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Perceptions of organisational justice, restorative organisational justice and their relatedness to perceptions of organisational attractiveness

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A research report submitted to the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. For the purpose of obtaining a Master of Arts degree by course work and research report in Organisational Psychology.

Declaration

I, Milda Pilvinyte, declare that this is my own unaided work. It is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Art in organisational/industrial psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. It has never been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

_____

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Student Number: 500410

_____ Day of _____ , 2013

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ABSTRACT

Organisational justice has been of great interest to researchers as it has been linked to employee attitudes and behaviours (Dailey & Kirk, 1992; Greenberg, 1990; Moorman, 1991). However in the context of South African organisations, restorative organisational justice, Ramsay (2009) argues, should occupy a similar place of interest. This is because South African organisations are governed by social correction policies such as employment equity which aims at correcting past injustices in the work place. This has resulted in the preferential selection of previously disadvantaged groups. The current research study attempted to understand the relationship between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness as well as the relationship between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. Furthermore the research attempted to explore whether or not there was a difference in degree of association between these two organisational justice frameworks and their relationship with organisational attractiveness. The research was conducted on a sample of 342 employees from a debt collection organisation. Only the call centre department within the organisation participated. The results further confirmed the strong relationship between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. Surprisingly restorative organisational justice overall, did not prove to have as strong a relationship with organisational attractiveness as compared to the traditional organisational justice framework. Research should not end here and future research should attempt to explore restorative organisational perceptions using different samples with a more diverse representation of race.

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CHAPTER ONE: RATIONAL

1.1. Rationale

The organisational justice framework has been researched over many years in an attempt to understand and improve upon it, and further, to investigate the consequences that justice perceptions may have for organisations (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Leventhal, 1976). Employees may hold different justice perceptions with regards to various processes and procedures in organisations, for example, testing for the purposes of recruitment, assessments for development, resolution of complaints, salary distributions and decision making to name but a few (Greenberg, 1990). Negative perceptions regarding these processes may have adverse consequences for organisational citizenship behaviours, employee job satisfaction, and possibly performance (Moorman, 1991). As such, the impact of negative justice perceptions within an organisational context have been shown to have far reaching effects, impacting not only on interpersonal relations (Chiaburu & Lim, 2008), but also upon the performance of an organisation (Moorman, 1991).

According to Ramsay (2009), however, there may still be room to expand upon the traditional justice framework by including the notion of restorative justice. This variable can be defined as "*the fairness of outcome distributions and procedures used to distribute outcomes to target groups that have suffered inequality in the past"* (Ramsay, 2009; p. 45). Given South Africa's history of Apartheid, the expansion of the organisational justice framework to incorporate this dimension seems particularly pertinent. The current study aims to build upon Ramsay's (2009) suggestion, and to add to somewhat absent literature concerning this restorative organisational justice. This will be done through the exploration of the relationships between organisational justice, restorative justice, and organisational attractiveness perceptions.

These relationships will be investigated in an effort to understand how efforts at social correction are perceived in light of organisational justice and its relationship with organisational attractiveness. It is believed that perceptions of restorative organisational justice will give an indication of employee beliefs relating to how they are treated based on social correction policies. Ramsay (2009) asserts that in an environment where preferential selection is instituted through state intervention (i.e. employment equity) an expanded notion

becomes an imperative. Incorporating restorative justice with the existing organisational justice framework may provide such insight. That is it may be possible to gain a more detailed understanding of how organisational attempts at social contribution are perceived by employees.

1.2. Research Aims

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and perceptions of organisational attractiveness. It is suggested that favourable perceptions of organisational attractiveness are an indication of perceived acceptance of the way in which an individual is treated by an organisation (Highhouse, Lievens, & Sinar, 2003). Employees may be particularly concerned with how organisational decisions and policies affect their success, progress, and well-being in an organisation. Restorative justice taps into an individual's perceptions of the comparison between how they are treated by an organisation and their expectations deriving from experience, beliefs, and values (Bell, Ryan, & Wiechmann, 2004). This also applies to particular groups, that is groups will have differing values, beliefs, and expectations therefore differences in perceptions may also exist. In South Africa groups are treated differently and due to efforts such as employment equity they expect to be treated differently. Thus their expectations may lead to differences in perceptions. In the organisational context restorative justice perceptions tap into employee understandings about how organisations demonstrate their social correction initiatives as translated in the form of distributions and procedures. Therefore a further aim of the proposed study is to investigate the relationship between restorative organisational justice, organisational justice, and organisational attractiveness. It is assumed that, in South Africa, the perceptions of disadvantaged and advantaged groups will be different due to past experiences. Under such circumstances one may expect that perceptions of restorative justice may prove to be a stronger predictor of organisational attractiveness than traditional justice perceptions. It is this interest that informs the current study.

The organisational justice framework has been identified as having a significant influence on organisations as well as employees (Greenberg, 1990). Research on organisational justice has endured a long journey with the development of theories such as equity theory (Adams, 1965), the justice judgement model (Leventhal, 1976), and finally the term organisational justice being devised by Greenberg (1990). However according to Ramsay (2009) there is

room to expand this construct so as to include a thus far neglected aspect of broader justice theory, namely Restorative Justice. This research is interested in investigating further reaches of justice perceptions particularly in the complex South African context. Furthermore the research will provide novel, interesting, and useful information about the different aspects that employees consider when making judgements about an organisation, the way they are treated, and the various policies of the organisation. In addition to this this research aims to provide further evidence for the inclusion of restorative organisational justice in the organisational justice framework. This information will be viewed within the context of South Africa where organisations must consider how different employees are influenced by the history of the nation.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Organisational Justice

Philosophers have deliberated about what it means to say whether something is just or unjust; others have asked questions about why people find it necessary to make such distinctions (Boudon & Betton, 1999). Of particular interest in the current study was the conceptualisation of justice as presented by Cohen (1989) and how it has been applied in the formulation of Organisational Justice Theory. Central to Cohen's (1989) understanding of justice are the notions of:

> *Distributive justice:* an individual's comparison of received rewards or burdens to that of others.
>
> *Procedural justice:* an individual's perception of the procedures which were adopted for the allocation of rewards or burdens.
>
> *Interactional justice:* an individual's perception of treatment during allocation procedures.

In the context of organisational research, the above mentioned concepts have been applied to form the constructs of organisational distributive justice, organisational procedural justice, and organisational interactional justice (Boudon & Betton, 1999; Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990). The term Organisational Justice is a well-known term formulated by Gerald Greenberg (Colquitt, 2001) and whilst the various sub-components of organisational justice could be assumed to be the same as those described by Cohen (2001) above, the application in Greenberg's (1990) conceptualisation is specific to organisational practices.

An individual's perception of organisational justice is the processes whereby organisational practices, such as the distribution of rewards, procedures for making reward decisions, and the interactions experienced during these procedures are evaluated as either fair or unfair (Greenberg, 1990). This evaluation process is intricate and researchers such as Adams (1965) and his Equity Theory as well as Leventhal's (1975) Justice Judgement Model among others have attempted to unravel the intricacies of fairness judgements. For Adams (1965) Equity Theory, judgements of fairness were centred upon social comparisons whereby an individual compares their own inputs (e.g. work) and outputs (e.g. rewards) against those of a referent

other. These were the beginnings of distributive justice. Distributive organisational justice was conceptualised in an attempt to understand fairness evaluations of outcomes (Johanson, Holladay, & Quinons, 2009).

Outcomes that impact the work life of an employee are naturally subject to evaluation, and the behaviours that follow were of interest to researchers. In the organisational context research conducted by Dailey and Kirk (1992) revealed that employee levels of job satisfaction were sensitive to perceptions of organisational reward fairness. The research was representative of both private and public sector organisations working within the information technology fields. Research such as this sparked an interest in the behavioural and attitudinal effects that fairness perceptions may have for employees and the organisation. As research continued various other aspects regarding outcomes and fairness came to light.

Leventhal (1975) proposed that equity theory was not broad enough to encapsulate the wide array of judgements made by individuals. He proposed a justice judgement model which focused not only on the outcome, but further, the processes undergone to determine outcomes. Leventhal (1975) believed that fairness perceptions of outcomes may also be influenced by the processes that go into making outcome decisions (Johanson et al., 2009). This idea was formulated into the concept of procedural organisational justice. Greenberg and Tyler (1987) proposed that procedural organisational justice research was imperative as it provided a deeper understanding of organisations in the social context and the role it may play in the lives of employees.

In addition to this, researchers became interested in understanding what may influence the fairness perception of an outcome. Dailey and Kirk's (1992) research also revealed that job satisfaction was sensitive to the fairness of organisational procedures. In the organisational selection framework Richard and Kirby (1999) found that less favourable procedural justice perceptions resulted in negative attitudes associated with unjustified diversity programmes even when the selection outcome was favourable. These results were found among an African-American student population. These findings are intriguing as they suggest that favourable justice perceptions cannot be guaranteed by favourable outcomes, furthermore procedural justice cannot be guaranteed by merely implementing procedures without justifying them. That is, procedures used for any kind of decisions without detail as to why a particular procedure was chosen, may be subject to poor justice perceptions due to lack of

understanding. The research relating to organisational justice perceptions continued and the principles making up the fabric of the organisational justice framework expanded.

Research became focused on a more interactive aspect which was seen to impact on fairness judgements. Researchers recognised the impact of employee encounters with those who make decisions and implement procedures (Colquitt, 2001). It became a possibility that these encounters could be construed as part of the organisational justice framework. This resulted in the incorporation of *interactional justice* into the organisational justice framework (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). It became evident that the behaviour of those who plan, implement, and ordain decisions had an impact on fairness perceptions (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). Research conducted by Hui, Au and Zhao (2007) revealed that even when the outcome was uncertain, individuals judged the behaviour of those they interacted with, evaluated how that behaviour may have affected the outcome and determine the fairness of this behaviour. This suggests that the interactional component impacts upon or contributes towards the organisational justice framework.

Organisational justice became a focus once researchers acknowledged justice perceptions as being pertinent to not only legal frameworks but organisational frameworks too (Nowakowski & Colon, 2005). Organisational justice provided a means for understanding how employees evaluate the actions of organisations and their behaviours (Whiesenant & Smucker, 2009). As these behaviours may directly impact the organisation it is understandable why fairness perceptions became thought-provoking. In addition research could enable organisations to alter their conduct to ensure fairness and favourable justice perceptions. This may prove to be a valuable tool for ensuring that employees reciprocate with desired organisational behaviours that may follow (Nowakowski & Colon, 2005).

Organisational justice is deemed important as everyday decisions, made by organisations, have an impact on the lives of employees. For example many organisations employ techniques which assist them in making well informed and reliable recruitment decisions (Gilliland, 1993). Some of these techniques may include the use of testing and assessments which provide organisations with relevant information regarding potential candidates for various positions. Organisations therefore need to appreciate the impact selection practices may have on their employees (Gilliland, 1993). To uphold business, ethical and legal standards organisations are responsible for using fair testing and selection procedures (Gilliland, 1993). However it may be that holding up those standards may not always be seen

as such by employees. That is, processes thought to be fair that uphold necessary standards may not always be perceived as fair by employees.

This is particularly important in the South African context, as organisations are expected to fairly employ members of previously disadvantaged groups. Specifically, organisational employment conduct in South Africa is governed by Employment Equity policies. The overarching purpose of these policies was to ensure that South African organisations are representative of all South African citizens (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010). Since the 1994 elections, the South African government has been dedicated to ensuring that the proper efforts are made to address the social corrections needed in the wake of Apartheid. Organisations are legally bound to these policies under the Employment Equity Act (Samuel, 2012). However it is up to the organisation to implement these policies in compliance with legislation. Organisational recruitment procedures are very closely tied to these policies. As a part of increasing citizen representation, organisations have additional factors to consider when making recruitment decisions. Organisations are required to first and foremost consider the employment of employment equity opportunity beneficiaries (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010).

Therefore fairness perceptions of testing/assessment for the purposes of recruitment for employees of different population groups is imperative, as employment equity policies may for some employees seem unfair (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010). Research conducted by Ng and Burke (2004), and Tougas, Beaton, and Veilleux (1991) found that employment equity beneficiaries favour these policies whereas white males were generally more inclined to view them as less fair. This may suggest that employment equity policies determine the outcome of recruitment decisions regardless of the procedures employed to make recruitment decisions. Naturally those who are not deemed beneficiaries of employment equity policies may perceive recruitment in South Africa as unfair. However these policies and procedures are all put in place to help employers make informed decisions.

It has been established that perceptions of organisational justice are associated with organisational behaviours (organisational citizenship, job satisfaction, organisational commitment) (Bell, Ryan, & Wiechmann, 2006). These have a direct impact on the organisation suggesting therefore, behaviour related to organisational justice perceptions needs to be understood (Bell et al., 2006). According to Folger (1994) employee perceptions of how they are treated speak to their assumptions about how much the organisation values

its employees. That is the way organisational processes are carried out gives employees an indication as to how much they are valued by their employer (Folger, 1994).

It may also be important to understand how fairness perceptions impact ideas about future work experiences and developing a relationship with the organisation. According to Bell et al (2004) when entering an unknown situation, individuals are likely to develop expectations. Employees or future employees enter into recruitment processes with expectations and their experiences are measured up against their expectations (Bell et al., 2006). This allows individuals to take some control over the situation, and resolve uncertainties about what is to follow during selection or development procedures (Bell et al., 2004). Further Bell et al (2004) suggested that these expectations and subsequent justice judgements are much like first impressions and are formed early in the relationship. Other judgements, such as organisational justice perceptions, could be based on these "first impressions". Disparities between expectations and experiences may be translated onto fairness perceptions, these could have an effect on individuals, and in turn, how they perceive and behave towards the organisation (Bell et al., 2006).

The case may be different for individuals entering uncertain proceedings with preconceived notions or expectations about fairness (Bell et al., 2004). This may be a difficult first impression to change, as contradictory experiences and judgements may be obscured by preconceived notions about how individuals may be treated by the organisation. These expectations could often be based on beliefs, direct or indirect experiences. Furthermore the justice perceptions formed may serve as a means to justify experiences as well as guide reactions to experiences (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001).

According to Bell et al (2006) these expectations are particularly important to consider. They believed that negative expectations were difficult to sway and therefore organisations needed to invest more effort into ensuring that testing and selection procedures were fair. Bell et al (2006) found that those who had higher justice expectations for selection systems displayed higher interest in the job, as well as intention to recommend the job to others. This demonstrates a sense of attraction to the organisation. In a recruitment situation organisational justice perceptions may have an indirect impact on how an applicant rates the attractiveness of and organisation (Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993).

Organisational concern for justice perceptions should be of a high priority. If behavioural consequences and intentions do not grab the attention of organisations, then legal consequences should be highlighted. According to Gilliland (1993) favourable justice perceptions may also reduce the likelihood of facing discrimination law suits. This is particularly important for South African organisations as they are bound by law to conduct themselves in a fair and bias free manner.

Based on meta-analytic research Colquitt, Colon, Wesson, Porter, and Yee Ng, (2001) found that the dimensions existing within the organisational justice framework are empirically distinct, and provide different insights into perceptions of fairness. As it stands the organisational justice framework consists of the dimensions; distributive justice, procedural justice as well as interactional justice. It has been suggested that interactional justice should further be divided into interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001). For the purpose of this study organisational justice included only the dimensions of distributive, procedural, as well as interactional justice. Interactional justice was not split up into interpersonal and informational justice, as this is consistent with the model used by Gilliland (1993) and Colquitt (2001).

2.2. Organisational Distributive Justice

As mentioned above, distributive justice can be traced back to the work done by Adams (1965) who looked at the ways in which individuals compared the distribution of rewards, punishments and resources (Cropanzano et al., 2001). Adams (1965) focused on social comparisons as a tool for measuring whether an outcome was fair or not, whether the outcome of a decision is fair or not, and the strategies that individuals may employ to address possible inequity. These were the ideas that developed into the concept of distributive justice - the perceived fairness of an outcome based on the decisions made within the organisation (Colquit, 2001; Greenberg, 1987; Richard & Kirby, 1999).

Equity theory as laid out by Adams was criticised by researchers such as Pritchard (1969) as some aspects of the theory were uncertain. For example Pritchard (1969) criticised Adams for not clearly defining the notion of an input and an output. Further Pritchard (1969) suggested that clarity was needed on the concept of a comparison person, i.e. would there be one or more comparison, and would a ‘specific’ comparison person/group be selected. According to

him Adams' theory postulated that an individual would not perceive inequity unless they have a comparison person. Pritchard (1969) believed that the disparities between inputs and outputs were the basis for inequity perceptions. Leventhal (1976) also criticised equity theory for ignoring the effects of distribution procedures, furthermore he claimed that equity theory put too much emphasis on equity in social relationships.

Distributive justice was the first of the organisational justice constructs to be explored (Nowakowski & Colon, 2005). Based on the ideas of Adams and his equity theory, Leventhal (1976) proposed a justice judgement model which included the distribution rule as one of the basic considerations for fairness. Leventhal (1976) described this rule as "*…the individual's belief that it is fair and appropriate when rewards, punishments or resources are distributed in accordance with certain criteria.*" (Leventhal, 1976, p. 4). These criteria could be based on needs or contributions.

In his model Leventhal (1976) proposed that an individual may adopt different distribution rules (needs, contributions etc.) when in different situations. This was considered to be a further challenge in understanding the steps taken when making a distributive fairness judgement. It was suggested that individuals initially focus on the most appropriate criteria for the situation. Based on this, individuals then determined the rewards that should be received, and finally, a fairness perception is formed.

Researchers became interested in the judgement of outcomes, within an organisation, that have an impact on an employee's experience in the workplace (Greenberg, 1990). Organisations are constantly making decisions that may affect certain individuals, groups, or even entire working populations. Therefore these decisions, and what they mean for the employees, may be subject to fairness judgements. For example when selecting personnel for further training and development, the organisation may adopt testing or assessment in order to aid the organisation in making the decision as to which individuals would most benefit from further training (Goodge, 1991). For employees this may mean that not everyone will undergo training, possibly eliciting perceptions as to whether or not it is fair to use testing or assessments to make such decisions. The same could be said about assessments used for the purposes of recruitment. These perceptions may have a significant impact on the way the organisation is viewed and how employees behave based on whether or not they perceive fair treatment from the organisation (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Daileyl & Kirk, 1992).

Furthermore these may all have an impact on organisational performance, as they may influence employee performance and tenure (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2007).

2.3. Organisational Procedural Justice

Development in distributive justice research resulted in the addition of the procedural justice construct (Cohen, 2001). In the legal framework it was brought about because it had been observed that defendants were sensitive not only to decisions made but also the manner of decision making (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). Leventhal's (1976) criticism of equity theory and development of the justice judgement model led to the conceptualisation of a procedural rule. The procedural rule was described as *"…the individual's belief that allocative procedures which satisfy certain criteria are fair and appropriate.*" (Leventhal, 1976, p. 5).

At this point, details as to which procedural criteria should be the focus were not clear, and further empirical research was necessary. However, based on theoretical speculation Leventhal (1976) proposed six rules for determining procedural fairness. These included the *consistency rule,* where individuals evaluated whether procedures are the same for all undergoing the procedures over time. The second rule was described as the *bias-suppression rule,* which focused on the extent to which personal agendas and loyalties were avoided during decision making procedures. Leventhal (1976) also believed that individuals evaluated the accuracy of the information used when making outcome decisions; this was termed the *accuracy rule.* The *correctability rule* was identified as the need to appeal decisions, in instances where individuals felt that an error was made and a decision was unfair or based on incorrect information.

Leventhal (1976) also believed that decision makers should take into consideration the various values held by individuals affected by those decisions. For example, Leventhal (1976) described decision making rules such as the equity and needs rule. The equity rule stipulated that outcome decisions should take into consideration equality and therefore decisions should result in equal or similarly equal outcomes for all involved. However Leventhal's needs rule stipulated that those with higher needs should receive higher outcomes. Organisations need to consider the values they stand by and the rule that is consistent with these values. Furthermore the organisational workforce should be made up of

those who hold values similar to those of the organisation. Most importantly employees should be very well informed on the values of the organisation. This could help avoid the formation of any erroneous expectations (Smither et al., 1993).

Procedural justice focuses on the perceived fairness of procedures used to make decisions and distribute outcomes (Cohen, 2001; Greenberg, 1986; Leventhal, 1976). Procedural justice within the organisational context can be traced back to work done by Leventhal (1976). He critiqued the work done by Adams (1965) on equity theory and suggested that it is a uni-dimensional theory because it focused only on the end result (the outcome). Leventhal (1976) believed that for a better understanding of organisational justice perceptions researchers needed to include factors which may influence the received outcome. Specifically perceptions of whether procedures used to make outcome decisions (selection, development, training etc.) were fair, and perceptions as to whether fair decision making procedures need to be incorporated (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

Research has indicated that procedural justice, much the same as distributive justice, impacts on the way employees view the organisation and the way in which they behave towards the organisation (Dailey & Kirk, 1992). Using the above example, it is possible to assume that employees may judge testing and assessment for recruitment purposes based on whether the procedures (activities) experienced were fair and suitable tools for making fair decisions.

These judgements have many repercussions for organisations. Employee behaviours may be based on their fairness evaluations. Research conducted by Walumbwa, Cropanzano, and Hartnell, 2009) revealed that employees with favourable procedural justice perceptions reciprocate with positive organisational behaviours such as pursuing learning activities and displayed stronger organisational identification. This research was conducted on a sample of 398 employees of a large vehicle dealership.

Fairness perceptions of a selection or development system involving testing or assessment may also serve as a backdrop against which employees decide whether they wish to be employed by an organisation (Gilliland, 1993). Research conducted by Bell et al (2006) revealed that favourable procedural justice perceptions resulted in a higher likelihood of positive recommendation intentions and job acceptance. This increases the likelihood of key talent attraction as well as retention (Gilliland, 1993). Based on Bell et al's (2006) research

these relationships were particularly prominent when employees entered recruitment procedures with high justice expectations.

When considering the concept of pure procedural justice it is imperative to consider expectations. With the existence of specific outcome criteria, specific expectations are set (Folger, 1994). If these expectations are not met fairness perceptions will not be favourable. When considering distributive justice, it may be assumed that employees would expect their rewards or punishments to be aligned with performance, needs, values, as well as political agendas. Procedural justice expectations may be traced back to previously mentioned procedural rules set out by Leventhal (1976). When reviewing these rules it becomes obvious that procedures carried out by decision makers are subject to fairness judgements. Based on the findings of Sheppard and Lewicki (1987) managerial functions such as planning, staff development, delegating, motivation, co-ordination, daily activities, and organisational representativeness undergo fairness evaluations by employees. Managers are constantly making decisions and taking actions which affect the lives of employees. Therefore the procedures adopted by these decision makers and others who influence the decision making process are subject to justice judgements. Various aspects of decision making and how it is influenced may be categorised into different domains. For example researchers became interested in employee perceptions of how interactions with decision makers impact upon outcome fairness. Fairness judgements of interactions have been identified as interactional justice (Greenberg, 1990).

2.4. Organisational Interactional Justice

The organisational justice framework does not end with procedural justice. Work done by researchers such as Leventhal (1976), Bies and Shapiro (1987), Colquitt (2001), Greenberg (1990), and Nowakowski and Conlon (2007) highlighted the importance of expanding the organisational justice framework to include perceptions of interactions, thus incorporating the interactional justice construct. It was believed that this was a necessary addition because researchers needed to consider not only the process and outcomes of decisions, but also the interactions which take place during such procedures. Therefore interactional justice focuses on the perceived fairness of interactions with those who make decisions and carry out procedures (Greenberg, 1990). Once again using the previous example, employees taking part in testing and assessment may engage in interactions with other employees as well as the

assessors and or administrators, managers and other parties who could be perceived to influence outcome decisions. These interactions will also be subject to judgements as to whether they facilitate fair decision making. Research has indicated that employees may base their interactional justice perceptions on whether they trust the enactors of procedures (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003). Ambrose and Schminke's (2003) research indicated that employees having higher interactional justice perceptions also reported higher supervisory trust. This indicates that those who are relied upon to make decisions are also upheld to acceptable behavioural standards.

