

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC
VARIABLES AND JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF THE
EQUITY ACT

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own
unaided work and has not been submitted to any other
University for the purpose of any other degree.



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31 December 1999

Date

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ABSTRACT

The current research report examines the relationship between demographic variables and perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice. The study was performed with 124 employees from a company that services the steel industry in South Africa. The results indicated that there were significant relationships between some of the biographic variables, employment related variables, financial status, and health related variables, and perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice. The theoretical and practical implications of these results are discussed along with limitations of the current study and directions for future research.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

Justice can be seen to be an emergent characteristic of social aggregation. Such aggregation occurs as people identify important common elements in one another, and recognise the need for coexistence. In order to ensure the continuance of the group, common benefit for the majority of members must be maintained. This is done through the effective distribution of group and individual resources. These resources include not only material goods, but also conditions such as status and social opportunity. As such, a set of standards that determines acceptable behaviour will inevitably emerge. These standards form the basis of how the social group will differentiate between right and wrong, and adherence to, or deviation from, these standards will establish the basis for the perception of just or unjust treatment. As such, it can be seen that the differential allotment of goods or conditions to individuals or groups is central to the concept of justice (Randall & Mueller, 1995). At a broad societal level, issues of justice emerge in areas such as allocation of state resources, social inequality, as well as in the nature of political systems. On an interpersonal level, justice is relevant within more intimate social relations, as it pertains to the manner in which people are treated and regarded by others (Deutsch, 1986).

Why then, given this common set of standards, will one person judge a given outcome to be fair, while another might not? The complexity of social aggregation results in individuals identifying with many different social groups, and therefore subscribing to more than one set of

behavioural standards. While these standards might not differ considerably from one group to the next, there are likely to be areas where they would be in conflict. How do people decide which set of standards to subscribe to in different situations? What are the criteria used to judge whether something is fair or not? What determines how a justice judgement is made? These questions form the basis for much of the debate in this area, and have laid the foundation for extensive research into justice perceptions. The translation, however, of justice perceptions from abstruse ideas into measurable constructs has been a lengthy and complex process. The more recent researchers have relied on earlier definitions and operationalisation of the justice constructs as a guide to their research efforts. As such justice research tends to follow clear trends, based on an established direction.

1.2. AIM AND RATIONALE

In attempting to understand how people make justice judgements (i.e. how they decide whether a given outcome is fair or not) researchers have looked at a variety of inputs, or influencing factors. These have included characteristics of the decision making process (Barret-Howard and Tyler, 1986; Bies & Shapiro, 1988; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), characteristics of the context in which the decision has been made (Moorman, 1991, Nunns, 1995), as well as characteristics of the outcome itself (Adams, 1963; Jasso, 1980). In addition, attention has been given to cognitive processes that underpin the making of a justice judgement (Adams, 1965 ; Homans, 1961). Researchers have also focussed on both the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of justice perceptions (Alexander & Rudman, 1987; Ball, Trevino and Sims, 1994; Black, 1983; Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

Through this research, the complexity of justice perceptions has become increasingly evident. Yet within this complexity remain some relatively under researched, simple concepts. The notion that justice perceptions can differ from individual to individual is widely accepted (Deutsch, 1975 ; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), yet a focus on individual traits or characteristics that may be affecting such differences, have not formed the focus of many research efforts. Through considering demographic variables (i.e. characteristics of the individual that determine lifestyle placement e.g. age, gender, work history, or health) as possible inputs to the justice judgement process, the current study attempts to explore these characteristics as potential bases for difference between individuals with regards to perceptions of justice.

The notion of justice is receiving considerable attention as South Africa comes to terms with both it's history and it's new political and social dispensation. What lies at the centre of most post apartheid endeavours is the attempt to create a just and equitable society, while redressing injustices of the past. As a result of these efforts a stream of new legislation is modifying the bases for distribution of conditions and goods in our workplaces, courts, places of education, and society at large. Given the recognition that context impacts on justice perceptions (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), it is evident that we cannot simply import international research findings in trying to understand our own circumstances. Instead, research is needed that explores different aspects of justice against the specific backdrop of current day South Africa. By using a piece of South African work place legislation to contextualise this study ,

the current research effort aims to contribute towards a body of literature specific to the needs of our society. As such, the current study will explore the relationship between demographic variables and justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act (the Act).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Early research, and much of the subsequent research into justice perceptions, has been based on the theoretical notion that justice can be regarded from three different perspectives or in relation to three separate concerns, namely distributive, procedural, and interpersonal aspects. The division of justice into these three areas is based on an a priori logic that gained popular support by researchers. The use of these three justice dimensions has become the most prevalent approach to understanding and researching justice, and each dimension has received a differing amount of individual attention.

2.1. DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

Distributive justice is concerned with " the distribution of the conditions and goods which effect individual (psychological, social and economic) well being." (Deutsch, 1975, p137) It refers to the perceived fairness of outcomes (Ball, Trevino and Sims , 1994). Distributive justice perceptions were one of the first areas to receive popular attention by researchers in a variety of different disciplines. In fact, this dimension of justice held researchers almost exclusive attention until the mid 1970's (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997) and as such, all research prior to this time defined justice perceptions as being most centrally about how a given outcome was viewed by the receiver of that outcome. With the outcome being the point of focus, research attempted to explore what processes were used by individuals and groups to judge whether such an outcome would be perceived as just or not.

While such distributive justice concerns formed the focus of some early philosophical debate, as far back as Aristotle's times, Homan (1961) first laid the foundation for more modern thinking in this area, with the introduction of what he termed 'the rule of distributive justice' (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). According to this rule, there are expectations held by parties to a social exchange relationship that the reward of each party will be proportional to the costs of each party (Adams, 1965). In his Equity Theory, Adams (1965) proposes that justice is upheld when the individual perceives that his/her outcomes (such as pay) are allocated in proportion to his/her perceived inputs and contributions. He propounds that whenever an exchange occurs between two parties, the possibility exists that either party might perceive that exchange to be inequitable (Adams, 1963).

Each party brings certain contributions to the exchange, for which they expect a just return. These 'inputs' are as perceived by the contributor, and may not be congruous with those of the other party. An individual, for example, may perceive his relevant 'investments' into an employment relationship to be his intelligence, qualifications, and creativity, and will expect his financial remuneration to be in line with such inputs. If, however, his employer does not see one or more of those inputs, for example creativity, as being relevant to the exchange, it will not be taken into account when remuneration is calculated. As such inputs need to be both recognised and considered relevant by their recipient. If only the person possessing the attribute considers it to be relevant to the exchange, then problems of inequity will arise (Adams, 1963). Crozier (1960, in Adams, 1963) illustrates this point using an example involving Parisian bankers. Paris born clerks worked along side Province born clerks in a bank in central Paris, all doing identical work and earning identical wages. The Parisians were dissatisfied with their wages, as they

perceived their Parisian breeding to be an input into the employment relationship that was deserving of financial compensation. The bank management did not see that attribute as being relevant within the exchange relationship and therefore did not afford them any more compensation than Province born employees.

In exchange for inputs, people expect certain rewards or 'outcomes'. Outcomes can include pay, status symbols, fringe benefits, and job status among many others. Similar to inputs, outcomes are as perceived by the parties, and can therefore also be characterised by recognition and relevance (Adams, 1963). For example, a manager might give an employee verbal recognition for having worked overtime in order to reach an important deadline. The employee does not see any utility in that outcome (praise), and therefore does not perceive it as relevant to the exchange. He would have preferred monetary compensation, which has some marginal utility to him, and is thus dissatisfied with the outcome. In contrast, however, another employee might feel that the praise has psychological utility, will thus see the outcome as being relevant, and we be satisfied.

It is clear that many factors may be considered to be inputs by either the contributor, the recipient, or both. Adams (1963) identifies education, intelligence, experience, seniority, age, gender, social status, and ethnic background to be just some of the attributes that parties to the exchange may perceive as being relevant. He hypothesises that these 'principal inputs', as he terms them, vary in their degree of relationship to one another, with some being closely correlated to each other, and others functioning largely independently. For example, he suggests that an input such as gender is primarily independent of other inputs, while age may be

highly correlated with seniority or experience. While acknowledging that these relationships, or lack thereof, “ exist in a state of nature” (Adams, 1963, p422), Adams propounds that it is probable that cognitively, an individual will consider all input variables independently of one another.

A central idea that emanated from those research efforts is the notion that distributive justice judgements emerge from a comparison process, whereby the recipient of an outcome judges their allocation relative to that of another individual, group or imagined scenario (Jasso, 1980; Folger, 1977; Greenberg, 1982). Through a series of social comparisons, the individual contrasts his/her own inputs and outcomes with his/her perceptions of others' inputs and outcomes. Should the ratio be viewed as unequal, then inequity tension is experienced. (Adams, 1965).

