

**Exploring perceptions on racism and
xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand**

Mzubanzi Given Ntshiq

WITS Graduate School of Governance

**Thesis presented in partial fulfilment for the degree of Master of
Management (Public Development and Management) to the Faculty
of Commerce, Law, and Management, University of the
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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis/dissertation titled 'Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand' is my own, unaided work. I have acknowledged and referenced all sources that I used and quoted. I hereby submit it in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Management (Public Development and Management) in the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I have not submitted this report before for any other degree or examination to any other institution.



Mzubanzi Given Ntshiqo
Johannesburg, March 2018

ABSTRACT

Author: Mzubanzi Given Ntshiqo **Supervisor** Kambidima Wotela
Thesis title: Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand

The purpose of this research is to explore the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. Literature has shown that there were incidents of racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand. The following research questions were answered, that is – (i.) ‘To what extent are the differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?’ and, (ii.) ‘To what extent are the differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?’ The two hypotheses were tested, that is- (i.) ‘There are significant differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance’, and (ii.) ‘There are significant differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance’. This research sought to bring the racism and xenophobia incidents to the attention of the Members of Parliament (MPs) and civil servants who happened to be students at the Wits School of Governance (WSG) as a way of influencing policy by bringing awareness, ensure understanding of the issue and its importance, and generate concern for racism and xenophobia. The WSG was chosen as the physical context for this research.

This research employed the quantitative research strategy, the case research study design, the purposive sampling technique and an on-line questionnaire to draw data. This research found that there was no significant difference in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance, but there was a significant difference in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance.

Key words: Racism, Xenophobia, knowledge gap, established frameworks, conceptual framework.

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1 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Background

Before getting to the research problem statement in (Section 1.2.1) and consequently the research purpose statement in (Section 1.2.2) and the research question and hypothesis in (Section 1.2.3), I briefly introduce the terms that I use in conceptualising our research. In (Section 1.1.1), I describe the history of racism in South Africa. I focus our history from 1900 to 1994. In (Section 1.1.2) I discuss xenophobia in South Africa. The transformation efforts by the University of the Witwatersrand are discussed in (Section 1.1.3) and are followed by (Section 1.2) which is exploring the perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand. (Section 1.3) is the delimitation of the research and is followed by (Section 1.4) which is the justification for the research. (Section 1.5) is the preface to the research report.

1.1.1 History of racism in South Africa

Racism is an international phenomenon (Winant, 2006) and was also embedded in the South African legislation during the apartheid era as the following literature highlights some of the apartheid policies. Thompson (2014) narrated that during the apartheid era, the administrative systems of blacks and whites were separated completely, and some categories of jobs were reserved for whites only. Clark (1987) further stated that more discriminatory practices continued, and Davenport (1970) further pointed out that discriminatory practises were tightened further after the National Party (NP) won the election in 1929. Wallerstein (1987) added that after twenty years, the Population Registration Act of 1950 was introduced by the NP to register South Africans according to skin colour, and this law required all Africans to carry identification books.

The Anti-Apartheid Movement (1974) also added to this list of apartheid policies and highlighted the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act of 1949 which forbade marriage between different blacks and whites. It also stated that it was followed by the Immorality Act of 1950 which outlawed extramarital sex between whites and coloureds,

and the Group Areas Act of 1950 which further segregated communities with whites staying in affluent developed areas of the country and non-whites placed in townships and non-developed areas. Johnson (2004) also listed the Native Laws Amendment Act of 1952 that forbade black people to stay in urban areas except under special circumstances, and the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act of 1953 that promoted segregation of the population where whites used separate amenities from blacks, and the Native Resettlement Act of 1956 that led to the removal of non-whites from certain areas to make way for white people. Wieder (2002) also added to the discussion by pointing out that the Bantu Education Act of 1953 was the worst as it promoted inferior education for black people.

Joyce (2000) stated that in 1963, Hendrick Verwoerd enacted the self-governing states and Transkei was the first one to gain independence. Maylam (1986) added that it was followed by KwaZulu, Ciskei, Lebowa, Venda, Gazankulu and QwaQwa. Mandela (1994) reported that in 1990, the National Party led by President FW De Klerk unbanned about 34 political parties and other organisations including the African National Congress (ANC) and released some political prisoners, including Nelson Mandela who was released in February 1990, and in 1994, the national elections led to a New South Africa. In a study conducted by Chisholm and Sujee (2002) they found that there is significant progress in integrating African learners into previously defined Indian and Coloured schools but there was very little progress in the previously defined white schools, especially in the Western Cape province. In addition to the apartheid policies that oppressed non-white South Africans, Adjai and Lazaridis (2013) reported that foreign nationals in South Africa experience xenophobia.

1.1.2 Xenophobia in South Africa

Xenophobia, like racism, is an international phenomenon (Crush & Ramachandran, 2010), and is currently a source of tension between locals and foreign nationals in South Africa (Matsinhe, 2011). Campbell and Crush (2015) defined xenophobia as the abnormal fear of foreigners in general or hostility against strangers and anybody from a different country. They further defined it as a general dislike of migrants and that it is triggered by any differences in culture and ethnicity. Van der Veer, Yakushko, Ommundsen and Higler (2011) added that a considerable

number of people cross foreign borders all over the world and this leads to negative attitudes towards the migrants. South Africa has become a magnet for migrants from other African countries and largely due to her peace and thriving economy. Nel and Judge (2008) stated that South Africa has high democratic values, but Oloyede (2008) added that it struggles when it comes to immigration issues because of its people who are highly xenophobic. Coetzee (2012) narrated the violence against foreign nationals by stating that xenophobic attacks against black foreign nationals living in South Africa took place in May 2008 where 62 people were declared dead, some were assaulted and over 100,000 people were left homeless. He further narrated that there were horrific images of people being burnt alive and their homes set on fire and that there were other attacks that followed afterwards although they took place at irregular intervals. He added that the video of a Zimbabwean national being murdered in a horrific manner in 2011 shocked a lot of people.

Desai (2010) reported that the most affected places were the Alexandra Township near Johannesburg on the 11 May 2008 where two people were killed, sixty were injured and two women raped. Steenkamp (2009) also reported that 342 foreign-owned shops were looted, and 213 shops burned down. Foreign nationals fled from their homes and sought refuge at the local police station. Duponchel (2009) stated that the violence continued in Alexandra for several days and later spread to Diepsloot, Thembisa and Soweto. By the 16 May 2008 the violence had reached Cape Town and a Somali shopkeeper was killed. On the 17-18 May 2008, the violence spread to Jeppestown and Hillbrow in Johannesburg. Igglesden (2008) also stated that on the 17 May 2008 the violence had reached Durban. Duponchel (2009) further stated that in the Johannesburg region, more attacks were reported in Maukasi, Dukathole, Zandspruit, Ramaphosa, Primrose, Reiger Park, Kya Sands, Jerusalem, Zanempilo, Joe Slovo, Mayfair and other places. He pointed out that on the 21 May 2008, the violence returned to Durban and was also reported in the Free State and the North-West provinces. McKnight (2008) said that by the 28 May 2008, an estimated 600 people were arrested for xenophobic attacks and 13,000 immigrants fled from their homes in search of safety within police stations, city centres and churches.

MacGregor, Makoni and Fatunde, (2015) narrated the swift condemnation of the xenophobic violence by institutions of higher learning and their associations in South Africa and the drastic actions they took against the xenophobic violence. They stated that the University of the Witwatersrand is a member of Southern African Regional Universities Association (SARUA) and its condemnation of the xenophobic attacks is listed in their website. Wits University also organised a march and anti-xenophobic protests around its campuses, and the students and lecturers participated (Wits University, 2015). The University established a hotline where students could call in for help in case they get victimised both on and off the campuses. As a response to the racism and xenophobia incidents that took place on the main campus, the University of the Witwatersrand embarked on transformation efforts to eradicate all forms of discrimination and inequality in its campuses (Wits University, 2016).

1.1.3 Transformation at the University of the Witwatersrand

The University of the Witwatersrand is one of the leading institutions in the fight against discrimination and inequality both within its campuses and in society at large (Wits University, 2016). Johnson (2004) stated that all education institutions in South Africa were affected by the government policy of apartheid which segregated institutions of higher learning according to race in 1959. Thompson (2014) added that the English-speaking universities of Cape Town and the Witwatersrand were the central points of opposition to the apartheid laws. He further added that in 1959, the National Union of South African Students (NUSAS) organised demonstrations against the closure of English-speaking universities to blacks. He further pointed out that even in the 1970s, NUSAS was fighting the closure of the established institutions of higher learning to black people. Bunting (2006) also reported that as a result, by 1994 the country ended up with 36 tertiary institutions that included ten universities and seven Technikons for use by blacks, whilst ten established universities and seven Technikons were designed for exclusive use by white South Africans. He pointed out that there were two correspondence institutions that were designed for all races. Moodie (1994) stated that liberal universities opposed the apartheid policies and that apartheid laws affecting educational institutions had a negative impact on black students. He further pointed out that black Africans were denied entry to most medical schools by a permit system that was introduced in 1959

and was withdrawn only in 1986, and those who managed to get access were trained under difficult conditions. Perez and London (2004) shared statistics that said in 1967, there were 100 times more white doctors than their African counterparts although white people constituted only 20 percent of the population. The University of the Witwatersrand has been undergoing transformation ever since the apartheid policies were abolished and the latest significant achievement is the approval of the University Anti-discrimination policy of 2015 (Wits University, 2015).

The Anti-discrimination policy was published in 2015 and it lists religious beliefs, bullying, harassment, disability, gender identity, racism, sexual orientation, and xenophobia as areas of potential unfair discrimination. It points out that the University seeks to eradicate unfair discrimination, and that all perpetrators will face a thorough investigation and if the allegations are proven a disciplinary hearing will follow. It further points out that the University promotes whistleblowing as it promises to keep confidential all the names of people who report unfair discrimination. It also states that all newly employed managers will receive training on all unfair discrimination practices, and that all employees and students would be made aware of the Anti-discrimination policy (Wits University, 2015).

In addition to the Anti-discrimination policy of 2015, the University of the Witwatersrand has been undergoing transformation for some time as it seeks to address all inequalities. An amount of R45 million has been made available to promote diversity in the academic staff. R35 million has been made available to recruit African and Coloured academics of South African origin. Another R10 million has been made available to enable the above-mentioned groups within Wits to progress upwards to associate and full professorships. Over 100 applications from African and Coloured senior lecturers and lecturers were being assessed, and more funding was still being sought by the University to create and fill more of these positions. The University was also transforming its curriculum, promoting cosmopolitan residences and the general culture of the institution. There was a naming process in progress where some of the University buildings and other spaces would be named after South Africa eminent persons. Also, the workers' rights are closely guarded and protected especially from outside contractors, and focus would also be given to University admissions to bring diversity to other faculties (Wits

University, 2016). The transformation efforts of the University of the Witwatersrand are also reflected in the admission criteria of the Wits School of Governance (WSG) which reported an increase in its admission of students from all races and ethnic groups coming from all over the world (Wits School of Governance, 2014).

1.2 Towards exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand

In this section I discuss the research problem statement (Section 1.2.1), the research purpose statement (Section 1.2.2), and the research question/hypotheses (Section 1.2.3).

1.2.1 The research problem statement

Despite clear prohibitions to racism and all forms of discrimination by the University of the Witwatersrand, there is no sense of some students acting according to its Anti-discrimination policy of 2015. There were incidents of racism and xenophobia that took place at the main campus of University of the Witwatersrand. The Vice Chancellor, Adam Habib, acknowledged the existence of perceptions about racism at the University. He also said there were numerous reports of racism from black students and workers at the University (Habib, 2015). Quintal (2015) reported that the SRC president, Mr Mcebo Dlamini also voiced out his displeasure about what he termed racist attitudes against black learners and workers at the University, and also uttered racist comments and praised Adolf Hitler. Pilane (2014) interviewed students on the main Wits campus on behalf of the Daily Vox news site, and asked students from different race groups a question whether the race of a lecturer matters, and more than half of the respondents believed that it does. He reported that the respondents agreed with the Vice Chancellor of the need for additional African and coloured academics of South African origin. He further reported that the respondents believed that the University does not treat black academics well. Habib (2015) also acknowledged the marginalisation of black students at the University. Zwane (2015) added that racist acts were also committed by black students at the main campus by spraying offensive graffiti at the walls of the Great Hall and on T shirts. Trench (2016) also pointed out that the students did not believe that spraying graffiti on

walls insulting white people is racist. In an opinion piece on the Daily Maverick, Nhlapo (2016) reported that he supported a black student for wearing a t-shirt with the writing, 'F*** white people' and claimed it was one way of expressing the pain caused by racism. In a racism dialogue that took place at the Wits School of Governance, Tandwa (2016) reported a situation where the Public Protector, Thuli Madonsela, was accused by a #FeesMustFall student for protecting the views of white people and suppressing those of black people. The eNews Channel Africa (2016), which is a television network, reported on the 5 October 2016 that the University of the Witwatersrand management condemned hate speech and racism against other students on social media. It also reported that some students were inciting violence against white students on social media, and the University promised to investigate the reports.

Pilane (2014) also reported a case of xenophobia where a student said it was unacceptable for an Italian lecturer to lecture African history in a South African university. He also reported a second xenophobic case when Mcebo Dlamini said most black academics were from the African neighbouring countries and black academics of South African origin were not given the opportunity. He further reported a third instance where a student had a problem with the accents of academics from African countries, and a fourth instance which is about the students who were watching a You Tube clip of xenophobic attacks and laughing at the victims. Kruger and Osman (2010) who studied the experiences of immigrant children in 5 schools in the Johannesburg inner city reported that they all stated that they felt humiliated when local students laughed at their accents and how they pronounced English words. Some were often teased because of their French accents. The case of the unacceptability of the Italian lecturer lecturing African history in a South African university is xenophobic in its nature, (Campbell and Crush, 2015), but the context in which it was said might not be.

1.2.2 The research purpose statement

The purpose of this research is to explore the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. The research questions are as follows: ‘To what extent are the differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?’ and ‘To what extent are the differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?’

The racism and xenophobia incidents and perceptions were reported by various newspaper online outlets, which are eNews Channel Africa, the Daily Maverick, the Daily Vox, News 24, TMG Digital, and the Mail & Guardian (Pilane 2014, Quintal 2015, Zwane 2015, Tandwa 2016, eNews Channel Africa 2016, Nhlapo 2016, Trench 2016) and the Vice Chancellor had also corroborated some of the incidents and perceptions (Habib 2015). eNews Channel Africa (2016) had also reported several racist and xenophobic actions by students both at the main University campus and on social media from 2014 up to 2016 and beyond.

This research also sought to bring the racism and xenophobia incidents and perceptions to the attention of the Members of Parliament (MPs) and civil servants who happen to be students at the Wits School of Governance (WSG), as a way of influencing policy by bringing awareness, ensure understanding of the issue and its importance, and generate concern for racism and xenophobia. The differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students would help to widen the scope of knowledge as Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, and Blyma (2003) found that women tend to report more incidents than men although the reported experiences were similar. They also reported that women were more likely to share their experiences with their friends. Those public servants who have experienced racism and xenophobia will help to strengthen the calls for action by the authorities. I can also add that the use of females at the Local Government level is even more beneficial as they provide government services closest to the people and would be the first to identify racism and xenophobia.

1.2.3 The research questions/hypotheses

1. Research question 1: 'To what extent are the differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?'

Hypothesis 1: 'There are significant differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance'.

2. Research question 2: 'To what extent are the differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?'

Hypothesis 2: 'There are significant differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance'.

1.3 Delimitations of the research

The broad field of study encompassing this research is sociology. Five components of sociology which are social organisation and the individual, social change, social institutions, and social inequality were selected and this research focused on one, which is social inequality. This research broke down social inequality into its subcomponents such as ethnicity and race (Giddens, 1993); ethnic minorities and racism (Townroe & Yates, 1995); race, ethnicity and migration (Giddens and Sutton, 2013); race, ethnicity and nationality (Haralambos & Holborn, 2000); and race and ethnic Relations (Goode, 1977).

This research further broke down the subcomponents into variables. Ethnicity and race were broken down into antagonism, stereotypes, scapegoats, prejudice and discrimination (Giddens, 1993). Ethnic minorities and racism were broken down into prejudice, discrimination, institutional racism, racial differences, colonialism and slavery, scapegoating, and stereotypes and the media (Townroe & Yates, 1995). Race, ethnicity and migration were broken down into minority ethnic groups, prejudice, discrimination, holistic integration (Ager & Strang, 2008), ethnic diversity, ethnic conflict and migration (Giddens & Sutton, 2013). Race, ethnicity and nationality were broken down into ethnic cleansing, genetic differences, racial superiority, cultural racism, assimilation, accommodation, adaptation, resocialisation, acculturation (Berry, 1997), prejudice,

individual racism, and institutional racism (Haralambos & Holborn, 2000). Race and ethnic relations were broken down into ethnic and racial discrimination, stereotypes, prejudice, discrimination, separatism and segregation (Goode, 1977). Some variables were selected in the research for inclusion in the questionnaire to source responses from the participants and they are ‘stereotyping, projection, scapegoating, prejudice, discrimination, antagonism, displacement, segregation, marginalisation, and humiliation’.

1.4 Justification of the research

This research will influence policy-making by the public servants who are students at the Wits School of Governance. It will also bring awareness of the racism and xenophobia incidents and perceptions to the public servants, ensure understanding of the issue and its importance, and generate concern for racism and xenophobia. It will also help the University in gauging the prevalence of racism and xenophobia in its campuses and residential areas. Racism and xenophobia are international social ills and are also prevalent in South African universities as studied by Singh (2013) who explored xenophobic practices at a rural Limpopo university which had many foreign students and they were facing a wide range of xenophobic experiences. These xenophobic experiences included name-calling using local African languages; exclusion from class discussions where a local language is used deliberately; cliques formed that exclude foreigners; difficulty in finding accommodation as they are not easily accepted in residences and; they were implicated whenever violent incidents occurred. Bayaga (2011) explored racism and xenophobic practices in an Eastern Cape university to examine elements of collegiality and the findings confirmed the racial and xenophobic climate of South Africans not willing to forfeit their conservative views on racism and xenophobia. Another study was conducted by Alexander and Tredoux (2010) at a South African university and they examined the seating patterns of 26 undergraduate tutorial groups across a full academic year. Results from the longitudinal study showed strong patterns of racial segregation.

Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) conducted a study that measured students’ perceptions and experiences of the racial and ethnic climate of a mid-Atlantic university in the United States of America (USA) and suggested that studies of this nature would assist the schools to develop awareness and counselling programmes for students affected by race and ethnic discrimination. Moreover, it should be highlighted that

even though the existing perceptions and incidents on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand are subject to debate, there is no doubt that South Africa is plagued by racism and xenophobia (Nel & Judge, 2008; Mamabolo, 2015). It should also be stated that the University of the Witwatersrand has been a cosmopolitan university since 1939 (Murray, 1982), but the perceptions on racism and xenophobia were never interrogated.