Interactional justice is largely based on communications encountered during decision making procedures (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). While it is expected that individuals will want to be spoken to in a civil manner and treated with respect, it is challenging to understand why some may consider interactions fair and others unfair (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). This may be due to justifications provided for the communications or interactions that are taking place. That is communication is perceived as more fair if it is accompanied by a rational explanation (Bies & Shapiro, 1987). This is plausible as unjustified communications may lead to assumptions based on the person's own feelings, values, views, and expectations. Other important considerations may lie in the individual's ideas about how he/she is perceived in the organisation, due to race, gender, as well as political and organisational agenda. These could be explored by restorative justice perceptions as restorative justice takes into account fairness perceptions pertaining particularly to aspects of social correction for previously disadvantaged groups. However it is thought-provoking to understand or investigate such personal feelings during interactions, as well as procedures and distributions. Further research conducted by Hui et al (2007) revealed a similar pattern. Their study found that in uncertain situations individuals were more likely to perceive exchanges to be unfair. This was attributed to the fact that in uncertain situations individuals tend to formulate possible scenarios and compare those to the eventual outcome. The responsible party for the outcome is attributed as having unfairly interacted.

Cohen's (1989) distributive, procedural, and interactional justice principles have been applied to organisations, in the form of organisational justice theory, by researchers such as Leventhal (1976) and Greenberg (1990). These researchers have suggested that employees invariably judge the fairness of their experiences within an organisation. These experiences are also judged on different levels; i.e. the interpersonal level (interactional justice), processes

of decision making (procedural justice), and the reward/punishment level (distributive justice). Research has shown that these judgements have implications for organisations as employees base their behaviour on these judgements (Moorman, 1991), and that higher perceptions of organisational justice resulted in increased organisational citizenship behaviours (Walumbwa et al., 2009), job satisfaction (Moorman, 1991), and reduced unethical employee behaviours (Trevino & Weaver, 2001).

As previously mentioned the organisational justice framework is continuously developing, one such development is the additional construct of restorative organisational justice. Ramsay (2009) suggested that the organisational justice framework is incomplete as it does not include a specific dimension addressing past political issues and social correction efforts. The belief is that employees are very much aware of social correction efforts within the working environment as comparable efforts are seen in policies such as employment equity (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010). These policies and the way they are carried out are subject to fairness perceptions and therefore these specific fairness perceptions are in need of investigation.

2.5. Restorative Justice in the Organisational Framework

2.5.1. Restorative Justice

The expansion of the organisational justice framework in the form of including restorative organisational justice perceptions is, according to Ramsay (2009), a necessary step, particularly in South Africa and its continuously diversifying environment. Ramsay (2009) clarifies as to why the organisational justice framework is in need of expansion in the following statements:

> *"…I believe that we need to reconsider the dimensions of justice and expand beyond the existent four-factor model of Colquitt, et al., (2001) in the context of strong preferential selection… I believe that further specification serves to build our understanding in certain contexts. While parsimony is desirable, the current theory of justice as a four-factor construct does not address the case of societal corrections and a redistribution of resources to group members according to special rules for group distributions".* (Ramsay, 2009, p. 41).

In order to contextualise the discussion of restorative organisational justice, a brief history of restorative justice will be discussed first.

In the legal framework restorative justice became a favoured practice in the late 1970's and early 1980's (Daly & Immarigion, 1998). The idea was to revise the way criminal justice approached the prosecution process. In this framework the agenda of restorative justice was to ensure that the offender, victim, as well as the community were all party to the resolve of the offense. This process was intended to restore the needs of the victim, to ensure that the offense is prevented in the future, that the offender takes responsibility for the offence in order to be reintegrated into society, to ensure that the community facilitates the rehabilitation of both the victim and the offender and to decrease the time and costs involved with traditional legal justice methods (Cohen, 2001; Marshall, 1999).

These are general principles associated with restorative justice however the context within which restorative justice is applied may alter the way in which these principles are viewed. Daly (2002) suggested that the definition of restorative justice has to be tailored to the context within which restorative justice is being applied. The need for this was identified as restorative justice approaches were investigated in contexts of legal criminal matters, political conflict resolution as well as civil matters (Ashworth, 2002; Daly, 2002). All these had a unique manner in which restorative justice was applied and understood (Daly, 2002). For example the scale of people involved in a criminal case may be much less than that of political conflicts. When restorative justice is applied to political conflicts whole communities may be classified as victims. This is the case in post-Apartheid South Africa and the accompanying changes in societal ideologies. Despite the multiple ways in which restorative justice has been considered. There are some fundamental underlying principles that unite these perspectives. These principles include;

- *Restoration to victims.*
- *Mending the relationship between the victim, offender, and the community.*
- *Value orientations (the values most regarded as important in a society, values which govern social conduct.*
- *Preventing the re-occurrence of the offense.*
- *Understanding the full effect of the offense (Cohen, 2001; Daly, 2002; Feather, 2008; Marshall, 1999).*

It is possible that with changes in ideology, not only within the legal framework but the political and civil frameworks too, brought about the necessity to reconceptualise justice and restorative justice reaches. Ideology, accompanied by political revolutions which called for the equal inclusion of all races and individuals may have also resulted in the expansion of theoretical concepts such as justice to include new ideologies. In the political context the recognition of restorative justice has meant that victims (previously disadvantaged/discriminated communities) need to be integrated into society (Jenkins, 2006), and recognised as victims of injustice.

Restorative justice's focus on restoring relationships can be translated variously depending on the context within which it is being applied (Cohen, 2001). For example in the South African context this would translate into an effort to ensure that the discrimination inflicted upon citizens during the Apartheid era would never again be repeated in South Africa (Roche, 2002). Another focus is to ensure that those who have been disadvantaged by Apartheid (the black population) are recognised as such (Cohen, 2001). Therefore these populations are recognised as previously disadvantaged in the community and provided with the opportunity to prosper within the community despite past discriminations. Discrimination was evident in society as well as the organisational environment. Therefore efforts have been made to ensure that past discriminations in the organisational context would also be corrected. Maphai (1989) made a statement which goes to the heart of restorative justice and is believed to speak directly for the need to understand restorative justice in the organisational justice framework;

> "*The Apartheid system has discriminated unfairly and continues to do so. And in this way, it violates their rights and does them injustice. On the other hand whites have unfairly profited from the system that historically favours them. Consequently, this situation requires appropriate means to restore the balance.*" (Maphai, 1989, p. 10).

2.5.2. Restorative Organisational Justice

Ramsay (2009) conducted a quasi-experimental study to validate restorative organisational justice as an additional and separate organisational justice dimension. The study was based on a sample of 327 South African graduate students who were attempting to break into the working milieu. Because of the nature of restorative justice, a South African sample provided Ramsay with existing race and gender groups as well as a distinct previously disadvantaged group of participants. Ramsay's measure of restorative justice expectations were based on original organisational justice concepts. However the questions were formulated in order to

tap into expectations surrounding social correction initiatives in South Africa that were specifically aimed at certain groups of individuals (Crosby & Iyer, 2006). Therefore when answering questions the respondents were asked to refer to expectations for their gender as well as race groups.

Ramsay's (2009) conceptualisation of restorative organisational justice comprised of three facets; general restorative justice, procedural restorative justice and distributive restorative justice. The original organisational justice framework as outlined by Colquit (2001) also included interactional justice. This was not included in Ramsay's restorative organisational justice framework. This exclusion of interactional justice however, may be due to the difficulties as well as sensitivities which could be encountered when attempting to understand the expectations of interactions between individuals.

With the final formulation of restorative justice items, Ramsay (2009) combined these with the already established organisational justice items, as outlined by Colquitt (2001). In order to establish restorative organisational justice as a separate justice dimension within the organisational justice framework, Ramsay (2009) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis and analysed goodness of fit indices. This provided Ramsay (2009) with the opportunity to evaluate whether the organisational justice model with the inclusion of restorative justice was a better fit than the original organisational justice model. The analysis revealed that restorative distributive justice and restorative procedural justice when added to the original organisational justice framework produced a well-fitting model with a change of .04 in CIF when compared to that of the original model. This provided statistical evidence and justification for incorporating restorative organisational justice in the original organisational justice framework, particularly within the South African context.

Based on the evidence provided by Ramsay's research restorative organisational justice can be viewed as a distinct concept that can add value to the original organisational justice framework. This is because it looks at individual fairness expectations with regard to the treatment of previously disadvantaged groups (Ramsay, 2009). Based on this it is possible to assume that an individual's unique perceptions of justice may be revealed through restorative justice perception investigations. The previously suggested expansion of the organisational justice framework by, adding the construct of restorative justice is operationalized by expanding each organisational justice dimension. More specifically the organisational justice dimensions, distributive and procedural justice are remodelled into; restorative distributive

and restorative procedural with the additional general restorative justice perceptions construct (Ramsay, 2009).

The implementation of restorative organisational justice in the organisational justice framework is geared towards gaining a better understanding of organisational contributions towards social correction. As organisations are required to comply with employment equity laws, their actions are subject to employee judgements. Restorative organisational justice may help researchers understand, through the eyes of employees, how organisational decisions and processes contribute towards social correction initiatives. Specifically, how outcome decisions and the processes involved in making these decisions are perceived to contribute towards organisational social correction initiatives. Differences between race and even gender, in perceptions of recruitment and organisational justice, could be anticipated not only because of the differential treatment described by Ramsay (2009) but also research conducted by Smither et al (1993). Smither et al (1993) found that employees of different races held different perceptions regarding recruitment practices. Their research was based on a sample taken form an American organisation with employee of various different races. They also indicated that these differences may have implications for minority recruitment programmes.

2.5.3. General Restorative Justice

General restorative justice taps onto individual perceptions about social correction and distributions to previously disadvantaged groups. The aim of this facet within restorative justice is to understand perceptions about the fairness of the idea of social correction (Ramsay, 2009). It is important to understand the general outlook on social correction, particularly within the South African context where law and legislation require organisations to comply with social correction regulations. Although organisations carry out their obligations in different ways, it is valuable to understand how employees or potential employees perceive the ideas behind how organisations incorporate employment equity policies. According to Ramsay (2009) people vary in their views of social correction initiatives and organisations need to understand how these variations may affect employee behaviours and therefore the organisation. Furthermore perceptions of restorative justice may also provide insight into how employees expect to be treated and whether their expectations are met by the organisation.

According to Watchtel and McCold (2001) individual and institutional behaviours should display accountability. That is, individuals search behaviours for indications of caring for others. In the organisation, employees may look for behavioural indications of engagement in caring for employees and employee well-being. As discussed earlier much of organisational behaviour and intentions can be revealed in the policies they implement. In South Africa employment equity policies and the way they are implemented are an indication of how employees will be cared for. At the same time employees may have their own ideas about how employees should be treated. General restorative justice is directed at investigating perceptions about the treatment of previously disadvantaged groups and social correction. As with any policy there may be differences of opinion in how previously disadvantaged groups should be treated within the workplace. Furthermore the way employment equity policies are enacted may also be subject to these judgements.

Research by Tougas et al (1991) found that women had the tendency to have more favourable perceptions of preferential selection. However this was conditional, this prevalence existed only when women had the belief that current organisational practices did not serve social correction initiatives. It could be assumed that this would be the case for race groups as well, where previously disadvantaged groups may have a higher preference of employment equity to previously advantaged groups.

2.5.4. Restorative Distributive Justice

Distributive justice as discussed previously is conceptualised as an individual's perception of whether or not an outcome is fair (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990). The remodelled *restorative distributive justice* evolves into an exploration of the way in which outcomes are perceived in the manner in which they are distributed to previously disadvantaged groups (Ramsay, 2009). Furthermore whether these outcomes are expected based on an individual's status, and lastly whether these distributions contribute towards social correction initiatives such as employment equity.

Restorative justice focuses on the journey towards restoring the victim or a crime to wholeness or psychological recovery, but within an organisational context, the focus would be to ensure that the behaviour of the organisation is directed towards correcting past discretions (Van Ness, 1993). Organisational actions can be observed in the form of rewards, punishments, processes, interactions with employees etc. Therefore restorative distributive

justice plays an important role in providing insight into whether organisational actions in the form of rewards and punishments are directed at ensuring the correction of past indiscretions.

Within the South African context past indiscretions are of a complicated nature. Organisations need to consider not only their own histories but the history of the country. History has resulted in the distinction between groups in South Africa, and those who were disadvantaged now stand to continue struggling unless action is taken to restore their well-being. Through the ideals of restorative justice organisations are now responsible for ensuring that any distributions are targeted to satisfy social correction initiatives. This is the ideal conceptualisation, whether it is translated into reality is uncertain. Through the addition of restorative distributive justice into the organisational justice framework, it may be possible to investigate whether employees perceive that social correction is achieved through organisational distributions.

Even though South African law requires organisations to implement employment equity policies in an attempt to encourage social correction initiatives within the workplace, it is not guaranteed that organisations have succeeded in implementing these policies successfully. Unfortunately the goals of employment equity and social correction initiatives have not yet been reached. According to the Diagnostic Report presented by the National Planning Commission July 2011 the gap in annual earnings between races is widening. The annual earnings increases stand at an average of 6% for the white population whereas for the African population it stands at 2% or an average of 2.66% for the combined African, Coloured, and Indian populations (National Planning Commission, June, 2011).

The actions of an organisation are not only seen in the way they distribute rewards and punishments. An important factor to consider is what organisations do to help them make distribution decisions. Organisations often employ processes and policies such as testing, assessments, and performance management. These build a body of information about employees which assist organisations in making distributive decisions. It is particularly important to consider how these processes are carried out and what standards they need to abide by in order to comply with social correction initiatives.

In the traditional organisational justice model procedural justice was conceptualised as an individual's fairness perception of the procedures used to make outcome decisions (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1990). However in the new framework the goal of organisational justice

perceptions would also be to investigate whether procedures contribute towards organisational social correction initiatives. Therefore in the proposed new framework procedural justice is framed to investigate this aspect (Ramsay, 2009).

2.5.5. Restorative Procedural Justice

Folger (1994) asked the question, "*is procedural justice also capable of taking individual difference and unique circumstances into account?*" (p. 229). In part this may refer to putting procedural justice into practice. However it also applies to the measurement of procedural justice. It is important to understand individual differences and special circumstances when considering an individual's perception of justice. It may be possible that minority groups who do benefit from employment equity policies may not regard procedures fair. Research conducted by Richard and Kirby (1999) suggested that diversity programmes which were not carried out in a justified manner resulted in negative attitudes.

Restorative procedural justice is conceptualised as specifically the perceived fairness of procedures (used to make outcome decisions) and considering their contribution to social corrections targeted at previously disadvantaged groups (Ramsay, 2009). Restorative procedural justice may also provide insight into whether procedures were expected to be applied differently to individuals based on status.

Restorative justice focuses on the restoration of previously disadvantaged population groups of individuals within society and restoring the relationship between previously advantaged and disadvantaged groups. This idea postulates that previously disadvantaged groups need to be recognised as such and actions need to be taken to restore them. Restorative organisational justice focuses on how this may be done within the working environment. That is whether organisations can participate in an attempt to restore previously disadvantaged groups.

Furthermore restorative organisational justice focuses on whether employees feel that this is being done and whether it is being done fairly based on how employees expect to be treated (Harris, Lievens, & Van Hoye, 2004). Research conducted by Smither et al (1993) where differences between races in perceptions of recruitment procedures were found, revealed that candidates evaluated the job relatedness of recruitment processes. The fairness regarding these perceptions was related to organisational attractiveness perceptions. Because job relatedness of recruitment activities relates to procedural organisational justice it is assumed that racial differences in restorative procedural differences could also be present. Therefore

different race groups may have differing perceptions of restorative organisational justice particularly in the South African context where different race groups are treated differently during recruitment (Ramsay, 2009).

Previous research has focused on perceptions of discrimination, during selection and promotion procedures, in the form of organisational justice as well as the prototype model theories (Harris et al., 2004). The goal of the research was to understand the basis of perceived discrimination/unfair treatment. The prototype model postulated that historic events have created beliefs and expectations that identify victims and social responsibility violators. These are referred to for judgements of discrimination/fairness (Harris et al., 2004). That is, previously disadvantaged groups are more likely to view outcome decisions as discriminatory/unfair if the decision is made by non-disadvantaged groups or groups who are viewed as social responsibility violators (Harris et al., 2004). This model is racially bound and excludes considerations with regards to other factors leading up to outcome decisions such as processes and interaction. The organisational justice model was employed by Harris et al (2004) to fill in these gaps however using these models separately and combining their results does not paint a complete picture. The inclusion of restorative justice may provide the opportunity to fill in the gaps of fairness perceptions by incorporating fairness perceptions which may be influenced by discrimination perceptions.

Restorative procedural justice may provide researchers with added insight into fairness and discrimination. This is proposed as restorative procedural justice delves into perceptions of the fairness and capacity of organisational procedures to fulfil social correction initiatives (Ramsay, 2009). This is particularly relevant in South Africa as employment equity policies are designed precisely for the purpose of social corrections. As indicated by Tougas et al's (1991) research employment equity is perceived more favourably by females than males, it was also assumed that this may be the case for different race groups. Tougas et al's (1991) findings also indicated that organisational procedures were evaluated by women, where procedures that were perceived to disregard social correction were related to higher regards for employment equity. Therefore organisational recruitment procedure may be evaluated differently by previously advantaged and disadvantaged groups.

The *classical* definition of employment equity relays that, only when an organisation invests resources into ensuring that equal opportunity is afforded to the entire workforce, are they implementing employment equity policies (Crosby & Cordova, 1996). That is, organisations

are able to claim the existence of employment equity policies when individuals of any gender, race, or disability status have equal opportunity to get hired, promoted, or retained. With this organisations have the responsibility to increase diversity in the workplace (Crosby & Cordova, 1996). Many organisations claim to have policies, in place which fulfil these requirements. However research has shown that even with these policies true employment equity has not been achieved. As mentioned previously there are gaps in income growth between previously disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged groups (National Planning Commission June, 2011).This goes to show that although employment equity policies are in place their effects are much slower than anticipated, this may contribute to the belief that employment equity is an ineffective initiative.

This is an interesting and important area of investigation. It is proposed that restorative organisational justice is the opportune theoretical tool to investigate employee perceptions of social correction efforts. Organisational restorative justice views may impact organisational justice perceptions as each individual may have different expectations as to how they should and will be treated by the organisation. Furthermore these perceptions may alter the way the organisation is viewed. At this stage there is very little research on the relationship between restorative justice and other variables. In an attempt to increase literature and research this study will investigate the relationship between organisational justice, restorative organisational justice, and organisational attractiveness.

2.6. Organisational Attractiveness and its Possible Relationship to the Organisational Justice Framework

Research has shown that less favourable justice perceptions may result in less favourable perceptions of organisational attractiveness (Cropanzano, Slaughter, & Bachiochi, 2005; Smither et al., 1993). The relationship between Restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness may be valuable as it will provide a deeper understanding of the factors employees may consider when judging organisational attractiveness. Organisational attractiveness focuses on an individual's perception as to whether an organisation/employer is appealing (Turban, 2001; Turban & Keon, 1993). Individuals may be attracted to different organisations based on their individual needs, interests, preferences, and personality. These may be based on status within the population, preferences/expectations for the way they will

be treated by an organisation, and beliefs about organisational policies such as employment equity. Attraction to an organisation is derived from the decisions organisations and individuals make about one another (Turban, 2001).

Decisions organisations make about employees may be demonstrated by procedures and organisational decision making with regards to employees and how they fit into organisational needs. Furthermore procedures may also be implemented to source out employees who are suited for recruitment, career development, and promotions within the organisation. From the employees' side, previous experiences, interests, needs, preferences, and personality play an important role in their views about organisational attractiveness (Turban, 2001). For example an employee undergoing recruitment or development procedures may refer to the experience as an indication of the work experiences they may have in the future and whether they are satisfactory/attractive (Williams & Bauer, 1994). The preview of the working environment may be measured up against how the individual wishes to work, the values which guide the way they work, and the manner in which they wish to be treated at work. This contributes to the individuals ideas as to whether the organisation is an attractive one.

However, it may be unreasonable to expect every employee or individual to have the same criteria for an attractive organisation. In order to be viewed as attractive an organisation needs to meet a set of criteria which are largely dependent upon individuals (Turban, 2001). Furthermore justice judgements may also alter perceptions of organisational attractiveness. That is selection procedures which appeal to an individual's morality may facilitate favourable organisational attractiveness perceptions (Williams & Bauer, 1994).

The organisation should foster attractiveness through organisational culture and values, they should be easily observable, and they should set the organisation apart from others (Turban & Keon, 1993). Some of these characteristics may include; *the size of the organisation, the level of internationalisation, pay mix, and level of centralisation* (Turban, 2001). From a restorative justice perspective individuals may look for indications as to whether they would be classified as either advantaged or disadvantaged within an organisation and whether they would be treated as expected based on employment laws (Williams & Bauer, 1994). An additional factor may be an insight into the policies that the organisation holds in high regard, and whether the individual has similar regard for these policies. For example South Africa organisations are required to comply with employment equity policies. The nature of these

policies has resulted in differences in views associated with them. There are some who agree completely, others who do not agree with these policies and others who have mixed feelings about them (Booysen, 2007; Ramsay, 2009). If an individual highly regards employment equity policies and is aware that the organisation highly regards and implements these policies they may perceive it to be a more attractive organisation (Williams & Bauer, 1994).

Turban and Keon (1993) suggested that reward distribution is an important characteristic when considering organisational attractiveness. This could be because the distribution of rewards reflects the working environment and the way organisations conduct themselves in other areas. This is what employees consider when deciding upon the attractiveness of an organisation. With this there is a strong indication of the relationship between organisational attractiveness and restorative justice. Outcomes such as; pay structures, branding, possibilities for development within the organisation, recruitment practices, and policies (such as employment equity), are important for individuals when considering organisational justice, organisational attractiveness and restorative organisational justice (Turban & Keon, 1993). The argument is that organisational justice reflects perceptions of the possible working environment, if these perceptions are favourable, favourable organisational attractiveness may be found. It is possible that these fairness evaluations take place when considering the tools organisations may use to aid them in decision making. Such tools may include testing and assessment, which provide organisations with information about employees and candidates. Based on employee performance during assessment and testing organisations may make development, promotional and recruitment decisions. In addition to this organisational policies may serves as indicators as to what would influence these decisions.

An employee's perception of the organisations attractiveness may be based on fairness judgements of distributions and procedures. In addition to this perceptions of organisational attractiveness may be swayed by their perceptions of social correction fulfilment as measured by restorative organisational justice. This is important for organisations when considering competitive advantage. Through selection procedures organisations need to attract and retain qualified personnel (Smither et al., 1993).

As mentioned previously personal individual elements play an important role in organisational attractiveness perceptions. One such personal element includes values. Research has shown that in order to achieve a good fit between the employee and organisation it is essential to ensure that there is an alignment in values (Lievens,

Decaesteker, Coetsier, & Geirnaert, 2001). Organisational values are largely communicated through culture, which is seen in organisational actions and behaviour. Organisational recruitment and development procedures are an indication of how they behave and therefore their culture and values. In the South African context this is particularly important as the employment and treatment of employees is largely governed by employment equity policies and how they are implemented within an organisation (Horwitz, 2005). However the implementation of employment equity policies is not enough for truly achieving social correction within an organisation (Horwitz, 2005; Booysen, 2007). The organisation has instil employment equity into their culture in order to ensure that actions and procedures are in compliance with these policies (Booysen, 2007). If these changes are not made it is possible that values concerning employment equity are invisible to employees and applicants.

Organisations that do not achieve cultural inculcation in employment practices may have failed to do so as a result of financial shortages, focusing on reaching quotas instead of transformation, lack of communication, management and leadership practices (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). Employees are privy to these shortcomings through the experience of the working environment. Having been selected for a position may be a favourable result for an applicant. However a true sense of reward and satisfaction would be experienced in the conditions of the job and how employees are treated by the organisation.

It is essential that employment equity be inculcated in organisational culture as employees in the organisation need to understand policy goals and how they can be achieved. For instance employees who are provided with a culture that truly embraces social correction initiatives would be more likely to have reduced perceptions of reverse discrimination and negative stereotypes as well as unrealistic expectations (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). Esterhuizen and Martins (2008) described this as best practice, they cited that this is essential for employee acceptance of the organisation. Failure to truly instil employment equity in organisational practice and culture may result in employee resentment of the organisation. This resentment may result in further negative behaviours such as lack of commitment, job satisfaction, increases in turnover and neglect of duties (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008).