Initial research in the research of distributive justice perceptions focussed on the making of the justice judgements, and in doing so looked at how referent others were selected, and the way in which people assess the inputs and outcomes of others, as well as testing out Adams' equity theory. With regards to the responses to perceptions of injustice research has shown that negative distributive justice perceptions result in behaviours such as poor performance (Cowherd & Levine, 1992; Pfeffer & Langton, 1993; cited in Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997) and turnover and absenteeism (Schwarzald, Kowslowsky and Shalit, 1992; cited in Cropanzano & Levine; 1997). These distributive justice concerns gave rise to interest in procedural justice matters, which emerged as a co-determining factor in justice perceptions (Folger, 1977)

2.2. PROCEDURAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

Procedural justice concerns itself with the perceived fairness of the procedures used to reach outcomes. The procedural justice approach focuses on process and the influence such processes have on fairness perceptions (Thibaut and Walker, 1975). Much of the theoretical work in this area focuses on characteristics of procedures, or different types of procedures, that impact on justice judgements (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). One of the most noted of these theorists is Leventhal, who proposed six criteria that could be used to evaluate the fairness of allocation procedures. These six criteria include consistency (the application of rules equally to all concerned over time), bias suppression (the prevention of self-interest in the allocation process), accuracy (the basing of decisions on accurate information), correctability (the modifiability of decisions where appropriate), representativeness (the representation of all parties concerned in the process), ethicality (the reflection of current ethical and moral principles in the process).

Folger (1977) identified two further characteristics of procedures that enhance or decrease an individual's sense of participation in procedures and outcomes. Voice procedures are those that allow the individual to contribute to the decision making, and mute procedures are those that deny people that opportunity. Research has shown that voice procedures were perceived as fairer than mute procedures on studies involving participatory decision making (Greenberg, 1987, Folger, 1977).

Thibaut and Walker (1975), proposed a psychological model that looked at procedural justice preferences. This theory suggests that it is issues of control distribution between participants and

the third party that are central to perceptions of fair processes (Tyler, 1989). A distinction is made between two types of control that occur at two stages in any given procedure, namely process control and decision control. Process control refers to the individuals control over the presentation of facts, information and evidence, while decision control refers to the participants control over the actual decision made (Ambrose, Kulik and Harland, 1991). Research has indicated that process control is more important than decision control, and that process control is important even if it is not linked to decision control (Tyler, 1989). Hence injustice is most likely to be perceived to have occurred if an individual perceives a lack of process control (Randall and Mueller, 1995).

Research conducted by Thibaut and Walker (1975) has indicated that the highest levels of satisfaction with procedure are experienced when an individual has both process and decision control (Ambrose, Harland & Kulik, 1991). A critical element of this theory is that the perceived fairness of the procedure will result in satisfaction with the outcome itself, regardless of whether the outcome is positive or not (Barrett-Howard and Tyler, 1986). Many theorists have noted the relationship between procedural and distributive justice (Randall and Mueller, 1995; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Folger (1977) refers to a mutual influence or co-determination, where perceptions of the procedures used will impact on the perceptions of the outcome itself. Research conducted by Alexander and Rudman (1987) concluded that perceived distributive justice and procedural justice have independent effects on work behaviour (Randall and Mueller, 1995).

In looking at how people judge procedures to be fair or not, it would appear that characteristics of the procedure itself has been the main thrust of research efforts. Further research in this area has looked at outcomes of, or responses to procedural justice judgements (Brockner, J & Wiesenfeld, B.M., 1996). Other areas of interest have also been the importance of procedural

justice perceptions. In looking at this, the interpersonal treatment of individuals became an area of concern. As such interpersonal justice perceptions emerged as an additional aspect of justice perceptions. Some authors identify interpersonal justice an aspect of procedural justice, while others refer to it as a separate justice dimension (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

2.3. INTERPERSONAL JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

There is little clear agreement over the definition of interpersonal justice. Some authors refer to it as the manner in which outcomes are communicated to employees on an interpersonal level (Greenberg, 1987), while other writers define it to be about the perceived fairness of the treatment received and the symbolic and intangible outcomes of procedures (for example respect) (Folger and Konovsky, 1989)

As it has only recently been looked at as a phenomenon, theory about interpersonal justice is scarce (Nunns, 1995). The group-value model developed by Lind and Tyler incorporates elements of interpersonal justice, in looking at non-control issues that impact on procedural justice perceptions (Tyler, 1989). This model identifies three elements that become of value to people when making justice judgements, due to the value placed on social group membership, namely neutrality, trust and standing. Neutrality, however, bares no significance in relation to interpersonal justice, and will therefore not be looked at within this context.

Trust pertains to the perceived intentions of the third parties, and involves the belief that they desire to treat people in a fair and benevolent manner (Tyler, 1989). The intentions of the third party are particularly important as current interactions allow the individual to make assumptions of how things will be in the future. If this tenet of interpersonal justice is violated, then commitment and loyalty to the organisation will decrease (Tyler, 1989). Standing refers to the individuals concern with their status in the group. If they are treated rudely, they are aware that the authority they are dealing with views them as having low standing within the group. However, "...if authorities show respect for the individuals' rights as a group member, individuals gain knowledge that those rights will be respected, whereas abuse of one's rights brings their existence into question." (Tyler, 1989, p831) In this way, it can be seen that interpersonal justice evaluations will impact on other types of justice judgements.

Greenberg (1990) describes two aspects of interpersonal justice, namely the interpersonal treatment received from decision makers (such as respect, courtesy and friendliness), and the use of adequate explanations and causal accounts for the outcome (justification). In addition, Greenberg (1990) postulates that these two aspects of interpersonal justice will impact on procedural justice perceptions, although no research has tested this. Furthermore, Greenberg and McCarty (cited in Nunns, 1995) argue that the manner in which a decision outcome is communicated to an employee will influence the perceived fairness of the outcome itself.

It can be seen from the above discussion that research into justice perceptions has, to date, focussed on identifying different aspects of justice, the determinants of justice perceptions within these aspects, and the outcomes related to justice judgements. This research has also

revealed the complexity of justice perceptions, given the different dimensions contributing to justice perceptions, the number of different standards for allocation, the range of different goods and conditions, as well as the different recipients of allocations. In addition to this, research has been undertaken within a number of different settings. The context in which the justice judgements are being made warrants specific attention for any research in this area, as the purpose for which the social aggregation occurred will play a fundamental role in determining the basis for justice judgements. As such, the setting for the present study needs mention.

2.4. WORKPLACE JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

Workplace settings form the context of the present study. For the purposes of this research a workplace setting is defined as an aggregation of people whose main common purpose is to provide a means of subsistence for all its members through the generation of economic productivity. Workplace justice concerns itself with the ways in which employees determine whether they have been fairly treated in their jobs, and the way in which perceptions of justice impact on other work related variables (Moorman, 1991). As justice concerns are formalised in workplace settings through organisational policy and procedures, they provide an interesting context for studying justice perceptions. In addition, many phenomenon that happen naturally and subtly in other settings, occur in a structured and apparent manner in workplace settings. For example, people are graded according to a given set of criteria, and are afforded material goods as well a status in relation to those gradings. In addition, behaviour is strictly governed by a clear set of standards that are based in the legal framework of broader society.

example of this. Concerns about redressing past injustice to black, coloured and Indian South Africans have resulted in a statutory policy with regards to recruitment and employment of the previously disadvantaged

The Employment Equity Act – Affirmative Action

The Act was ratified in 1998, and is therefore one of the more recent pieces of legislation affecting the workplace. The Act calls for particular employers to implement affirmative action, aimed at previously disadvantaged groups, in their workplace.

The concept of Affirmative action is a very controversial one, and part of this controversy lies in the fact that there seems to be dichotomously opposed views with regards to how fair it is. The different perceptions of justice surrounding affirmative action can be clearly seen when looking at how it is defined by various authors. While Innes defines affirmative action as "...a set of procedures aimed at proactively addressing the disadvantages experienced by sections of the community in the past." (1994; p. 4), other writers such as Shubane (1995; p. 1) say that affirmative action is based in showing preference to one group, inevitably at the expense of another group. She holds that "Although its proponents will deny the claim, this approach differs little from Apartheid, which derived from an assumption that whites should be entitled to exclusive benefits simply because they were white." (Shubane; 1995; p. 1)

A more tentative approach is adopted by Sonn (in Adams; 1993, p.1) who cites "...racial preferential treatment for good reasons." Caldwell (1992 ; p. 62-63) is far more direct and critical of what he sees as a blatantly discriminatory policy. He says that "(But) affirmative action is the

factors such as the economy, politics, legal factors, historical context, social and demographic factors, as well as technological factors all act on the workplace as inputs (Tustin, 1994). These inputs are processed through the workplace, and result in outcomes such as productivity, employment turnover, absenteeism, profit, strike action, and job creation all of which impact on broader society. In turn, these become inputs again (Tustin, 1994). This can be clearly seen within workplace settings in South Africa, where broader societal concerns about past discrimination, race relations, poverty, unemployment, as well as politics, are all emerging as important workplace concerns. In addition, new labour legislation is having a direct impact on almost every area of workplace functioning, including selection, recruitment, discipline, assessment, and training and development. Concepts about justice that emanate elsewhere in society are, therefore, imported into the workplace. The Employment Equity Act is a clear example of this. Concerns about redressing past injustice to black, coloured and Indian South Africans have resulted in a statutory policy with regards to recruitment of the previously disadvantaged

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While it is certainly contentious, and as such is widely spoken about and debated, at an individual, organisational and national level, it has not been widely researched as of yet. It is a piece of legislation that has implications for every individual in the workplace, and for the workplace as a whole. An understanding of how this act is perceived is therefore very important. While the main focus of this research is justice perceptions, these perceptions have to be looked at within a given context and in relation to a specific issue. While this issue need not

be of particular concern other than it should elicit a justice judgement, an opportunity exists to research a matter that is significant and which we need to know more about. As such, the Act will be the vehicle used to elicit justice judgements from the respondents. Further to this, prior research indicates that there may be important differences between racial groups and gender with regards to their perceptions of affirmative action within their organisations (Parker, Baltes, & Christiansen, 1997). This research provides an opportunity to test and extend such findings.

