inseparable from their later performance in a work environment (De Beer, 1998). As far as non-white employees were concerned, the damaging effects of disadvantage in either their home or early school environment were increasingly acknowledged. To close the skills gap, organisations increasingly

implemented mentorship programmes for individuals who aimed to move into managerial positions (De Beer, 1998; Mathur-Helm, 2005).

Usually, training and development was linked to a clear career path; however, this was not the case for training courses for non-white appointees. Most organisations claimed that it was tough to measure the progress of these programmes objectively, which is why they chose not to measure black advancement programmes at all (Van Sittert-Triebel, 1996; Leonard, 2005).

Organisations were still dominated by universal modern systems, with some tolerance for non-Western values. The slow growth of internalising modern work ideals among potential non-white high-level employees was seen as a significant hurdle by white managers. Organisations implemented many frameworks to address these problems (De Beer, 1998; Selamolela, 2012).

As opposed to previous approaches to human capital development, participation from non-white workers was now actively sought in decision-making in terms of the black advancement model. South African organisations were also introduced to participative management, but this was generally unsuccessful owing to the fact that few managers were ready to deal with such changes. Middle and lower-level management often also misunderstood this method and decided to “manipulate employees to improve their productivity” (Madi, 1993:4; Arnesen, 1998). Unions were the primary vehicle for negotiations with management, helping non-white employees to enjoy the same fringe benefits as their white colleagues, including profit sharing and shareholding (De Beer, 1998).

During this era organisations began seemingly to support equality amongst workers, although, approaches that were implemented still reflected deep-rooted, informal racial discrimination (Rubio, 2009). As the next section highlights, the only realistic approach to addressing this situation was preferential treatment in recruitment and selection, stimulating all categories of non-white employees (Miller, 2000). The following section thus explores how the subsequent era facilitated an acceptance of the advantages of diversity and the need for an approach that develops employees and includes a combination of Afro-centric and Western values. This approach became known as AA (Kravitz, 2004).

2.3.4 Time period: 1994: Beyond affirmative action

Grand apartheid was eradicated by 1994, yet, non-whites still did not participate fully in the country's governance (De Beer, 1998; Clark & Worger, 2016).

Compared to the former three development approaches, the policies that organisations were now implementing were aggressively geared towards the growth and development of blacks, yet there remained deeply rooted, informal racial discrimination in local organisations, and these prejudiced opinions hampered the growth and development of non-white employees. Other ways of attaining transformation in the working environment therefore had to be pursued. The only realistic approach to addressing this situation was preferential treatment in terms of recruitment and selection, stimulating all categories of non-white employees. This approach became known as AA (Wingrove, 1995; Kravitz, 2004).

Organisations believed that AA could only be successful if the “white male” was no longer in a leadership position, whether actually or symbolically (Mbabane, 2007). Resistance to this requirement within companies during this period took the form of “malicious compliance” and “outright sabotage.” “Underground resistance” became common in organisations (Van Sittert-Triebel, 1998).

To address this problem, organisations used various means of consultation between managerial and non-managerial levels of employees. These focused on dialogue, understanding different views, and obtaining commitment to the change from all parties. The significance of these discussions was underlined by the fact that black employees were no longer simply a pool of labour that needed to be trained, but were seen as partners whose individual traits and decision-making were helpful in modernisation. In SA this period was characterised by participative decision-making, profit-sharing and obstacles to traditional leadership control through protected strike actions. Strikes were a perfect example of how employees demonstrated their decision-making power (De Beer, 1998; Thomas, et al., 1996). The next section highlights how learning to see black employees as participative rather than passive, particularly on the part of white management, evolved into institutionalised legislative action.

2.3.5 Time period: Emerging after 1994 (Top-down affirmative action)

Shortly after SA's first democratic election in 1994, the government began to implement the transformation of the working environment via legislation. To understand this approach, it is imperative to note two election promises that were made. The first was to provide a "better quality of life for the deprived groups", and the other was to "redress past discrimination." According to Umlow (1992), cited in Leonard (2005:73), these promises led to aroused expectations, and hence many previously disadvantaged graduates, for example, believed that they would obtain employment which offered promotional and developmental opportunities, which included salary packages that would meet their basic and aspirational needs. The empowerment of blacks took place at a macro level through a mixture of government and private sector initiatives. The efforts of government were dedicated to the preferential distribution of funds, to address backlogs in black communities (Rakometsi, 2008).

There were conflicting opinions about the relevance of AA in a post-apartheid SA (Padayachee, 2003). Despite these, the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) was ratified. The act meant that AA in SA had become a top-down practice. The rationale for the practice was the belief that organisations would not empower enough black employees of their own free will. The final objective of EE remains unclear, and the timeframe for ending AA has not been specified (Leonard, 2005).

It is clear from the above discussion why AA in SA has evolved into the legislated provisions of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998). Ending discrimination against non-whites has been a long, challenging and ongoing process.

2.4 Attitudes towards affirmative action

Affirmative action has been immersed in disputes, with people continuing to debate whether or not this policy should still exist decades after its implementation. The attitudes informing these debates have received significant research attention (Steeh & Krysan, 1996). Such attitudes may be positive, negative or neutral. If a person has a positive attitude towards AA, it generally means that they are in favour of it. Conversely, if a person has a negative attitude towards AA, it means that they are usually not in favour of the policy. If a person is neutral towards AA, it implies that they are not affected by the policy (Maphoso, 2014).

There is a plethora of opinions about AA. In attempting to review the perceptions and challenges that AA and EE face, the following section evaluates the fundamental basis for AA, and reviews arguments offered by both opponents and supporters of the phenomenon.

2.4.1 Arguments for and against affirmative action

Arguments about AA tend to be centred on two opposing ideas: freedom and equality. On the one hand, supporters of AA believe in equality of opportunities for previously disadvantaged groups. Conversely, challengers of the policy prefer that organisations have the freedom to select candidates that they perceive to be best suited for relevant positions without attention being directed towards their gender or racial group (Hlongwane, 2013). Arguments both in favour of and against AA are discussed in the sections that follow. In essence, the dispute between the two camps reflects differences in perspective (Gomez & Premdas, 2012). Supporters such as Crawford and Novak (2013) argue that AA recognises that past injustices have led to inequality in society, while opponents of AA such as Ballam (1997) and Connolly (2005) argue that in order to attain true equality, there should be no policies that favour one group over another.

2.4.1.1 Arguments in favour of affirmative action

Supporters of AA emphasise that its purpose is not 'payback' or revenge for the past, but rather that it promotes justice for former and current victims of discrimination (Walden and Thomas, 2007). They firmly believe that justice requires an end to the inequalities that blacks, women and people with disabilities experience, and that this policy represents an effort to make things right and grant access to employment for previously disadvantaged groups (Kellough, 2006). A brief overview of arguments in support of AA appears below.

2.4.1.1.1 Distributive and compensatory justice

A key argument in favour of AA is rooted in the notions of compensatory and distributive justice. Compensatory justice requires that both past and present discrimination should be compensated (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015). It is directed at restoring equilibrium between parties by amending specific injustices that were committed against them in the past. Conversely, distributive justice deals with the

allocation of rights, benefits and burdens among individuals within a society, and is concerned with the various means by which these burdens and benefits are distributed (Kellough, 2006).

2.4.1.1.1.1 Compensatory justice

Compensatory justice is a popular justification for AA, as the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) is promoted as a remedy for past discrimination. The principle of compensatory justice is based on the concept that there is a perpetrator and a victim, and that the perpetrator is liable for compensating the victim for the wrongful act that was committed. This notion of compensation is based on the legal principle of tort, which states that the wrongful act must be identified, the culprit should be linked to the wrongful act, while the victim must show that they have experienced loss or damage owing to this wrong. The victims of such wrongs may not demand to be financially compensated by unrelated third parties. Affirmative action is viewed as a form of compensatory justice (Fiscus & Wasby, 1992; Rabe, 2001).

Despite the fact that AA is founded on the principles of compensation, it is difficult to fit most types of AA into this mould owing to inadequate linkage between the perpetrator of the discrimination, the recipient of the compensation and the person responsible for paying the debt. This lack of connection results in a sense of resentment towards AA, as most of the discrimination against blacks, women and people with disabilities took place in former generations: the current generation does not believe that they should be held liable for it. They feel that it is unethical to expect them to pay for the wrongdoings of previous generations. The compensatory principle is breached if innocent parties are required to bear the brunt of the compensation (Rabe, 2001).

2.4.1.1.1.2 Distributive justice

As mentioned earlier, distributive justice deals with the allocation of rights, benefits and burdens among individuals within society, and is concerned with the various means through which these burdens and benefits are distributed (Kellough, 2006). Using AA to redistribute particular benefits is regarded as just because it lowers the distributive inequalities that discrimination causes. It therefore does not pose the same problems as compensatory justice, such as the insufficient connection between the person liable for the compensation and the victim. It is believed that distributive justice provides a

better validation for AA than compensatory justice. While compensatory justice focuses on victims and perpetrators, distributive justice focuses on issues of equality and entitlement concerning historically disadvantaged groups. It shifts attention from retribution and reimbursement to a justifiable distribution of benefits and rights (Harris, 1993).

The problem that this theory faces is that not all societal disparities are a result of racial or gender discrimination. A distinction should then be made between arguments for redistribution owing to historical discrimination, and arguments for redistribution simply because a more just distribution in society is fair, irrespective of the cause thereof (Rabe, 2001).

Essentially, AA promotes equity through the redistribution of benefits such as jobs to previously disadvantaged groups. When employees from various races are employed, the result is a more diverse working environment (Holzer & Neumark, 2006). The following section considers the promotion of diversity.

2.4.1.1.2 Promoting diversity

The promotion of diversity has become a critical defence for the implementation of AA. Diversity allegedly produces a variety of benefits, such as organisational competitiveness (Rabe, 2001). The case for diversity clearly shows that the benefits of AA are not limited to blacks, but accrue to the entire population (Klitgaard, 1985). Defenders of AA perceive this policy as a means of promoting diversity in various environments, not only in employment but also, for instance, in an educational context. Universities should, therefore, prepare students to function effectively in today's diverse society (Bowen et al., 2006).

Racially diverse learning institutions allow students to gain from exposure to students from diverse backgrounds who have unique perspectives (Henze et al., 2002). Learners who are offered preferential treatment as a result of AA gain from universities, while peers who are not beneficiaries of AA gain from being taught in an environment that includes learners from diverse backgrounds (Cole, 2008). This kind of experience offers learners exposure to different perceptions, equips them with new understandings, and expands their intellectual horizons, while moving them away from their mental comfort zones and stimulating critical thinking (Wells et al., 2016). AA also

promotes diversity in an organisational context (Larsen, 2011). In a working environment different views and opinions enhance creativeness and innovation (Enock, 2006). Organisations can profit from diverse perspectives introduced by employees of different genders and ethnic backgrounds. Also, in today's marketplace, clients expect organisations to meet various social standards: they value social responsibility and expect companies to promote fair opportunities (Dike, 2013). If an organisation is not diverse, clients are likely to take their business to a more diverse organisation (Kowalski, 2006). By enhancing the pool of possible applicants, diversity can contribute to the overall quality of excellence in any professional field, and help an organisation to be competitive in the modern economy (Kowalski, 2006; Kellough, 2006). Without AA, continued access for previously disadvantaged applicants to both education institutions and organisations would be drastically narrowed (Klitgaard, 1985).

Organisations that hire historically disadvantaged employees or universities that admit students of all races and disability status not only promote diversity but also ensure that other previously disadvantaged employees or students have appropriate role models to look up to (Chung, 2000; Cahn, 2013). This is the topic to which we turn next.

2.4.1.1.3 Promotion of role models

The final argument in favour of AA is based on the proposition that this policy provides role models for other members of historically disadvantaged groups (Rosenberg, 2014). The impact of role models occurs on two levels. First, the presence of previously disadvantaged individuals in the working environment helps to dispel negative stereotypes (Rabe, 2001). Secondly, their presence motivates other historically disadvantaged members. Previously disadvantaged individuals may feel isolated and unwanted in their working environment, which could result in feelings of hopelessness and a sense of diminished opportunities (Kupperman, 1988). A negative working environment also conduces to reducing productivity and overall work performance, as individuals from previously disadvantaged groups do not feel that they can succeed and are distracted by anxiety occasioned by the fear of failure. Positive role models encourage other previously disadvantaged members who may be experiencing this kind of distress (Cahn, 2013).

It can be argued that in a perfect world, people would be colour-blind, but this is not the reality, and the bigotries of the past continue to have an impact today (Miah, 1998). Those in favour of AA believe that the policy offers a much-needed boost for its recipients, who would like to enjoy the same advantages that historically advantaged members already enjoy; and, should this come about, supporters of the policy will be ready to witness the termination of AA. A poll conducted by the *Seattle Times* (1999) found that opponents of AA do not share this view, as they believe that AA simply harms white males, promotes hostility, and infringes on one's right to be judged purely on merit and performance (Kowalski, 2006).

2.4.1.2 Arguments against affirmative action

Opponents of AA are often criticised as possessing racist and sexist attitudes (Ng, 2016). Self-interest and uncertainty may be contributing factors, although opponents of AA maintain that they support equal opportunity. They believe that AA short-changes this objective and hurts its recipients, as well as other groups, and essentially does not correct past injustices (Steele, 1990). Alternatively, challengers of AA suggest that they would rather see judgements about employment and university admissions made on a colour-blind and gender-blind basis, because ultimately the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No. 108 of 1996 (South Africa, 1996) guarantees each person equal opportunities before the law (Kowalski, 2006). Consideration of key arguments from the perspectives of opponents of AA are presented below.

2.4.1.2.1 Harming white males

Opponents of AA such as Lanham (1998) and Steele (1990) strongly believe that this policy makes victims of previously advantaged men, and works to advance the wrong individuals (Murray, 2017). They perceive that it places the burden of compensation for past and current discrimination on those who are not necessarily guilty of discrimination themselves, namely, contemporary white men. White men are unjustifiably harmed through AA, which they believe is, in essence, reverse discrimination (Connolly, 2005). As opposed to competing equally for jobs, white men now bear the brunt of competing against recipients of AA who, it is believed, receive special treatment. Consequently, white men face difficult competition for positions and, as a group, may not succeed as they did in the past (Pincus, 2002; Kellough, 2006).

To reiterate, society is shifting from a structure that previously benefited white men at the expense of women, blacks and those with disabilities, to a system where these groups are given more opportunities (Kowalski, 2006). Opportunities for white males are thus declining. Simply put, AA benefits particular groups at the expense of others. In this way, hostility is caused between these opposing groups (Redden & Davis, 2017). The next section provides an exposition of the argument that AA promotes enmity between different groups.

2.4.1.2.2 Promoting hostility

Challengers of AA maintain that this policy is detrimental to society as, by entrenching ethnic divisions it may create bitterness and unhappiness (Mathabela, 2004). It may thus serve to worsen racial and ethnic tensions rather than improve them (Seidman, 2012). It may also have a damaging impact on the recipients of AA, as it is arguably built on a system of race-based paternalism, and the outcome of this could be toxic, leading to hostility between the recipients of AA and those who are not advantaged by the policy (Gabard & Martin, 2010).

Individuals who do not benefit from AA programmes may harbour feelings of resentment towards historically disadvantaged groups who benefit from them (Rabe, 2001). Chong's (2009) study found that a majority of white respondents were angry about the fact that organisations gave preference to blacks when they filled vacancies. These respondents harboured feelings of bitterness towards AA and were against companies that offered special treatment to formerly disadvantaged groups (Chong, 2009).

Research by Tomasson et al. (2001) suggests that AA in fact promotes discrimination. Opponents further claim that AA stimulates whites to dislike blacks, and promotes negative stereotypes of blacks as being 'irresponsible' and 'lazy' (Skrentny, 2018).

It is clear that AA is a sensitive issue. The hostility mentioned above should be acknowledged. Reasonable measures should be implemented that serve to uplift historically disadvantaged communities without generating hostility (Rabe, 2001; Rapulana, 2013). The main source of hostility is the fact that AA negates the right to be eligible for a position in education or employment based on personal merit

(Lapenson, 2009). The final argument against AA, concerning its violation of the right to be judged on merit, is discussed below.

2.4.1.2.3 Right to be judged on one's merit

The final argument against AA is possibly the most common, and it relates to violation of the rights of more qualified candidates overlooked during selection processes as a result of AA practices (Hettinger, 1987). Opponents feel strongly that this practice is problematic and unjust. While some would ask which right is being defended here, for proponents of this position it is simple: the right at issue is everyone's right to be judged on their individual merit, rather than on their race, gender and ethnicity (Boonin, 2011).

To elaborate, those who challenge AA feel that each person has the right to be judged solely as an individual, as opposed to being judged as a member of a group. If a candidate is judged alone, separate from a group, all that is important is their specific qualifications. If each candidate is judged on their specific merits, the best, most suitable individual will be chosen for the relevant position, therefore, any verdict that intentionally chooses a less qualified black candidate over a better qualified white candidate, violates the white applicant's rights. Challengers of AA thus believe that this policy perpetuates unfairness and argue that it be terminated. This applies in the contexts of both the working environment and university admissions (Boonin, 2011; Walker, 2014).

In terms of business, challengers of AA claim that it is irrational to hire candidates who are unqualified. Should an organisation do this, they will find it difficult to compete with businesses that hire more qualified candidates, especially in terms of profitability. Similarly, if tertiary learning institutions select unqualified students, graduation rates will decrease, and these students are set up to fail (Walker, 2014).

The argument on the basis of rights may be the most common, but it is also the one that is least rational, as it appears that there is no credible way to reject AA by claiming that the best qualified individuals possess the right to a specific position (Boonin, 2011).

2.4.1.3 Summary of arguments for and against affirmative action

To recap, it is clear that AA has caused considerable controversy and continues to do so. In essence, there is contradiction between the interests of white males and the

interests of those who have suffered historical injustice. Specifically, the interests of white males are trumped by the interests of previously disadvantaged groups, which deprives white males of the right to equality. To establish a fair and equitable society, these conflicting interests need somehow to be acknowledged and resolved (Rabe, 2001).

Affirmative action is a two-edged sword since it offers both theoretical and practical challenges (Hiller & Ferris, 1992). One needs to understand AA as a theoretical concept before investigating its practical implications, thus this section on theory precedes the next on practice, which explores research that has examined employees' experiences of and attitudes towards AA.

2.4.2 Studies of attitudes to and experiences of affirmative action

The way companies manage AA practices is largely responsible for the success or failure of these practices (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994). This renders the attitudes towards AA of employers and employees equally critical. The following section surveys studies, both local and international, that canvass the attitudes towards AA on the part of different racial groups in the workplace. Employees' points of view and experiences are foregrounded, since, ultimately, it is employees who are affected by AA (Fobanjong, 2001).

2.4.2.1 Negative attitudes

Leopeng (1999) and Van der Merwe (2006) found that negative perspectives on AA were primarily held by members of previously advantaged groups. The majority of white respondents held negative opinions about this policy, as they felt that they were detrimentally impacted by AA, and were considering career options abroad (Leopeng, 1999). One respondent in Van der Merwe's (2006:30) study stated: "I experience AA as totally negative as it is used as a weapon."

Some employees claim that AA reflects or results in a decrease in standards, and perceive it as a form of reverse discrimination (Zondi, 2013). They felt that employers often lowered job standards to make it easier to achieve, and reported seeing employees being incorrectly placed in positions as a result of AA being implemented poorly, which inevitably had an impact on their morale (Oosthuizen and Naidoo, 2010). These respondents essentially believed that AA means the best-qualified person will

not be hired. This correlates with Buthelezi's study (2011), where statistics show that 100% of whites and 76% of Indians strongly believed that AA promotes incompetent employees. This kind of belief can have a demotivating impact, not only on whites but on AA recipients too (Rabe, 2001). It may set black people up to fail, and confirm the already negative stereotypes that many whites hold (Human et al., 1999). These studies found that a major cause of negative attitudes is the perception that AA means that qualifications and merit are regarded as secondary to race.

This negative attitude towards AA and the belief that it harms a merit-based system is not limited to the SAn context. Various studies, such as those conducted by Leck et al. (1996), Bakan and Kobayashi (2000) and Kottke and Agars (2005) in Canada showed that a majority of respondents believed that people should be hired or promoted solely according to their qualifications and abilities, with absolutely no consideration given to the candidate's gender or race. This finding is in line with Boonin's (2011) view, which is that any decision to intentionally hire a less qualified, disadvantaged candidate over a more qualified white male, violates the white male's right to be judged on merit and performance. This key finding concurs with Katchanovski et al. (2015) study, which found that 75% of non-white respondents felt that academic and career progress should be based on a combination of ability and talent, and that no employee or university applicant should be granted any progress on the grounds of gender and ethnicity.

A study by Kottke and Agars (2015) showed that employees harbour negative attitudes towards gendered AA. It may be important to note that men are less likely to believe that discrimination based on gender exists, possibly a self-serving bias. Members of privileged groups generally are likely to attribute their higher status to their own merit and performance, as opposed to unearned advantages (Prasad et al., 1997). These privileged groups may be unaware of their unearned advantages and assume that everyone has equal access to their resources to compete successfully in the labour market (Sidanius et al., 1991). The link between gender and AA can be mediated by views about the existence of gender discrimination and traditional attitudes towards women (Konrad & Hartmann, 2001).

A key finding of studies that investigated AA targeting the advancement of women indicated that the progression of women in the workplace intimidates male employees.

The result is serious resistance to the advancement of women, with males perceiving women's progress in the workplace as a threat to their careers (Konrad & Hartmann, 2001; Tougas & Veilleux, 1990). It is thus argued that traditional attitudes towards women are likely to be allied with negative attitudes towards AA programmes. People consider women to be less suitable for activities that are traditionally assigned to men, to such a degree that they are likely to see AA measures as placing women in roles for which they are not fit (Konrad & Hartmann, 2001). This is supported by Konrad and Spitz (2003), who found that a result of AA programmes is that men experience reverse discrimination, and organisations perform poorly. People who believe that gender discrimination exists are more inclined to support AA, whereas those who do not believe that gender discrimination exists dismiss AA as unnecessary (Tougas & Veilleux, 1990).

White respondents questioned whether the policy actually ensured equal opportunities for all, as they believed that it penalised innocent whites for the wrongdoings of their ancestors; better known as a form of 'reverse discrimination' (Arrow et al., 2000). Their argument is that AA is immoral, simply causes further inequality between different races, and is in fact inherently racist (Block & Mulcahy, 1997; Goldring, 2018). This finding is in line with an international standpoint, as data from a study by Jones et al. (2016) conducted in the United States shows that a majority of the white American working class believes that reverse discrimination is the dominant racial bias in America (Newkirk, 2017). Reverse discrimination occurs when AA discriminates against one group and prefers another. Opponents of AA such as Hettinger (1987) believes that reverse discrimination against white males is equally evil as past discrimination against women and blacks, negating the core objective of AA, which is to create equal opportunities for all.

This section has surveyed the negative attitudes that employees harbour regarding AA. The following section reviews employees' positive attitudes towards AA.

2.4.2.2 Positive attitudes

It would seem from the research findings discussed above that the implementation of AA negatively impacted the general self-esteem of previously disadvantaged groups, however, Skedsvold and Mann (1996) found that only 10% of historically disadvantaged respondents felt that their abilities and skills had been questioned as a

result of AA measures, while 90% of respondents denied ever feeling this way. The same authors argue that in many instances AA programmes may increase the self-esteem of its beneficiaries by providing them with employment opportunities and a platform for growth.

In Buthelezi's (2011) research, he observed that members of previously disadvantaged groups held contradictory attitudes towards AA policies. The majority of black employees did not express any negative opinions about AA as they viewed it as a necessary, remedial measure to correct past injustices (Buthelezi, 2011). White respondents in these studies felt that AA promoted incompetent employees, while 65% of Africans did not share this opinion. This perspective is aligned with Motileng's (2004) study, which similarly found that most employees viewed AA as a means of correcting previous imbalances and as a way of levelling the playing fields. These respondents believed that AA measures have brought forward opportunities for Black people that would otherwise not have been there, and which have enhanced their careers immensely. These employees believed that whites had benefited unfairly by discriminating against blacks, and so strongly believed that AA was a just and necessary means to advance their careers (Colamery, 1998).

Black employees expressed more positive attitudes towards AA, and reported that they had received training and additional support as a result of AA. Buthelezi's (2011) study found that 81% of respondents had been exposed to training and benefited from continuing career development, while 100% of the Coloured respondents received training and support. In short, the first argument on behalf of AA can be summarised as follows: AA allows for the correction of past imbalances by providing structural upward mobility through training and development for those who were previously excluded from structures (Archibong & Adejumo, 2013).

Contrary to white and Indian respondents suggesting that AA should be terminated, black respondents stated that for decades in the past white employees had benefited from blacks being unfairly discriminated against and therefore, 79% of African respondents believed that the call to end AA was a big 'no', and that the idea of a cut-off date was premature (Buthelezi, 2011). This provides a more positive perspective and simply states that fair discrimination is a part of AA and is required to undo decades of unfair discrimination as a result of the apartheid era (Colamery, 1998). In particular,

this argument responds directly to the 'reverse discrimination' argument of the negative point of view by simply stating that discrimination exists, and that this particular discrimination is necessary to remedy historical injustices (Bhargava, 2008).

Positive attitudes towards AA therefore rest upon two related propositions: first, that AA levels the playing fields made uneven by injustices perpetrated by apartheid; and, secondly, that in order to level the playing fields AA engages in fair discrimination (Harkoo, 2014).

It is clear from the above findings of research studies conducted in SA that employees continue to wrestle with conflicting perceptions of AA. At this stage it is not important to decide which point of view is correct, but rather to recognise the full spectrum of employees' opinions.

2.5 Best practices for effective implementation of employment equity

The previous section canvassed divergent perceptions of AA among the various racial groups, highlighting the growing necessity for mitigating opposing views about the fairness of implementing the AA policy. In SA this need has given rise to the development of what is referred to as the EE Index criteria. This section explores the legislated requirements of EE in order to shed light on the nature and practice of AA within SAn organisations.

EE is supported by the development of effective criteria. These criteria are set out in the EE Index (EEI), which was created by Jain and Hackett (1989), and AA in most countries, including SA, embodies these factors (Jain et al., 2015). The EEI's criteria have resulted in organisations needing to create "best practices" for the effective execution of the EE plan (Jain et al., 2015). Several best practices aimed at addressing barriers and enabling the effective implementation of EE have been identified, namely: training and development, diversity management, inclusive organisational culture, management commitment, transparent communication, the issue of justification, and employees' perceptions of fair employment practices.

The concept of "best practice" implies the notion of "better than" compliance with EE. Simply put, EE compliance should be proactive and should meet more than the basic requirements of the legislation (Van der Heyden, 2013). Minimal compliance with EE

does not necessarily constitute best practice, as all employers are obligated to meet the basic requirements (Esterhuizen, 2008). In order to achieve best practice, compliance must promote equal opportunities and address barriers in the way of effective implementation of equal employment opportunities (Jain et al., 2015). The best practices identified individually above are discussed below.

2.5.1 Training and development

An EE plan should be linked to training and development for an EE strategy to be effective, as this supports employers in aligning skills development to EE (Van der Heyden, 2013). To assist organisations to align skills development with EE, several measures such as the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) have been introduced (Esterhuizen, 2008). For example, an organisation's annual Workplace Skills Plan (WSP) for training should be submitted to the Sector Education and Training Authority (SETA) and should have EE as its base. Resources for the development of skills should be assigned to address the under-representation in organisations of designated groups (South Africa. Department of Labour, 2007).

To guarantee an effective EE strategy, training and development should not be limited to improving the skills and knowledge of employees, but should also be directed at developing diversity in organisations, and assisting managers to develop diversity management as a critical management competency (Uys, 2003; Esterhuizen, 2008).

2.5.2 Diversity management

Appreciation for and management of diversity in the workplace are advanced as important aspects of an effective EE strategy (Thomas, et al., 1996). Diversity management relates to a strategy to find and develop a diverse workforce and inclusive workplace, whilst focusing on the skills, policies, and competences required to enhance employees' impact in the organisation (Esterhuizen, 2008; Visconti, 2016). It concerns the competences that are required to manage and develop people effectively, irrespective of their race, gender or disability (Uys, 2003). This competency is attained through diversity training, which is aimed at raising awareness of the benefits associated with having a diverse workforce and combating negative cultural stereotypes (Human, 1993). In order to manage diversity effectively, employers should focus on creating an inclusive organisational culture (Gerard, 2010; Mazur, 2014).

2.5.3 Inclusive organisational culture

Ensuring an inclusive organisational culture is the goal of effective AA implementation (Meyer, 2018). Supervisors must attempt to create an inclusive organisational culture that appreciates diversity and promotes equity and staff retention (Human, 1993). The development of shared meaning demands that employees should invest in the organisation's vision and values, and engage in standard, expected behaviour towards colleagues (Vance, 2006). The value systems of diverse employees should be incorporated to create a new, inclusive organisational culture. This will essentially lead to greater identification with the organisation and its goals, increased employee commitment, and an enhanced sense of belonging, all of which provide employees with a platform to achieve success on the grounds of capability and performance (Esterhuizen, 2008).

2.5.4 Management commitment

The success of AA within SA is largely dependent on commitment from managers; hence, it is clear that this commitment, especially from top management, is vital for the effectiveness of any AA programme in bringing about organisational change and transformation (Elmuti, 1996; Esterhuizen, 2008; Twala, 2004). For AA to be implemented effectively, management should fully embrace its programmes and regard it as a business strategy and not simply as compliance (Van der Heyden, 2013). Affirmative action requires an active, long-term commitment from management to implement, monitor and evaluate the success of its programmes (Monate, 2000). Management should communicate the importance of AA initiatives throughout the organisation in order to demonstrate its commitment to AA programmes (Leonard, 2005).

2.5.5 Transparent communication

The EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) requires that organisations should consult with stakeholders and make information pertaining to EE easily available to employees (Van der Heyden, 2013). Communication is perceived as a critical component of corporate transformation (Leonard & Grobler, 2006). Without effective communication, organisations will be unable to comply with the information

responsibilities they bear in respect of their stakeholders and will not be able to implement their EE strategies successfully. Open and honest communication by management is thus essential for the delivery of AA initiatives (Kovach et al., 2004). If communication is limited to compliance with minimum legal requirements, it is unlikely that long-term transformation and organisational change will be achieved (Leonard & Grobler, 2006). Transparent communication ensures support and buy-in from employees, therefore, management should communicate the need and justification for AA (Kovach et al., 2004).

2.5.6 Justification and diversity management

Justice and fairness are simple requirements for the effective functioning of organisations, and hence employees' perceptions of the fairness of organisational practices impacts on their commitment and productivity levels (Coetzee, 2004). AA programmes are organisational practices that employees judge in terms of fairness, and for this reason, employers need to be mindful of employees' perceptions of them (Cropanzano et al., 2005; Esterhuizen, 2008). Companies that provide effective justifications for a diverse workforce can limit hostile attitudes towards AA programmes (Kidder et al., 2004). The only way to encourage equity and diversity without inviting the charge of reverse discrimination, is to implement fair and easily explained AA programmes (Kidder et al., 2004). If employees are persuaded that AA measures are necessary to restore imbalances that the apartheid regime created, they will be more likely to accept them. AA programmes will only be effective if they comply with legal and fairness requirements (Esterhuizen, 2013). In summary, providing a reasonable justification for AA measures contributes to employees' views of whether these practices are fair (Coetzee, 2004).

2.5.7 Fair employment practices

All employment practices such as the recruitment, selection, promotion and retention of employees from previously disadvantaged groups must remain free of unfair biased practices; if not, these practices and their EE rationale will be at risk of foundering (Thomas, et al., 1996). Job requirements should be revised to ensure that the requirements predict job performance and are not used to exclude particular groups on the grounds of biased criteria (Twala, 2004). All human resources practices should

remain clear and exposed to regular audits to ensure that no unfair discriminatory practices have accidentally crept in (Thomas & Robertshaw, 1999).

2.6 Summary

Affirmative action brings with it both theoretical and practical challenges, evidenced by the fact that employees continue to wrestle with their perceptions of it. The manner in which companies manage AA practices will thus largely contribute to the success or failure of these practices (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994). Women are still discriminated against and some men see the presence of females in the work environment as an invasion of their comfort zone (Kottke & Agars, 2005). Leck et al. (1996) showed in their study that 1412 white male and female employees demonstrated positive attitudes towards an increase in the number of females and previously disadvantaged persons joining their workforce, indicating their belief in the eradication of sex-based discrimination and the equal treatment of all employees, regardless of gender (Doverspike et al., 2006). Several white males, however, appear to have negative opinions about AA policies on the grounds that these are detrimental to their interests. Some of them hold the view that AA means that qualifications and merit are seen as secondary to racial identity (Crosby & VanDeVeer, 2000). Members from previously disadvantaged groups have contradictory attitudes towards AA policies, although the majority of black employees do not appear to hold negative opinions about AA, which they perceive as a necessary, remedial measure to correct past injustices (Buthelezi, 2011). White male respondents in these studies stated that AA promoted incompetent employees, while 65% of Africans did not share this opinion. Given this research evidence, it is clear that perceptions of fairness in regard to AA are critical. Each company has the capacity to make the implementation of AA a success or a failure, and organisations in SA could learn from AA experiences in other countries to improve employees' attitudes towards the practice. Affirmative action may be associated with fear, frustration and dissent, and the above-mentioned issues should be acknowledged and addressed, especially if an organisation is aiming for transformation into a culture of openness (Motileng, 2004).

This chapter has showed how the apartheid era impacted negatively upon previously disadvantaged SAns and limited them in terms of employment opportunities (Mariotti & Fourie, 2014). The rationale for AA within SA today is thus clear. Since the government was in the past actively committed to legislated discrimination, it is critical

that the present SAn government be just as committed to eradicating these injustices (Ackermann, 2012).

The growing necessity to mitigate opposing views and perceptions regarding the fairness of the AA policy has given rise to the development of what is known as the EE Index criteria. This list of criteria has resulted in organisations needing to create “best practice” approaches for the effective execution of the EE plan (Jain et al., 1989). The requirements for best practice include the development of an annual Workplace Skills Plan for training and diversity training. Best practices relating to the implementation of AA also include the full commitment of management, consultation with key stakeholders and access to information pertaining to EE by employees. Organisations are also required to ensure that all employment practices such as the recruitment, selection, promotion and retention of employees from previously disadvantaged groups, remain free of unfair biased practices.

This chapter clarified the concept of AA and reviewed research into employees’ experiences of and attitudes towards AA. The chapter then discussed the practical implications of AA by reviewing research from various countries and highlighting key problems and issues surrounding AA. The chapter identified best practices to ensure the effective implementation of AA, highlighting training and development, diversity management and initiatives to promote an inclusive organisational culture.

The next chapter reviews motivation and morale in relation to AA, focusing on the motivation of individuals to perform following the implementation of AA.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW – EMPLOYEE MORALE AND MOTIVATION

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This logical process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 3.1: Outline of Chapter Three

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study
Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity
Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none">•3.1) Introduction•3.2) Defining motivation•3.3) Morale versus motivation•3.4) Motivation theories•3.5) Morale•3.6) Factors that affect morale•3.7) Impact of morale on the workplace•3.8) Summary
Chapter Four: Research methodology
Chapter Five: Research findings
Chapter Six: Discussion of results
Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter it was pointed out that AA may impact on employees' motivation to perform, as there is a strong link between its implementation and employees' attitudes and productivity (Johnson & Redmond, 2000; Smit, 2006). This chapter therefore reviews employee motivation and morale in relation to AA.

One of the critical components of effective management is motivating employees to achieve organisational objectives (Krumrie, n.d.). This chapter examines what morale and motivation techniques can be employed to engender favourable perceptions of AA. First, the literature about motivation and morale is reviewed in order to define the concepts and show that, while sometimes interchangeable, they are not the same.

This is followed by an account of some of the major theories of motivation postulated over the years. The aim here was to arrive at a theoretical framework appropriate to this study. A summary of key factors affecting EM is then presented in order to convey the importance of morale in the workplace, followed by an overview of the impact that EM has on the workplace.

3.2 Defining motivation

There are over 140 definitions of motivation within the academic literature, (Kitchin, 2017), but only a few will be considered here. They have been selected on the basis of their capacity to enhance an understanding of how motivation is applied in the workplace.