1.5 Preface to the research report

To this end, the report has six chapters. Following the introductory chapter, (Section 2.1) looks at the history and description of the Wits School of Governance with specific emphasis on its accomplishments, current projects, and the vast racial and ethnic diversity of its academics and students. Trends and patterns of racism and xenophobia in South Africa are discussed in (Section 2.2). Similar research approaches, designs, procedures and methods as well as findings and conclusions realised by past and current studies on racism and xenophobia are evaluated in (Section 2.3). This is followed by identifying the broad field of study encompassing this research in (Section 2.4). The broad field of study is described, and its purpose explained, together with its major components, processes, established facts, the key issues and debates around it in (Section 2.5). The theoretical or interpretive framework is discussed in (Section 2.6) and the conceptual framework is discussed in (Section 2.7). Chapter 3 focuses on the research strategy, design, procedure and methods. The quantitative research strategy was chosen, and the decision is influenced by (Sections 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3) of the literature review. The case research design was chosen as this research is focussed on the Wits School of Governance. The online questionnaire was used as a data collection instrument. The target population are the Wits School of Governance students who are employed in the public sector including Members of Parliament. The purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents to the research. Ethical considerations, data collection and storage, data processing and analysis, reliability and validity, and the administrative and technical limitations of the research were discussed. Chapter 4 is set out to present the research results by discussing all the issues raised under the two research questions and two hypotheses. Chapter 5 discusses the research findings using the results presented in chapter 4 and using a theoretical framework proposed in Chapter 2. Finally, Chapter 6 presents the knowledge gained from

undertaking this research. The chapter summarises and concludes the research as well as highlighting research limitations and recommendations.

2 **REVIEWING LITERATURE TO DERIVE THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Generally, this chapter sets out to achieve four objectives – that is, (i.) to detail the research problem or evaluation intervention, (ii.) to identify the research gap, (iii.) to develop a theoretical framework for interpreting the research findings, and (iv.) to propose a conceptual framework for informing how the research was undertaken. First, the write up introduces the research setting (Section 2.1: The Wits School of Governance in context) and describes the intervention (Section 2.2: Symptoms, root causes, and consequences of racism and xenophobia at learning institutions) to achieve the first objective. Second, the author reviews past and current studies and evaluations (Section 2.3: Methods, data, findings, and conclusions of previous studies on racism and xenophobia) to familiarise this research on strategies and designs as well as procedures and methods that were applied by similar studies to achieve the second objective. Third, the write-up identifies and discusses the academic field of research encompassing this research (Section 2.4: Broad field of study encompassing research), the key attributes that this research should pursue (Section 2.5: Key attributes or variables of interest to the research), and finally some theories that were applied to interpret the findings (Section 2.6: The theories of sociology) to achieve the third objective. Lastly, the author has proposed a conceptual framework for the research (Section 2.7: A conceptual framework) to achieve the fourth objective.

2.1 The Wits School of Governance in context.

The Wits School of Governance (WSG) is the physical context for this research and was chosen as it was identified as the only School within the University that is frequented by students who are Members of Parliament and civil servants. The physical context helps me to demarcate the boundary within which my research will take place.

The WSG is regarded as the best institution in the areas of governance, government policy and development management for the public sector. It was formed in 1993 and is the leader in the transformation of the Public and Development Management. It produces the largest number of postgraduates in Southern Africa. At its inception in 1993 it was known as the Graduate School of Public and Development

Management (P&DM) and the name was changed to the Wits School of Governance in 2014 (Wits School of Governance, 2014). The 2014 School of Governance Annual Report stated that student enrolment increased annually from 543 in 2009 to 837 in 2014 (Wits School of Governance, 2014). The 2015 Wits School of Governance Annual Report supported this steady increase and reported the 2015 figures at 1039 (Wits School of Governance, 2015). The WSG has a diverse student population from all race groups. Many international students come from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries of which South Africa is a member. In addition to South Africa, the SADC countries are Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Wits School of Governance, 2014). The 2015 Wits School of Governance Annual Report reported the percentage of female students at 51 per cent and that of male students at 49 per cent (Wits School of Governance, 2015).

The organogram of the WSG is depicted in Figure 1 below (Wits School of Governance, 2014).

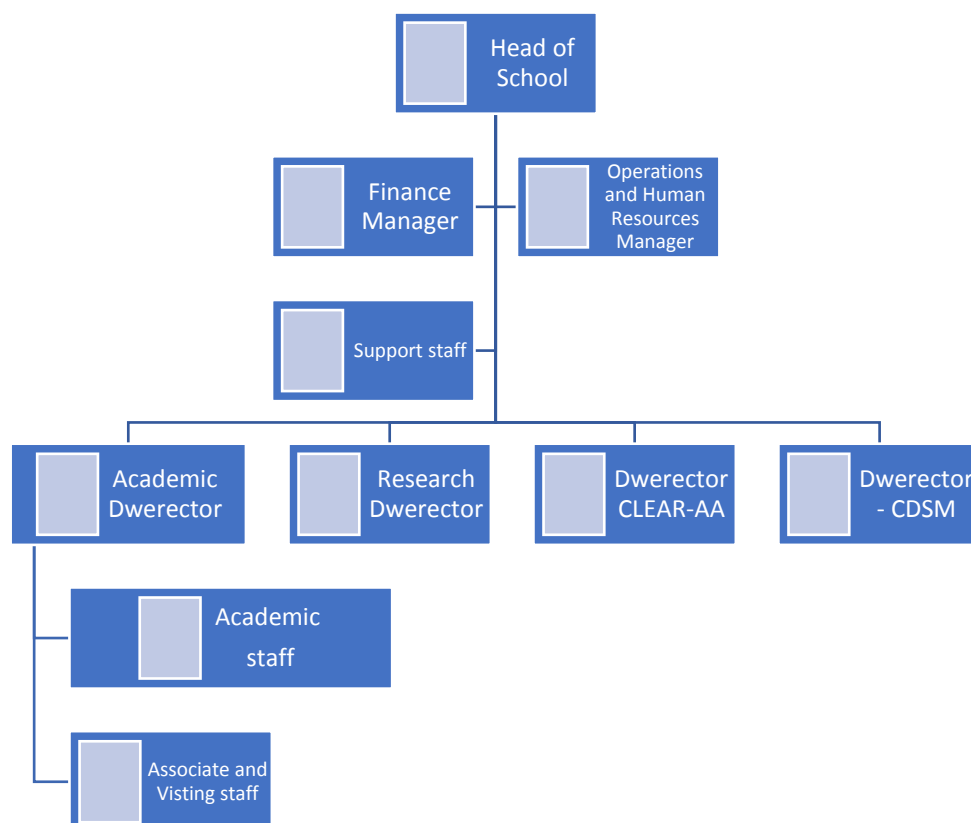


Figure 1: Organogram: WSG

(Source: Wits School of Governance, 2015)

The WSG formed local, national and international partnerships. The School developed cases of good practice for the Department of Performance Monitoring and Evaluation; designing policies for the City of Johannesburg entities; helped with the formation of the Industrial Suppliers Development Association; and was responsible for the assessment of the African Ombuds Research Centre. The School established an exchange programme between the University of the Witwatersrand and the University of Pittsburgh. In 2014, the WSG hosted American students for about six months and they achieved credits for the modules at the University of Pittsburgh. The Centre for Learning on Evaluation and Results Anglophone Africa (CLEAR-AA) and the Centre for Defence and Security Management (CDSM) are research centres. They secure contracts with the SADC countries and provide support with the aim of capacity building. The WSG also hosts leaders in both government and the private sector (Wits School of Governance, 2014). The WSG in collaboration with Wits School of Law, the Ahmed Kathrada Foundation, the Nelson Mandela Foundation, the Oliver & Adelaide Tambo Foundation and the Delegation of the European Union to South Africa presented Dialogue 4 in the Development & Rights Series on the 16th March 2016 and had discussed the question of whether racism should be criminalised. The seminar defined racism, the limits of the freedom of speech, and how to regulate hate speech (Wits School of Governance, 2016. p.14).

2.2 Symptoms, root causes, and consequences of racism and xenophobia in learning institutions.

In this section I discuss symptoms (Section 2.2.1), root causes (Section 2.2.2), and the consequences (Section 2.2.3) of racism and xenophobia in learning institutions. They will give light to what happens in racism and xenophobic incidents, why they happen, and what to do to reduce the likelihood of them occurring again. Furthermore, they will help me to develop the variables that will ultimately populate my questionnaire.

2.2.1 Symptoms.

The symptoms of racism and xenophobia are identified as negative stereotyping (Lerner, Roberts, & Matlala, 2009), and Campbell and Crush (2015) blamed negative stereotyping for violence against foreign nationals. Amisi, Bond, Cele, and Ngwane (2011) added that negative stereotyping was also the cause of conflicts between the apartheid government and black South Africans. Adjai and Lazaridis (2013) added discrimination and prejudice as symptoms of racism and xenophobia and Comaroff and Comaroff (2002) stated that the competition for scarce resources between locals and foreign nationals is the cause of the conflict. Hooghe, and De Vroome (2013) agreed with Comaroff and Comaroff (2002) when they stated that competition between social groups over scarce resources and values causes conflicts between those groups. Buthelezi (2009) concurred and stated that there was a perception among South Africans that legal immigrants deprive locals of jobs and services, while illegal migrants corrupt officials, cause crime and take limited resources away from poor South Africans. Commey (2013) further stated that although discrimination against foreigners is rife among the poor and middle-income South Africans, it is also found in government departments. Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, and Blyma (2003) conducted a research involving college students, and they found other symptoms such as verbal abuse, prejudice, poor service, and other forms of discrimination. Giddens and Sutton (2013) added other symptoms which are displacement, where people direct their frustrations towards those they despise instead of addressing the source of their frustrations, and scapegoating which is common when groups compete for economic resources and is often practiced by dominant groups towards minorities who are in the same economic position. Charman and Piper (2012) concur and refer to the harassment of Somali shopkeepers as competition for economic resources between local and foreign shopkeepers.

2.2.2 Root causes

Koenane and Maphunye (2015) identified socialisation as one of the root causes of racism and xenophobia. They defined socialisation as the way people are raised to be who they are and stated that people learn their mother tongues and culture through the process of socialisation. Straus and Nelson (1968), and Haralambos and Holborn (2008) concurred with the process of socialisation and

pointed out that it takes place over the lifetime of the individual. They further stated that most of the learning process takes place in childhood. They also made it clear that relatives, friends, colleagues, and schools, and learning material all play a role in the socialisation process. Unlike Koenane and Maphunye (2015) who blamed society for socialisation, they blamed parents and the family members of the child as primarily responsible for their socialisation. Henslin (2000) also agreed with the conceptualisation of the socialisation process and stated that religions, day care, school, peer groups, and the workplace also contribute to socialisation. Broom and Selznick (1973) highlighted the negative side of socialisation when it is used to encourage the oppression of one group by another. Tsheola, Ramoroka, and Muzondi (2015) expanded on this form of socialisation when they stated that the state institutions socialise people to be xenophobic by their incapacity to deliver the promises of a better life for all South Africans. Hagensen (2014) added another root cause of racism and xenophobia as the inefficiency of the government to provide basic services which had led to the scapegoating of foreign nationals. Khosa and Kalitanyi (2014) also blamed the South African government as one of the root causes of racism and xenophobia for failing to enforce the rule of law, and thereby being an enabler in the escalation of xenophobic violence. Another cause of racism and xenophobia as pointed out by (Simon, 2011), is the politicisation of immigration.

2.2.3 Consequences.

Tshishonga (2015) identified one of the consequences of racism and xenophobia as the negative image of South Africa and the economy also suffered especially during the Durban 2015 xenophobic violence as foreign nationals closed their businesses. Osuntokun (2011) added that racist and xenophobic attitudes lead to fear and hatred towards foreign nationals, as they were blamed for many things including the rise in crime rates. Mamabolo (2015) agreed with the scapegoating of foreign nationals, as he said that poverty and high rates of unemployment were blamed for the xenophobic violence especially in South Africa. He also stated that locals blamed foreign nationals for stealing their jobs and over time hatred developed. Canetti-Nisim and Pedahzur (2003) conducted a study that concluded that there was a relationship between exposure to terrorism and the development of hatred towards minorities and foreigners in the United States (US). Castles (1995)

stated that fear in Western countries is also caused by the realisation that migration leads to changes in the ethnic composition of the local populations. Fear of foreigners can best be explained by studies conducted in Western countries where Fairlie and Resch (2002) found that whites flee into private schools in the US in response to minorities flocking into public schools. Gerdes (2013) also found that Danish parents registered their children into private schools as the number of immigrants increased in public schools.

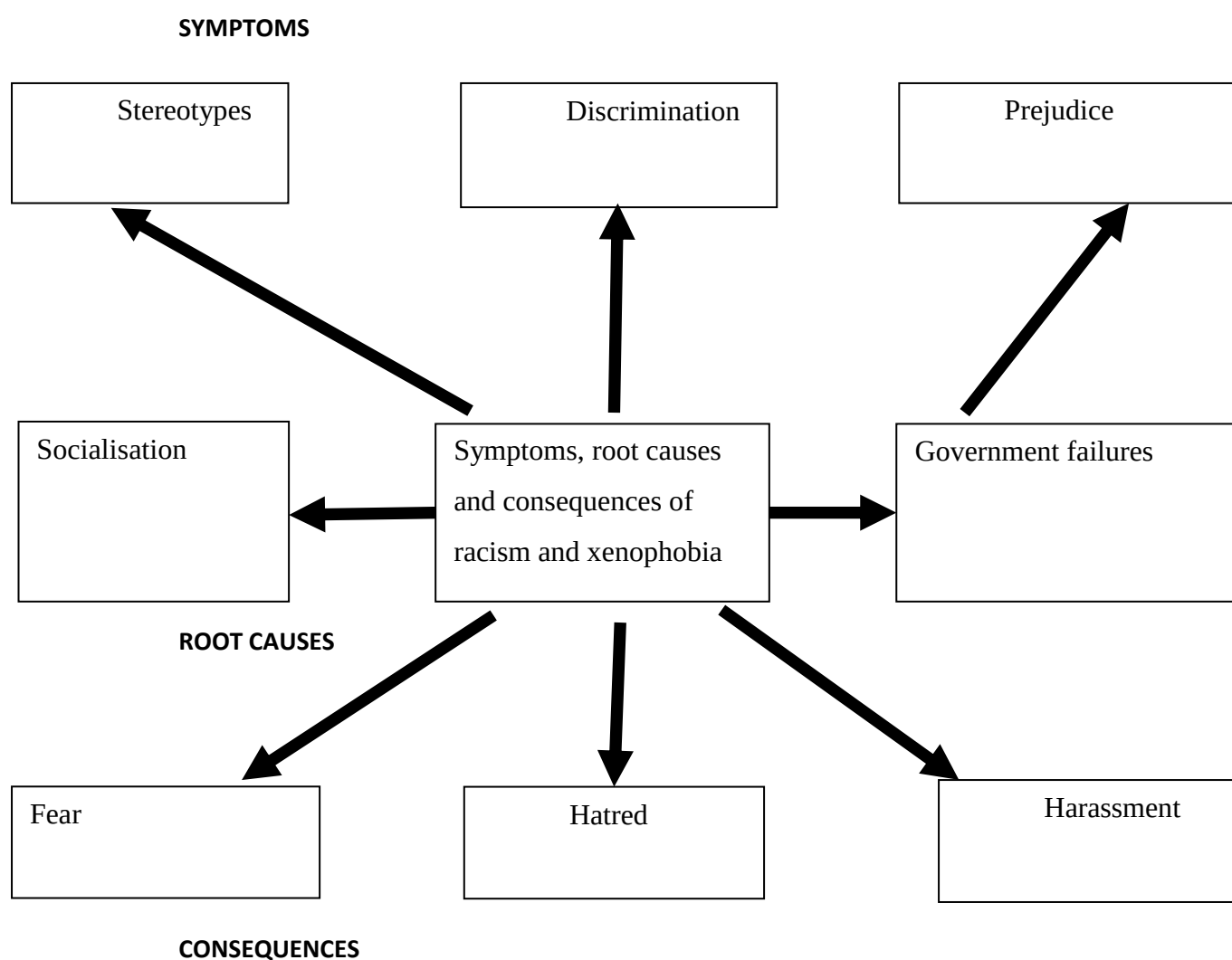


Figure 2: Problem Tree: Symptoms, root causes and consequences of racism and xenophobia

(Source: Haralambos & Holborn, 2000).

2.3 Methods, data, findings, and conclusions of previous studies on racism and xenophobia

In this section, I review and evaluate studies similar to this research. Firstly, research approaches, designs, procedures and methods as well as findings and conclusions realised by past and current studies on racism and xenophobia are evaluated. Secondly, the knowledge gap on the perceptions on racism and xenophobia is identified. The evaluation of previous and current research studies helped to establish some methodological options that are employed in this research.

Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) used a quantitative research strategy to assess perceptions of African American, Asian American, Latino and White undergraduates of the campus cultural climate. A case research design was adopted as the research was conducted at a mid-Atlantic university. First year and juniors were targeted for the research as they represented a range of exposure to the university campus. A questionnaire was used for data collection. They conducted the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test for racial and ethnic group differences on 11 factors. They highlighted categories of discrimination such as prejudicial attitudes, stereotyping, race-based discrimination, social and interracial and interethnic conflict. They reported that African American students perceived and experienced significantly more racial conflict on campus and racial-ethnic separation than did Asian American and White students. African American, Asian American and Latino students were significantly more likely than their White counterparts to experience pressure to conform to racial and ethnic stereotypes regarding their academic performance and behaviour. Their conclusion was that significant racial and ethnic group differences exist regarding perceptions and experiences of the campus cultural climate.

Another study by Beagan (2003) used a mixed research strategy, which is a survey and interviews, to examine ways racism is understood and experienced within one medical school and investigate the micro level interactional processes that may perpetuate inequality. A case research design was adopted as one Canadian medical school was selected. The research targeted 3rd year medical students (purposive sampling technique), and data was collected by both a questionnaire and face-to-face interviews. He applied theories such as everyday racism, and power inequities. He reported that students had generally indicated that race and racism really were not issues

in medical school. Overt racist incidents were rarely described in either class. Several students argued that racism was not an issue in medical school. Almost half of the survey respondents indicated that they heard offensive jokes in medical school; the most common category of such jokes was that concerning 'race' or ethnicity. He concluded that medical students from racialised minority groups may experience 'everyday racism', mundane daily practices which intentionally or unintentionally convey disregard, disrespect or marginality. Such experiences are particularly difficult to deal with.

Another study by Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, and Blyma (2003) used the mixed research strategy to study the everyday racism experiences of African American students. The research was conducted at a predominantly European American university and is therefore a case research design. A sample of African American students was randomly selected. The participants were supplied with diaries to record all instances of racism they experienced. The Factor Analyses of Emotions Scale and Post Diary Measures was used to analyse the data. They applied everyday racism as a theory. They highlighted categories of discrimination such as prejudice, individual racism, prejudiced attitudes, and discriminatory behaviour. The following results were reported: On average participants reported that the research increased their awareness of racism. Many of the incidents were nonverbal or involved comments that only implied prejudice and some incidents of bad service, staring, or rude behaviour. Another finding was that women were more likely to talk about the incidents with friends and more likely to behaviourally respond to perpetrators whereas African American men resist directly responding to racism because the response might be aggressive. The conclusions were that racist incidents had an emotional toll on the participants and decreased comfort levels.

Another study by Cole and Stuart (2005) was a small-scale research into the experiences of 28 British-born Asian and black, and overseas student teachers, who were following both Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) and school-based routes to qualified teacher status (QTS), in Sussex and Kent. A qualitative research strategy was used. A case research design across three institutions was adopted. Interviews were used to collect data. The results indicated worrying degrees of racism, xenophobia and general ignorance in schools in South-east England, a finding underscored by some recent interviews undertaken by a local council in the same region.