2.5. DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS

From the foregone discussion it can readily be appreciated that a situation, a series of events and decisions take place, which result in a given outcome. An individual forms a perception of whether that outcome and the means used to reach that outcome are congruent with their expectations. As such, they make a justice judgement. That justice judgement, in turn, impacts on their response to the individual or group who they perceived as having made the outcome decision. Research has focussed on explaining how that justice judgement is made (Adams, 1965, Homans, 1961) , and in turn why one person might judge a given outcome to be fair while another might not (Deutsch, 1985, Greenberg, 1990). Further research has attempted to explore a range of possible behavioural and cognitive responses to justice perceptions (Randall & Mueller, 1995; Katz & Miller, 1999; Moorman, 1991). The focus of the present study is on the former area, that of determining how justice judgements are made.

Any justice judgement has to be seen as an interaction between the context in which the outcome is being allocated, the process of making an outcome decision, the actual outcome, and

the individual perception thereof. Thus characteristics of the context, the process, the outcome, and the individual are all likely to impact on the type of justice judgement made. While research has been prolific in the first three areas, it would appear that research focusing on differences between individuals as an input when making justice judgements (e.g. demographic variables) is a much neglected focus.

Research that does include some of these demographic variables appear to include them as an afterthought or convenience, as opposed to a purposeful and directed enquiry. Greenberg (1987) included gender as an independent variable when looking at the interaction between procedure and outcome. Initially Greenberg refers to gender as one of four independent variables (where outcome level, procedural fairness, and origin of procedure were the other three), but after this initial description he refers to it as an 'exploratory' variable. He does not elaborate with regards to what is meant by exploratory. In addition, after including gender in the design and the analysis, Greenberg (1987) makes no further mention of it. The results related to gender are not discussed, and even the literature review gives no indication as to why it was included in the study. It would appear that gender was randomly included, possibly in line with available data. The results, however, were non-significant.

Research conducted by Lind, Tyler & Huo (1997) attempted to test the generalisability of procedural justice perceptions across culture. However they failed to adequately explore the concept of culture, and merely identified it in relation to subjects in different countries. Whether what they were exploring was cultural differences is debatable. As such, there is very little groundwork for future research in this area. Ball, Trevino, and Sims (1994) tested whether

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Research that does include some of these demographic variables appear to include them as an afterthought or convenience, as opposed to a purposeful and directed enquiry. Greenberg (1987) included gender as an independent variable when looking at the interaction between procedure and outcome. Initially Greenberg refers to gender as one of four independent variables (where outcome level, procedural fairness, and origin of procedure were the other three), but after this initial description he refers to it as an 'exploratory' variable. He does not elaborate with regards to what is meant by exploratory. In addition, after including gender in the design and the analysis, Greenberg (1987) makes no further mention of it. The results related to gender are not discussed, and even the literature review gives no indication as to why it was included in the study. It would appear that gender was randomly included, possibly in line with available data. The results, however, were non-significant.

Research conducted by Lind, Tyler & Huo (1997) attempted to test the generalisability of procedural justice perceptions across culture. However they failed to adequately explore the concept of culture, and merely identified it in relation to subjects in different countries. Whether what they were exploring was cultural differences is debatable. As such, there is very little groundwork for future research in this area. Ball, Trevino, and Sims (1994) tested whether

personality traits, (that of belief in a just world, and negative affectivity) influence perceptions of whether a punishment event was perceived as just or not. While the results were significant, the sample proposes certain problems. The ages of the respondents ranged from 23 to 61, work experience ranged from 2 to 46 years, and management experience ranged from 1 to 30 years. Despite the large ranges for these demographic variables, they were not investigated as possible contributors to the results. Maturity, work experience, and managerial experience are all likely to impact on perceptions of punishment. As such the results can be considered somewhat spurious.

It is clear that characteristics of the individual, such as personality, cultural background, and intelligence, need to be looked at as potentially important variables in justice perceptions. Of these individual characteristics, the most basic could be seen to be demographic variables. A persons gender, race, age, level of education, and work experience, among many others, would be a logical starting point for exploration, and upon which to build further research.

Demographic variables, for the purposes of this research, can be understood to be features of the individual that determine lifestyle placement e.g. age, gender, work history, or health.

While some demographic data is collected in all research, this has, within justice research, been inconsistent in content, and used primarily to describe the sample. None of this data, within all the research reviewed by the author, was subjected to any kind of analysis, or if analyses were conducted, they were not reported on, possibly indicating that none of it was significant. Lack of significant results can, however, be a consequence of lack of adequate attention, improper

statistical procedures, as well as a failure to look at the interaction between variables. In addition, Ball, Trevino and Sims (1994) state that only one other piece of research, conducted by Arvey and Ivancevich (1985), looked at individual differences in relation to justice judgements. As such, there is a lack of research in an area that can potentially be very important in explaining on what basis judgements are made.

2.6. RESEARCH QUESTION

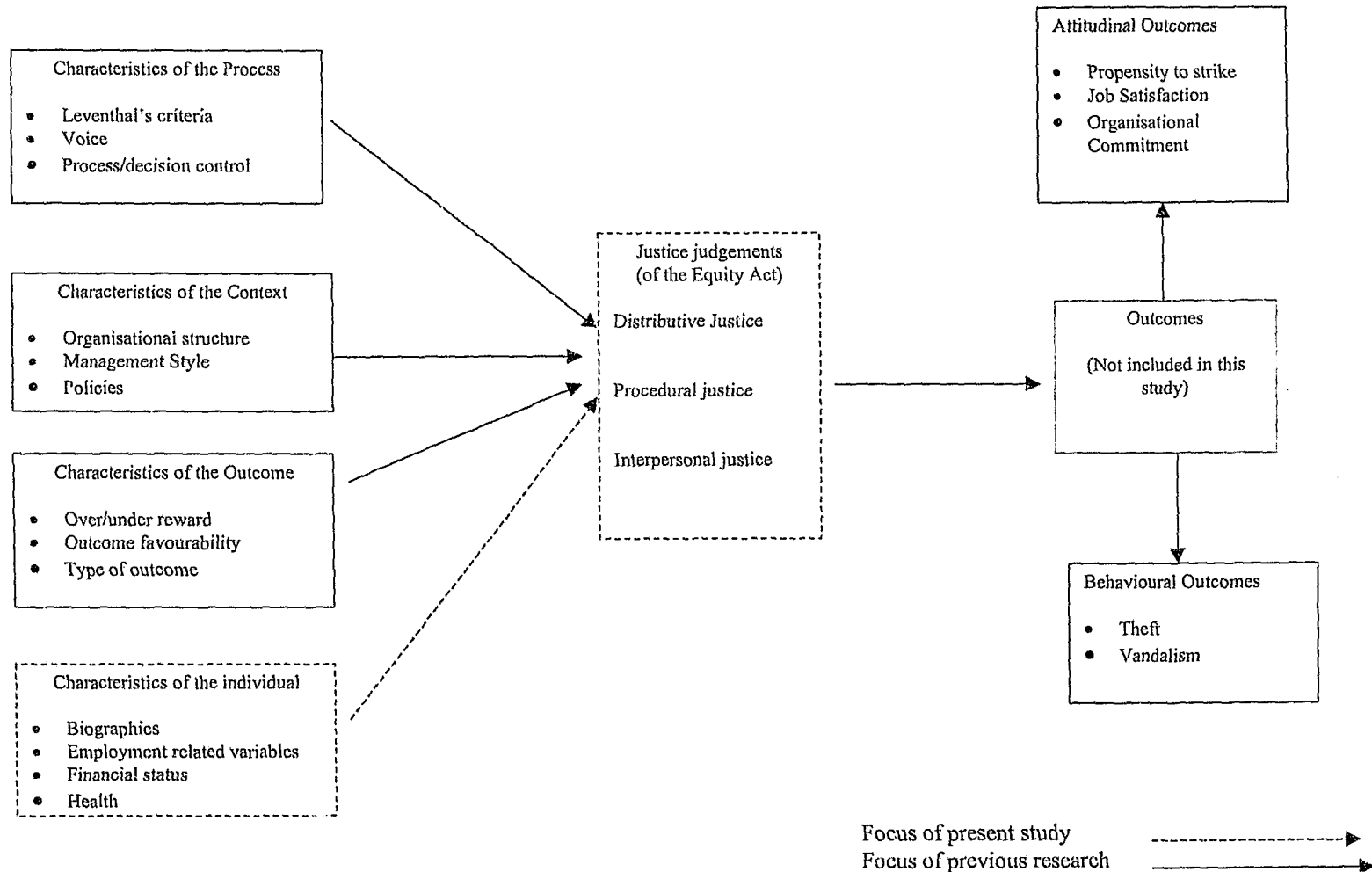
From the above discussion, it can be seen that an important research question has emerged. At its broadest it may be asked in the following way: Do individual characteristics impact on justice judgements? However there are many variables that may constitute characteristics of the individual, and many different justice judgements that people make. For the purposes of the current study, demographic variables (i.e. characteristics of the individual that determine lifestyle placement e.g. age, gender, work history, or health) have been selected as one set of variables related to individual differences, and perceptions of the Employment Equity Act as a pertinent vehicle for justice perceptions to be explored. As such, the research question for the present study is: Is there a relationship between demographic variables and justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act? Figure 1 (See page 19) illustrates the proposed model for investigation.