Deriving from the Latin verb *movere*, which means 'to move' (Rue et al., 2012), motivation essentially denotes the will to perform. In an organisational context, motivation is the process that explains one's intensity, direction and persistence of effort towards the achievement of a goal (French et al., 2011). *Intensity* refers to how hard an individual tries to complete a task, and is the element that most people reference when they use the term motivation, however, performing a task with high intensity will not necessarily lead to the desired job performance unless this effort is conveyed in a *direction* that is beneficial to the organisation. It is thus important to consider both the quality of effort that is exerted and its intensity. Effort should be directed towards and aligned with organisational objectives. The last element, *persistence*, concerns how long an employee can sustain their effort. Usually,

motivated employees stay with a task long enough to attain their goal (Robbins et al., 2009).

Motivation is critical for organisational success, as it is effectively the link between employees and their performance level (Roos, 2005). This will ultimately determine the success and profitability of organisations, and those that fail to comprehend the importance of workplace motivation stand to lose their top employees to more satisfying and rewarding opportunities with competitors (French et al., 2011).

Motivation and morale may be are closely related, but they remain conceptually distinct (Juneja, n.d.), as will be discussed below.

3.3 Morale versus motivation

Morale and motivation are concepts that are inherently connected. To be motivated, one must have a high level of morale, while motivating employees effectively increases their morale (Ngwane, 2010; Taillard & Giscoppa, 2013).

Morale is a state of mind that depends on employees' attitudes towards their job, colleagues, employers and supervisors. Morale essentially leads to job satisfaction and when job satisfaction is high, employees are less likely to resign, complain or become problematic (McConnell, 2010). Factors affecting morale pertain to the conditions that trade unions fight for, including salary, benefits, job security, work environment and general quality of life at work (McConnell, 2006). Morale factors are represented in the lower three levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs: survival needs (such as shelter, food and water), safety needs (such as insurance, pension and job security) and social needs (acceptance by work colleagues) (Maslow, 1943; McConnell, 2006).

Motivation, on the other hand, is a cognitive drive that is generated when Maslow's two higher-order needs are satisfied (Maslow, 1954). These are the psychological needs for self-esteem and self-actualisation (reaching one's full potential) (McConnell, 2006). Since the 1950s, there has been a great deal of research based on this and similar theories (Robbins et al., 2009). The following section provides a summary of the most important motivational theories relevant to this study.

3.4 Motivation theories

Several motivational theories have been developed over the last few decades following key experimental research surrounding motivation. There has also been an increase in organisational ability to convert these theories into practical, effective measures to address employee motivation (Burton, 2012). A distinction can be drawn between content-based theories and process-based theories. Content motivational theories aim merely to identify and understand the needs of employees, while process motivational theories aim to explain how and why people choose to fulfil their needs in different ways (Brooks, 2006; Lussier, 2014). Theories relevant to the objectives of this research are discussed below.

3.4.1 Content theories

Content theories, which are also known as “needs theories,” are described as motivational theories characterised by identifying what motivates people (Naoum, 2001). They are primarily concerned with individual goals, which are reckoned to be the same for each person, however, they differ in respect of how they define these goals and the needs that attend them. The most well-known needs theories are Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, Herzberg’s two-factor theory and McClelland’s achievement theory (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). These are discussed below.

3.4.1.1 Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

Abraham Maslow’s (1943) needs hierarchy is based on the notion that people are motivated to fulfil several needs, and that money may satisfy only a few of those needs, either directly or indirectly. This concept proposes that several different levels of needs exist within people, and that these needs relate to each other hierarchically. The hierarchy comprises higher needs and lower needs, with the higher needs becoming activated once the lower needs are met. The figure below illustrates Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943; Naoum, 2001).

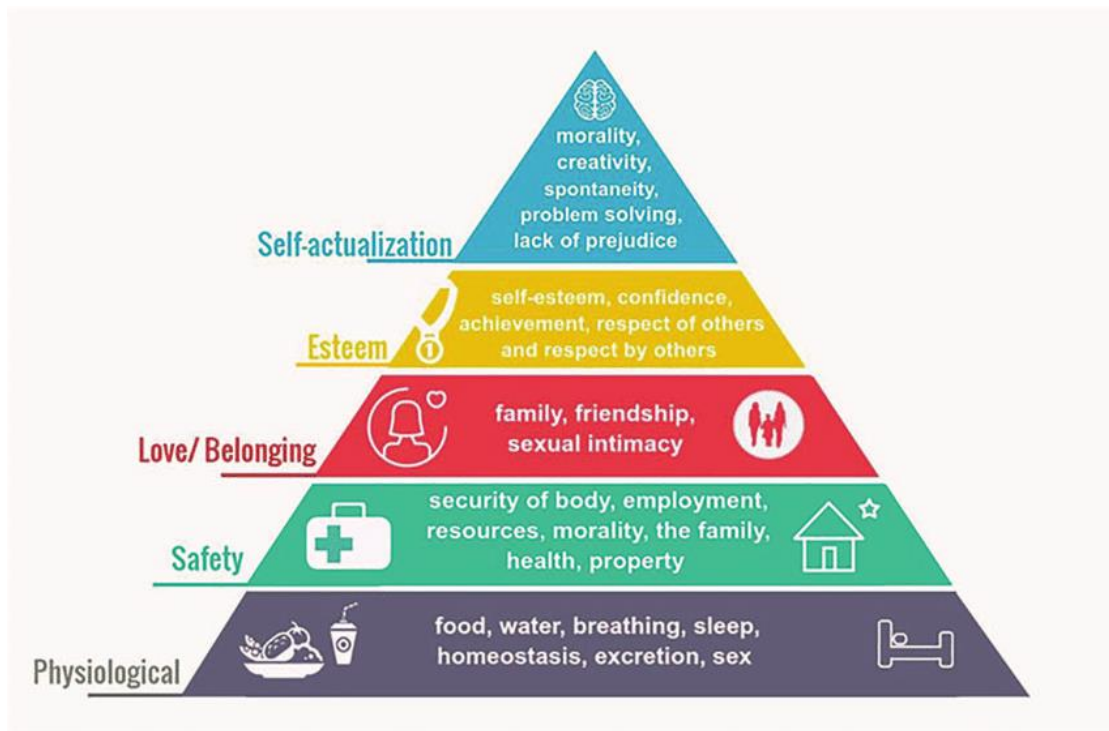


Figure 3.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs (source: Ramakrishnan et al., 2018)

The first level needs, namely *physiological needs*, are needs that must be satisfied for humans to survive. These include essentials for the human body, such as sleep, food, shelter, water, exercise, and so on (Naoum, 2001). Secondly, *safety* or *security needs* refer to protection from harm, danger or deprivation. To an extent, all employees have a dependent relationship with their organisation, and thus safety needs can be essential. Discrimination and favouritism in organisational policies are examples of actions that provoke uncertainty and consequently affect this level of need. Thirdly, *social needs*, which entail the need for love, belonging and affection, are primarily concerned with one's position in relation to others. This level becomes satisfied when people develop meaningful relationships, which in turn develop into significant social groups. Belonging to organisations and identifying with work groups are expressions of meeting these needs in organisations. The fourth level needs, *self-esteem needs*, involve the self-esteem of both oneself and of others. This level influences development in various types of relationships based on competence, independence and the giving and receiving of indications of esteem and acceptance (Kirstein, 2010). The final level, namely *self-actualization needs*, is the highest level of needs and deals with the need for self-fulfilment, which is essential for individuals to reach their full potential by applying their abilities appropriately within their environment. In a sense, this need is never completely satisfied, as one can always reach one step further in life (Rue et al., 2012).

Many contemporary organisations apply Maslow's logic. For instance, compensation strategies are aimed at meeting the lower-order needs, while, conversely, interesting work and opportunities for growth are intended to appeal to the high-order needs. Not much research has been conducted to test the validity of this theory of motivation, and it has mainly been used merely as a basis for other motivation theories (Rue et al., 2012).

Maslow's theory is a widely-cited theory of motivation, and is believed to be more applicable in developing or Third World countries, where financial incentives are a huge motivational factor. Herzberg's two-factor theory, on the other hand, which is an extension of Maslow's theory, is more applicable to rich, First World countries, where money is a less critical motivational factor (Akrani, 2011). SA is considered to be a developing nation with a rising middle-class economy (Bakari, 2017), and is therefore somewhere in-between. The following section presents Herzberg's two-factor theory.

3.4.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg's two-factor theory, also known as the *motivation-hygiene theory*, was proposed by the psychologist Frederick Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959). The theory not only describes the needs of employees, but goes further and explains how to enrich jobs and make employees more motivated. It has received wide attention and acceptance in management circles (Kirstein, 2010).

Herzberg (1968) points out that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not conflicting phenomena. He suggests that the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but instead a simple lack of satisfaction. Similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is simply "no dissatisfaction." Various factors create both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Employees are satisfied at work by factors concerning the content of that work. These factors are known as *intrinsic* motivators and include interesting work, achievement, recognition, responsibility, progression and growth. Factors that cause people to be dissatisfied with their work are known as *hygiene* factors. Herzberg found the following to be *hygiene* factors: company policy, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, salary, status and security. This may be differentiated from motivators in the sense that they are related not to the content of the work, but rather to the context of the job. In Herzberg's research, most recurrently

selected as factors leading to satisfaction were achievement and recognition. Most frequently identified as factors leading to dissatisfaction were company policy and administration, and quality of relationship with supervisors (Herzberg, 1974).

This theory has been subjected to a number of criticisms (Al Kaleedy, 2018). For instance, scholars have questioned the reliability of Herzberg’s methodology, which necessarily involves interpretation. This makes it possible to interpret one response in one manner, and a somewhat similar response completely differently (Kunchala, 2017). Herzberg’s theory was based on knowledge workers (such as accountants and engineers); hence academics have been critical of its capacity for generalisation (Robbins et al., 2009). That is the reason why this theory was not chosen as the theoretical framework for this research, which aims to be generalisable to the larger population.

McClelland’s achievement theory, unlike Hertzberg’s two-factor theory and Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, indicates that some people have higher needs than others, while homing in on three specific needs. This theory provides a deeper understanding of what motivates employees in the workplace and is discussed in the next section.

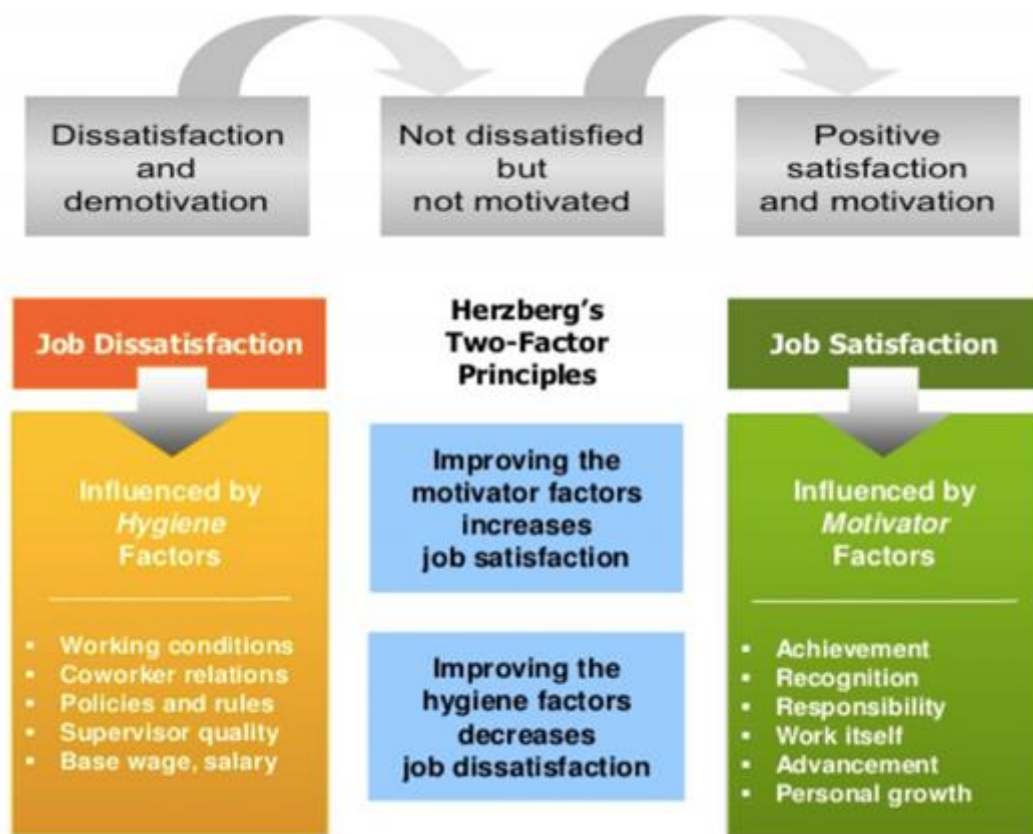


Figure 3.2: Herzberg’s two-factor theory (source: Weiner, 2012)

3.4.1.3 McClelland's theory of needs

Given the problematic nature of Herzberg's methodology, this study gave consideration to McClelland's achievement theory. While Maslow differentiated between specific transitions among the needs, McClelland's achievement theory assumes that some people have higher needs than others, and focuses on three motives that are important in an organisational context: the need for achievement, the need for power and the need for affiliation (Weinberger and McClelland, 1990). The sense of the word *needs* in this context is different from its sense in Maslow's needs hierarchy: Maslow perceived needs to be inherent, while McClelland's theory suggests that needs are learned and become arranged in a hierarchy with the potential to influence behaviour in various ways, depending on the individual (Rue et al., 2012). The need for achievement is a desire to do something more efficiently than before. The need for power is ultimately concerned with the ability to influence people, to be strong and to possess power. The need for affiliation is a desire to be liked by others, to build friendly relationships with others.

Most people have developed each need to an extent, while the level of intensity of each need varies from individual to individual. For instance, some possess a strong need for achievement and have little desire for power, while others have a strong desire for power and little need for achievement (McClelland & Burnham, 1976). Employees who have a high need for affiliation are likely to respond positively to demonstrations of warmth and support by managers; employees who have a high need for achievement are more likely to respond positively when given increased responsibility. Once a need's strength has been developed, it motivates employees' behaviours.

Weinberger and McClelland (1990) claim that these needs are all subconscious, that people may be driven by them but be unaware of it. Measuring them would be difficult, expensive and time consuming (Robbins et al., 2009). To avoid high cost implications through complex data collection techniques, this theory was not used as a theoretical framework for this study.



Figure 3.3: McClelland's theory of needs (Source: Tilahun, 2016)

The content theories all have their strengths and weaknesses and remain controversial. For instance, Maslow's theory became popular in spite of little evidence for its validity. It often seems to be presented in an oversimplified manner (Pinder, 1998). Maslow's hierarchy does not feature in some circumstances, and hence cannot be generalised to the whole population. McClelland's theory inspired many researchers to test whether the author's suggestions were correct. Their results were not always supportive of McClelland's model. Herzberg's two-factor theory was criticised for bias because only two occupational groups were selected. Another reason for scepticism was the fact that people tend to explain their success in terms of internal factors and blame their failure on external ones. This could influence their choices of intrinsic motivators in relation to satisfaction, and of external, organizational factors in relation to frustration. Herzberg's results were also criticized as he did not try to measure the relationship between performance and satisfaction (Armstrong, 2007).

The content theories discussed here focus on factors within individuals that may cause, sustain or stop particular behaviours. The next section discusses theories that focus on how behaviour is caused, sustained or stopped by motivational factors, and are known as process theories.

3.4.2 Process theories

Process theories are not necessarily concerned with attempting to explain the specific factors that motivate employees at work. They are concerned rather with identifying peoples' needs and their relative strengths, as well as the goals that they pursue to meet these needs (Shaban et al., 2017). These theories place emphasis not on *what* motivates, but rather on *how* motivation occurs (Kirstein, 2010). The following section discusses the three main process theories, namely expectancy theory, goal-setting theory and equity theory. These theories provide a useful foundation for discussion of the implementation of AA in the workplace.

3.4.2.1 Vroom's expectancy theory

In the past most organisations assumed that whatever rewards they offered would be valued and appreciated by their employees. Expectancy theory suggests otherwise. Developed by psychologist Victor Vroom (1964), expectancy theory has been presented in many forms, but it is commonly based on the notion that employees' level of motivation depends on their belief about the relationship between effort, performance and outcomes as a consequence of performance, and on the value that employees place on those specific outcomes (Rue et al., 2012). This theory claims that an employee's level of motivation is founded upon the following mathematical formula:

$$\textit{Motivation} = \textit{expectancy} \times \textit{instrumentality} \times \textit{valence}$$

First, ***expectancy*** directs attention to an employee's perception that their effort will result in a desired level of performance. Secondly, ***instrumentality*** refers to an employee's perception of the relationship between performance and outcomes/rewards (Vroom, 1964). The greater one's expectation is for a positive outcome or reward, the greater the chance will be of motivation arising. Lastly, ***valence*** is concerned with the value that an employee places on those outcomes or rewards. The more attractive the outcome/reward is for the employee, the greater the chance for motivation will be (Lussier, 2014).

An organisation's practices and management can influence each component. The expectation that increased performance will follow increased effort can affect the organisation positively by providing correct training and clear direction to employees (Rue et al., 2012). It can be argued that the expectation that improved performance

will result in desired outcomes or rewards, can be entirely influenced by the organisation if management attempts to link rewards to performance. The last component of valence is not always appreciated by organisations. In the past organisations believed that their employees would value any rewards that they received, however, even if this assumption was correct, some rewards are valued more than others (Bhardwaj, 2016). Some rewards such as a promotion that entails being relocated to a different country, could be perceived as unfavourable, depending on the individual. It is thus suggested that organisations should obtain feedback from employees about the kind of outcomes that they prefer, because if companies are spending capital on rewards such as increases in salaries, they should aim to increase their return on investment as much as possible (Scott & McMullen, 2010).

This theory could be recommended to help organisations direct attention to the main aspects of their employees' perceptions (Fincham & Rhodes, 2005). Vroom's theory is helpful in clarifying job-related choices, and in forecasting which tasks employees will work hard at and which they will work least hard at (Kirstein, 2010). One of the weaknesses of expectancy theory is that it relies on management to discover what it is that motivates employees. If management does not do this or does not get it right, then the system will be futile (Guest, 1997).



Figure 3.4: Vroom's expectancy theory (source: Joy, 2018)

3.4.2.2 Locke's goal-setting theory

Goal-setting theory has developed into a mature theory of motivation and one of the most valuable approaches to work motivation available today. Formulated by Edward Locke (1968), this theory argues that the intention to work towards the attainment of achievable, yet challenging goals, rather than easy goals, is a significant source of work motivation. Locke's theory is based on systematic research conducted over a period of 25 years and comprising over 400 studies (Robbins et al., 2009).

Individuals are motivated by specific, challenging goals as opposed to being told to "just do your best." The reason why challenging, specific goals drive employees more is because difficult goals direct their attention to the relevant assignment at hand, as opposed to focusing on irrelevant disruptions. Simply put, challenging goals secure employees' attention and help them to focus (Locke & Latham, 2013). Challenging goals energise employees, since they have to work harder to attain them. The problem with merely telling employees to "just do your best" is that it can be open to more than one interpretation regarding what constitutes performance effectiveness, whereas setting challenging, specific goals removes this vagueness (Robbins et al., 2009).

Goal-setting theory has a natural appeal owing to its relevance to the working environment, however, it does not account for actions that are motivated subconsciously. The theory emphasises how goals correlate with job performance but does not take into consideration *why* setting goals correlates with job performance (Spector, 2003).

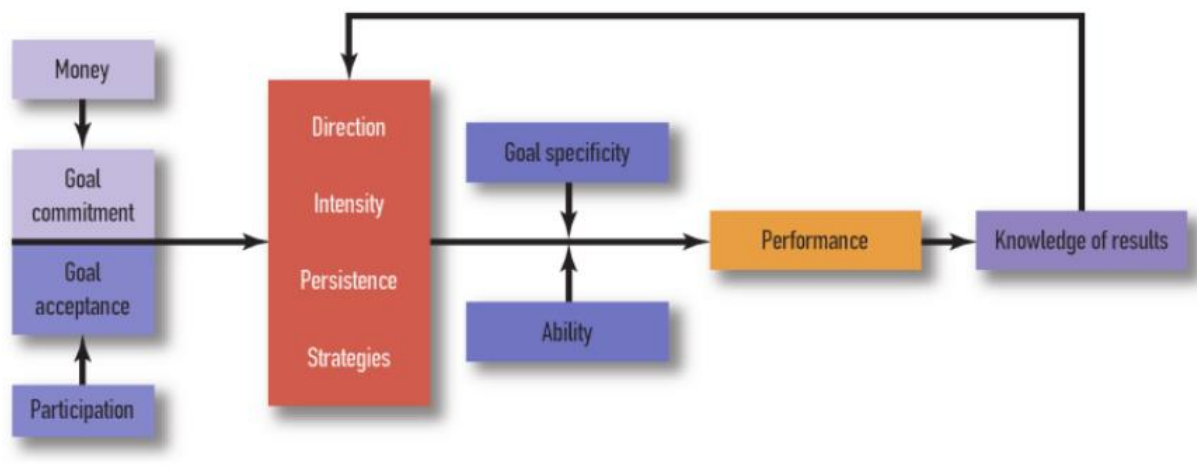


Figure 3.5: Locke's goal-setting theory (source: Landy & Conte, 2010)

3.4.2.3 Adams' equity theory

Equity theory was introduced by behavioural psychologist Stacy Adams (1963), and suggests that individuals are inspired to seek social equity in the rewards that they receive, which are known as *outputs*, as a result of their performance, which is known as *inputs*. Over five decades since its introduction, this theory remains popular today because it shows that an organisation's policies and procedures, along with their execution, can exert considerable influence on an employee's motivation (Lussier, 2014).

In equity theory, people tend to be motivated when their perceived inputs are equivalent to their outputs. People compare their inputs, such as experience, effort, qualifications, seniority and status with the outputs they receive, such as praise, appreciation, salary, incentives, promotions and superiors' approval, in relation to other individuals in similar positions. Those with whom the employees compare themselves may be work colleagues or a group of employees who work at the same or at a different company. If employees feel that they are being treated equally, they will be more driven to attain organisational objectives, especially when the equity relates to financial compensation (Lussier, 2014; Roos, 2005). This statement correlates with Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi's (2012) study, which examined whether pay had an effect on outcomes such as satisfaction. The study confirmed that comparing oneself to others (both inside and outside the organisation) has an effect on pay satisfaction.

It should be noted that people compare their *perceived* (not actual) inputs to outputs. In other words, the equity may not actually be present, but should an employee feel that they are being treated unequally, tension will arise and they will opt to adjust their behaviour in an attempt to establish equity. The sense of inequity may harm attitudes, commitment and cooperation, which will essentially decrease individual, group and overall organisational productivity and performance, and can also be used as a justification for unethical behaviour such as theft. Perceived inequity thus creates tension (Lussier & Achua, 2015).

This tension drives an individual either to achieve equity or to reduce the inequity. When attempting to reduce inequity, a person may take several actions. Specifically, if their inputs are fairly low compared to the other person, they may attempt to increase their inputs. For example, they may work harder in order to enhance their performance

on the job. If their inputs are seemingly higher than the compared person's and their outcomes are the same, then the employee may opt to reduce their inputs and additionally, they could request an increase in pay or, as a last resort, quit their job (Rue et al., 2012).

The comparison of oneself to others occurs in three ways, namely via internal, external or employee equity. Internal equity occurs when employees compare themselves to those who have a different job, but who work in the same organisation. External equity occurs when employees compare themselves to others who have the same job, but who work in a different organisation. Employee equity arises when employees compare themselves to other employees who occupy the same job within the same organisation (Muogbo, 2013).

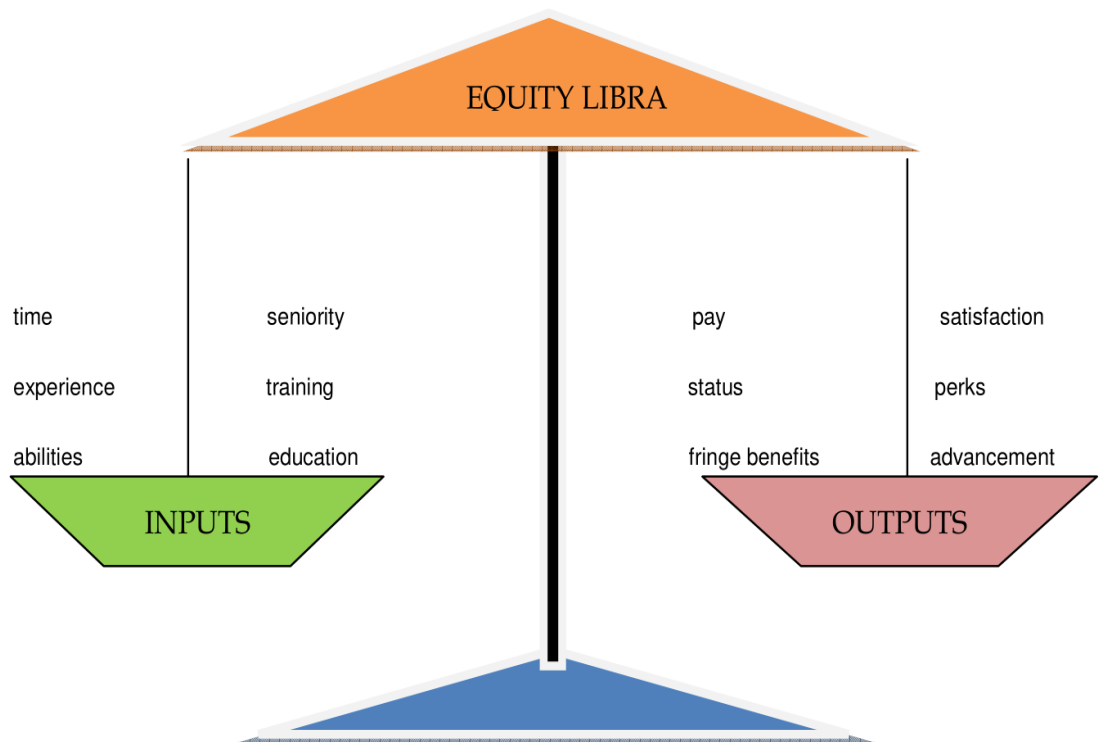


Figure 3.6: Adam's equity theory (Source: Kirstein, 2010)

In summary, Adams' (1963) theory suggests that people are happiest in relationships when their giving and taking is equal. If they believe that they are receiving too little from a relationship, they will be unhappy, while the person who receives more will feel guilty regarding this imbalance. This theory has inspired much research and has served to direct attention to the importance of treating employees fairly, especially considering the consequences of failing to do so. It has received strong empirical

support and provides a sound basis for reviewing the motivational implications of perceived fairness and injustices within the working environment (Spector, 2003).

Equity theory was selected for this study's theoretical framework given that the overall aim of EE in SA is to ensure that designated groups are represented equitably in the workplace. Given the nature of EE, it is contended that non-recipients of EE (white males) will assess their own input-output ratio against recipients of EE (blacks, females and people with disabilities). For the most part, non-recipients will see the input-output ratio as favourable to recipients. According to equity theory, non-recipients will thus attempt to restore a balance by adjusting their input (e.g. decreasing productivity at work, etc.) or their output (battle for a promotion, etc.); or alternatively they will change their comparison group by resigning and moving to a different organisation. Equity theory therefore enables the study to explore how input transaction impacts morale among employees. If AA is a concept that has the principle of equity at its core (Leonard, 2005), it makes sense to use equity theory to analyse its implementation.

Motivation and morale are often used interchangeably, yet they remain two different concepts, and failure to diagnose issues pertaining to morale and motivation among employees can be detrimental within the workplace (Cook, 2017). The next section discusses literature pertaining to morale.

3.5 Morale

On an individual level morale is a state of psychological well-being based on a sense of confidence, usefulness and overall purpose. On a group level morale refers to the spirit of a group (Bowles & Cooper, 2009). Morale concerns individuals' or groups' attitude towards their working environment, supervisors, work colleagues and overall objectives of the organisation (Tanuja, n.d.).

A favourable attitude would be a sign of high morale, meaning that employees are generally more productive. High morale also leads to lower labour turnover, as employees are less likely to quit (Siljander, 2008). On the other hand, an unfavourable attitude would be an indication of low morale, leading to inefficiency, low productivity and unrest among employees (Matsaung, 2014). Morale is a critical aspect of any employee's desire to work, determining their productivity and measuring their

happiness (Senge, 1990; Seroka, 2009). It is therefore viewed as a major variable in the success or failure of an organisation (Haddock, 2010, cited in Matsaung, 2014:19).

3.6 Factors that affect morale

Employee morale is a complex phenomenon and can be affected by a number of factors (Harkless, 2016), including recognition and regard, working relationships, professional development, autonomy and decision making, and workloads.

3.6.1 Recognition and regard

Financial compensation undeniably influences EM, but equally important is the praise and appreciation that employees receive (Gately, 2017). Employee recognition is defined as “informal or formal acknowledgement of an employee’s efforts that supports the organisation’s goals and expectations, and which has clearly been beyond normal expectations” (Harrison, n.d.). When employees are praised and appreciated by their peers and managers for their job performance, they experience a sense of belonging, achievement and significance, which consequently boosts their morale (Matsaung, 2014). Clear recognition of employee behaviour makes work more meaningful and strengthens the working relationship between the employee who receives the recognition and the person who provides it (Vance, 2006).

3.6.2 Working relationships

Many employees spend more time with co-workers than they do with their own family, so it is important for them to develop quality relationships with co-workers (McFarlin, 2018). Considering the amount of time that employees spend in each other’s presence, the forging of effective relationships in the workplace can directly improve EM. As co-workers become more friendly with each other, they look forward to spending time together while working, however, a rigid and hostile working environment leads to arguing and ‘back biting’, which erodes EM significantly (Rockman, 2003). Through strong working relationships, employees develop a supportive network for skills development by sharing techniques and strategies, which ultimately leads to a more knowledgeable workforce with improved capabilities and a broader range of skills (Lister, n.d.).

3.6.3 Professional development

Professional development encourages staff to build on their skills, attitudes and knowledge, and is essential to boost EM (Crawford, 2016). When organisations provide their staff with professional development opportunities, they are indicating that they have the best interests of their employees at heart, and this feeling of support elevates EM (Meyerson, 2013). A lack of adequate support and feelings of being under-utilised in jobs could, however, lead to low EM (Sheridan, 2017). In sum, making professional development opportunities available to employees is an effective way of enhancing EM, while simultaneously creating for the organisation a more productive and skilled workforce (Assad, n.d.). Once employees have utilised developmental opportunities, they should be empowered in terms of making decisions (Gonell, 2014).

3.6.4 Autonomy/decision making

Autonomy relates to the degree of freedom that employees enjoy while working, as opposed to their being micro-managed (Robertson, n.d.). Greater autonomy is often associated with more opportunities, which essentially improves EM and moreover, enables employees to handle stressful situations such as heavy workloads (Gashi, 2014; Hussung, 2015).

3.6.5 Workload

Heavy workloads carry many implications for organisations throughout the world, and often lead to low morale, which is a great concern (Price, 2007; Turner, 2013). Employees can experience a hefty workload for numerous reasons, including retrenchments resulting in staff shortages and therefore more work for a decreased number of employees. This could undermine the relationship between management and employees and have a detrimental impact on EM, manifesting in workplace issues such as low productivity, absenteeism and employee turnover (Van der Hulst, 2003).

It is clear that these factors can influence EM positively or negatively and affect the success or failure of the organisation, depending on how they are managed (Matsaung, 2014). Employee morale can be the fire that enables an organisation to succeed, or the fuel that contributes to employee dissatisfaction (Ewton, 2007). The following section discusses the impact of morale on the workplace.

3.7 Impact of morale on the workplace

High morale in the workplace inspires organisations and enables employee excellence. When morale is high it leads to a calmer working environment to achieve organisational goals, and reduces workplace absenteeism and organisational stress. High morale in the workplace creates a competitive edge, both in decent times and during periods of decline (Bowles & Cooper, 2009), whereas low morale in the workplace could be a serious organisational concern, as its importance and impact on profits, productivity and competitiveness have potentially detrimental implications for organisational objectives (Blankenship, 2014). The section below reviews the impacts of high and low morale on the workplace.

3.7.1 High morale amongst staff

The revenue of an organisation is largely determined by the level of morale amongst employees (Paycor, 2018). Organisations with staff who have high morale perform better financially, have a competitive edge, and retain and attract talented employees, as opposed to organisations whose staff have a low morale (Bowles & Cooper, 2009).

3.7.1.1 Competitive edge and retaining employees

When EM is high it is easier to resolve an organisational crisis (DeFranzo, 2013). During tough times employees with low morale will 'jump ship' and resort to new employment, whereas employees who have high morale will group together and work collectively as one, acting more as 'owners' of the organisation (Bowles, 2010). Once employees decide to resign from an organisation by 'jumping ship,' the cost of replacing them is enormous (Ngambi, 2011). Boushey and Glynn (2017) support this, as they found that each time a paid employee leaves an organisation, it could cost up to 9 months of salary to replace them.

High morale not only attracts employees in general, but specifically talented ones (Keller & Meaney, 2017). Talented employees may have more career options than less talented employees, however, they may refuse to work for organisations with a negative reputation for EM (Richards, 2010). High EM also helps to retain employees, as they tend to remain at organisations that treat them well (Amar, 2002). The cost of having to replace an employee is often significant when taking into account the agency

fee (if applicable), administrative tasks such as advertising the vacancy, the preparation and the time that it takes the employer to conduct interviews, draft the employment contract and arrange induction training (Boushey & Glynn, 2012). By retaining employees, the costs of having to replace them and train their replacements are avoided, and productivity is not affected (Seppälä & Cameron, 2015).

3.7.1.2 Productivity

Neely (1999) found that there was a direct relationship between productivity and morale in the workplace. Organisations with high staff morale are not burdened with the negative situations associated with employees with low morale, and offer working environments that are less fearful and stressful (Bowles, 2010). Organisations that experience low levels of morale often spend valuable working time 'putting out fires' caused by disaffected employees and replacing employees who have resigned, whereas organisations that experience high levels of morale can dedicate this time to becoming more productive (Lawler, 2015; Ngambi, 2011). Employees in high morale environments are enthusiastic about getting to work and being productive, whereas employees in low morale environments can hardly wait to leave work as soon as the working day is over (Bowles & Cooper, 2009). A study by Oswald et al. (2015) supports this, indicating that productivity increased by 12% as a result of happy employees with high morale; unhappy employees with low levels of morale were 10% less productive.

It is evident that EM is critically important and can be instrumental in an organisation's success, while if not managed effectively, can lead to dissatisfaction and failure (Osabiya, 2015).

3.7.2 Low staff morale

The impact of low morale on the workplace can have a detrimental impact on the organisation as a whole, with a cost potentially huge (McNee, 2017). The section below describes the kinds of impact that low morale can have on an organisation.

3.7.2.1 Absenteeism

Employee morale is connected to absenteeism from the workplace (Ewton, 2007; Neely, 1999). Locally, absenteeism from work reportedly costs SAn organisations over R16 billion a year when only taking into account direct payroll costs. This figure

increases when the loss of productivity is factored in (Leblond, 2019). Abroad, the Gallup-Sharecare Well-Being Index (2017) indicates that absenteeism in the workplace costs the United States approximately \$24 billion annually. Low morale is thus accompanied by high costs (Matsaung, 2014). When absenteeism is high the organisation and productivity suffer, since the higher the absenteeism, the lower the productivity (Makawatsakul & Kleiner, 2003).

3.7.2.2 Lower productivity

Happy employees are generally productive employees, and there is a definite relationship between EM and productivity in the workplace (Preston, 2017). When EM is low, decreased productivity can prevent an organisation from achieving its goals. Low productivity has additional negative impacts on the workplace; for instance, there is a strong relationship between productivity and profitability (Kokemuller, 2017). This is supported by a study conducted by The Gallup Organisation (2007, as cited in Blankenship, 2014), which found that there are approximately 22 million disengaged employees in the United States, costing the economy \$350 billion annually in loss of productivity. Low productivity levels thus weaken an organisation's financial performance (Grifell-Tatjé & Lovell, 2015).

3.7.2.3 Financial performance

Profitability increases when morale increases and as a result, it can be argued that there is a positive correlation between EM and an organisation's financial performance (Smedley, 2016; Matthews, 2016). When EM is high it increases an organisation's stock price (Bowles, 2010). Sirota et al. (2005) found significant differences in the financial performance of organisations with high morale as opposed to those with low morale. Companies that reported high morale had stock gains of 19.44%, whereas companies that reported low morale had stock gains of 10.13%. It is thus evident that EM can be positively correlated with high stock prices and better overall financial performance (Bowles & Cooper, 2009).