The importance of cultural changes with regards to employment equity are to ensure a deeper than surface level commitment to achieving social correction within the workplace. The purpose of employment equity is not only to regulate employment practices but to also ensure job satisfaction, development as well as retention of employees (Booysen, 2007). According

to Horwitz (2005) the implementation of employment equity policies has failed to retain black employees. Some reasons cited for this include; lack of employment equity for career advancement, lack of commitment to employment equity from top level management, lack of cultural changes to facilitate a diverse workforce, lack of development for black employees, and finally the placement of black employees into positions with limited decision making and responsibilities.

Organisations invest a lot of time and money in recruitment as well as development however; these investments can turn out to be fruitless if procedures and decision making fail to go beyond surface level employment equity (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). The organisation is a place where employees have the opportunity to grow personally, and develop their careers. If the culture of the organisation does not promise the opportunity for growth and development, whether it be for previously disadvantaged, or advantaged groups, the organisation will be less attractive. It could be that previously disadvantaged groups will not be attracted to an organisation which promises employment purely because of status. This may be seen by employees as a job promising no growth gained purely for token value (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). Restorative justice attempts to tap into true social correction. As it enquires as to whether employment or development decisions would be based on actual skill or group classification, or a combination.

Given the current recruitment environment in South Africa organisations are expected to comply with employment equity standards and employees should understand this. However there is still a question of the way an organisation goes about meeting these standards. Employment equity policies within an organisation need to be transparent, that is employees need to understand why they are necessary, how they contribute to social corrections, and that they are carried out fairly and comply with legal requirements (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). Employees are likely to accept procedures and decisions if they are transparent and easily understood. Furthermore organisations that fully incorporate employment equity may be seen as more fair and providing a favourable working environment and therefore more attractive (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008).

Organisations in South Africa are faced with a skills shortage in the workplace (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008). In the true sense of employment equity organisations are required to invest not only in social corrections solely for the recruitment process but also invest in in-house

training and mentoring for those who need it in order to achieve organisational goals as well as personal and career development for employees (Horwitz, 2005).

Employment equity has been met with concerns for how it is implemented and the possibility of reverse discrimination (Booysen, 2007). As it calls for social correction and reinstatement of previously disadvantaged individuals it is inevitable that for the time being previously disadvantaged candidates will be first in line to benefit. If the implementation of employment equity policies is transparent, fair and compliant employees are more likely to accept them. However practices and procedures that fail to reflect a complete commitment to employment equity may result in employees resenting the organisation. Employees need to see that the decisions made by the organisation, which may limit the development and growth of some employees, are based on legitimate policies which the organisation is committed to.

2.7. Organisational Justice, Restorative Organisational Justice, and Organisational Attractiveness

Organisational justice is continuously being researched so as to further understand how organisational justice perceptions are formed and the resulting behaviours and attitudes associated with these perceptions. Various research conducted in the past has indicated that organisational justice perceptions are related to various attitudes about the organisation and job as well as behaviours towards the organisation. For example Dailey and Kirk (1992) found that levels of job satisfaction were sensitive to the fairness perception of rewards within the organisation.

Rewards in the organisational justice context are related to distributive organisational justice. Therefore it can be assumed that distributive organisational justice is related to attitudes towards the job and therefore the behaviours associated with these attitudes. Furthermore Smither et al (1993) found that candidates evaluated the fairness of the procedures used in recruitment, for example how related recruitment activities were to the job. These fairness perceptions were found to be related to perceptions of organisational attractiveness as well as intensions to recommend the organisation (Smither et al., 1993). The evaluation of the fairness of recruitment processes relates to procedural organisational justice, and therefore it can be assumed that procedural organisational justice perceptions are also related to certain attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation, such as organisational attractiveness

perceptions and related behaviours. Interactional organisational justice was also found to be related to attitudes of trust and therefore related behaviour by Ambrose and Schminke's (2003).

Based on the evidence provided by prior researchers it is evident that the way organisations and their representatives behave has an impact on the way employees view the organisation. That is, employees are extremely aware of the way organisations conduct themselves particularly when their conduct impacts on the lives of employees. Employee observations may then lead to certain perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours towards the organisation. Therefore it is assumed that processes, interactions, and recruitment decisions based on recruitment practices would be subject to justice judgements and therefore associated with certain attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation, specifically in the case of the current study, organisational attractiveness.

Restorative organisational justice although very similar to organisational justice contextualises perceptions related to employee experiences and therefore related behaviours and attitudes. This is because restorative organisational justice focuses on the manner in which organisations are able to show and practice social correction initiatives in the way they conduct themselves, and the way in which they make decisions. This is particularly relevant in the South African context, policies such as employment equity govern the way organisations in South Africa conduct themselves and the way in which they make recruitment decisions. Ng and Burke (2004) and Tougas et al (1991) found that employment equity beneficiary groups and non-beneficiary groups differed in the way they perceived employment equity policies. This could be assumed to mean that recruitment practices governed by employment equity practices may be subject to different perceptions by different groups within the employee market. That is, procedures and distributions of outcomes may be dependent on how employment equity policies are viewed. Therefore restorative justice adds an additional perspective to the organisational justice framework which is assumed to be particularly relevant in the South African context. This is further supported by Thomas and Wise (1999) who found that there were differences between race groups in the importance placed on recruiter character, and job characteristics when considering organisational attractiveness. Therefore, it is assumed, that organisational attractiveness perceptions in South Africa may be related to not only general justice perceptions but also justice perceptions relating to procedures and outcomes regulated by employment equity.

It is evident that an intricate understanding of organisational justice perceptions and related employee attitudes and behaviours is imperative. Not only do organisations need to understand how employees perceive their conduct to avoid legal conflicts but they need to understand how these perceptions can impact the organisation through employee behaviours and attitudes. Fairness perceptions can be related to the way employees promote the organisation, and overall productivity levels. These are all particularly important aspects for organisational survival. However in the South African context an understanding of restorative organisational justice perceptions could be just as imperative. As such it could be possible that organisational justice perceptions in the context of employment equity and social correction provide a better indication of the associated behaviours and attitudes towards organisations in South Africa? Restorative organisational justice, accordingly, within the context of South African organisations, may have stronger relationships with perceptions of organisational attractiveness being one indication of such perceptions.

Based on this the following research will investigate the relationship between organisational justice, as outlined by Greenberg (1990), Gilliland (1993) and Colquitt (2001), and organisational attractiveness. The relationship between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness will also be investigated. Once these relationships are established the differences in association between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness and restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness will be explored.

2.8. Research Questions

- Is there a relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and perceptions of organisational attractiveness and its dimensions?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and perceptions of general organisational attractiveness?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and perceptions of commitment?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of organisational justice and perceptions of prestige?
- Is there a relationship between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness and its dimensions?

  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of restorative distributive justice (for gender and race) and perceptions of general organisational attractiveness?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of restorative procedural justice (for gender and race) and perceptions of general organisational attractiveness?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of restorative distributive justice (for gender and race) and perceptions of commitment?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of restorative procedural justice (for gender and race) and perceptions of general commitment?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of restorative distributive justice (for gender and race) and perceptions of general prestige?
  - Is there a relationship between perceptions of restorative procedural justice (for gender and race) and perceptions of general prestige?
- Is there a difference in the relationship between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness, and organisational justice and organisational attractiveness?

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLIGY

3.1. Design

This study was quantitative and as none of the variables in the study were manipulated, the study was non-experimental. The collected responses provided observational information which allowed the researcher to establish trends as well as the relationships between variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). The results of the study did not allow the researcher to make any causal claims and therefore no influencing variables were statistically identified (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). However the results can be used to generalised to the larger population from which the sample was obtained; predominantly the organisational population in South Africa. The sample in the current study was obtained through convenience sampling however, organisations that are required by law to implement employment equity policies were targeted.

3.2. Sample

For the purpose of this research the objective was to obtain a sample of individuals who had been through testing or assessment for recruitment or development purposes. This would allow the researcher to investigate how various decision making methods were perceived by those who were subjected to them.

The sample was obtained from an organisation specialising in debt collection. The largest department within the organisation (i.e. the contact centre) was targeted. Over 500 questionnaires were distributed to those employees who underwent the organisations recruitment procedures. That is, employees who had been through the recruitment process involving assessment developed by the recruitment department within the organisation. This recruitment process included numerical as well as verbal testing, telephonic role play assessments, a typing assessment, as well as interviews. Of the distributed questionnaires 458 were returned. After capturing fully completed questionnaires and data cleaning, a usable sample of 342 was obtained. This fortunately exceeded the initially intended sample of 200+ participants.

Table 1 and 2 below provide summaries for the sample descriptive statistics. The average age of the sample was 26.56 years old. Of the 244 participants who revealed their tenure, the average tenure was calculated to be 16.78 months.

Table 1:

Sample Summary Statistics for Age and Tenure

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Age	26.55	5.03	19	59
Tenure (in months)	16.78	13.57	1	114

Table 2 below indicates that 64.8% (N=221) of the sample were female and 35.2% (N=120) were male. The majority of the sample comprised of black participants (N=251; 74.04%), and coloured participants (N=76; 21.83%). The rest of the sample was made up of Indian (N12; 3.54%) participants. Majority of the sample were South African citizens (N=325; 97.31%) with the remaining participants making up the foreign national participant (N= 2, 2.69%). The most commonly spoken languages among the sample were Zulu (N= 85; 25%), English (N=76; 22.35%), Sesotho (N= 50; 14.75%), and Setswana (N= 41; 12.06). Other common languages included Afrikaans (N= 29; 8.53), Xhosa (N=28; 8.24) and Tsonga (N= 17; 5%). The remainder of the sample were Venda speaking (N= 7; 2.06%) and Ndebele speaking (N=4; 1.18%). .88% of the sample cited their home language to be other.

3.3. Procedures

Various organisations were approached in search for a sample. No specific industry was targeted. The researcher had to establish whether testing or assessment was employed by the organisations. Organisations were approached telephonically, via-email as well as through personal visits. Some organisations were unwilling to share any details regarding their recruitment practices. Others were uninterested in subjecting their recruitment practices to any kind of research. Organisations that were interested in understanding their recruitment practices in light of the topic of interest were engaged further. Interested organisations were provided with information regarding how the research would be conducted, and informed of all the researchers' ethical obligations.

Table 2:

Sample Descriptives

Descriptor	**n**	**Per cent (%)**
Gender		
Male	120	35.19
Female	221	64.81
Race		
Black	251	74.04
White	2	0.59
Indian	12	3.54
Coloured	74	21.83
Previous Assessment		
Yes	179	55.25
No	145	75
Assessment Used for the Purpose of Current Job Recruitment		
In house assessment and interviews	342	100

Only one organisation chose to allow access to participants for the research. Once consent was obtained the questionnaires were printed and made available to employees who had undergone the recruitment process currently used by the organisation. The questionnaire was also available on line via Survey Monkey however employees opted to access the printed questionnaire. Both versions of the questionnaire included the participant information sheet as a front page. This provided participants with information regarding the research project.

The candidates were asked to complete the questionnaire if they wished to participate in the study. Furthermore they were informed that the completion of the questionnaire would be interpreted as implied consent. The candidates were also asked to deposit the questionnaire in a sealed box provided in their offices. These boxes were then collected by the researcher on the day of the deadline for completion. This helped to ensure confidentiality and provided the assurance that only the researcher and research supervisor would have access to the questionnaires as had been stipulated in the participant information sheet.

Once the completed questionnaires were collected, the data was captured by the researcher. When capturing data any questionnaire with more than three missing responses was deemed an incomplete questionnaire and therefore excluded from the sample. Once the data was checked for any capturing errors, the analysis was conducted.

The first step of the analysis was to determine sample distribution characteristics, i.e. skewness, kurtosis, further measures of normality. Based on this analysis it would be possible to determine whether the use of parametric testing would be statistically viable (Field, 2009). Once this was determined, further analysis addressing the research questions and details regarding the sample were conducted.

3.4. Instruments

In order to gain demographic and biographical information about the sample a biographical questionnaire was included. The questionnaire consisted of 10 items. The items included age, gender, and race, language, and industry questions amongst others. The participants were not required to reveal any identifying information such as their name, or employee identification numbers.

Perceptions of restorative organisational justice were measured using a revised version of a restorative justice scale developed by Ramsay (2009) (see Appendix D). This is a 14 item scale measured on a 5 point likert type scale (1= *Strongly Disagree* to 5= *Strongly Agree*). This measure included the subscales of ***general*** *restorative justice*, ***restorative distributive*** *justice, and* ***restorative procedural*** *justice perceptions.*

General restorative was measured by a 4 item scale. This scale was reported to have had a Cronbach's reliability coefficient of α=0.86 in Ramsay's (2009) research. This is higher than acceptable value of 0.7 to 0.8 (Field, 2009). The reliability coefficient found in this study was α= 0.606. This indicates poor reliability which is contrary to what Ramsay (2009) found. Further examination of the deviating variable statistics revealed that the scale would not improve with the removal of any one of the items. Below are examples of some of the items used in this scale;

– *Special consideration in selection/development decisions should be given to previously disadvantaged groups.*

– *Future selection opportunities should be given to employment equity target beneficiary groups.*

Restorative distributive justice perceptions were measured by a 7 item subscale. This scale was also proved to be reliable (α= 0.86 for women and α=0.91 for blacks). Based on analysis the adapted version of the scale used in this study was also found to be reliable (α= 0. 0.80, for gender, and α= 0.79 for race). Below are examples of some items included in the scale;

– *Recruitment decisions about my group reflect the effort displayed during the selection procedures.*
– *Recruitment decisions about my group were appropriate based on the effort and performance during the selection procedures.*

Restorative procedural justice perceptions were measured by 16 items. Ransey (2009) reported the scale to be reliable (α= 0.86 for women, and α= 0.89 for blacks). The findings in this research were consistent with Ramsay's findings (α= 0.75 for gender, and α= 0.75 for race). Examples of some of the items in this scale are as follows;

– *I believed that the activities used for the selection process were not in any way biased against my group.*
– *I believed that the selection activities would uphold ethical and moral standards for all groups.*

The organisational justice variable was measured using a 26 item scale measured on a 5 point likert type scale (1= strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree) (see Appendix E). This questionnaire was adapted from Colquitt's (2001) questionnaire based on a four subscale model of organisational justice. Gilliland's (1993) three subscale questionnaire was also referred to in the adaptation of the scale. The four dimension scale, developed by Colquitt (2001) nor Gilliland (1993) have reports on reliability coefficient for their questionnaires. The reliability found for this particular sample was high (α= 0.82 for procedural justice, α= 0.80 for distributive justice, and α= 0.91 for interactional justice). Two of the items in this

scale namely items 11 and 12 were reverse scored. This questionnaire consisted of three subscales, namely ***procedural justice***, ***distributive justice*** and ***interactional justice***. There are 6 items in the procedural justice subscale, with questions such as;

- *During the selection activities, I was allowed to ask questions about anything I was unsure of.*

- *I believe the selection activities were administered in the same way to everyone who participated.*

The distributive justice subscale consists of 9 items some of which include:

- *I was treated fairly during my participation in the selection/development activities.*
- *The selection activities assisted the company in making the correct selection decisions.*

The interactional justice scale consisted of 11 items, some of these include;

- *The assessor/s explained the selection activities in a way that was easily understood.*
- *The assessor/s explanations of the selection activities were reasonable.*
- *The assessor/s explained the selection activities thoroughly.*
- *The assessor/s were honest about the role selections play in the selection process.*

Perceptions of organisational attractiveness were measured using a scale developed by Highhouse et al (2003) (see Appendix F). This is a 15 item scale measured on a 5 point likert type scale (1= *Strongly Disagree* to 5= *Strongly Agree*). The scale is made up of three subscales (5 items each) namely; ***general attractiveness*** (α= .88)***, Intentions to Pursue*** (α.82)***,*** and ***prestige*** (α= .83).

The scale was originally designed to understand how individuals, who are yet to find out whether they have a job with a particular organisation, perceive the organisation. Given the nature of the sample used for the current study some of the questions had to be modified. The nature of the sample used for this study was one of existing employees. That is there was no anticipation regarding whether or not participant employment statuses were about to change. The facet of the questionnaire exploring "intention to pursue" was seen by the researchers as inappropriate for the given sample. Therefore these questions were modified and made relevant to the nature of the available sample. The subscale known as "intention to pursue" was then renamed to "Commitment". This portion of the scale now explored the extent to which employees are loyal to the organisation they work for. Based on the statistics in this

study, the scale was consistently reliable α=0.72 for general attractiveness, α=0.86 for commitment, and α=0.90 for prestige). Examples of the items in the scale include;

- *For me, this company is a good place to work.*
- *This company was attractive to me as a place of employment.*
- *A job at this company was very appealing to me.*
- *I would suggest to anyone who is invited for a job interview to this company to go to it.*

Table 3:

Summary of the Reliability coefficients found in the study

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient (α)
Procedural Justice	0.82
Distributive Justice	0.80
Interactional Justice	0.91
Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)	0.80
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	0.79
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	0.75
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	0.75
General Restorative Justice	0.61
Organisational Attractiveness	0.94
General Attractiveness	0.72
Intentions to Pursue	0.86
Prestige	0.90

3.5. Analysis

Before proceeding to the statistical analysis necessary to answer the research questions, the researcher ran sample statistics in order to determine what kind of statistical analysis would be viable. The researcher needed to establish the normality of the sample. In order to do this the skewness, kurtosis and Kolmogorov-Smirnoff statistics were examined. As reported in the previous section in order to understand the reliability of the scales used for the study Cronbach's alpha were calculated for each of the scales and subscales.

In order to understand the nature of the relationships between each variable a Correlation matrix was generated. This helped the researcher build an understanding of the natural

relationship between the variables in the study. That is, the relationship between variables that exist in an environment without manipulation (Gravetter &Wallnau, 2007 put in ref list). A correlation analysis is measured by a spearman correlation coefficient. This coefficient can be between the values of -1 and 1 (Gravetter &Wallnau, 2007). Correlation coefficient values close to -1 or 1 suggest perfect or near perfect correlations, where a negative value implies an inverse relationship. Values closer to 0 imply the lack of a relationship (Gravetter &Wallnau, 2007).

For further understanding of these relationships a two independent samples t-Test analysis was conducted. This analysis provided insight into any differences that may exist between various race and gender groups for each variable (Field, 2001). This analysis hypothesises that there is no difference in the mean between two independent samples. The t-statistic measures the extent of any difference (Gravetter &Wallnau, 200). The accompanying p value indicates the significance of this difference. This is a parametric assessment therefore requires that all the assumptions for using a parametric analysis are met. The data needs to be interval or ratio, the sample needs to be normally distributed, homogeneity of variance is also required, and lastly independence. Independence stipulates that the responses of each individual are independent of the responses of other individuals in the study (Field, 2001).

Once the relationships between each of the variables were clear, analysis to answer research questions could begin. Assumptions, however, specific to these tests, first had to be met for the statistical tests to be used. Sample analysis revealed distribution patterns for each variable. Further tests were conducted to determine whether assumptions for a multiple regression were met. Multiple regression analysis was conducted to the relationship between restorative organisational justice perceptions and organisational attractiveness perceptions. The relationship between the original organisational justice constructs and organisational attractiveness were also investigated. These relationships were then compared to determine whether or not there was a significant difference in their relationship with organisational attractiveness. These statistics could then be used to determine whether restorative organisational justice gives insight into behaviour over and above what we know based on research using the original organisational justice construct.

Multiple regressions were utilised by researchers to determine the relationship between the outcome variable (in this case Organisational Attractiveness) and Organisational Justice and Restorative Organisational Justice). For restorative organisational justice the models were

created such that restorative distributive justice for gender and race constituted one model and restorative procedural justice for gender and race also constituted a second model. Individual contributions were then analysed to further understand each variable separately.

The Linear regression is a method of plotting the variables on the axis of a graph and finding the straight line that best summarises the data (Field, 2001). This line then provides information regarding the extent and direction of the predicted relationship between two variables. The regression used in the study tests the null hypothesis stating that no variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the independent/predictor variable. The goal was to reject this hypothesis for the alternate hypothesis stating that some variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the predictor variable (Field, 2001). From this analysis researchers can determine whether an independent variable provides a significant predictive model for the dependent variable. Further a t-test with beta-weightings for the independent variable provides insight into the direction and extent of the variation it explains in the dependent variable (Field, 2001). Further R^2 indicates the extent of the strength of the prediction (Field, 2001). For the purpose of the study the adjusted R^2 statistic was examined as it provides a more accurate less optimistic measure of the strength of the prediction model. This is done by excluding influential cases for the model.

The adjusted R^2 and the R^2 can be compared to determine whether influential cases/outliers significantly bias the prediction model (Field, 2001). This statistic accounts for sampling errors and the loss of prediction/shrinkage if the model was applied to the total population from which the sample was taken (Field, 2001).

The regression is a method whereby the line of best fit is derived and then analysed to determine whether it serves as a predictor. This is done by calculating the squared differences between the line of best fit and responses (SS_R). The mean model is also analysed as the squared differences between the mean and actual responses are also added (SS_T). The comparison is needed in order to cross validate whether the line of best fit as indicated by the regression model is actually the best model for summarising the data. Further cross validation of the model is done by looking at statistics like the adjusted R^2 and multicolinearity. Multicolinearity looks at the extent of the relationship between predictor variables (Field, 2001). Multicolinearity is an assumption that has to be met in order to run a regression analysis. This assumption stipulates that no predictor variables should have perfectly linear

relationships. Strong relationships between predictor variables the unique prediction value of each predictor variable is weakened in the model (Field, 2001).

Various statistics were referred to in order to determine whether the assumptions of the regression have been met. Previously discussed multicolinearity is determined by examining a correlation matrix with all the variables in the model. Further because a regression is a parametric test, statistical normality of distribution, measured by the skewness, kurtosis and Kolmogorov-Smirnoff have to be established. Furthermore random independent sampling and interval or ration data have to be used. Further assumptions particular to regressions include; normality of residuals, equality of variance and linearity (Field, 2001).

Normality of residuals assumes the random and normal distribution of errors/residuals with a mean of zero. That is the differences between the model and observed data are more frequently zero or close to zero (Field, 2001). The details regarding residual distributions can be obtained from the distribution of residuals tables (Field, 2001). Furthermore it is assumed that the errors observed are independent of one another. That is the errors observed are unrelated and do not correlate (Field, 2001). The relationship between variables has to be linear in order to calculate a linear regression (Field, 2001).

The next step is determining whether there were any influential cases in the sample. These cases would be those that vary markedly from the trends of the rest of the sample. These needed to be identified as they may have some influence over the estimated regression coefficient (Field, 2001). As a result the chosen best model may be biased towards the outlying case. These outlying cases can be identified by looking at Cook's distance as well as graphs summarising leverage. Cook's distance is a measure of the extent to which any one case has an influence on the model (Field, 2001). As advised by Cook and Weisberg (1982; as cited in Field, 2001) Cook's distance values greater than 1 may be problematic. The graph summarising leverage provides details regarding the extent of the influence an observed outcome value may have on the values predicted by the model (Field, 2001). Once these outliers are identified the regression analysis should be re-run excluding the cases identified to be problematic.

To answer the final research question a Fisher Transformation was performed. By way of explanation the difference in the strength of association between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness and organisational justice, and organisational justice

was examined using the Fisher transformation statistic. Merely looking at the differences in the Pearson's correlation statistic differences can only provide at face value the difference in associations. The Fisher transformation provides a statistic which indicates the significance in the differences between associations (Howell, 2002). The Fisher transformation is necessary as it applies a formula which converts the *r* statistic into a standardised *z* statistic which then makes it possible for normal distribution assumptions to be met (Howell, 2002). The Fisher transformation then calculates confidence intervals for each association, once converted back to *r* the confidence intervals on the differences between correlations can be determined. Significant differences are seen when the value of the confidence intervals lie on opposite sides of the value zero. The Fisher transformation tests the hypothesis that two correlation coefficients obtained from independent samples are equal (Howell, 2002). In order to establish significant differences between correlations the hypothesis needs to be rejected.

3.6. Ethical Considerations

The participants were issued a participant information sheet along with the questionnaires in order to ensure further awareness of the conditions of participation. This informed participants that participation in the study was voluntary and that participants would not be subjected to any advantages or disadvantages in the workplace by completing, or choosing not to complete, the questionnaire.