More specifically, demographic variables have been broken up into four categories, namely biographic variables, employment related variables, financial status variables, and health variables.

As such, the following questions are being explored in the current study:

1. Is there a relationship between Biographical variables (i.e. Age, gender, race, education, marital status, and number of children) and justice perceptions of the Act?
2. Is there a relationship between Employment related variables (i.e. job level, type of employment, tenure, length of service in current position, employment history, and union membership) and justice perceptions of the Act?
3. Is there a relationship between Financial and justice perceptions of the Act
4. Is there a relationship between Health related variables (presence of acute or chronic illness in respondent or dependants, and disability of respondent or dependants)) and justice perceptions of the Act.

Figure 1: Proposed Model for Investigation



CHAPTER 3 : METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides information on the methods used and procedures followed in completing the current research. The chapter includes biographical information on participating subjects, the design of the study, the nature of and justification for the use of instruments for data collection, and how the data was analysed.

3.1. PROCEDURE

The present study was conducted in the South African branch of a large international organisation. This organisation operates in the steel industry, providing an ancillary service to steel manufacturers through the collection and recycling of their waste material. As such they are set up within close physical proximity to steel manufacturing sites. The company employs approximately 700 people, and operates from eight sites around South Africa. A wide range and level of skill and expertise is utilised within this company. On any given site there are a number of manual labourers, people who operate heavy and sometimes complex machinery, supervisors, administrative and clerical staff, as well as a site manager. The administrative, human resource, strategic, and financial functions of the company are run from a head office situated in Johannesburg.

As the present study is focussing on demographic variables, an organisation that could afford access to a very diverse potential sample was essential, and this organisation proved to be appropriate in this regard. After obtaining permission to conduct this research in the organisation,

the researcher met with both the Human Resource Manager and the Industrial Relations Manager in order to discuss the logistics of administering the relevant measuring instruments. Certain methodological concerns were presented as a result of including the full complement of employees in the research (apart from one site that was excluded from this study at the request of the Human resources Manger due to certain Industrial Relations concerns emanating from restructuring at that site at the time the research was being conducted). Some of the sites are located in geographically diverse areas, inaccessible to the researcher, and some of the employees are illiterate, making paper and pencil tests impossible for them to complete. As such different procedures were used in order to collect the data, depending on the geographical location of the site, and the literacy levels of the employees.

All scales, instructions, and preambles were translated into three languages other than English, namely Zulu, Southern Sotho, and Afrikaans. This was done in accordance with the languages spoken by employees of the organisation. Back translations were conducted in order to check the accuracy of the translations, and corrections made where necessary. The completed questionnaire package was piloted on 17 literate employees. All four languages were piloted. Due to problems with the Southern Sotho translation, the entire questionnaire package for that language was re-translated, back translated, and piloted on 3 employees. Two minor changes were made in the Afrikaans and English versions in order to clarify unclear or ambiguous instructions.

Where sites were geographically accessible, the Human Resource Manager accompanied the researcher on site, where questionnaires were distributed through managers and shop stewards. The Industrial relations manager had met with shop stewards from the different sites, prior to the

administration of the questionnaires, in order to explain the nature of the research to them.

Envelopes with labels addressed to the researcher were provided with each questionnaire, and a sealed box was made available in communal areas for the completed questionnaires to be placed in. For illiterate employees, shop stewards or site trainers were recruited to hold a group session, where such employees were guided through the questionnaire and instructed how to complete it by making crosses or ticks. Confidentiality was ensured in all instances as respondents were not asked to provide any identifying information, and all completed questionnaires were sealed in envelopes.

For the geographically remote sites, where the researcher and the Human resource manager were unable to be present, questionnaires were given to site managers when they were in Johannesburg. They were given the opportunity to ask any questions and gain clarity on any concerns. They were asked to distribute the questionnaires and envelopes to all literate personnel, and to provide a box at a central point for collection of completed questionnaires. Again shop stewards or site trainers were asked to hold a group session for any illiterate staff wanting to complete a questionnaire. All completed questionnaires were returned to the Johannesburg head office via courier. By request from the shop stewards, questionnaires completed by literate and illiterate respondents were placed in the same box, in order to preserve confidentiality.

The different data collection procedures present certain limitations for this study, which will be discussed in more detail in chapter 5.

Of the 600 questionnaires distributed only 165 were returned. This represents a 27.5% response rate. Of those returned, 25 from one site were spoiled, as a result of a line being drawn through the questionnaire and being placed, incomplete, into a sealed envelope. 17 were unusable, either as a result of being incomplete or incorrectly filled out. A total of 123 responses were used in this study. This represents a usability rate of 20.5%. Such poor response rates can be as a result of the contentious nature of the research. Affirmative Action is a very emotive issue in South Africa at the moment, and employees may have felt that the questions being asked were too sensitive. In addition to this, unions in South Africa distrust research being conducted by psychologists and through management, due to historical abuses of such investigations. This, coupled with possible employee uncertainty regarding plans for Affirmative Action in the organisation, resulted in very poor union support for this study. As such, employees were less likely to participate. A further possible explanation for the poor response rate may be the sensitive nature of the biographical questions asked. Questions relating to financial status and health can be particularly concerning for people, and they may have had difficulty seeing the relevance of such questions.

3.2 SUBJECTS

The average age of the respondents in the current study is 39 years old with the youngest subject being 21, and the oldest 62 (See Table 1, p. 27). With regards to gender, the sample consists mainly of men ($n=99$, 80.5%) with there being only 24 women (19.5%) (See Table 2, p. 28). While this proportion of men to women may not be typical both of the South African population as a whole, and of many South African organisations, it is to be expected within this given industry.

Table 1: Means, Standards Deviations, Minima and Maxima of Biographical Information

	N	Mean	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Sd. Deviation
Age	120	39.20	41.00	21.00	62.00	9.50

Table 2: Frequencies and Percentages of Biographical Information

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender:			
Male	99	80.5	80.5
Female	24	19.5	100.0
Total	123	100.0	
Race:			
Black	44	35.8	35.8
White	67	54.5	90.2
Coloured	12	9.8	100.0
Total	123	100.0	
Education level:			
No high school	17	14.5	14.5
Partial high schooling	24	20.5	35.0
Matric certificate	29	24.8	59.8
Diploma	12	10.3	70.1
Trade	25	21.4	91.5
Degree	6	5.1	96.6
Higher Diploma	4	3.4	100.0
Total	117	100.0	
Language:			
English	40	32.5	32.5
Afrikaans	57	46.3	78.9
Sotho	18	14.6	93.5
Zulu	8	6.5	100.0
Total	123	100.0	

Given that this organisation services the steel industry, many of the jobs are labour intensive and are considered to fall within the 'male domain'. In addition, the administrative and managerial functions have their base in traditionally male dominated fields such as engineering and mechanics, and these positions are therefore typically filled by men. As such the ratio of men to women seen in this sample is representative of this industry, where women mainly occupy clerical and support positions.

Racially, the sample is composed of white, black, and coloured people, with there being no Asian or Indian representation. The majority of respondents are white ($n=67$, 54.5%), followed by blacks ($n=44$, 35.8%), and finally coloureds ($n=12$, 9.8%) (See Table 2, p. 28). The racial composition of the sample is not representative of the broader South African population, where whites are a minority, but again, may be more typical of many South African organisations that still have demographically disproportionate workforces due to previous biased employment policies. Respondents were not asked their home language directly, but instead language frequencies were obtained from observing which language questionnaire people chose to complete. 57 (46.3%) respondents completed Afrikaans questionnaires, 40 (32.5%) English questionnaires, 18 (14.6%) completed Sotho questionnaires, with only 8 (6.5%) selecting Zulu (See Table 2, p. 28). The choice of language is not only influenced by race, but is also likely to be a function of geographic location. One of the sites sampled is in the Cape, where all racial groups speak Afrikaans, contributing to the high response rate in this language. The Durban site, where Zulu is very widely spoken, was not included in this study, which contributed to the low frequencies for this language.