They highlighted categories of discrimination such as racism, xenophobia, stereotyping, contemporary racism, and institutional racism. The authors concluded that, to challenge this racism, xenophobia and ignorance, there is an urgent need to be proactive in undermining racism. This solution included the full implementation of the Race Relations (Amendment) Act in all educational institutions and the endorsement of the Stephen Lawrence Enquiry (Macpherson) Report's recommendation for the amendment of the National Curriculum to provide an education which deals with racism awareness.

Another study by Coker, Elliott and Kanouse et al. (2009) analysed cross-sectional data to describe the prevalence, characteristics, and mental health problems of children who had experienced perceived racial/ethnic discrimination. They sought to examine the relationship between socio-demographic factors and mental health problems with perceived racial or ethnic racism and xenophobia. They used a quantitative research strategy and the respondents were 5147 fifth-grade students and their parents from public schools in 3 US metropolitan areas. They used a questionnaire to collect data. They used chi-square test of homogeneity and logistic regression, multivariate logistic regressions, chi-square test and simple logistic to analyse data. They highlighted perceived racial and ethnic discrimination for in their discussion. They concluded that there is a relationship between perceived racial or ethnic racism and xenophobia among fifth graders and a variety of mental health disorders.

Another study by Bayaga (2011) used the quantitative research strategy to examine the elements defining collegiality (EDC). A case research design was adopted as the case was chosen in the Eastern Cape province. He used a questionnaire for data collection. Concepts such as cultural and/or class poverty, teacher expectation, student oppositional identity, identity crisis, multiculturalism; and categories of discrimination such as racism and xenophobia were highlighted in the study. The data was analysed using both analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis due to the two hypotheses posed. They reported more than half (53 per cent) of the respondents were females and less than half (47 per cent) were males. More than half (56 per cent) of the respondents' age was below 25 years. The results indicated that there was a relationship between racism and EDC. Secondly, there was a relationship between xenophobia and EDC. The findings also confirmed the racial and xenophobic climate of South Africans not willing to forfeit their conservative views on racism and xenophobia.

Another study by Bogart, Elliott and Kanouse et al. (2013) analysed cross-sectional data from existing studies to examine the contribution of perceived racial or ethnic racism and xenophobia to disparities in problem behaviours among preadolescent Black, Latino, and White youths. A quantitative research strategy was used. The research was conducted on fifth grade students and their parents in public schools. They used multivariate regressions to examine the relationships. They applied perceived race and ethnicity theories to the research. They concluded that eliminating discrimination could considerably reduce mental health disorders, including problem behaviours, among black and Latino youths.

Another study by Singh (2013) adopted a qualitative research strategy to research the Zimbabwean teacher's experiences of xenophobia in Limpopo schools. Data was collected from Zimbabwean teachers working within the Capricorn District of Limpopo province. The data collection tool employed was the interview. Teachers were asked to reflect on the incidents of xenophobia that involved them personally and took place within their work or home environment. The Integrated Threat Theory and Scapegoating Theory were applied to the research. Findings from the interviews revealed that Zimbabwean teachers experience xenophobia daily; xenophobic attacks on teachers escalate when there are incidents of xenophobia in the school community or the country; teachers experience xenophobia when local teachers' jobs come under threat (temporary posts, substitutes). Xenophobic attacks ranged from: verbal abuse, indirect insulting, to the chiding of foreign teachers from villages. The recommendations that were made by this research stated that Zimbabwean teachers should have equal status as local teachers. Xenophobic attacks on Zimbabwean teachers must be documented and Zimbabwean teachers in scarce skills areas who work in rural schools should be permanently employed.

Another study conducted by Singh (2013) used a mixed method research strategy to examine xenophobic practices amongst university students. A case research design was adopted as a historically black university in the Limpopo Province was selected. Theories such as the economic theory, frustration-aggression theory, conflict theory, socio-biological theory, psychoanalytic theory, avoidance conditioning theory, modelling theory and the cognitive theory were used in the research. A sample of fifty (n=50) students was selected from the foreign student component at the university

using the snowball sampling technique. Participation was voluntary and anonymous. The methods of data collection employed were questionnaires and interviews. Many of the students in the research (34) had come from Zimbabwe. This represented 68% of the total sample. A total of 42% (21 students) from the sample had personal experiences of xenophobia in South Africa, and the students also experienced discrimination by service-staff of the university.

Another study by Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer and Ulleberg (2013) used the quantitative research strategy to explore the relationships between fear related xenophobia, perceptions of out-group entitativity, and social contact in Norway. Participants were recruited from a sample of undergraduate students at two Norwegian universities and a snowball sampling of non-students was also conducted. A web page that included the entire survey was made available to the participants. Correlational and multiple regression analyses were used to analyse the data. They reported that respondents perceiving groups as entitative tended to have higher fear related xenophobic scores. They also concluded that while immigrants may seek to create closer bonds among themselves to challenge the negative images and discriminatory practices of the host culture, the native- born community may perceive them as a greater threat and react in a xenophobic manner.

Another study by Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) used quantitative research strategy to examine the attitudes of students towards the main disadvantaged groups and/or at risk of social exclusion. The research sample included 140 students, aged between 19 and 37 years old (including 70 women and 70 men), enrolled in the first, second and third year of research, 70 from humanities faculties and 70 from technical specialities. A questionnaire that included 40 items and a five-step Likert rating scale, where 1 indicates “strong disagreement” and 5 “strong agreement” with the contents of each item was constructed. The questionnaire items were grouped in 5 main dimensions, corresponding to 5 grounds of discrimination: race and ethnicity, religion, age, disability, sexual orientation was used to collect data. They used a stratified random sampling technique to select the respondents. They discussed concepts such as critical thinking, reflexivity, sensitivity to the needs of others, a sense of justice and equity in relationships, and attitudinal gender differences. They reported that women show greater levels of tolerance in two main aspects of racism and xenophobia included in the

research: ethnicity and sexual orientation. Significant differences were revealed in the same three dimensions which revealed differences between men and women (race and ethnicity, sexual orientation and religion). People who participated in an academic humanistic curriculum are more open to human values or, the specificity of their research profiles plays an important role as a differentiation element for the attitudinal outcomes. They concluded that females were generally more tolerant than male students on social racism and xenophobia, especially regarding the issue of homosexuality, confirming the wider hypothesis regarding the higher tolerances of women relative to men. Also, women were highly dominant in professions like education or social work, where the sensitivity, empathy, understanding and appreciation of otherness and diversity are capital values. Students from humanities was generally more open to the minorities issue and had greater respect for their rights as compared to their colleagues from sciences or engineering.

Another study by Museus, Sariñana and Ryan (2015) used the mixed research strategy to conduct a research whose aim was to increase the knowledge of mixed-race students in higher education by examining the ways in which they cope with experiences of prejudice and discrimination. A questionnaire to collect demographic details was supplied to the respondents and face to face interviews were conducted. They discussed concepts such as multiracial prejudice and discrimination, problem-focused behaviour, and avoidant behaviour. They reported that multiracial college students cope with prejudice and discrimination by educating others about multiracial issues.

Out of the previous studies similar to this research, only one was conducted in South Africa, and Bayaga (2011) stated that it was conducted in a university in the Eastern Cape Province, and even then, one element, which is xenophobia was studied. The previous studies led to the knowledge gap which is that a research similar to this, which is to explore perceptions on racism and xenophobia, was never conducted in a South African institution of learning. Therefore, it was never conducted at the University of the Witwatersrand, and specifically, it was never conducted at the physical setting for this research which is the Wits School of Governance.

2.4 An introduction to sociology

In this section, I identify the broad field of study encompassing this research and it is sociology. Major processes of sociology, and the key issues in the study of sociology are discussed in this section.

2.4.1 Major processes of sociology

Haralambos and Holborn (2000); Giddens (1993); Papalia and Olds (2006); Baron, Byrne and Branscombe (2006); and Townroe and Yates (1995) all agreed that social processes in sociology are composed of accommodation, assimilation (Allen and Turner, 1996), competition, cooperation and conflict. Haralambos and Holborn (2000) went on to define accommodation as ensuring good working relations amongst colleagues but it does not guarantee a lasting relationship. They stated that all parties tend to adopt an accommodating behaviour as a way of adapting to their current situation. They also added that assimilation is when aliens abandon their original customs, norms and values and blend in with the majority. Giddens (1993) also added that this is also the acceptance of the minority group by the majority. Haralambos and Holborn (2000) went on to state that assimilation provides a lasting solution to the problems created by bad race relations, and that competition is a struggle for resources. They also emphasized that competition supersedes cooperation when species fight for territory. Baron, Byrne and Branscombe, (2006) advised that communication is usually the remedy to compel communities to cooperate instead of competing. Papalia and Olds (2006) also added that prejudice develops because of competition for scarce resources and that conflict ensues when the interests of individuals or groups clash. Giddens (1993) stated that it is even worse when the other party believes that their interests are deliberately opposed, and Baron, Byrne & Branscombe (2006) also pointed out that this would develop into conflict when the interests of groups are not compatible. Townroe and Yates (1995) highlighted that conflict also occurs when the customs of the minority group are different from those of the majority.

2.4.2 Key issues in the study of sociology

Haralambos and Holborn (2000) stated that the major issue amongst sociologists is the question of whether sociology is a science because of the widespread assumption that science is objective and value free. Townroe and Yates (1995) also raised the key issue of objectivity when conducting research in sociology. They advised researchers to use standard scales of measurement, describe their methods fully and remain unbiased. They are also supported by Haralambos and Holborn (2000) who added that research should be reliable and valid. They highlighted the ongoing debate between proponents of quantitative and qualitative research strategies about which strategy is more reliable and valid. Thompson (1982) advised that sociology has different approaches and different theories and ways of investigation. She highlighted positivism, functionalism, symbolic interactionism, phenomenology and ethnomethodology, and Marxist sociology as some of the approaches. Haralambos and Holborn (2000) also raised another key issue and argued that the notion that the parts of a system exist because of their beneficial consequences for the whole is teleological. They also argued that the effect should not be treated as a cause and gave an example of an organism that is made of body organs and that it dies if some stop functioning whereas with some life would continue. They concluded that it is problematic to suggest a social institution will continue to exist because its effects are beneficial to society. (Giddens, 1993) disagreed with the critique as it is contrary with Durkheim's assertion that to research the function of a practice or institution, one must analyse the contribution that practice, or institution provides to society. OpenStax College (2016) also waded into the argument and stated that Herbert Spencer, an English sociologist who lived from 1820–1903, saw society as a structure with interrelated parts designed to meet the biological and social needs of the individuals in that society. It also stated that Spencer saw similarities between society and the human body. It further stated that Spencer argued that just as the various organs of the body work together to keep the body functioning, the various parts of society work together to keep societies functioning. Giddens (1993) supported OpenStax College (2016) and listed the parts of society that Herbert Spencer referred to as social institutions as government, education, family, healthcare, religion, and the economy. Baron, Byrne and Branscombe (2006) raised another key issue which conflict and stated that it ensues when the interests of different parties are not compatible. They also stated that conflict runs along divisions on status, political and economic issues. They said that conflict becomes more

pronounced when people compete for resources such as food and housing, jobs, and education, and that this is caused by inequality when some people manage to obtain more resources than others. Haralambos and Holborn (2000) raised an opposing view and stated that Ralf Dahrendorf, a German sociologist, had rejected Karl Marx's views on the Conflict theory as outdated. They stated that Ralf Dahrendorf is among some conflict theorists who stated that conflict between the owners and non-owners of property is along many lines and not just about class.

2.5 Key sociology attributes for assessing racism and xenophobia

The key sociology attributes for assessing racism and xenophobia are discussed under social inequality which is a major component of sociology. Social inequality was selected as the sociology component most relevant to this research as it houses racism and ethnicity. The focus was to discuss the sub-component, racism and ethnicity, to unearth the attributes or variables that relate to our research. Townroe and Yates (1995) defined racism as prejudice and discrimination that is determined by the belief that one race is superior to others. Giddens (1993) distinguished between prejudice and discrimination by stating that prejudice refers to opinions or attitudes held by members of one group about another, whereas discrimination refers to actual behaviour towards them. He further stated that people have favourable prejudices towards groups they identify with and negative prejudices against others. Townroe and Yates (1995) agreed with Giddens (1993) and said that racial discrimination occurs when a racist idea becomes a racist action. Haralambos and Holborn (2000) pointed out that prejudice and discrimination are broad concepts that can be applied to many issues. They highlighted that prejudices are learned beliefs and values, whereas discrimination is about actions, and they are both often based on stereotypes. Giddens (1993) expanded the discussion by stating that stereotyping is closely related to scapegoating. He also stated that scapegoating is common when ethnic groupings of poor economic background come together in competition for scarce resources. He further stated that scapegoating often leads to projection, where some groups blame their frustrations about their shortcomings on others.

2.5.1 Relationship between variables

Goode (1977) made it clear that prejudice and racism are phenomena that are practiced by all race groups irrespective of colour, and that means they cut across all forms of racism. Giddens (1993) also stated that prejudice can be described as attitudes or opinions by one group towards another and discrimination refers to the actual behaviour towards others, and that prejudices are mostly grounded in stereotypes. Giddens and Sutton (2013) explained that stereotypes are usually untrue generalisations about others, and Haralambos and Holborn (2000) stated that they are mostly learnt from childhood. Giddens (1993) further stated that stereotyping is closely related to displacement, which is a psychological term for misdirected anger or hostility. Haralambos and Holborn (2000) shared another dimension of prejudice and racism as they said it might also refer to other issues other than racism. They stated that the other issues are the peoples' physical appearances or gender. Giddens (1993) added that scapegoating is common when different ethnic groupings compete for scarce resources. He further stated some ethnic groups might take out their frustrations about life on to others. Giddens and Sutton (2013) shared a recent poll which found that half of all people who experienced challenges in their lives blamed immigrants or ethnic minorities, and Henslin (2000) stated that people who were unable to identify the source of their frustrations always find someone else to blame.

2.6 Established frameworks that can interpret empirical findings on perceptions of racism and xenophobia

The interventions that are mostly implemented in the prevention of racism and xenophobia have their foundation in theory. Many frameworks and theories were developed to understand and interpret the racism and xenophobia phenomena. Some of the frameworks or theories are the Critical Race Theory (Harper, Patton & Wooden, 2009), Everyday racism (Beagan, 2003), the Integrated Threat Theory, the Scapegoating Theory (Singh, 2013), and the Conflict Theory (Hammond, 2010). The frameworks interrogated in this section include, (i.) the Critical Race Theory, which states that it is useful for giving insight on race, and outlines the causes, consequences and manifestations of race, racism, inequity, and the dynamics of power and privilege, (ii.) Everyday racism, which states that it is useful for understanding micro level processes through which inequities of power based on racialised differences are experienced and

perpetuated in society, (iii.) the Integrated Threat Theory which states that four types of threats (realistic, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety, and negative stereotypes) cause prejudice, (iv.) the Scapegoating theory which states that there is the practice of singling out any party for unmerited negative treatment or blame as a scapegoat, as well as (v.), the Conflict theory which states that society is in a state of perpetual conflict due to competition for limited resources. According to the above explanations, Everyday racism is more appropriate to interpret perceptions on racism and xenophobia. It is discussed in depth below.

2.6.1 Everyday racism

Essed (1991) stated that Everyday racism focuses on racism as it manifests itself every day. It interprets the meanings and everyday racial practices. It also consists of repetitive practices of racism. She further stated that Everyday racism combines little theory with more practical experiences of people. The theory was developed by Philomena Essed in the 1980s. Eliasoph (1999) concurred as he stated that Everyday racism is best experienced in peoples' daily interactions. Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, and Blysm (2003) stated that Everyday racism incidents were nonverbal or involved comments that only implied prejudice and some incidents of bad service, staring, or rude behaviour. Their critique of the theory is that it is difficult to measure because of underreporting or overreporting of incidents by the participants. They further state that some of the incidents like staring or bad service are difficult to know whether they are discriminatory or not. Beagan (2003) concurred as he stated that Everyday racism takes subtle forms and is difficult to respond to as some incidents may appear of little importance and not worth fussing over. He further stated that it is when these incidents accumulate that they are viewed as not trivial. He explains that Everyday racism might take the form of segregation according to race or xenophobia targeting minorities. He cites some of the examples as racist jokes, racial teasing remarks, assumptions that minorities are not citizens and questions about where minorities originate from. In support of the above statements, Mellor, Bynon, Maller, Cleary, Hamilton, and Watson (2001) stated that in recent times racism or prejudice has taken a subtle form and is embedded deep in the psyches of the perpetrators. Victims are best able to identify racist or prejudicial tendencies hence the differences in interpretation between the perpetrators and the victims. What does not appear racist or prejudicial to the perpetrator might be so to the victim.

2.7 Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia: A conceptual framework

After introducing the research in Chapter 1 and reviewing the relevant literature in Chapter 2, this section provides the plan on how this research will be conducted. This conceptual framework is a summary of Sections 2.1 to 2.6 of the literature review. However, so far, none of the studies explored perceptions of both racism and xenophobia simultaneously in a university environment. The previous studies had either focused on racism or xenophobia and not both simultaneously. Further, Everyday racism is used to interpret the findings on racism and the Integrated Threat Theory is used to interpret the findings on xenophobia.

At this point, this research had sought to answer the two research questions, that is - 'To what extent are the differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?' and 'To what extent are the differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?' and had also sought to prove the two hypotheses, that is - 'There are significant differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance' and 'There are significant differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance'. The research questions and hypotheses had arisen from racism and xenophobia incidents and perceptions that took place at the University of the Witwatersrand main campus as reflected in the research problem statement in (Section 1.2.1).

Figure 4 below shows a summary of how the research will pan out from the key attributes of the research setting (Section 2.1), research problem analysis (Section 2.2), past and current studies and evaluations and the research knowledge gap (Section 2.3), locating the academic discipline (Section 2.4), key attributes or variables of sociology (Section 2.5), interpretive or theoretical frameworks (Section 2.6), and the proposed approach of the current study.