The completion of the questionnaire indicated implied consent whilst the return or an incomplete questionnaire or the lack of questionnaire returned implied exclusion from participating in the study. That is, employees who were given the questionnaire had the ability to refuse participation. The participants were not required to disclose any identifying information (i.e. name and surname, ID numbers, or employee numbers) this was done to ensure anonymity. Furthermore once completed the questionnaires were deposited into sealed boxes which were collected by the researcher. This way the questionnaires could not be viewed by anyone other than the research and research supervisor. This also ensured that completed questionnaires could not be traced to a specific employee once completed. This process ensured confidentiality.

The organisation participating in the study was guaranteed to be briefed on the findings of the results upon completion of the study. However, it was indicated that this feedback would not

include any individual questionnaires. The organisation was also given the choice to be named in the research thesis. Upon completion of the study the questionnaires will be destroyed and electronic data will be kept by the researcher for a period of five years.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

In this chapter, all the results of the described analysis will be presented. In the sequence of presentation the descriptive sample statistics will be presented. This builds a high level picture of the sample. Followed by this the statistics pertaining to the distribution of the sample will be presented. A further look into the nature of the natural relationship between variables will be presented in the form of the correlation matrix as well a t-Statistics. Finally results pertaining to the regression analysis will be presented.

The results discussed will be those pertaining to the outlined hypothesis and any other relevant statistical findings which may have an impact on the strength and meaning of the hypothesis testing.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 4:

Descriptive Statistics Summary

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	N
Procedural Justice	3.89	0.76	1	5	342
Distributive Justice	3.70	0.66	1	5	342
Interactional Justice	3.78	0.75	1	5	342
Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)	3.36	0.81	1	5	342
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	3.29	0.83	1	5	342
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	3.57	0.71	1	5	342
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	3.45	0.77	1	5	342
General Restorative Justice	3.43	0.87	1	5	342
Organisational Attractiveness					
General Organisational Attractiveness	3.23	0.85	1	5	342
Commitment	3.10	1.02	1	5	342
Prestige	2.78	1.07	1	5	342

Table 4 above summarises the mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values for each variable. Here the face value differences between means can be observed. For example the mean for procedural justice was 3.891 and the mean for Prestige was 2.776. Therefore the mean for Procedural justice was higher ranging between 3 (Neutral) and 4 (Agree) than the mean for Prestige. Mean values closer to 5 indicate positive perceptions regarding each variable whereas mean values closer to 1 indicate poor perceptions about any given variable. Mean values ranging close to 3 indicate neutral or uncertain perceptions regarding any given variable. Minimum and maximum values are the summaries of the average of minimum and maximum values for each variable. As each variable is measured on a 5 point likert type scale responses can range between 1 and 5. As illustrated by table 4 every variable had, on average, a minimum score of 1, and maximum score of 5.

4.2. Distribution Analysis

As suggested previously, because the intention was to use various parametric tests for the purpose of analysis, certain assumptions had to be met. The test for normality was first and foremost. Normality pertains to the distribution of scores where a normal curve takes on the shape of a bell (Field, 2001). This shape has specific characteristics, for a perfectly normal distribution the mode, median and mean should all be the same value, its highest point is at the centre, it ranges from negative infinity to positive infinity, and it is perfectly symmetrical (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005). This is important for statistical analysis as normality assuming tests will have less power when used on a non-normal distribution (Field, 2001).

Before statistical analysis to determine the shape of the distribution researchers often look at sample size. Normality however can only be established for the sample obtained during research, therefore researcher often assume that if the obtained sample is normally distributed then so will be the sampling distribution. It is common practice to assume normal distribution with a large sample size. According to the central limit theorem sample sizes exceeding 30 will be normally distributed with a mean equalling that of the population (Field, 2001). The sample obtained for the purpose of this research was N=342 therefore distribution normality can be assumed.

Further tests for normal distribution include tests for skewness, kurtosis, and the Kolmogorov-smirnov test for normality. Skewness refers to the placement of scores along the

distribution where scores concentrated at the high end of the distribution indicates a negatively skewed distribution, and scores concentrated at the low end the distribution indicates a positively skewed distribution (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005). Positive skewness values indicate that there is an excess of low scores in the distribution, and negative skewness values indicate an excess of high scores in the distribution (Field, 2001). Kurtosis refers to the sharpness of the vertical downward slopes. The kurtosis of a distribution can be described as either platykurtic (relatively flat), leptokurtic (relatively steep), and mesokurtic (relatively normal). The goal is to identify kurtosis as being mesokurtic as this is closest to the characteristic bell shape of a normally distributed sample (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005). Positive kurtosis values indicate a distribution that tends to be more pointy and heavy tailed, whereas negative kurtosis values indicates a more flat shaped distribution (Field, 2001). For both skewness and kurtosis a value of zero indicates a normal distribution. That is, the further away from zero the less normal the distribution becomes. These values can be tested for significance however with large sample it is more than likely to find significance. It is suggested that the distribution plot should be looked at and distribution determined face value (Field, 2001). The distribution plots pertaining to the variables in the study can be found in Appendix G.

Finally the Kolmogorov-smirnov is a statistical analysis which compares the sample distribution patterns to that of a normally distributed sample with the same mean and standard deviations (Field, 2001). The null hypothesis states that the sample distribution is not significantly different to that of a comparison normal distribution with the same mean and standard deviation. A significant value would indicated that the null hypothesis should be rejected and therefore the assumption of normality is not met (Field, 2001). However this test is limited when used on a large sample size. It becomes much easier to find significant differences from small deviations with a large sample size. Unfortunately the Kolmogorov-smirnov does not give any indication as to whether deviations may bias further statistical analysis (Field, 2001). Although it is necessary to utilise all necessary analysis to establish a normal distribution a significant Kolmogorov-smirnov does not cancel out the skewness, kurtosis, or central limit theorem (Field, 2001).

Table 5 below summarises the normality statistics for the variables in the study. The skewness statistics suggest distributions to be negatively skewed for most variables, with the exception being the prestige subscale of organisational attractiveness. The skewness values

all range between -0 and -0.69. None are exactly zero but none exceed 1. The kurtosis values indicate that the organisational justice subscales, the restorative distributive justice scale (for gender), and the restorative procedural justice scale (for race) are characterised by a negative more flat shaped distribution. Whereas the rest of the variables namely the organisational attractiveness sub scales, restorative distributive justice scales (for race), restorative procedural justice (for gender), and general restorative justice scales all take on the characteristics of a positive more pointed distribution shape.

The Kolmogorov-smirnov statistics are significant for all variables analysed in the study at $\alpha=0.05$, with the exception of the commitment subscale of organisational attractiveness which is significant at $p<0.05$. As discussed previously it may be assumed that these significant Kolmogorov-smirnov findings are due to the large sample size. Therefore it may be that the deviations detected will not bias the results of further statistical analysis (Field, 2001). The plotted distributions for each variable indicate that they are normally distributed (see Appendix G).

Based on the central limit theorem and the face value of the plotted distribution patterns normality assumptions were confirmed. Therefore proceeding with further parametric testing for the purpose of answering the research questions was deemed acceptable.

Table 5:

Summary of Skewness, Kurtosis, and Kolmogorov-smirnov statistics

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis	Kolmogorov-smirnov
Procedural Justice	-0.69	0.43	<0.01
Distributive Justice	-0.59	0.82	<0.01
Interactional Justice	-0.63	0.22	<0.01
Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)	-0.41	0.14	<0.01
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	-0.32	-0.002	<0.01
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	-0.32	-0.002	<0.01
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	-0.52	0.58	<0.01
General Restorative Justice	-0.27	-0.12	<0.01
Organisational Attractiveness			
General Organisational Attractiveness	-0.24	-0.06	<0.01
Commitment	-0.03	-0.66	0.025

Prestige	0.12	-0.65	<0.01

4.3. Correlations

The results for the Pearson's correlation analysis have been reported with the use of abbreviated variables. Below is a table of each variable and the related abbreviations.

Table 6:

Variable Abbreviations

Variable	Abbreviation
Distributive Organisational Justice	DOJ
Procedural Organisational Justice	POJ
Interactional Organisational Justice	IOJ
General Restorative Justice	GRJ
Restorative Distributive Justice Gender	RDJG
Restorative Distributive Justice Race	RDJR
Restorative Procedural Justice Gender	RPJG
Restorative Procedural Justice Race	RPJR
General Organisational Attractiveness	GA
Commitment	COM
Prestige	PRES

A Pearson's correlation analysis was run. The correlation matrix was used to gain an understanding of the general relationship between the variables in the study. Table 6 below summarises the correlations between each variable. By looking at the table it is evident that the relationships observed between variables are all positive. One variable namely restorative justice has non-significant relationships with all other variables. Relationships between all other variables are positive at $\alpha=0.05$. The dependent variables (i.e. three subscales of organisational attractiveness) correlate significantly to all the justice variables. Although the Pearson's correlation coefficients were significant the strength of the correlations were medium in strength (Field, 2001). This suggests that the three subscales of organisational attractiveness (general attractiveness, commitment, and prestige) have significant positive relationships to the independent variables, excluding general restorative justice. This means that as the value of one independent variable changes the value of the dependent variables

changes proportionately (Field, 2001). The relationships between the independent variables differ somewhat. There were very strong relationships between the original organisational justice components. Procedural and distributive organisational justice had the strongest relationship (r= 0.77, p<.0001), followed by interactional and distributive organisational justice (r= 0.757, p<.0001), and interactional and procedural organisational justice (r= 0.72, p<.0001). The additional restorative organisational justice displayed a different trend, where relationships were weaker with the exception of restorative distributive justice gender and race (r= 0.86, p<.0001), as well as restorative procedural justice gender and race (r= 0.81, p<.0001).

The relationship between general restorative justice and the restorative organisational justice components were also weak and altogether non-significant for the relationship between general restorative justice and restorative procedural justice (race) (r= 0.08, p=0.15), and restorative distributive justice (race) (r= 0.09, p=0.10). The reset of the relationships between the restorative organisational justice components are medium to strong. The relationships between the restorative organisational justice components and original organisational justice components were also strong. The strongest relationships were between restorative procedural justice (gender) and distributive organisational justice (r= 0.61, p<.0001), procedural organisational justice (r= 0.55, p<.0001), and interactional organisational justice (r= 0.53, p<.0001). Restorative procedural justice (race) had a strong relationship with distributive justice (r= 0.54, p<.0001) and procedural justice (r= 0.46, p<.0001).

Restorative distributive justice (gender) was strongly related to distributive organisational justice (r= 0.48, p<.0001). Based on the correlation matrix it is evident that multicollinearity does exist between independent variables, with the exception of general restorative justice. However based on previous findings by Colquitt (2001) the organisational justice dimensions are separate facets of organisational justice and it is necessary to keep them so. Furthermore Ramsay (2009) suggested, based on her findings, that restorative organisational justice is also a distinct facet. Restorative organisational justice and its facets were suggested to be distinct from one another and the original organisational justice framework (Ramsay, 2009). Therefore the independent variables will be kept distinct for the purposes of further analysis.

Table 7:

Pearson's Correlation Matrix for Organisational Justice, Restorative Organisational Justice, and Organisational Attractiveness

	RDJG	RPJG	RDJR	RPJR	GRJ	IOJ	DOJ	POJ	GA	COM	PRES
RDJG	1.00										
RPJG	0.53	1.00									
	<.0001**										
RDJR	0.86	0.43	1.00								
	<.0001**	<.0001**									
RPJR	0.45	0.81	0.48	1.00							
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**								
GRJ	0.16	0.12	0.09	0.08	1.00						
	0.004*	0.03	0.10	0.15							
IOJ	0.44	0.53	0.37	0.44	0.03	1.00					
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	0.59						
DOJ	0.48	0.61	0.41	0.54	0.07	0.76	1.00				
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	0.224	<.0001**					
POJ	0.43	0.55	0.35	0.46	0.02	0.72	0.77	1.00			
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	0.74	<.0001**	<.0001**				
GA	0.27	0.29	0.25	0.33	-0.09	0.36	0.37	0.33	1.00		
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	0.09	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**			
COM	0.27	0.35	0.24	0.34	-0.04	0.39	0.37	0.31	0.81	1.00	
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	0.46	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**		
PRES	0.26	0.29	0.26	0.31	-0.04	0.36	0.36	0.29	0.75	0.84	1.00
	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	0.42	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	<.0001**	

*p<.05.**p<.0001

4.4. Two Independent Samples t-Test.

The two independent samples t-test was conducted in order to better understand how gender and race groups may differ from one another in their perceptions of the variables of interest. The first set of t-tests conducted explored the differences in perceptions between race groups. The race groups used in the study were Coloured and Black. The race groups were limited to two as the rest of the race groups did not have a substantial amount of representation in the sample. To ensure that the use of a two independent samples t-test was a suitable method of analysis assumptions were examined. The two independent samples t-test assumes that the independent variable is measured on an interval scale, that there is quality of variance between the two independent samples, and independence of scores (Field, 2001). As discussed previously the assumption of normal distribution was met as according to the central limit theorem (Field, 2001). Further the equality of variance was tested by the Levene's test as the t-test was conducted. The results for the pooled t-statistic were used where the Levene's test confirmed equality of variance.

Tables 8 and 9 below provide summaries for the tests for homogeneity of variance. Only variables of interest were reported due to space constraints. Therefore table 7 is a summary of the non-significant tests of variance. Hence only the results for the portions of the t-test where the equality of variance assumption was met will be reported and discussed. Furthermore this table includes the findings for gender as well as race groups.

As seen in table seven general restorative justice reports equality of variance between gender groups. The rest of the table is dedicated to statistics pertaining to equality of variance between race groups (i.e. the coloured and black populations). Thus for the variables procedural, distributive and interactional justice there is equality of variance between race groups. Furthermore for restorative distributive and procedural justice (race) the assumption of equality of variance is also met. The same is true for restorative procedural justice (gender). The organisational attractiveness variables also meet the equality of variance assumption for race groups.

Table 8:

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance for Race

Variable	DF	F statistic	Pr > |F|
Procedural Justice	76;250	1.3	0.17
Distributive Justice	76;250	1.26	0.19
Interactional Justice	76;251	1.15	0.48
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	76;252	1.01	0.92
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	76;253	1.22	0.30
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	76;254	1.39	0.09
Organisational Attractiveness			
General Organisational Attractiveness	76;257	1.01	0.96
Commitment	76;258	1.09	0.61
Prestige	76;259	1.11	0.55

Table 9:

Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance for Gender Groups

Variable	DF	F statistic	Pr > |F|
General Restorative Justice	119;220	1.13	0.47

*p<.05.

Tables 10 and 11 below provide summaries of the significant differences found in the t-test analysis. Once more only the variables of interest and those with significant findings were reported due to space constraints. As in table 7 general restorative justice was the only variable with significant findings between males (M= 3.29, SD= 0.83) and females (M= 3.5, SD= 0.88) where $t_{326} = -2.18$ (p= 0.03). Based on this it can be assumed that females were significantly more in favour of restorative justice than males. No other significant differences between gender groups were found.

Differences between race groups were more prominent. The summary provided in table 8 indicates that difference between the coloured and black group were prominent for the procedural, distributive, interactional justice variables as well as the restorative justice variables excluding restorative distributive (gender) variable. There were also significant

differences between race groups for the organisational attractiveness variables. This indicates that there are more variances in perceptions about restorative organisational justice, organisational justice, and organisational attractiveness between the race groups coloured and black.

Table 10:

Summary of the Two Independent Samples t-Test analysing differences between race groups

Variable	DF	t statistic	Pr > |t|
Procedural Justice	326	3.15	0.002*
Distributive Justice	326	2.63	0.009*
Interactional Justice	326	2.95	0.003*
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	326	2.4	0.017*
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	326	2.39	0.017*
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	326	3.17	0.002*
Organisational Attractiveness			
General Organisational Attractiveness	326	2.3	0.022*
Commitment	326	2.68	0.008*
Prestige	326	2.42	0.016*

*p<.05.

Table 11:

Summary of the Two Independent Samples t-Test Analysing Differences between Gender Groups

Variable	DF	t statistic	Pr > |t|
General Restorative Justice	339	-2.18	0.03*

*p<.05.

4.5. Multiple Regression

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the predictive value of organisational justice (i.e. distributive, procedural, and interactional organisational justice).

4.5.1. Multiple Regression Analysis: Predictive Significance of Organisational Justice on Organisational Attractiveness

A multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to understand the relationship between the original justice model and the three components of organisational attractiveness. Normality of distribution was assumed for the previous Pearson's correlation as well as the independent samples t-test, therefore normal distribution will also be assumed for the multiple regression analysis to proceed. Furthermore although the previously discussed Pearson's correlations (see table 6) revealed positive significant relationships between independent variables these relationships were not perfect linear relationships (Field, 2001). The strength of the relationships observed ranged between moderate and strong. This was less so the case for the relationships between the organisational justice facets. This indicates that there is a larger degree of multicolinearity between these variables. Cook'd distance was evaluated for the predictive models of each of the organisational justice facets. Based on recommendation values above 1 were considered problematic.

Tables 12-14 provide summaries of the significance of the predictive models associated with each of the organisational justice facets with each of the organisational attractiveness facets. The results shown in these tables indicate that each organisational justice facet provides a significant prediction model for organisational attractiveness. The R^2 and Adjusted R^2 values provide an indication regarding the bias effect outliers may have on the prediction model. The adjusted R^2 value is simply an R^2 value however it excludes any outlying cases that may affect the model. As seen in tables 9-11 the adjusted R^2 is not much different from the R^2. Therefore it can be assumed that the outliers that may exist do not bias the prediction model (Field, 2001).

Understanding the extent of the relationship R^2 provides more information regarding how much variance is explained by the models. Distributive justice r^2= 0.14 (14%) for general organisational attractiveness, r^2= 0.14 (14%) for commitment, and r^2= 0.13 (13%) for prestige predicts a small percentage of variance in organisational attractiveness. More than 80 percent of variance was unaccounted for in this model. This was similar for the other organisational justice facets where procedural justice accounted r^2= 0.11 (11%) variance in general organisational attractiveness, r^2= 0.09 (9.7%) variance in commitment, and r^2= 0.09 (8.8%) variance in prestige. Once again more that 80 percent of variance is unaccounted for

in this model. Interactional organisational justice r^2= 0.13 (13%) for general organisational attractiveness, r^2= 0.15 (15%) for commitment, and r^2= 0.13 (13%) for prestige, indicating that although the prediction model was significant the variance accounted for by the prediction model is weak.

Table 12:

Model Summary for the Predictive significance of Organisational Justice for General Organisational Attractiveness

General Attractiveness

Variable	Source	DF	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F Value	Pr > F
Distributive Justice	**Model**	1	0.14	0.13	53.17	<.0001
	Error	340				
Procedural Justice	**Model**	1	0.11	0.11	42.02	<.0001
	Error	340				
Interactional Justice	**Model**	1	0.13	0.13	49.93	<.0001
	Error	340				

Table 13:

Model Summary for the Predictive significance of Organisational Justice for Commitment

Commitment

Variable	Source	DF	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F Value	Pr > F
Distributive Justice	**Model**	1	0.14	0.14	55	<.0001
	Error	340				
Procedural Justice	**Model**	1	0.09	0.09	36.65	<.0001
	Error	340				
Interactional Justice	**Model**	1	0.15	0.15	59.6	<.0001
	Error	340				

Table 15 provides a summary of the model parameters and their significance. Again the statistics in this table indicate that the organisational justice facets provide significant contributions to the prediction model. In further detail it can be seen that distributive justice (t=7.29, p<0.0001) contributes significantly to the prediction model for general organisational attractiveness, furthermore with every one unit increase of distributive justice β_1=0.37 further variance in organisational attractiveness can be predicted.

Table 14:

Model Summary for the Predictive significance of Organisational Justice for Prestige

		Prestige				
Variable	**Source**	**DF**	**R^2**	**Adjusted R^2**	**F Value**	**Pr > F**
Distributive Justice	**Model**	1	0.13	0.12	49.32	<.0001
	Error	340				
Procedural Justice	**Model**	1	0.09	0.09	36.65	<.0001
	Error	340				
Interactional Justice	**Model**	1	0.13	0.13	49.73	<.0001
	Error	340				

This trend was consistent throughout the prediction models suing each organisational justice facets, where procedural organisational justice (t=6.48, p<0.0001), and interactional organisational justice (t=7.07, p<0.0001) both contribute significantly in the prediction model for organisational attractiveness. Table 15 summarises the parameter statistics for all dependent variables and the trend seen for general organisational attractiveness is also consistent for the dependent variables commitment and prestige.

Table 15:

Prediction Parameter Statistics of Organisational Justice for General Organisational Attractiveness

		General Attractiveness			
	DF	**Parameter Estimate**	**t Value**	**Pr > |t|**	**Standardized Estimate**
Distributive Justice	1	0.48	7.29	<.0001	0.37
Procedural Justice	1	0.37	6.48	<.0001	0.33
Interactional Justice	1	0.41	7.07	<.0001	0.36

		Commitment			
	DF	**Parameter Estimate**	**t Value**	**Pr > |t|**	**Standardized Estimate**
Distributive Justice	1	0.58	7.42	<.0001	0.37
Procedural Justice	1	0.42	6.05	<.0001	0.31
Interactional Justice	1	0.53	7.72	<.0001	0.39

	Prestige				
	DF	**Parameter Estimate**	**t Value**	**Pr > |t|**	**Standardized Estimate**
Distributive Justice	1	0.58	7.02	<.0001	0.36
Procedural Justice	1	0.42	5.72	<.0001	0.29
Interactional Justice	1	0.51	7.05	<.0001	0.36

4.5.2. Multiple Regression Analysis: Predictive Significance of Restorative Organisational Justice on Organisational Attractiveness

A multiple regression analysis was once again conducted on order to gain a better understanding of the predictive power of restorative organisational justice on organisational attractiveness. As with the previous regression analysis normality of distribution is assumed as per the central limit theorem. Furthermore the face value distribution analysis for each variable also showed a bell shaped curve which is characteristic of a normal distribution. Multicollinearity is a cause for concern as the variables as divided for gender and race were highly correlated. The Frequency distribution analysis (see Appendix H) indicates that there may have been evidence of response sets. Furthermore the frequency analysis indicates that the responses for the categories gender and race had the same tendencies. This is an indication that restorative organisational justice perceptions were not differentiated between race and gender. That is perceptions regarding restorative organisational justice were not gender or race dependent.

R^2 and adjusted R^2 were once again referred to in order to determine whether the outliers in the dependent variable resulted in bias in the prediction model. For restorative distributive justice in the prediction model for general organisational attractiveness R^2= 0.07 (7.4%) and adjusted R^2=0.07 (7.0%). This indicates that outliers did not result in bias of the prediction model using restorative distributive justice. For restorative procedural justice R^2= 0.11 (11%), and adjusted R^2= 0.10 (11%). Once again the difference in R^2 and adjusted R^2 were minimal therefore it can be assumed that outliers did not result in a biased prediction model. Tables 16 through to 18 provide a summary of these statistics. Furthermore the R^2 values also indicate that the prediction model of both restorative procedural and distributive justice accounts for less than 80 percent of the variance in general organisational attractiveness. Even though the

prediction models were shown to be significant the variance accounted for was minimal. This trend continued for the prediction models predicting commitment as well as prestige.

Table 16:

Model Summary for the Predictive significance of Restorative Distributive Justice for General Organisational Attractiveness

General Attractiveness

Variable	Source	DF	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F Value	Pr > F
Restorative Distributive Justice	**Model**	2	0.07	0.07	13.48	<.0001
	Error	339				
Restorative Procedural Justice	**Model**	2	0.11	0.11	21.45	<.0001
	Error	339				

Table 17:

Model Summary for the Predictive significance of Restorative Distributive Justice for Commitment

Commitment

Variable	Source	DF	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F Value	Pr > F
Restorative Distributive Justice	**Model**	2	0.07	0.07	12.95	<.0001
	Error	339				
Restorative Procedural Justice	**Model**	2	0.13	0.13	25.28	<.0001
	Error	339				

Table 18:

Model Summary for the Predictive significance of Restorative Distributive Justice for Prestige

Prestige

Variable	Source	DF	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F Value	Pr > F
Restorative Distributive Justice	**Model**	2	0.07	0.07	13.42	<.0001
	Error	339				
Restorative Procedural Justice	**Model**	2	0.10	0.13	19.18	<.0001
	Error	339				

Table 16 below provides a summary of the parameter statistics of each predictor variable for the prediction of organisational attractiveness and its facets. The contribution significance added by each predictor variable to the prediction model of general organisational

attractiveness varies. For example restorative distributive justice for gender (t= 2.080, p=0.038) is marginally significant at α=0.05, whereas for race (t=0.660, p=0.510) restorative distributive justice does not contribute significantly to the prediction of general organisational attractiveness. Restorative procedural justice shows the opposite where gender (t=0.760, p=0.445) does not contribute significantly whereas race (t=3.160, p=0.002) does contribute significantly at α=0.01. For the prediction of commitment restorative distributive justice (gender) (t=2.150, p=0.038) and restorative procedural justice (gender) (t=2.420, p=0.016) proved to be marginally significant at α=0.05. The prediction models for prestige indicated that only restorative procedural justice (race) (t=2.410, p=0.016) contributed significantly as a predictor at α=0.05.