The above discussion clearly demonstrates the powerful impact that EM can have on the workplace, and once organisations direct attention towards improving EM, not only will employees look forward to the working day, but the organisation itself will reap the benefits of newly found efficiencies (Sirota et al., 2005).

3.8 Summary

The literature review traced the historical background and development of AA, insofar as it has affected the active workforce in SA. The social controversy over AA will possibly only be resolved once the disadvantage of previously disadvantaged people is perceived to have been overcome. Until that day arrives, the debate continues (Kellough, 2006). It is clear that irrespective of whether it is in SA, Canada or the United States, there are mixed feelings about AA, since some employees view it as a positive measure that has created developmental opportunities, while others perceive it as prejudiced against those who are not beneficiaries of the policy (Colamery, 1998). There is a growing necessity for mitigating opposing views and perceptions regarding fairness around the implementation of the AA policy.

This chapter began by reviewing literature about motivation and morale, providing definitions of these concepts that apply to the context of this study, the work environment. While the terms 'morale' and 'motivation' are sometimes interchangeable, the concepts are not the same.

Both content and process theories of motivation were discussed with the aim of arriving at a theoretical framework appropriate for this study, including Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory, McClelland's theory of needs, Vroom's expectancy theory, Locke's goal-setting theory and Adams' equity theory. The overall aim of EE in SA is to ensure that designated groups are represented equitably in the workplace and thus equity theory was selected for this study's theoretical framework. Given the nature of EE, it is contended that non-recipients of EE (white males) will compare their input-output ratio with that of recipients of EE (blacks, females and people with disabilities) and for the most part, view this ratio as favourable to recipients. According to equity theory, non-recipients will consequently attempt to restore balance by either adjusting their input (e.g. decreasing productivity at work, etc.), output (battle for a promotion, etc.), or alternatively, they will change their comparison group by resigning and moving to a different organisation. Equity theory therefore enabled the study to explore how input transaction impacts morale among employees.

Factors affecting EM were discussed, including recognition and regard, working relationships, professional development, autonomy and decision making, and workloads. Next, the impact of high and low morale on the workplace was reviewed,

showing that high morale leads to a competitive edge, employee retention and improved productivity, whereas low morale leads to higher absenteeism and lower productivity, negatively impacting on an organisation's financial performance.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This logical process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 4.1: Outline of Chapter Four

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study

Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity

Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation

Chapter Four: Research methodology

- 4.1) Introduction
- 4.2) Research philosophy
- 4.3) Quantitative and qualitative research paradigms
- 4.4) Research design
- 4.5) Research population
- 4.6) The questionnaire
- 4.7) Statistical analysis
- 4.8) Questionnaire structure
- 4.9) Reliability and validity of the questionnaire
- 4.10) Drop-off and pick-up method
- 4.11) Data collection
- 4.12) Data capturing and processing
- 4.13) Incentivising respondents
- 4.14) Ethical considerations
- 4.15) Summary

Chapter Five: Research findings

Chapter Six: Discussion of results

Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

4.1 Introduction

Research methodology is the process of systematically answering the research question under investigation (Bless et al., 2006). This chapter describes how the research was executed in order to produce a comprehensive and meaningful research report. The chapter begins by discussing the research philosophy applied and research paradigm that the study utilised before examining the research design in detail. The research design can be characterised as the framework in which the research is conducted in order to answer the research questions and achieve the overall objectives of the study (Chawla & Sodhi, 2011). The chapter then describes the research population and provides an outline of the sampling method used to identify a representative sample of that population.

The instrument used to collect data, one of the most important components of the research design, is then presented (Kelley et al., 2003). The structure, validity and reliability of the instrument are considered, as no study can obtain success without a well-designed and effective research instrument (Bolarinwa, 2015).

The data collection process is described, before a closing discussion of ethical considerations relating to the study.

4.2 Research philosophy

Research philosophy refers to a world within which research is situated. It is the ideal model which researchers adopt to solve research problems (Quinlan et al., 2015). It ultimately calls for the research study to fit in line with steps, purpose and focus of the research philosophical framework. This philosophical framework becomes critical throughout the research process and enables the researchers to select an appropriate research strategy for the study (Quinlan et al., 2015) There are two main research philosophies, namely positivism philosophy and interpretivism philosophy (Welman et al., 2005), which are discussed below.

4.2.1 Positivism philosophy

Positivism philosophy is based on a philosophical approach known as logical positivism (Welman et al., 2005). The positivism underlies the natural scientific

method in human behavioural research and holds that research must be limited to what can be observed and measured objectively, which exists independently of the feelings and opinions of individuals. The natural scientific approach endeavours to formulate laws that apply to populations and explains the causes of objectively observable and measurable behaviour. People other than the researcher should agree on what is being observed. This philosophy is founded on the grounds of factual data and uses the quantitative research methodology (Quinlan et al., 2015).

4.2.2 Interpretivism philosophy

Interpretivism philosophy is the opposing philosophy and is based on the idea of interpreting elements of the study, therefore, interpretivism incorporates human interest into a study (Quinlan et al., 2015). This philosophy is based on the grounds that the world consists of people's subjective experiences. This approach is based on naturalistic approaches to data collection, including interviews and observations. Interpretivism philosophy uses the qualitative research methodology (Myers, 2008).

This research study adopted and applied the positivism philosophy. The rationale for adopting the positivism philosophy was owing to the nature and magnitude of this research study, with the data collection method in this study consisting of questionnaires, which is positivistic in nature (Wilson, 2010).

4.3 Quantitative and qualitative research paradigms

The paradigms within which research problems are addressed comprise quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods approaches (the latter a combination of the quantitative and qualitative paradigms) (Best & Kahn, 2002). The quantitative research paradigm entails the use of numerical measurement and statistical analyses to examine social phenomena (Struwig & Stead, 2001). Quantitative research typically involves a large sample of respondents and makes use of questionnaires and surveys. These produce data that can be generalised to the entire population. Its counterpart, qualitative research, is mainly used for exploratory research, to uncover trends in thoughts and opinions and delving deeper into underlying issues (Welman et al., 2005). Qualitative research tends to involve the use of semi-structured interviews, focus groups and observation; the sample size is ordinarily small and respondents are chosen to fulfil a particular quota. A combination of these paradigms results in a mixed-method

approach (Polonsky & Waller, 2005). This form of research allows for a broader view of the research problem. The use of both methods allows researchers to improve the reliability and validity of their findings, balancing out the individual disadvantages of two basic approaches (Connolly, 2007), however, this form of research is costly and time-consuming (Ngwane, 2010).

Quantitative research paradigm was followed during this research study, owing to the nature and objectives of this research study. The overall rationale for selecting this approach is that it allows the researcher to gather data from a large sample of respondents in an efficient and economical manner (Andrew et al. 2019) and equally important is that the sample may be selected in such a way as to be representative of the entire research population (McLeod, 2018).

4.4 Research design

Research design is the framework in which the research is conducted to answer the research questions and achieve the overall objectives of the study (Esterhuizen, 2008). Part of the purpose of a research design is to ensure that the relations between the dependent and independent variables are not subject to alternate interpretations (Labaree, 2009). An effective research design follows a logical process by linking the research questions to data collection to answer the research questions as clearly as possible. From the various options available, the research design should be selected according to its ability to obtain data that is appropriate to answer the research questions at hand (Yin, 2003).

This study made use of the survey research method, which is discussed below.

4.4.1 Survey research

Survey research is a design in which researchers gather facts or attempt to determine the relationship among facts. Surveys are frequently used, as they make it easier to study things that are not necessarily easily visible, such as peoples' beliefs and attitudes (Kendall, 2011). Survey research is quantitative in nature and is appropriate to examine the relationship between two variables (Henn et al., 2006). This study examines the relationship between the variables EE and EM and as such, the quantitative survey approach seemed suitable.

Surveys have several advantages and disadvantages (Debois, 2016). Questionnaire-based survey research tends to attract fairly low response rates (Wallace & Van Fleet, 2012), though there are several ways to improve these (DeFranzo, 2013). They include providing a cover letter with the questionnaire that furnishes information respondents would want to know, such as background about the researcher, how to contact him or her, and the purpose of the study. Making information available to the respondents influences the response rates (Monette et al., 2011). The cover letter should include the purpose of the study and the possible benefits that can be expected to accrue from it (Albers & Mazur, 2013).

A low response rate to a questionnaire, on the other hand, may be due to some respondents' inability to questions that are too complex or that make them feel uncomfortable. Surveys are thus only appropriate for respondents with a minimum level of education (Cargan, 2007). Once they have been distributed, control over questionnaires is lost as they cannot be changed during the data collection process (Tripathy, 2017), however, not being able to adapt a questionnaire may also be perceived as an advantage, as it helps to ensure precision and fairness in the study (Sincero, n.d.).

Advantages of survey research include that questionnaires can be administered to large samples, generating dependable and reliable results (Bhattacharyya, 2003). When administered to a random sample, questionnaires can provide a comprehensive view of attitudes and beliefs with a small sampling-range error (Cargan, 2007). Questionnaires are also fairly cheap when compared with interviews, and their administration is less time consuming (Miller & Brewer, 2003).

The survey research method, using self-administered questionnaires, was therefore selected for this study. It allowed for the collection of data from a large number of respondents simultaneously, which is efficient (Welman et al., 2005), while being an inexpensive, quick and accurate way of assessing information about the population. The following section reviews the population and sample in the study.

4.5 Research population

The research population comprises the group of individuals about whom a research question needs to be answered, while the sample comprises the individuals who are selected to participate in the study. The research problem relates to a specific population, and the research population encompasses the total collection of all those about whom the study wishes to draw conclusions (Welman et al., 2005). The reason for using a sample rather than the entire population is that it would be impractical to obtain data from all the members, given the time, money and other resources required (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

The population of this study consisted of employees from designated groups (blacks, Coloureds, Indians, Chinese, women and people with disabilities) and from the non-designated group (white males) in a large public service organisation. The logic for selecting this population was that both designated and non-designated employees were well represented in the organisation, which had undergone a number of EE initiatives.

The following section describes how the sample was drawn from the selected organisation.

4.5.1 Sampling

Sampling is the process of selecting people from a larger population so that by studying the sample, the study may generalise the research findings back to the population from which it was selected (Trochim, 2006). It is the process of selecting respondents either based on a predetermined criterion, or randomly. A sample may thus be drawn by using a probability or non-probability sampling design (Dunn, 2010).

In probability sampling, elements of the population have some known chance of being selected as sample subjects. This kind of sampling involves selecting a random sample from the population. Probability sampling is based on the idea that a sample can be selected that will mathematically represent the population. The most common form of probability sampling is simple random sampling, whereby each element in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample (Berg, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010), whereas conversely, non-probability sampling involves drawing a

sample from the population according to particular criteria. It entails judgements made by the researcher to achieve particular objectives for the research study (Henry, 1990).

The most popular form of non-probability sampling is availability sampling (Blumberg et al., 2011), also known as convenience sampling. With availability sampling, respondents are selected merely because they are readily available and easy to find. In this study, questionnaires were distributed to available and interested respondents. The rationale for selecting availability sampling is its convenience, which allowed the study to obtain a desirable sample size in a relatively short time (Saunders et al., 2009). A key drawback of availability sampling is that it offers no guarantees that the sample will be representative (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009).

4.5.2 Sample size

In research, the larger the sample, the more accurate the conclusions that can be drawn (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006). There are no specific guidelines as to what percentage of an entire population should be investigated, however, Welman et al. (2005) suggest that as a general rule, if a population size is 500, then the sample size should be 200. In this study, the selected public service organisation had approximately 500 employees and therefore the study aimed to achieve a sample size of 200.

4.6 The questionnaire

A questionnaire is a document comprising a set of questions, usually distributed to a large group of individuals with the purpose of obtaining their input on the topic being researched (Sarlis & Gallhofer, 2014). Questionnaires can either be structured or unstructured. A structured questionnaire provides respondents with different options for each question, and requires them to select the most applicable option (i.e. closed-ended questions). Conversely, unstructured questionnaires do not offer respondents pre-determined options, but allow them to answer questions in their own words (i.e. open-ended questions) (Babbie, 1998). In this study, unstructured questionnaires would have reduced cooperation significantly without offering much additional useful and helpful information (Timpany, 2016), therefore, the study utilised a structured questionnaire approach (two questionnaires were administered).

One of the advantages of questionnaires is the convenience of accessibility. It allows one to collect data from a biologically distributed sample at a relatively lower cost, compared to interviews. Researchers do not necessarily have to be physically present to ask questions, allowing for a far larger sample to be considered, and creating an opportunity to collect extensive quantities of information in less time (Gratton & Jones, 2010). Surveys ensure that respondents have a greater sense of anonymity, which improves the validity of the responses. They feel more comfortable expressing their real attitudes, especially when the topic of the research is a sensitive one (Cargan, 2007).

The questionnaire used in this research study was previously used in a study by Jooste (2014). This questionnaire had been utilised in the SAn context, to investigate and assess the impact of AA on the motivation of employees at a selected private organisation. The questionnaire had acceptable reliability and demonstrated validity for measurement of the perceptions of fairness. Written permission to use the questionnaire was obtained from its author (see Annexure A).

The most important part of a questionnaire is its structure, as it could mean the difference between respondents completing it or leaving questions unanswered as a result of some form of frustration (DeFranzo, 2014). Obtaining a high response rate would be pointless if the questions were biased or ambiguous. Structuring a questionnaire is a process that entails considerable attention to detail; for instance, the order of the questions is crucial as it determines the respondent's willingness to continue after the first question (Druckman, 2005). The way questions sound to those answering them can have a great impact on their desire to complete the questionnaire.

Questionnaires can either be physical hardcopies that are personally administered to respondents, or they can be sent electronically to respondents' email addresses. Both methods have their distinctive features, especially considering the impact that internet usage and computer-mediated communication has had on the research community (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

The disadvantage of using online questionnaires stems from technical issues such as a poor internet connection. The readability of the questionnaire is critical. Physical hardcopy questionnaires are often easier for respondents to read, especially those who

are visually impaired and find it difficult to view text on a computer monitor. Given that questionnaires have been used for an extended period in the research community, physical hardcopy questionnaires are usually the preferred means of surveying respondents (Abbott & McKinney, 2013).

The questionnaires were therefore physically distributed to respondents, to accommodate non-tech savvy respondents who might not have had access to an internet connection or computer. The format and design of the questionnaire are described in the following sections.

4.6.1 Open-ended vs closed-ended questions

Questions can be either open-ended or closed-ended. Open-ended questions are common during interviews, when the interviewer asks the interviewee a question without specifying the range of permissible answers. Open-ended questions are mainly used in qualitative research studies. Conversely, closed-ended questions are questions that a respondent answers by selecting an option from a list provided. This type of question is popular in quantitative research studies, and yields responses that are easier to process than is the case with open-ended questions (Babbie, 2007; Welman et al., 2005).

This study made use of a structured questionnaire comprising closed-ended questions. Respondents were given a list of four options to choose from, namely: strongly agree; agree; disagree; and strongly disagree. The responses were limited to four because research suggests that respondents have difficulty keeping more than four choices in mind at a time (Pew Research Centre, n.d.). Another advantage is that respondents are not restricted to a simple yes or no, but can express degrees of opinion (McLeod, 2018).

It is important to consider the educational level of respondents and avoid the use of jargon (Randle, 2011). The questions in this study's questionnaire were thus couched in simple language that was easily understandable to ensure that the respondents understood them (Pew Research Centre, n.d).

An advantage of asking closed-ended questions is that the answers are more easily compared and analysed; moreover, the response rate of questionnaires containing

closed-ended questions is higher than that of those containing open-ended questions, as it takes less time to complete them. Research also suggests that respondents are more likely to answer questionnaires about sensitive topics when the questions are closed-ended (McLeod, 2018).

4.6.2 Positive versus negative questions

Duval et al. (2007) note that when completing questionnaires, respondents can begin to sense a pattern of answers to questions and will thus hastily, without much reflection, tick their way through the questionnaire. Interrupting the positive or negative orientation of questions slows the respondents down, encouraging more reflective answering. The questionnaire in this study contained both positively and negatively worded questions, maintaining the interest and attention of respondents (Duval et al., 2007). The coding of these questions remained the same, with some layout changes, however, if a questionnaire contains negative questions, it is necessary to recode the values of the variables (Grace-Martin, 2019). The next section therefore focuses on the methods of statistical analysis that the study utilises.

4.7 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis is the process of reviewing relationships between various sets of data. This involves analysing and drawing meaningful interpretation and reporting of research findings (Ali & Bhaskar, 2016). In this study, IBM SPSS v.25 was used to analyse the collected data. The data was therefore expressed through descriptive and inferential statistics.

4.7.1 Recoding variables

The recoding of questions essentially involves replacing some codes with different codes (Grace-Martin, 2019). In this study, the research questionnaire contained a mixture of positive and negative questions and as a result, reverse coding had to be done in some instances.

4.7.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics refers to a set of techniques used to organise and summarise data (Holcomb, 2016) and represent separate single variables in a simple manner (Zikmund & Babin, 2006). Descriptive statistics thus displays features such as central tendency, distribution and validity. To present item statistics, the study makes use of

mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis as measures of the dispersion of the data obtained.

4.7.2.1 Mean

The central tendency of distribution scores is regarded as one of the most important concepts in descriptive statistics (Hanneman et al., 2012). It is a statistical procedure to find a single value that is most representative of the entire group (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). The first measure of central tendency is the mean (often referred as the average in a data set), a set of values calculated by adding all the values in a data set and dividing it by the number of values (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The mean provides information regarding central tendency, however, it does not shed light on the dispersion of data (Lee et al., 2013). Standard deviation is used to measure the dispersion within the data collected.

4.7.2.2 Standard deviation

Measures of dispersion indicate how spread out the values are around the central value (Walker & Maddan, 2013). The most commonly used measure of dispersion is the standard deviation, which involves calculating the square root of the variance which indicates the dispersion around the mean (Ethridge, 2015). The larger the standard deviation, the larger the variance will be in the data set (Khan et al., 2012).

4.7.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics allow for the presentation of data in a statistical format to enable the identification of patterns and to make data analysis more meaningful (Nkomo, 2013). The inferential statistical methods applied in this study include the Pearson correlation coefficient, Independent Samples T-test and One-Way ANOVA.

4.7.3.1 Pearson's correlation

Correlations refer to a statistic that analyses relationships between two variables to measure the strength and direction of the relationship, thus helping us to understand that relationship (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Beaudry & Miller, 2016). There are two main types of correlation coefficients, namely Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient and Spearman's rank-order correlation coefficient (Mukaka, 2012). In this

study, the relationship between EE and EM dimensions (Hypothesis 1) will be analysed using Pearson's correlation coefficient, as it shows the degree to which the variables move in unison or opposition. Usually referred to as the "Pearson r " or merely " r ," the Pearson r calculation returns a value between -1 and +1 (Rubin, 2012). When the Pearson r is greater than zero, a positive relationship exists between the two variables; when the Pearson r is less than zero, a negative relationship exists between the two variables. On the other hand, a Pearson r of zero (0) indicates that no relationship exists between two variables (Norman & Streiner, 2008). The rule of thumb for interpreting Pearson r results comprises the following: 0 to 0.20 is negligible; 0.21 to 0.35 is weak; 0.36 to 0.67 is moderate; 0.68 to 0.90 is strong and 0.91 to 1.00 is considered extremely strong (Prion & Haerling, 2014).

The tests described below produce a statistical output in the form of a p-value (p), which is a measure of the probability of the observed relationship having arisen by chance (Nahm, 2017). In research, the cut-off level for determining statistical significance is set at 0.05 (Rubin, 2012). If the p-value of the study is >0.05 , the observed relationship is not statistically significant, whereas if the p-value is <0.05 , the observed relationship is statistically significant (Utts & Heckard, 2006). A reported p-value of 0.000 indicates a result that was highly significant (Rubin, 2012); in other words, that the results were highly unlikely to have occurred by chance. As reporting a p-value as 0.000 is frowned upon, the figure should be reported as $p<.001$.

4.7.3.2 One-Way ANOVA

A One-Way Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) is a statistical method to compare differences between three or more independent (unrelated) groups (Heiman, 2010). In this research study, a One-Way ANOVA was thus conducted to compare the differences in perceptions of EE and EM based on race at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town.

4.7.3.3 Independent Samples t Test

An Independent Samples t Test is a type of inferential statistic used to compare difference between two groups in the population, such as gender differences. It should be noted that the sample of men is not related to the sample of women, as there is no overlap between these two samples (i.e. one cannot be a member of both groups)

(Heiman, 2010). In this study, two Independent Samples *t* Tests were performed to compare the means for perceptions of EE and EM dimensions. The first Independent Samples *t* Test was performed to compare perceptions between men and women, and the second to compare perceptions between whites and non-whites, to determine whether their perceptions were significantly different at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town. The following section discusses the structure of the questionnaire.

4.8 Questionnaire structure

For a survey to be effective, it is essential to include a brief introduction to the study, highlighting its purpose and the overall structure of the questionnaire (Coetzee, 2004). The latter is discussed below.

4.8.1 Introduction

At the beginning of the questionnaire there was a brief introduction to set the tone for the rest of the survey. Most potential respondents will decide whether or not they will continue with the questionnaire based solely on the first page (Fluid Survey University, 2013). Without the provision of information about the study, respondents may feel suspicious or uncomfortable about it. The questionnaire thus began with an introduction that sought to encourage respondents to complete it.

The introduction identified the purpose of the study, furnishing sufficient information to allow the respondents to make an informed, rational decision to participate. The questionnaire consisted of five sections, covering socio-demographic items, orientation items, behavioural questions and content-related questions. The measuring instrument itself comprised 67 closed-ended questions, which were divided into three sections, as detailed below.

4.8.2 Section A: Biographical details

Section A of the questionnaire was designed to collect respondents' biographical information. This information ensures that data is gathered from the targeted population, while knowing the distribution of respondents' demographic characteristics assists in determining how closely the sample replicates the population. It also presents an opportunity to differentiate between sub-groups (Dobronte, 2013), to determine whether differences exist in the perceptions of EE and EM among

respondents of different genders and races. The biographical data collected therefore included information regarding respondents' identified race, identified gender, nationality, age, whether the respondent has a disability, their current position and rank in the organisation, the number of years spent in that position, and their highest educational level.

4.8.3 Section B: Perceptions of employment equity

Section B of the instrument consisted of 30 statements concerning EE dimensions, which were linked to EE best practices as established in Chapter 2 and presented in Table 4.2, below.

Table 4.2: EE dimensions in line with EE best practice

Dimension	EE Best Practice
Vision and strategy	Inclusive organisational culture
Leadership	Management commitment
Transformation	Transparent communication
Human Resources practices	Fair employment practices
Performance appraisal	Training and development
Gender equity	Fair employment practices
Valuing diversity	Justification and diversity management
Conflict management	Transparent communication
Interpersonal diversity	Transparent communication

The EE dimensions measured by the 30 items in the questionnaire are presented below.

4.8.3.1 Vision and strategy

To achieve an inclusive organisational culture, employees need to invest in the organisation's vision and employees need to buy into its EE strategy (Jooste, 2014; Ayad & Rahim 2016). The statements in the questionnaire, referring to vision and strategy are found in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Vision and strategy statements

Question no.	Question
1	I personally agree with the organisation's vision to provide the best Correctional Services for a safer SA.
2	The diverse strategy of the organisation enables it to be an employer of choice.
3	Diversity is driven as a strategic focus area in my department.

4.8.3.2 Leadership

Support and commitment from management is an essential success factor in the implementation of EE (Esterhuizen, 2008). Employees' perceptions concerning the effectiveness of leadership and management in the implementation of the organisation's equity plan may affect their satisfaction levels with other organisational practices (Jooste, 2014). The statements in the questionnaire referring to leadership are found table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Leadership statements

Question no.	Question
4	My supervisor does not set a good example for everyone to follow.
5	My supervisor is a good leader.
6	My supervisor is consistent in the way that he/she treats us.
7	I do not trust my supervisor.

4.8.3.3 Transformation

When one is dealing with organisational transformation, communication is critical (Barker & Angelopulo, 2006). Communication is an essential component in the successful implementation of EE practices, since consistent, open communication helps to overcome resistance to change (Esterhuizen, 2008). Responses to statements referring to transformation are found in table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5: Transformation statements

Question no.	Question
8	Supervisors inform us timeously about how new plans and changes will affect our work.
9	The company is serious about equal opportunities for all race groups.
10	I feel threatened by the company's EE process.
11	The company supplies me with reliable and sufficient information on diversity.

4.8.3.4 Human resources practices

This section deals with human resources, in so far as the field must ensure that employment practices, including the recruitment, selection and promotion of employees, remain free of unfair discrimination (as required by the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998)). Responses to statements referring to human resources practices are found in table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6: Human resources practices statements

Question no.	Question
12	I believe that the company's selection criteria are justified in relation to job requirements.
13	Recruitment and selection practices (<i>such as advertising positions, promotions, etc.</i>) that are applied in my department, are unfair to all.

4.8.3.5 Performance appraisal

Linked to the dimension of training and development, performance appraisals constitute part of employee development, including the identification of individual training needs (Collings et al., 2018). Regular performance reviews are a key performance development tool (Jooste, 2014; Puckett, 2015). The statements in the questionnaire referring to performance appraisal are found in table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7: Performance appraisal statements

Question no.	Question
14	My supervisor regularly discusses my work performance with me.
15	My performance standards are clearly defined.
16	High achievers are recognised for their achievements.
17	My supervisor does not assist me to develop my full potential.

4.8.3.6 Gender equity

Under the rubric of fair employment practices, gender equity refers to men and women being treated equally and not being unfairly discriminated against, for promotion or remuneration, on the grounds of gender (Esterhuizen, 2008). The statements in the questionnaire referring to gender equity are found in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8: Gender equity statements

Question no.	Question
18	Managers in my department are sensitive to gender issues.
19	Males and females receive equal pay and benefits for equal work.
20	Men and women have equal opportunities to advance within the company.

4.8.3.7 Valuing diversity

Pertaining to the dimension of justification, the appreciation and management of diversity in the workplace are promoted as an important aspect of an effective EE strategy. The EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) promotes diversity and requires that it be acknowledged, valued and appreciated as a business benefit, as opposed to

a liability (Jooste, 2014; Jain et al., 2015). Responses to statements referring to valuing diversity are found in table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Valuing diversity statements

Question no.	Question
21	Managers in my department show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.
22	The need for diversity is recognised in our organisation.
23	In my view employees in our organisation perceive diversity to be a liability.
24	My supervisor does not possess the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team.

4.8.3.8 Conflict management

Conflict management focuses on whether conflict in an organisation is resolved effectively and in a sensitive manner (Esterhuizen, 2008). Statements in the questionnaire referring to conflict management appear table 4.10 below.

Table 4.10: Conflict management statements

Question no.	Question
25	I feel comfortable dealing with conflict with colleagues from a different race group.
26	My supervisor does not manage conflict between team members effectively.

4.8.3.9 Interpersonal diversity

The interpersonal diversity dimension refers to relationships and interaction between employees and management. It examines the level of openness and comfort that employees experience while working within a diverse workforce (Jooste, 2014). The statements in the questionnaire referring to interpersonal diversity are found in table 4.11 below.

Table 4.11: Interpersonal diversity statements

Question no.	Question
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27	I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced.
28	I am at ease with people who hail from diverse backgrounds.

Table 4.11 continued

29	I feel that working in a diverse group is stressful.
30	I am afraid to disagree with the person to whom I report.

4.8.4 Section C: Employee morale

Section C of the instrument consisted of 29 statements measuring factors that affect EM, as outlined in Chapter Two. The dimensions of EM measured in the questionnaire are presented below.

4.8.4.1 Recognition and regard

The recognition and regard dimension relates to whether employees feel valued and appreciated, and experience a sense of belonging in the workplace (Goodman & Dingli, 2013). The statements measuring the recognition and regard dimension is shown in table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12: Recognition and regard statements

Question no.	Question
31	My manager informs me in a sensitive way when I do things wrongly.
32	Our organisational leadership is democratic.
33	My supervisor does not respect me.
34	I am consulted when changes in working conditions are planned.
35	I am not given informal praise and appreciation when I do things well.
36	It is possible to influence management decisions.
37	My supervisors do not listen to my opinions.
38	I cannot try new ideas without fear of criticism.
39	I am actively encouraged to develop my skills.

40	My manager is easily accessible.
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4.8.4.2 Workload

An excessive workload and workload pressures carry many implications for organisations (Turner, 2013); hence this factor refers to the impact of workload on EM. The workload dimension is measured by the statements shown in table 4.13 below.

Table 4.13: Workload statements

Question no.	Question
41	The amount of work that I am given is unrealistic.
42	Staffing levels are adequate for the workload.
43	The workload is shared unfairly.
44	My overall working conditions are not good.
45	The level of responsibility that I am given is reasonable.

4.8.4.3 Professional development

Professional development refers to providing opportunities for staff members to enhance their skills, knowledge and attitudes (Crawford, 2016). The professional development dimension is measured by statements shown in table 4.14 below.

Table 4.14: Professional development statements

Question no.	Question
46	There are sufficient opportunities for me to participate in continuing professional education.
47	I would be supported if I applied for study leave.
48	Study leave is allocated in a fair manner.
49	My manager prioritises my personal career development.
50	I am actively encouraged to develop my skills.
51	I am not encouraged to develop my full potential.

4.8.4.4 Working relationships

The working relationships dimension refers to the perception of good working relationships and a good atmosphere within the workplace (Nolan et al., 1998). The working relationship dimension is measured by statements shown in table 4.15 below.

Table 4.15: Working relationship statements

Question no.	Question
52	There is a good spirit of staff camaraderie amongst my co-workers.
53	I am part of a team.
54	I feel supported by my fellow colleagues.
55	I can talk to my manager when something worries me.

4.8.4.5 Autonomy/decision-making

Autonomy/decision-making refers to how empowered employees feel at work, as opposed to being micro-managed (Cooper, 2016). The autonomy/decision-making dimension is measured by statements shown in table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16: Autonomy/decision-making statements

Question no.	Question
56	I am allowed to make decisions on my own.
57	I am regularly given the opportunity to assume a leadership role.
58	I am an active participant when important decisions are made.
59	Staff members are allowed to develop new ways of doing things.

4.9 Reliability and validity of the questionnaire

For research data to be valuable or even useful, the data collection tool (the structured questionnaire) must be both valid and reliable (Shuttleworth, 2008).

4.9.1 Reliability

Reliability relates to the credibility of the findings and the consistency of the measuring instrument (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). The three main methods used to evaluate the reliability of a questionnaire are test re-test, internal consistency and alternative question forms (Hamilton et al., 2002). As far as test re-test is concerned, if the instrument is used several times, it should yield the same or similar findings each time that it is used. If a research finding can thus be repeated it is regarded as reliable (Saunders et al., 2009). Internal consistency refers to the extent to which the various items in an instrument are correlated and measuring the same construct (English, 2006). In this study, a reliability test was conducted to measure internal consistency using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, which is an estimate of a multiple item scale's reliability (Burns & Burns, 2008). The questionnaire measuring perceptions of EE achieved an overall Cronbach reliability score of 0.92, whereas the questionnaire measuring EM achieved a Cronbach's Alpha score of 0.93. Both sections of the instrument therefore comfortably exceeded the general acceptance level of 0.75.

4.9.2 Validity

Validity is concerned with whether a research instrument measures that which it is supposed to measure (Welman et al., 2005). A distinction is drawn between content and construct validity. Content validity is concerned with the degree to which a questionnaire represents all aspects of a content area (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The study made use of a data collection tool previously developed and validated by other researchers, and the similarity of the context of its application confirmed this validity. Construct validity is the degree to which a questionnaire measures a trait that cannot be directly observed, but must be inferred from patterns in people's behaviour. In this study, construct validity was assured by having all questions/statements worded as clearly as possible, rendering them unambiguous and not misleading. Construct

validity was further assured by conducting a factor analysis, which discovered patterns among the variables measured and clusters them together (De Vos et al., 2013).

4.10 Drop-off and pick-up method

A less commonly used yet effective method of administering questionnaires is the “drop-off and pick-up” method, which entails the hand-delivery of questionnaires to sampled units by the researcher, who also retrieves the completed questionnaires at a later stage (Steele et al., 2001). Although this method is more time consuming than more frequently used data collection techniques (Jackson-Smith et al., 2016), it usually results in higher response and completion rates (Trentelman et al., 2016) and fewer non-response issues (Singer, 2006). The method is not without limitations. The main drawback is that there is no assurance that the respondent will complete the questionnaire. This possibility can be mitigated by the researcher’s carefully explaining the purpose of the questionnaire (Brown, 1987).

A meeting was set up with the area co-ordinator to discuss the nature of the study in detail, with emphasis placed on the distribution of the questionnaires. After the meeting, the area co-ordinator alerted employees in advance about the study to take place. On 19th July 2019, the researcher personally distributed questionnaires to respondents, and retrieved them on the same day. The questionnaire included an introductory page, required prospective respondents to declare their willingness to take part, and informed them of their right to withdraw from the study at any time. Selection thus depended on employees’ availability and their willingness to complete the questionnaire. Respondents were given an hour to complete the questionnaires, which were then collected at an agreed time. Brown (1987) argues that the awareness that someone would be coming back with the sole intention of receiving the completed questionnaire puts psychological pressure on the respondent to complete the questionnaire. Employees were incentivised to participate by means of a token reward, which is discussed further in the chapter.

4.11 Data collection

Two hundred questionnaires were distributed to respondents. Before analysis, the returned questionnaires were physically checked and coded to ensure that they were fully completed. The data was then captured and analysed. The following section describes the capturing and processing of the data.

4.12 Data capturing and processing

The questionnaires were coded and analysed using SPSS v.25. Data analysis refers to the procedure of generalising findings from the sample used in the study (Bless et al., 2006). The analysis was based on relationships between variables identified from the answers to the Likert-scale questions.

4.13 Incentivising respondents

In the conduct of research, a key issue is finding a means of maximising participation to improve the validity of the research findings. As a way of encouraging individuals to participate and enhance the number of respondents involved, the study offered respondents token incentives for their participation. This is in line with Homans' (1961) social exchange theory, which states that individuals will make decisions based on specific outcomes. Social exchange theory focuses on costs and rewards, arguing that the balance between these drives human behaviour. Costs are the negative consequences of a decision, such as the time taken to complete the questionnaire, whereas rewards are the positive results of social exchange, such as incentives. When offering these incentives, it is crucial that they are easily delivered and redeemed, such as gift cards or other token rewards (Homans, 1961).

An ethical consideration when incentivising research is that particularly attractive incentives such as large sums of money might discourage autonomy and constitute an undue inducement (London et al., 2012). In other words, if an incentive induces respondents to focus on obtaining the incentive to the exclusion of other aspects of the decision, then the respondent's decision will have no moral significance. In this circumstance, the incentive may compromise the autonomy of respondents by undermining the integrity of their decision-making (Erlen et al., 1999).

The study aimed to address this ethical implication by offering respondents non-financial token incentives which were not viewed as a large gain. To encourage participation in this study, respondents were thus offered token rewards in the form of chocolates.

In spite of the benefits of using incentives, the ethical implications, such as the possibility of undermining respondent autonomy, need to be taken into consideration. It was thus important to consider the ethical issues arising in and from this study, as these form a major element in research. The principles that underlie research ethics are universal, and deal with issues such as honesty and respect for respondents (Welman et al., 2005). Ethical issues are discussed in the following section.

4.14 Ethical considerations

Ethical standards distinguish right from wrong in the research process (Bryman & Bell, 2007). When conducting research, the researcher is responsible for the overall well-being of the respondents. It is the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that the respondents are safeguarded from physical or psychological harm (Mitchell & Jolley, 2010).

Research relies on obtaining access to people or information and, as a result, cooperation is required from the 'gatekeepers' to these people or data sources. Formal permission and ethics approval should be obtained before a researcher proceeds with a study (*Research ethics guidebook*, 2018). In this instance, the researcher applied for and obtained permission from the Ethics Committee of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (see Annexure B). Access to the selected public service organisation was obtained by formally applying to the organisation's Research Ethics Committee, as stipulated in the organisation's Research Policy. For consideration by the Research Ethics Committee, the formal application was accompanied by the Research Proposal, the Research Instrument, a certified copy of the researcher's ID, and an approval letter from the Ethics Committee of the relevant academic institution (Department of Correctional Services, 2017) (see Annexure C).