With regards to education levels, the sample ranged from people with no high school education (n=17, 14.5%), to respondents who have obtained a degree or higher diploma (n=10, 8.5%). 35% (n=41) of the sample have not completed high school, 24.8% (29) have obtained a matric certificate, while 47 (40.1 %) have had some form of tertiary education. For those who have undergone further studies after matric, trades are the most frequent form of qualification (n=25, 21.4%) (See Table 2, p. 28). This is in line with the nature of the industry, which makes use of a variety of different trades.

The cross tabulations between race, gender, and language (See Table 3, p. 32) indicate that of the 99 men in the sample, 36 are black, 51 are white, and 12 are coloured. Of the 24 women, eight are black, 16 are white, and none are coloured. Of the Black respondents, 18 and seven are Sotho and Zulu speakers respectively, while six are English speakers, and five Afrikaans. There is only one female Zulu speaker, while four speak English, and three Afrikaans. All the Coloured respondents speak Afrikaans. The white respondents speak only English and Afrikaans, with 20 White men speaking English, and 31 Afrikaans. 10 White females speak English, and six Afrikaans.

With regards to length of service in the organisation (See Table 4, p. 33), the average tenure for this sample is 5.70 years, with the average length of time in current position being 3.38 years. The overwhelming majority of respondents are employed full time by the organisation (n=109, 88.6%). Only 14 people (12.4%) are employed under other contract types (See Table 5, p. 34). For purposes of analysis, all part time, contract, casual, and temporary respondents have been grouped together as non- full time employees. This proportion of full time to non- full time

workers is not representative of this organisation's workforce, which makes heavy use of casual and contract staff. The lack of representation of these groups could perhaps stem from their reluctance to complete questionnaires that they feel may jeopardize their continued employment. Without the security of full time employment, they may feel more vulnerable when completing questionnaires such as the one in the current study.

With regards to job level, 25.2 % (n=31) of the sample are management or supervisors.

Administrative staff makes up 10.6% (n=13) of the sample, and clerical staff 8.9% (n=13).

Agreement staff (i.e. staff who work on site) make up the majority of the sample (n=68, 55.3%) (See Table 5, p. 34).

48.8% (n=60) of the respondents did not belong to a union, but of those respondents who are unionised (n=63, 51.2%) the overwhelming majority belonged to the National Union of Metal workers of South Africa (n=52, 42.3%) . The remaining 11 respondents (9.8%) belong, for the most part to trade unions such as the Boilermakers Association of South Africa (See Table 5, p. 34). Again, these percentages are not reflective of the degree of unionisation in this organisation. The number of unionised employees in this sample are relatively low compared to the organisation as a whole. This could, in part, be due to many unions' historical distrust of psychologists and the type of research they have traditionally conducted in South African organisations. As a result of this distrust, many unions and their representatives are very reluctant to support research initiatives (particularly ones that concern contentious matters such as the current research), and union members are, in turn, reluctant to cooperate.

Table 3: Cross Tabulation Between Gender, Race, and Language

GENDER			LANGUAGE				Total
			English	Afrikaans	Sotho	Zulu	
Male	RACE	Black	6	5	18	7	36
		White	20	31			51
		Coloured		12			12
	Total		26	48	18	7	99
Female	RACE	Black	4	3		1	8
		White	10	6			16
	Total		14	9		1	24

Table 4: Means, Standards Deviations, Minima and Maxima of Job Related Variables

	N	Mean	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Deviation
Tenure	121	5.70	35.90	.10	36.00	7.49
Current Position	121	3.38	24.90	.10	25.00	4.96

N= number of subjects. All other figures given in years.

Table 5: Frequencies and Percentages of Job related Variables

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Type of Employment:			
Full Time	109	88.6	88.6
Part Time	1	8	89.4
Casual	6	4.9	94.3
Contract	3	2.4	96.7
Temporary	4	3.3	100.0
Total	123	100.0	
Job Level:			
Manager	17	13.8	13.8
Supervisor	14	11.4	25.2
Administrative	13	10.6	35.8
Clerical	11	8.9	44.7
Agreement*	68	55.3	100.0
Total	123	100.0	
Union Membership:			
None	60	48.8	48.8
NUMSA	52	42.3	91.1
Other	11	9.8	100.0
Total	123	100.0	

* Refers to staff working on site, in positions other than clerical or administrative.

3.3. RESEARCH DESIGN

The current study is quantitative in nature, and makes use of a non-experimental, partially exploratory, cross-sectional, correlational design. The design is non-experimental as there is no control or manipulation of the independent variable. In addition to this, there is no control group (Leedy, 1993). According to Kerlinger (1986), non-experimental research is the most systematic, empirical enquiry from which inferences about the relationships between variables (rather than cause and effect relationships) can be made.

The current research is exploratory in nature because while the relationship between demographic variables and justice perceptions have been given some attention as by-products of other research efforts, no attempts have been made to intentionally explore specific and focussed demographics, within a theoretical framework. As such, the relationship between this independent and dependent variable has not previously been explored.

As this research involves the observation of the variables at the same point in time, it is cross sectional in nature (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991; Kerlinger, 1986). Finally, in attempting to describe relationships and associations that exist between variables, the current research is correlational in nature (Leedy, 1993).

3.4. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SHEET

A biographical blank (See Appendix A) was designed in order to collect data regarding specific variables likely to be relevant to perceptions of employment equity. The following variables were selected: demographic information, job related information, financial status, and state of health.

For the demographic information, the following variables were seen as being relevant within the context of the present study: age, gender, race, education, marital status, and number of children. Gender and race are likely to impact on perceptions of employment equity, given that Affirmative Action differentiates between people along these lines. Marital status as well as number of children may contribute to a greater sense of needing job security, as well as greater emphasis on the need for planning for the future, something that employment equity may be perceived to either threaten or enhance. Education or lack thereof, may also threaten or enhance the respondents' sense of job security and ability to compete in the job market. As such this variable may be likely to impact on perceptions of employment equity.

The job related section of the biographical blank asks respondents questions regarding job title, tenure, length of time in current position, number of jobs in the past five years, type of employment with the organisation, union membership, as well as perceptions of how many people do the same work as them in the organisation. These variables are seen to be potentially relevant as they may impact on feelings of job security, which in turn will impact on perceptions

of employment equity. Union membership may also point towards political affiliations, and as such might be an indicator of how one is likely to feel about the Act.

Financial status is seen to be potentially relevant, in that it may contribute to feelings of job security or insecurity, as well as a sense of having a lot to lose or gain through affirmative action. In order to gain a holistic picture of financial status, as well as to capture the full range of information, questions were asked not only about salary and financial income, but also about pension plans, medical aids, property ownership, financial investments, and ownership of household items. Respondents were also asked questions about the number of people financially dependent on them, and whether those dependents were voluntary dependents (e.g. being educated or chose to be housewives), or involuntary dependents (e.g. cant find work, too old to work)

Finally, a section on the respondent's and the respondent's dependent's health asked whether the respondent or dependent had a disability, if that disability has financial implications, if the respondent or the dependent have required hospitalisation or medical attention in the past two years. These variables were seen as being relevant in that they may contribute to heightened feelings of anxiety about having your job security threatened, or future employment prospects affected.

JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire (See Appendix A) was developed in order to measure justice perceptions of the Employment Equity act. A preamble was provided which gave a simple explanation of the desired outcomes of the Act, the procedures outlined by the Act, as well as the interpersonal intentions of the Act.

The questionnaire contains three sub scales, each one measuring distributive, procedural, and interpersonal dimensions of justice perceptions of the Act respectively. The procedural justice scale consists of 9 items, the distributive justice scale consists of 5 items, while the interpersonal scale contains 4 items. The total scale consists of 18 items.

Reliability and validity analyses were conducted in order to assess the psychometric properties of the scale. These are reported on in Chapter 4.

3.5. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS: EVALUATION OF THE INSTRUMENT

An evaluation of the scale and the sub scales used in the present study was necessary before any results could be established. As such the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument had to be considered. Reliability refers to the extent to which the scale is consistently measuring the

instrument at hand, whereas validity refers to the extent to which the instrument is measuring what it is supposed to measure (Anastasi, 1976).

Internal Reliability Analysis

Internal reliability measures assess the homogeneity of test items (Anastasi, 1976), or the extent to which items on a given scale correlate with each other (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991). The higher the inter item correlation, the more consistently the scale is measuring the same construct. The internal reliabilities of the scale and sub scales used in the current research were calculated using Cronbach's alpha. A Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.60 and above is regarded by some authors as acceptable for the Social Sciences (McKinnell, 1970), while others maintain that 0.70 is a more acceptable cut off point (Kerlinger, 1986).