Table 19:

Parameter Statistics of Restorative Organisational Justice for Organisational Attractiveness

General Attractiveness

Variable	DF	Parameter Estimate	t Value	Pr > |t|	Standardized Estimate
Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)	1	0.22	2.08	0.04	0.21
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	1	0.07	0.66	0.51	0.07
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	1	0.08	0.76	0.45	0.07
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	1	0.31	3.16	0.002	0.28

Commitment

	DF	Parameter Estimate	t Value	Pr > |t|	Standardized Estimate
Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)	1	0.28	2.15	0.03	0.22
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	1	0.07	0.52	0.60	0.05
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	1	0.30	2.42	0.02	0.21
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	1	0.22	1.92	0.06	0.16

Prestige

	DF	Parameter Estimate	t Value	Pr > |t|	Standardized Estimate
Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)	1	0.21	1.55	0.12	0.16
Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)	1	0.16	1.22	0.23	0.12
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)	1	0.18	1.35	0.18	0.12
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)	1	0.29	2.41	0.02	0.21

4.6. Fisher Transformation Analysis

The Fisher transformation was performed in order to explore the significant differences in associations between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness, and organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. The Pearson's correlation coefficients presented earlier in section 11 were used in the Fisher transformation analysis. Table 19 and 20 below provides a summary of the confidence intervals found by the Fisher *z* transformation.

Table 20:

A summary of the Fisher z Transformation Confidence Limit Statistics for the Differences in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice and Organisational Attractiveness and Distributive Organisational Justice and Organisational Attractiveness

Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)/Distributive Organisational Justice

	Upper Difference	Lower Difference
Association with General Organisational Attractiveness	0.002	-0.20
Association with Commitment	-0.01	-0.21
Association with Prestige	0.01	-0.19

Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)/Distributive Organisational Justice

Association with General Organisational Attractiveness	-0.01	-0.23
Association with Commitment	- 0.02	-0.24
Association with Prestige	0.01	-0.21

Table 21:

A summary of the Fisher z Transformation Confidence Limit Statistics for the Differences in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice and Organisational Attractiveness and Procedural Organisational Justice and Organisational Attractiveness

	Upper Difference	Lower Difference
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender)/ Procedural Organisational Justice		
Association with General Organisational Attractiveness	0.06	-0.13
Association with Commitment	0.13	-0.06
Association with Prestige	0.09	-0.09
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)/ Procedural Organisational Justice		
Association with General Organisational Attractiveness	0.10	-0.10
Association with Commitment	0.13	-0.08
Association with Prestige	0.12	-0.09

The analysis indicated that when concerning restorative distributive justice and distributive organisational justice and their association with organisational attractiveness, distributive organisational justice had stronger associations with organisational attractiveness. In the differences between the association of restorative organisational justice for gender and general organisational attractiveness (r = 0.27) and distributive organisational justice and general organisational attractiveness (r = 0.37) the confidence intervals -0.2< $p1 - p2$ <0.0019 indicated that distributive organisational justice had a stronger association with general organisational attractiveness. For the association with commitment restorative distributive justice for gender (r = 0.27), and distributive organisational justice (r = 0.37) the confidence intervals indicated that there were no significant differences in association where -0.21< $p1 - p2$ < -0.01. For the association between restorative distributive justice for gender and prestige (r = 0.26), and distributive organisational justice and prestige (r = 0.36) the confidence intervals indicated distributive organisational justice as having a stronger association with prestige -0.19< $p1 - p2$ < 0.01.

Similar results were found for the association between restorative distributive justice for race and organisational attractiveness. For the association between restorative distributive justice for race and general organisational attractiveness (r = 0.25), and distributive justice and general organisational attractiveness (r = 0.37) the confidence intervals indicated that no significant differences between associations were found where -0.23< $p1 - p2$ < -0.01. The association differences between restorative distributive justice for race and commitment (r = 0.24), and distributive justice and commitment (r = 0.37) also showed no significant differences as per the confidence intervals where -0.24< $p1 - p2$ < -0.02. For the association between restorative distributive justice for race and prestige (r = 0.26), and the association between distributive justice and prestige (r = 0.36) the confidence intervals did find a significant difference in associations where -0.21< $p1 - p2$ < 0.01 with distributive justice and prestige showing a stronger association.

The association differences between restorative procedural justice and organisational attractiveness and procedural organisational justice and organisational attractiveness showed a different pattern. For the association between restorative procedural justice for gender and general organisational commitment (r = 0.29), and procedural organisational justice and general organisational attractiveness (r = 0.33) procedural organisationaljustice was found to have a stronger association with general organisational attractiveness where -0.13< $p1 - p2$ < 0.06. For the association differences between restorative procedural justice for gender and commitment (r = 0.35), and procedural organisational justice and commitment (r = 0.31), restorative procedural justice for gender was shown to have a stronger association with commitment where -0.06< $p1 - p2$ < 0.13. Finally for the association difference between restorative procedural justice for gender and prestige (r = 0.29), and procedural organisational justice and prestige (r = 0.29) procedural organisational justice was found to have a stronger association with prestige where -0.09< $p1 - p2$ < 0.09.

The association differences between restorative procedural justice for race and organisational attractiveness and procedural organisational justice and organisational attractiveness also showed a different pattern. The association differences between restorative procedural justice for race and general organisational attractiveness (r = 0.33) and procedural organisational justice and general organisation attractiveness (r = 0.33) procedural organisational attractiveness for race was found to have a stronger association with general organisationalattractiveness where -0.10< $p1 - p2$ < 0.10. For the association between

restorative procedural justice for race and commitment (r = 0.34), and procedural organisational justice and commitment (r = 0.31) restorative procedural justice for race was found to have a stronger association with commitment where -0.08< $p1 - p2$ < 0.13. For the association between restorative procedural justice for race and prestige (r = 0.31), and procedural organisational justice and prestige (r = 0.29) restorative procedural justice for race was once again found to have a stronger association with prestige where -0.09< $p1 - p2$ < 0.12.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The following discussion will be based on the results found in the previous chapter and the theory associated with organisational justice, restorative organisational justice, and organisational attractiveness. The discussion will include relevant findings from the initial analysis as well as the results pertaining to the research questions. The results will be discussed and reviewed by means of referring to theory as well as information pertaining to the characteristics of the sample obtained for the purpose of this research.

5.1. Research Question One: What is the Relationship between Perceptions of Organisational Justice and Perceptions of Organisational Attractiveness and its Dimensions?

Justice has been a topic of research for many years as an integral part of societal interactions. However, it soon became obvious that fairness applies to various aspects of societal interactions. Researchers such as Adams (1965) started the journey of understanding how it is that individuals determine the fairness of outcomes. Since then many researchers, such as Cohen (1989) and Leventhal's (1975), continued on this journey and expanded on the theory of justice and fairness. Justice and its dimensions such as the fairness of outcomes, methods used to determine outcomes and interactions during these methods, was beginning to be seen as imperative in many different contexts. The organisational context became one of particular interest to researchers such as Greenberg, (1987) and Colquitt (2001). Organisational justice became a focus for research as researchers began to identify that organisational justice perceptions were strongly related to employee behaviours and attitudes such as citizenship behaviours, job satisfaction, and organisational attractiveness (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Daileyl & Kirk, 1992; Greenberg, 1990; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2007; Smither et al., 1993).

Attitudes towards the organisation as well as performance behaviours all seemed to be related to perceptions of organisational justice. This research attempted to expand on the extent to which organisational justice perceptions may affect employee behaviours and attitudes by exploring the relationship between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. Thomas and Wise (1999) have previously established a relationship between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. Although the study was conducted in America and the organisational attractiveness model was different to that used in the current study, there was evidence that fairness perceptions and organisational attractiveness were related.

For the purpose of understanding the prevailing relationship between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness a Pearson's correlation was performed. The correlation revealed that there was multicolinearity between the organisational justice variables. This indicated that in the multiple regression results with organisational justice variables as predictor variables could not be regarded as having unique contributions towards the prediction of organisational attractiveness (Field, 2001). Nevertheless research studies have consistently found that organisational justice comprises of the distinct facets distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Colquitt 2001; Gilliland, 1993). Therefore based on theory the organisational justice facets were treated as three separate variables for the purpose of this research study.

For further insight into the nature of organisational justice perceptions an independent samples t-test analysis revealed that there were significant differences in justice perceptions between race groups. This indicated that the coloured population had significantly more favourable organisational distributive, procedural, and interactional justice perceptions than the black population. The same pattern was observed for organisational attractiveness and its facets. Therefore perceptions about the organisation were more favourable among the coloured population within this particular organisation. The following discussion will delve into further detail regarding the relationship between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness.

5.1.1. Is There a Relationship between Perceptions of Organisational Justice and Perceptions of General Organisational Attractiveness?

The Pearson's Correlation analysis results revealed that organisational justice was significantly and positively correlated to organisational attractiveness. This indicated that as perceptions of organisational justice increased so did the perceptions of organisational attractiveness. Thus establishing a strong association between organisational justice and general organisational attractiveness was found. This is consistent with previous research which suggested that positive organisational justice perceptions were associated with positive perceptions and behaviours towards organisations (Cropanzano et al., 2005; Smither et al., 1993; Smither & Reilly, 1993).

Investigating the predictive power of organisational justice revealed that distributive, procedural, and interactional organisational justice all provided a significant prediction model

for general organisational attractiveness. Smither et al (1993) found similar relationships between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. However, their focus was on procedural organisational justice in recruitment procedures. Although the organisational attractiveness model used in this study was different to that of Smither et al (1993), the findings were consistent. The findings of this study expand this relationship to be consistent across distributive and interactional justice. Therefore employers need to become more aware of the type of impact recruitment procedures may have on attitudes towards their organisation. These attitudes may also lead to several behaviours, for example general organisational attractiveness taps into the type of environment that employees perceive to be working in. It could be assumed that if employees perceive the organisation a good place to work they may also find it easier to perform and therefore have stronger performance behaviours.

The prediction value of each facet of organisational justice was weak. Based on the results more than 80 percent of variance in general organisational attractiveness could not be explained by distributive, procedural, or interactional justice. This could be explained by the multicolinearity as shown by the correlation matrix. Furthermore it could also be assumed that unaccounted for extraneous variables may have also had an impact on the results of the prediction model. This may have been resolved by combining the justice facets however as per theory and previous research the justice facets were kept as distinct organisational justice components.

5.1.2. Is There a Relationship between Perceptions of Organisational Justice and Perceptions of Commitment?

Once again the Pearson's correlation analysis was indicative of a positive significant relationship between organisational distributive, procedural, and interactional justice and commitment. The characteristics of a positive correlation indicate that as organisational justice perceptions become more favourable so did commitment perceptions. In the context of this research it can be assumed that employees who had favourable perceptions regarding the recruitment process were more likely to display positive attitudes towards their work and uphold the branding of the organisation. This is consistent with previous findings which suggested that experiences have an impact on the way an organisation is perceived, namely whether it is attractive (Turban, 2001). Furthermore Smither et al (1993) found that perceptions of the fairness of recruitment procedures were related not only to organisational

attractiveness but likelihood to recommend the organisation. Recommending the organisation may be related to employee willingness to uphold the brand of the organisation. This in turn fosters favourable attitudes and behaviours proportional to these experiences and perceptions. That is favourable organisational justice perceptions are related to positive attitudes and stronger commitment to the organisation (Turban, 2001).

As predictors the organisational justice facets also provided significant prediction models for commitment. This was expected as previous research has indicated relationships between organisational justice and commitment, attractiveness as well as other positive behaviours and attitudes (Cropanzano et al., 2005; Smither et al 1993). Once again organisations need to invest in understanding how recruitment processes are perceived and the consequential behavioural and attitudinal implications. For example favourable recruitment procedures which are viewed as fair could result in more committed employees who commit to staying with an organisation and performance delivery.

The unique contribution offered by each organisational justice facet in the prediction of commitment was once again weak. This could be explained by either the multicollinearity made evident by the Pearson's correlation matrix or possible unaccounted extraneous variables in the model.

5.1.3. Is There a Relationship between Perceptions of Organisational Justice and Perceptions of Prestige?

As with the previous organisational attractiveness facets organisational distributive, procedural, and interactional justice were all positively correlated with prestige. Again as perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice become more favourable so did perceptions of prestige. This is consistent with previous research investigating the relatedness between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness (Smither et al., 1993).

The predictive quality of organisational justice of prestige is consistent with its predictive capabilities for general attractiveness and commitment. That is distributive, procedural, and interactional justice facets provided significant predictive models for prestige. Therefore it can be assumed that recruitment processes within an organisation which are perceived to be fair can be predictive of favourable perceptions of prestige. That is favourable justice perceptions of recruitment processes can be indicative of pride held by employees about the

organisation they work for. Employees will be more likely to view the organisation as having high standards of employment quality and company image. These attitudes may lead to behaviours which assist the organisation in building a positive brand and image as employees who are proud could be more likely to communicate positively about the organisation.

Issues of the unique predictability offered by organisational justice facets, was once again identified as per the multicollinearity identified by the Pearson's correlation matrix. This may be an explanatory factor for the small amount of variance in prestige which could be accounted for by each organisational justice. Furthermore it could also be assumed that there may have been unaccounted for variables in the prediction models.

5.2. Research Question Two: Is there a Relationship between Restorative Organisational Justice and Organisational Attractiveness?

As per the discussion about organisational justice it was made evident that research in understanding justice and its implications in the organisational context has been highlighted by many researchers (Colguitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1987, Greenberg, 1990, Gilliland, 1993). With the addition of research conducted by Ramsay (2009) the organisational justice model is still undergoing efforts to increase its scope. Ramsay (2009) suggested the addition of restorative organisational justice to the organisational justice model. With the added suggestion that such a construct would be particularly important within the context of South African organisations. Restorative organisational justice focuses on perceptions regarding evidence of social correction initiatives in the way outcomes are distributed and procedures are carried out. Ramsay (2009) suggested this is particularly important as the workforce is becoming increasingly diverse within South African industry. These increases in diversity are also regulated by initiatives such as employment equity which are aimed at social correction within the workplace. The restorative justice facet adds to the organisational justice framework by exploring justice perceptions such as distributive and procedural justice in light of social correction. It is assumed that restorative organisational justice perceptions could be related to similar behavioural and attitudinal variables as organisational justice (Ramsay, 2009). This was investigated in the form of understanding the relationship between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness.

All but general restorative justice perceptions were positively related to organisational attractiveness and its facets. This is consistent with organisational justice research and expected similarities between the two constructs. Furthermore multicollinearity also existed between the restorative justice variables. The variables restorative distributive justice race and gender were highly correlated. The case was the same for restorative procedural justice race and gender. However this could be explained by the frequency (see Appendix H) distribution analysis which indicated that participant had the tendency to respond in the same way for both race and gender categories. That is participants did not differentiate between their gender and race when considering restorative justice perceptions. Multicollinearity was considerably lower between the restorative distributive and restorative procedural justice variables for both gender and race.

A further look into the details of the nature of restorative organisational justice perceptions by analysing the results of the two independent samples t-test indicates that restorative procedural justice perceptions were subject to race differences. That is the t-test analysis revealed that the coloured population within this particular organisation had significantly more favourable restorative procedural organisational justice perceptions. There were no significant differences in restorative organisational justice perceptions found between gender groups. The following discussion provides a more detailed breakdown of the relationship between restorative organisational justice and organisational attractiveness.

5.2.1. Is There a Relationship between Perceptions of Restorative Distributive Justice (for Gender and Race) and Perceptions of General Organisational Attractiveness?

Restorative distributive justice perceptions for both gender and race were significantly and positively related to perceptions of general organisational attractiveness. Therefore it could be assumed that as restorative distributive justice perceptions become more favourable so do perceptions of general attractiveness. This is consistent with the distributive organisational justice findings of the previous question regarding the relationship between organisational justice and general organisational attractiveness.

The multiple regression analysis indicated that restorative distributive justice for race and gender provided a significant prediction model for general organisational attractiveness. Individual contributions to the model however were insignificant. That is individually restorative distributive justice for race or for gender did not add anything unique towards the

prediction or general organisational attractiveness. This is contrary to what was expected and what has been indicated by previous research. Ramsay (2009) found that recruitment practices particularly those that are governed by preferential selection involve the different treatment of different groups. That is beneficiary groups such as females, blacks, coloured etcetera are all treated differently to non-beneficiary groups. Furthermore Thomas and Wise (1999) found that fairness perceptions differed between race groups due to possible differences in needs and expectations. Therefore it was expected that restorative distributive justice perceptions dealing with the fairness of outcomes and their alignment to social correction would serve as a strong indicator of attitudes and behaviours towards the organisation, particularly in South Africa.

To understand this result in further detail a two independent samples t-test was conducted to examine restorative distributive justice perception differences between race and gender. Significant differences between race groups were found. That is the coloured population was more in favour of restorative distributive justice and general organisational attractiveness. Therefore the coloured population had a significantly higher regard for the way recruitment distributions within the organisation reflected social correction initiatives. This would be the type of result expected between the black and white populations. Nonetheless it could be assumed that in this particular organisation the competition for resources does exist between the two prevailing race groups.

Furthermore these differences were also evident for general organisational attractiveness. This could be attributed to the fact that different factors attract different race groups. Research conducted by Thomas and Wise (1999) suggested that there were differences between race groups in the importance placed on recruiter character, and job characteristics when considering organisational attractiveness. However these differences were found between minority and non-minority race groups. The differentiated race groups in this study consisted of coloured and black groups, which both constitute as previously disadvantaged and employment equity beneficiaries. However the assumption could still be made that preferences differ between race groups. That is different race groups may place importance on divergent factors when considering the attractiveness of an organisation. Furthermore justice expectations also differed between different populations (Bell et al., 2006). This could be assumed to mean that race or even gender groups' differences may results in differing justice perceptions and therefore organisational attractiveness perceptions.

No significant differences were evident between gender groups. This is also contradictory to what Ramsay (2009) found. Ramsay indicated that as part of the beneficiary group the female population differed in its perception of restorative distributive justice to the male population. Conversely the two independent samples t-test analysis also revealed that females were significantly more in favour of general restorative justice. The sample statistics revealed fair representation of gender groups, with the female group being larger. Ramsay (2009) suggested that during preferential selection groups are treated differently. These findings suggest that females tend to be more in favour of this differential treatment during preferential selection. General restorative justice is assumed to be a general view of how selection should be conducted. These results indicate that this particular organisations needs to be aware of the sensitive nature of outcome distributions. That is this recruitment decisions need to be carefully evaluated in order to understand the possible impact they may be having on fairness perceptions and therefore the behaviours and attitudes that are fostered due to these perceptions.

5.2.2. Is there a Relationship between Perceptions of Restorative Procedural Justice (for Gender and Race) and Perceptions of General Organisational Attractiveness?

When exploring the relationship between restorative procedural justice (Pertaining to race and gender) and general organisational attractiveness, results indicated that the relationship was characteristic of a positive correlation. That is, as perceptions of restorative procedural justice became more favourable so did perceptions of general organisational attractiveness. This is consistent with the relationship between distributive justice and general organisational attractiveness. Although these correlations were significant they were weak.

The multiple regression analysis revealed that restorative procedural justice provided a significant prediction model for general organisational attractiveness. However only restorative procedural justice for race proved to be a significant contributor to the variance explained in general organisational attractiveness. This is contradictory to the results Ramsay (2009) found in her study. Ramsay (2009) found that it is imperative that justice perceptions be specific to different groups as these groups are treated differently within society as well as within the organisation. These differences are due to societal norms, government regulation, and values. This suggests that due to these differences race and gender groups would have different perceptions as their experiences are assumed to be different. However the results for restorative procedural justice perceptions for race as a predictor were evidently the only

perceptions that could be relied upon to result in a significant amount of predicted variance in general organisational attractiveness perceptions.

A further look at the two independent samples t-test analysis indicated that restorative procedural justice perceptions for race differed between race groups. That is the coloured population within this organisation had more favourable perceptions of restorative procedural justice. This could be assumed to mean that the coloured population perceived the recruitment practices at this organisation to be reflective of social correction initiatives than did the black population. This although not entirely consistent with previous research indicates that the differences in the way groups are treated are evident in justice perceptions (Ramsay, 2009). Furthermore these perceptions are predictive of certain behaviours and attitudes towards the organisation.

These differences were not evident between gender groups. This was contradictory to Ramsay's (2009) findings. As part of the employment equity beneficiary group females were expected to differ in their perceptions of restorative procedural justice from men. This is because competition for resources between gender groups within the workplace is still prevalent (Lewis & Simpson, 2012). Based on this it could be assumed that gender groups still differ in their experience within the workplace and therefore perceive that further social correction is necessary when considering the differences in workplace experiences between males and females.

5.2.3. Is there a Relationship between Perceptions of Restorative Distributive Justice (for Gender and Race) and Perceptions of Commitment?

The relationship between restorative distributive justice (pertaining to race and gender) and commitment was much the same as that between restorative distributive justice and general organisational attractiveness. That is the relationship was such that as perceptions of restorative distributive justice became more favourable so did perceptions of commitment. This is consistent with what was expected as per previous findings where favourable perceptions of restorative distributive justice were related to positive organisational behaviours (Ramsay, 2009).

Restorative distributive justice also provided a significant prediction model for commitment. This is consistent with the findings for general organisational attractiveness. However restorative distributive justice for both race and gender failed to provide a significant and

unique contribution towards the prediction of commitment. This is consistent with the relationship and predictive power of restorative distributive justice and general organisational attractiveness. Therefore it can be assumed that although restorative distributive justice provides a significant prediction model restorative distributive justice for race and for gender does not explain a significant amount of variance in commitment. This is also contradictory to what Ramsay (2009) found and what was expected based on theory. The similarity in results between distributive organisational justice and restorative distributive justice was absent. Furthermore Ramsay (2009) found that restorative distributive justice perceptions for previously disadvantaged groups were related to positive behaviours and attitudes towards the organisation. According to the results of this study although restorative distributive justice is related to commitment it does not alone predict commitment.

Previously discussed two independent samples t-test results indicated that restorative distributive justice perceptions only differed between race groups. This is contradictory to Ramsay's (2009) findings as well as expectations. However it seems that gender groups do not differ in their perceptions of social correction initiatives in the outcome distributions within this particular organisation. This could be explained by the fact that the male population in this sample falls in the previously disadvantaged and advantaged category. Therefore it could be assumed that competition for resources in not as prevalent, adding to this may be the fact that the female population in this sample is larger than the male. However the fact that significant differences were found between race groups would be unexpected based on the afore mentioned assumption, due to the fact that both race groups were previously disadvantaged. This it could therefore be assumed that the competition for resources between the coloured and black population in this particular organisation is strongly prevalent.

5.2.4. Is there a Relationship between Perceptions of Restorative Procedural Justice (for Gender and Race) and Perceptions of General Commitment?

The initial relationship analysis revealed that restorative procedural justice for gender and race was positively but moderately correlated to commitment. This is consistent with the findings for restorative distributive justice and commitment. Therefore as perceptions of restorative procedural justice became more favourable so did perceptions of commitment. This is consistent with expectations as well as previous findings (Ramsay, 2009).