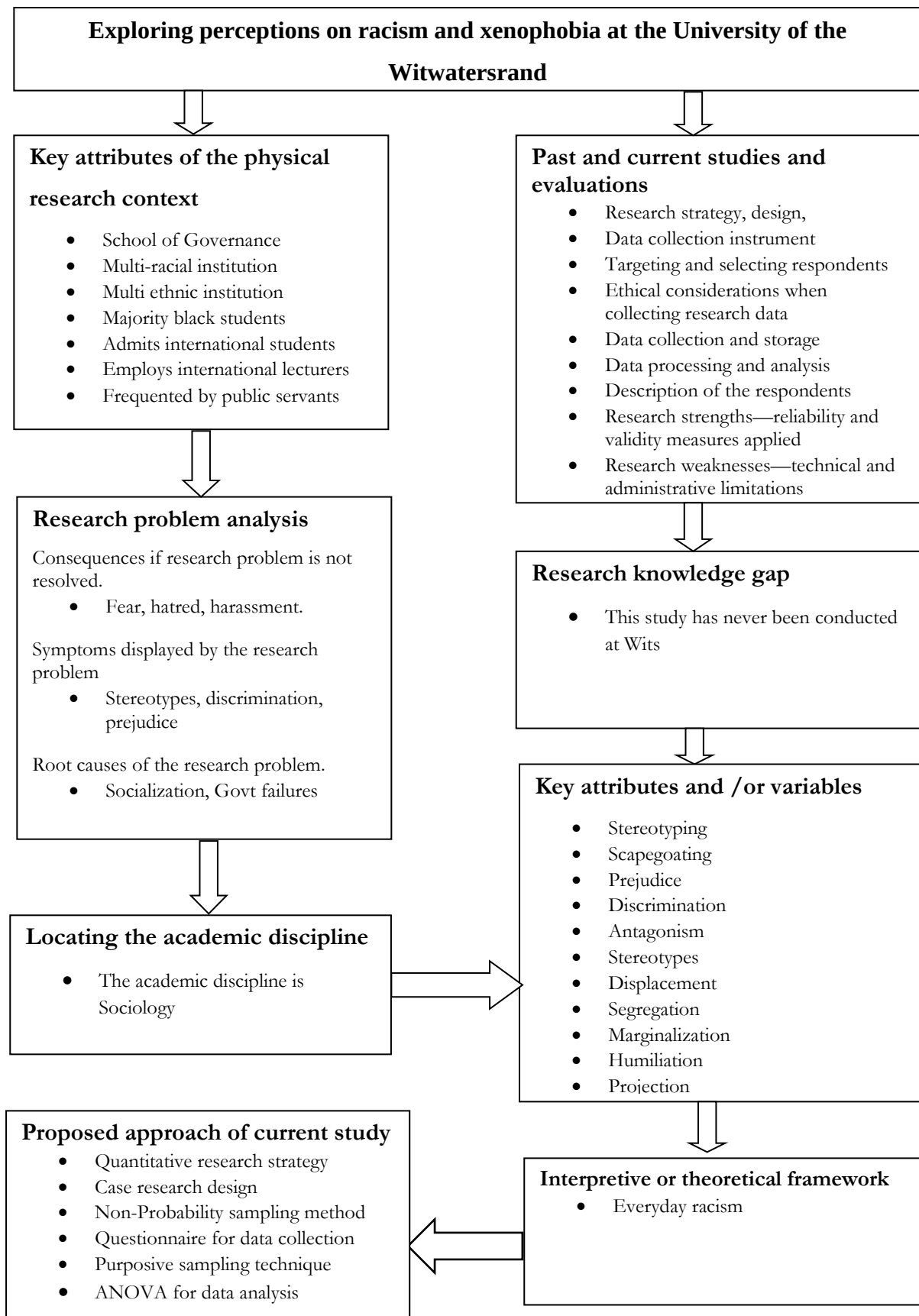


Figure 3: The conceptual framework

The purpose of this research is to explore the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance (WSG), hence the Wits School of Governance (WSG) was chosen as the physical setting. Literature shows that the WSG, which was formed in 1993, is frequented by students who are public sector employees (Wits School of Governance, 2014) and that served one of the purposes of this research which was to bring awareness and understanding of racism and xenophobia, and also influence government policy. The research problem analysis was articulated in Section 2.2 and the research explored the symptoms, causes and consequences of racism and xenophobia. The research also articulated the symptoms, causes and consequences of racism and xenophobia in line with the research problem statement and the accompanying purpose statement as well as the research questions and hypotheses. This research clarified some key terms and concepts in the research problem statement. The key terms were negative stereotyping (Campbell and Crush, 2015), competition for limited resources (Adjai & Lazaridis, 2013), socialisation (Koenane and Maphunye, 2015), basic services (Hagensen, 2014), poverty and unemployment (Mamabolo, 2015), and fear and hatred (Osuntokun, 2011). The consequences of racism and xenophobia helped to justify this research.

In section 2.3, this research explored methods, data, findings, and conclusions of 12 previous studies on racism and xenophobia. Most of the studies were conducted at learning institutions in the United States. The difference between the research problem analysis and the previous studies on racism and xenophobia had helped us to identify the knowledge gap. The studies that are in line with the proposed research strategy, research design, and the research procedure and methods in this research are highlighted. The first study is by Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000), the second study is by Coker, Elliott and Kanouse et al. (2009), the third study is by Bayaga (2011), the fourth study is by Bogart, Elliott and Kanouse et al. (2013), the fifth study is by Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer, and Ulleberg (2013), and the sixth study is by Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015). Also, this research has never been conducted at the University of the Witwatersrand in general and the WSG specifically. This research determined the academic field of study under which it is located which is sociology. The attributes or variables from which the questionnaire statements were identified are stereotyping, projection, scapegoating, prejudice,

discrimination, antagonism, displacement, segregation, marginalisation, and humiliation.

This research also discussed the established frameworks that can interpret empirical findings on perceptions of racism and xenophobia. The Critical Race Theory (CRT), Everyday Racism Theory, the Integrated Threat theory, the Scapegoating Theory, and the Conflict Theory were discussed. For interpreting the research findings for racism and xenophobia, Everyday racism was chosen. This research proposed the quantitative research strategy (Giurgiu, Marica, & Ionescù, 2015), the case study design (Singh, 2013), non-probability sampling method (Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer, & Ulleberg, 2013), online questionnaire for data collection (Bayaga, 2011), purposive sampling technique (Ancis, Sedlacek, & Mohr, 2000), and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Bogart, Elliott, & Kanouse et al., 2013) to analyse data.

3 RESEARCH STRATEGY, DESIGN, PROCEDURE AND METHODS

This chapter sets out to discuss and commit to a research strategy, design, procedure, and methods. Lastly, this chapter shares some reliability and validity measures as well as limitations of this research process. The literature was already reviewed in chapter 2 and an interpretative as well as conceptual framework that guides the choices of techniques to be used was developed. This chapter identifies and describes the research approach, design as well as procedure and methods that were employed in this research to collect, process, and analyse empirical evidence. Broadly, it has three objectives; namely, to identify and describe the research strategy (Section 3.1), the research design (Section 3.2), as well as the procedure and methods (Section 3.3). This chapter also describes the reliability and validity measures (Section 3.4) that this research applied to make it credible as well as the technical and administrative limitations of the choices that were made (Section 3.5).

3.1 Strategy

Creswell (2013) said that the entire process of research from conceptualising a research problem to writing research questions, collecting data, analysing and interpreting it, and lastly writing the report is called a research strategy. Bryman (2016) added that the research process guides the researcher on how to conduct social research. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012); McNabb (2013); Kumar (2014); and Bryman (2016) agreed that there are three approaches that are used in social research, which are the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed research strategies.

The methods, data, findings, and conclusions of previous studies on racism and xenophobia in the conceptual framework used the quantitative research strategy to conduct research. Therefore, in view of the above, this research chose the quantitative research strategy which McNabb (2013) defined as using numbers to describe data and the data collected is analysed statistically. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) supported the above statement as they stated that the information collected is in the form of numbers, and that it used data to describe or explain the phenomenon under study. Bryman (2016) pointed out that it emphasised quantification in the collection

and analysing data and the relationship between the theory and research is deductive. He further stated that it is structured, and the procedures explored are predetermined. Kumar (2014) added that it quantified the extent to which a phenomenon varied and sought to give substance to an assertion using a large sample size as a basis. This study committed to a quantitative research strategy because of the literature above and because Kumar (2014) said that it attaches a high value to the validity and reliability of the findings and its conclusions can be generalised.

The following studies also strengthened the commitment to the quantitative research strategy as they explored perceptions on racism and xenophobia, and also used the quantitative research strategy. In the first study, Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer and Ulleberg (2013) chose the quantitative research strategy to explore the relationships between fear-related xenophobia, perceptions of out-group entitativity, and social contact in Norway. Their objective was to measure the relationship between fear-related xenophobia and the inclination of minority groups to stick together as one entity. The first study also studies perceptions on xenophobia which is similar to this research and it has committed to the quantitative research strategy which is also similar to the commitment of this research. In the second study, Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) also committed to a quantitative research strategy to assess perceptions and experiences of the campus cultural climate by race. Also, the second study studies perceptions on race which is similar to this research and it has committed to the quantitative research strategy which is also similar to the commitment of this research. In the third study, Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) used the quantitative research strategy to identify perceptions and attitudes of students regarding discrimination of vulnerable groups based on race or ethnicity, religion or belief, age or disability, or of sexual orientation. Specifically, it examined the attitudes of students towards the vulnerable groups who are at risk of being excluded socially. The third study followed the same trend as the first two studies as it studies perceptions regarding discrimination of vulnerable groups.

All the above studies are very beneficial to this research as they committed to the quantitative research strategy to explore perceptions on racism and xenophobia in learning institutions. Moreover, the study by Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) helped the university to improve their transformation workshops for faculties; prejudice

reduction workshops for students and staff; diversity courses; and further disseminated information related to diversity issues on the internet. This talks to the aims of this research which is to bring awareness, ensure understanding and influence policy on racism and xenophobia at Wits. The preceding research strategy leads us to the research design which is influenced by the location in which the research takes place.

3.2 Design

Bryman (2016) stated that a research design is a framework that helps generate evidence for answering the research question that is of interest to the researcher and that it is the criteria that was used to evaluate social research. Kumar (2014) warned that an unsound research design leads to misleading findings, comparisons, and conclusions. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) illustrated that it is like a building manual that specifies the building plans, the amount of materials needed, and the costs involved. Bryman (2016) pointed out that there are five types of research design and they are the experimental design, the cross-sectional design, the longitudinal design, the case research design, and the comparative design. McNabb (2013) listed the different kinds of the case research design as the single, multi and cross case designs. He explained the multi or cross case designs as those that compare one case to the other. Creswell (2013) informed the reader that the case is studied within a specific and current physical context and the word 'case' associates the research with a specific location. Bryman (2016) concurred as he said that the physical context or setting is studied intensively, and it can either be a person, a group of people, an occurrence, a residential area, or a city. Kumar (2014) pointed out that for it to be termed a case, the whole research population should be treated as one entity, and it should have boundaries. Some previous studies on racism and xenophobia in Section 2.3 used the case research design and therefore, in view of the above, the case research design was chosen as the research design for this research.

The following are studies that used the case study design to explore perceptions on racism and xenophobia. The first study is Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer et al. (2013) who recruited undergraduate students from two Norwegian universities and non-students through the snowball sampling technique. The cases were two universities. The study has not given reasons for recruiting students from two universities and then non-students. The participants were treated as one population hence the reluctance to

call it a multi or cross case design as there are no comparisons involved, and it qualified to be called a single case study design. The first study committed to a case research design which is similar to this research and is also studying perceptions on discrimination. The second study was conducted by Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) at a mid-Atlantic university. The case is the mid-Atlantic university. It has specific boundaries and the population from whom the sample was selected is treated as one entity. This is a single case study as there were no comparisons made with other cases. The purpose of the study was to assess perceptions and experiences of the campus cultural climate by race. The cases study looked at many factors within the case. The factors are racial tension, cross-cultural comfort, diversity awareness, racial pressures, fair treatment, faculty racism, residence hall tensions, respect for other cultures, lack of support, comfort with own culture, and overall satisfaction. This also meets one of the case study criteria which required that the physical context or setting should be studied intensively. This case study is relevant to this research as it has focused at one case which is the mid-Atlantic university. The third case study was conducted by Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) to identify perceptions and attitudes of students regarding discrimination of vulnerable groups based on race or ethnicity, religion or belief, age or disability, or of sexual orientation. The case was a Romanian university. This a single case study as it focused at one university. The case study was guided by two hypotheses, the first of which highlighted significant differences between male and female participants in terms of perception and rights of minority groups. The second hypothesis started by assuming that there are significant differences among the attitudes and values universe of students in different faculties. This case has specific boundaries as it has been in a university. The case study had proven the two hypotheses to be true. The study was comprehensive as it studied the perceptions and attitudes of students regarding discrimination of marginalised groups both according to gender, and across faculties.

The three studies above all used the case study design to explore perceptions on racism and ethnicity in learning institutions and this has strengthened the commitment of this research to the case study design. The preceding research design leads us to the procedure and methods.

3.3 Procedure and methods

This section seeks to provide detailed specifications on how the research was conducted, detailing the type of instrument used to collect data (Section 3.3.1), the target population that was studied and the sampling techniques (Section 3.3.2) used, further demonstrating the ethical considerations (Section 3.3.3) applied when conducting this research. The section further focusses onto aspects of data collection and storage (Section 3.3.4), data processing and analysis (Section 3.3.5), and the description of the respondents (Section 3.3.6).

3.3.1 Data collection instrument

Bryman (2016) explained that data collection is one of the most important parts of any research project. He made an example of interviews and questionnaires as the most familiar forms of data collection. Kumar (2014) said that data can be either primary or secondary data. Primary data is data that was collected from primary sources and secondary data was collected from secondary sources. Moreover, secondary data was collected through documents such as government publication, earlier research, census, personal records, client histories, and service records. McNabb (2013) added that data collection might include asking people to complete a questionnaire, and it could also be conducting interviews or examining case studies. He further stated that researchers used many and different approaches when collecting data but the two most commonly used methods are observation and the survey research design. Kumar (2014) listed observation, interviews and the questionnaire as used to collect primary data. He also pointed out that the interview schedule is like a questionnaire, and the only difference is that in a questionnaire the participants fill the forms and in the interview schedule, the researcher fills the forms.

Based on the above literature, this study committed to the interview schedule, which Kumar (2014) defined above as like a questionnaire and further explains that it is a list of questions that are given to participants in writing for their responses, and that the participants record their responses on their own. He continued and stated that a questionnaire can also be mailed to prospective participants or using collective administration, and the researcher can distribute the questionnaire to the participants in a room, classroom, hall or any suitable location. Questionnaires can also be emailed or

placed on the web for respondents to fill. Bryman (2016) added that the questions in a questionnaire are like questions in a structured interview. McNabb (2013) pointed out that the survey research design also lists questions and collect them together in a questionnaire which is sometimes called a survey instrument. He warned that the questions in a questionnaire should be worded so that all the participants could understand what is being asked. They should be short, clear and organised logically, and double-barrelled questions should be avoided.

Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) supported the use of the questionnaire as a suitable data collection method from large groups of people in a short space of time. They also listed the numerous numbers of ways the questionnaires can be completed by the participants which are by handwriting; via internet, face to face or by telephone. Bryman (2016) said that the questions in a questionnaire are structured and close ended questions dominate and are easier to answer. He compared the self-administered questionnaire to the structured interview as similar with the only difference being that a structured interview is conducted by the researcher and he records the responses and the questionnaire is completed by the participants. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) described the interview as composed of three types which are the structured, semi-structured and unstructured interview.

Based on the above literature, this study committed to a research data collection instrument that is fully structured. Also, the three previous studies that used the questionnaire, which is fully structured, to collect data are discussed below. In the first study, Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer et al. (2013) used a questionnaire for collecting data. The study sought to explore the relationships between fear-related xenophobia, perceptions of out-group entitativity, and social contact in Norway. The research instrument was fully structured and the statements were close-ended. A Mokken scale procedure was used to construct the scale. The study had adopted the statements from fear-related xenophobia national samples from the USA, Norway and the Netherlands. The above statements require yes or no responses. In the second study, Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) sought to assess perceptions and experiences of the campus cultural climate by race. A questionnaire for collecting data was used. A Cultural Attitudes and Climate Questionnaire (CACQ) was adopted as a data collection instrument. It was also used to measure students' perceptions and experiences of the university racial and ethnic

climate. Participants responded to 100 statements on the campus climate using a Likert type scale. In the third study, Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) sought to identify perceptions and attitudes of students regarding discrimination of vulnerable groups based on race or ethnicity, religion or belief, age or disability, or of sexual orientation. A questionnaire was used for collecting data. It was developed to include 40 items and a five-step Likert rating scale. The Likert rating scale had ranged from 1 to 5, where 1 was strong disagreement to 5 which was strong agreement. The questionnaire items had been grouped in 5 main dimensions, corresponding to 5 grounds of discrimination: race and ethnicity, religion, age, disability, and sexual orientation.

The above three studies are beneficial to this research as it intends using a fully structured interview schedule (questionnaire) with a Likert type scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree to collect data.

The literature review helped this study to source questions or statements that populated the questionnaire. The statements were sourced from the perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand in the research problem statement (Section 1.2.1), and from the methods, data, findings, and conclusions of previous studies (Section 2.3), and lastly from key sociology attributes for assessing racism and xenophobia (Section 2.5). The previous studies were also the source of the statements. The first, Coker, Elliott and Kanouse et al. (2009), used two questions to measure perceived racial/ethnic discrimination. The participants have been asked, “Have you ever been treated badly because of your race or ethnicity?” and, “Have you ever been treated badly because of the colour of your skin?” In the second study by Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer et al. (2013), the following statements were adopted: (1) Interacting with immigrants makes me uneasy, (2). With increased immigration, I fear that our way of life will change for the worse, (3) I am afraid that our own culture will be lost with increase in immigration, (4) I doubt that immigrants will put the interest of this country first, (5). Immigration in this country is out of control. In the third study, Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Yakushko and Higler (2011) used the following statements to assess xenophobic attitudes in the Netherlands, Norway and the United States of America: (1). Immigration in this country is out of control. (2). Borders should be made more secure to prevent immigrants from entering this country. (3). Immigrants cause increase in crimes. (4). Immigrants take jobs from people who are here already. (5).

Interacting with immigrants makes me uneasy. (6). I enjoy interacting with immigrants. (7). It is OK for immigrants to stay close to their cultural roots. (8). I would welcome interaction with immigrants. (9). I worry that immigrants may spread unusual diseases. (10). I am afraid that in case of war or political tension, immigrants will be loyal to their country of origin. (11). I trust immigrants will support my country in times of crisis. (12). With increased immigration, I fear that our way of life will change for the worse. (13). I doubt that immigrants will put the interest of this country first. (14). I am afraid that our own culture will be lost with increase in immigration.

3.3.2 Targeting and selecting respondents

3.3.2.1 Target population

McNabb (2013) said that all the set of elements that are measurable can be called a target population, and that it can be products, workers, customers, firms, prices, and any other item the researcher is interested in, and it is also called universe. Bryman (2016) informed the reader that the sample is selected from the target population. Kumar (2014) shared similar views when he said that the research population is the universe from which a sample is selected. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) stated that large samples to make predictions about a target population are most suitable when conducting quantitative research.

The population of this research were the Masters in Management students who were public servants and attended classes in the 2017 Block Release intake at the Wits School of Governance (WSG) in Johannesburg, South Africa. Out of the 49 study participants 27 (55%) were female and 22 (45%). The majority (82%) of the participants were South African nationals while the remainder (18%) were non-South Africans. All of the respondents were employed in government, with just above half (51%) working in the executive arm, less than a third (29%) in the legislative arm and a fifth (20%) in the judicial arm of government. A fifth (20%) of the study participants were employed at local government level, more than a third (39%) at provincial level and the majority (41%) at national government level. The link of the online questionnaire was distributed to all the students but only the public servants participated in the research. The reason of sending the questionnaire to all the students was because the Wits School of Governance, and the Office of the Registrar at Wits University could

not distinguish between students who are public servants, in the private sector, self-employed, or unemployed. The online questionnaire was designed to allow only students who declared in the questionnaire to be employed in the Public Sector to proceed and participate in the research.

The following studies highlighted the influence of public servants in society. In the first study, Handmaker and Parsley (2001) highlighted the negative influence that public servants could have on society, and that included the police, in disadvantaging refugees and migrants. In the second study, Hagensen (2014) stated that politicians and public servants denied xenophobia in South Africa in May 2008 and declared it a crime of violence. This led to the delayed response by the state to protect foreign nationals.

3.3.2.2 Sampling or selecting respondents from the target population

McNabb (2013) stated that researchers use samples to make decisions based on probabilities. Also, they use many techniques to select reliable samples cost effectively. He further stated that there are probability and non-probability sampling strategies; single unit of cluster of units; non-stratified or stratified sample; equal unit probability or unequal probability; and single-stage or multistage sampling. Creswell (2012) pointed out that the researcher makes the decision about what needs to be made about who or what should be sampled, what form the sampling will take, and how many people or sites need to be sampled. Bryman (2016) added that it is important for the sample to be representative of the population. Also, samples should be appropriate to the purpose of the research.