Validity: Factor Analysis

Validity refers to the extent to which a scale measures what it is supposed to measure. Construct validity is the extent to which the scale actually captures the theoretical construct or trait that it is supposed to measure (Anastasi, 1976, Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991). Factor analysis is one of the most common statistical measures of construct validity. The purpose of factor analysis is to describe relationships among many variables in terms of a few underlying quantities termed factors (Johnson and Wichern, 1998). A factor is a grouping of variables that have a high correlation with one another but a low correlation with variables in another group. As such, it is argued that each group of variables represents a single underlying construct (Johnson and

Wichern, 1998). In this study, a principal component analysis was conducted on the justice perception scale in an attempt to confirm the proposed factor structure of the scale.

MEANS AND FREQUENCIES

The means (averages), frequencies (number of occurrences) and percentages of all biographical data were calculated in order to enable the researcher to classify and describe the current sample. The means to the scales and sub scales were also calculated, allowing the researcher to establish the average overall response to the measures.

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TESTS

Independent sample t-tests (t-statistic) allows for the examination of the differences between the means of two independent groups (Howell, 1992; McCall, 1990). The t-test could thus be used to look at certain biographical variables, in order to assess whether they formed the basis for significantly different perceptions of justice. As such t-statistics were used to determine if there were any significant differences in justice perceptions of the Act between gender groups (male and female), employment type (full time, other), employees on medical aid and employees not on medical aid, employees on pension plans and employees not on pension plans, home owners and non home owners, those who have partners that earn an additional income and those who do not, respondents with a disability or dependents with a disability and those without a disability.

ANOVA

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) test allows for the comparison of means between three or more groups (Howitt & Cramer, 1997). A one-way ANOVA is used to compare the mean scores of two or more groups on a dependent variable, where the scores are unrelated or uncorrelated (i.e. each subject contributes only one score to the analysis) (Howitt & Cramer, 1997). One-way ANOVA's were performed in order to determine whether there was a significant difference between the means of two or more groups in the following categories: race, education level, marital status, job title, employment type, union membership, and salary bracket

CORRELATIONS

Correlations indicate the degree to which two variables are related (Runyon and Haber, 1976; Howell, 1992). Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991) describe a linear relationship as one where a fixed change in one variable is always associated with a fixed change in another variable. A correlational analysis is a technique that allows for the directionality and degree of linear relationships between two variables to be established. (McCall, 1990). A correlation coefficient (a unitless measure) is a number from -1.00 through to $+1.00$, which reflects the nature of the linear relationship. 0.00 indicates no relationship, with -1.00 reflecting a perfect negative relationship and $+1.00$ a perfect positive one (Kerlinger, 1986).

Correlation analyses, using Pearson's Product-Moment correlation coefficient, were conducted between all biographical variables yielding continuous data and the justice scales and sub scales, in order to establish whether associations existed between any two variables.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The results of the statistical analysis carried out for the current research are presented in the following chapter. First descriptive statistics, and the preliminary analyses are presented. Other results, exploring the dependent variable of justice perceptions, follow, and are presented within the demographic variable categories as described in Chapter 3, under the heading Measuring Instruments, Biographical Information Sheet (See p. 36). As such, the Biographic category is presented first, followed by Employment Variables, Financial Status, and finally Health related variables.

4.1. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics (See Table 6, p. 44) indicate that the mean score for the procedural justice sub scale is 21.64 in relation to a possible maximum score of 27, reflecting high justice perceptions for this dimension. The mean score for the distributive justice sub scale is 12.01 in relation to a possible maximum score of 15.00, indicating high distributive justice perceptions of the Act. Similarly for the Interpersonal sub scale, a mean score of 9.89 out of a possible maximum score of 12.00 is indicative of high perceptions of interpersonal justice in relation to the Act. The mean total justice score, 43.55 indicates high overall justice perceptions of the Act.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for Justice Perception Scale and Sub-Scales

Scale	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Procedural	123	18.00	9.00	27.00	21.64	5.52
Distributive	123	10.00	5.00	15.00	12.01	2.82
Interpersonal	123	8.00	4.00	12.00	9.89	2.89
Justice Total	123	36.00	18.00	54.00	43.55	10.25

4.2. PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

Internal reliability

The internal consistency (See Table 7, p. 46) for the Justice perceptions Scale was very high, with a Cronbach alpha of .94. Both the Procedural and Interpersonal Justice sub scales produced high alpha coefficients (.91 and .93 respectively). While the Distributive Justice sub scale produced a Cronbach alpha that is significantly lower than the other two sub scales (.77) , it is still reflective of moderately high internal consistency, and is satisfactory for use in this study

Factor Analysis

The principal component analysis identified three components with eigenvalues greater than 1. (See Table 8, p. 47). These factors account for 68.25% of the variance explained by perceptions of justice. Factor 1 accounts for 52.6% of the variance, factor 2 9.3%, and factor 3 6.3%. Cattels screeplot confirmed the appropriateness of a three factor solution, with the steep slope (representing meaningful information) appearing to flatten out after component 3. The information given by the remaining components is relatively meaningless. With regards to the Principal Component Analysis (See Table 9, p. 48), it appears that items from both the procedural justice and interpersonal justice sub scales load into factor 1. Two procedural justice items and one distributive justice item load into factor 2. The 3rd factor is comprised of three distributive justice items.

Table 7: Cronbach Alphas for Justice Scale

Scale	Number of Cases	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Justice Total	123	18	.94
Distributive Justice	123	5	.77
Procedural Justice	123	9	.91
Interpersonal Justice	123	4	.93

Table 8: Percentage variance explained (eigenvalues > 1) : Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation

Total Variance Explained

Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.471	52.615	52.615
1	9.471	52.615	52.615
2	1.673	9.292	61.907
2	1.673	9.292	61.907
3	1.142	6.342	68.249
3	1.142	6.342	68.249

Table 9: Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation for the Justice Perceptions of the Employment Equity scale

In the interest of fairness:

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1 Past discrimination in the workplace must be redressed. (D)			.793
2. Equality in the workplace must be promoted through this Act. (D)			.780
3. It is important to achieve a workforce representative of our population. (D)			.688

The procedures outlined in this Act:

1. Are free from all forms of unfair discrimination (P)	.596		
2. Take into account all parties interests. (P)	.664		
3. Allow for decisions to be based on accurate information. (P)	.696		
4. Are designed to favour certain groups. (P)		.760	
5. Allow for incorrect decisions to be changed. (P)		.564	
6. Apply equally to everyone. (P)	.674		
7. Are fair and just. (P)	.671		
8. Allow for all parties concerns to be heard. (P)	.824		
9. Allow for all parties to have a say in how decisions are made. (P)	.763		

This Act:

1. Reflects respect for all parties. (I)	.842		
2. Considers all parties view points. (I)	.834		
3. Values all parties as important to the workplace.(I)	.864		
4. Allows for all parties to be part of the Employment Equity process. (D)	.828		
5. Promotes reverse racism. (D)		.783	
6. Is a fair and just one.	.572		

Key:

D : Distributive justice item

P : Procedural justice item

I : Interpersonal justice item

4.3. BIOGRAPHICS

The ANOVA results for race (See Table 10, p. 51) indicate significant differences between different racial groups and procedural, and distributive justice perceptions. There are no significant differences on the interpersonal scale. The least Significant Difference Post Hoc test (See Table 11, p. 52) indicates that for the procedural justice scale, the only significant difference is between White and Black respondents, with the mean score for Blacks being higher than that of White subjects. Coloured respondents do not differ significantly from either of the other two racial groups. With regards to the distributive justice scale, Black respondents have a significantly higher mean score than White respondents. White respondents differ significantly from Black and Coloured respondents, having a lower mean score than both those groups.

The t-test for gender (See Table 12, p. 53) indicates that there are no significant differences between men and woman on any of the justice perception scales.

The ANOVA results for level of education (See Table 13, p. 54) indicate significant differences between different levels of education and procedural, and distributive justice perceptions. There are no significant differences on the interpersonal scale. Within procedural justice perceptions, the post hoc test (See Table 14, p. 55) indicates that respondents who have no high school education have a significantly higher mean score than those who have a matric certificate, a trade, or a degree/higher diploma. Respondents with partial high school education have a significantly higher mean score than those who have a trade and those who have a degree/higher diploma. Respondents with a

matric certificate differ significantly only from respondents with no high school education, scoring a higher mean score than them. Respondents with a diploma do not differ significantly from any other group of respondents. Respondents with a trade and those with a degree/higher diploma obtained a significantly lower mean score than both subjects with no or only partial high school education.

For the distributive justice scale, respondents with no high school education differ significantly from all other groups of respondents, with their mean score being higher. Respondents with partial high school education differ only from those with a trade or degree/higher diploma. Subjects with a matric certificate have obtained a significantly higher mean score than respondents with no high school education, and a significantly lower mean score than those with trades and degrees/higher diplomas. Respondents with diplomas differ only from those with no high school education, obtaining a higher mean score than them. Respondents with a trade and those with a degree/higher diploma both differ from those with no high school education, partial high school education, and people with matric certificates, scoring a significantly lower mean score than those groups.