The multiple regression analysis revealed that restorative procedural justice provided a significant prediction model for commitment. However restorative procedural justice did not explain a significant amount of variance in commitment for the race group. Restorative procedural justice for gender did however explain a significant amount of variance in commitment. This is an indication that gender groups differed significantly in their experience of the recruitment process and how it reflected social correction initiatives. This is consistent with previous research which has indicated that groups are treated differently and these differences are evident in experience and resulting attitudes towards the organisation (Ramsay, 2009). In this particular case it could be assumed that differences in restorative procedural justice perceptions pertaining to gender can be relied upon to explain a significant amount of variance in commitment and therefor performance behaviours towards this particular organisation.

The two independent samples t-test analysis also revealed that the two race groups differed significantly in their perceptions of restorative procedural justice for both gender and race. The two race groups also differed significantly in their perceptions of commitment. This could lead to the expectation that restorative procedural justice for race would contribute to the prediction of commitment. However the multicollinearity as indicated by correlation analysis showed that restorative procedural justice for race and restorative procedural justice for gender were very strongly correlated. Furthermore the frequency analysis indicated that participants did not differentiate between gender and race in their restorative procedural justice perceptions. Therefore it is understandable why restorative procedural justice perceptions for race could not add any unique explanation in the variance of commitment over and above to what restorative procedural perceptions for gender could.

5.2.5. Is there a Relationship between Perceptions of Restorative Distributive Justice (for Gender and Race) and Perceptions of General Prestige?

Restorative distributive justice was positively correlated to perceptions of prestige just as it was correlated to the other organisational attractiveness variables. Therefore favourable restorative distributive justice perceptions can be expected to be associated with positive perceptions of prestige. As such favourable perceptions of restorative distributive justice could be expected to associate with other behavioural and attitudinal outcomes associated with positive perceptions of prestige. This is consistent with research expectations as well as previous findings.

The multiple regression analysis indicated that restorative distributive justice provided a significant prediction model for prestige. However neither restorative distributive justice for race nor restorative distributive justice for gender provided a significant contribution to the prediction of prestige. That is the variance accounted for by restorative distributive justice race and gender could not predict a significant amount of variance in prestige. Therefore it could be assumed that the outcome decisions made and their indication of social correction were not significantly predictive of the attitudes and behaviours of employees. This is contrary to what was expected by the researchers particularly within the context of South Africa and the strong preferential selection laws that govern recruitment practices. Furthermore these findings were contrary to what has been implied by previous research conducted by Ramsay (2009).

Looking at differences between race groups the independent samples t-test indicated that there were no significant differences in restorative distributive justice for gender or race. This once again could be due to the fact that participants did not differentiate between race and gender, as indicated by the frequency distribution analysis, when answering restorative justice questions. Therefore the responses for gender and race were one and the same. This could also explain why each variables contribution to the predictive model was insignificant. The prediction model looks at the unique predictive capabilities of each variable. To may be assumed that the lack of differentiation between race and gender led to each variable explaining the same variances. This is furthermore confirmed by the strong multicollinearity as indicated by the correlation matrix between restorative distributive justice for race and restorative distributive justice for gender.

5.2.6. Is there a Relationship between Perceptions of Restorative Procedural Justice (for Gender and Race) and Perceptions of General Prestige?

The initial analysis of the relationship between restorative procedural justice and prestige indicated that the relationship is characterised by a positive correlation. That is as perceptions of restorative procedural justice became more favourable so did perceptions of prestige. That is favourable restorative justice perceptions regarding procedures within the organisation would be related to positive outcomes such as pride in the organisation and the promotion of the organisational brand.

A further analysis revealed that restorative procedural justice provided a significant prediction model for prestige. However only restorative procedural justice for race provided a significant contribution to the variance predicted in prestige. That is restorative procedural justice perceptions pertaining to race were able to predict a significant amount of variance in prestige, however the variance prediction was weak and more than 80 percent of variance in prestige could not be accounted for in the model. This could be due to unaccounted for variables in the prediction model. Furthermore it could be due to the fact that there was a high level of multicollinearity between restorative procedural justice for race and restorative procedural justice for gender. However restorative procedural justice once again showed to be a more significant predictor of organisational attractiveness. Williams and Bauer (1994) suggested that employees go through a process of assessing expectations regarding how they presume to be treated. This would include the processes they would be subject to. It may be possible to assume that these expectations are prevalent when considering gender groups. This may of course be a trend unique to that of this particular call centre where strong preferential selection is evident however underlying gender issues in the work place are still overlooked (Lewis & Simpson, 2012).

The two independent samples t-test indicated that restorative procedural justice perceptions differed significantly between race groups. The same was found for perceptions of prestige, indicating that differentiation between race groups was stronger than differentiation between gender groups. This was unexpected as differentiation between employment equity beneficiary and non-beneficiary groups was expected to be stronger. However as per the sample characteristics both males and females were part of the employment equity beneficiary groups due to their race. This could explain why there were no differences in perceptions between males and females. However this explanation cannot be applied to differences in perceptions between race groups as both race groups were employment equity beneficiary groups. Therefore a further explanation could be that the gender groups did not have perceived differences in experience or treatment. Whereas experiences and treatment between race groups were perceived as different.

5.2.7. The Relationship between General Organisational Justice and Organisational Attractiveness

Based on the results of the Pearson's correlation there was no significant relationship between general restorative justice perceptions and perceptions of organisational

attractiveness. That is the relationship between general restorative justice and organisational attractiveness was not significant. Therefore perceptions regarding differential treatment, during recruitment were not in any way related to the way the organisation was viewed or the behaviours and attitudes that organisational attractiveness views would be associated with. This was contrary to what was expected by the researchers based of the indications of previous research. However looking at the questions exploring general restorative justice the focus was on a general perception of what recruitment should mirror, whereas restorative organisational justice questions focused on actual experiences of the recruitment process. This may have strengthened justice perceptions as they were tied to real experiences (Greenberg, 1990).

Therefore for this particular sample differential treatment was not perceived differently between race groups. This could be attributed to the fact that the sample comprised of mainly the coloured and black race groups. It may be possible that coloured and black populations as part of the previously disadvantaged race group category did not view preferential treatment differently from one another. The injustices between race groups (white and black populations) have been prevalent with subsequent outcomes such as Apartheid in South Africa. Resolution has been initialised with social correction initiatives taking over societal and organisational conduct. That is the implementation of laws against racial discrimination as well as employment equity became legal symbols of social correction discernible to all those affected (Samuel, 2013). The perception could be that although competition for resources is not over there are measures in place to correct the wrongs done in the past within the working environment.

It is interesting that restorative distributive justice did not contribute significantly towards the prediction of general organisational attractiveness. It may be possible that the answer to this unusual result lies in the characteristics of the sample. The sample obtained was one of existing employees. Therefore perceptions regarding the fairness of outcome decisions may have been more likely to be positive as each employee was already securely employed. Furthermore there were fair representations of both coloured and black populations as well as males and females, with females having a larger representation portion. It could therefore be assumed that social correction in terms of preferential selection as stipulated by employment equity had been particularly successful in this organisation. Therefore employees in general did not place emphasis on employment equity and social correction within the organisation.

The focus was rather on general procedures, and distributions within the workplace. Although the prominence of preferential selection was unknown at the time of recruitment it may be possible that restorative justice perceptions at the time of participation were influenced by the existing conditions in the workplace.

A further look at the results, particularly the organisational attractiveness descriptive statistics revealed that for this particular sample the scores for each organisational attractiveness facets were weak to moderate. This indicated that on average the contact centre environment was perceived to be relatively fair, whereas the organisation as a whole was perceived to be moderately attractive. This could account for the small amount of variance explained by restorative justice in organisational attractiveness. This does indicate that there may have been extraneous variables that were not accounted for in the prediction models.

The results for the restorative organisational justice prediction models could further be characterised by the characteristics of a contact centre environment. According to Martí-audí, Valverde and Heraty (2013) the contact centre environment is characterised by harsh working conditions where workload is intense, controlled and the environment is inundated with high staff turnover. Positions within a contact centre environment are often filled by employees who are first time employees with the intention to either build up working experience of use the contact centre as the entry point to the rest of the organisation. The contact centre environment obtained for the purpose of this study was faced with much the same working conditions. The working environment was noisy, proximity between employees was minimal, and the employees were governed by workforce management systems. It can therefore be said that a call centre environment is not an easy one to work in. Employees in these types of environment tend to leave if they feel that their needs are not being met, i.e. if they perceive to be treated badly or do not prosper in their careers (Martí-audí et al., 2013). However the results found in this study indicate that more favourable restorative procedural justice perceptions may lead to better organisational attractiveness perceptions. A portion of this is commitment which could possibly result in higher intentions to stay.

The conditions of the call centre working environment could have impacted on organisational attractiveness perceptions. Furthermore it could also be assumed that the working population did not focus much on organisational attractiveness due to the scarcity of work in the current economic environment in South Africa (StatsSA, 2013). Although on a slow decline the unemployment statistics indicate that unemployment was at 25.5% in the third quarter of

2012, and in the world economic disorder and uncertainty employment is not easily found (StatsSA, 2013). It may be possible to assume that employer choices were not based on whether the organisation was attractive but rather on the fact that jobs were available and candidates needed to cease the opportunity.

5.3. Is There a Difference in the Relationship between Restorative Organisational Justice and Organisational Attractiveness, and Organisational Justice and Organisational Attractiveness?

In order to answer this question a Fisher transformation analysis was conducted. This analysis involves the exploration of the differences between correlation statistics. It, therefore, allowed the researcher to compare the differences in the strength of the associations between restorative organisation justice and organisational attractiveness and the association between organisational justice and organisational attractiveness. The results were informed by the confidence limits provided by the Fisher analysis (Howell, 2002).

According to the results organisational justice in general was found to have a stronger association with organisational attractiveness. Specifically organisational distributive justice was found to have a stronger association with organisational attractiveness than restorative distributive justice for both gender and race. However the association differences between restorative procedural justice and organisational attractiveness and organisational procedural justice and organisational attractiveness showed different patterns. Specifically, procedural organisational justice was shown to have a stronger association with organisational attractiveness when compared to the association between perceptions of restorative procedural justice for gender. The only exception to this was the difference in the association between restorative procedural justice for gender and commitment and the association between procedural organisational justice and commitment, where restorative procedural justice for gender was shown to have a stronger association with commitment. Restorative procedural justice for race overall showed to have a stronger association with organisational attractiveness than procedural organisational justice. This indicated that restorative procedural justice perceptions pertaining to race had a stronger association with organisational attractiveness than perceptions of procedural organisational justice.

The fact that restorative procedural justice perceptions were found to have stronger associations with organisational attractiveness could be supported by Tougas et al's (1991) findings. Their findings suggested that the fairness of procedures in terms of how well they showed move towards social correction was evaluated. Therefore it could be assumed that the same was done with the current participants, recruitment practices were the first indication of the organisations ability to serve social correction, and these perceptions were then strongly related to perceptions of organisational attractiveness.

These results indicated that overall restorative organisational justice cannot be said to have a stronger association with organisational attractiveness than organisational justice, nevertheless restorative procedural justice perceptions pertaining to race can be said to have a stronger association with organisational attractiveness than procedural organisational justice. This serves as an indication that when considering race differences the way an organisation conducts itself and the evidence of social correction displayed associates more strongly with organisational attractiveness, as opposed to general procedural justice perceptions. This is expected and consistent to what has been found previously by Ramsay (2009). That is, employment equity policies impact strongly on recruitment practices and pertain first and foremost to race groups. It is therefore expected that perceptions, specifically between race groups, regarding the fairness of recruitment procedures and social correction initiatives shown in these procedures would have stronger associations to organisational attractiveness. Furthermore research conducted by Smither et al (1993) indicated that procedural organisational justice perception differences between race groups were significant. These differences could have been due to perceptions regarding how organisations contribute to social correction. It should be noted, however, that the sample used in Smither et al's (1993) study was based on an American population.

The overall findings were not as expected. Ramsay's (2009) findings concerning restorative justice as being a valuable addition to the organisational justice model were not consistent with the results in this study which indicated that variance accounted for by restorative organisational justice was mostly insignificant. However, restorative procedural justice defied this pattern as it was the only restorative organisational justice facet that consistently proved to have stronger associations with organisational attractiveness. The above Fisher transformation results support these results. Furthermore, research conducted by Derous, Born, and Witte (2004), indicated that justice perceptions are one part of the sum of ideas

employees may have had about recruitment processes. During recruitment processes candidates also want to feel comforted by the process and the outcomes they will result in. For example Smither et al (1993) found that candidates who underwent procedures that were perceived as more job related had higher justice perceptions and reported a higher likelihood of recommending the employer to others. However significant correlations were only found between organisational attractiveness and procedural organisational justice. This is similar to what was found in the results of this study. Smither et al (1993) research was conducted with first line managers, this sample differs from that of a contact centre which has been described to be made up of entry level employees with little experience and often low education levels (Martí-audí et al., 2013). Their research also included other variables such as perceived job relatedness of assessments and testing, perceived predictive validity of the tests, perceived knowledge of results and recommendation can impact upon findings. Recommendation was part on the study as a separate facet to the organisational attractiveness scale. The attractiveness scales used in the research studies were derived at different times and therefore did not have the same structure. It could be assumed that Smither et al (1993) study included a larger variety of extraneous variables which could be explored in future studies when exploring restorative organisational justice perceptions.

It is suggested that the unique labour market in South Africa characterised by Apartheid and subsequent social correction initiatives, may have differing concerns when evaluating recruitment processes (Ramsay, 2009). The South African candidate may focus on the differences in observable processes in order to determine fairness and comparisons with other employees of different groups. This is supported by the Fisher transformation results which indicated that restorative procedural justice pertaining to race had stronger associations to organisational attractiveness than procedural organisational justice. Ramsay (2009) highlighted the importance or relevance of restorative organisational justice particularly within the South African labour market and recruitment procedures. However this was not fully reflected in the results of this research study, as restorative distributive justice perceptions did not seem to have stronger associations with organisational attractiveness than distributive organisational justice. Restorative procedural justice although a significant predictor of organisational attractiveness could not account for more than 80 percent of variance explained. These results could have been unique to the particular sample and organisation used in this research study.

Based on the research results of this study organisational justice perceptions, once again proves to be consistently associated with employee behaviours and attitudes. Specifically, attitudes towards the organisation in the form of organisational attractiveness and the behaviours associated with these attitudes are consistently and strongly associated to perceptions of distributive organisational justice, procedural organisational justice and interactional organisational justice. Contrary to the expectations of the research and previous findings and suggestions restorative organisational justice was less consistent in its significance and strength of association to organisational attractiveness. This was surprising as it was assumed that within the context of a South African organisation where employment equity policies are prevalent employees would have differing perceptions regarding the fairness of recruitment processes. On the other hand an indication of the significance of restorative organisational justice perceptions was shown through restorative procedural justice. Restorative procedural justice showed to have stronger associations with organisational attractiveness than procedural organisational justice, furthermore restorative procedural justice for race was also more consistently a significant predictor of organisational attractiveness. Therefore it may be necessary to continue research on contribution restorative organisational justice may make towards the organisational justice framework, particularly in the South African Context. Future research may benefit from looking at some limitations improving upon the study.

CHAPTER SIX: LIMITATIONS

The above discussion on the research results described unexpected findings. Some of these may have been due to limitations. Some of these limitations as relating to the sample characteristics and source as well as response patterns will be highlighted and discussed.

As with any research study generalisability of findings is hoped for, however often the sample obtained for the purpose of research often limits generalisability as was the case in this study (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005). First and foremost the sample was obtained from only one organisation, from one department within the organisation and of course from only one sector of industry. This limits generalisability to possibly the same department, namely the call centre department, within the same industry namely the financial industry. This is not a guarantee it may be possible that the same results would not be found with a similar sample or a different sample. Furthermore the study is limited as the nature of the research was not experimental. That is none of the variables in the research study were manipulated in any way therefore causality could not be established. Therefore whatever findings were established it could not be assumed that one variable caused the other.

Although the sample size was large and increased the likelihood of significant findings it did not adequately represent all groups intended. Of the 5 race categories explored in the study only two of these, namely coloured and black, were adequately represented. Therefore the other population groups were excluded in the t-test analysis investigating differences in organisational justice and attractiveness perception scores. This was consequential as the research included restorative organisational justice which focused on perceptions of social correction initiatives which apply to previously disadvantaged groups. As the South African working population is now made up of a diverse combination of employees some of who are beneficiaries of social correction initiatives such as employment equity and others who do not it would have been beneficial to understand organisational justice and attractiveness perception differences between these groups. With the exclusion of white participants, as there were only a few participants representing this population, research results could not explore any possible differences. Furthermore the Indian and Asian populations were also excluded, resulting in similar limitations. Although the Indian population is also considered previously disadvantaged, differences may have been found were the populations adequately represented.

Further representation limitations were in the form of employment level. Supervisory, managerial, senior management and executive management positions were not represented in the sample. The perceptions explored in this research study were the perceptions of employees only at a contact centre agent level. Often in testing and assessment employees at differing levels differences in methods employed are found, therefore perceptions there may have been further differences in perceptions. Furthermore employment equity has also expanded to increase social correction in recruitment practices through the regulation of group representation at all levels within an organisation. This was because statistics revealed that higher level positions were still dominated by white male employees. Exploring perceptions within different employment levels may also have provided further insight into the findings.

The contact centre department is very different and from any other department within an organisation. According to Martí-audí et al (2013) the contact centre environment could be viewed as a modern day Taylorist model. Martí-audí et al (2013) generalised these findings to all contact centre environments, however their results were obtained in a contact centre located in Spain. Nonetheless the conditions observed in the contact centre obtained for the purpose of this research study were similar. Therefore it is believed that the conditions ubiquitous in a contact centre environment are unique to any other department and therefore findings within these environments would also be unique as compared to perceptions of other departments.

An analysis of response patterns as indicated by a frequency distribution analysis (see Appendix H) also revealed possible biases which could have impacted upon the results. The frequency distribution analysis showed evidence of a response set for each question as well as gender and race categories for restorative organisational justice. Participants had the tendency to select the same responses for each question. Furthermore participants did not differentiate responses between gender and race group categories. This could be a consequence of the fact that questions were not reverse worded. Therefore responses ranging from 3 and up resulted in higher scores for each variable Duncan & Howitt (2004). A Further limitation related to the fact that the reliability analysis indicated low reliability for the four item general restorative justice questionnaire. The analysis also indicated that the scale would not improve if any of the items were excluded. Theory regarding restorative justice perceptions within the organisational context should be explored in order to identify further development of this

questionnaire. The fact that participants did not differentiate between the gender and race categories may have led to the lack of significant differences found between race and gender groups. A Further limitation related to the

CHAPTER SEVEN: RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter will outline the implications of the research findings for both theory and practice. Furthermore recommendations for future research will also be discussed.

7.1. Implications of Findings for Practice and Theory

It has long been established that organisational justice perceptions have an impact on the way employees perceive the organisation and how they behave towards the organisation (Greenberg, 1990; Colquitt, 2001). However in South Africa fairness may mean different things for different groups of employees. It has been established that employees evaluate the fairness of procedures, interactions during procedures and the outcomes based on these procedures, and interactions during recruitment. However in South Africa there are policies such as employment equity that govern recruitment practices. More so recruitment decisions are largely influenced by these policies. Organisations in South Africa are bound by these policies, and are responsible for ensuring that they comply. The make-up of these policies stipulates that previously disadvantaged groups should be considered first over and above previously advantaged groups. Accordingly recruitment practices are often designed such that previously disadvantaged groups are advantaged. Furthermore previously advantaged groups are becoming less optimistic about employment opportunities. Therefore it could be that previously advantaged and disadvantaged groups would have different perceptions regarding recruitment practices governed by employment equity policies. This is consistent to what Ramsay (2009) found.

Nonetheless fairness perceptions are related to various attitudes and behaviours, which organisations need to be aware of. The research findings indicated that organisational justice perceptions were better predictors of organisational attractiveness. Therefore that initial impression made by the organisation on employees through recruitment is related to and predictive of how employees will perceive the attractiveness of the organisation. This perception is also related to behaviours associated with performance, upholding company branding and having pride in the organisation and their work. Favourable fairness perceptions may result in employees believing that they work for an organisation who looks after the best interest of employees and reciprocal attitudes and behaviours are a result. Employees who believe that outcome decisions are not fair may reciprocate with more negative attitudes and behaviours. In South Africa, employment equity procedures although aimed at social

correction may be subject to differing fairness perceptions between groups. Organisations need to understand how social correction as displayed through outcomes and procedures may result in differing perceptions and therefore different attitudes and behaviours. More often than not recruitment practices are standardised, therefore different groups will go through the same recruitment process at a given organisation. These may seem more fair or unfair to different groups of employees and organisations need to understand how this affects the attitudes and behaviours of employees. If employees believe that organisations make unfair decisions based on unfair processes, they may formulate the expectation that other decisions are made the same way, this may result in the loss of candidates.

The research was unable to establish a significant prediction model of organisational attractiveness with restorative organisational justice. This may require research to further explore restorative organisational justice perceptions in order to understand how they are formed. The research and theory assumes that due to social correction targeting certain groups other groups these groups are treated differently and that this would be evident in restorative organisational justice perceptions. Although the current research could not establish these differences, restorative organisational justice should not be discredited as a contribution to the organisational justice framework. Social correction is strongly prevalent in South Africa and therefore it may be possible that a stronger theoretical understanding of restorative organisational justice is needed. It may also be useful to explore the implications of social correction in the organisational context not only during recruitment practices but also during employment. There are views held by individuals regarding social correction and these views stretch beyond recruitment, therefore restorative organisational perceptions may also stretch beyond recruitment.

7.2. Recommendations for Future Research

Although the research results of this study were in many ways contradictory to what was expected and what was previously found, the importance of restorative organisational justice should not be dismissed as a possible addition to the organisational justice framework. That said there are different ways in which organisational justice, restorative organisational justice, and organisational attractiveness perceptions could be researched. Firstly the practice of interest within the organisational environment in this research was recruitment. As this is the

start of the relationship between the organisation and employees where first impressions are made, it is important to understand how the recruitment process contributes to this first impression. The recruitment process leads to an outcome which is invariably the first life altering decision an organisation can make about an employee. Therefore understanding first impressions in light of organisational justice can provide insight into how processes, interactions and the decisions made an organisation are perceived, and thus the impact these perceptions may have on employees and their attitudes as well as behaviour.

However in this research a sample of existing employees were asked to reflect on the recruitment process they underwent with their employer. Thus it is recommended that future research should be carried out with a sample of individuals who are actively undergoing the recruitment process. This may provide an uncontaminated insight into perceptions about recruitment as participants perceptions would not be tainted by experiences after employment. Furthermore the recruitment process should include set assessment or testing as these methods are becoming the favoured methods for recruitment. This is particularly relevant to the diverse South African employee market, where different groups may have differing opinions about the applicability of tests and assessments, the fairness of their use and the fairness of decisions made with the aid of tests and assessments. This is where restorative organisational justice may add better insight. It may be possible that future research with a sample that adequately represents various race groups may provide better insight into how recruitment practices governed by employment equity impact on employee perceptions about organisational attractiveness. Research should also be conducted on organisations in various industries and at various job levels. This is because employment in different industries and at different job levels requires different testing and assessment.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSION

The research study was intended to explore the relationship between organisational justice, restorative organisational justice, and organisational attractiveness. Furthermore the research aimed at establishing the predictive capabilities of organisational justice and restorative organisational justice on organisational attractiveness. Based on theory and previous research it was assumed that restorative organisational justice particularly in the South African context would be strongly related with and predictive of organisational attractiveness. However, the results indicated that organisational justice perceptions were stronger predictors of organisational attractiveness. It was established that these results could be specific to the sample characteristics. Thus it was recommended that future research should focus on more diverse samples with participants undergoing recruitment processes. Organisational justice on the other had once again proved to be related to attitudes and behaviours towards and organisation in the form of organisational attractiveness. Therefore organisations need to be constantly aware of the impact their conduct may have on employees if they are to promote positive reciprocal attitudes and behaviours. Not forgetting restorative organisational justice, it may be possible to contribute to the organisational justice framework if theory concerning the formulation of restorative organisational justice perceptions is expanded and better understood. Contrary to research results it is still believed that with further research restorative organisational justice can be explored and implications for organisations understood.

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APPENDIX A: Participant Information Sheet

1. 



Psychology

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Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

Good day,

My name is Milda Pilvinyte and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of Witwatersrand. As part of our course we are required to perform supervised research in a particular area of Industrial Psychology. For my research project I have chosen to examine the relationship between perceived Restorative organisational justice of assessment centres, Organisational attractiveness as well as perceptions of employment equity.