This research committed to a purposive sampling strategy which Bernard (2013) stated is suitable when the researcher decided the purpose he wants the participants to serve. He likened it to quota sampling except that the researcher has no way of knowing his population and can only take whatever participants he can get. Babbie (2016) concurred and stated that it is appropriate for the researcher to select a sample from a population he knows, its characteristics, and in line with the purpose of the research. Padgett (2016) concurred with the above authors and emphasised that answering the research questions should be the determinant of a sampling technique chosen. She also confirmed that the purposive sampling technique is suitable for that purpose.

The following are studies that used the purposive sampling strategy for sampling and the first study is by Duffield (2013) who conducted a study to explore the experiences of the foreign nationals who had experienced the 2008 xenophobic violence. His target population were explicitly African foreigners displaced by the recent violence. The second study by Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) used the purposive sampling strategy to select a sample that included 140 students, aged between 19 and 37 years old (including 70 women and 70 men), enrolled in the first, second and third year of research, 70 from humanities faculties and 70 from technical specialities. In the third study, Singh (2013) conducted a study to examine Zimbabwean immigrant teachers' experiences and thoughts on xenophobia in South Africa. He used a purposive sampling technique to limit the study to Zimbabwean teachers in Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Jozini.

All the above studies make the commitment of this research to the purposive sampling technique stronger as they are conducted in similar circumstances and similar topics.

3.3.3 Ethical considerations when collecting research data

McNabb (2013) said that the participation of the research subjects should be completely voluntary, and that all experiments that might lead to death or disability must not be conducted. Bryman (2016) added that the identities and records of participants should be kept confidential, and the participants have the right to agree or not agree to participate in a research. Creswell (2013) advised that the participants should complete a consent form and the right of participants to voluntarily withdraw from the research at any time should be included. The paragraph below represents the researcher's bio sketch declaring interest in the research.

The student is a Master of Management (Public Development and Management) student at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. He conducted this research in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Management (Public Development and Management). In the research, he explored the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. He also sought to prove the hypothesis, that is - "There are significant differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male

and female students at the Wits School of Governance.’ The research was self-sponsored by the student. The research is the property of the University of the Witwatersrand and the researcher will not deceive the community in any way. The results of this research will not be used to harm participants. They will be used to contribute new knowledge into academia.

The student received permission from the Head of School of the Wits School of Governance to conduct research at the School; the University Ethics Committee also gave its approval, and the Office of the Registrar gave permission for the student to conduct research at the University. The Office of the Registrar distributed the online questionnaire to the participants so that the student could not have contact with them. A Participant Information Sheet explaining the purpose of the research and the importance of participation was sent to the participants by the Office of the Registrar. Also, permission was sought by the student from the participants for their participation in the research. A consent form was supplied to the potential participants by the Office of the Registrar for their permission to participate in the research. The consent form informed the participants of their right to voluntarily withdraw from the research at any time. It also informed them of the purpose of the research and the procedures that was used when collecting data. It emphasised the protection of the confidentiality of the respondents. All the known risks associated with participation in the research were pointed out. Any benefits that would accrue to the participants of the research were also pointed out. The participants were informed that completing the online questionnaire and clicking submit was regarded as consent. The student tried not to include offensive and insensitive questions in the questionnaire, and the participants were informed that if they feel stressed or uncomfortable when completing the questionnaire, they had a right to immediately withdraw from the exercise. The participants could withdraw from the research without consequences. The questionnaire did not require the filling of names of the participants. There was anonymity and confidentiality as the student had no way of knowing the names of the participants. After the data is collected and analysed, it will be handed over to the University of the Witwatersrand for safe keeping.

3.3.4 Data collection and storage

Bryman (2016) stated that data collection is one of the most important periods of a research project, and that interviews and questionnaires are the most familiar methods of data collection. Also, the questionnaire entailed a structured approach to data collection, and a structured interview was used in survey investigations, and includes structured questions. Kumar (2014) listed observation, interviews and questionnaires as useful for collecting data from primary sources. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) named documentary analyses as one of the data collection techniques. Also, observation can be differentiated into the complete participant, the participant as observer, the observer as participant, and the complete observer. Creswell (2013) also named other types of data collection available to the researcher which are the telephone interview, a focus-group interview, or a one-on-one interview.

This research committed to use an on-line questionnaire as a mode of data collection and Hunter (2012) stated that e-questionnaires offered the researcher an inexpensive, quick and convenient way to collect data. He further stated that to get the best results from e-questionnaires, the recipients should be targeted carefully and that the value of their potential contribution to the project should be emphasised. He added that e-questionnaires should be convenient, quick and easy to access, and be set out in a way that encourages full and complete responses. Ward, Clark, Zabriskie and Morris (2012) added that on-line data collection gives the researcher access to large populations. They also stated that on-line data collection leads to financial savings when compared to paper/pencil methods. Wilt, Condon and Revelle (2012) chose to use the Greek word telemetrics and they defined the online data collection mode as collecting data from afar. They also called it web-based research and agree with the above authors that it is cost-effective and is able to collect data from a large population.

The questionnaire for this research was divided into three sections. The first section was biographical information; the second were five close ended statements on racism, and one open ended question, and the third were five close ended statements on xenophobia, and one open ended question. The online questionnaire was accessed as per this link: <https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/HJ9J89X>

The following are previous studies that used online questionnaires for data collection. In the first study, Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer et al. (2013) used an online questionnaire to collect data in exploring the relationships between fear-related xenophobia, perceptions of out-group entitativity, and social contact in Norway. In the second study, Ancis, Sedlacek and Mohr (2000) also used an online questionnaire for data collection in assessing perceptions and experiences of the campus cultural climate by race and ethnicity. In the third study, Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) used an online questionnaire to collect data in identifying perceptions and attitudes of students regarding discrimination of vulnerable groups based on race or ethnicity, religion or belief, age or disability, or of sexual orientation. All the three studies above are beneficial to this research as they share similar strategies, designs, and data collection instruments. Moreover, they study similar subjects in similar environments.

For data storage, Creswell (2013) listed many ways to store the raw data and said these depend on the type of information collected. He advised that back-up copies of the raw data should be made, and high-quality tapes should be used when recording interviews. Also, a master list of all the information gathered from the participants should be made. Bryman (2016) pointed to the use codes as a way of identifying the files and keep them in a locked compartment, and that no data collection instrument should have the participants' names. This research data and all other relevant documents will be stored safely with the University of the Witwatersrand library.

3.3.5 Data processing and analysis

3.3.5.1 Data processing

McNabb (2013) listed two types of statistics that are used in the quantitative research strategy as descriptive and inferential statistics. Kumar (2014) said that the information collected is called raw data or simply data and the researcher should first make sure the data is clean, and that means it should be free from inconsistencies and incompleteness. After cleaning the data, it should be coded. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) then pointed out that the research data should be collected with the purpose of drawing conclusions about the problem under investigation. McNabb (2013) advised that during the coding process, research data is fractured, conceptualised, and integrated to form theory. It is also beneficial for the microanalysis stage of the

data. It includes both the first and second stages of coding. Bryman (2016) stated that coding is good for data in an unstructured form. Responses in interviews and questionnaires; newspaper articles, television programmes, and behaviour in a school classroom can be coded to quantify and analyse such materials. Kumar (2014) continued the process and said that after the data was cleaned, the next step is to code it. He further stated that coding is influenced by the way the variable was measured and the way the researcher wants to communicate his research to his readers. He also listed some types of computer programs for data analysis such as the IBM SPSS Statistics, SAS, and NVivo software packages. He further advised that a researcher should be familiar with the appropriate software package before analysing data. McNabb (2013) supported the argument by Kumar (2014) as he said that the IBM SPSS is the most revered data analysis software package in quantitative research and that in it the researcher could create, modify, and analyse very large sets of data. It also produces tables, charts, and graphs and there is no limit to the number of subjects or variables it can process at any one time. All information entered in an IBM SPSS should be treated as numerical data. Only numbers should be entered for processing. Kumar (2014) added that editing data can be done in two ways. First, the researcher should examine all the answers to one question or variable at a time. Second, he should examine all the responses given to all the questions by one respondent at a time. McNabb (2013) had pointed out that all the responses to all items in the research should be tabulated, and that all the answers to each question should be counted. The response counts are referred to as frequency distributions.

The study was conducted by exploring the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance using an online questionnaire to collect data. Permission was granted by the Head of School of the Wits School of Governance for the researcher to conduct research amongst its students, the ethical clearance certificate from the University of the Witwatersrand and permission from the Office of the Registrar to conduct research at the University premises. After the permissions were granted, the researcher emailed the link of the online questionnaire to the university Deputy Registrar for distribution to the participants. The responses were captured and entered into a Microsoft excel spreadsheet, duplicated and stored on One Drive and in a computer.

3.3.5.2 Data analysis

McNabb (2013) advised researchers to put in place some order to the data and determine their meaning and/or implications. After the determination, a relation between the findings and the original research question and objectives should be established. Kumar (2014) gave researchers options as he said that they can use a computer or do it manually to analyse coded data. He pointed out that manual analysis of data is even more achievable if the number of participants is small. Manual analysis is useful only for calculating frequencies and for simple cross-tabulations. McNabb (2013) stated that the steps to analysing quantitative data are to know what is typical in the sample; to know how widely the respondents differ in their responses; to see how the participants are distributed across the research variables; to show how the different variables relate to one another; and to describe any differences among the two or more groups or objects. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) stated that the interpretation and analyses of data should obtain the most meaningful information from it. He further stated that it is important for the researcher to check that the data capturing was done correctly. Missing data, incorrect values, and inconsistencies should be cleaned before the analysis. McNabb (2013) continued with the discussion and pointed out that there is a significant number of data analysis procedures in quantitative research. He listed the multivariate procedures developed for data analysis as multiple regression analysis, partial regression, path analysis, multiple dimensional scaling, multiple analyses of variance, analysis of covariance, multiple discriminant analysis, factor and cluster analysis, conjoint analysis, and others.

This research committed to the quantitative data analysis which Bryman and Cramer (2011) said it had generated and drawn upon quantitative data. They stated that an index with more than 10 per cent of missing data, was declared as missing for that participant. The previous research that is most like this research by Bayaga (2011) used both the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis to analyse data, and these two analyses will also be pursued in this research. This research developed a 10 item Likert type scale and Cronbach's Alpha was used to determine its internal consistency, and Bonett and Wright (2015) stated that it is the most widely used measure of reliability. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) stated that a high coefficient alpha does not always mean a high degree of internal consistency because the length of the test affects alpha. Different reports suggested that the acceptable values of alpha range

from 0.70 to 0.95. A low value of alpha could be due to a low number of questions. The t-test was used to test the hypothesis, and Vogt, Gardner, Haeffele and Vogt (2014) stated that it was used to study differences amongst groups using one t-test after another. This research had also adopted the use of the inter-item correlation as Keig, Brouthers, & Marshall (2015) had said that it should not exceed the recommended .30 threshold and all items with an inter-item correlation of $<.30$ or $>.7$ should be considered for removal. Piedmont (2014), however, had suggested that a range of between .20 and .40 is acceptable. This research had further committed to calculate the mean and standard deviation and Leys, Ley, Klein, Bernard, and Licata (2013) had advocated for the use of 2.5 or even to 2 standard deviations around the mean in detecting outliers. Hjern (2005) had developed a xenophobic index varying between 0 and 100 and had applied the Pearson's R to calculate the correlation between xenophobia and the statements in the questionnaire.

The following are studies that used the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to analyse data. In the first study, Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer et al. (2013) used the ANOVA to explore the relationships between fear-related xenophobia, perceptions of out-group entitativity, and social contact in Norway. They used a case study design as they focused on students in two different universities and then on non-students. Participants had been recruited from a sample of undergraduate students in social science at two Norwegian universities and a snowball sample of non-students. The study had adopted the hierarchical regression analysis to assess the unique, as well as the combined, effects of the main predictor variables on fear-related xenophobia. In the second study, Ancis, Sedlacek, Mohr (2000) used the ANOVA to assess perceptions of African American, Asian American, Latino and White undergraduates of the campus cultural climate. The study had taken place at a large mid-Atlantic university and the target population were students. The study had stated that in the United States of America (USA), educational institutions register diverse students and their experiences of campus life are different. The study has stated that non-white students experience lack of support and feel unwelcome in predominantly white educational institutions. The non-white students had experienced discrimination on campus, in faculties and in classrooms. The researcher had conducted a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to test for racial and ethnic group differences on the 11 factors. In the third study, Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) used the ANOVA to identify

perceptions and attitudes of students regarding discrimination of vulnerable groups based on race or ethnicity, religion or belief, age or disability, or of sexual orientation. Specifically, it has examined the attitudes of students towards the vulnerable groups who are at risk of being excluded socially. A case study design had been adopted as the research was conducted in a Romania university. The sample had consisted of 140 students who participated in the study. The ages of the students ranged between 19 and 37 years old. There had been an equal number of men and women which was 70 each. The students had been selected from two faculties, which was humanities and technical faculties. They have also been in first, second, and third year levels of study at the university. The researcher had been proving two hypotheses and used the t-test to see the differences between males and females and between faculties. The multivariate procedures are beneficial to this study as it will be exploring relationships between variables.

In analysing the data in this research, descriptive statistics were run to profile the research sample in terms of demographics. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the significance of differences in perceptions on racism and xenophobia based on the respondents' gender, nationality as well as branches and levels of government in which the participants were employed. The Chi-Square test was used, in place of ANOVA, to compare responses on categorical questions. Statistical significance testing was done at the 95% confidence level and hence where the p-value reported in the ANOVA, Chi-square results was less than or equal to 0.05 a statistically significant difference existed in the outcomes between the respondent categories being compared. Conversely, where the indicated p-value was greater than 0.05, then any observed differences in outcomes between the respondent categories being compared were not statistically significant. Responses to open-ended questions were thematically coded and categorised.

The internal consistency measures of the scale are as follows: The number of items measured in the scale amount to 10 and the Cronbach's alpha is .597 which can be rounded off to .60 and the average inter-item correlation is .189 which can be rounded off to .20. The Cronbach's alpha is below the ideal .70 as suggested by Tavakol and Dennick (2011), and this is due to the low number of statements in the questionnaire. They stated that a low value of alpha could be due to a low number of questions. The

inter-item correlation of .20 and is within the range of .20 and .40 as suggested by Piedmont (2014).

3.3.6 Description of the respondents

The respondents were the 2017 intake of the Master of Management Block Release program at the Wits School of Governance. Only public-sector employees were selected to participate in the research. The reason is that they met the requirements in the purpose of the research. They were male and female. Some were South Africans and others international students. The respondents were employed either in the Legislative, Judicial or the Executive branch of government. They were also either in the National, Provincial, or Local government level. The overall response to the online questionnaire was 49 students who were public servants. All the respondents completed the questionnaires fully. As indicated in Table 1 below, more than half, 27 (55%) of respondents are female, and less than half, 22 (45%). The majority, 40 (82%) of the respondents are South African nationals and 9 (18%) are Non-South Africans. More than half 25 (51%) of the respondents were employed in the executive branch of government, one fifth 10 (20%) was employed in the judicial branch, and more than a quarter, 14 (29%) were employed in the legislative branch. One fifth 10 (20%) of the respondents was employed in the local government level of government, more than a third, 19 (39%) were employed in the provincial government, and less than half, 20 (41%) were employed in the national government level.

Table 1: Sample characteristics

	Gender	
	Frequency	Percent
Female	27	55
Male	22	45
Total	49	100
	Nationality	
	Frequency	Percent
South African	40	82
Non-South African	9	18
Total	49	100
	Branch of government	
	Frequency	Percent
Executive branch	25	51
Judicial branch	10	20
Legislative branch	14	29
Total	49	100
	Level of government	
	Frequency	Percent
Local government	10	20
Provincial government	19	39
National government	20	41
Total	49	100

3.4 Research strengths—reliability and validity measures applied

Bryman (2016) said reliability is concerned with the repeatability of the results of a research, and another criterion of research that is closely related to reliability is replicability. He also stated that it is concerned with the consistency of measures. Kumar (2014) added that a person is deemed to be reliable when he is dependable, consistent, predictable, stable and honest, and that this is the same in research. He agreed with Bryman (2016) when he said that if the research instrument is consistent, stable, predictable and accurate, it can be deemed reliable. Wagner, Kawulich and

Garner (2012) introduced validity as one of the important aspects in research as it refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. They acknowledged the risks and errors that come with human influence and advise researchers, therefore, to always be aware of these risks and work to minimise them.

McNabb (2013) pointed out that in social science, a theory that is developed scientifically must be testable. Also, the research behind the theory must be replicable. He further stated that credibility of the research theory is as good as the replicability the research results. Bryman (2016) focused on the reliability of the measure and advised researchers to use a criterion to determine its reliability. He also advised researchers to ensure the measure is stable over time; it had internal reliability; and that it had inter-observer consistency. Kumar (2014) continued the discussion and said reliability, therefore, should be simplified to answer two questions, which are how reliable a research instrument is, and how unreliable it is. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) put the onus, therefore, on the researcher to investigate the extent to which the measuring instrument measures reliability, and work to decrease the threats to reliability before commencing with the research.

Following are similar studies that share challenges and solutions to reliability and validity. Ommundsen, Yakushko, Veer et al. (2013) used the quantitative research strategy to explore the relationships between fear-related xenophobia, perceptions of out-group entitativity, and social contact in Norway. They used a case research design as they had focused on students in two different universities and then on non-students. Participants were recruited from a sample of undergraduate students in social science at two Norwegian universities and a snowball sample of non-students. Participants received an e-mail with an invitation to participate in the survey on political psychology involving issues of immigration and integration. Those who agreed to participate were directed to a web page that included the entire survey, and they completed the online questionnaire. Participation was anonymous. The universities had migrant communities or foreign nationals who were interacting with the native students, and academic staff and the combined effects of the main predictor variables on fear-related xenophobia. The challenges that faced the reliability and validity were the lack of consistent definitions and measures in the study of xenophobia. Another study by Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Yakushko, and Higler (2011) had found definitions of xenophobia

sometimes refer to unrelated reactions, hence the development of the 5-item measure of fear-related xenophobia. The measure was constructed by means of the Mokken Scale Procedure. The new measure assessing fear-related reactions to immigrants and foreigners had shown acceptable reliability and validity and can be considered a useful measuring instrument with cross-national utility. The 5-item measure of fear-related xenophobia would be beneficial to this research as it would build upon it to develop a measurement scale to improve reliability.

The reliability challenges that were experienced by the researchers in the above studies will help this research to improve its reliability. Especially the study conducted by Van der Veer, Ommundsen, Yakushko, and Higler (2011) which experienced challenges with xenophobia definitions that compromised its reliability.

On validity, Bryman (2016) said that validity answers the question of whether an indicator that is planned to measure a concept really measures that concept. Also, validity can be explored by face validity, concurrent validity, predictive validity, construct validity, and convergent validity. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) shared similar views and they said that there are three types of validity which are content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. They also pointed out that external validity, population validity, and ecological validity answer the question of whether the sample is representative enough for the researcher to make inferences from it about the population. Internal validity had referred to the conditions present in the participants or their environment whilst the research is in progress. Kumar (2014) also pointed out that quantitative research also used face and content validity, concurrent and predictive validity, and construct validity. Bryman (2016) said that measurement validity can also be referred to as construct validity, as it answers the question of whether a measure that is devised of a concept really does reflect the concept that it is supposed to be denoting.

Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) stated that the type of statements in the questionnaire should be measurable. To ensure reliability of the research instrument, this research sourced the statements in the questionnaire from the theories and literature reviewed in the conceptual framework. Also, a pre-test of the questionnaire was conducted to a similar population as this research to test if it is clear and understandable before it can be tested to this research sample. Other researchers who might conduct a

similar research in future should come to similar results, and Bryman (2016) said reliability is concerned with the repeatability of the results of a research.

Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) further stated that the internal validity is the degree to which reliable conclusions can be made about the relationships between variables, because all other external influences were eliminated. This research focusses on exploring the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance, and since it is conducted in a specific physical context, this will increase the internal validity. Bryman (2012) also pointed to external validity and said it is concerned with the question of whether the results of a research can be generalised beyond the specific research context. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) pointed out that if the characteristics of the population in the physical context are shared by wider population, this will make the research easy to generalise. Also, the ecological validity is external validity where the factors and variables are considered in context. The findings of this research will be applicable to the general South African population as racism and xenophobia are both national and international phenomena that affect people from all walks of life, whether directly or indirectly.

This research reviewed methods, data, findings, and conclusions of previous studies on racism and xenophobia to further increase its reliability, and Shenton (2004) affirmed that to increase the credibility of the research results, researchers should adopt the line of questioning, data collection and analysis procedures from previous studies that are similar to the current research. This research chose the purposive sampling technique as it had a target population of only public employees. This avoided including people who are not relevant to the purpose of the research. This research increased its validity by adopting the research strategy, design, procedure and methods that were adopted in similar studies and also ensured that the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure as it selected only public servants to participate in the study. Public servants were selected in line with the purpose of this research.

To ensure face validity of this research, the research instrument was piloted to six former students of the Wits School of Governance who were employed in the public sector, and van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) stated that pilot studies lead to a good

study design, and although they do not guarantee success, they increase the likelihood of success. The students were selected to represent all the demographic categories of the research instrument. They were informed beforehand that it was a pilot survey and their input was requested in order to fine-tune the research instrument. They gave input starting in the demographic categories where more than half did not see the need of age of the respondents as it did not add any value. They suggested the inclusion of branch and level of government. Some of the statements in the research instrument were not understandable and the terminology was revised to make them clearer. After the revision, the research instrument was sent back to the respondents and all of them found the instrument easy to understand and the statements were clear. The Ethics Committee suggested the inclusion of two open-ended questions so as to engage the respondents in depth. The two open-ended questions were included in the questionnaire and that increased the validity of the research. The balance in the number of males and females that responded to this research reduced the limitations and Museus, Sariñana and Ryan (2015) stated that an imbalance leads to more limitations.

3.5 Research weaknesses—technical and administrative limitations

The technical limitation is on the chosen research strategy which is the quantitative research strategy and Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) said it requires a large sample size to be effectively generalised. Also, case studies are difficult to generalise. The population of this research were students who attended the Block Release Program classes in 2017 and were employed in the public sector. Their total number could not be determined as the University did not have records distinguishing between public sector employees, private sector employees, self-employed or unemployed students. To solve the problem, questionnaires were sent to all the 98 students in the 2017 Block Release Program and 49 students declaring to be employed in the public sector responded. Still, this does not give us the total number of students employed in the public sector as some might not have responded, but a response rate of half (50%) of all the students is good for online questionnaires. Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) also stated that using only an online questionnaire might lead to limitations, but in this research two open ended questions were added to the online questionnaire overcome the limitations.

The administrative limitations consisted of the time spent seeking permission from, (i.) the Wits School of Governance to conduct the research at the School, (ii.) seeking clearance from the Ethics Committee, and (iii.) seeking approval from the Office of the Registrar to conduct research at the University.

4 PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

More generally considering the two research questions and two hypotheses presented in chapter 1, I had provided for a research framework in (Section 2.7) that articulates in more detail the research problem in the physical context (Sections 2.1 and 2.2), the research knowledge gap (Section 2.3), the attributes of interest in the academic context (Sections 2.4 and 2.5), and the appropriate frameworks that I can use to interpret the empirical research results (Section 2.6). Following on the proposals in the research framework, I had detailed the research strategy, design, procedure and methods (Chapter 3) implemented to collect, collate, process, and analyse the empirical research information whose results I present before summoning the frameworks to discuss the research findings in Chapter 5.

To collect empirical evidence on these attributes, I listed statements and asked questions in the research instrument. The research instrument was categorised into three sections. The first section was the demographic information (gender, nationality, branch of government, level of government), the second section were perceptions on racism, and the third section were perceptions on xenophobia.

Forty-nine (49) students participated in the research. Only students who were employed in the public sector could participate in this research.

4.1 Perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance

The survey contained 5 statements that evaluated perceptions on racism at the Wits School of Governance (WSG) and the participants expressed their opinions on a 5-point Likert scale using (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree. The analysis is based on the numeric values of this scale and hence the larger the mean score for a statement asserting racism the more the respondents agreed with that claim and the smaller the mean score the less they agreed with the statement. The statements on racism are as follows, (i.) white students receive preferential treatment at Wits, (ii.) black students are kept apart from white students in residences at Wits, (iii.) there is animosity between black and white students at Wits, (iv) Wits

discriminates in its admission criteria based on race, and (v.) the interests of white students are ignored in favour of black students.

4.1.1 Presentation of research results

The overall racism perception score was **2.41** and indicates that, on the main, perceptions on racism at the WSG were low among the students. The overall racism perception score reported above was then compared by gender and the results are that the mean score for females was **2.30** compared to **2.54** for males. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) method was used to test if these scores varied significantly according to gender and the results show that there was no significant difference between the perceptions of female and male students in this regard ($F=1.413$, $p=0.24$). Perceptions of racism at the WSG, as evaluated along the 5 dimensions listed in the survey questionnaire, were therefore equally low among both female and male students. The data is presented clearly in figure 5 and table 2 below.

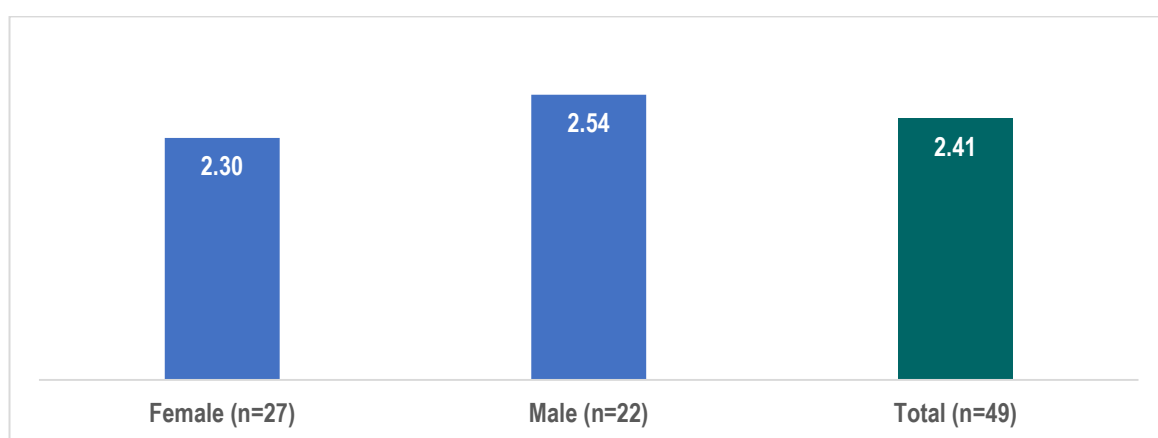


Figure 3: Overall perceptions on racism by gender

Table 2: ANOVA results on overall perceptions on racism by gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Between Groups	0.656	1	0.656	1.413	0.24
Within Groups	21.821	47	0.464		
Total	22.477	48			

$p \leq 0.05^*$

The following is the presentation of the results according to each statement in the research instrument. With regards to Statement 1 (White students receive preferential treatment at Wits), the students agreed more with the assertion that white students received preferential treatment and there was no significant difference on this view between females (3.33) and males (3.59), $F=0.414$, $p=0.52$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: less than a one-fifth (15%) of females strongly disagreed with Statement 1, just below one-fifth (19%) disagreed, just above one-tenth (11%) were neutral, less than one-third (30%) agreed, less than one-third (26%) strongly agreed. As for males, less than one-tenth (9%) strongly disagreed, less than one-fifth (18%) disagreed, one-twentieth (5%) were neutral, less than half (41%) agreed, and less than a third (27%) strongly agreed. The number of females and males who fully agreed that white students receive preferential treatment at the Wits is almost equal. More than half, 56% of females agreed that whites receive preferential treatment at Wits, and more than half, 68% of males agreed that whites receive preferential treatment at Wits.

With regards to Statement 2 (Black students are kept apart from white students in residences at Wits), views were largely in the neutral category and were virtually the same for female students (2.81) and male students (2.82), $F=0.000$, $p=0.99$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: more than a tenth (11%) of females strongly disagreed with Statement 2, more than a fifth (22%) disagreed, less than half (44%) were neutral, less than a fifth (19%) agreed, and less than one-twentieth (4%) strongly agreed. As for the males, one-twentieth (5%) strongly disagreed, less than a third (32%) disagreed, less than half (45%) were neutral, more than one tenth (14%) agreed, and one twentieth (5%) strongly agreed. The biggest percentages for both females and males are neutral and almost equal at less than half (44%) and less than half (45%) respectively.

With regards to Statement 3 (There is animosity between black and white students at Wits), the students largely disagreed (2.06) and there was no significant difference in opinion in this regard between females (2.04) and males (2.09), $F=0.027$, $p=0.87$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: less than half (41%) of females strongly disagreed, a third (33%) disagreed, more than a tenth (11%) were neutral, more than a tenth (11%) agreed, less than one-twentieth (4%) strongly agreed. As for males, less than half (41%) strongly disagreed, more than one fifth (23%) disagreed, less than

one fifth (22%) were neutral, and less than one twentieth (4%) agreed. The majority of females, three quarters (75%), disagree with Statement 3, and the majority of males, less than three quarters (65%), also disagree with the statement.

With regards to Statement 4 (Wits discriminates in its admission criteria based on race), the respondents largely disagreed with the statement (1.86) and there was no statistically significant difference in the opinions on this matter between females (1.74) and males (2.00), $F=0.779$, $p=0.38$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: less than half, (48%) of females strongly disagree, more than a third, (37%) disagree, less than one tenth (8%) were neutral, and less than one tenth (7%) agreed. As for males, half, (50%), strongly disagreed, less than one tenth (14%) disagreed, more than one fifth (22%) were neutral and more than one tenth (14%) agreed. The combined disagreements of the majority of females stands at more than four fifth (85%), and the combined disagreements for males stands at more than half (64%).

With regards to Statement 5 (The interests of white students are ignored in favour of black students), both genders generally disagreed with the claim, and there was a statistically significant difference in the opinion of females (1.59) who tended to disagree with this assertion even more compared to males (2.18), $F=4.139$, $p=0.05$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: more than half (56%) of females strongly disagreed, a third, (33%) disagreed, less than one tenth (7%) were neutral, and less than one twentieth (4%) agreed. As for males, less than half (41%) strongly disagreed, less than a third (23%) disagreed, more than one tenth (14%) were neutral, and less than a third (23%) agreed. The majority of females who disagreed with the Statement stands more than four fifths (89%), and the majority of males stands at more than half (69%).

In addition to expressing the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the listed statements on racism, the participants were also asked if they had experienced any racism in person. Altogether, more than one quarter (27%) of the respondents stated that they had first-hand experience of racism at Wits and the majority and less than three quarters (73%) had not done so. The percentage who experienced racism first hand among females was less than a third (30%) and was not significantly different compared to more than one fifth (23%) among males ($\text{Chi-square}=0.296$, $p=0.59$). Among respondents who had experienced racism first-hand the following were cited as their personal experiences, in no particular order:

1. Refusing to grant a pass mark to a black student but granting the same to a white student,
2. White students given better marks than black students,
3. White students given more attention in class,
4. Lecturer insinuating that black students were lazy,
5. Unequal accusations and penalties for plagiarism,
6. Made to write an entrance test while some white students were not required to do so,
7. Unwillingness to listen to queries from a black student but listening to students of another race,
8. White lecturers allowing white students to engage them after hours but not doing the same for black students
9. Display of a “negative attitude” by a white lecturer towards a black student

The data is presented clearly in figure 6 and table 3 below.

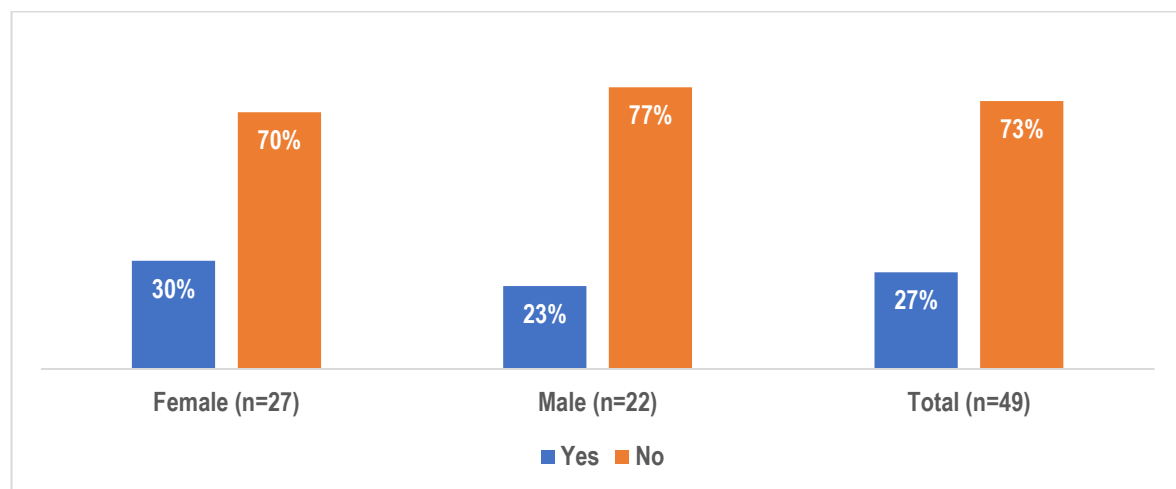


Figure 4: First-hand experience of racism at Wits by gender

Table 3: Chi-square tests on first-hand experience of racism by gender

	ue	Val	df	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	96	0.2	1	0.59	
Likelihood Ratio	99	0.2	1	0.58	
Fisher's Exact Test					0.75
N of Valid Cases		49			
p≤0.05*					

4.1.2 Comparison of research results to those found by similar studies and evaluations

In chapter 2 (Section 2.3) I reviewed previous similar studies and evaluations on perceptions on racism and xenophobia. In doing so, I pointed out research approaches, designs, procedures and methods that such studies had applied as well as the results, findings, and conclusions these studies had realised. Though the ultimate objective was to uncover the knowledge gap on this subject in general and specifically at the University of the Witwatersrand, I used this knowledge to propose some methodological options that I have employed in chapter 3. Here I compare the research results of these studies with those that I presented in (Section 4.1.1.) with the previous studies. Other studies in the literature review might be added to improve the discussion.

With regards to Statement 1 (White students receive preferential treatment at Wits), my results are similar to the study to the study by Ancis, Sedlacek, and Mohr (2000) who studied student perceptions of campus cultural climate. They state that White students were not affected by discrimination on campus although the rest of the student body was. This was to such an extent that they were not even aware it was taking place.

With regards to Statement 2, (Black students are kept apart from white students in residences at Wits), my results are similar to those of Bayaga (2011) who found that male students have a lower preference for Elements Defining Collegiality (EDC). Amongst White respondents, there was a relationship between gender and EDC. The inclination for EDC was even more for females than for males. Another finding was that there was a relationship between social class and EDC. This meant that factors that cause students to congregate together are not as a result of segregation by authorities, but by their gender and social class.

With regards to Statement 3, (There is animosity between black and white students at Wits), my results are similar to the study by Beagan (2003) who was studying everyday racism in medical school concluded that race and racism were not issues in medical school. White students never felt their whiteness had an impact on other students. It was only Asian female students who felt overshadowed by the tall White boys when in class.

With regards to Statement 4 (Wits discriminates in its admission criteria based on race), my results are similar to the study by Hughes and Tuch (2003) who studied gender differences in White's racial attitudes. Some respondents felt that black students should be given preference because of past discrimination. They went further to say that because of past discrimination, it is would sometimes be necessary for colleges and universities to reserve space for black students. Some of the respondents dissented.

With regards to Statement 5 (The interests of white students are ignored in favour of black students), my results are similar to the study conducted by Chang (1996) who testified that he was a product of affirmative action and believed it was necessary to advance the previously disadvantaged individuals. He pointed out that affirmative action was not reverse discrimination.

4.2 Perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance

The survey contained 5 statements that evaluated perceptions on xenophobia at WSG and the participants expressed their opinions using a 5-point Likert scale of (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree. The analysis is based on the numeric values of this scale and hence the larger the mean score for a statement asserting xenophobia the more the respondents agreed with that claim and vice versa. The statements on xenophobia are as follows; (i.) it is difficult to understand the accents of international students, (ii.) international students exhaust the resources meant for South African students, (iii.) South African students' ignorance feeds xenophobia, (iv.) international students are lowering the standard of education in South Africa, and (v.) South African students hate international students.

4.2.1 Presentation of research results

The mean scores on each of the 5 statements on xenophobia had the highest score at (2.90) which was that it was "difficult to understand the accents of international students" and this score fell largely in the neutral zone, according to the scale used. The overall xenophobia perception score was computed as the average of the scores given for all the 5 statements and was **2.50**. This indicates that, on the main, perceptions of xenophobia at the WSG were low among the students. The overall xenophobia perception scores by gender show that the mean score for females was **2.29** compared to **2.76** for males. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) method was used to test if these scores varied significantly according to gender and the results show that there was a significant difference in the perceptions of female and male students in this regard ($F=8.318$, $p=0.01$). This means while perceptions on xenophobia at the WSG were generally low among male students, they were even lower among female students. The data is presented clearly in figure 7 and table 4 below.

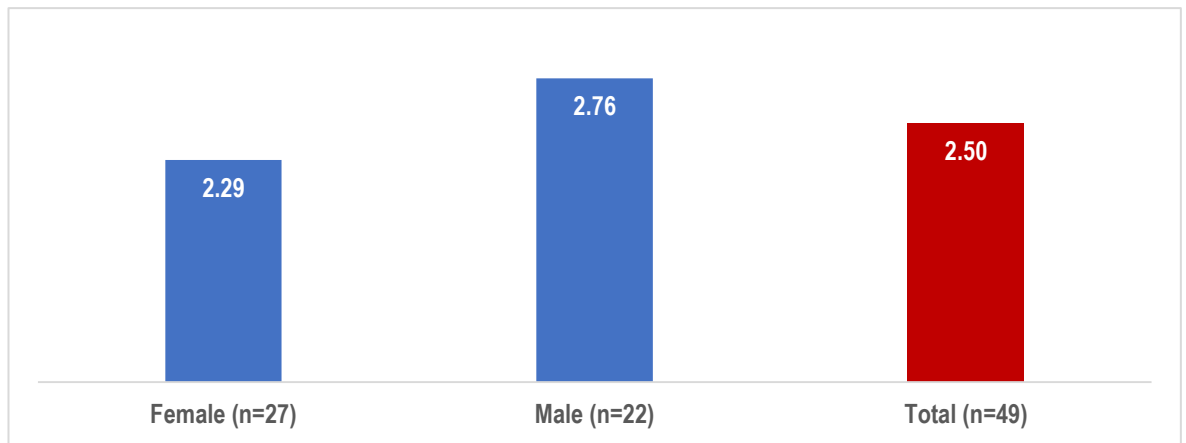


Figure 5: Overall perceptions on xenophobia by gender

Table 4: ANOVA results on overall perceptions on xenophobia by gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Between Groups	2.732	1	2.732	8.318	0.01*
Within Groups	15.438	47	0.328		
Total	18.170	48			

$p \leq 0.05^*$

The following is the presentation of the results according to each statement in the research instrument. With regards to Statement 1 (It is difficult to understand the accents of international students), the mean score of 2.90 was indicative of neutrality on the matter by the respondents. Although males (3.27) tended to be on the more agreeable side of the scale compared to females (2.59), this difference was also not statistically significant ($F=3.259$, $p=0.08$). The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: less than one fifth (15%) of females strongly disagreed, less than half (44%) disagreed, less than one tenth (7%) were neutral, a third (33%) agreed. As for males, less than one fifth (14%) strongly disagreed, less than one third (27%) disagreed, less than one tenth (9%) were neutral, less than one fifth (18%) agreed, and less than one third (32%) strongly agreed.