The Cross tabulations between race, gender, and education (See Table 15, p 56), indicate that 3 coloureds and 14 Black employees have no high school education at all, while there were no White staff members in this category. Of these 17 employees, only one was female. 18 Black employees have partial high school education, while 4 White, and 2 Coloured respondents fall into this category. Only 3 people in this category are female, one White and two Coloured. 18 White employees have obtained a matric certificate, 7 of whom are female. 8 Black respondents completed

Table 10: ANOVA for Race

	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Procedural	374.43	187.21	6.71	.002*
Distributive	278.01	139.00	23.89	.000*
Interpersonal	13.95	24.47	3.02	.052

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 11: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results (Race)

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std.Error	Sig.
Procedural	1.00	2.00	3.73*	1.02	.000
		3.00	1.67	1.72	.332
	2.00	1.00	-3.73*	1.02	.000
		3.00	-2.06	1.65	.215
	3.00	1.00	-1.67	1.72	.332
		2.00	2.06	1.65	.215
Distributive	1.00	2.00	3.01*	.46	.000
		3.00	-7.57	.78	.992
	2.00	1.00	-3.01*	.46	.000
		3.00	-3.02	.75	.000
	3.00	1.00	-7.57	.78	.992
		2.00	3.02*	.75	.000

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Key:

1 – Black

2 – White

3 – Coloured

Table 12 : T-test for Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Procedural	Equal variances assumed	.035	.852	.551	121	.583
	Equal variances not assumed			.568	36.324	.574
Distributive	Equal variances assumed	.651	.421	1.404	121	.163
	Equal variances not assumed			1.529	39.136	.134
Interpersonal	Equal variances assumed	.122	.727	.665	121	.508
	Equal variances not assumed			.713	38.304	.480

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 13: ANOVA for Level of Education

	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Procedural	439.31	87.86	3.19	.010*
Distributive	183.62	36.72	5.65	.000*
Interpersonal	53.36	10.67	1.34	.250

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

*Table 14: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results
(Level of Education)*

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std.Error	Sig.
Procedural	1.00	2.00	1.57	1.66	.251
		3.00	3.86*	1.60	.018
		4.00	3.58	1.97	.073
		5.00	5.20*	1.64	.002
		6.00	6.60*	2.09	.002
	2.00	1.00	-1.91	1.66	.251
		3.00	1.94	1.44	.182
		4.00	1.66	1.85	.371
		5.00	3.288	1.49	.031
		6.00	4.68*	1.97	.019
	3.00	1.00	-3.86*	1.60	.018
		2.00	-1.94	1.44	.182
		4.00	-.27	1.85	.877
		5.00	1.33	1.49	.352
		6.00	2.73	1.92	.157
	4.00	1.00	-3.58	1.97	.073
		2.00	-1.66	1.85	.371
		3.00	.27	1.80	.877
		5.00	1.61	1.84	.382
		6.00	3.01	2.24	.182
	5.00	1.00	-5.20*	1.64	.002
		2.00	-3.28*	1.49	.031
		3.00	-1.33	1.43	.352
		4.00	-1.61	1.84	.382
		6.00	1.40	1.96	.477
	6.00	1.00	-6.60*	2.09	.002
		2.00	-4.68*	1.97	.019
		3.00	-2.73	1.92	.157
		4.00	-3.01	2.24	.182
		5.00	-1.40	1.96	.477

**Table 14: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results
(Level of Education) Continued**

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std.Error	Sig.
Distributive	1.00	2.00	.69	.80	.389
		3.00	1.78*	.77	.023
		4.00	2.07*	.96	.033
		5.00	3.26*	.80	.000
		6.00	3.92*	1.0	.000
	2.00	1.00	-.69	.80	.389
		3.00	1.09	.70	.124
		4.00	1.37	.90	.130
		5.00	2.56*	.72	.001
		6.00	3.22*	.96	.001
	3.00	1.00	-1.78*	.77	.023
		2.00	-1.09	.70	.124
		4.00	.28	.87	.746
		5.00	1.47*	.69	.036
		6.00	2.13*	.93	.024
	4.00	1.00	-2.07*	.96	.033
		2.00	-1.37	.90	.130
		3.00	-.28	.87	.746
		5.00	1.19	.89	.187
		6.00	1.85	1.09	.093
	5.00	1.00	-3.26*	.80	.000
		2.00	-2.568	.72	.001
		3.00	-1.47*	.69	.024
		4.00	-1.19	.89	.093
		6.00	.66	.95	.490
	6.00	1.00	-3.92*	1.01	.418
		2.00	-3.22*	.96	.269
		3.00	-2.13*	.93	.125
		4.00	-1.85	1.09	.024
		5.00	-.66	.95	.120

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Key:

- 1 - No high school education
- 2 - Partial high school education
- 3 - Matric Certificate
- 4 - Diploma
- 5 - Trade Qualification
- 6 - Degree/higher diploma

Table 15: Cross Tabulation between Race, Gender and Education

EDUCATION			GENDER		Total
			Male	Female	
1.00	RACE	Black	13	1	14
		Coloured	3		3
	Total		16	1	17
2.00	RACE	Black	16	2	18
		White	3	1	4
		Coloured	2		2
	Total		21	3	24
3.00	RACE	Black	6	2	8
		White	11	7	18
		Coloured	3		3
	Total		20	9	29
4.00	RACE	Black		3	3
		White	6	3	9
	Total		6	6	12
5.00	RACE	Black	1		1
		White	21	3	24
	Total		22	3	25
6.00	RACE	White	9	1	10
	Total		9	1	10

Key:

1 - No high school education

2 -Partial high school education

3 - Matric Certificate

4 - Diploma

5 - Trade Qualification

6 - Degree/higher diploma

high school, 6 males, and 2 females, while 3 Coloured men fall into the same category. 9 White employees have obtained a diploma, 6 of these being male, and 3 female. 3 Black respondents have a diploma, all of these being female. No Coloured respondents have a diploma. 24 White employees have obtained a trade qualification, 3 of these being women. 1 Black respondent has a trade qualification. 10 White employees have a degree or higher diploma, nine being male and one female. No Blacks or Coloured respondents fall into this category.

The Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients for biographic variables (See Table 16, p. 59) indicate weak but significant positive relationships between the respondent's number of children, and procedural, distributive, and interpersonal justice perceptions. Age does not correlate with any of the justice sub scales.

4.4. EMPLOYMENT VARIABLES

The t-test for type of employment (See Table 17, p. 60) indicates a significant difference between the mean interpersonal justice scores of full time employees and those employed under other contracts (temporary, casual, part time, and contract staff). Full time staff score a significantly lower average score.

The Pearson Product- Moment Correlations for job related variables (See Table 18, p. 61) indicates that there is a weak negative relationship between number of jobs and procedural and interpersonal

justice perceptions. There is a positive relationship between perceptions of how many people are doing the same job as the respondent and perceptions of distributive justice. Tenure and length of position are not significantly correlated to any of the justice scales.

The ANOVA for job levels (See Table 19, p. 62) indicates significant differences between different job levels and procedural, and distributive justice perceptions. There are no significant differences on the interpersonal scale. For the procedural justice scale, the post hoc test (See Table 20, p. 63) reveals that significant differences exist between management and administrative staff, and agreement staff. Agreement staff obtained a significantly higher mean score than both administrative and managerial employees.

Agreement staff scored significantly higher than managerial, supervisory, and administrative staff on the distributive scale. The only employment level group they did not differ significantly from was clerical staff. There were no significant differences between any other employment level groups for this scale.

The cross tabulations between race, gender, and job level (See Table 21, p. 64) indicate that out of 17 managers, 16 are White males, and one a Black female. Similarly at a supervisory, there are 13 males, 10 White and three Black, and one Black female. At an administrative level, there are eight females, all White, and five males, three of whom are White and two are Coloured. There are nine female clerics, seven White and two Black, and two male clerics, both of whom are Black. The majority of respondents are agreement staff, with 63 males, 31 of whom are Black, 22 White, and 10 Coloured. Five of the agreement staff are female, four of whom are Black, and one White.

Table 16: Pearson-Product Moment Correlations for Biographic Variables

	Procedural	Distributive	Inter Personal	No. Children	Age
Procedural		.725**	.816*	.220*	.105
Distributive	.725**		.586*	.244**	.103
Interpersonal	.816**	.586**		.208*	.102
No. Children	.220*	.244**	.208*		.495**
Age	.105	.103	.102	.495**	

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 17: T-test for Type of Employment

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Interpersonal	Equal variance assumed	9.18	.003*	-1.73	121	.086
	Equal variance not assumed			-2.26	20.49	.034*

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 18: Pearson Product- Moment Correlations for Job Related Variables

	Procedural	Distributive	Inter personal	Tenure	Length of position	No. of jobs	Same Job
Procedural		.725**	.816*	-.070	-.044	-.185*	.167
Distributive	.725**		.586*	.015	.066	-.057	.233*
Interpersonal	.816**	.586**		-.035	.003	-.215*	.091
Tenure	-.070	.015	-.035		.650**	-.148	.094
Length of Position	-.044	.066	.003	.650**		-.181*	.234*
No. of Jobs	-.185*	-.057	-.215*	-.148	-.181*		.100
Same Job	.167	.233*	.091	.094	.234*	.100	

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Key:

Tenure – length of service in the organisation

Length of position – length of time in current position in the organisation.