Organisations are recognising the use of assessment centres for a number of purposes. Some of these include recruitment, promotions, development, and detecting managerial potential. Individuals who participate in these assessment centre procedures have their own perceptions of them. Restorative justice perceptions are a part of this. Organisational attractiveness perceptions may also be related to restorative organisational perceptions. It is also suggested that perceptions of restorative justice and organisational attractiveness are influenced by organisational attractiveness. I would therefore like to invite you to participate in this research. Participants in this study are, however, required to be those who are participating in assessment centre procedures.

Participation in this research will involve completing the attached questionnaires which will take approximately 20 minutes. Participation is completely voluntary. You will not be

advantaged or disadvantaged in any way by choosing to complete or not complete this questionnaire. When answering the questionnaires no variety of identification is required from you. Your completed questionnaire will not be seen by anyone but myself, my supervisor and the assessment centre developers. Your responses will also be looked at only in relation to all other responses in order to establish trends.

If you fulfil the criteria for participation and are willing to participate in the study please complete the attached questionnaires as honestly and carefully as possible. Completion of the questionnaire is regarded as consent to participate in the study. Once you have completed all of the questionnaires, place questionnaires back in the envelope (seal it) and place it back in the box provided. If the questionnaire has been completed on line submit it once all the questions have been answered. You are not in any way required to disclose your identity in the form of name or staff number. This is to ensure your anonymity and confidentiality.

Thank you for taking time to read this letter and should you participate, thank you for your assistance.

Milda Pilvinyte

m.pilvinyte@yahoo.com

076 658 7814

Ian Siemers

Ian.Siemers@wits.c.za

(011) 717 4586

APPENDIX B: Organisation Information and Consent Sheet

2.

Psychology

School of Human & Community Development

Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Telephone: +27 11-717-4500/2/3/4. Fax: +27-11-717-4559

Good day,

My name is Milda Pilvinyte and I would like to invite you to participate in a research study I am currently conducting for the purposes of obtaining my Masters Degree in Industrial Psychology at the University of Witwatersrand. As part of our course we are required to perform supervised research in a particular area of Industrial Psychology. For my research project I have chosen to examine the relationship between perceived Restorative organisational justice of assessment centres, Organisational attractiveness, as well as perceptions of employment equity.

Organisations are recognising the use of assessment centres for a number of purposes. Some of these include recruitment, promotions, development and detecting managerial potential. Individuals who participate in these assessment centre procedures have their own perceptions of them. Restorative justice perceptions are a part of this. Organisational attractiveness perceptions may also be related to restorative organisational perceptions. It is also suggested that perceptions of restorative justice and organisational attractiveness are influenced by organisational attractiveness. I would therefore like to invite you to participate in this research. Participants in this study are, however, required to be those who are participating in assessment centre procedures.

Participants in this research will be required to be participants of assessment centre proceedings. Furthermore participants will be required to complete four questionnaires which will take approximately 20 minutes. Participation will be completely voluntary. Anyone who participates in the study will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way by choosing to

complete or not complete the questionnaires. When answering the questionnaires no variety of identification will be required from the participants in order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity. The completed questionnaire will not be seen by anyone other than myself, and my supervisor and the assessment centre developers. Responses to questionnaires will also be looked at only in relation to all other responses in order to establish trends.

If you are willing to participate in the study and assist me with my research it will be greatly appreciated. If you agree to allow me accesses to your organisation for my research please fill in the consent form below. The research results will be provided to your organisation with a detailed interpretation in terms of my research questions. My thesis will also be available to you if your organisation wishes to see it.

Thank you for taking time to read this letter and should you choose to assist me, thank you for your assistance.

_____ _____

Milda Pilvinyte

076 658 7814

m.pilvinyte@yahoo.com

Ian Siemers

(011) 717 4586

ian.siemers@wits.ac.za

Consent Form

I _____ the _____ of the Organisation used for this study, give my consent for this organisation to partake in this research. I understand that participation is voluntary and that the organisation is allowed to withdraw at any time. I also understand that the organisation can choose to remain anonymous in this study.

Signature _____ Date _____

APPENDIX C: Biographical Questionnaire

Please fill in or cross of the appropriate answers next to the following questions.

1. Age	

2. Gender	Male	Female

3. Home Language	English	Afrikaans
	IsiZulu	IsiNdebele
	Other	Setswana
	IsiXhosa	Tshivenda
	Sesotho	
	siSwati	
	Xitsonga	

4. Nationality	South African	Other

5. Race	African (Black)	Caucasian (White)
	Asian	Indian
	Coloured	

6. Tenure (in months)	

7. Position held at the organisation e.g. supervisory, managerial etc.	

8. Have you ever participated in any other assessment centres?	**Yes**	**No**

APPENDIX D: Restorative Organisational Justice Questionnaire

The following questions are pertaining to the ideals of justice when considering the use of testing for the purpose of selection. This research aims to improve the way assessment centres are used and implemented for the purpose of selection. It is imperative that you answer the following questions based on your own opinion, not on those of others or on the basis of what you think is the right answer. Some of these questions will need to be answered based on your belief about your gender as well as your race. This is to ensure that this research taps into the fairness of an assessment centre from different perspectives. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statements;

1= *Strongly Disagree*
2= Disagree
3= Neutral
4= Agree
5= Strongly Agree

1. Recruitment decisions about my group reflected the effort displayed during the assessment centre procedures.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Recruitment decisions about my group reflect the skills and experience displayed during the recruitment procedures.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Recruitment decisions about my group were appropriate based on the effort and performance during the recruitment procedures.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Recruitment opportunity decisions for my group were accurate based on the development recruitment activities.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. The use of recruitment processes was appropriate for my group.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Special consideration in development decisions were given to previously disadvantaged groups.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
9. Recruitment opportunities should be given to employment equity target beneficiary groups.									
		1	2	3	4	5			

10. Recruitment opportunity decisions should be made to correct past social injustices in workplace opportunity.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
11. Recruitment opportunities should be given to women, blacks or the disabled.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
12. The recruitment process was applied in the same way to all groups.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. I believe that the activities used for the recruitment process were not in any way biased against my group.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. I believe that the recruitment activities would be based on accurate information across all groups.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. I believe that the assessment centre activities upheld ethical and moral standards for all groups.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. I believe the recruitment upheld ethical and moral standards for all groups.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. For my group, it was easy to understand what was expected during the recruitment activities.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. My group did not have any difficulties operating any of the equipment (e.g, computers, question booklets) used during the assessment centre activities.									
Gender					*Race*				
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E: Organisational Justice Questionnaire

19. I believe everyone going through recruitment went through the same process.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
20. The recruitment process was ethically acceptable.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
21. Based on my experience, I perceived the recruitment activities to be a fair assessment method for recruitment.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
22. During the recruitment activities, I was allowed to ask questions about anything I was unsure of.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
23. I believe that recruitment activities were administered in the same way to everyone who participated.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
24. The venue for the recruitment process was comfortable and free of interruptions.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
25. The equipment used (e.g, computers, question booklets) were in full working order.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
26. The recruitment activities were relevant to the functions of the position applied for/working in.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
27. The questions I was asked were appropriate in the circumstances.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
28. I believed the observations based on the recruitment activities were used to emphasize fair and objective needs for organisational selection.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
29. The recruitment activities are biased against some people.									
		1	2	3	4	5			

30. The recruitment activities measure attributes required for success in a job.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
31. The recruitment activities assist the company in making the correct recruitment decision.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
32. I was treated fairly during my participation in the recruitment activities.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
33. I clearly understood what was expected from me during the recruitment activities.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
34. I was able to complete all the recruitment exercises within the allocated time.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
35. The assessor/s treated me in a polite manner.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
36. The assessor/s treated me with respect.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
37. The assessor/s explained the recruitment activities thoroughly.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
38. The assessor/s explanations of the recruitment activities were reasonable.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
39. The assessor/s explained the assessment centre activities in a way that was easily understood.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
40. The assessor/s communicated arrangements for the recruitment procedures sufficiently in advance of the assessment date.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
41. I was properly briefed on the administrative activities to be followed during the recruitment prior to the start of the activities.									
		1	2	3	4	5			

42. I was put at ease by the assessor/s.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
43. The assessor/s was honest about the role the activities played in the recruitment process.									
		1	2	3	4	5			

APPENDIX F: Organisational Attractiveness Questionnaire

44. For me, this company is a good place to work.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
45. This company was a last resort for me.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
46. This company is attractive to me as a place of employment.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
47. I am interested in continuously learning more about this company.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
48. A job at this company was very appealing to me.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
49. I was very eager to work at this company.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
50. I would make this company one of my first choices as an employee.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
51. I would suggest to anyone who is invited for a job interview to this company to go to it									
		1	2	3	4	5			
52. I exert a great deal of effort working for this company.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
53. I would recommend this company to a friend looking for a job.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
54. Employees are proud to say they work at this company.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
55. This is a reputable company to work for.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
56. This company has a reputation as being an excellent employer.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
14. I find this company a prestigious place to work.									
		1	2	3	4	5			
15. There are probably many who would like to work at this company.									
		1	2	3	4	5			

APPENDIX G: Distribution Plots

The figures below serve to provide a visual representation of the distribution analysis for each variable in the study. It has been normality was established based on the central limit theorem, Skewness and Kurtosis results, as well as the histograms of the distribution. The latter is shown in these figures

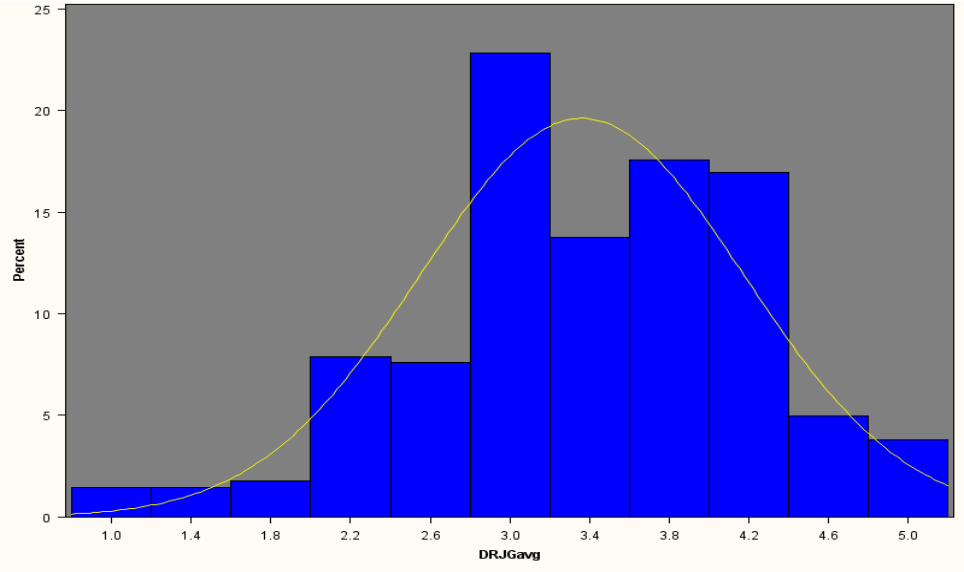


Figure 1: Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender) Histogram

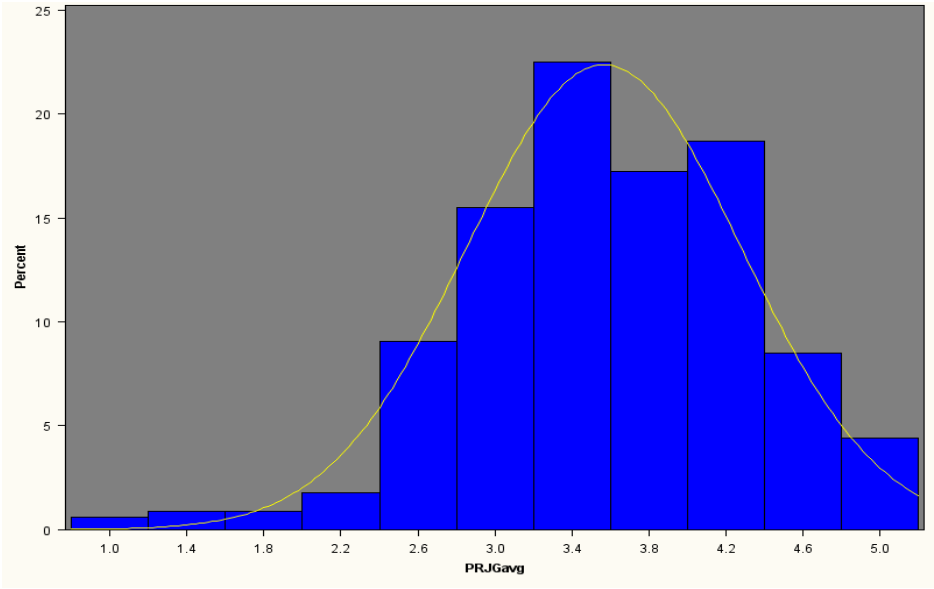


Figure 2: Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender) Distribution Histogram