With regards to Statement 2 (International students exhaust the resources meant for South African students), the respondents also largely disagreed with the

statement (2.73). Although males (3.14) tended to be more neutral on this view compared to females who were more inclined to disagree outright (2.41), this difference was not statistically significant ($F=2.936$, $p=0.09$). The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: a third of females strongly disagreed, less than a third (30%) disagreed, less than one twentieth (4%) were neutral, less than a third (30%) agreed, and less than one twentieth strongly agreed. As for males, less than a third (27%) strongly disagreed, less than one tenth (14%) disagreed, one twentieth (5%) was neutral, less than a third (27%) agreed, and less than one fifth (14%) strongly agreed.

With regards to Statement 3 (South African students' ignorance feeds xenophobia), the perception was also low (2.47), with no significant difference in opinion in this regard between females (2.26) and males (2.73), $F=1.425$, $p=0.24$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: less than half (41%) of the females strongly disagreed, more than one fifth (22%) disagreed, less than one fifth (15%) were neutral, less than one fifth (15%) agreed, and less than one tenth (7%) strongly agreed. As for males, more than one fifth (23%) strongly disagreed, less than one third (27%) disagreed, less than one fifth (15%) were neutral, less than one fifth (15%) agreed, and less than one tenth (7%) strongly agreed. As for males, more than one fifth (23%) strongly disagreed, less than one third (27%) disagreed, less than one fifth (18%) were neutral, less than one fifth (18%) agreed, and more than one tenth strongly agreed.

With regards to Statement 4 (International students are lowering the standard of education in South Africa), the view was generally not supported by the respondents (2.33) and the opinion of female students on this (2.33) was virtually the same as that of male students (2.32), $F=0.002$, $p=0.97$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: less than a third (30%) of females strongly disagreed, more than a third (37%) disagreed, less than one tenth (7%) were neutral, more than one fifth (22%) agreed, and less than one twentieth (4%) strongly agreed. As for males, less than half (41%) strongly disagreed, less than a third (27%) disagreed, one twentieth (5%) were neutral, more than one eighth (14%) agreed, and more than one eighth strongly agreed.

With regards to Statement 5 (South African students hate international students), the respondents largely disagreed with the statement (2.08) and there was

no statistically significant difference in the opinions of females (1.85) and males (2.36) in this regard, $F=2.467$, $p=0.12$. The breakdown of the statistics is as follows: Less than half (48%) of females strongly disagreed, a third (33%) disagreed, less than one twentieth (4%) were neutral, more than one eighth (15%) agreed. As for males, less than a third (27%) strongly disagreed, more than a third (36%) disagreed, more than one eighth were neutral, less than one fifth agreed, and one twentieth (5%) strongly agreed.

In addition to expressing the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the listed statements on xenophobia, the participants were also asked if they had experienced any xenophobia in person. Altogether, one tenth (10%) of the respondents stated that they had first-hand experience of xenophobia at Wits while the majority, nine tenths (90%) did not. The percentage who experienced xenophobia first hand among females was more than one eighth (15%) compared to one twentieth (5%) among males and this difference was not statistically significant as shown by the Chi-square test results, ($\text{Chi-square}=1.395$, $p=0.24$). Among respondents who stated they had experienced xenophobia first-hand the following were cited as personal experiences, in no particular order:

1. Foreign student "manhandled by drunk South African students and called a Kwerekwere",
2. Class representative was constantly reminded that he did not understand South African issues because he was a foreigner,
3. Overheard some students "commenting on my dark skin colour",
4. Told to "shut up" by a black South African student because I was a foreigner.

The data is presented in Figure 8 and Table 5 below.

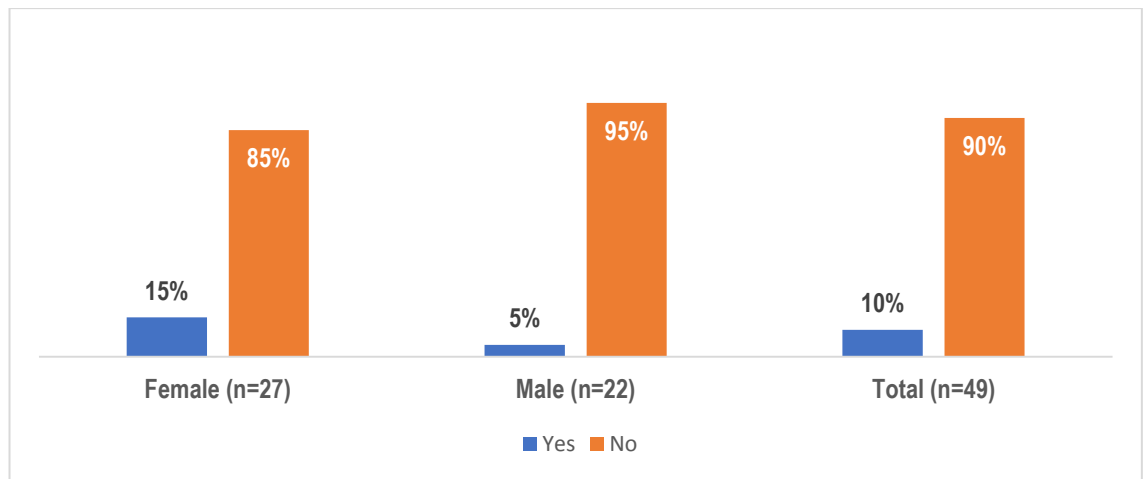


Figure 6: First-hand experience of xenophobia at Wits by gender

Table 5: Chi-square tests on first-hand experience of xenophobia by gender

	ue	Val	df	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	95	1.3	1	0.24	
Likelihood Ratio	07	1.5	1	0.22	
Fisher's Exact Test					0.36
N of Valid Cases		49			

p≤0.05*

4.2.2 Comparison of research results to those found by similar studies and evaluations

In chapter 2 (Section 2.3) I reviewed previous similar studies and evaluations on perceptions on racism and xenophobia. In doing so, I pointed out research approaches, designs, procedures and methods that such studies had applied as well as the results, findings, and conclusions these studies had realised. Though the ultimate objective was to uncover the knowledge gap on this subject in general and specifically at the University of the Witwatersrand, I used this knowledge to propose some methodological options that I had employed in chapter 3. Here I compare the research results in Section 4.2.1 with the previous studies. Other studies in the literature review might be added to improve the discussion.

With regards to Statement 1 (It is difficult to understand the accents of international students), my results are similar to the study conducted by Kruger and Osman (2010) who studied the experiences of immigrants in 5 schools in the Johannesburg inner city. All the respondents stated that they felt humiliated when local students laughed at their accents and how they pronounced English words. Some were often teased because of their French accents. They even blamed teachers for their discomfort as they would tell them to go back to their countries when they said they do not understand a question.

With regards to Statement 2 (International students exhaust the resources meant for South African students), my results are similar to the study conducted by Mamabolo (2015) who argued that attacks of foreign nationals in most communities in South Africa were caused by the high rates of poverty and unemployment. He went further to state that competition for scarce resources was another major factor.

With regards to Statement 3 (South African students' ignorance feeds xenophobia), my results are similar to the study by Laura (2011) who analysed knowledge and opinions on xenophobia among North-West University students. He concluded that xenophobic attacks and actions are mostly due to ignorance. Cole and Stuart (2005) concurred when they stated that ignorance is one of the drivers of xenophobia in schools in South-east England.

With regards to Statement 4 (International students are lowering the standard of education in South Africa), my results are similar to the study by Saggar and Somerville (2012) who discussed the building of a British model of integration in the times of immigration. They concluded that there is very little or no difference in the performance of immigrants at school as compared to home students.

With regards to Statement 5 (South African students hate international students), my results are similar to the study by Bayaga (2011) who concluded that relationships between students are not necessarily about race, but about gender and social status.

5 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

In (Section 2.6) I interrogated appropriate frameworks that I can use to interpret our empirical research results. The frameworks interrogated include, (i) the Critical Race Theory, which stated that it is useful for giving insight on race, and the causes, consequences and manifestations of race, racism, inequity, and the dynamics of power and privilege, (ii) Everyday racism, which stated that it is useful for understanding micro level processes through which inequities of power based on racialised differences are experienced and perpetuated in society, (iii) the Integrated Threat Theory which stated that four types of threats (realistic, symbolic, symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety, and negative stereotypes) cause prejudice, (iv) the Scapegoating theory which stated that there is the practice of singling out any party for unmerited negative treatment or blame as a scapegoat, as well as (iv), the Conflict theory which stated that society is in a state of perpetual conflict due to competition for limited resources. However, Everyday racism is more appropriate to interpret the perceptions on racism and xenophobia.

5.1 Perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance

The following studies applied Everyday racism to interpret and discuss the research results which concluded that there were no significant differences in perception on racism between female and male students at the Wits School of Governance (WSG). The results that more than half of both male and female students of the Wits School of Governance believe that white students receive preferential treatment at Wits is a cause for concern. This outcome is consistent with Swim et al. (2003) who studied African American College students' experiences with Everyday racism. They found that both male and female experiences with prejudice were common. They further stated that there were no gender differences in the type of incidents that males and females reported. This interpretation gives a high probability that discrimination on racial grounds is practised by some lecturers at the Wits School of Governance (WSG).

What is also concerning is the neutral response that both male and female students gave when asked whether there was racial segregation at the places of residence

at the University of the Witwatersrand. This can be explained by the fact that the majority of WSG students at the Master's degree level does not reside in university hostels. The neutrality might be due to lack of knowledge about activities at the University residences. This contrasts with the study by Barak, Cherin, and Berkman (1998) who conducted an organisational evaluation examining gender and ethnic/racial differences in the diversity perceptions of 2686 employees. The study concluded that white men perceived the organisation as fairer and more inclusive than white women.

It is comforting to learn that both male and female students of the WSG believe that there is no animosity between black and white students at the University of the Witwatersrand and that there is no racial discrimination when it comes to the admission criteria. There is also the consensus that no race group benefits at the expense of the other when it comes to empowerment. This can be interpreted as the fruits of the transformation efforts of the University, especially the policies that promote equity. This interpretation is supported by the study by Kravitz and Platanina (1993) which surveyed the attitudes and beliefs of undergraduate students about affirmative action. In a sample including 121 males and 226 students, many females evaluated preferential treatment less favourably than males. Many females preferred to be assessed on merit than males.

The racism first hand experiences shared by both the male and female students at the WSG have the following implications for the University of the Witwatersrand, that is, (i.) Wits should continue with its transformation efforts of promoting racial equality and tolerance and even hold workshops addressing favouritism in its different schools and faculties, (ii.) Wits should find ways of bringing the home and international students together, so they could better understand each other through constant communication, (iii.) Wits should conduct ongoing information sessions through its faculties to educate home and international students on how resources are allocated for its academic programs to show that international students are not a burden to the university resources, and lastly, (iv.) Wits should have an international desk that caters to the day to day challenges of international students.

Table 6 below shows that there was no significant difference in the perceptions on racism between female and male students at the Wits School of Governance, and the p -value is 0.24.

Table 6: ANOVA results on overall perceptions on racism by gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Between Groups	0.656	1	0.656	1.413	0.24
Within Groups	21.821	47	0.464		
Total	22.477	48			
p≤0.05*					

5.2 Perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance

The following studies applied Everyday racism to interpret and discuss our research results which concluded that there was a significant difference in perception on xenophobia between female and male students at the Wits School of Governance.

It is a cause for concern that about a third of both male and female students at the WSG responded that it is difficult to understand the accents of international students. This response might have an impact on the group class exercises that involve both home and international students. In a study conducted by Pilane (2014) at the Wits main campus which was asking whether the race of a lecturer mattered to students, 4 females and 2 males were interviewed. Many of the respondents were not concerned about the race of the lecturer but were very concerned with the small number of black South African academics. One female student went further to state that the accents of foreign lecturers become a concern when they are not audible. She went further and stated that she would like to see more black professors and it was problematic for her to be taught African history by an Italian in a South African university. She concluded that academic institutions are not friendly towards black academics. These are very serious utterances and fortunately the current

transformation efforts by Wits to promote black lecturers to higher positions will address it.

Another concern are the few respondents who still believe that foreign nationals deplete the limited resources meant for locals. This is one of the causes of the 2008 xenophobic violence and is therefore a serious matter. This is supported by the study of attitudes towards foreigners in South Africa conducted by Schippers (2015) who found that whilst the majority of male and female participants showed tolerance for foreign nationals, there was a significant increase in the level of intolerance amongst males and females that continuously increased from 1996 to 2003.

It is comforting to learn that the relationship between home and international students can still be salvaged. Despite the distrust between the two groups, there are many opportunities to improve the relationship between them. The responses that the majority of WSG male and female students believe that they do not hate international students, and that they are not lowering the standard of education in South Africa, is positive. This contrasts with the study by Buss and Perry (1992) who constructed questionnaire on aggression. The study had 4 scales which were physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger, and hostility. They found that men attained a slightly higher score on verbal aggression and hostility and much higher on physical aggression than women. The score for anger was not significantly different between the 2 genders.

Another important finding is that local government public sector officials were more likely to disagree with xenophobic assertions. This finding is partly similar to the study conducted by Singh (2013) who was examining xenophobic practices amongst university students in Limpopo. It was interesting to note that more than half of the respondents did not believe that name-calling constituted xenophobia. Moreover, most of the xenophobic violence took place at the local government level where these public officials are stationed. I can conclude that education on what constitutes xenophobia should be taught to all government officials so that they could identify it immediately before it escalates.

The xenophobia first hand experiences shared by both the male and female students at the WSG have the following implications for the University of the Witwatersrand, that is -, (i.) Wits should establish information desks throughout its campuses so that the concerns of both home and international students could be addressed as quickly as possible, (ii.) Wits should continue with its programme of promoting cosmopolitan residences to avoid regression to the ills of the past, and lastly, (iii.) Wits should maintain a strong financial aid system to assist the low-income students and those who cannot afford university fees to access higher education.

Table 7 below shows that there was a significant difference in the perceptions on xenophobia between female and male students at the Wits School of Governance, and the p-value is 0.01.

Table 7: ANOVA results on overall perceptions on xenophobia by gender

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Between Groups	2.732	1	2.732	8.318	0.01*
Within Groups	15.438	47	0.328		
Total	18.170	48			
p≤0.05*					

6 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter summarises the research, considers the findings made by the research and concludes by linking the purpose of the research outlined in chapter 1 to what the research achieved. Based on the conclusions, I highlight limitations of the research and recommend solutions to the research problem and for future studies.

6.1 Summary

Despite the efforts of the University of the Witwatersrand of seeking to eradicate unfair discrimination, racism and xenophobia continues to take place. The University approved and published an Anti-discrimination policy in 2015 and listed religious beliefs, bullying, harassment, disability, gender identity, racism, sexual orientation, and xenophobia as areas of potential unfair discrimination. The University promised that all perpetrators would face a thorough investigation and if the allegations are proven a disciplinary hearing would follow. In the policy, the University also promised protection for whistle-blowers and promised to keep confidential all the names of people who report unfair discrimination. Hence this research has sought to bring to the attention of Members of Parliament (MPs) who are policy makers, and civil servants who are policy implementers the incidents of racism and xenophobia that take place at the University of the Witwatersrand. The intention was not only to bring awareness of these incidents to the MPs and civil servants, but also to influence policy making and implementation at government level. The Wits School of Governance has the majority of students who are Members of Parliament and civil servants in its Master of Management Block Release Program, hence a case study exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia was conducted there.

The purpose of this research is to explore the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. The research however, did not focus on the entire student body at the Wits School of Governance but the Master of Management Block Release Program

students who attended classes in the 2017 intake. The Master of Management is popular with MPs and civil servants from South Africa and internationally.

To undertake this assessment, the research responded to the research questions; ‘To what extent are the differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?’ and ‘To what extent are the differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?’ It had also sought to prove the two hypotheses, ‘There are significant differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance’ and ‘There are significant differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance’.

To respond to these questions and hypotheses, I undertook to explore the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. I further employed quantitative research strategy, case research study design, and distributed an on-line questionnaire. The research employed Everyday racism to analyse the research results. Forty-nine (49) students participated in the research. Participants were selected through purposive sampling and were males and females drawn from national government, provincial government and municipalities in South Africa and internationally. The population spread covered the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of government. The data was collected in January 2018.

The findings on racism were that on comparing the overall perceptions on racism by student nationality as well as branch and level of government from which the respondents were employed, there were no significant differences between males and females. However, respondents employed at local government level were significantly more likely to disagree with the racism assertions compared to those at provincial and national levels. Perceptions of racism at the Wits School of Governance, as evaluated along the 5 dimensions listed in the survey questionnaire, were therefore equally low among both female and male students.

The findings on xenophobia were that on comparing the overall perceptions on xenophobia by student nationality as well as branch and level of government from

which the respondents were employed, there were no significant differences in the overall perceptions of xenophobia according to nationality or by branch of government but there were significant differences by level of government. Respondents employed at local government level were significantly more likely to disagree with the xenophobia assertions compared to those at provincial and national levels. This is a very important finding because public servants at local government level are the closest to the communities. They are the first to see any xenophobic incidents that occur. This gives me an impression that xenophobia is not rife in South Africa. It would therefore be advisable for future research to focus on them and design a questionnaire with open-ended questions or conduct a qualitative study. Perceptions on xenophobia at the Wits School of Governance were generally low among male students, and they were even lower among female students.

6.2 Conclusions

My conclusion of this research is preceded by the responses of the respondents who experienced racism and xenophobia in person at the University of the Witwatersrand. The question I should ask ourselves is; if so many racism and xenophobic experiences are shared by a population of 49 students, what about the experiences of the thousands of other students who make the population of the University? Another question is, how were the incidents that are outlined in the research purpose statement resolved? The last question I should ask myself is, how effective is the Anti-Discrimination Policy and Procedures of the University. On the other hand, the University of the Witwatersrand is a cosmopolitan, multiracial, and multi-ethnic institution whose students come both from within the country and all over the world. The academics also come from South Africa and all over the world. Challenges of racism and xenophobia will always be experienced by staff and students alike. Moreover, the University is in a position to influence legislation pertaining to racism and xenophobia in the South African Parliament as it is a member of the Anti-Racism Network in Higher Education (ARNHE). ARNHE has access to the Ministerial Committee on Transformation, Social Cohesion and the Elimination of Discrimination in higher education institutions.