Respondents must be informed about the purpose of the study before their consent to take part is obtained. This helps to avoid issues of gaining access to and obtaining

valid responses from the respondents, whilst being concerned about their protection and respect (Lee & Saunders, 2017). Informed consent is obtained when respondents are informed of the purpose of the research, voluntarily consent to participate in the study, and are aware that they may withdraw from the study at any time (Van der Heyden, 2013). In this instance, informed consent was sought from the respondents through the cover page of the questionnaire, which explained the purpose of the questionnaire, that participation was voluntary, that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any stage, and that their participation remained anonymous (see Annexure D).

A key ethical consideration in research is the protection of data obtained in the research process, while ensuring that research results are utilised solely for academic purposes (Creighton University, 2018). The role of the researcher during the data collection process was thus to ensure that the data is secured. Included in the introduction to the questionnaire is a confidentiality statement, which assured respondents that their responses were anonymous, given that they were not asked for their names or other identifying particulars, and that the completed questionnaires would be securely stored. This was to protect them from victimisation and to ensure that no violation of privacy took place. The questionnaires were completed anonymously and therefore, it was impossible to track any employee's individual responses. This seemed necessary, given the fact that employees are generally reluctant to express their views on EE (Van der Heyden, 2013). It gave respondents peace of mind and encouraged them to answer the questions honestly (Smart Survey, 2010).

Deductive disclosure occurs when traits of an individual or group make them identifiable in research reports in spite of direct identifiers such as their identity number having been removed from the survey (Tolich, 2004). Every effort was made to mitigate deductive disclosure and prevent anyone from connecting individual respondents to their responses during data analysis, in order to avoid any physical or mental harm to respondents. Further protection was offered by disclosing the respondent's age range as opposed to their actual age, and other grouped characteristics, thus making it difficult, if not impossible, to identify individual respondents.

4.15 Summary

This chapter outlined the research methodology used in the study. This research study applied the positivism philosophy, due to the nature and magnitude of this research study, with the data collection method in this study consisting of questionnaires, which is positivistic in nature and thus, this study utilised a quantitative approach as a means to obtain large amounts of data using a structured questionnaire. The chapter identified the target population for the study, a large public service organisation that had undergone a number of EE initiatives and has sufficient numbers of personnel belonging to both designated and non-designated groups. The researcher selected a sample using availability sampling.

The questionnaire was designed for collecting information about employee perceptions towards EE and EM and made use of a structured questionnaire comprising closed-ended questions. Respondents were given a statement followed by four options for response: strongly agree; agree; disagree; and strongly disagree. The rationale for using this particular instrument was that it had been used in previous research and proved both reliable and valid. Hardcopies of the questionnaire were hand-delivered by the researcher to the respondents and retrieved after an agreed time had elapsed.

This research study offered them token incentives of chocolates for their participation as a way of encouraging individuals to participate and perhaps increase the number of respondents.

IBM SPSS v.25 was used to analyse the collected data and make use descriptive and inferential statistics. The analysis had recourse to mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis as measures of dispersion of the data obtained. On the other hand, the inferential statistical methods applied included the Pearson correlation coefficient, Independent Samples *t* Test and One-Way ANOVA. The statistical strategies were used to assess the accuracy and significance of the answers to the study's research questions.

A reliability test was conducted to measure internal consistency using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, which is an estimate of a multiple item scale's reliability. An overall Cronbach reliability score of 0.92 was achieved for EE perceptions, and 0.93 for EM perceptions. Construct validity was confirmed by ensuring that all statements were

formulated as clearly as possible and by conducting a factor analysis, which discovers patterns among variables measured and clusters them together.

The chapter concluded by discussing ethical considerations relevant to the study. There was a description of the procedure followed to obtain permission to conduct the study, both from the university and from the selected public service organisation. The process of obtaining respondents' informed consent was detailed, as were measures taken to protect their anonymity and the security of the data.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 5.1: Outline of Chapter Five

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study

Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity

Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation

Chapter Four: Research methodology

Chapter Five: Research findings

- 5.1) Introduction
- 5.2) Questionnaire response rate
- 5.3) Descriptive statistics
- 5.4) Descriptive statistics for the employment equity and employee morale dimensions
- 5.5) Reliability of the employment equity and employee morale dimensions
- 5.6) Validity analysis
- 5.7) Factor analysis
- 5.8) Correlation between employment equity and employee morale
- 5.9) Comparison of employment equity and employee morale perceptions between men and women
- 5.10) Comparison of employment equity and employee morale perceptions among racial groups
- 5.11) Comparison of employment equity and employee morale dimensions between whites and non-whites
- 5.12) Summary

Chapter Six: Discussion of results

Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter reviewed the study's research design and methodology, providing a comprehensive overview of the process followed to address the research problem. The aim of this chapter is to present the research findings based on the collected data.

Data analysis is the process in which data pertaining to the study sample is captured, coded and analysed. The collected data is interpreted during data analysis so that meaning is created for conclusions to be drawn and/or recommendations to be made (Corbin & Strauss, 2014).

This chapter begins with a brief explanation of the questionnaire response rate obtained. The demographic characteristics of the respondents are then presented using descriptive statistics (i.e. frequency distribution tables and charts). The process through which inferential statistics were applied is then discussed to test the four hypotheses informing the study.

5.2. Questionnaire response rate

Two hundred questionnaires were distributed to qualifying respondents using availability sampling among employees from all levels and departments at a public service organisation. All 200 questionnaires were returned to the researcher, however, 83.5% ($N = 167$) were usable, as the others were incomplete, some with major areas of the questionnaire not filled in. Gillham (2000) asserts that if a response rate is below 30% in a questionnaire-based study, the validity of the study will be considered doubtful. The response rate in this study can therefore be regarded as highly satisfactory.

5.3 Descriptive statistics

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented below using pie-charts and bar graphs covering gender, race, age, job-level, educational level and years of employment.

5.3.1 Gender

Respondents were asked whether they identify as male or female. A summary of the results is shown in Figure 5.1, below.

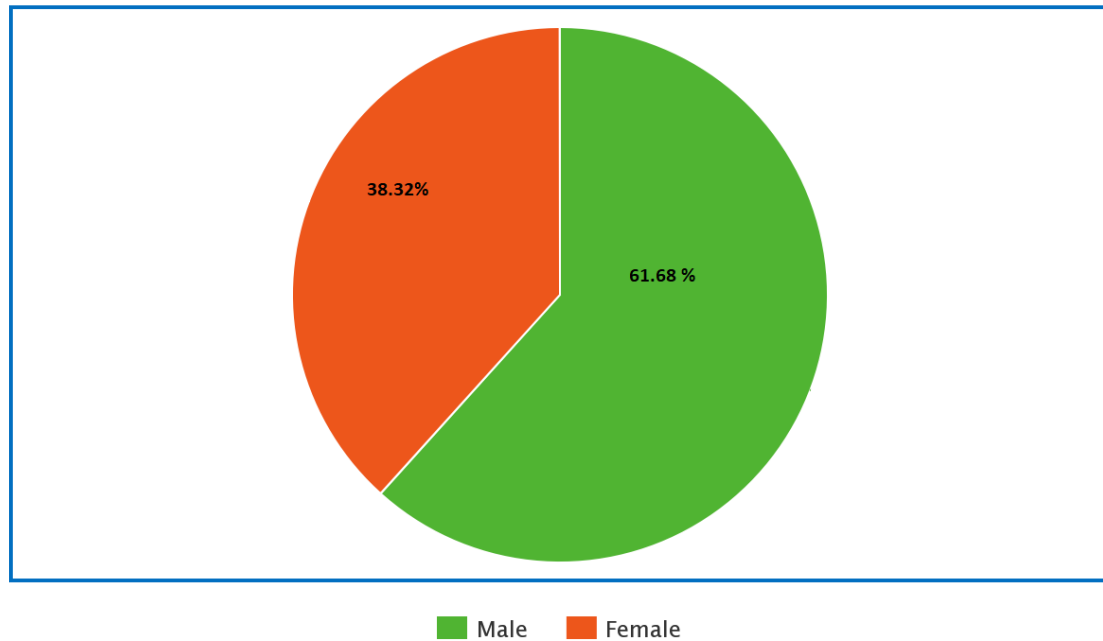


Figure 5.1 Gender distribution of respondents

61.68% ($N = 103$) of respondents regarded themselves as male, whereas 38.32% ($N = 64$) of respondents regarded themselves as female.

5.3.2 Racial composition

Using the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) as a basis, respondents were asked to indicate whether they regarded themselves as white, African, Coloured, Indian or other. A summary of the results is presented in Figure 5.2, below.

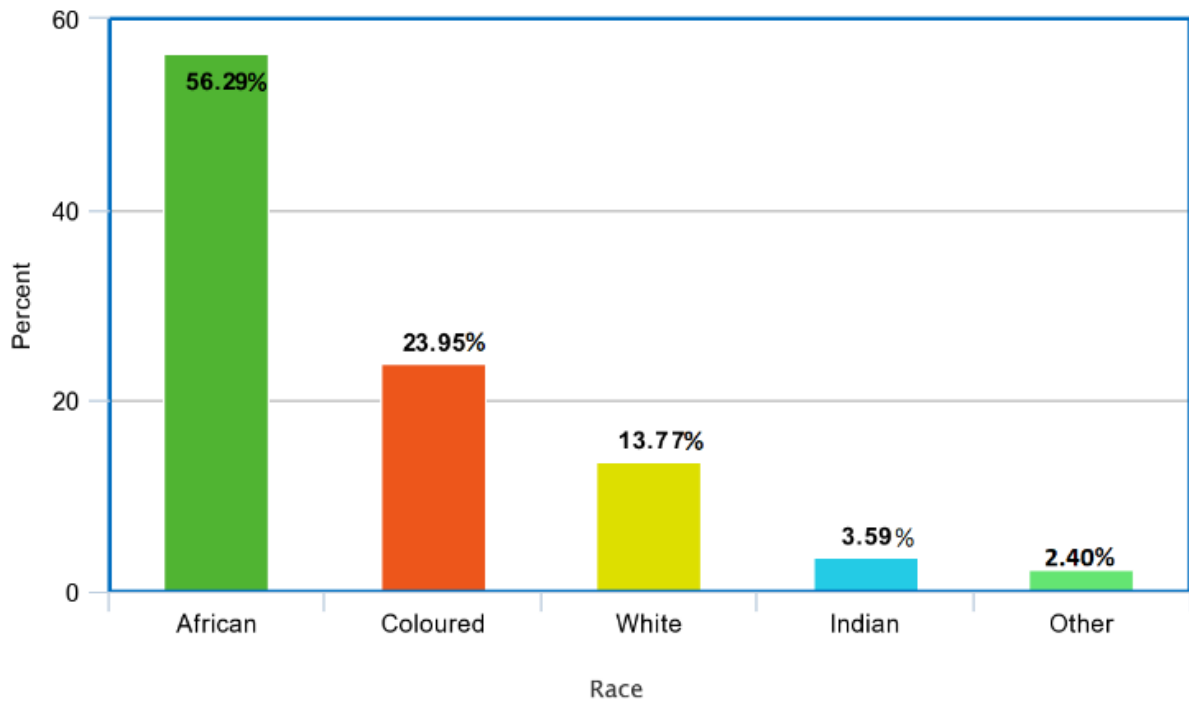


Figure 5.2: Racial composition of respondents

The racial groups in the sample comprised 56.29% ($N = 94$) of African descent; 13.77% ($N = 22$) of white descent; 23.95% ($N = 39$) of Coloured descent and 3.59% ($N = 5$) of Indian descent, while 2.40% ($N = 1$) were of other (Asian) descent.

5.3.3 Age distribution

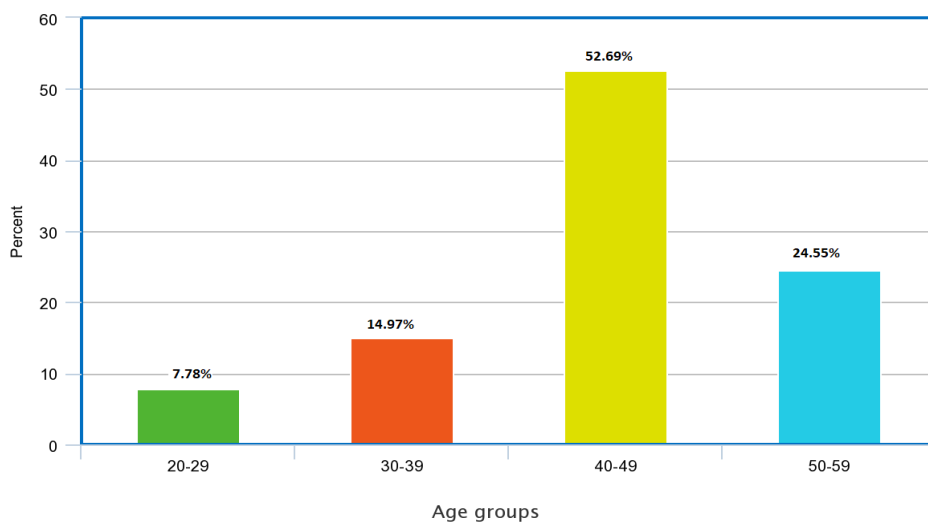


Figure 5.3: Age distribution of respondents

Age distribution was spread across four intervals, with the majority of respondents (52.69%, $N = 87$) in the 40-49 age group, followed by the 50-59 age group (24.55%, $N = 39$).

= 40), with 14.97% ($N = 24$) in the 30-39 age group and 7.78% ($N = 12$) in the 20-29 age group. No respondents were older than 59.

5.3.4 Job-level distribution

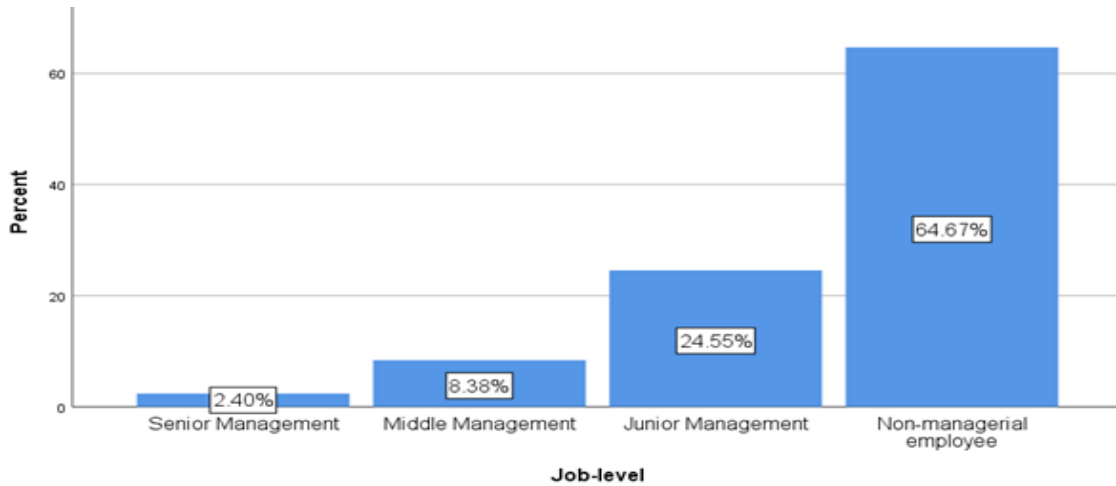


Figure 5.4: Job-level distribution

The respondents were grouped into four job levels, namely senior management, middle management, junior management and non-managerial employees. The respondents consisted mainly of non-managerial employees (64.67%, $N = 107$). A total of 24.55% ($N = 40$) were junior managers, 8.38% ($N = 13$) were middle managers and 2.40% ($N = 4$) were senior managers. (See Figure 5.4, above.)

5.3.5 Highest qualification level obtained

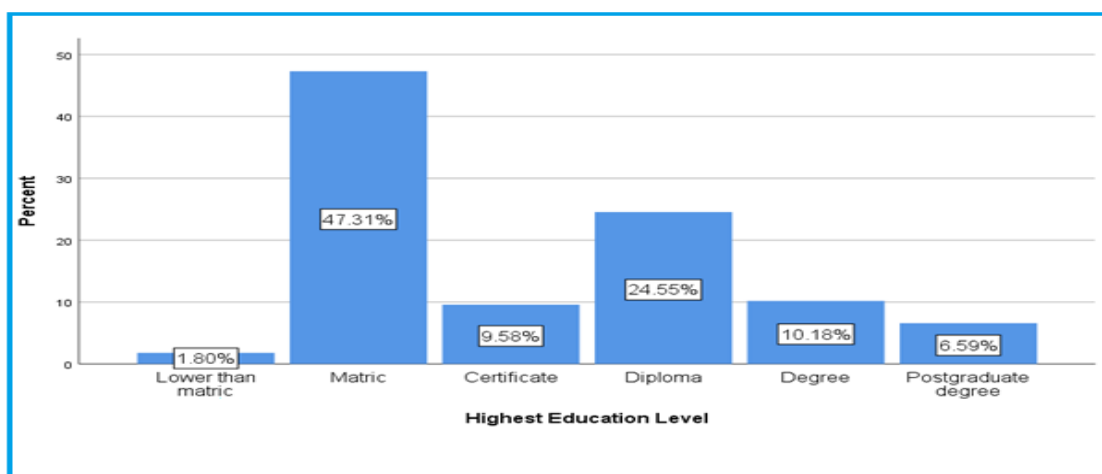


Figure 5.5: Distribution of highest qualification obtained

The majority of respondents (47.31%, $N = 79$) indicated matric as their highest qualification, followed by 24.55% ($N = 41$) with a National Diploma, 10.18% ($N = 17$)

with a degree, 9.58% ($N = 16$) with a Certificate, 6.59% ($N = 11$) with a postgraduate degree. Only 1.80% ($N = 3$) of respondents had a qualification lower than matric (see Figure 5.5, above).

5.3.6 Years of employment

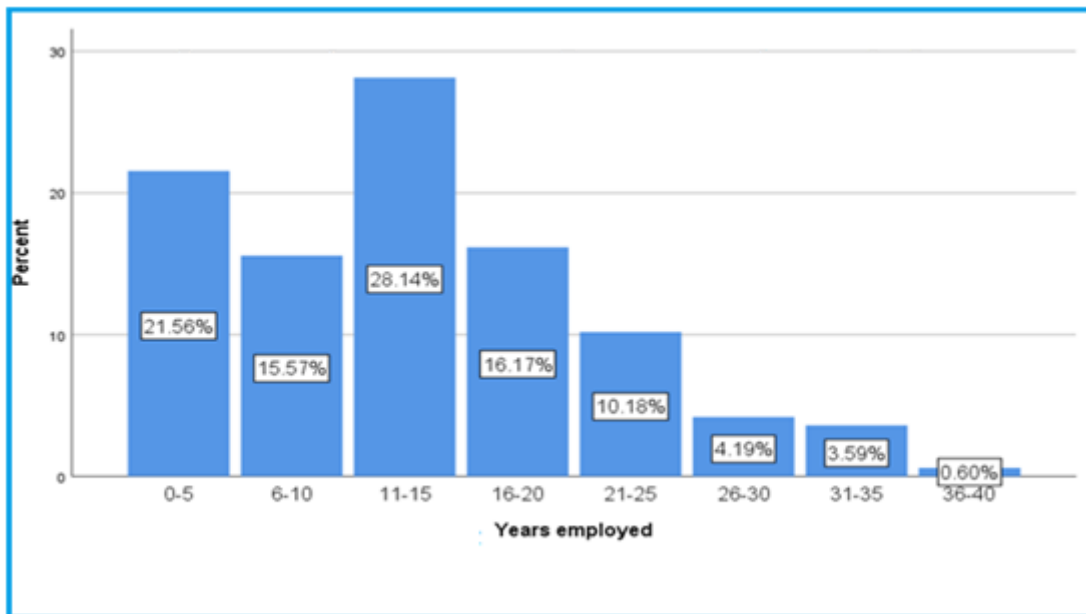


Figure 5.6: Respondents according to number of years employed

Figure 5.6 illustrates that 28.14% ($N = 47$) of respondents had been employed for between 11 and 15 years, 21.56% ($N = 36$) had been employed between 0 and 5 years, and 16.17% ($N = 27$) from 16-20 years. This was followed by 15.57% ($N = 26$) who had been employed for 6-10 years, 10.18% ($N = 17$) for 21-25 years, followed by 4.19% ($N = 7$) for 26-30 years, and 3.59% ($N = 6$) for 31-35 years. Only 0.60% ($N = 1$) of respondents had been employed for between 36 and 40 years. No respondents had been employed for longer than 40 years.

The descriptive statistics for the variables examined in this study are provided below. To present this, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis were examined as measures of central tendency. The first table (Table 5.2) presents descriptive statistics of employment equity variables, namely inclusive organisational culture; management commitment; transparent communication; fair employment practices; training and development and valuing diversity. Table 5.3 presents the descriptive statistics for the employee morale variables (recognition and regard; professional development; working relationships; autonomy/decision-making and workload).

5.4 Descriptive statistics for the employment equity and employee morale dimensions

Respondents were asked to state their agreement with statements pertaining to employment equity through means of a four-point Likert scale (1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3 = disagree and 4= strongly disagree), the results of which are presented in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: Descriptive statistics of employment equity dimensions (N = 167)

(IOC – Inclusive organisational culture; MC = Management commitment; TC =Transparent communication; FEP = Fair employment practices; TAD = Training and development; JADM = Justification and diversity management; RCP = Respect for all cultural practices; RND = Recognising need for diversity; POD = Perception of diversity; SMD = Skills to manage a diverse team)									
	IOC	MC	TC	FEP	TAD	JADM			
						RCP	RND	POD	SMD
Mean	2.10	2.31	2.36	2.22	2.38	2.37	2.28	2.60	2.13
Std. Deviation	.811	.84	.61	.67	.82	.97	.90	.81	.90
Skewness	.57	.05	.080	-.03	.18	.31	.45	-.08	.40
Kurtosis	.060	-.66	-.20	-.36	-.44	-.84	-.50	-.43	-.59

The employment equity dimensions had similar means, all below the midpoint of 2.5, ranging from $M = 2.10$ (*Std. deviation* = .81) for inclusive organisational culture to $M = 2.35$ (*Std. deviation* = .61) for transparent communication. The data were reasonably normally distributed, with a skewness ranging from -.03 to .56 and a kurtosis ranging from -.65 to .05. The second scale required respondents to state their degree of agreement on statements pertaining to employee morale, the descriptive statistics for which are presented in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistics of employee morale dimensions (N = 167)

(RR = Recognition and regard; PD = Professional development; WR = Working relationships; ADM = Autonomy / decision making; WL = Workload;)					
	RR	PD	WR	ADM	WL
Mean	2.34	2.34	2.16	2.47	2.43
Std. Deviation	.59	.78	.82	.88	.56
Skewness	.31	.26	.48	.13	.29
Kurtosis	-.02	-.25	-.14	-.66	.50

The employee morale dimensions had similar means, the majority below the midpoint of 2.50, ranging from working relationships ($M = 2.16$, $Std. deviation = .82$) to autonomy/decision making ($M = 2.47$, $Std. deviation = .88$). The data were reasonably normally distributed, with a skewness ranging from .13 to .48 and a kurtosis ranging from -.66 to 50.

5.5 Reliability of the employment equity and employee morale dimensions

The study employed a questionnaire comprising questions with Likert-scaled response options. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, an estimate of a multiple item scale's reliability (Burns & Burns, 2008), was utilised to measure internal consistency. The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for the scales used to measure employment equity dimensions are outlined in Table 5.4 below.

A rule of thumb for exploratory research is that the minimum value should be $<.60$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Similarly, Kline (2000) suggests that Cronbach's Alpha of $<.5$ is unacceptable; between $.5$ and $.6$ is poor; between $.6$ and $.7$ acceptable, between $.7$ and $.9$ good, and $>.9$ is excellent.

Table 5.4: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the employment equity scales

Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Inclusive organisational culture	3	.79
Management commitment	4	.79
Transparent communication	10	.73
Fair employment practices	5	.63
Training and development	4	.76
Justification and diversity management	4	.48
Total	30	.91

All but one of the six scales, 'justification and diversity management,' had acceptable Cronbach's Alpha scores. Five of the scales were thus considered for principal axis factoring. In the case of the 'justification and diversity management' scale each item which compromised this dimension was considered for principle axis factoring to test the applicable hypotheses set for this study.

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for questions relating to employee morale statements (Question 31 to Question 59) is presented in Table 5.5 below.

Table 5.5: Cronbach Alpha Coefficient for the employee morale scales

Dimension	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Recognition and regard	10	.78
Workload	5	.59
Professional development	6	.81
Working relationships	4	.85
Autonomy/decision making	4	.91
Total	29	.88

All but one of the five scales had acceptable Cronbach's Alphas and could thus be considered for principle axis factoring in order to test the study's applicable hypotheses sets. The dimension 'workload' achieved a Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of .59, but despite this will still be considered for principle axis factoring, as it narrowly missed the cut-off point of .60.

5.6 Validity analysis

The Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy was used to determine if the data was suitable for factor analysis. A KMO test score of .60 and a significance level test indicated that the scales were appropriate for factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). A summary of the factor analysis performed is shown in Table 5.6, below.

Table 5.6: Validity scores for different scale (N = 167)

(IOC = Inclusive organisational culture; MC = Management commitment; TC = Transparent communication; FEP =Fair employment practices; TAD = Training and development; JADM = Justification and diversity management; EE = Employment Equity; RR = Recognition and regard; WL =Workload; PD = Professional development; WR = Working relationships; ADM = Autonomy/decision making; EM = Employee morale)		
Scales	Variables	KMO measures
IOC	Q1-Q3	.68
MC	Q4-Q7	.64
TC	Q8-11, 25-26, 27-30	.77
FEP	Q12-13, 18-20	.64
TAD	Q14-17	.74
JADM	Q21-24	.56
EE (Sum means excluding justification and diversity management)		.67
RR	Q31-40	.75
WL	Q41-45	.67
PD	Q46-51	.77
WR	Q52-55	.82
ADM	Q56-59	.84
EM		.70

The KMO measure for adequacy ranged from .56 to 84, meaning that all scales excluding 'justification and diversity management' were suitable for factor analysis. The factor analysis method employed in this study is the most commonly used one, with reference to principle component analysis (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). Each scale was analysed separately, the results being set out in Table 5.7, below.

5.7 Factor analysis

Table 5.7 Factor analysis

(IOC = Inclusive organisational culture; MC = Management commitment; TC = Transparent communication; FEP =Fair employment practices; TAD = Training and development; JADM = Justification and diversity management; EE = Employment Equity; RR = Recognition and regard; WL =Workload; PD = Professional development; WR = Working relationships; ADM = Autonomy/decision making; EM = Employee morale)						
Factor	KMO measure	Bartlett's test of sphericity			No. of components with Eigen value >1	Components loadings
		X ²	Df	Sig		
EE dimensions						
IOC (Q1-Q3)	.68	170.98	3	.00	1	.82-.90
MC (Q4-Q7)	.64	248.13	6	.00	1	.66-.85
TC (Q8-Q11; Q25-Q26; Q27-Q30)	.77	365.59	45	.00	3	.17-74
FEP (Q12-Q13; Q18-Q20)	.64	141.61	10	.00	2	21-.86
TAD (Q14-Q17)	.74	174.18	6	.00	1	.61-.85
JADM (Q21-Q24)	.56	81.00	6	.00	2	.01-.85
EM dimensions						
RR (Q31-Q40)	.75	409.14	45	.00	3	.30-76
PD (Q46-Q51)	.77	437.10	15	.00	1	40-.87
WR (Q52-Q55)	.82	292.10	6	.00	1	76-.85
ADM (Q56-Q59)	.84	461.10	6	.00	1	84-.93
WL (Q41-+Q45)	.67	124.58	10	.00	2	-.10-.80

From the factor loading scores above, it is clear that the five factors of employment equity and five factors of employee morale relate to one another, thereby justifying their grouping, with all loadings on a single component ranging from -.10 (workloads) to .90 (inclusive organisational culture).

5.8 Correlation between employment equity and employee morale

Pearson's *r* was used to examine the correlations between variables in order to investigate the correlation between the employment equity and employee morale dimensions (main research objective).

5.8.1 Correlation: employment equity dimensions

Table 5.8: Correlation: EE dimensions and race and gender (N = 167)

(IOC – Inclusive organisational culture; MC = Management commitment; TC = Transparent communication; FEP = Fair employment practices; TAD = Training and development; JADM = Justification and diversity management; RCP = Respect for all cultural practices; RND = Recognising need for diversity; POD = Perception of diversity; SMD = Skills to manage a diverse team;)											
			JADM								
			IOC	MC	TC	FEP	TAD	RCP	RND	POD	SMD
	MC		.440**								
	TC		.362**	.568**							
	FEP		.359**	.439**	.456**						
	TAD		.466**	.598**	.539**	.519**					
J A D M	RCP		.368**	.381**	.449**	.549**	.545**				
	RND		.437**	.338**	.284**	.457**	.471**	.548**			
	POD		-.067	.031	.124	-.029	.058	-.002	-.051		
	SMD		.255**	.506**	.407**	.385**	.382**	.237**	.229**	.201**	
	Race		.016	.143	.098	.144	.154	.174	-.012	.013	-.014
	Gender		-.099	-.184	-.121	-.107	-.113	-.107	-.055	.072	-.047
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).											

From the results in Table 5.8, above, it is clear that of the 36 tested correlations of employment equity dimensions, 29 were statistically significant ($p < .01$) (highlighted in grey), ranging from $r = .229$ (skills to manage a diverse team and recognising the need for diversity) to $r = .598$ (training and development and management commitment), while the remaining 7 correlations did not correlate with one another, ranging from $r = -.067$ (perceptions of diversity and inclusive organisational culture) to

$r = .124$ (perceptions of diversity and management commitment). It should be noted that perceptions of diversity only correlated significantly with skills to manage a diverse team ($r = .201^{**}$), and did not correlate with any other dimension. There were no correlations on the grounds of race and gender.

5.8.2 Correlations: employee morale dimensions

Table 5.9, below, presents a Pearson correlation of the various dimensions of EM.

Table 5.9 Correlations: EM dimensions and race and gender (N = 167)

(RR = Recognition and regard; PD = Professional development; WR = Working relationships; ADM = Autonomy / decision making; WL = Workload)					
	RR	PD	WR	ADM	WL
PD	.528**				
WR	.498**	.627**			
ADM	.478**	.623**	.612**		
WL	.445**	.537**	.494**	.453**	
Race	.065	.105	.163	.024	.013
Gender	-.136	-.071	-.125	-.083	-.162
** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

All of the employee morale dimensions correlated significantly ($p < .01$) (highlighted in grey in Table 5.9, above), ranging from .445 (workload and recognition and regard) to .627 (working relationships and professional development). There seems to have been significantly different perceptions of working relationships ($r = .226$) on the grounds of race. The employee morale dimensions did not correlate significantly ($p < .05$) with either race or gender.

5.8.3 Correlations: employment equity and employee morale dimensions

Table 5.10: Correlations: EE and EM dimensions (N = 167)

(IOC – Inclusive organisational culture; MC = Management commitment; Transparent communication; FEP = Fair employment practices; TAD = Training and development; JADM = Justification and diversity management; RCP = Respect for all cultural practices; RND = Recognising need for diversity; POD = Perception of diversity; SMD = Skills to manage a diverse team; RR = Recognition and regard; PD = Professional development; WR = Working relationships; ADM = Autonomy / decision making; WL = Workload)									
						JADM			
	IOC	MC	TC	FEP	TAD	RCP	RND	POD	SMD
RR	.408**	.584**	.500**	.505**	.620**	.537**	.479**	-.045	.443**
PD	.412**	.476**	.414**	.530**	.626**	.588**	.463**	.024	.307**
WR	.336**	.467**	.457**	.538**	.506**	.509**	.319**	-.029	.338**
ADM	.331**	.345**	.381**	.413**	.504**	.466**	.373**	-.032	.266**
WL	.359**	.434**	.406**	.426**	.537**	.426	.290**	.020	.284**
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).									
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).									

Table 5.10 above illustrates that there were positive and significant ($p < .01$) correlations between majority of the employment equity and employee morale dimensions. Of the 45 tested correlations, 40 were statistically significant ($p < .01$), ranging from $r = .266$ (autonomy/decision-making and skills needed to manage a diverse team) to $r = .620$ (recognition and regard and fair employment practices), however, the employment equity dimension perceptions of diversity did not correlate with any five employee morale dimensions, obtaining a score ranging from $r = 0.20$ for workloads to $r = -.045$ for recognition and regard. Employment equity and employee morale correlated significantly overall, thereby endorsing H_{1a} of this study (see Figure 5.7, below).

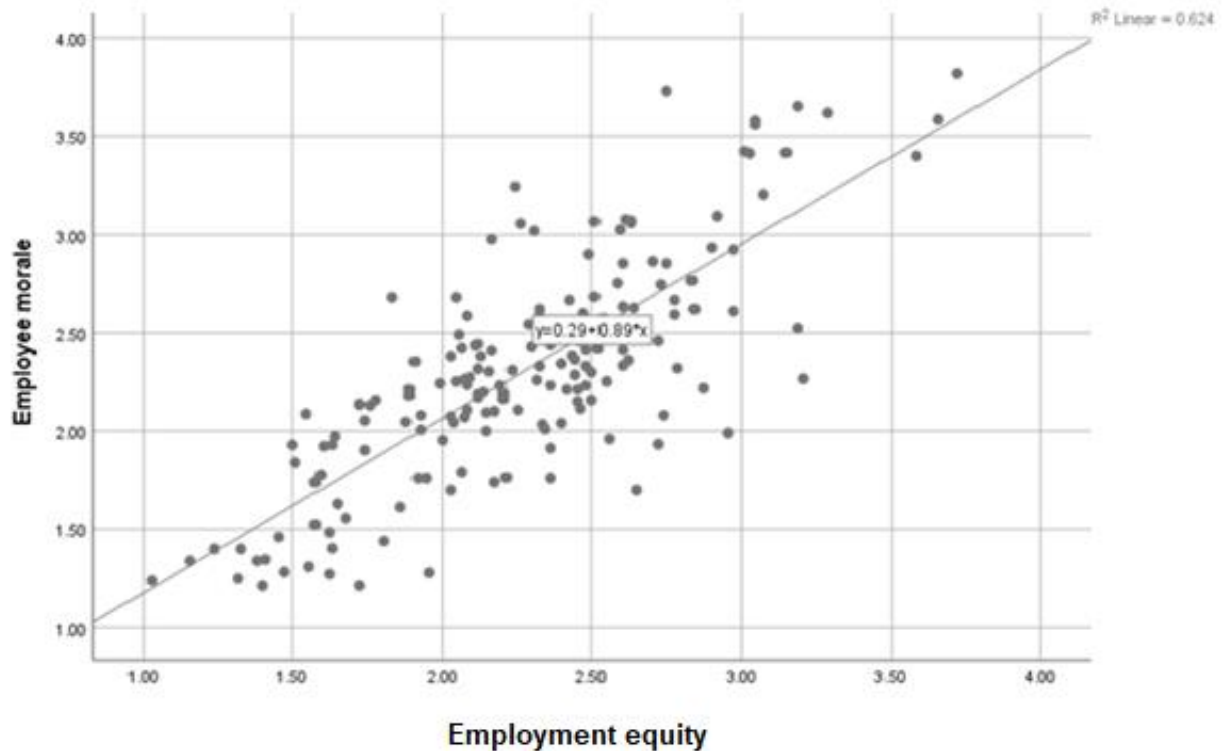


Figure 5.7: Scatterplot of correlation between employment equity and employee morale

The scatterplot above represents the correlation between perceptions of employment equity and employee morale ($r = .790$). There is a clear pattern drifting upwards, indicating a strong, positive correlation between these two variables, meaning that the hypothesis that perceptions of employment equity would correlate with employee morale at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town (H_{1a}) was supported.

5.9 Comparison of employment equity and employee morale perceptions between men and women

It was stated in Chapter Four that an Independent Samples t Test is a type of inferential statistic used to compare differences between two groups in the population, such as gender differences (Heiman, 2010). It should be noted that the sample of men is not related to the sample of women, as there is no overlap between these two samples (i.e. one cannot be a member of both groups). In this study, an Independent Samples t Test was conducted (Table 5.11 below) in order to investigate the second set of hypothesis, whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale differ significantly between men and women at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town. The statistically significant values are highlighted in blue.