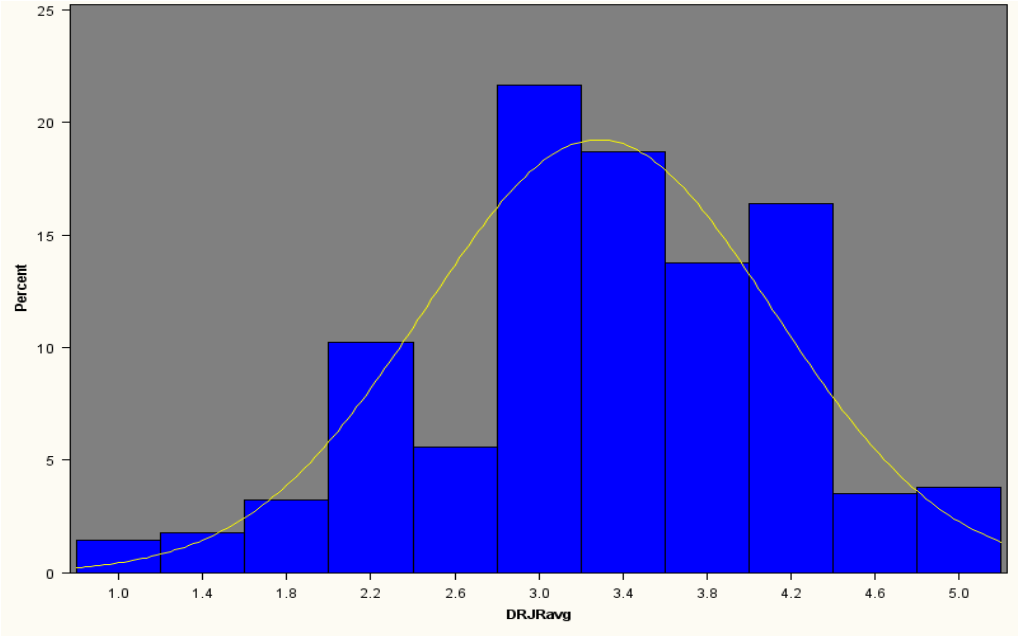


Figure 3: Restorative Distributive Justice (Race) Distribution Histogram

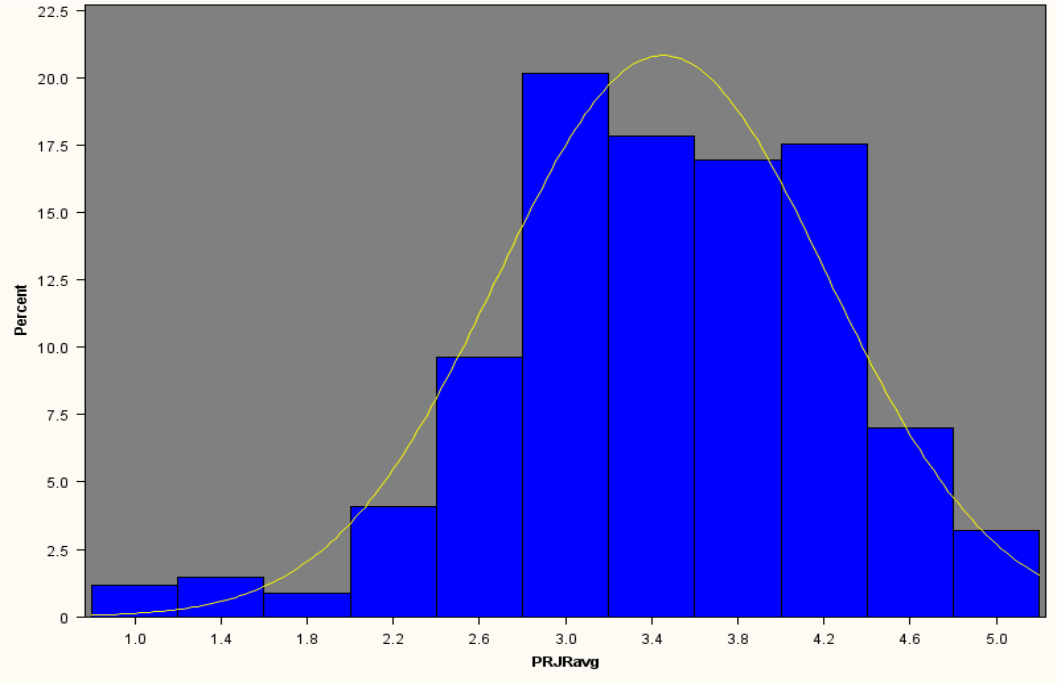


Figure 4: Restorative Procedural Justice (Race) Distribution Histogram

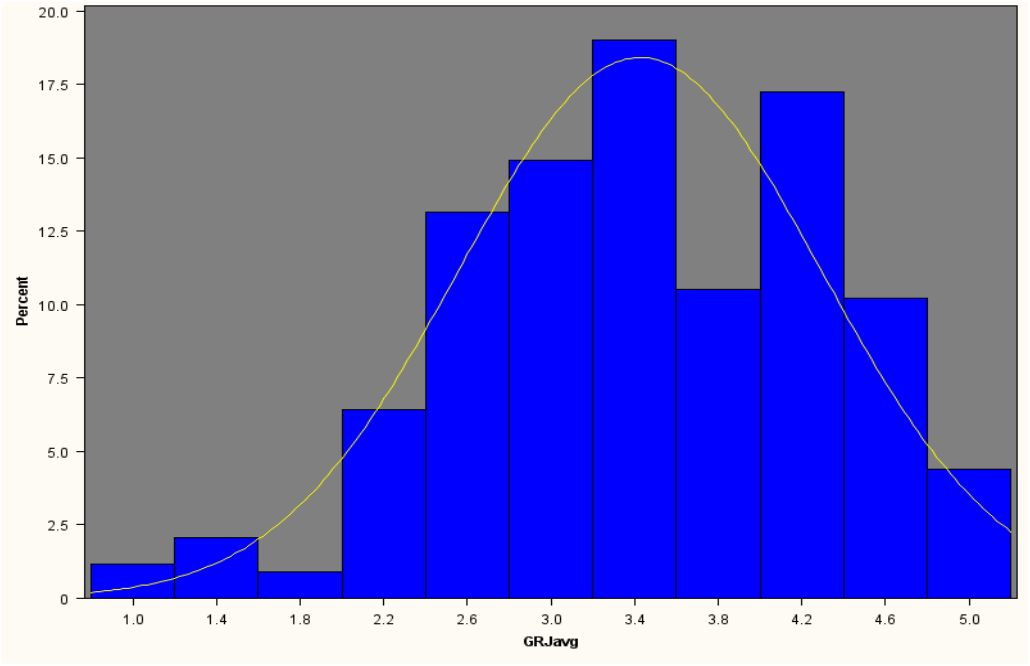


Figure 5: Restorative Procedural Justice (Race) Distribution Histogram

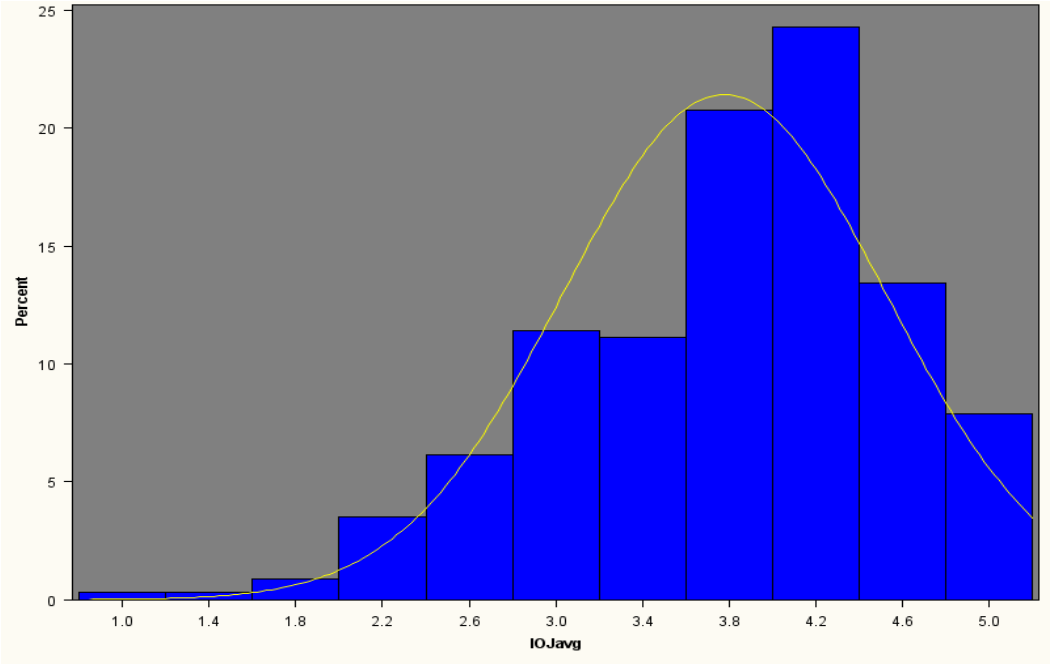


Figure 6: Interactional Organisational Justice Distribution Histogram

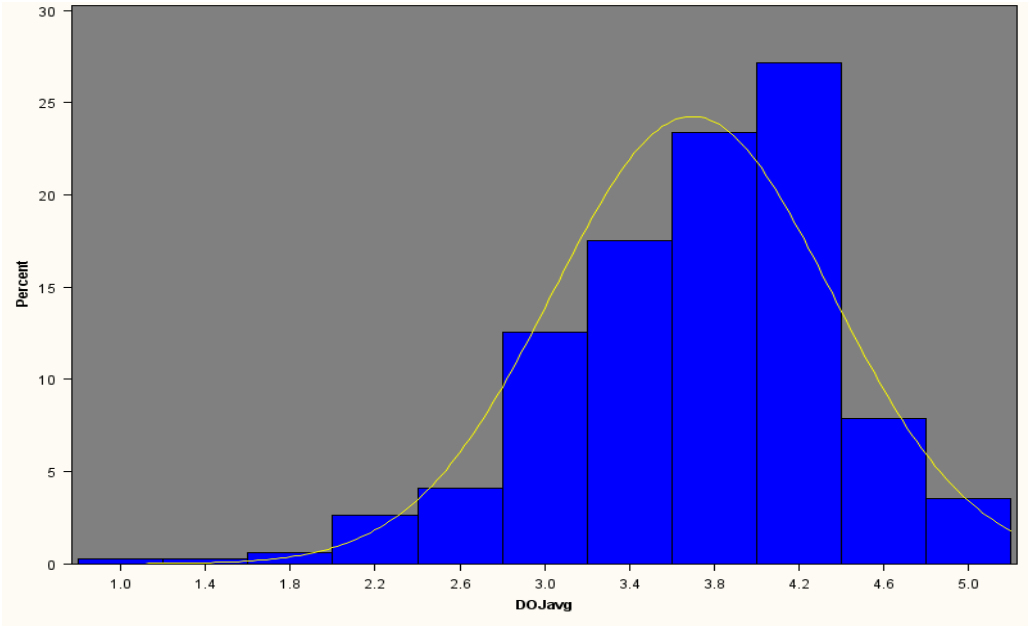


Figure 7: Distributive Organisational Justice Distribution Histogram

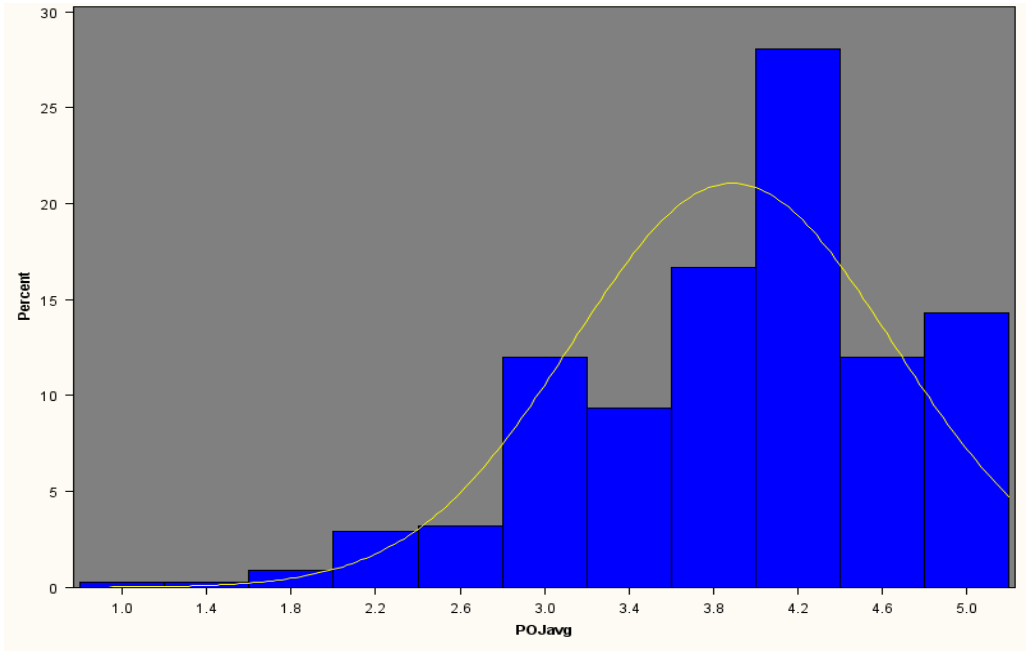


Figure 8: Procedural Organisational Justice Distribution Histogram

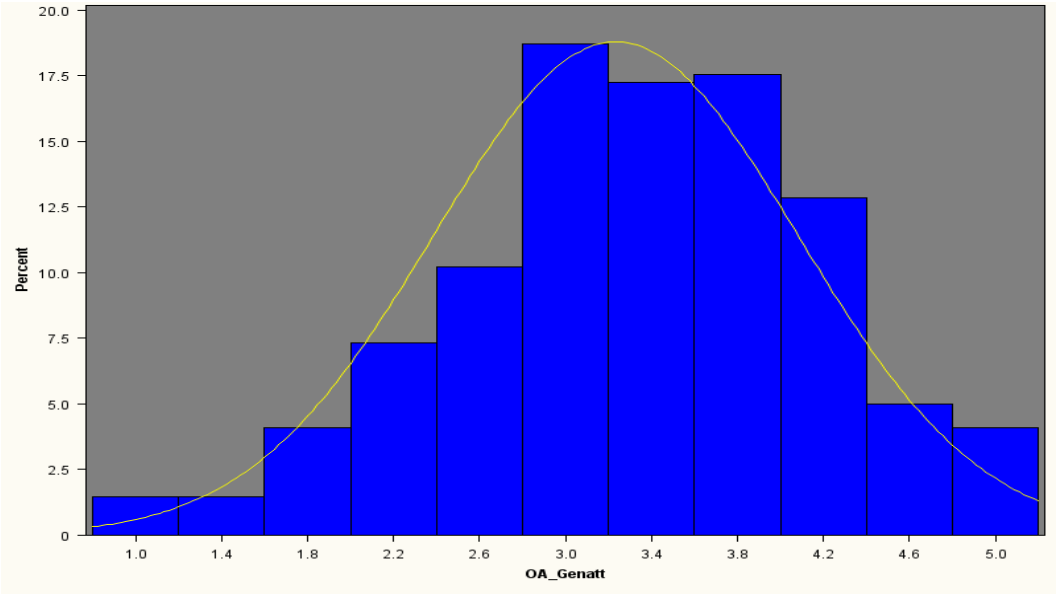


Figure 9: General Organisational Attractiveness Distribution Histogram

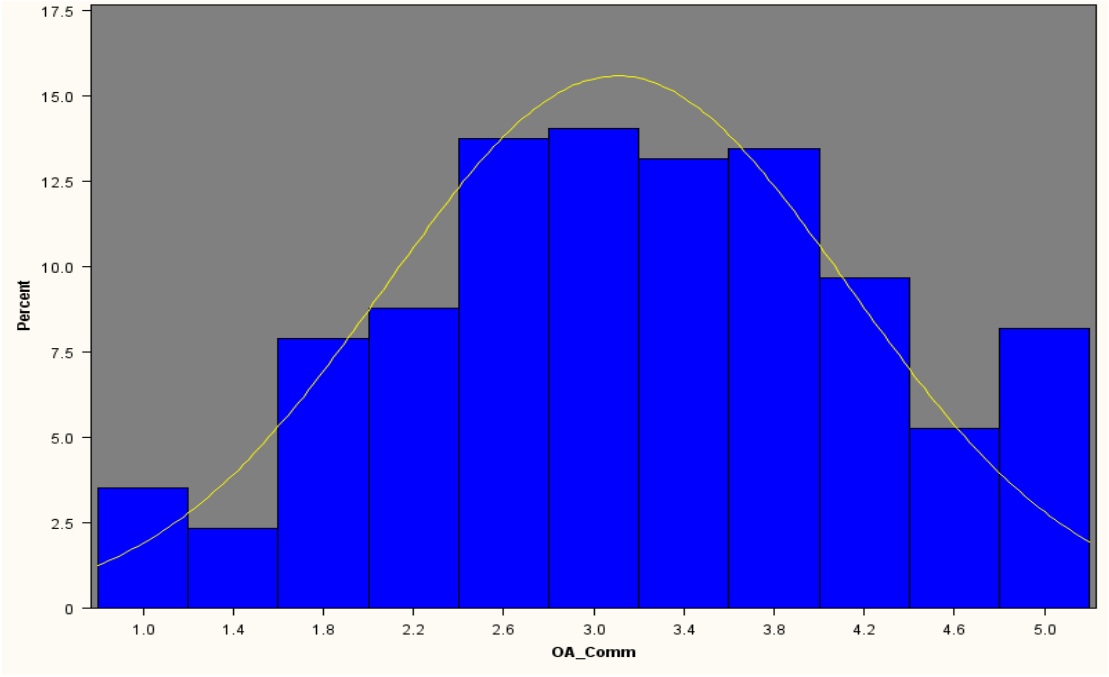


Figure 10: Commitment Distribution Histogram

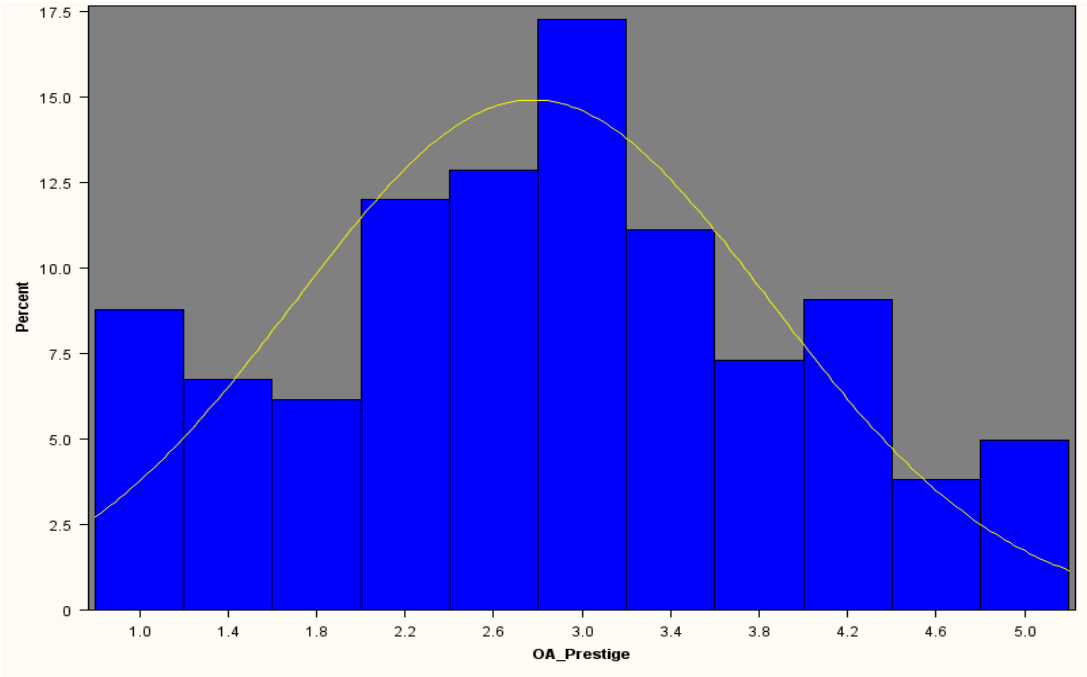


Figure 11: Prestige Distribution Histogram

APPENDIX H: Frequency Distribution Summaries

The following tables provide a breakdown of the frequency distribution analysis for each question in of the instruments utilised in the research. These frequency distributions demonstrate the responses sets found for each question and therefore variables.

Table 22:

Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender) Frequency Distributions

Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender)					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	33	9.68	1	28	8.26
2	32	9.38	2	43	12.68
3	152	44.57	3	103	30.38
4	94	27.57	4	104	30.68
5	30	8.8	5	61	17.99
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	38	11.28	1	32	9.36
2	43	12.76	2	41	11.99
3	93	27.6	3	78	22.81
4	112	33.23	4	118	34.5
5	51	15.13	5	73	21.35
Question 3 Responses			**Question 6 Responses**		
1	26	7.65	1	29	8.5
2	33	9.71	2	39	11.44
3	85	25	3	98	28.74
4	127	37.35	4	128	37.54
5	69	20.29	5	47	13.78

Table 23:

Restorative Distributive Justice (Race) Frequency Distributions

Restorative Distributive Justice (Race)					
Question 1 Responses			**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	31	9.14	1	34	10.12
2	41	12.09	2	43	12.8
3	132	38.94	3	100	29.76
4	83	24.48	4	103	30.65
5	52	15.34	5	56	16.67
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	43	12.8	1	40	11.7
2	46	13.69	2	48	14.04
3	98	29.17	3	84	24.56
4	109	32.44	4	103	30.12
5	40	11.9	5	67	19.59
Question 3 Responses			**Question 6 Responses**		
1	32	9.44	1	34	10.03
2	41	12.09	2	39	11.5
3	84	24.78	3	107	31.56
4	119	35.1	4	119	35.1
5	63	18.58	5	40	11.8

Table 24:
Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender) Frequency Distributions

Procedural Restorative Justice (Gender)					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 5 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	39	11.47	1	30	8.8
2	47	13.82	2	39	11.44
3	88	25.88	3	88	25.81
4	91	26.76	4	129	37.83
5	75	22.06	5	55	16.13
Question 2 Responses			**Question 6 Responses**		
1	27	7.89	1	17	5
2	51	14.91	2	26	7.65
3	99	28.95	3	84	24.71
4	107	31.29	4	141	41.47
5	58	16.96	5	72	21.18
Question 3 Responses			**Question 7 Responses**		
1	16	4.72	1	19	5.59
2	20	5.9	2	27	7.94
3	75	22.12	3	61	17.94
4	135	39.82	4	119	35
5	93	27.43	5	114	33.53
Question 4 Responses					
1	19	5.57			
2	29	8.5			
3	92	26.98			
4	136	39.88			
5	65	19.06			

Table 25:
Restorative Procedural Justice (Race) Frequency Distributions

Restorative Procedural Justice (Race)					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 5 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	56	16.82	1	38	11.18
2	62	18.62	2	50	14.71
3	76	22.82	3	85	25
4	77	23.12	4	116	34.12
5	62	18.62	5	51	15
Question 2 Responses			**Question 6 Responses**		
1	36	10.75	1	18	5.28
2	58	17.31	2	30	8.8
3	91	27.16	3	81	23.75
4	92	27.46	4	143	41.94
5	58	17.31	5	69	20.23
Question 3 Responses			**Question 7 Responses**		
1	24	7.1	1	21	6.18
2	28	8.28	2	26	7.65
3	75	22.19	3	60	17.65
4	124	36.69	4	121	35.59
5	87	25.74	5	112	32.94
Question 4 Responses					
1	33	9.71			
2	26	7.65			
3	98	28.82			
4	116	34.12			
5	67	19.71			

Table 26:

General Restorative Organisational Justice Frequency Distributions

General Restorative Organisational Justice					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 3 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	41	12.02	1	19	5.65
2	47	13.78	2	23	6.85
3	74	21.7	3	68	20.24
4	94	27.57	4	119	35.42
5	85	24.93	5	107	31.85
Question 2 Responses			**Question 4 Responses**		
1	25	7.37	1	83	24.34
2	37	10.91	2	52	15.25
3	88	25.96	3	68	19.94
4	126	37.17	4	56	16.42

Table 27:

Distributive Organisational Justice Frequency Distributions

Distributive Organisational Justice					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 5 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	22	6.43	1	21	6.16
2	32	9.36	2	29	8.5
3	96	28.07	3	84	24.63
4	135	39.47	4	150	43.99
5	57	16.67	5	57	16.72
Question 2 Responses			**Question 6 Responses**		
1	15	4.42	1	17	4.97
2	28	8.26	2	20	5.85
3	109	32.15	3	52	15.2
4	134	39.53	4	145	42.4
5	53	15.63	5	108	31.58
Question 3 Responses			**Question 7 Responses**		
1	47	13.78	1	9	2.65
2	99	29.03	2	13	3.82
3	101	29.62	3	32	9.41
4	67	19.65	4	165	48.53
5	27	7.92	5	121	35.59
Question 4 Responses			**Question 8 Responses**		
1	11	3.24	1	7	2.06
2	23	6.78	2	16	4.71
3	99	29.2	3	34	10
4	155	45.72	4	156	45.88
5	51	15.04	5	127	37.35

Table 28:

Procedural Organisational Justice Frequency Distributions

Procedural Organisational Justice					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	12	3.51	1	13	3.81
2	16	4.68	2	30	8.8
3	25	7.31	3	61	17.89
4	131	38.3	4	134	39.3
5	158	46.2	5	103	30.21
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	28	8.19	1	13	3.81
2	38	11.11	2	22	6.45
3	73	21.35	3	49	14.37
4	105	30.7	4	160	46.92
5	98	28.65	5	97	28.45
Question 3 Responses			**Question 6 Responses**		
1	15	4.39	1	6	1.76
2	24	7.02	2	21	6.16
3	53	15.5	3	49	14.37
4	148	43.27	4	175	51.32
5	102	29.82	5	90	26.39

Table 29:

Interactional Organisational Justice Frequency Distributions

Interactional Organisational Justice					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	8	2.34	1	7	2.06
2	16	4.68	2	19	5.59
3	45	13.16	3	69	20.29
4	157	45.91	4	155	45.59
5	116	33.92	5	90	26.47
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	12	3.51	1	9	2.63
2	14	4.09	2	15	4.39
3	48	14.04	3	65	19.01
4	146	42.69	4	153	44.74
5	122	35.67	5	100	29.24
Question 3 Responses					
1	9	2.65			
2	19	5.59			
3	53	15.59			
4	143	42.06			
5	116	34.12			

Table 30:

Interactional Organisational Justice Frequency Distributions Continued

Interactional Organisational Justice					
Question 6 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 8 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	13	3.81	1	16	4.72
2	30	8.8	2	28	8.26
3	69	20.23	3	84	24.78
4	148	43.4	4	149	43.95
5	81	23.75	5	62	18.29
Question 7 Responses			**Question 9 Responses**		
1	14	4.12	1	14	4.12
2	25	7.35	2	23	6.76
3	74	21.76	3	69	20.29
4	165	48.53	4	148	43.53
5	62	18.24	5	86	25.29

Table 31:

General Organisational Attractiveness Frequency Distributions

General Organisational Attractiveness					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	78	22.94	1	60	17.54
2	56	16.47	2	44	12.87
3	110	32.35	3	93	27.19
4	57	16.76	4	82	23.98
5	39	11.47	5	63	18.42
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	57	16.91	1	31	9.06
2	90	26.71	2	43	12.57
3	86	25.52	3	88	25.73
4	61	18.1	4	117	34.21
5	43	12.76	5	63	18.42
Question 3 Responses					
1	22	6.45			
2	18	5.28			
3	84	24.63			
4	140	41.06			
5	77	22.58			

Table 32:

Commitment Frequency Distributions

Commitment					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	22	6.47	1	41	11.99
2	18	5.29	2	40	11.7
3	77	22.65	3	91	26.61
4	140	41.18	4	103	30.12
5	83	24.41	5	67	19.59
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	90	26.39	1	85	24.85
2	78	22.87	2	45	13.16
3	76	22.29	3	77	22.51
4	60	17.6	4	90	26.32
5	37	10.85	5	45	13.16
Question 3 Responses					
1	77	22.51			
2	42	12.28			
3	96	28.07			
4	80	23.39			
5	47	13.74			

Table 33:

Prestige Frequency Distributions

Prestige					
Question 1 Responses	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Question 4 Responses**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
1	115	33.63	1	64	18.77
2	77	22.51	2	64	18.77
3	79	23.1	3	123	36.07
4	46	13.45	4	63	18.48
5	25	7.31	5	27	7.92
Question 2 Responses			**Question 5 Responses**		
1	68	20	1	69	20.23
2	49	14.41	2	49	14.37
3	113	33.24	3	95	27.86
4	71	20.88	4	75	21.99
5	39	11.47	5	53	15.54
Question 3 Responses					
1	63	18.53			
2	68	20			
3	101	29.71			
4	75	22.06			
5	33	9.71			

APPENDIX I: Fisher Transformation Statistics

Table 34:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender) and General Organisational Attractiveness and Distributive Organisational Justice and General Organisational Attractiveness

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RDJG GA	0.27	342	95%
r13 DOJ GA	0.37	342	
r23 RDJG /DOJ	0.48	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.28	z	0.39
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.17	z lower	0.28
z upper	0.38	z upper	0.49
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.17	r lower	0.27
r upper	0.37	r upper	0.46

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	-0.09
r between r12 and r13	0.44
Lower diff	-0.2
Upper diff	0.002

Table 35:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender) and Commitment and Distributive Organisational Justice and Commitment

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RDJG COM	0.27	342	95%
r13 DOJ COM	0.37	342	
r23 RDJG /DOJ	0.48	342	

	Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***
z	0.27	z	0.39
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.17	z lower	0.29
z upper	0.38	z upper	0.49
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.16	r lower	0.28
r upper	0.36	r upper	0.46

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	-0.11
r between r12 and r13	0.44
Lower diff	-0.21
Upper diff	-0.01

Table 36:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice (Gender) and Prestige and Distributive Organisational Justice and Prestige

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RDJG PRES	0.25	342	95%
r13 DOJ PRES	0.37	342	
r23 RDJG /DOJ	0.41	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.25	z	0.39
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.15	z lower	0.28
z upper	0.36	z upper	0.49
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.15	r lower	0.27
r upper	0.35	r upper	0.46

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13

r12-r13	-0.12
r between r12 and r13	0.37
Lower diff	-0.23
Upper diff	-0.01

Table 37:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice (Race) and General Organisational Attractiveness and Distributive Organisational Justice and General Organisational Attractiveness

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RDJR GA	0.25	342	95%
r13 DOJ GA	0.37	342	
r23 RDJR /DOJ	0.41	342	

	Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***
z	0.25	z	0.39
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.15	z lower	0.28
z upper	0.36	z upper	0.49
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.15	r lower	0.27
r upper	0.35	r upper	0.46

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13

r12-r13	-0.12
r between r12 and r13	0.37
Lower diff	-0.23
Upper diff	-0.01

Table 38:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice (Race) and Commitment and Distributive Organisational Justice and Commitment

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RDJR COM	0.24	342	95%
r13 DOJ COM	0.37	342	
r23 RDJR /DOJ	0.41	342	

	Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***
z	0.25	z	0.39
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.14	z lower	0.29
z upper	0.35	z upper	0.49
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.14	r lower	0.28
r upper	0.34	r upper	0.46

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	-0.13
r between r12 and r13	0.37
Lower diff	-0.24
Upper diff	-0.02

Table 39:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Distributive Justice (Race) and Prestige and Distributive Organisational Justice and Prestige

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RDJR PRES	0.26	342	95%
r13 DOJ PRES	0.36	342	
r23 RDJR /DOJ	0.41	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.27	z	0.37
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.16	z lower	0.27
z upper	0.37	z upper	0.48
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.16	r lower	0.26
r upper	0.36	r upper	0.44

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	-0.09
r between r12 and r13	0.36
Lower diff	-0.21
Upper diff	0.012

Table 40:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender) and General Organisational Attractiveness and Procedural Organisational Justice and General Organisational Attractiveness

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RPJG GA	0.29	342	95%
r13 POJ GA	0.33	342	
r23 RPJG /POJ	0.55	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.30	z	0.35
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.19	z lower	0.24
z upper	0.41	z upper	0.45
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.19	r lower	0.23
r upper	0.39	r upper	0.42

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	-0.04
r between r12 and r13	0.51
Lower diff	-0.13
Upper diff	0.056

Table 41:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender) and Commitment and Procedural Organisational Justice and Commitment

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RPJG COM	0.35	342	95%
r13 POJ COM	0.31	342	
r23 RPJG /POJ	0.55	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.36	z	0.32
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.26	z lower	0.22
z upper	0.47	z upper	0.43
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.25	r lower	0.21
r upper	0.44	r upper	0.41

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	0.04
r between r12 and r13	0.51
Lower diff	-0.06
Upper diff	0.13

Table 42:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice (Gender) and Prestige and Procedural Organisational Justice and Prestige

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RPJG PRES	0.29	342	95%
r13 POJ PRES	0.29	342	
r23 RPJG /POJ	0.55	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.30	z	0.31
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.19	z lower	0.19
z upper	0.41	z upper	0.41
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.19	r lower	0.19
r upper	0.39	r upper	0.39

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	-0.002
r between r12 and r13	0.52
Lower diff	-0.09
Upper diff	0.09

Table 43:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice (Race) and General Organisational Attractiveness and Procedural Organisational Justice and General Organisational Attractiveness

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RPJR GA	0.33	342	95%
r13 POJ GA	0.33	342	
r23 RPJR /POJ	0.46	342	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.35	z	0.35
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.24	z lower	0.24
z upper	0.45	z upper	0.45
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.24	r lower	0.23
r upper	0.42	r upper	0.42

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	0.001
r between r12 and r13	0.41
Lower diff	-0.10
Upper diff	0.10

Table 44:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice (Race) and Commitment and Procedural Organisational Justice and Commitment

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RPJR COM	0.34	342	95%
r13 POJ COM	0.31	342	
r23 RPJR /POJ	0.46	342	

	Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***
z	0.35	z	0.32
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.25	z lower	0.22
z upper	0.46	z upper	0.43
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.24	r lower	0.21
r upper	0.43	r upper	0.41

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	0.03
r between r12 and r13	0.41
Lower diff	-0.08
Upper diff	0.13

Table 45:

Fisher z Transformation for the Difference in Association between Restorative Procedural Justice (Race) and Prestige and Procedural Organisational Justice and Prestige

	Overlapping correlations		
	r	***n***	**Confidence**
r12 RPJR PRES	0.31	342.000	0.950
r13 POJ PRES	0.29	342.000	
r23 RPJR /POJ	0.46	342.000	

Fisher z Ci for r12		***Fisher z Ci for r13***	
z	0.32	z	0.31
z sd/se	0.05	z sd/se	0.05
z lower	0.22	z lower	0.19
z upper	0.43	z upper	0.41
alpha	0.05	alpha	0.05
z crit	-1.96	z crit	-1.96
r lower	0.21	r lower	0.19
r upper	0.40	r upper	0.39

Difference between overlapping r12 and r13	
r12-r13	0.02
r between r12 and r13	0.42
Lower diff	-0.09
Upper diff	0.12