It should be pointed out that the perceptions on racism at the WSG were low among the students and there was no significant difference between the perceptions of

male and female students in this instance. The perceptions between male and female students at the WSG were equally low. This points to few overall racist incidents at the WSG or the University in general. Also, the perceptions on xenophobia between male and female students at the WSG were low but the differences in perception was significant. They were low among the male students and even lower among the females. This also points to few overall incidents of xenophobia at the WSG. The above discussion calls for future research at the main campus of the University where the perceptions on racism and xenophobia originated.

The findings of my research bring up the question, so what? Does that mean that the low perceptions on racism and xenophobia make them less significant? The perceptions on racism and xenophobia originated from the main campus of the University. For future research, it would be advisable to conduct research using the main campus of the University as a case study.

6.3 Limitations

Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) stated that the quantitative research strategy requires large numbers of respondents to be effectively generalised, and Bryman (2012) also pointed to the difficulty of generalising case studies beyond the specific research context. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012) pointed out that if the characteristics of the population in the physical research context are shared by wider population, this will make the research easy to generalise. Another limitation was that the total number of Public Sector employees at the Wits School of Governance could not be determined as the University did not have records distinguishing between public sector employees, private sector employees, self-employed or unemployed students. To solve the problem, questionnaires were sent to all the 98 students in the 2017 Block Release Program and 49 students declaring to be employed in the public sector responded. Still this did not give us the total number of students employed in the public sector as some might not have responded. Giurgiu, Marica and Ionescù (2015) also stated that using only an online questionnaire might lead to limitations, but in this research two open ended questions were added to the online questionnaire to overcome the limitations. The reliability and validity were also challenged by the lack of consistent definitions and measures in the study of xenophobia, and van der Veer, Ommundsen, Yakushko and Higler (2011) attested to that. Although the inter-rater reliability was .20

and acceptable according to Piedmont (2014), however, it is at a minimum which might have been influenced by the inconsistencies of the definitions and measures in the study of xenophobia.

The administrative limitations consisted of the time spent seeking permission from, (i.) the Wits School of Governance to conduct the research at the School, (ii.) seeking clearance from the Ethics Committee, and (iii.) seeking approval from the Office of the Registrar to conduct research at the University.

For future research, it would be advisable to conduct a similar study at the main campus of the University of the Witwatersrand. It would also be more advisable to select the undergraduate students who stay in the University residences as participants because they have a high probability of coming into contact with other race and ethnic groups on a daily basis throughout the year.

6.4 Recommendations

All institutions of learning from primary, secondary, high schools, to tertiary institutions should develop curricula that teach against racism and xenophobia. There should also be programs on integrating international students with the home students. Orientation programs and workshops would help to bolster the curricula on racism and xenophobia. The education on racism and xenophobia should be extended to all the staff of the University of the Witwatersrand. All students and staff in the University should be made to sign a declaration promising not to discriminate others on race and ethnicity. The University should organise events to bring home and international students together so they could better understand each other. The University should also conduct ongoing information sessions through its faculties to educate home and international students on race and ethnic relations. Each faculty should have a point where both home and international students could report cases of racism and xenophobia. The University should continue with its programme of promoting cosmopolitan residences and work towards integrating the whole student body. Racial equality and tolerance should be promoted at all levels of the institution.

All the university staff and students should be made aware of the University Anti-discrimination policy, the complaints procedure, and the penalties for the policy

violations. The contents of the policy should be explained to all the staff and students of the university. The University should monitor the implementation of the policy and do constant reviews to make sure it is effective. A hotline should be established to report complaints and the identity of the victims and whistle blowers should be kept confidential. Serious measures should be taken against any perpetrators of racism and xenophobia and they should be made known to all staff and students at the university.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1.1: Consent form and questionnaire

CONSENT FORM

Title of project

Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand

Name of researcher

Mzubanzi Given Ntshiq

Introduction

- You are being asked to participate in this research of exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand.
- You were selected as a possible participant because you were registered as a Master of Management Block Release Program student in the 2017 academic year.
- I ask that you read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to participate in this research.

Purpose of Research

- The purpose of this research is to explore the perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand.
- Ultimately, this research may be published as a research report.

Description of the Research Procedures

- Participating in this research will require completing an online questionnaire.

Risks/Discomforts of Being in This research

- There are no reasonably foreseeable (or expected) risks. There may be unknown risks.

Benefits of Being in the Research

- The benefits of participation in this research are that you will help in bringing awareness, ensure understanding of the issue and its importance, and generate concern for racism and xenophobia.

Confidentiality and anonymity

- This research guarantees confidentiality and anonymity. This research will not require the names of participants or any other forms of identity.
- The records of this research will be kept safely at the Wits School of Governance library.

Payments

- You will not receive any payment/reimbursement for participating in this

research.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

- The decision to participate in this research is entirely up to you. You may refuse to take part in this research *at any time* without affecting your relationship with the researcher or the University of the Witwatersrand. Your decision will not result in any loss or benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You have the right not to respond to any statement, as well as to withdraw completely from completing the questionnaire at any point during the process; additionally, you have the right to request that the researcher not use any of your response material.

Right to Ask Questions and Report Concerns

- You have the right to ask questions about this research and to have those questions answered by me before, during or after the research. If you have any further questions about the research, at any time feel free to contact me, Mzibanzi Given Ntshiqqa, at given.ntshiqqa@gmail.com or by cell phone at 083 675 5271. If you like, a summary of the results of the research will be sent to you.
- If you have any queries, concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this research, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical), telephone + 27(0)11 717 1408, email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za / Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Consent

- By completing the on-line questionnaire and clicking submit, it is taken as consent.

Questionnaire for exploring differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the WSG.

Please fill in, tick or circle as appropriate

Date of the Research: ____/month: ____ year: ____

Section 1: Demographic Information

1.1	Questionnaire Id:	
1.2	Gender:	Female ☐ Male ☐
1.3	Nationality	South African ☐ Non-South African ☐
1.4	Place of employment:	Public Sector ☐ Private Sector ☐ Self Employed ☐ Other ☐
1.5	Level of government	National ☐ Provincial ☐ Local ☐
1.6	Branch of government	Legislature ☐ Judicial ☐ Executive ☐

Section 2: Perceptions on racism

1. Wits discriminates in its admission criteria based on race				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

2. There is animosity between black and white students at Wits				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

3. White students receive preferential treatment at Wits				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

4. Black students are kept apart from white students in residences at Wits				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

5. The interests of white students are ignored in favour of black students				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

6. Have you ever experienced racism in person at Wits?	
Yes	No
If yes, please share your experience below.	

Section 3: Perceptions on xenophobia

1. South African students hate international students				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

2. International students exhaust the resources meant for South African students				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

3. It is difficult to understand the accents of international students				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

4. International students are lowering the standard of education in South Africa				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

5. South African students' ignorance feeds xenophobia				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

6. Have you ever experienced xenophobia in person at Wits?	
If yes, please share your experience below.	

Appendix 1.2: Participant Information Sheet

Participant information sheet



2 St Davids Place, Parktown, Johannesburg, 2050

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Mzubanzi Given Ntshika and I am a Master of Management student in Public and Development Management at the Wits School of Governance (WSG) in Johannesburg. As part of my studies I have to undertake a research project, and I am exploring differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. This research project aims to bring awareness, ensure understanding of the issue and its importance, and generate concern for racism and xenophobia. The target population of this research are the students of the WSG who are Members of Parliament, and civil servants at National, Provincial and Local Government and were registered in the 2017 Master of Management Block Release Program.

As part of this project I would like to invite you to complete the online questionnaire. This activity will involve selecting the options of your choice and answering the questions asked and will take around 10 minutes. You will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this research, and there are no disadvantages or penalties for not participating. You may withdraw at any time or not answer any question if you do not want to. Your participation will be completely confidential and

anonymous as I will not be asking for your name or any identifying information, and the information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else.

If you have any questions afterwards about this research, feel free to contact me on the details listed below. This research will be written up as a research report which will be available online through the university library website. If you wish to receive a summary of this report, I will be happy to send it to you upon request. If you have any queries, concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this research, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical), telephone + 27(0)11 717 1408, email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za/ Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,

Mzubanzi Given Ntshiqqa, given.ntshiqqa@gmail.com, 083 675 5271 (Researcher).

Appendix 1.3: Permission from Head of School


17/11/2017

PO Box 2559

Randburg

2125

17 November 2017

The Acting Head of School
Wits School of Governance
2 St Davids Place
Parktown
Johannesburg
2050

Attention: Dr Ivor Sarakinsky

Good day Dr Sarakinsky

Approved with following condition(s):
- under no circumstances will private student information be provided to the researcher;

- The researcher will draft an email inviting WSG to participate in this research project;

- The consent form MUST be attached;
- WSG degree administrators may then forward this email + attachment to classes via a group e-mailing list;

- Students may then voluntarily agree to participate in the study; and
- those who participate in the study do so in

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT THE WITS SCHOOL OF GOVERNANCE: MG NTSHIQA: 0718222D: MMPDMP

their private capacity and their views in no way necessarily reflect those of WSG.

I am a Master of Management student currently registered for the Public Development and Management Program at the Wits School of Governance (WSG). My supervisor is Dr Kambidima Wotela.

I hereby request permission from you to conduct research at the Wits School of Governance.

I have defended this research proposal successfully in front of the defence panel on the 02 October 2017. The data will be collected using an online questionnaire. The title of this research is as follows: 'Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand'. The research questions are as follows, - that is - 'To what extent are the differences in perception on racism between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance?' and 'To what extent are the differences in perception on xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance? The hypotheses are as follows:

'There are significant differences in perception on racism between male and female students

Appendix 1.4: Approval from the Ethics Committee



HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Ntshiqe

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

PROTOCOL NUMBER: H17/11/66

PROJECT TITLE

Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand

INVESTIGATOR(S)

Mr M Ntshiqe

SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT

Wits School of Governance/

DATE CONSIDERED

16 December 2017

DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE

Approved

EXPIRY DATE

22 January 2021

DATE

23 January 2018

CHAIRPERSON

J Knight
(Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr K Wotela

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. **I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.**

[Signature]
Signature

23, 01, 2018
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix 1.5: Permission from the Office of the Registrar



OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY REGISTRAR

24 January 2018

Mr Mzubanzi Given Ntshika
Student number 0718222D
Masters Candidate
Wits School of Governance

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

"Exploring perceptions on racism and xenophobia at the University of the Witwatersrand"

This letter serves to confirm that the above project has received permission to be conducted on University premises, and/or involving staff and/or students of the University as research participants. In undertaking this research, you agree to abide by all University regulations for conducting research on campus and to respect participants' rights to withdraw from participation at any time.

If you are conducting research on certain student cohorts, year groups or courses within specific Schools and within the teaching term, permission must be sought from Heads of School or individual academics.

Ethical clearance has been obtained. (Protocol Number H17/11/66)


Nicoleen Potgieter
University Deputy Registrar

Appendix 2.1: Bio sketch

The student is a Master of Management (Public Development and Management) student at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. He conducted this research in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Management (Public Development and Management). In the research, he explored the differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance. He also sought to prove the hypothesis, that is ‘There are significant differences in perception on racism and xenophobia between male and female students at the Wits School of Governance.’ The research was self-sponsored by the student. The research is the property of the University of the Witwatersrand and the researcher will not deceive the community in any way. The results of this research will not be used to harm participants. They will be used to contribute new knowledge into academia.

Appendix 2.2: Demographic information

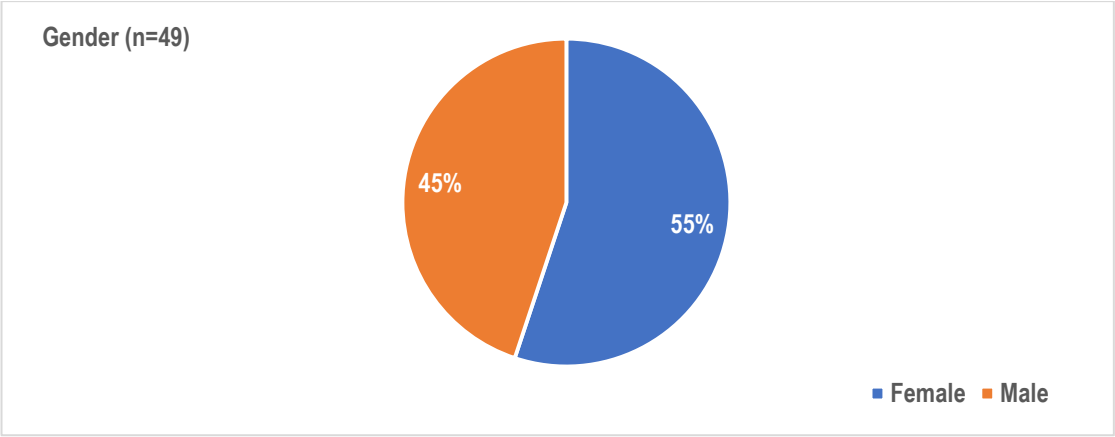


Figure 7: Gender

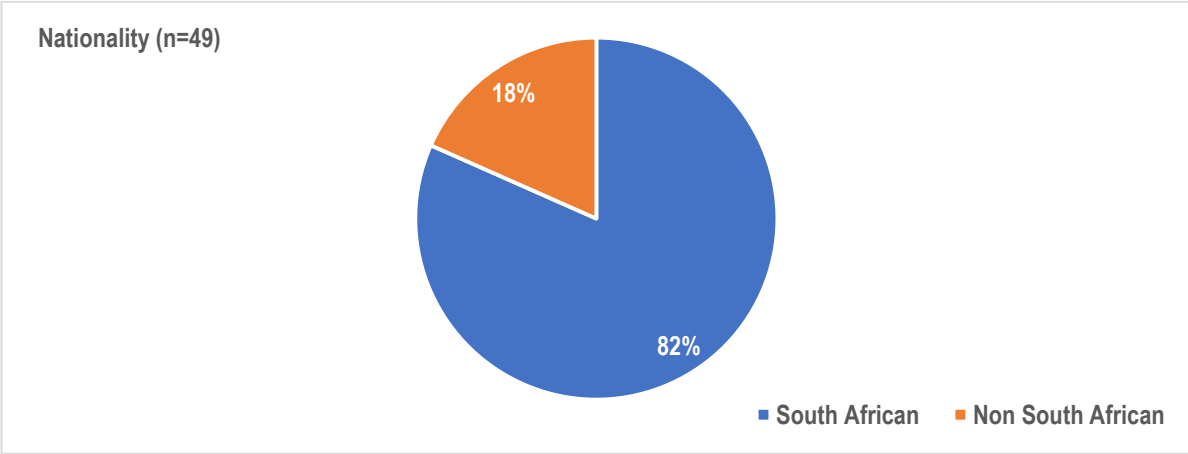


Figure 8: Nationality

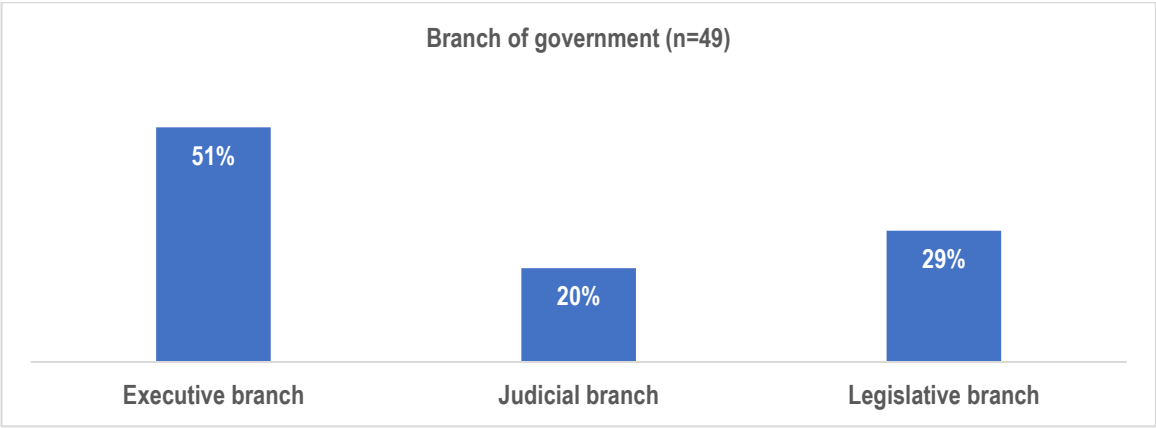


Figure 9: Branch of government

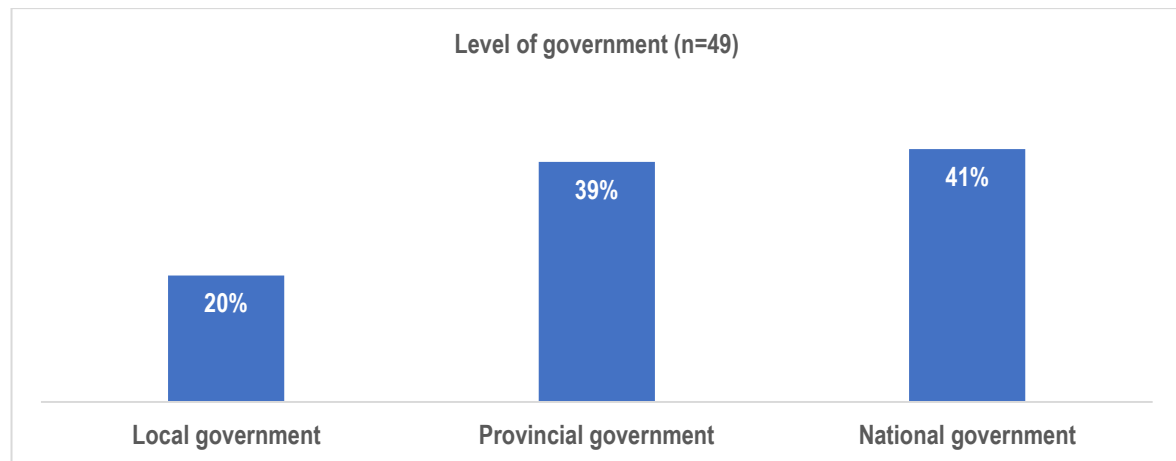


Figure 10: Level of government

Table 8: Perceptions on racism by demographics

		N	Mean
Nationality	South African	40	2,43
	Non-South African	9	2,33
Branch of government	Executive branch	25	2,46
	Judicial branch	10	2,24
	Legislative branch	14	2,44
Level of government	Local government	10	1,68
	Provincial government	19	2,45
	National government	20	2,73
Total		49	2,41

Table 9: ANOVA table on perceptions of racism by demographics

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	sig.
Nationality	0,062	1	0,062	129	0,72
Branch of government	0,357	2	0,178	371	0,69
Level of government	7,411	2	3,706	1	

1,315 ,00*

$p \leq 0.05^*$

Table 10: Perceptions on xenophobia by demographics

		N	Mean
Nationality	South African	40	2,54
	Non-South African	9	2,36
Branch of government	Executive branch	25	2,34
	Judicial branch	10	2,88
	Legislative branch	14	2,51
Level of government	Local government	10	2,10
	Provincial government	19	2,66
	National government	20	2,55
Total		49	2,50

Table 11: ANOVA table on perceptions of xenophobia by demographics

		d		S
	Sum of Squares	f	Mean Square	F ig.
Nationality			0,23	0
	0,237	1		0
		7	,620	,43
Branch of government			1,02	2
	2,055	2		0
		8	,933	,06
Level of government			1,07	3
	2,156	2		0
		8	,096	,05*

$p \leq 0.05^*$

.