Table 5.11: Independent Samples *t* Test - comparison of EE and EM perceptions between men and women

Independent Samples <i>t</i> Test										
(IOC = inclusive organisational culture; MC = management commitment; TC = transparent communication; FEP = fair employment practices; TAD = training and development; RCP = respect for cultural practices; RND = recognising the need for diversity; POD = perceptions of diversity; SMD = skills to manage a diverse workforce; RfR = recognition and regard; PD = professional development; WR = working relationships; ADM= autonomy/decision-making; WL = workload; EV = Equal variances assumed; EVN = Equal variances not assumed)										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
IOC	EV	.764	.383	1.281	165	.202	.165	.128	-.089	.419
MC	EVN			2.319	117.699	.022	.317	.137	.046	.589
TC	EV	.154	.696	1.562	165	.120	.151	.097	-.040	.343
FEP	EV	.930	.336	1.383	165	.168	.146	.106	-.062	.356
TAD	EV	1.307	.255	1.467	165	.144	.190	.129	-.065	.447
RR	EV	2.202	.140	1.763	165	.080	.163	.092	-.019	.347
PD	EV	.074	.787	.909	165	.365	.113	.124	-.132	.358
WR	EV	.016	.899	1.621	165	.107	.211	.130	-.046	.469
ADM	EV	.101	.751	1.070	165	.286	.149	.139	-.126	.424
WL	EVN			2.032	118.460	.044	.187	.092	.004	.369

Table 5.11 Continued

RCP	EV	.034	.855	1.385	165	.168	.212	.153	-.090	.515
RND	EV	.072	.789	.705	165	.482	.102	.144	-.183	.386
POD	EV	.152	.698	-.931	165	.353	-.118	.127	-.370	.133
SMD	EV	.233	.630	.609	165	.544	.087	.143	-.195	.369

Stemming from Table 5.11 above, it becomes apparent that only two factors, mainly management commitment, $t(3)=2.31$, $p= .022$, and workload $t(03)=2.03$, $p= .044$, (shaded in blue), had p-values smaller than or equal to 0.05. This translates to the fact that respondents have statistically significantly different views on the latter.

The remaining dimensions, namely inclusive organisational culture, $t(2)=1.28$, $p=.202$, transparent communication, $t(5)=1.56$, $p=.120$, fair employment practices, $t(3)=1.38$, $p=.120$, training and development, $t(4)=1.46$, $p=.144$, recognition and regard, $t(7)=1.76$, $p=.080$, professional development, $t(9)=0.90$, $p= .365$, working relationships, $t(6)=1.62$, $p=.107$, autonomy / decision-making, $t(07)=1.070$, $p=.286$, respect for cultural practices, $t(3)=1.38$, $p=.168$, recognising the need for diversity, $t(07)=0.789$, $p=.482$, perceptions of diversity, $t(09)=0.931$, $p=.353$ and skills to manage a diverse workforce, $t(06)=0.609$, $p= .544$, all have p-values greater than 0.05. This means there were no statistically significant differences between views of respondents in relation to the dimensions/items, based on their gender.

Only two of the tested dimensions were statistically significant and thus, there was no convincing evidence to support the hypothesis that respondents' perceptions on employment equity and employee morale based on gender are statistically significant, and as a result, this supposition (H_{1b}) is not accepted.

Taking into account that only two factors were statistically significant, namely management commitment and workload¹ (equal variances not assumed), the differences in means for these factors are depicted through the assistance of boxplots in Figure 5.8, Figure 5.9, Figure 5.10, Figure 5.11, Figure 5.12 and Figure 5.113, along with a short description of each one below.

¹ Workload is a factor comprising five items. For the sake of transparency, the difference in means for each item is evident.

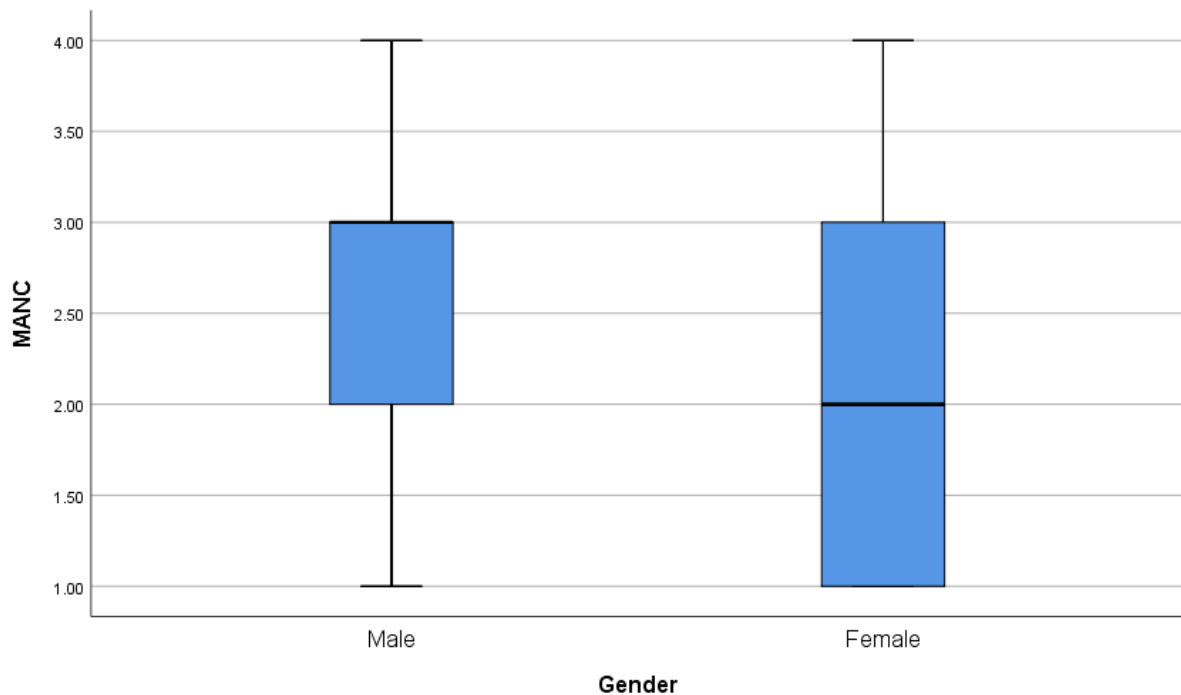


Figure 5.8: Management commitment boxplot

From the boxplot in Figure 5.8 above, it appears that males' responses surrounding management commitment predominately ranged between "agree" (2.00) and "disagree" (3.00), while females' responses on the same aspect ranged between "strongly agree" (1.00) and "disagree" (3.00). In terms of the mean scores, on average, males tended to "disagree" (3.00) while females tended to "agree" (2.00). Hence, these statistics are indicative that on average, females were more "agreeable" to the aspect of management commitment, when compared to that of males (see Annexure H).

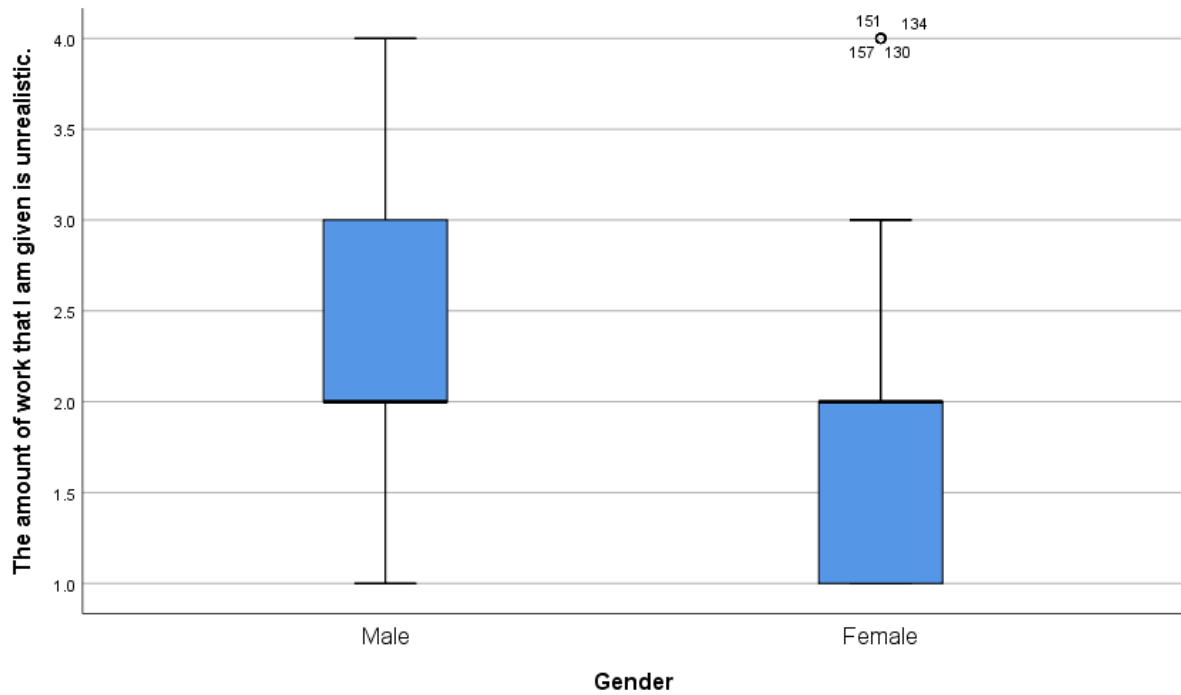


Figure 5.9: Workload item one boxplot

When it came to the item of “the amount of work that I am given is unrealistic” (Figure 5.9) (item one of five surrounding workload), males’ responses predominantly ranged between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00) while females’ responses mainly ranged between “strongly agree” (1.00) and “agree” (2.00). In terms of means, on average, both males and females tended to “agree” (2.00) with the statement. Hence, although there were not distinct differences in the means of males and females, their holistic views regarding the applicable item were disparate (see Annexure H).

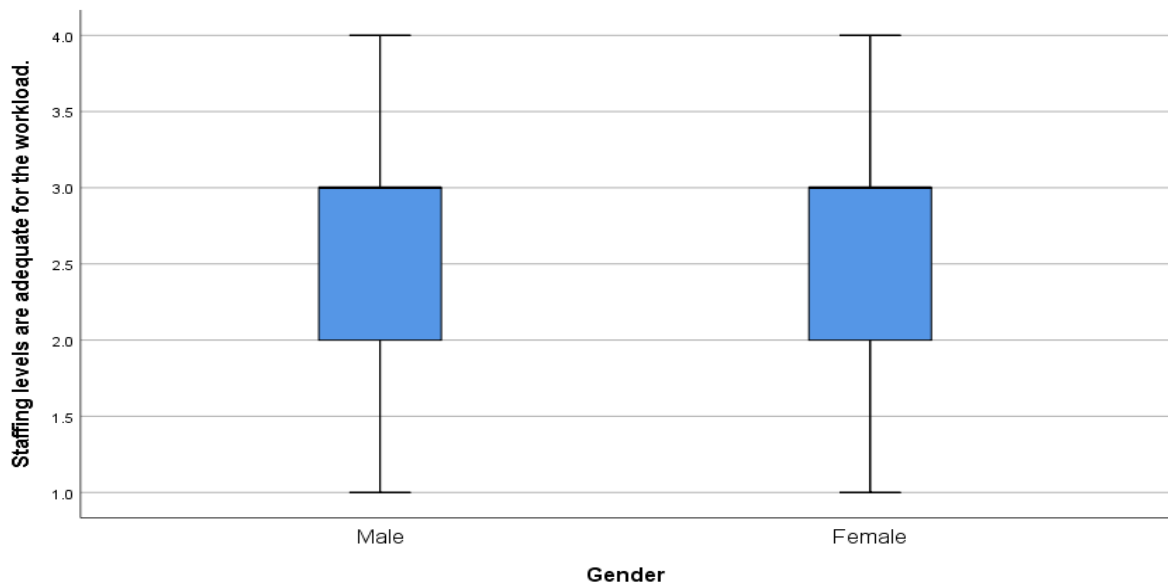


Figure 5.10: Workload item two boxplot

When it came to the item of “staffing levels are adequate for the workload” (Figure 5.10) (item two of five surrounding workload), both males and females responded between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). There were no differences in the means of males and females; nor were there any differences between them from a holistic point of view (see Annexure H).

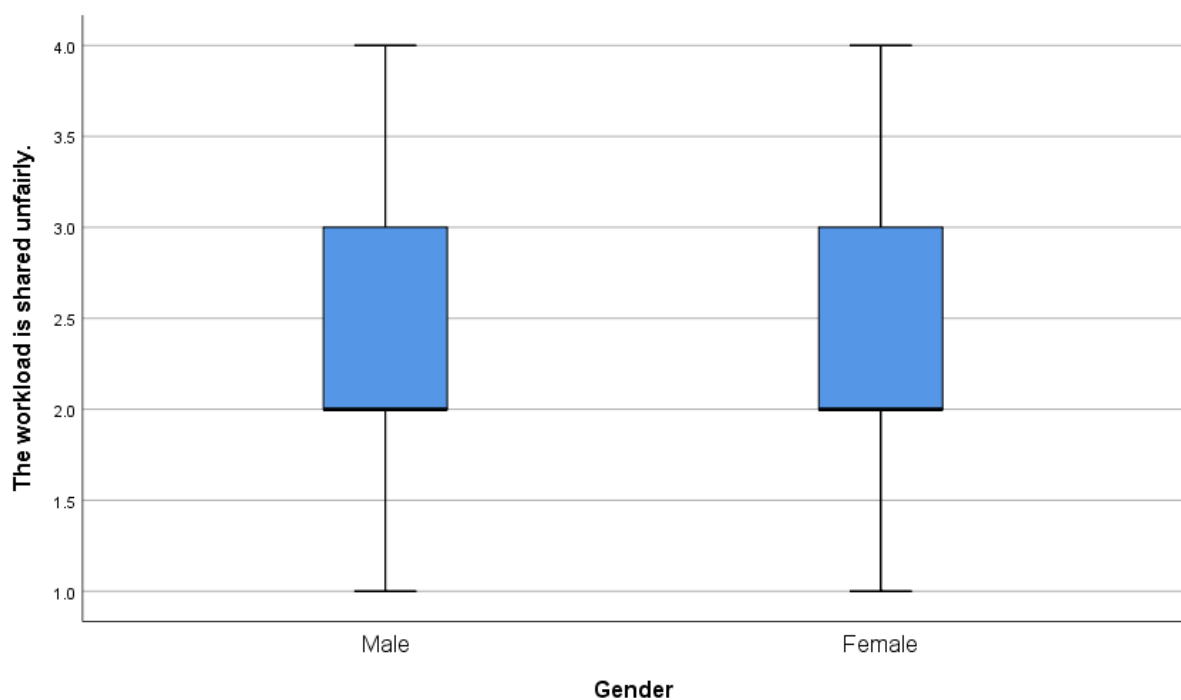


Figure 5.11: Workload item three boxplot

When it came to the item of “the workload is shared unfairly” (Figure 5.11) (item three of five surrounding workload), both male and females responded between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). There were no differences in in the means of males and females; nor were there any differences between them from a holistic point of view (see Annexure H).

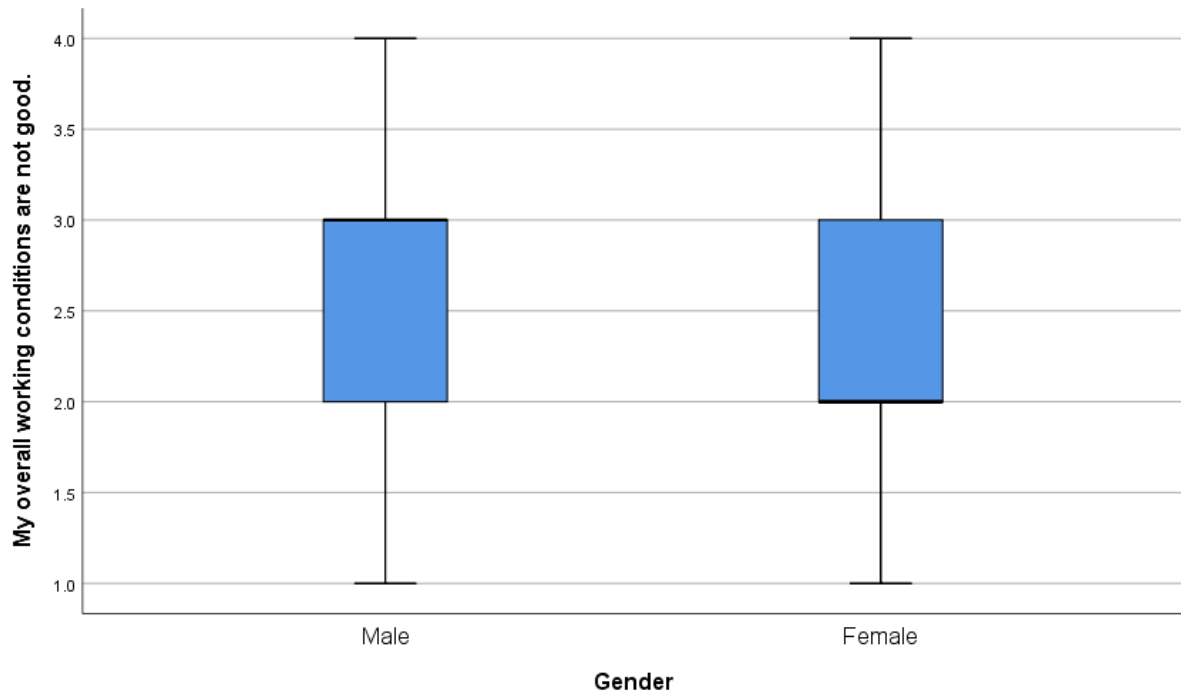


Figure 5.12: Workload item four boxplot

When it came to the item of “my overall working conditions are not good” (Figure 5.12) (item four of five surrounding workload), both male and females responded between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). There were no differences in in the means of males and females; nor were there any differences between them from a holistic point of view (see Annexure H).

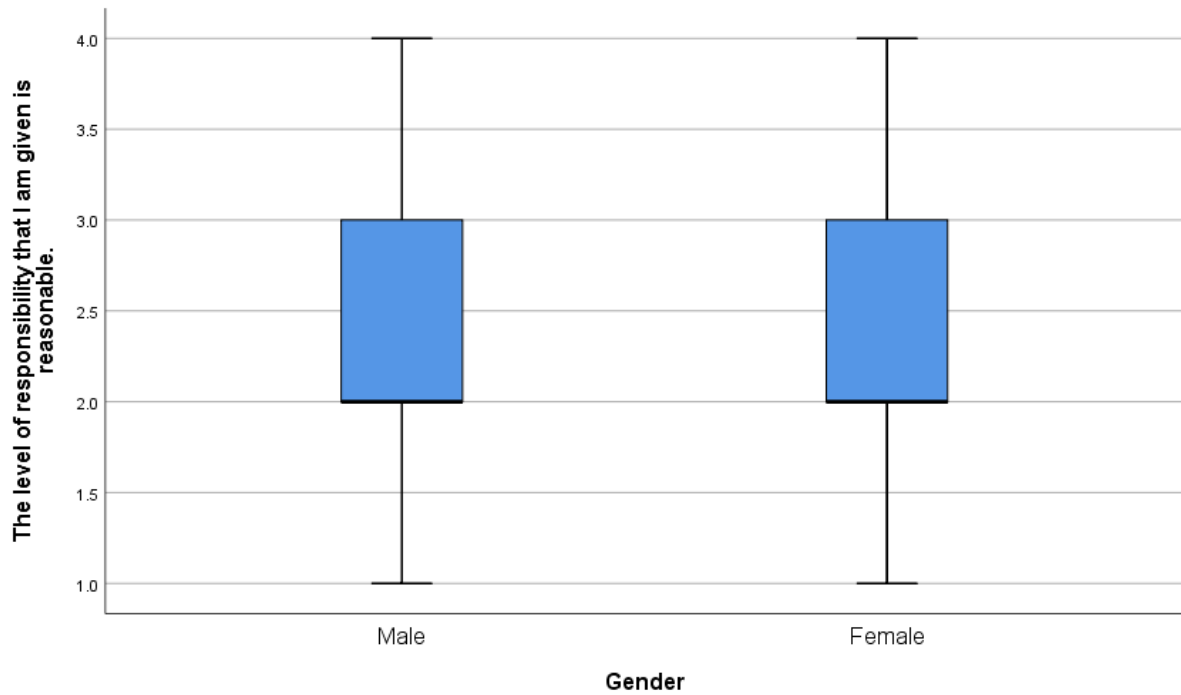


Figure 5.13: Workload item five boxplot

When it came to the item of “the level of responsibility that I am given is reasonable” (Figure 5.13) (item five of five surrounding workload), both male and females responded between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). There were no differences in the means of males and females; nor were there any differences between them from a holistic point of view (see Annexure H).

Taking into account the observations above in Figure 5.10, Figure 5.11, Figure 5.12, Figure 12.13 and Figure 5.14 it becomes apparent that females were more agreeable towards workloads when compared to their male counterparts. Therefore, the inference can be made that, women were more positively inclined towards workload as opposed to males.

5.10 Comparison of employment equity and employee morale perceptions among racial groups

It was previously mentioned in Chapter Four that a One-Way Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) is a statistical method to compare differences between three or more independent (unrelated) groups (Heiman, 2010). A one-way ANOVA was thus conducted (Table 5.18 below) to compare the differences in perceptions of

employment equity and employee morale based on race at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town (third set of hypothesis). The statistically significant values are highlighted in blue.

Table 5.12: One-Way ANOVA between racial groups

ONE-WAY ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Inclusive organisational culture	Between Groups	1.127	2	.564	.855	.427
	Within Groups	108.142	164	.659		
	Total	109.269	166			
Management commitment	Between Groups	4.724	2	2.362	3.437	.034
	Within Groups	112.701	164	.687		
	Total	117.425	166			
Transparent communication	Between Groups	2.455	2	1.227	3.355	.037
	Within Groups	59.988	164	.366		
	Total	62.443	166			
Fair employment practices	Between Groups	5.013	2	2.506	5.937	.003
	Within Groups	69.227	164	.422		
	Total	74.240	166			
Training and development	Between Groups	4.795	2	2.398	3.686	.027
	Within Groups	106.678	164	.650		
	Total	111.473	166			
Recognition and regard	Between Groups	.961	2	.480	1.400	.250
	Within Groups	56.261	164	.343		
	Total	57.222	166			
Professional development	Between Groups	2.739	2	1.369	2.280	.105
	Within Groups	98.483	164	.601		
	Total	101.222	166			
Working relationships	Between Groups	7.368	2	3.684	5.740	.004
	Within Groups	105.266	164	.642		
	Total	112.635	166			
Autonomy / decision-making	Between Groups	.380	2	.190	.245	.783
	Within Groups	127.189	164	.776		
	Total	127.569	166			
Workloads	Between Groups	1.007	2	.503	1.591	.207
	Within Groups	51.872	164	.316		
	Total	52.878	166			

Table 5.12 Continued

Respect for cultural practices	Between Groups	8.596	2	4.298	4.824	.009
	Within Groups	146.123	164	.891		
	Total	154.719	166			
Recognising the need for diversity	Between Groups	1.182	2	.591	.720	.488
	Within Groups	134.591	164	.821		
	Total	135.772	166			
Perceptions of diversity	Between Groups	.049	2	.025	.038	.963
	Within Groups	106.070	164	.647		
	Total	106.120	166			
Skills needed to manage a diverse workforce	Between Groups	4.958	2	2.479	3.173	.044
	Within Groups	128.143	164	.781		
	Total	133.102	166			

Taking into account the statistics in Table 5.12 above, only five factors and two items were statistically significant (shaded in blue), namely management commitment [F (2,16) =3.43, p = .034], transparent communication [F (2,16) =3.35, p=.037], fair employment practices [F (2,16) =5.93, p=.003], training and development [F (2,16) =3.68, p=.027], working relationships [F (2,16) =5.74, p=.004], respect for cultural practices [F (2,16) 4.82, p=.009] and skills to manage a diverse workforce ([F (2,16) =2.47, p =.044]. This cannot be accepted in its full entirety, as its not conclusive. The hypothesis (H_{1c}) that respondents' perceptions on employment equity and employee morale based on race are statistically significantly different can thus not be accepted.

In order to identify where the statistically significant differences lie, a relevant post hoc test should be performed. When sample sizes in a research study are different and unequal, the appropriate post hoc test to be used is Tamhane T2 (Shingala & Rajyaguru, 2015), thus, Tamhane T2 will be chosen for this research study (Table 5.13 below) with significant differences shaded in blue. The post hoc test for all factors and items are shown in Annexure G.

Table 5.13: Tamhane T2 post-hoc test

Multiple Comparisons							
Tamhane							
Dependent Variable	(I) Race Simplified	(J) Race Simplified	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Management commitment	White	Black African	-.330	.184	.223	-.791	.129
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.543*	.190	.020	-1.018	-.068
	Black African	White	.330	.184	.223	-.129	.791
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.212	.138	.335	-.548	.122
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.543*	.190	.020	.068	1.018
		Black African	.212	.138	.335	-.122	.548
Transparent communication	White	Black African	.081	.134	.908	-.256	.420
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.192	.147	.487	-.558	.173
	Black African	White	-.081	.134	.908	-.420	.256
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.274*	.106	.035	-.533	-.014
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.192	.147	.487	-.173	.558
		Black African	.274*	.106	.035	.014	.533
Fair employment practices	White	Black African	.034	.134	.992	-.300	.369
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.349	.143	.055	-.704	.005
	Black African	White	-.034	.134	.992	-.369	.300
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.384*	.112	.003	-.656	-.112
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.349	.143	.055	-.005	.704
		Black African	.384*	.112	.003	.112	.656
Training and development	White	Black African	-.069	.143	.948	-.421	.282
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.422*	.145	.016	-.781	-.063
	Black African	White	.069	.143	.948	-.282	.421
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.352*	.135	.031	-.681	-.024
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.422*	.145	.016	.063	.781
		Black African	.352*	.135	.031	.024	.681
Working relationships	White	Black African	-.086	.170	.944	-.512	.340
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.523*	.182	.018	-.975	-.071
	Black African	White	.086	.170	.944	-.340	.512
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.437*	.138	.006	-.773	-.101
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.523*	.182	.018	.071	.975
		Black African	.437*	.138	.006	.101	.773

Table 5.13 Continued

Respect for cultural practices	White	Black African	-.417*	.161	.037	-.81	-.02
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.727*	.185	.001	-1.18	-.27
	Black African	White	.417*	.161	.037	.02	.81
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.310	.171	.202	-.72	.10
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.727*	.185	.001	.27	1.18
		Black African	.310	.171	.202	-.10	.72
Skills needed to manage a diverse workforce	White	Black African	-.259	.164	.323	-.67	.15
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.534*	.190	.020	-1.00	-.07
	Black African	White	.259	.164	.323	-.15	.67
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.275	.162	.256	-.67	.12
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.534*	.190	.020	.07	1.00
		Black African	.275	.162	.256	-.12	.67

Considering that the post-hoc test (Tamhane T2) above (Table 5.13) shows five factors and two items were statistically significant, namely management commitment, transparent communication, fair employment practices, training and development, working relationships respect for cultural practices and skills to manage a diverse workforce (equal variances not assumed), a summary of the differences in means for the statistically significant variables, as demarcated per race, are depicted and explained in Figure 5.14, Figure 5.15, Figure 5.16, Figure 5.17, Figure 5.18, Figure 5.19 and Figure 5.20 below.

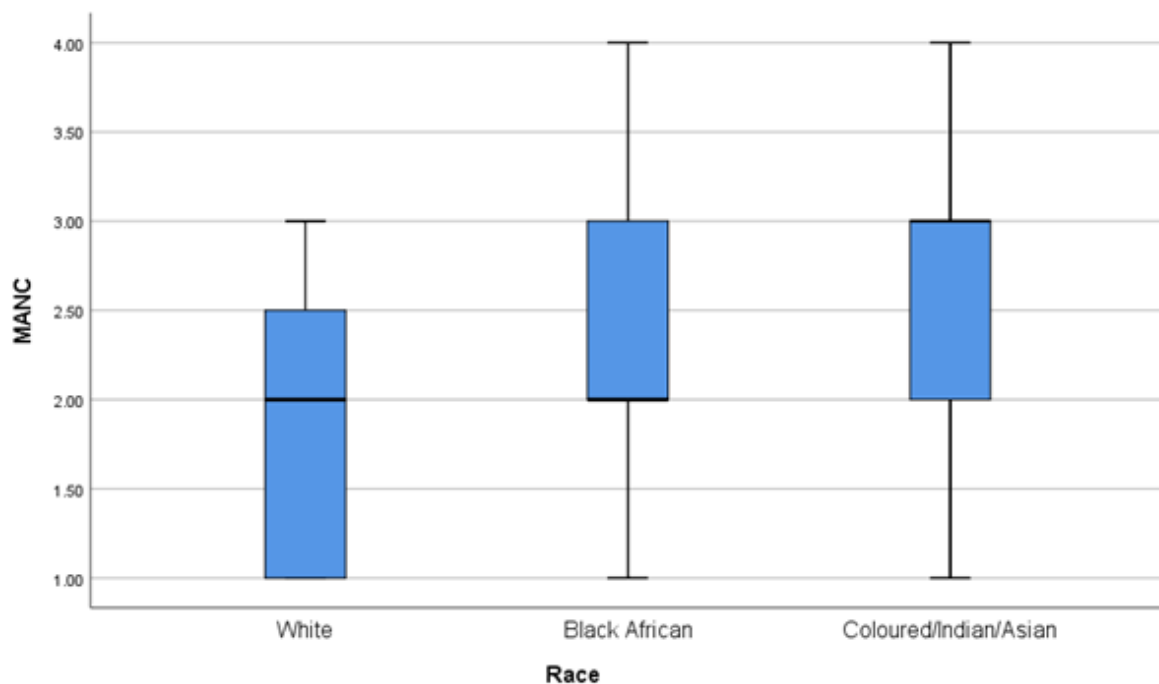


Figure 5.14: Management commitment boxplot

Taking into account Figure 5.14, it is clear that on average, answers ranged from “strongly agree” (1.00) to 3.00 (disagree). There were statistically significant different perceptions concerning perceptions of commitment from management between white and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents. On average, white respondents were “agreeable” (2.00), while Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents “disagreeable” (3.00), which suggests that white respondents were more positive concerning commitment from management, whereas Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents negatively inclined (see Annexure I).

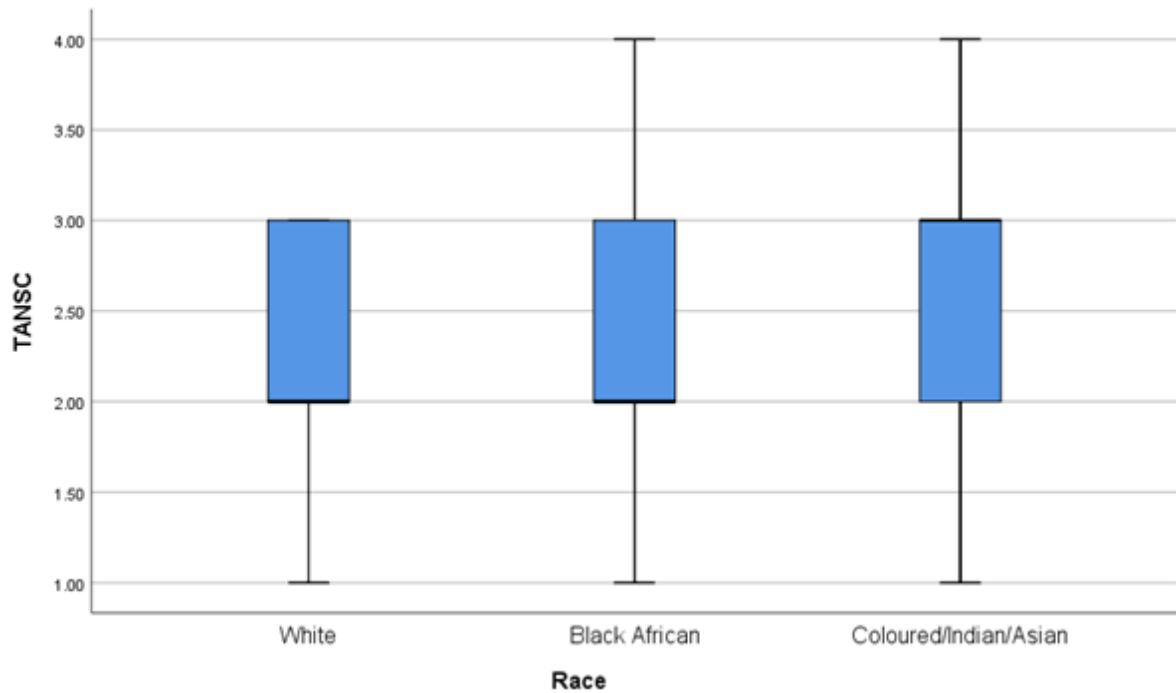


Figure 5.15: Transparent communication boxplot

From Figure 5.15, it is evident that on average, answers range from “agree” (2.00) to “disagree” (3.00). There were statistically significant different views concerning transparent communication between black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents. On average, black African respondents were “agreeable” (2.00), while Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents scored “disagreeable) (3.00), which suggests that black African respondents were more positively inclined towards transparent communication, whereas Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents were negatively inclined (see Annexure I).

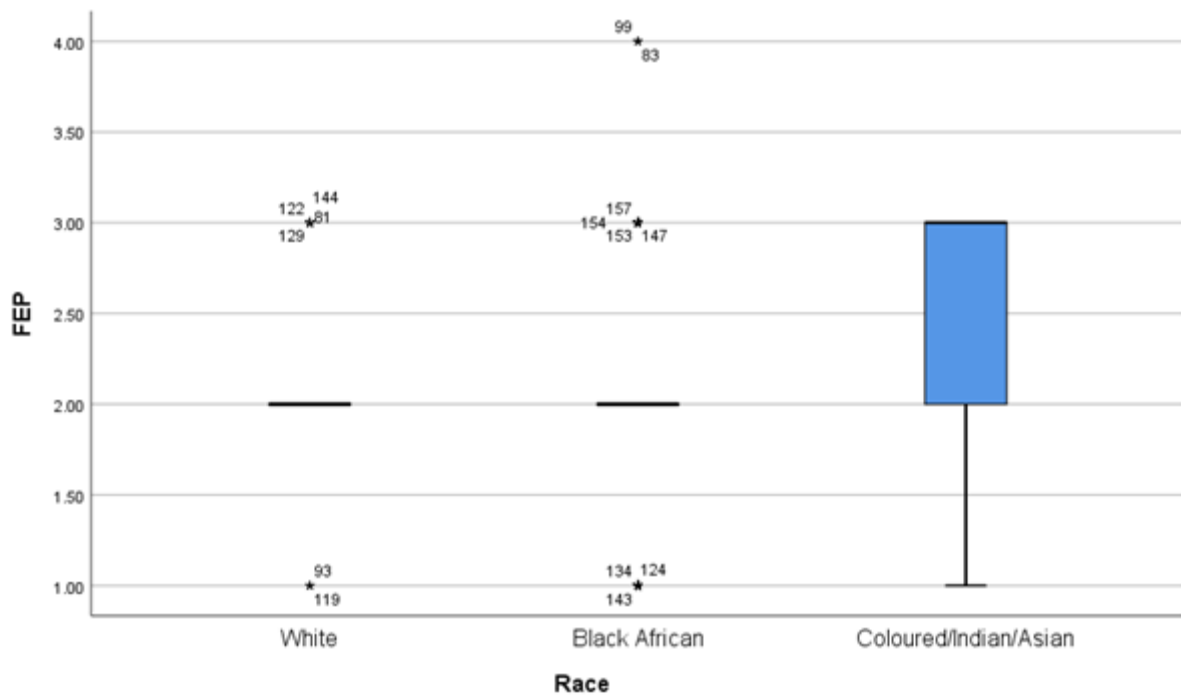


Figure 5.16: Fair employment practices boxplot

There were statistically significant differences concerning fair employment practices between black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents. Taking into account Figure 5.16 as well as Annexure I, responses surrounding fair employment practices predominately ranged from “agree” (2.00) to “disagree” (3.00). It becomes apparent that 75% of black Africans were more agreeable (71 out of 94 respondents) when compared to 46% of Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents in relation to fair employment practices. Moreover, 22% of black Africans were in disagreement (23 out of 94 respondents) when compared to 54% of Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents (27 out of 50 respondents). Therefore, the inference can be made that black Africans were positively inclined towards fair employment practices, whereas Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents were negatively inclined.

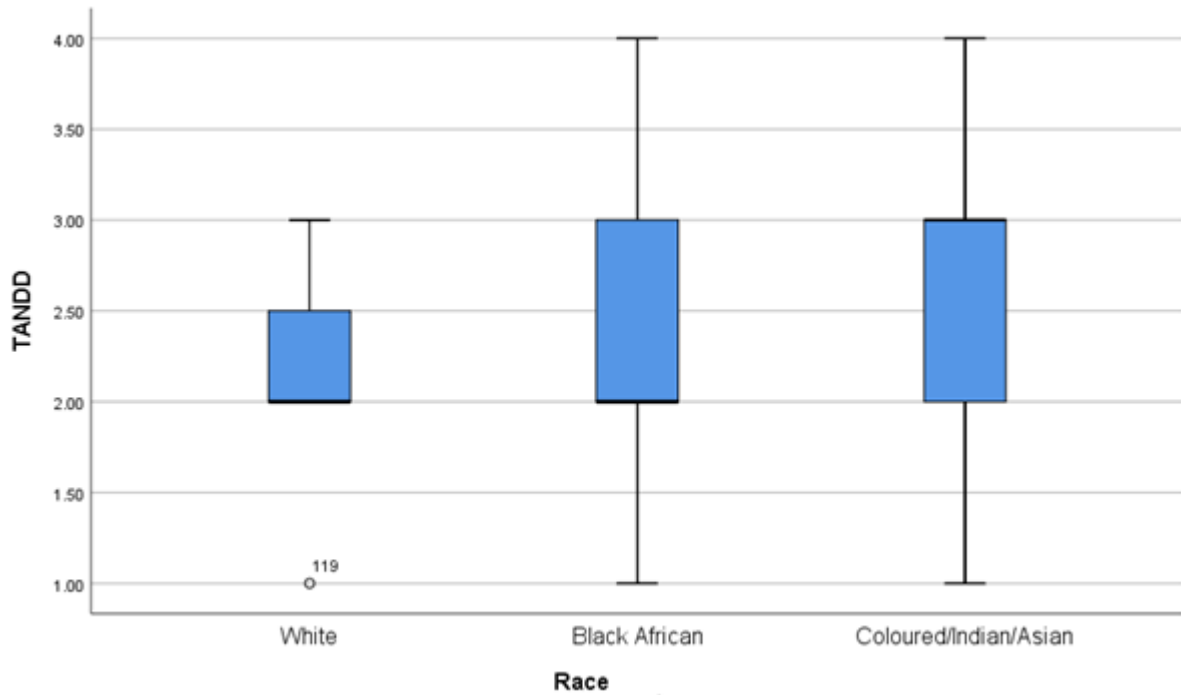


Figure 5.17: Training and development boxplot

Taking into account Figure 5.17, it clear that on average, respondents answered between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). There were statistically significant different perceptions relating to training and development between white and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents. On average, white respondents were “agreeable” (2.00), while Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents were “disagreeable” (3.00), which suggests that white respondents were more positive towards perceptions of training and development, whereas Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents were negative (see Annexure I).

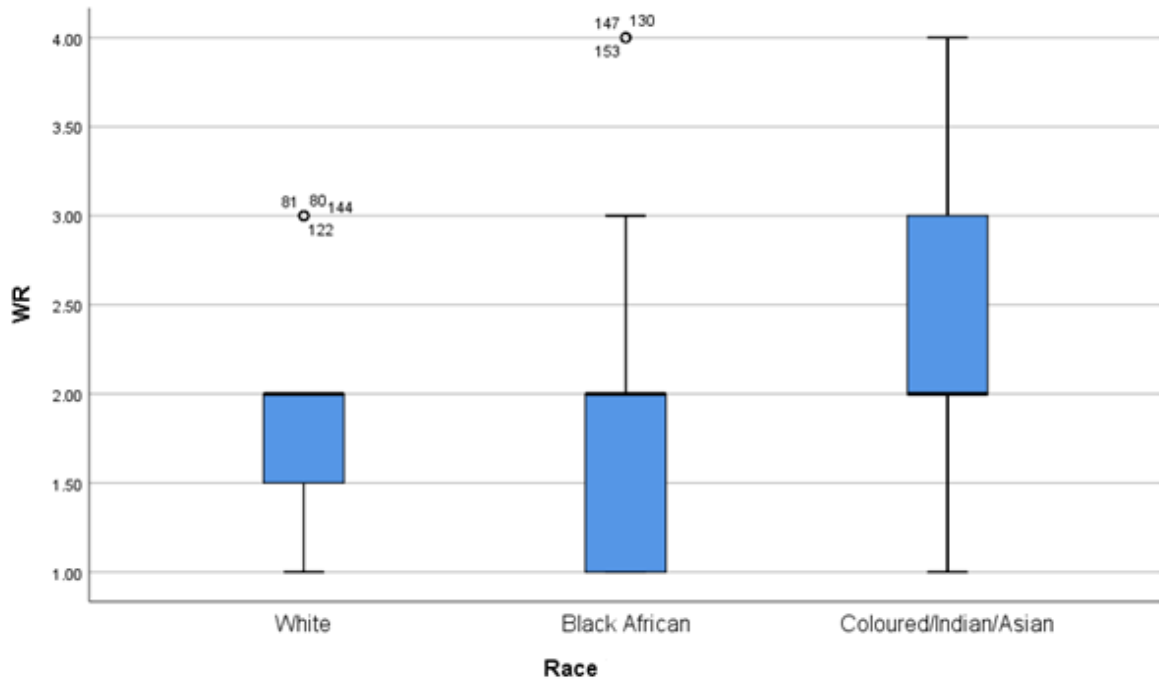


Figure 5.18: Working relationships boxplot

From Figure 5.18, it is apparent on average, respondents scored between “strongly agree” (1.00) and “disagree” (3.00). There were statistically significantly different perceptions relating to working relationships between black Africans and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents. Black Africans’ responses surrounding working relationships predominately ranged from “strongly agree” (1.00) to “agree” (2.00) whereas Coloured/Indian/Asian responses on the same aspect ranged from “agree” (2.00) to “disagree” (3.00). Therefore, the conclusion can be drawn that black Africans possessed more positive views relating to working relationships, whereas Coloured/Indian/Asians held negative views (see Annexure I).

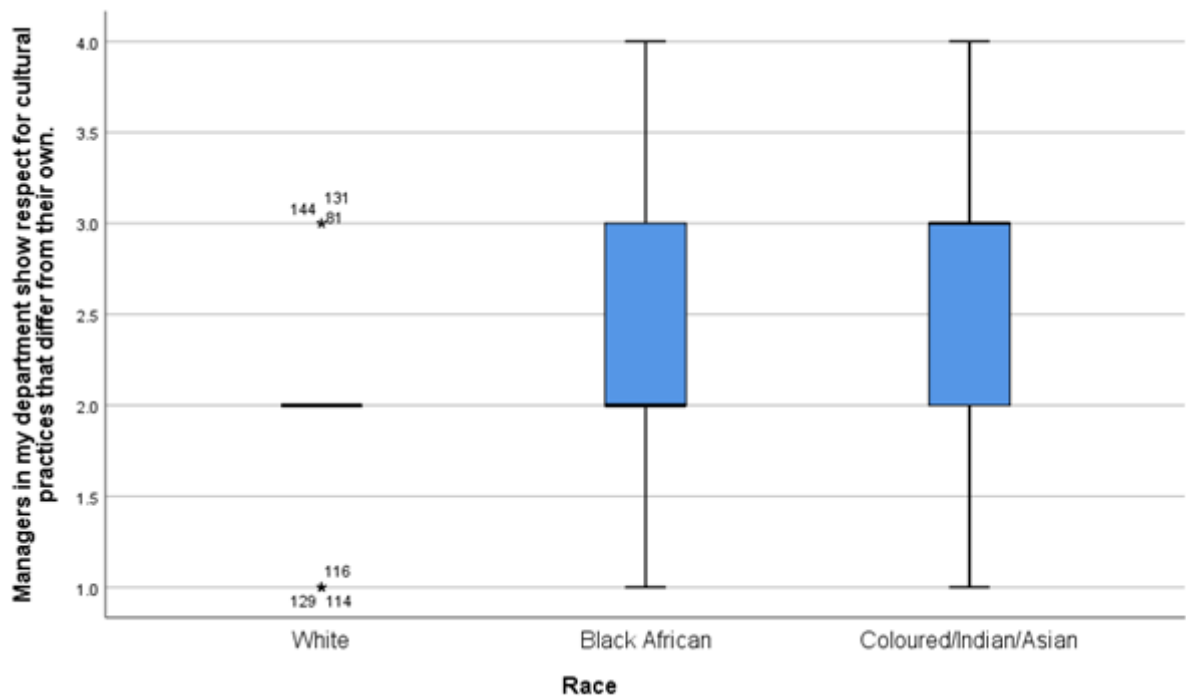


Figure 5.19: Respect for cultural practices boxplot

Considering Figure 5.19, there were significantly different perceptions relating to respect for cultural practices between white, black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents. On average, responses predominately ranged between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). White respondents were, on average, “agreeable” (2.00) while black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian tended to be “disagree” (3.00) on average. Thus, the inference can be made that white respondents were more positive towards perceptions of respect for cultural practices, as opposed to black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents who were negatively inclined (see Annexure I).

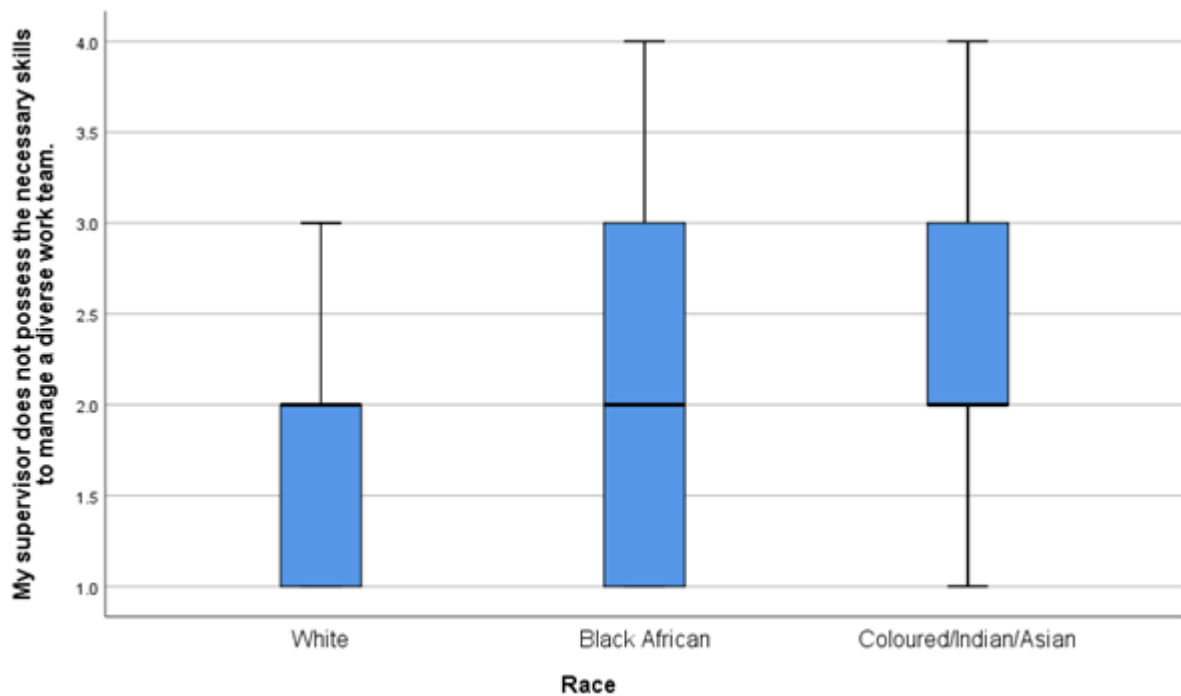


Figure 5.20: Skills to manage a diverse workforce boxplot

From the boxplot in Figure 5.20, it appears that responses predominately ranged between “strongly agree” (1.00) to “disagree” (3.00). White respondents’ responses tended to range between “strongly agree” (1.00) and “agree” (2.00), while Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents’ responses ranged between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). This leads to the that white respondents were positively inclined towards perceptions of skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, as opposed to Coloured/Indian/Asian respondents, who were negatively inclined towards the same aspect (see Annexure I).

In summary, it appears that whites were more positively inclined towards management commitment when compared to Coloureds/Indians/Asians, while black Africans had more positive perceptions of transparent communication as opposed to that of Coloureds/Indians/Asians. Moreover, black Africans were more positively inclined towards fair employment practices when compared to Coloureds/Indians/Asians, and in terms of training and development, whites had more positive perceptions when compared to Coloureds/Indians/Asians. Furthermore, black Africans had positive perceptions concerning working relationship as opposed to Coloureds/Indians/Asians. Regarding respect for cultural practices, whites were more positively inclined than black Africans and Coloureds/Indians/Asians, and whites had positive perceptions regarding the skills

managers need to manage a diverse workforce, as opposed to Coloureds/Indians/Asians.

5.11 Comparison of employment equity and employee morale dimensions between whites and non-whites

An Independent Samples *t* Test was conducted (Table 5.14 below) in order to investigate the fourth set of hypothesis, whether there were statistically significant differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale between white and non-white employees at the public service organisation in Cape Town. The statistically significant values are highlighted in blue. The following became evident from the results:

Table 5.14: Independent Samples *t* Test between white and non-white respondents

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
IOC	Equal variances assumed	3.424	.066	-1.203	165	.231	-.218	.181	-.578	.140

Table 5.14 Continued

MC	Equal variances not assumed			-2.316	31.081	.027	-.404	.174	-.760	-.048
TC	Equal variances assumed	.338	.562	-.096	165	.923	-.013	.138	-.286	.259
FEP	Equal variances assumed	4.462	.036	-.656	165	.513	-.098	.150	-.395	.198
TAD	Equal variances assumed	11.684	.001	-1.046	165	.297	-.192	.183	-.555	.170
RR	Equal variances assumed	7.235	.008	-1.424	165	.156	-.187	.131	-.446	.072
PD	Equal variances not assumed			-2.824	45.752	.007	-.338	.119	-.579	-.097
WR	Equal variances assumed	1.595	.208	-1.289	165	.199	-.237	.184	-.602	.126
ADM	Equal variances assumed	4.323	.039	-.190	165	.850	-.037	.197	-.427	.352

Table 5.14 Continued

WL	Equal variances assumed	1.049	.307	-.761	165	.448	-.096	.126	-.347	.153
RCP	Equal variances not assumed			-3.509	44.528	.001	-.524	.149	-.826	-.223
RND	Equal variances assumed	5.715	.018	-1.111	165	.268	-.226	.203	-.626	.175
POD	Equal variances assumed	.809	.370	-.216	165	.829	-.039	.180	-.394	.317
SMD	Equal variances not assumed			-2.275	37.758	.029	-.354	.156	-.670	-.039

Only four factors, namely management commitment, $t(31)=-2.31$, $p=.027$, professional development, $t(45)=-2.82$, $p=.007$, respect or cultural practices $t(44)=-3.50$, $p=.001$, and skills to manage a diverse workforce $t(37)=-2.27$, $p=.029$, (shaded in blue), had p-values smaller than or equal to 0.05. This translates to the fact that respondents have statistically significantly different views on the latter. On the other hand, there were no significant differences ($p > .05$) regarding inclusive organisational culture, $t(165)=-1.20$, $p=.231$, transparent communication, $t(165)=-.096$, $p=.9.23$, fair employment practices, $t(165)=-.656$, $p=.513$, training and development $t(165)=-1.04$, $p=.297$, recognition and regard, $t(165)=-1.42$, $p=.156$, working relationships $t(165)=-1.28$, $p=.199$, autonomy / decision-making, $t(165)=-1.90$, $p=.850$, workload, $t(165)=-.761$, $p=.448$, recognising the need for diversity $t(165)=-1.11$, $p=.268$ and perceptions of diversity, $t(165)=-.216$, $p=.829$, all have p-values greater than 0.05. This means there were no statistically

significant differences between views of respondents in relation to these factors/items, between white and non-white respondents.

Only four of the tested dimensions were statistically significant and thus, there was no convincing evidence to support the hypothesis that respondents' perceptions on employment equity and employee morale between white and non-white employees are statistically significant, and as a result, the hypothesis (H_{1d}) of this research study cannot be accepted.

Considering that only two factors and two items were statistically significant, namely management commitment, professional development, respect for cultural practices and skills to manage a diverse workforce (equal variances not assumed), a summary of the differences in means, as demarcated between white and non-white respondents, are shown and explained in Figure 5.21, Figure 5.22, Figure 5.23 and 5.24 below.

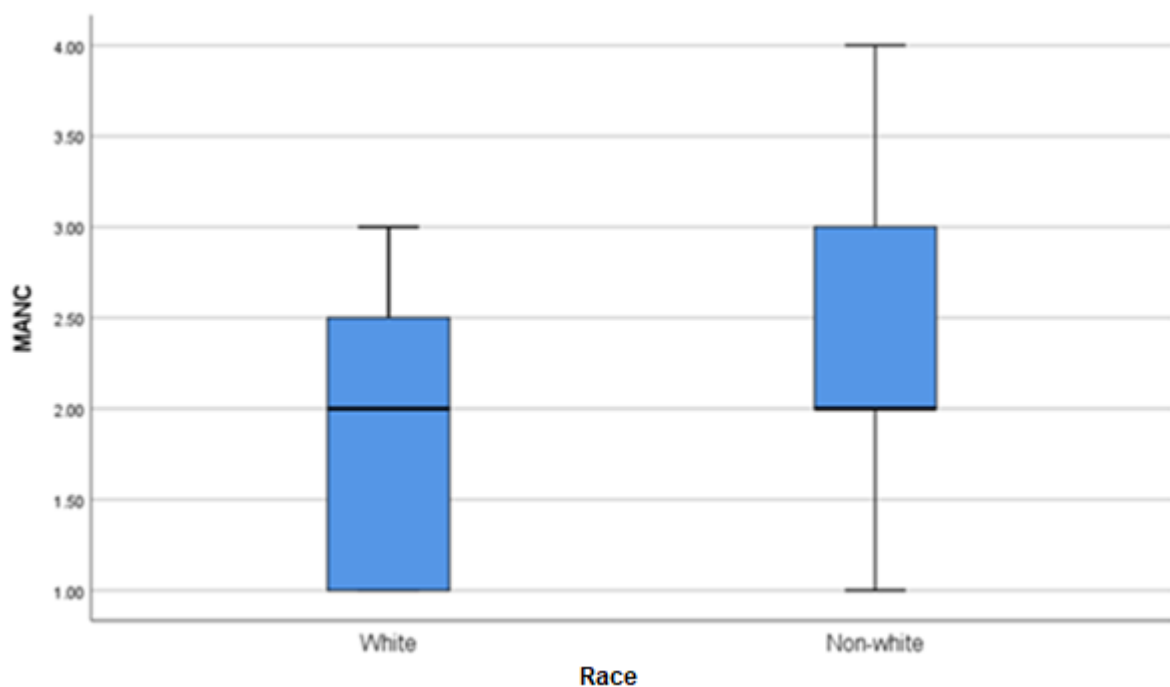


Figure 5.21: Management commitment boxplot

From the boxplot in Figure 5.21, it appears that whites' responses surrounding management commitment predominately ranged between "strongly agree" (1.00) to "agree" (2.00), whereas non-whites' responses surrounding the same aspect ranged from "agree" (2.00) and "disagree" (3.00). Therefore, the inference can be made that white respondents were more agreeable towards commitment from management, whereas non-white respondents were disagreeable (see Annexure J).

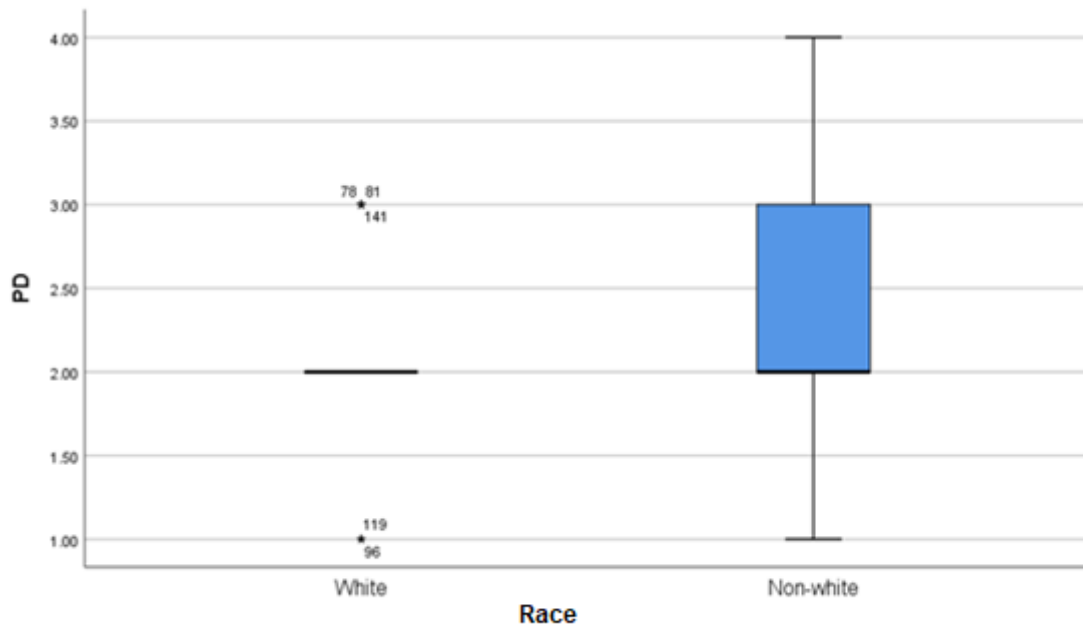


Figure 5.22: Professional development boxplot

Taking into account the boxplot in Figure 5.22, it becomes apparent that responses ranged from “agree” (2.00) to “disagree” (3.00). 86.96% of whites were more agreeable (20 out of 23 respondents) when compared to 57.64% of non-whites (83 out of 144 respondents) in relation to professional development. Moreover, 42.36% of non-whites were more in disagreement (61 out of 144 respondents) when compared to 13.04% of whites (3 out of 23 respondents). Therefore, the inference can be made that non-white respondents were more negatively inclined towards professional development as opposed to white respondents (see Annexure J).

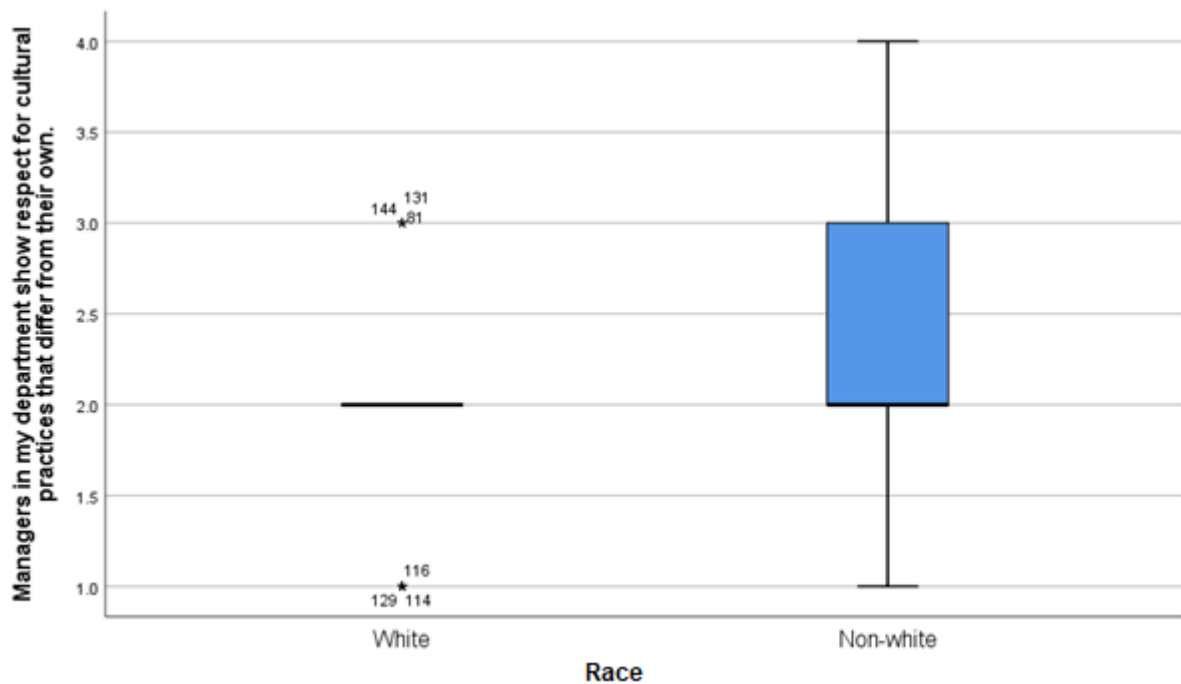


Figure 5.23: Respect for cultural practices boxplot

From the boxplot in Figure 5.23, it is clear that responses ranged from “agree” (2.00) to “disagree” (3.00). 89.96% of whites were more agreeable (20 out of 23 respondents), as opposed to 56.94% of non-white respondents (82 out of 144 respondents) who were disagreeable. Additionally, 43% of non-whites were more in disagreement (62 out of 144 respondents), when compared to 13.04% of white respondents (3 out of 23 respondents). This leads to the conclusion that non-white respondents held more negative views (see Annexure J).

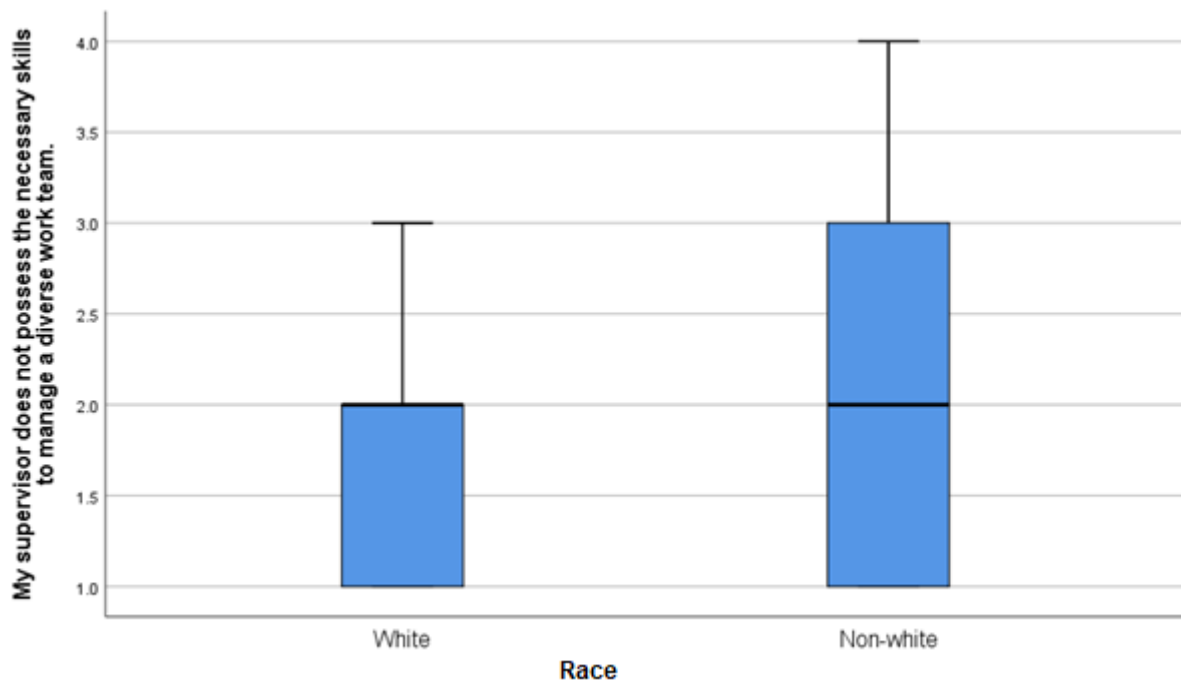


Figure 5.24: Skills to manage a diverse workforce boxplot

From the boxplot in Figure 2.24, it becomes apparent that responses ranged from “strongly agree” (1.00) to “disagree” (3.00). On average, white respondents answered from “strongly agree” (1.00) and “agree (2.00), whereas non-white respondents answered between “agree” (2.00) and “disagree” (3.00). Therefore, the inference can be made that white respondents were more positively inclined towards skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, whereas non-white respondents were negatively inclined (see Annexure J).

Taking into account Figures 5.22-25 above, white respondents were more positive concerning commitment from management as opposed to non-white respondents; white respondents were more positive concerning professional development opportunities as opposed to non-white respondents; white respondents were more positive concerning respect for cultural practices in the workplace as opposed to non-white respondents and lastly, white respondents were more positive concerning managers possessing the skills to manage a diverse workforce when compared to non-white respondents.

5.12 Summary

Descriptive statistical analysis was performed on the demographic characteristics of the sampled employees in relation to their perceptions of EE and EM. The perceptions

of EE and EM were generally satisfactory when compared with a mean midpoint of 2.50. Before any data could be analysed, the reliability and validity of the scales measuring EE and EM were examined. Cronbach's Alpha was used to examine the reliability and Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) the validity of the scales. All but one dimension was deemed reliable, namely 'justification and diversity management,' missing the cut-off point with a Cronbach Alpha score of .48.

The four hypotheses examined in the study were then analysed. The first hypothesis, namely that employment equity correlated with employee morale, was examined using the Pearson Correlation Coefficient to test for correlation between perceptions of employment equity and perceptions of employee morale. There were significant correlations between the dimensions of employee morale and employment equity, confirming the first hypothesis (H_{1a}).

On the second hypothesis, namely that gender correlated with employment equity and employee morale, an Independent Samples *t* Test was performed that found that there were significant differences between these two groups relating to the perceptions of management commitment and workloads. It appears that women possessed more positive perceptions than men, in terms of both management commitment and workload. These were the only two significant differences and as such, the hypothesis that respondents' perceptions on employment equity and employee morale based on gender are statistically significant (H_{1b}) is not accepted.

A One-way ANOVA was conducted to compare the differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale according to race, to test the third hypothesis of the study. The results indicated there were only statistically significant differences for race relating to management commitment, transparent communication, fair employment practices, training and development, working relationships, respect for cultural practices and skills needed to manage a diverse workforce. In order to expand on where the statistically significant differences lie, a relevant post hoc (Tamhane T2) test was performed. Whites were more positively inclined towards management commitment when compared to Coloureds/Indians/Asians/, while black Africans had more positive perceptions of transparent communication as opposed to that of Coloureds/Indians/Asians. Moreover, black Africans were more positively inclined towards fair employment

practices when compared to Coloureds/Indians/Asians, and in terms of training and development, whites had more positive perceptions when compared to Coloureds/Indians/Asians. Furthermore, white respondents had positive views regarding professional development when compared to the views of Coloureds/Indians/Asians, while Black Africans had positive perceptions concerning working relationship as opposed to Coloureds/Indians/Asians. Regarding respect for cultural practices, Whites were more positively inclined than black Africans and Coloureds/Indians/Asians, and whites had positive perceptions regarding the skills managers need to manage a diverse workforce, as opposed to Coloureds/Indians/Asians. The hypothesis (H_{1c}) that respondents' perceptions on employment equity and employee morale based on race are statistically significantly different can thus not be accepted.

An Independent Samples *t* Test was thereafter performed to test the fourth hypothesis of the study, to determine if the means for the perceptions of employment equity and employee morale differed significantly between whites and non-whites. The test indicated that only four factors, namely management commitment, professional development, respect for cultural practices and skills to manage a diverse workforce, had p-values smaller than or equal to 0.05. This translates to the fact that respondents only have statistically significantly different views on the latter. White respondents were more positive concerning commitment from management as opposed to non-white respondents; white respondents were more positive concerning professional development opportunities as opposed to non-white respondents; white respondents were more positive concerning respect for cultural practices in the workplace as opposed to non-white respondents; and lastly, white respondents were more positive concerning managers possessing the skills to manage a diverse workforce when compared to non-white respondents. There was thus no convincing evidence to support the hypothesis that respondents' perceptions on employment equity and employee morale between white and non-white employees are statistically significantly different, and as a result, the hypothesis (H_{1d}) of this research study cannot be accepted.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This logical process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 6.1: Outline of Chapter Six

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study
Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity
Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation
Chapter Four: Research methodology
Chapter Five: Research findings
Chapter Six: Discussion of results <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 6.1) Introduction• 6.2) How the different dimensions measuring employment equity correlate• 6.3) How the various dimensions measuring employee morale correlate• 6.4) Key correlations between employment equity and employee morale• 6.5) How self-identified members of different genders differed significantly in their perceptions of employment equity and employee morale• 6.6) How self-identified members of racial groups differ significantly in their perceptions of employment equity and employee morale• 6.7) Conclusion
Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the study's research findings, and this chapter discusses the implications of these findings. The discussion is divided into five sections. The first section considers how different dimensions and items measuring EE correlate with one another. The second discusses how different EM dimensions correlate with one another. The third section examines the key correlations between the EE and EM dimensions. In the fourth section, there is discussion of how (self-identified) gender correlates with perceptions of EE and EM. The final section considers the extent to which (self-identified) race correlates with perceptions of EE and EM.

6.2 How the different dimensions measuring employment equity correlate

Pearson's r (Table 5.8, p.101) outlines the correlations between EE dimensions and items. Inclusive organisational culture correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Management commitment correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Transparent communication correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Fair employment practices correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Training and development correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Respect for cultural practices correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Recognising the need for diversity correlated with all indicators, except for perceptions of diversity. Skills to manage a diverse workforce correlated with all indicators.

The section that follows provides a comprehensive discussion of how the dimensions of EE correlated with one another.

6.2.1 Inclusive organisational culture correlations with employment equity dimensions

Ensuring an inclusive organisational culture is the goal of effective AA implementation (Meyer, 2018). Supervisors must attempt to create an inclusive organisational culture that appreciates diversity and promotes equity and staff retention (Human, 1993). The development of shared meaning requires employees to invest in the organisation's vision and values, and engage in standard, expected behaviour towards colleagues (Vance, 2006).

The dimension 'inclusive organisational culture' correlated significantly with perceptions of commitment from management, which made sense, as the literature reviewed emphasises that an inclusive organisational culture requires passion and commitment from management, especially top management (Reilly, 1998).

An inclusive organisational culture is also the end result of effective AA implementation and the attempt by management to create a culture that appreciates diversity and promotes equity (Meyer, 2018). Chary (2012) maintains that the contribution and commitment from management in creating a desired inclusive organisational culture cannot be over-emphasised. Management cannot expect a desirable inclusive organisational culture unless its members enact it themselves. Research conducted by Kilian et al. (2005) shows that while legislation is essential to eradicating unfair workplace discrimination, it is not in itself enough, as organisational culture change towards inclusivity also needs to take place. Compliance with EE is simply the beginning of inclusive organisational culture change, and management needs to be committed to supporting EE by implementing coherent employment strategies concentrating on inclusive practices and organisational culture change (Booyesen, 2007). An alarming trend revealed in research studies conducted by Sadler and Erasmus (2003) and Selby and Sutherland (2006) indicates that the retention rate for black employees has declined among SAn organisations. A reason for this decline, according to Booyesen (2007), is the low commitment to EE on the part of top management.

Perceptions of an inclusive organisational culture correlated with positive perceptions of transparent communication from organisational stakeholders. This was anticipated, given that inclusive organisational cultures are cultivated and shaped by transparent communication (Barker & Angelopulo, 2006). Juneja (2015) asserts that transparency in communication plays a critical role in improving the comfort factor among employees and consequently contributes to a healthy organisational culture. Cox (1993) underlines the importance of this transparency by noting that cultural differences may otherwise become a source of misunderstanding in the workplace and reduce workgroup effectiveness.

The significant correlation between an inclusive organisational culture and fair employment practices did not come as a surprise, as Beugré (1998) has highlighted that the dominant organisational culture may influence perceptions of fair employment practices. A positive workplace culture is one in which all employees are exposed to

fair employment practices (including equal access to rewards) and are treated equally in an overall fair working environment (Agarwal, 2018).

The correlation between the dimensions of an inclusive organisational culture and training and development initiatives was again not surprising, as Garavan et al. (1995) have noted that an organisational culture that encourages and places a strong emphasis on training and development eventually achieves desirable outcomes for all, such as promotions and new job skills (Hedge & Borman, 2012).

Perceptions of an inclusive organisational culture correlated significantly with the respect shown to all cultural practices within the workplace. Shavkun and Dybchinska (2018) assert that given the expansion of international relations in the world-wide economy, incorporating different cultural practices into an organisational culture is a universal recipe for success. When organisations allow employees with multiple backgrounds, mindsets and ways of thinking to work together, they are able to perform to their highest potential in the service of organisational objectives. In such an environment, different voices, perspectives and approaches are respected and heard, and thereby enabled to make a meaningful contribution (Pless & Maak, 2004).

Promoting an inclusive organisational culture implies an ethical discourse in which all cultures are respected and no culture is excluded. Each culture is afforded an equal opportunity to participate in shaping the cultural backbone of the organisation, including its values, norms and policies (De Pablos et al., 2020). An inclusive organisational culture is believed by De Pablos et al. (2020) to exist when strategies, processes, systems, values and norms are based on the diversified knowledge and perspectives of the overall group. The correlation between an inclusive organisational culture and respect shown to all cultural practices within the workplace was therefore predicted. The same applies to the significant correlation between an inclusive organisational culture and recognising the need for diversity in the workplace.

The significant correlation between an inclusive organisational culture and the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce made logical sense. As Kenely (2013) has explained, training and equipping managers with the skills required to manage a diverse workforce is a key factor in embracing organisational diversity.

The dimension of an inclusive organisational culture and perceptions of diversity correlated negatively. This finding was unexpected, as it was documented in a study led by Sezerel and Tonus (2016) that an inclusive culture in an organisation has a powerful impact on employees' perceptions of diversity; and the manner in which they view diversity impacts on their behaviour within the organisation (Daniels, 2012).

6.2.2 Management commitment's correlations with employment equity dimensions

The commitment of management, especially top management, is vital to the effectiveness of any AA programme in bringing about organisational change and transformation (Elmuti, 1996; Esterhuizen, 2008; Twala, 2004). The success of AA in SA is thus largely dependent on commitment from managers.

There was significant correlation between the EE dimensions of commitment from management and open, honest and transparent communication. This finding was expected, because if communication occurs merely for reasons of compliance, it is unlikely that any long-term transformation and organisational change will be achieved. Clearly and actively communicating with employees ensures support and buy-in from them, so managers should be keenly committed to ensuring open and transparent communication.

The significant correlation between the EE dimensions of commitment from management and fair and unbiased employment practices was, again, not surprising. Authors like Ichijo and Ninaja (2007) and Hirschhorn and Barnett (1993) claim that management should not only demonstrate a strong commitment to the rules of fair employment practices, but should also set this commitment out in a written workplace policy. A commitment to fair employment practices from management often results in a solid competitive advantage through a loyal, trusting workforce (Ingram, 2009).

The EE dimensions of commitment from management and training and development correlated significantly. A plausible reason for this is put forward by Linn (2018), who argues that if management demonstrates its commitment through promoting training and development, the costs are minimal in comparison to the benefits reaped, which include lower staff turnover and a great improvement in employee engagement.

According to Ferdman and Deane (2013), in a world where employees of different backgrounds and cultures work together, it is essential to possess the skill to work with people from diverse cultural backgrounds. Management should be committed to respecting various cultural practices in order to make employees feel included. This explains the significant correlation between commitment from management and respect for all cultural practices in the workplace.

The significant correlation between commitment from management and recognising the need for diversity was not surprising, as recognised by Ongori and Agolla (2007):

the degree to which managers recognise the need for diversity and its potential benefits and drawbacks will determine their commitment to managing diversity. The significant correlation between commitment from management and the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce resonates with a study conducted by Yap et al. (2010), who conclude that when management is committed to effective diversity training, to equip managers and supervisors with the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, employees are more committed to their organisation and more satisfied generally with their careers.

6.2.3 Transparent communication correlations with employment equity dimensions

The EE Act, No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), requires that organisations consult with stakeholders and make information pertaining to EE easily available to employees (Van der Heyden, 2013). Communication is perceived as a critical component of corporate transformation (Leonard & Grobler, 2006). Without effective communication, organisations will be unable to comply with the responsibilities they bear in respect of their stakeholders and will not be able to implement their EE strategies successfully. The significant correlation between perceptions of transparent communication and fair, unbiased employment practices was not surprising: Mayhew (2017), for instance, emphasises that a key factor in fair employment practices is transparent, honest communication. Employees tend to perceive unfairness in employment practices if they do not receive clear communication, and thus the most effective way to ensure that all employment practices are seen to be fair is to ensure transparent communication (Spang, 2019). Thomas and Robertshaw (1999) propose a model in terms of which the EE process is managed as a business strategy. The focus of this model is on communication to obtain buy-in for the EE programme, and it comprises four phases of communication strategy (Thomas & Robertshaw, 1999). Phase 1 concerns the strategy positioning of the organisation through communication. This includes clear communication from top management on how barriers to EE will be addressed. Phase 2 focuses on the role of management and their commitment to EE initiatives. This message must be from top management and reinforced on a daily basis. Phase 3 involves communication with employee representatives, with the purpose of gaining support for the EE plan before its implementation. This phase involves establishing employee communication structures. The final phase promotes

ongoing communication with employees about the EE programme (Thomas & Robertshaw, 1999).

Perceptions of transparent communication and training and development correlated significantly. This aligns with views expressed in the literature, such as Juneja's (2015) contention that communication plays a critical role in the training and development of employees. If the exchange of ideas, thoughts and information occurs through transparent communication, employees can grow and develop in a professional context.

The significant correlation between perceptions of transparent communication and respect for all cultural practices was not surprising. It was mentioned earlier that diversity can have a deep impact on organisations and present many advantages (Thibeaux et al., 2006), including improved workplace productivity. Managers should therefore be committed to clearly communicating the need to respect all cultural practices in order to make employees feel included and normalise their presence.

The significant correlation between perceptions of transparent communication and recognising the need for diversity was unsurprising, as it is in line with the study carried out by Thibeaux et al. (2006), which stresses that, given its importance, clearly communicating the need for diversity is essential.

The EE dimensions of perceptions of transparent communication and the skills required to manage a diverse workforce correlated significantly, which reflects the fact that diversity heightens the need for clear and transparent communication. Managers should be trained in communication skills in order to address this issue, because without the communication skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, discrimination will always be a risk (Dike, 2013).

6.2.4 Fair employment practices correlations with employment equity dimensions

All employment practices, including the recruitment, selection and promotion of employees and retention of employees from previously disadvantaged groups, must remain free of unfair, biased practices, because any trace of the latter can undermine the system as a whole (Thomas, 2001). According to Adams' (1963) equity theory, when employees perceive that they are being treated fairly, they will be highly motivated, whereas if they perceive they are being subjected to unfair employment practices, their motivation will decline.

Perceptions of fair, unbiased practices correlated significantly with training and development. This was anticipated by Crawshaw et al. (2012), who report that if employees perceive training and development opportunities as fair, they are far more likely to demonstrate positive work attitudes, such as job satisfaction. This is supported by studies conducted by Birdi et al. (1997) and Chen et al. (2003).

The significant correlation between perceptions of fair, unbiased practices and respect for different cultural practices in the workplace makes perfect sense, as the latter is in a sense a direct consequence of the former. Mayhew (2019) insists that an employer has a critical responsibility to communicate its fair employment practice policies to encourage respect for cultural diversity.

The EE dimensions of perceptions of fair, unbiased practices and recognising the need for diversity within the workplace correlated significantly. A study conducted by Rahman (2019) indicates that the need for diversity will ultimately decrease discrimination and unfair employment practices. By the same token, when the need for diversity is not acknowledged, discrimination flourishes, as employees from minority cultural backgrounds feel isolated and exposed to pressure from colleagues. This can lead to discriminatory dynamics and overall unfair employment practices being entrenched in an organisation's culture (Kelly, 2018).

Booyesen and Nkomo (2014) posit that employees who view organisations as embracing diversity merely for the sake of legal compliance tend also to perceive the implementation of EE in South Africa generally to be solely a matter of legal compliance. The result is that they construe EE as an unfair employment practice. With this in mind, and given that previous studies had found a relationship between the two variables, it was unexpected that the correlations of perceptions of diversity and fair employment practices would turn out to be negative.

The significant correlation between perceptions of fair, unbiased practices and the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce was expected. Employers have the responsibility to train management in matters relating to cultural practices, thereby equipping them with the skills required to manage a diverse workforce. In the process they become familiar with the laws governing fair employment practices (Finn, 1993), including the EEA No 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), which prohibits unfair discrimination, and the Labour Relations Act No 66 of 1995 (South Africa, 1995), which renders dismissals based on race or cultural beliefs automatically unfair (Griessel, 2019).

6.2.5 Training and development correlations with employment equity dimensions

An EE plan should be linked to training and development for an EE strategy to be effective, as this supports employers in aligning skills development to EE (Van der Heyden, 2013). To assist organisations to align skills development with EE, several measures such as the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) have been introduced (Esterhuizen, 2008).

Mayhew (2019) asserts that employers have the responsibility to train employees and management on respecting cultural practices, and therefore the significant correlation between perception of training and development practices and respect for cultural practices in the workplace was not surprising.

The significant correlation between perception of training and development practices and recognising the need for diversity in the workplace made logical sense. Given the expansion of the need for diversity in today's global economy, if training and development programmes addressing the need for diversity are not implemented correctly, the result can be tension, misunderstandings and frustration (Thibeaux et al., 2006).

The significant correlation between perception of training and development practices and the skills required to manage a diverse workforce may be attributed to the need for diversity in today's global economy. It is essential that managers be equipped with the skills they need to manage a diverse workforce (Thibeaux et al., 2006), especially given the significant resources that organisations spend driving workplace diversity and inclusiveness (Blakemore, 2017).

6.2.6 Respect for cultural practices in the workplace correlations with employment equity dimensions

The significant correlation between perceptions of respecting all cultural practices in the workplace and recognising the need for diversity in the workplace can be explained in terms of the fact that recognising the need for diversity would predispose one to respect a diversity of cultural practices. The more diverse the staff, the more important it is to make sure that everyone feels at home in the organisation.

The significant correlation between perceptions of respecting all cultural practices in the workplace and the skills required to manage a diverse workforce was unsurprising. As Wang et al. (2016) point out, a key focus in training and equipping managers with

the necessary skills to manage a diverse workforce is to encourage tolerance and respect for employees from various backgrounds.

The EE item of perception of diversity and the dimension of recognising the need for diversity correlated negatively. Reynolds (2019) argues that when employees view diversity as a means for an organisation to attract and retain the best talent from a culturally diverse talent pool, this fosters mutual respect for different cultural practices. Once employees perceive diversity as a benefit that allows for greater opportunity and personal and professional growth, the need for diversity becomes clear (Reynolds, 2019). It therefore came as a surprise that perceptions of diversity and recognising the need for diversity did not correlate. The implication is that the respondents had not yet come round to the positive view of diversity outlined above.

6.2.7 Recognising the need for diversity in the workplace correlations with employment equity dimensions

The significant correlation between recognition of the need for diversity in the workplace and the skills required to manage a diverse workforce is hardly surprising: as Hadden and Catlette (2012) maintain, when managers are trained in managing a diverse workforce, they come to recognise the need for a diverse workforce and the benefits associated with it.

6.2.8 Perceptions of diversity in the workplace correlations with employment equity dimensions

Ehrke et al. (2014) postulate that an explanation for the significant correlation between perceptions of diversity in the workplace and the skills required to manage a diverse workforce, is that when trained and equipped with diversity management skills, management's attitudes towards and perceptions of diversity are improved, a key goal in diversity training (Paludi, 2013).

6.2.9 Summary of dimensions measuring employment equity

All the EE dimensions and items correlated with one another, with the exception of the item 'perceptions of diversity'. The item 'perception of diversity' was therefore a poor predictor of EE and did not effectively measure the perceptions of diversity on the part of the respondents. All other EE dimensions and items did correlate, which was to be

expected, given that they measure the same issue and that each dimension is a reflection of EE. Inclusive organisational culture is a central goal of effective EE implementation and an inclusive organisational culture that promotes equity is what supervisors should strive to create (Human, 1993). The success of EE is largely dependent on the commitment of management. Commitment, especially from top management, is vital for an EE programme to bring about effective organisational change and transformation (Elmuti, 1996; Esterhuizen, 2008; Twala, 2004).

The EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998) requires organisations to consult with stakeholders and make information pertaining to EE easily available to employees (Van der Heyden, 2013). This means that transparent communication is a critical dimension of EE (Leonard & Grobler, 2006). An EE plan should be linked to training and development so that employers can align skills development with EE (Van der Heyden, 2013). To assist organisations with this process, several measures have been introduced, such as the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998). Fair employment practices also comprise a critical dimension in measuring EE, as all employment practices such as the recruitment, selection, promotion and retention of employees from previously disadvantaged groups must remain free of unfair or biased practices or risk undermining the entire EE effort (Thomas, et al., 1996). Diversity management relates to a strategy to find and develop a diverse workforce and inclusive workplace, whilst focusing on the skills, policies, and competences required to enhance employees' role in the organisation. Companies that provide effective justifications for a diverse workforce can limit hostile attitudes towards AA programmes, which makes for a close correlation between justification and diversity management in EE.

The research instrument in this study measured perceptions of both EE and EM. The next section therefore turns to the question of correlations among perceptions of the various dimensions of EM.

6.3 How different dimensions measuring employee morale correlate

Pearson's r (Table 5.9, p. 102) was used to examine the correlations between the various dimensions of EM. Professional development correlated with all indicators. Recognition and regard correlated with all indicators. Working relationships correlated with all indicators. Autonomy/decision-making correlated with all indicators, and workloads correlated with all indicators. The section below provides a comprehensive discussion of how the various EM dimensions correlated with one another.

6.3.1 Recognition and regard correlations with employee morale dimensions

While financial compensation undeniably influences EM, just as important is the praise and appreciation that employees receive (Gately, 2017). Employee recognition is described as informal or formal acknowledgement of an employee's efforts that have clearly exceeded normal expectations (Harrison, n.d.).

The EM dimensions recognition and regard and professional development correlated significantly. When employees are lacking a particular skill, this can be remedied by access to professional development opportunities. Managers play a key role in arranging this access through recognition and regard. Professional development and recognition and reward programmes should complement each other, so this significant correlation was expected (Krauel, 2014). According to Adams' (1963) equity theory, when employees perceive their rewards and praises as equal to or greater than those of others, they become highly motivated. Conversely, when they perceive their rewards are not equal to others', their motivation will decline, leading to dissatisfaction and the feeling that their performance is not valued.

There was a significant correlation between perceptions of recognition and regard programmes and effective working relationships. Murphy (2019) notes that when recognition programmes are in place, employees are reminded of how their actions contribute to a larger joint effort, which creates a sense of camaraderie and fosters stronger working relationships.

The EM dimensions recognition and regard programmes and freedom and autonomy to make decisions correlated significantly, as empowerment in terms of decision making requires extensive recognition of an employee's achievements and praise for their success. At the same time, recognition and reward encourages employees to feel themselves equipped to make decisions on their own (Feigenbaum, 2019).

There was a significant correlation between recognition and reward programmes and workloads, which is also not surprising. Wickham (2017) argues that recognition and regard should not be limited to recognising achievement but should include appreciation for employees who take on heavier workloads than others, thereby exceeding the limits of their job description.

6.3.2 Professional development correlations with employee morale dimensions

Professional development encourages staff to build on their skills, attitudes and knowledge, and is essential to boost EM (Crawford, 2016). When organisations provide their staff with professional development opportunities, they are indicating that they have the best interests of their employees at heart, and this feeling of support elevates EM (Meyerson, 2013).

The statistically significant correlation between perceptions of professional development opportunities and effective working relationships made sense, as displaying gratitude to staff members who assist in the professional development of other employees increases the probability of having positive working relationships (Jackson, 2018). The knowledge that opportunities for professional development are available should in itself promote effective working relationships.

There was a significant correlation between perceptions of professional development opportunities and freedom and autonomy to make decisions. Training and developing employees' skills encourages them to try out new ideas and take risks, thereby empowering them to make decisions on their own (Maylett, 2016). This is in line with Green's (2017) observation that training employees to equip them with the freedom to make decisions should be a focus for every organisation.

The EM dimensions professional development opportunities and employee workload correlated significantly, which was expected. Unrealistic workloads are a key cause of stress, but through professional development provided by management, such as time management training, employees can learn to manage their workloads more efficiently (Picincu, 2019).

6.3.3 Effective working relationship correlations with employee morale dimensions

Many employees spend more time with co-workers than they do with their own family, so it is important for them to develop quality relationships at work (McFarlin, 2018). The forging of effective relationships in the workplace directly improves EM.

The EM dimensions of perceptions of effective working relationships and employee workloads correlated significantly, as a heavy workload ultimately has a negative impact on teamwork and employee relationships, leading to frustration and poor

communication among employees (Picincu, 2019). The corollary also holds true: good working relationships enable open communication about issues such as workloads, resulting in more equitable workload distribution.

6.3.4 Autonomy and freedom in decision-making correlations with employee morale dimensions

Autonomy relates to the degree of freedom that employees enjoy while working, as opposed to their being micro-managed (Robertson, n.d.). Greater autonomy is often associated with more opportunities, which essentially improves EM while also enabling employees to handle stressful situations such as heavy workloads (Gashi, 2014; Hussung, 2015).

The EM dimensions autonomy and freedom in decision-making and employee workloads correlated significantly. Thompson (2018) asserts that when unrealistic workloads are unavoidable, organisations should attempt to combat negative consequences, such as workplace accidents, by allowing employees more freedom to make decisions in their jobs. That freedom might include the judgement that they are being unfairly overloaded.

6.3.5 Summary of dimensions measuring employee morale

All EM dimensions correlated with one another – as might be expected, given that they all measured the same issue and that each dimension reflects an aspect of EM. When employees receive recognition and praise from peers and supervisors, they experience a sense of significance which boosts their morale (Gately, 2017). Employees spend considerable time in each other's presence and as a result, the forging of effective working relationships can directly improve EM (McFarlin, 2018). Organisations that provide their staff with professional development opportunities are essentially indicating that they have the best interests of their employees at heart, and this feeling of support elevates EM (Meyerson, 2013). When employees are given autonomy and freedom to make decisions without interference, it boosts their confidence and ultimately improves EM (Hussung, 2015). Heavy workloads carry many implications for organisations and often have a detrimental impact on EM (Van der Hulst, 2003).

The first section of this chapter discussed how different dimensions measuring EE relate with one another, while the subsequent section discussed how different

dimensions measuring EM relate to one another. The following section discusses the key correlations between the various dimensions of EE and EM.

6.4 Key correlations between employment equity and employee morale

Pearson's r (Table 5.10, p. 104) was used to examine the correlations between EE and EM. All EE and EM indicators correlated with one another, with the exception of perceptions of diversity, which did not correlate significantly with any other dimension. The section below provides a comprehensive discussion of how the various dimensions of EE and EM related to one another.

6.4.1 Inclusive organisational culture correlations with employee morale dimensions

The significant correlation between an inclusive organisational culture and recognition and regard for employees' efforts was a reminder that recognition and regard are a central dimension of organisational culture (Ololube, 2016). When recognition and regard programmes are incorporated into an organisation's culture, these programmes reinforce an organisation's values and promote performance (Milne, 2007). When employees are praised and appreciated by their peers and managers for their job performance, they experience a sense of belonging (Matsaung, 2014) essential to creating an inclusive organisational culture (Atcheson, 2019).

The dimensions inclusive organisational culture and providing staff with professional development opportunities to build their skills, attitudes and knowledge correlated significantly, which was expected, as by providing employees with professional development opportunities, organisations are indicating that they have the best interests of their employees at heart. This feeling of support elevates employee morale (Meyerson, 2013) and leads to an organisational culture that supports learning (Dawe, 2003). Professional development allows employees to adapt to an innovative workplace culture (Khan et al., 2017), and organisations with cultures that invest in the training and development of their employees are more financially successful (Rio, 2017).

The significant correlation between an inclusive organisational culture and relationships with co-workers can be attributed to the fact that successful organisational cultures tend to highlight employee engagement and a sense of belonging, so employees are consequently more inclined to develop close working relationships with one another (Mohr et al., 2012).

The correlation between the dimensions inclusive organisational culture and the amount of freedom employees have while working as opposed to being micro-managed did not come as a surprise, as autonomy and decision making naturally lead to a greater sense of a shared organisational culture (Harris, 2019). Employees of organisations with a culture of freedom and autonomy are inclined to be intrinsically motivated.

An inclusive organisational culture and the workload of employees correlated significantly and an obvious rationale for this is the fact that an unrealistic workload is often a symptom of a larger organisational culture of discrimination (Momborg, 2011). In organisations which possess a culture of work-related bullying, employees are often given unrealistic workloads (Akella, 2016).

6.4.2 Management commitment correlations with employee morale dimensions

The significant correlation between commitment from management and recognition and regard is due to the fact that receiving respect and recognition from management is what all employees want from the workplace (Topolosky, 2013). It is therefore essential for management to be committed to making formal or informal recognition a habit by giving employees due recognition and treating them with due regard (Mann & Dvorak, 2016).

The dimensions commitment from management and providing professional development opportunities correlated significantly and reflect the fact that providing professional development opportunities for staff enables them to build on their skills, attitudes and knowledge, and thereby boosts EM (Crawford, 2016). It is a way for management to show that they have the best interests of their employees at heart, and this feeling of support elevates EM (Meyerson, 2013). Management should thus be committed to the professional development of employees as part of good leadership practice (Knight, 2002).

There was a significant correlation between commitment from management and effective working relationships. Effective relationships among employees in the workplace can directly improve EM, as co-workers become friendly and look forward to spending time with one another while working. On the other hand, a rigid and hostile working environment leads to arguing and 'back biting', which in turn negatively impacts on EM (Rockman, 2003). It thus makes sense for management to be committed to encouraging good, effective working relationships (Lewin & Gollan, 2018).

The significant correlation between commitment from management and the freedom and autonomy to make decisions was not surprising. It was noted in Chapter 3 that one of the key benefits associated with freedom and autonomy is increased EM (Cooper, 2016). This is associated with feelings of greater responsibility among employees for the quality of their work, which encourages them to perform their job with confidence (Matsaung, 2014). Employees who are micro-managed rather than granted some autonomy feel detached and undervalued, and this reduces morale in the workplace (Alton, 2017). Those in supervisory and managerial positions should thus be committed to delegating power to employees to carry out their tasks with minimal interference.

The dimensions commitment from management and employees' workloads correlated significantly. Giving employees unrealistic workloads leads to stress and prevents them from performing their jobs to the required standard (Messmer, 2001). Management should be committed to ensuring that employees are given reasonable workloads so that they are not overworked. An unequal distribution of workload is often a symptom of discrimination and bullying in the workplace (Momberg, 2011). Management should therefore be committed to rooting out unfair workload distribution before it drives top employees to walk out (Walker, 2014).

6.4.3 Transparent communication correlations with employee morale dimensions

The dimensions of transparent communication, and recognition and regard correlated significantly, as clear communication is essential to successfully providing employees with recognition and regard (Nelson, 2015). Effective leaders clearly communicate recognition and regard appropriate to satisfactory performance to employees (Hamidifar, 2010).

The significant correlation between transparent communication and professional development opportunities was unsurprising, as managers with the interests of their employees at heart should be receptive and transparently responsive to their development needs (Vanes, 1993). Managers should thus clearly communicate professional development opportunities to employees, and encourage them to avail themselves of them.

The significant correlation between perceptions of transparent communication and effective working relationships is attributable to the fact that transparent

communication nurtures strong working relationships with colleagues and clients (Tingum, 2019).

The dimensions transparent communication and the freedom and autonomy to make decisions correlated significantly, as the autonomy for making and conveying decisions needs to be supported by strong, clear communication skills in order to contribute to organisational effectiveness (Richards, 2009). By clearly communicating guidelines for operating autonomously and making decisions, employees and managers can create a collaborative yet independent environment for work (Crosby, 2017).

Transparent communication and employee workloads correlated significantly, which was unsurprising, as concerns such as unrealistic workloads can be addressed by clear communication between employees and managers or supervisors (Adenle, 2011). Failure to communicate such issues could lead to further problems of absenteeism and employee turnover (Picincu, 2019). Accurate, complete, timely and clear communication should prevent unfair workload distributions (Susanto & Susanto, 2013).

6.4.4 Fair employment practice correlations with employee morale dimensions

Fair, unbiased practices and recognition and regard correlated significantly, which was expected, as perceived bias and unfairness in recognition and regard practices are often the cause of employees leaving organisations (Ceplenski, 2013). In the context of recognition and regard, then, fair employment practices are a key issue (Ventrice, 2003).

The significant correlation between fair, unbiased practices and professional development opportunities may be attributed to the fact that one of the key elements on which professional staff development should be based comprises of fair employment practices (Haruna & Doorgapersad, 2014). Managers who have undergone training regarding fair work practices are less inclined to have stressed employees (Brockner, 2006).

The dimensions fair, unbiased practices and effective working relationships correlated significantly, with a relationship that is essentially causative: fair employment practices are the foundation of effective working relationships (Kim, 2019). Unfair employment practices can lead to workplace politics among employees and management, with detrimental effects on employees' co-operation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2007; Reh, 2019).

Perceptions of fair, unbiased practices and freedom and autonomy to make decisions correlated significantly. Unfairly providing some employees with more autonomy and decision-making power than others may lead to an organisational culture of favouritism (Hrab, 2014). This in turn can lead to resentment towards management and a consequent decline in employee morale (Smith, 2013).

The significant correlation between fair, unbiased practices and employee workloads makes sense, since an unrealistic workload is an unfair labour practice, inclining employees to be overwhelmed and under-productive (Soni, 2013). Unequal workload distributions result in unfair employee treatment, a form of workplace injustice (Mulvey, 2010). Such unfair labour practice may ultimately cause top-performing employees to leave the organisation (Shiao, 2017).

6.4.5 Training and development correlations with employee morale dimensions

The dimensions of training and development practices and recognition and regard correlated significantly. As is highlighted by Roosevelt (2001), appropriate training and development should lead to greater recognition and regard for employees, while conversely, selection for training or development is perceived as an indication of recognition or regard.

The significant correlation between training and development practices and professional development is clear, to the extent that these terms are often used interchangeably in the corporate environment (Kapadia, 2016). They nevertheless differ in meaning: while training and development assists employees to learn specific knowledge to improve work performance, professional development is a more expansive concept and focuses more on future than immediate capacity (Rao, 2007). It is emphasised in the literature by Werner and DeSimone (2008) that employees and managers should create effective working relationships to coordinate training and development initiatives, as this allows managers to assess employees' training and development needs. The significant correlation between training and development practices and effective working relations was therefore unsurprising.

Exposing employees to training and development opportunities is an effective way to enhance EM, while simultaneously equipping the organisation with a more productive and skilled workforce (Assad, n.d.). Once employees have utilised these developmental opportunities, they may be empowered to make decisions on different aspects of the business, acquiring greater autonomy and decision-making confidence

(Gonell, 2014). It was thus not surprising that there was a significant correlation between training and development practices and freedom and autonomy to make decisions.

The significant correlation between training and development practices and employee workloads may be attributed to the fact that employees are likely to be better equipped to handle substantial workloads after receiving support and training (MacDonald, 2011). Training and development, specifically concerning time management, could result in employees being more efficient at handling such workloads (Stiner, 2018).

6.4.6 Respect for cultural practices correlations with employee morale dimensions

The significant correlation between the item, respect for all cultural practices in the workplace, and the dimension, recognition and regard programmes, came as no surprise, as embracing different cultural practices in the workplace requires positive recognition from management. Failure to recognise and respect such differences may lead to employees feeling excluded, which will diminish their EM and productivity (Wroblewski, 2019).

The item respect for all cultural practices in the workplace correlated significantly with the dimension professional development opportunities, and this could be attributed to the fact that training and developing managers and employees concerning different cultural practices positively changes attitudes towards diverse cultural practices and leads to a greater preparedness to appreciate different cultures in the workplace (Tan et al., 1996).

The significant correlation between respect for all cultural practices in the workplace and effective working relationships is not surprising, as Gracia and O'Donnell (2018) have noted that when employees gain exposure to other employees from diverse cultures, they benefit by obtaining access to different perspectives, which can lead to enriched working relationships.

It was expected that the item respect for all cultural practices in the workplace would correlate significantly with the dimension freedom and autonomy in decision making, as teams that are culturally diverse are more inclined to make accurate decisions (Sommers, 2006). When employees from different cultures come together, they can come up with a greater number and variety of solutions, ultimately leading to more informed and improved decision making (Perlitz & Hutton, 2010).

The significant correlation between respect for all cultural practices in the workplace and employee workloads was understandable, as employees from various cultural backgrounds can offer more solutions and unique perspectives to the organisation, thereby potentially decreasing workloads by getting employees to work more effectively and efficiently (Johnson, 2019).

6.4.7 Recognising the need for diversity correlations with employee morale dimensions

The significant correlation between the item, recognising the need for diversity in the workplace, and the dimension, recognition and regard programmes, is understandable, as organisations that recognise the need for diversity allow employees to grow in an environment where they are exposed to others from diverse backgrounds (Cheah, 2013). In such a context, there is recognition of and regard for difference. The need for diversity in organisations should be recognised in order to maximise organisational potentials (Nachmias & Caven, 2019).

The item recognising the need for diversity in the workplace correlated significantly with the dimension professional development opportunities, which is hardly surprising, as training regarding the need for diversity within organisations is a key element in creating a unified working environment (Kenely, 2013). It is highlighted in the literature by Leonard (2018) that such training ultimately improves performance.

The significant correlation between recognising the need for diversity in the workplace and working relationships is logical, because if the need for diversity is not recognised within the organisation, diversity may be frowned upon, which will ultimately hurt working relationships (Fisher, 2017). When organisations recognise the need for diversity, along with the benefits that can be reaped from a diverse workforce, employees from different backgrounds will respect each other and enjoy sound working relationships (Mayhew, 2019).

When employees from diverse cultures come together, they develop more solutions and make more informed and improved decisions, drawing on each individual's unique background, experience and personality (Perlitz & Hutton, 2010; Nachmias & Caven, 2019). On this basis, the significant correlation between recognition of the need for diversity in the workplace and autonomy and decision making is not surprising.

The item recognising the need for diversity in the workplace correlated significantly with employee workloads, which is perhaps attributable to the fact that employees from

various cultural backgrounds may bring more solutions and unique perspectives to bear, possibly decreasing workloads by causing employees to work more effectively and efficiently (Johnson, 2019). It is therefore believed that a diverse workforce ultimately decreases workloads (Kyalo & Gachunga, 2015).

6.4.8 Skills to manage a diverse workforce correlations with employee morale dimensions

The item skills needed to manage a diverse workforce correlated significantly with the dimension recognition and regard. An explanation for this correlation is provided by Green et al. (2002), who note that supervisors should recognise and respect that particular skills are necessary to create and manage a diverse workforce, and that there is therefore a need to enhance these skills (see also Roosevelt, 2001).

The significant correlation between skills required to manage a diverse workforce and professional development opportunities was expected, as diversity training and development initiatives should be provided to empower supervisors to manage employees from diverse backgrounds (Friday & Friday, 2003). This is necessary to create change towards fair and effective diversity management.

The item skills required to manage a diverse workforce and working relationships correlated significantly, which was unsurprising, as effective and impartial managerial conduct should promote diversity, diminishing communication barriers and supporting open conversations, thereby strengthening working relationships (Heibutzki, 2018).

The significant correlation between the skills required to manage a diverse workforce and freedom and autonomy to make decisions might be explained thus: to manage diversity in the workplace requires managers to grant employees greater autonomy to do things their way; in doing so they are also exercising greater managerial autonomy themselves. Supervisors' skills regarding diversity management should be developed and improved in order to understand the benefits of managing a diverse workforce (Green et al., 2002).

The item skills required to manage a diverse workforce and the dimension employee workloads correlated significantly, which was not surprising, as once supervisors possess the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, they comprehend that employees from various cultural backgrounds may offer more solutions and unique perspectives to work teams, thereby decreasing hefty workloads for individuals by enabling employees to work more effectively and efficiently (Johnson, 2019). Supervisors who are skilled in diversity management understand that employees from

different cultural backgrounds may voluntarily carry heavier workloads, as a way of proving their professional potential (Dolan, 2018).

6.4.9 Summary of key correlations between employment equity and employee morale

A key finding in this research study, is that the supposition that EE related to EM (H_{1a}) was overwhelmingly supported by the data, as all the EM dimensions correlated with EE dimensions and items, with the exception of the EE item 'perceptions of diversity,' which appears to indicate that the results pertaining to this EE item were unreliable. This was expected, as the item did not correlate correctly within the reliability scale (Table 5.5, p. 98).

The following section discusses how self-identified members of different genders differed significantly in their perceptions of EE and EM.

6.5 How self-identified members of different genders differed significantly in their perceptions of employment equity and employee morale

An Independent Samples *t* Test was conducted to determine whether self-identified gender groups differed significantly in their perceptions of EE and EM (Table 5.11, p. 105). The results showed that there were statistically significantly different perceptions by self-identified genders regarding two dimensions, the EE dimension management commitment and the EM dimension workloads, which are discussed below.

6.5.1 Self-identified gender differences regarding management commitment

Women were more positive than men regarding the EE dimension commitment from management. It was noted in the literature review (Chapter Two) that the success of AA within SA is largely dependent on commitment from managers; hence, it is clear that this commitment, especially from top management, is vital for the effectiveness of any AA programme in bringing about organisational change and transformation.

Ashkanasy et al. (2011) suggest that men and women view organisational culture differently. Gender stereotypes tend to be deeply rooted in society and follow men and women into the working environment, shaping the type of culture formed within organisations (Hofmeyr & Mzobe, 2012). Women are assumed by society to possess qualities such as kindness, sympathy and affection, whereas men tend to be typecast as characterised by dominance, aggression and ambition. This can result in an

organisational culture with firmly fixed yet skewed ideas regarding gender. The literature indicates that women regard management as insufficiently committed to eradicating these stereotypes (Kessler et al., 2019). This study's finding challenges this expectation, as it suggests that women possess more favourable views than men of commitment on the part of management.

6.5.2 Self-identified gender differences regarding workload

Women were more positive than men about the EM dimension of workloads. It was noted in the literature review (Chapter 3) that heavy workloads carry many implications for organisations throughout the world, and often lead to low morale, which is a great concern (Price, 2007; Turner, 2013). A study conducted by Coldwell and Perumal (2007) found that employees generally regard comparative workload equity as important for their morale (which bears out Adams' [1963] Equity Theory). Women tend to be stereotyped in the ways described above (Section 6.5.1), which tends to result in their 'softer' nature being taken advantage of. To combat this stereotype, women carry heavier workloads and exceed their job requirements, sometimes even voluntarily in order to prove their professional worth (Dolan, 2018). This research study's finding challenges this expectation, as it shows that women possess more favourable views regarding workloads than men.

6.5.3 Summary of the ways in which self-identified men and women differ significantly in their perceptions of employment equity and employee morale

Women possessed more positive views than men in respect of the EE dimension of management commitment and the EM dimension of workloads. These findings are significant, as they suggest that women trust their supervisors more than men do and believe that their supervisors both set a good example to follow and are consistent in the way in which they treat employees. Women also felt that their workloads were realistic and shared fairly, and that they were given reasonable levels of responsibility. The following section discusses how self-identified members of different racial groups differed significantly in their perceptions of EE and EM.

6.6 How self-identified members of racial groups differ significantly in their perceptions of employment equity and employee morale

A One-Way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether self-identified members of different races differed significantly in their perceptions of EE and EM (Table 5.12, p. 112). The results showed there were statistically significant different perceptions between self-identified members of different racial groups regarding the EE dimensions management commitment, transparent communication, fair employment practices and training and development. There were also statistically significant different perceptions between races regarding the EM dimensions working relationships, respect for cultural practices and skills needed to manage a diverse workforce. A Tamhane T2 post-hoc test was then conducted to determine where these differences lie (Table 5.13, p. 114), and these are discussed below.

6.6.1 Self-identified race differences regarding management commitment

White employees were more positive towards the EE dimension management commitment than non-whites. This finding was unexpected and challenged the literature, for instance, Van der Merwe's (2006) finding that management is generally committed to recruiting and placing non-white employees in senior positions, thereby making white employees feel insecure and discriminated against.

6.6.2 Self-identified race differences regarding transparent communication

Black Africans had more positive views regarding the EE dimension transparent communication than the other self-identified racial groups. Black Africans were thus more satisfied that the organisation supplied them with reliable and sufficient information than members of other self-identified racial groups. This key finding challenged a study conducted by Esterhuizen (2008), which showed that black Africans were negative about the manner in which information was communicated at work.

6.6.3 Self-identified race differences regarding fair employment practices

Black Africans were positively inclined towards the EE dimension fair, unbiased employment practices, when compared to other self-identified racial groups. This finding challenges that of Esterhuizen's (2008) study, which showed that black Africans

were more negative about the fairness of employment practices than Coloureds/Indians/Asians. White (2015) suggests that black African employees receive extra scrutiny from their managers, resulting in unfair discrimination, lower wages, and in severe cases, job losses. The key finding in this study therefore challenges this expectation.

6.6.4 Self-identified race differences regarding training and development

White employees were more positively oriented towards the EE dimension training and development than non-white racial groups. This key finding is in line with previous research studies by Buthelezi (2011) and Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2010). Their research showed that white employees felt they were equipped with relevant training and development, whereas non-white employees were negatively inclined, believing not all employees were provided with relevant training and development opportunities. The main concern from non-white employees, according to Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2010), was the lack of access to training and development opportunities.

6.6.5 Self-identified race differences regarding working relationships

Black Africans were more positively disposed towards the EM dimension working relationships than other racial groups. This key finding challenged Buthelezi's (2011) finding that black Africans were negatively inclined towards working relationships, even claiming that the implementation of EE measures had worsened working relationships and created more problems between "black" and "not so black" employees.

6.6.6 Self-identified race differences regarding respect for cultural practices

White employees had more positive views than non-white employees regarding the EE item respect for all cultural practices. This difference in perception was anticipated by Janse van Rensburg and Roodt (2005), who reported that employees from previously disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to encounter disrespect and discrimination concerning their culture in the workplace. The culture concerned may well attach to a specific religion (Muslim, Hindu etc). White employees, on the other hand, generally experience less discrimination and are more positive in their perceptions of respect for cultural practices (Vallabh & Donald, 2001). This key finding is also in line with a

research study conducted by Coetzee (2015), who found that employees from designated groups believe they are shown little respect in the workplace.

6.6.7 Self-identified race differences regarding the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce

White employees had more favourable views than non-white employees regarding the EE item, managers possess the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce. Managing a diverse workforce requires that managers be sensitive to racial and cultural differences and possess the skills required for creating an effective and successful diverse workforce. This finding infers that white employees agreed that managers have the basis to effectively manage a diverse workforce, whereas non-white employees were disagreeable.

6.6.8 Summary of self-identified race differences in perceptions of employment equity and employee morale

The relevant findings in this study were that white employees were more positive towards the EE dimension management commitment than non-white racial groups, which means that white employees thought that management set a good example for everyone to follow and that their supervisors were consistent in the way they treated all employees.

Black Africans had better views regarding the EE dimension transparent communication than other self-identified racial groups, meaning that black Africans believed supervisors supplied them timeously with reliable and sufficient information and kept them informed about new plans and changes affecting their work.

Black Africans were positively inclined towards the EE dimension fair, unbiased employment practices, meaning that they considered the company's selection criteria to be justified in relation to job requirements and that recruitment and selection practices in all departments were fair.

White employees were more positively disposed towards the EE dimension training and development than non-white racial groups, indicating that their supervisors helped them develop to their full potential and that their performance standards were clearly defined.

White employees had more favourable views regarding the EM dimension professional development than non-white employees, indicating that they believed study leave was allocated in a fair manner and that they were actively encouraged to develop their skills. Black Africans were positively inclined towards the EM dimension working relationships, meaning that they experienced a good spirit of staff camaraderie among their co-workers and felt supported by their colleagues.

White employees had more positive views regarding the EE item respect for all cultural practices, which suggests that non-white employees might experience more disrespect and discrimination concerning their culture in the workplace.

White employees had favourable perceptions regarding the EE item managers possessing the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, whereas non-white employees did not, implying that white employees felt managers had the basis to effectively manage a diverse workforce.

6.7 Conclusion

The key findings of the study in respect of correlations between employment equity and employee morale is that H_{1a} was overwhelmingly supported by the data: all the EM dimensions correlated with EE dimensions and items, with the exception of the EE item 'perceptions of diversity,' which essentially means that this EE item was unreliable.

The significant findings in respect of self-identified gender differences pertaining to perceptions of EE and EM is that women possessed more positive views than men regarding the EE dimension of management commitment and the EM dimension workloads. This finding is significant, indicating that women – to a greater extent than men – trust their supervisors and believe that they both set a good example to follow and are consistent in the way they treat employees. Women also felt that their workloads were realistic and shared fairly, and that they were given a reasonable level of responsibility.

The relevant findings with respect to self-identified race differences in perceptions of EE and EM are that white employees were more positive than non-whites towards the EE dimension management commitment. White employees felt that managers set a good example, were committed to EE, and were consistent in the way they treated all employees.

Black Africans had more favourable views regarding the EE dimension transparent communication than other self-identified racial groups, meaning that black Africans believed that their supervisors supplied them timeously with reliable and sufficient

information, so that they were informed about how new plans and changes would affect their work.

Black Africans were also positively inclined towards the EE dimension fair, unbiased employment practices, meaning they felt the company's selection criteria were justified in relation to job requirements and that recruitment and selection practices in all departments were fair.

White employees were more positive about the EE dimension training and development than non-white racial groups, claiming that their supervisors assisted them in developing their full potential and clearly defined their performance standards. Black Africans were positively inclined towards the EM dimension working relationships, meaning they experienced a good spirit of camaraderie with their co-workers and felt supported by them.

White employees were more positive about the EE item respect for all cultural practices, suggesting that non-white employees might still feel disrespect and discrimination concerning their culture in the workplace.

Lastly, white employees had positive views regarding the EE item managers possessing the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce, whereas non-white employees felt this not to be the case.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

OUTLINE

A logical process is followed throughout this thesis, whereby each chapter builds on the previous one. This logical process is provided below while also placing this specific chapter in context with all other chapters.

Table 7.1: Outline of Chapter Seven

Chapter One: Introduction and background to the study

Chapter Two: Literature review - Employment equity

Chapter Three: Literature review - Employee morale and motivation

Chapter Four: Research methodology

Chapter Five: Research findings

Chapter Six: Discussion of results

Chapter Seven: Conclusion and recommendations

- 7.1) Introduction
- 7.2) Study limitations, implications and suggestions for future research
- 7.3) Contribution of research
- 7.4) Concluding remarks regarding the objectives of this research study
- 7.5) Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the results of the research. In this chapter, the research study's limitations, implications and suggestions for future research are discussed, as well as the contribution of this research study. This chapter ends by drawing conclusions and makes recommendations for practice and future research.

7.2 Study limitations, implications and suggestions for future research

Limitations to a research study refers to potential weaknesses in the study that will have a direct influence on the manner in which results are interpreted, which in turn, are beyond the control of the researcher (Remenyi et al., 1998). The limitations of this study are outlined below along with recommendations for future research.

This research study was limited to one public service organisation and as a result, its research findings are limited to this organisation. This limits the degree to which the findings can be generalised to other organisations. It is suggested that future research makes use of a larger sample that includes both public sector and private organisations so that the findings can be more broadly generalised.

The sample size of this study contained 167 respondents. It is recommended that future research endeavour to embark upon a larger sample scale to increase the degree to which the results of the research could be generalised. A larger sample size is a key consideration for quality research. Larger samples size enables the researcher to obtain more accurate and reliable data (Zamboni, 2018). When sampling size increases, the sampling error of statistical results decrease (Newman & Mcneil, 1998). A key limitation in this study was that some employees declined to participate (despite considerations of privacy and confidentiality being made clear), as this research study was of a sensitive nature which had the consequence of a lower questionnaire response rate.

The EE scale 'justification and diversity management' had low reliability and to address this, future researchers should conduct an analysis of regular items in order to address ambiguous or weak performing questions.

Respondent fatigue is a well-emphasised issue that occurs when survey respondents become tired of completing a survey, resulting in the quality of the data they provide deteriorating. It occurs when survey respondents' attention and motivation decrease toward later sections of a questionnaire (Lavrakas, 2008). It is recognised that the research measuring instrument in this study, which consisted of 59 statements and 14 sections, may have been seen as a response burden and too time consuming for

respondents to complete, resulting in excessive survey length or respondent fatigue. Future researchers may combat this by reviewing the research questionnaire to only contain statements with acceptable Cronbach Alpha scores.

The procedure of distributing and collecting questionnaires in this research study ('drop-off and pick-up' method) was quite effective, given that it achieved a high response rate (83.5%), as opposed to collecting data electronically and thus, it is recommended that future researchers consider this form of data collection.

It is recommended that the public service organisation replicate this study at a later stage in order to evaluate changes in perceptions. Replicating a research study involves repeating the study at a later stage, in order to determine whether the basic findings of the original research study are still the same (Cherry, 2020).

This research study was quantitative in nature and it is suggested that future researchers conduct a mixed method approach to gain a better understanding of the relationship between EE and EM by approaching the study from several perspectives. Researchers may adopt the use of multiple methods to investigate a research problem, by looking at data from various sources, including interviews, document reviewing, participant observations, and use of questionnaires (Fox & Bayat, 2007). Using a mixed method may remove and eliminate potential gaps which might be present during the data collection period, as oppose to one method being used.

7.3 Contribution of research

The research study contributes academically, by adding to the existing literature in the field of employment equity and employee morale. There is a plethora of literature on EE and EM that has been conducted separately, however, this study focused on the relation between EE and EM. It proves that there is a substantial relationship between EE and EM and consequently, this research contributes to both EE and EM literature and understanding the two concepts, hereby filling the gap in literature about EE and EM. From a practical perspective, if managers have this knowledge and information, they may take active measures to correct this.

7.4 Concluding remarks regarding the objectives of this research study

The study developed one primary objective, supported by four sub-objectives. The concluding remarks of these objectives are discussed below and are structured according to the research study's main objective and sub-objectives.

7.4.1 Investigating whether the relationship between perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at a selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019 (main research objective)

The EE and EM dimensions identified in the literature reviews (Chapters 2 and 3) consisted of a total of 11 dimensions. A substantial finding in the research study confirmed there was a positive and significant relationship between EE and EM, as all EE dimensions and items related to EM dimensions, with the exclusion of one EE item. The core research question was therefore proven, confirming that EE and EM are related to one another. The experience people have with EE and EM differed according to gender and race, which are discussed in the sub-objectives below.

7.4.2 Investigating whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale differ significantly between men and women at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town in 2019 (sub-objective 1)

The study concluded that there were no major differences regarding EE and EM on the grounds of self-identified gender, however, two of the tested dimensions were found to be significantly different between men and women, namely: workloads and management commitment. Women had better views on both of these dimensions than men. These findings are relevant, as they seem to suggest that women trust their supervisors more than men do and moreover, women also felt that their workloads were reasonable and distributed equally, as opposed to men.

7.4.3 Investigating whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale among employees at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town differ significantly in terms of race in 2019 (sub-objective 2)

There were no key differences in the perceptions of self-identified members of different races regarding EE and EM, however, there were significantly different perceptions regarding: management commitment, transparent communication, fair employment practices, training and development, working relationships, respect for cultural practices and the skills needed to manage a diverse workforce.

White employees had better views regarding management commitment as opposed to black Africans and Coloureds/Indians/Asian employees, suggesting that white employees felt their supervisors were fair in the manner in which they treated all employees.

Black Africans held more positive views concerning transparent communication than white and Coloured/Indian/Asian employees, indicating that black Africans felt management is punctual in providing them with important information.

Black Africans had better views towards fair, unbiased employment practices as opposed to white and Coloured/Indian/Asian employees, implying that black Africans believed the company's employment practices are fair across all departments.

White employees were more positively inclined towards training and development than black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian employees, meaning that white employees believed their supervisors encouraged them to reach their full potential.

Black Africans had better views towards working relationships than white and Coloured/Indian/Asian employees, indicating that black Africans felt supported by their co-workers.

White employees held more positive views with regarding respect for all cultural practices in the workplace, implying that black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian employees may have experienced disrespect regarding their culture in the workplace.

White employees had better views concerning the skills managers need to manage a diverse workforce, as opposed to black African and Coloured/Indian/Asian employees, suggesting that white employees believed managers had the basis to effectively manage a diverse workforce.

7.4.4 Investigating whether perceptions of employment equity and employee morale at the selected public service organisation in Cape Town differ significantly between white and non-white employees in 2019 (sub-objective 3)

There were no key differences between white and non-white employees in their perceptions of EE and EM; however, there were significant different perceptions concerning management commitment, professional development, respect for all cultural practices in the workplace and skills needed to manage a diverse workforce. White employees were more positive towards management commitment than non-white employees, meaning that non-white employees felt management did not set a good example for everyone to follow and believed supervisors were inconsistent in

the way they treated employees. White employees also had more favourable views concerning professional development as opposed to non-white employees, suggesting that non-white employees felt study leave was not allocated in a fair manner and they were not necessarily encouraged to develop their skills. White employees had better views regarding respect for all cultural practices, which suggests that non-white employees might experience disrespect and discrimination concerning their culture in the workplace and lastly, white employees had better views concerning the skills managers need to manage a diverse workforce than non-white employees, indicating that non-white employees believed managers did not possess the basis to effectively manage a diverse workforce.

7.5 Conclusion

This primary aim of this research study was to investigate the relationship between perceptions of EE and EM, and whether these perceptions differ significantly on the grounds of race or gender at a selected public service organisation.

As previously explained in Chapter Two, AA brings with it both theoretical and practical challenges, evidenced by the fact that employees continue to wrestle with their perceptions of it and as such, how companies manage AA practices will largely contribute to the success or failure of these practices (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994). Women are still discriminated against and some men still see the presence of women in the work environment as an invasion of their comfort zone (Kottke & Agars, 2005). Members from previously disadvantaged groups have contradictory attitudes towards AA policies, although the majority of black employees do not appear to hold negative opinions about AA, which they perceive as a necessary, remedial measure to correct past injustices (Buthelezi, 2011).

It is clear that perceptions of fairness in regard to AA are critical. Each company has the capacity to make the implementation of AA a success or a failure, and organisations in SA could learn from AA experiences in other countries to improve employees' attitudes towards the practice. Affirmative action may be associated with fear, frustration and dissent, the above-mentioned issues should be acknowledged and addressed, especially if an organisation is aiming for transformation into a culture of openness (Motileng, 2004).

Chapter 2 illustrated how the apartheid era impacted negatively upon previously disadvantaged SAs and limited them in terms of employment opportunities (Mariotti & Fourie, 2014). Hence, the rationale for AA within SA today is clear.

With the assistance of relevant literature (see Chapter 3), a theoretical framework was selected for this research study. The overall aim of EE in SA is to ensure that designated groups are represented equitably in the workplace and thus, Adams' (1963) equity theory was selected for this study's theoretical framework. Given the nature of EE, it is contended that non-recipients of EE (white males) will assess their own input-output ratio against recipients of EE (blacks, females and people with disabilities). Non-recipients of EE will see the input-output ratio as favourable to recipients and according to equity theory, non-recipients will therefore attempt to restore a balance by adjusting their input (e.g. decreasing productivity at work, etc.) or their output (battle for a promotion, etc.); or alternatively they will change their comparison group by resigning and moving to a different organisation. Equity theory therefore enables the study to explore how input transaction impacts morale among employees. If AA is a concept that has the principle of equity at its core (Leonard, 2005), it made sense to use equity theory to analyse its implementation.

The public service organisation in Cape Town, South Africa was selected, as they have made decisions covered by the different segments of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998), which were challenged in several courts in SA, including the Labour Court, the Labour Appeal Court and the Constitutional Court. These decisions were ultimately found to constitute unfair discrimination by the Constitutional Court of SA and additionally, it was decided by the Labour Court that the public service organisation had acted unlawfully and was in breach of their obligations in terms of the EEA No. 55 of 1998 (South Africa, 1998).

This study approached the research problem using a quantitative approach as a means to obtain large amounts of data using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed for collecting information about employee attitudes towards EE and EM and comprised of closed-ended questions. Hardcopies of the questionnaire were hand-delivered by the researcher to the respondents and retrieved after an agreed time had elapsed.

Using an availability sampling method, respondents were selected merely because they were readily available and easy to find. In this study, questionnaires were distributed to available and interested respondents, which allowed the study to obtain a desirable sample size in a relatively short time (Saunders et al., 2009). The sample was made up of a total of 167 respondents, which was considered sufficient to draw

conclusions from. Token rewards were offered to respondents as an incentive to maximise participation.

Among the key findings of the study is that a strong, positive correlation was identified between perceptions of EE and EM. There were significant differences between the perceptions of men and women pertaining to the commitment displayed by management and the equal distribution of workloads. There were statistically significant differences between racial groups relating to management commitment, transparent communication, fair employment practices, training and development, professional development, working relationships, respect for cultural practices and skills needed to manage a diverse workforce. White and non-white respondents had significantly different perceptions concerning management commitment, professional development, respect for cultural practices and skills needed to manage a diverse workforce.

In view of the key findings of this study, this research study put forward recommendations and suggestions for future researchers.

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Annexure A: Permission to use research questionnaire

From: Faraaz Omar <OMARF@cput.ac.za>
Sent: Monday, November 5, 2018 9:17 AM
To: Jooste, Gregory <Gregory.Jooste@debeersgroup.com>
Subject: Permission to utilise data instrument

Dear Mr Jooste,

I trust this email finds you well.

My name is Faraaz Omar and I am currently a Masters student at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, completing my thesis based on Employment Equity and Employee Morale and while conducting research I came across your Thesis based on Employment Equity and Job Satisfaction. With your permission, may I utilise the questionnaire you used in your study?

Your response and willingness to assist would be greatly appreciated.

RE: Permission to utilise data instrument

Jooste, Gregory <Gregory.Jooste@debeersgroup.com>

Mon 11/5/2018 7:21 PM

To: Faraaz Omar <OMARF@cput.ac.za>

Good day Faraaz,

All is well and I hope the same with you.

It will be a pleasure for me to be able to assist you in your research. Please continue to use the questionnaire and you may edit it to suit your research requirements.

All of the best with your research. I would appreciate it if you would be able to share some of your findings with me once you concluded your research.

Kind regards

Gregory Jooste
Senior Product Manager

De Beers Group
DTC Botswana Building
Plot 63016, Block 8 | Airport Road
Private Bag 00380
Gaborone, Botswana

Tel: + 267 371-6473

www.debeersgroup.com

Annexure B: University ethics clearance



P.O. Box 1906 • Bellville 7535 South Africa • Tel: +27 21 4603291 • Email: fbmsethics@cput.ac.za
Symphony Road Bellville 7535

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	Faculty: BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
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At a meeting of the Faculty's Research Ethics Committee on 02 November 2017, Ethics Approval was granted to Faraaz Omar (205103987) for research activities related to the Master of Human Resource Management at the University of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Title of dissertation/thesis/project:	EMPLOYMENT EQUITY AND EMPLOYEE MORALE AT A SELECTED PUBLIC ORGANISATION IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA Lead Researcher/Supervisor: J. Kiley
---------------------------------------	--

Comments:

Decision: APPROVED

	29 January 2018
Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	Date

Clearance Certificate No | 2017FBREC495

Annexure C: Public service organisation consent letter



correctional services

Department:
Correctional Services
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

Private Bag X136, PRETORIA, 0001 Poyntons Building, C/O WF Nkomo and Sophie De Bruyn Street, PRETORIA
Tel (012) 307 2770, Fax 086 539 2693

Mr F Omar
46 Turquoise Crescent
Pelican Park
7941

Dear Mr F Omar

**RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DEPARTMENT OF
CORRECTIONAL SERVICES ON: "EMPLOYMENT EQUITY AND EMPLOYEE
MORALE AT A SELECTED PUBLIC ORGANISATION IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH
AFRICA"**

It is with pleasure to inform you that your request to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services on the above topic has been approved. Your attention is drawn to the following:

- The relevant Regional and Area Commissioners where the research will be conducted will be informed of your proposed research project.
- Your internal guide will be **Ms B Tambodala: Area Coordinator Human Resource, Western Cape.**
- You are requested to contact her at telephone number (012) 550 6008 before the commencement of your research.
- It is your responsibility to make arrangements for your interviewing times.
- Your identity document and this approval letter should be in your possession when visiting.
- You are required to use the terminology used in the White Paper on Corrections in South Africa (February 2005) e.g. "Offenders" not "Prisoners" and "Correctional Centres" not "Prisons".
- You are not allowed to use photographic or video equipment during your visits, however the audio recorder is allowed.
- You are required to submit your final report to the Department for approval by the Commissioner of Correctional Services before publication (including presentation at workshops, conferences, seminars, etc) of the report.
- Should you have any enquiries regarding this process, please contact the Directorate Research for assistance at telephone number (012) 307 2770 / (012) 305 8554.

Thank you for your application and interest to conduct research in the Department of Correctional Services.

Yours faithfully

ND SIHLEZANA
DC: POLICY COORDINATION & RESEARCH

DATE: 02/03/2018

Annexure D: Research questionnaire



Title of Research: EE and EM at a selected public organisation in Cape Town, SA

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for taking an interest in this study! I am from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology and I am conducting a master's level academic research in the Human Resources Management department. You are part of a selected sample of employees who are kindly requested to complete the enclosed questionnaire. The researcher understands how valuable your time is and appreciates your efforts greatly. **Your input will play a pivotal role in the researcher's studies.**

The goal of this research study is to determine the perceptions employees at the Department of Correctional Services have towards EE practices.

As this questionnaire is based on personal perceptions, there is no "right" or "wrong" responses, and your honest and anonymous answers will be appreciated.

Confidentiality

Your name will not appear in this questionnaire, as information obtained in this study will be kept strictly confidential and only those researchers at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology who participated in design of the study and those who will participate in analysing the questionnaire will have access to these responses. **You cannot be identified in person by the responses you give.**

You are free to refuse to participate in this study and may withdraw from the study at any time.

Queries

If you have any queries about the participation in the study or require an additional explanation of the study, you may contact Mr Faraaz Omar on 0848658837 or by emailing omarf@cput.ac.za

Section A - biographical information

This section of the questionnaire entails background/biographical information. Please answer the following by placing an **X** in the appropriate column.

1 Gender

Male	
Female	

2 Race

White	
African	
Coloured	
Indian	
Other: Please specify	

3 Highest educational level

Lower than Matric	
Matric	
Certificate	
Diploma	
Degree	
Post-graduate Degree	

If higher than degree, please specify:

4 Age

.....

5 Disability

Yes	
No	

If yes, please describe your disability:

6 Current position in the organisation

--

7 Rank in organisation

Senior Management	
Middle Management	
Junior Management	
Other: Please specify	

8 Number of years in current position

--

Section B – EE and EM

The purpose of this section is to indicate how you feel about EE practices. Please read the following statements and illustrate whether you: Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree or Strongly Disagree by using the following corresponding number allocations:

1 – Strongly agree

2 – Agree

3 – Disagree

4 – Strongly disagree

No	Statements	1	2	3	4
Vision and strategy					
1	I personally agree with the organisation's vision to provide the best Correctional Services for a safer SA.				
2	The diverse strategy of the organisation enables it to be an employer of choice.				
3	Diversity is driven as a strategic focus area in my department.				
Leadership					
4	My supervisor does not set a good example for everyone to follow.				
5	My supervisor is a good leader.				
6	My supervisor is consistent in the way that he/she treats us.				
7	I do not trust my supervisor.				
Transformation					
8	Supervisors inform us timeously about how new plans and changes will affect our work.				
9	The company is serious about equal opportunities for all race groups.				
10	I feel threatened by the company's EE process.				
11	The company supplies me with reliable and sufficient information on diversity.				
Human resources practices					

12	I believe that the company's selection criteria are justified in relation to job requirements.				
13	Recruitment and selection practices (<i>such as advertising positions, promotions, etc.</i>) that are applied in my department, are unfair to all.				
Performance appraisal					
14	My supervisor regularly discusses my work performance with me.				
15	My performance standards are clearly defined.				
16	High achievers are recognised for their achievements.				
17	My supervisor does not assist me to develop my full potential.				
Gender equity					
18	Managers in my department are sensitive to gender issues.				
19	Males and females receive equal pay and benefits for equal work.				
20	Men and women have equal opportunities to advance within the company.				
Valuing diversity					
21	Managers in my department show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.				
22	The need for diversity is recognised in our organisation.				
23	In my view employees in our organisation perceive diversity to be a liability.				
24	My supervisor does not possess the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team.				
Conflict management					
25	I feel comfortable dealing with conflict with colleagues from a different race group.				
26	My supervisor does not manage conflict between team members effectively.				
Interpersonal diversity					
27	I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced.				
28	I am at ease with people who hail from diverse backgrounds.				

29	I feel that working in a diverse group is stressful.				
30	I am afraid to disagree with the person to whom I report.				
Recognition and regard					
31	My manager informs me in a sensitive way when I do things wrongly.				
32	Our organisational leadership is democratic.				
33	My supervisor does not respect me.				
34	I am consulted when changes in working conditions are planned.				
35	I am not given informal praise and appreciation when I do things well.				
36	It is possible to influence management decisions.				
37	My supervisors do not listen to my opinions.				
38	I cannot try new ideas without fear of criticism.				
39	I am actively encouraged to develop my skills.				
40	My manager is easily accessible.				
Workload					
41	The amount of work that I am given is unrealistic.				
42	Staffing levels are adequate for the workload.				
43	The workload is shared unfairly.				
44	My overall working conditions are not good.				
45	The level of responsibility that I am given is reasonable.				
Professional development					
46	There are sufficient opportunities for me to participate in continuing professional education.				

47	I would be supported if I applied for study leave.				
48	Study leave is allocated in a fair manner.				
49	My manager prioritises my personal career development.				
50	I am actively encouraged to develop my skills.				
51	I am not encouraged to develop my full potential.				
Working relationships					
52	There is a good spirit of staff camaraderie amongst my co-workers.				
53	I am part of a team.				
54	I feel supported by my fellow colleagues.				
55	I can talk to my manager when something worries me.				
Autonomy/decision making					
56	I am allowed to make decisions on my own.				
57	I am regularly given the opportunity to assume a leadership role.				
58	I am an active participant when important decisions are made.				
59	Staff members are allowed to develop new ways of doing things.				

Thank you.

Annexure E: Confirmation of statistics review

25 September 2019

To whom it may concern,

Mr Faraaz Omar attended a consultation session with me in relation to relevant SPSS computations applicable to his thesis. In particular, descriptive statistics (e.g. frequency distribution tables) and inferential statistics (e.g. factor analysis and Pearson correlations) were covered.

Kind regards,



Dr Juan-Pierré (JP) Bruwer

DTech: Internal Auditing, MTech: Internal Auditing, BTech: Internal Auditing (cum laude), ND: Internal Auditing (cum laude), NHC: Accountancy (cum laude), SAP TERP-10; Qualified Assessor; Qualified Moderator; Qualified Facilitator.

Annexure F: Grammarian certificate

Epsilon Editing

314 Grosvenor Square
21 College Road
Rondebosch
7700

dgncornwell@gmail.com

tel. 084-9897977

27 April 2020

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This serves to confirm that the Master's thesis by Faraaz Omar, "Employment equity and employee morale at a selected public service organisation in Cape Town, SA," has been proofread and edited to my satisfaction for English idiom and correctness of expression. The referencing has been checked against a variant of the Harvard standard.



Professor D G N Cornwell (PhD)

Annexure G: Tamhane T2 Post Hoc test

Multiple Comparisons							
(IOC = inclusive organisational culture; MC = management commitment; TC = transparent communication; FEP = fair employment practices; TAD = training and development; RCP = respect for cultural practices; RND = recognising the need for diversity; POD = perceptions of diversity; SMD = skills to manage a diverse workforce; RR = recognition and regard; PD = professional development; WR = working relationships; ADM= autonomy/decision-making; WL = workload)							
Tamhane							
Dependent Variable	(I) Race Simplified	(J) Race Simplified	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
IOC	White	Black African	-.193	.151	.503	-.568	.181
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.266	.172	.337	-.691	.158
	Black African	White	.193	.151	.503	-.181	.568
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.073	.147	.945	-.432	.285
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.266	.172	.337	-.158	.691
		Black African	.073	.147	.945	-.285	.432
MC	White	Black African	-.330	.184	.223	-.791	.129
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.543*	.190	.020	-1.018	-.068
	Black African	White	.330	.184	.223	-.129	.791
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.212	.138	.335	-.548	.122
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.543*	.190	.020	.068	1.018
		Black African	.212	.138	.335	-.122	.548
TC	White	Black African	.081	.134	.908	-.256	.420
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.192	.147	.487	-.558	.173
	Black African	White	-.081	.134	.908	-.420	.256
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.274*	.106	.035	-.533	-.014
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.192	.147	.487	-.173	.558
		Black African	.274*	.106	.035	.014	.533
FEP	White	Black African	.034	.134	.992	-.300	.369
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.349	.143	.055	-.704	.005
	Black African	White	-.034	.134	.992	-.369	.300
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.384*	.112	.003	-.656	-.112
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.349	.143	.055	-.005	.704
		Black African	.384*	.112	.003	.112	.656
TAD	White	Black African	-.069	.143	.948	-.421	.282
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.422*	.145	.016	-.781	-.063
	Black African	White	.069	.143	.948	-.282	.421
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.352*	.135	.031	-.681	-.024
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.422*	.145	.016	.063	.781
		Black African	.352*	.135	.031	.024	.681

Annexure G continued

RR	White	Black African	-.155	.119	.486	-.453	.141
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.246	.133	.200	-.576	.083
	Black African	White	.155	.119	.486	-.141	.453
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.090	.105	.779	-.347	.166
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.246	.133	.200	-.083	.576
		Black African	.090	.105	.779	-.166	.347
PD	White	Black African	-.296	.132	.083	-.621	.027
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.416*	.143	.015	-.768	-.064
	Black African	White	.296	.132	.083	-.027	.621
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.119	.135	.762	-.448	.209
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.416*	.143	.015	.064	.768
		Black African	.119	.135	.762	-.209	.448
WR	White	Black African	-.086	.170	.944	-.512	.340
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.523*	.182	.018	-.975	-.071
	Black African	White	.086	.170	.944	-.340	.512
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.437*	.138	.006	-.773	-.101
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.523*	.182	.018	.071	.975
		Black African	.437*	.138	.006	.101	.773
ADM	White	Black African	-.001	.168	1.000	-.418	.415
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.105	.184	.921	-.559	.348
	Black African	White	.001	.168	1.000	-.415	.418
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.103	.155	.879	-.480	.273
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.105	.184	.921	-.348	.559
		Black African	.103	.155	.879	-.273	.480
WL	White	Black African	-.041	.115	.978	-.329	.246
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.200	.125	.313	-.510	.110
	Black African	White	.041	.115	.978	-.246	.329
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.158	.098	.299	-.398	.081
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.200	.125	.313	-.110	.510
		Black African	.158	.098	.299	-.081	.398
RCP	White	Black African	-.417*	.161	.037	-.81	-.02
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.727*	.185	.001	-1.18	-.27
	Black African	White	.417*	.161	.037	.02	.81
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.310	.171	.202	-.72	.10
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.727*	.185	.001	.27	1.18
		Black African	.310	.171	.202	-.10	.72
RND	White	Black African	-.200	.179	.613	-.65	.25
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.273	.205	.465	-.78	.23
	Black African	White	.200	.179	.613	-.25	.65
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.073	.166	.961	-.48	.33

Annexure G continued

	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.273	.205	.465	-.23	.78
		Black African	.073	.166	.961	-.33	.48
POD.	White	Black African	-.031	.172	.997	-.46	.40
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.055	.194	.989	-.53	.42
	Black African	White	.031	.172	.997	-.40	.46
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.024	.146	.998	-.38	.33
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.055	.194	.989	-.42	.53
		Black African	.024	.146	.998	-.33	.38
SMD	White	Black African	-.259	.164	.323	-.67	.15
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.534*	.190	.020	-1.00	-.07
	Black African	White	.259	.164	.323	-.15	.67
		Coloured/Indian/Asian	-.275	.162	.256	-.67	.12
	Coloured/Indian/Asian	White	.534*	.190	.020	.07	1.00
		Black African	.275	.162	.256	-.12	.67
*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.							

Annexure H: Gender crosstabulations

Management commitment (Gender Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Management commitment	Strongly agree	13	17	30
	Agree	38	29	67
	Disagree	47	12	59
	Strongly disagree	5	6	11
Total		103	64	167

Workload item 1 (Gender Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
The amount of work that I am given is unrealistic.	Strongly agree	16	20	36
	Agree	48	29	77
	Disagree	26	8	34
	Strongly disagree	13	7	20
Total		103	64	167

Workload item 2 (Gender Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Staffing levels are adequate for the workload.	Strongly agree	11	5	16
	Agree	38	17	55
	Disagree	33	32	65
	Strongly disagree	21	10	31
Total		103	64	167

Workload item 3 (Gender Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
The workload is shared unfairly.	Strongly agree	12	12	24
	Agree	42	30	72
	Disagree	30	11	41
	Strongly disagree	19	11	30
Total		103	64	167

Workload item 4 (Gender Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
My overall working conditions are not good.	Strongly agree	14	14	28
	Agree	31	23	54
	Disagree	38	19	57
	Strongly disagree	20	8	28
Total		103	64	167

Workload item 5 (Gender Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
The level of responsibility that I am given is reasonable.	Strongly agree	14	14	28
	Agree	55	31	86
	Disagree	24	14	38
	Strongly disagree	10	5	15
Total		103	64	167

Annexure I: Race crosstabulations

Management commitment (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
Management commitment	1.00	7	18	5	30
	2.00	10	40	17	67
	3.00	6	27	26	59
	4.00	0	9	2	11
Total		23	94	50	167

Transparent communication (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
Transparent communication	1.00	1	6	2	9
	2.00	13	59	20	92
	3.00	9	27	27	63
	4.00	0	2	1	3
Total		23	94	50	167

Fair employment practices (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
Fair employment practices	1.00	2	16	3	21
	2.00	16	55	20	91
	3.00	5	21	27	53
	4.00	0	2	0	2
Total		23	94	50	167

Training and development (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
Training and development	1.00	1	18	2	21
	2.00	16	42	18	76
	3.00	6	23	26	55
	4.00	0	11	4	15
Total		23	94	50	167

Working relationships (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
Working relationships	1.00	6	24	3	33
	2.00	12	49	25	86
	3.00	5	14	17	36
	4.00	0	7	5	12
Total		23	94	50	167

Managers in my department show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
Managers in my department show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.	Strongly agree	5	20	6	31
	Agree	15	39	17	71
	Disagree	3	19	16	38
	Strongly disagree	0	16	11	27
Total		23	94	50	167

My supervisor does not possess the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team (Race Crosstabulation)					
Count					
		Race			Total
		White	Black African	Coloured/Indian/ Asian	
My supervisor does not possess the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team.	Strongly agree	7	27	10	44
	Agree	13	39	18	70
	Disagree	3	21	16	40
	Strongly disagree	0	7	6	13
Total		23	94	50	167

Annexure J: White vs non-white crosstabulations

Management commitment (White vs non-white Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Race		Total
		White	Non-white	
Management commitment	1.00	7	23	30
	2.00	10	57	67
	3.00	6	53	59
	4.00	0	11	11
Total		23	144	167

Professional development (White vs non-white Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Race		Total
		White	Non-white	
Professional development	1.00	2	18	20
	2.00	18	65	83
	3.00	3	49	52
	4.00	0	12	12
Total		23	144	167

Managers in my department show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own (White vs non-white Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Race		Total
		White	Non-white	
Managers in my department show respect for cultural practices that differ from their own.	Strongly agree	5	26	31
	Agree	15	56	71
	Disagree	3	35	38
	Strongly disagree	0	27	27
Total		23	144	167

My supervisor does not possess the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team (White vs non-white Crosstabulation)				
Count				
		Race		Total
		White	Non-white	
My supervisor does not possess the necessary skills to manage a diverse work team.	Strongly agree	7	37	44
	Agree	13	57	70
	Disagree	3	37	40
	Strongly disagree	0	13	13
Total		23	144	167