No. of jobs – number of jobs had in the past five years.

Same job – number of people in the organisation doing the same job as respondent.

Table 19: ANOVA for Job Level

	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Procedural	346.14	86.53	3.02	.020*
Distributive	124.84	31.21	4.32	.003*
Interpersonal	32.12	8.03	.96	.432

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 20: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results (Job Level)

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std.Error	Sig.
Procedural	1.00	2.00	-2.31	1.93	.234
		3.00	.73	1.97	.711
		4.00	-3.42	2.07	.100
		5.00	-3.67	1.45	.013
	2.00	1.00	2.31	1.93	.234
		3.00	3.04	2.06	.142
		4.00	-1.11	2.19	.605
		5.00	-1.36	1.61	.386
	3.00	1.00	-.73	2.07	.711
		2.00	-3.04	2.15	.142
		4.00	-4.16	2.19	.060
		5.00	-4.40	1.61	.007
	4.00	1.00	3.42	2.07	.100
		2.00	1.11	2.15	.605
		3.00	4.16	2.19	.060
		5.00	-.24	1.73	.886
	5.00	1.00	3.67*	1.45	.013
		2.00	1.36	1.57	.386
		3.00	4.40*	1.61	.007
		4.00	.24	1.73	.886

Table 20: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results (Job Level)
Continued...

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std.Error	Sig.
Distributive	1.00	2.00	-.22	.96	.819
		3.00	.24	.99	.805
		4.00	-1.38	1.03	.185
		5.00	-2.14*	.72	.004
	2.00	1.00	.22	.96	.819
		3.00	.46	1.03	.652
		4.00	-1.16	1.08	.285
		5.00	-1.92*	.78	.016
	3.00	1.00	-.24	.99	.805
		2.00	-.46	1.03	.652
		4.00	-1.62	1.10	.141
		5.00	-2.39	.81	.004
	4.00	1.00	1.38	1.03	.185
		2.00	1.16	1.08	.285
		3.00	1.62	1.10	.141
		5.00	-.76	.87	.384
	5.00	1.00	2.14*	.72	.004
		2.00	1.92*	.788	.016
		3.00	2.39*	.81	.004
		4.00	.76	.87	.384

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Key:

1 – Manager

2 – Supervisor

3 – Administrative Staff

4 – Clerical Staff

5 – Agreement staff

Table 21: Cross tabulations between Gender, Race, and Job Level

			RACE			Total
JOBTITLE	GENDER		Black	White	Coloured	
Manager	GENDER	Male		16		16
		Female	1			1
	Total		1	16		17
Supervisor	GENDER	Male	3	10		13
		Female	1			1
	Total		4	10		14
Administration	GENDER	Male		3	2	5
		Female		8		8
	Total			11	2	13
Clerical	GENDER	Male	2			2
		Female	2	7		9
	Total		4	7		11
Labour	GENDER	Male	31	22	10	63
		Female	4	1		5
	Total		35	23	10	68

The ANOVA for union membership (See Table 22, p. 66) indicate significant differences between union membership and procedural, distributive, and interpersonal justice perceptions. The least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test (See Table 23, p. 67) indicates that for the procedural justice scale, non unionised staff scored significantly lower than NUMSA members, but not significantly different from members of an alternate union. NUMSA members scored significantly higher than both non unionised staff, and staff belonging to alternate unions. With regards to the distributive justice scale, all groups differed significantly from one another. Non unionised staff scored significantly lower than NUMSA members, but higher than alternate union members. NUMSA members scored significantly higher than both non unionised staff and members of an alternate union. Members of an alternate union score lower than both other groups. For the interpersonal justice scale, members of an alternate union scored significantly lower than the other two groups. There was no significant difference between non unionised staff and members of an alternate union.

The cross tabulations between union membership, race, and job level (See Table 24, p. 68) indicate that of the sixty non-unionised respondents, 48 are White, nine are Black, and three are Coloured. 15 of the White non members are managers, seven are supervisors, nine work at an administrative level, six are clerical, and 11 are agreement staff. Of the Black non members, one is a manager, two are supervisors, one is clerical and five are agreement staff. Two of the Coloured non-members work at an administrative level, while one is agreement staff. Of the 52 NUMSA members, 35 are Black, 30 of whom are agreement staff, three are clerical staff, and two are supervisors; nine are White, one of whom is a manager, one is a supervisor, two are administrators, one is clerical, and nine are agreements staff.

Table 22: ANOVA for Union Membership

	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Procedural	473.39	236.69	8.74	.000*
Distributive		104.07	16.26	.000*
Interpersonal		31.24	3.91	.022*

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 23: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results (Union Membership)

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std.Error	Sig.
Procedural	1.00	2.00	-3.21*	.98	.001
		3.00	2.80	1.70	.103
	2.00	1.00	3.21*	.98	.001
		3.00	6.02*	1.72	.001
	3.00	1.00	-2.80	1.70	.103
		2.00	-6.02*	1.72	.001
Distributive	1.00	2.00	-2.05*	.47	.000
		3.00	2.06*	.83	.014
	2.00	1.00	2.05*	.47	.000
		3.00	4.11*	.83	.000
	3.00	1.00	-2.06*	.83	.014
		2.00	-4.11*	.83	.000
Interpersonal	1.00	2.00	-.73	.53	.175
		3.00	1.84*	.92	.049
	2.00	1.00	.73	.53	.175
		3.00	2.57*	.93	.007
	3.00	1.00	-1.84*	.92	.049
		2.00	-2.57	.93	.007

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Key:

1 – Non unionised

2 – NUMSA member

3 – Member of alternate union

Table 24: Cross Tabulation Between Race, Job Level and Union membership

			JOB LEVEL					Total
UNION			Manager	Supervisor	Administ rative	Clerical	Agreement	
1.00	RACE	Black	1	2		1	5	9
		White	15	7	9	6	11	48
		Coloured			2		1	3
	Total		16	9	11	7	17	60
2.00	RACE	Black		2		3	30	35
		White	1	1	2	1	4	9
		Coloured					8	8
	Total		1	3	2	4	42	52
3.00	RACE	White		2			8	10
		Coloured					1	1
	Total			2			9	11

Key:

1.00: Not a member of any union

2.00: NUMSA member

3.00: Member of alternate union

agreement staff; and eight are Coloured, all of whom are agreement staff. There are no Black members of alternate unions, with only 10 White members, and one Coloured member. Eight of the White members are agreement staff, while two are supervisors. The Coloured member is a supervisor.

4.5. FINANCIAL VARIABLES

The ANOVA results for salary (See Table 25, p. 71) indicate significant differences between union membership and procedural, and distributive justice perceptions. There is no significant difference on any of the mean scores for the interpersonal justice scale. The Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test (See Table 26, p. 72) reveals that for the procedural justice scale, the only significant difference is between the mean scores of salary group 2 and salary group 4, with the higher earners (group 4) scoring significantly lower on this scale. On the distributive justice scale, salary group 4 differed significantly from all other groups, scoring significantly lower on this scale than groups 1, 2, and 3.

The cross tabulations between race, gender, and salary (See Table 27, p. 73) indicates that 13 people earn between R1000 and R2000, 12 of whom are men, and one of whom is a woman. Six of these respondents are Black, five are Coloured, and two are White. There are 37 men, and nine women that earn between R2001 and R4000, 29 of whom are Black, 11 of whom are White, and

six of whom are Coloured. 11 men and two women earn between R4001 and R5000. In this category five are Black, seven are White, and one is Coloured. There are no Coloured respondents who earn R5001 and above, with the majority of people in this category being White males (38), followed by White females (nine). There is one Black male in this category, and three Black females.

The t-test for medical Aid membership (See Table 28, p. 74) indicates significant differences between respondents on a medical aid and those who are not on a medical aid, on the distributive, and interpersonal justice scales. Those not on a medical aid scored higher on both scales.

The T-test for pension membership (See Table 29, p. 75) indicates that there is a significant difference between the mean distributive justice score of respondents on a pension and respondents who are not on a pension, with those not on a pension scoring higher

The cross tabulations between race and medical aid membership (See Table 30, p. 76) indicate that 94 of the respondents are on a medical aid, and 29 are not. Of the 44 Black respondents, 30 are on a medical aid, and 14 are not. Of the White employees 56 are medical aid members, and 11 are not. Eight of the Coloured respondents are on a medical aid, while four are not members. The cross tabulation between race and pension plan membership (See Table 31, p. 77) indicates that 94 of the respondents are members of a pension plan, and 29 are not. Of the members, 25 are Black, 60 are White, and nine are Coloured. Of the non members, 19 are Black, seven are White, and three are Coloured.

Table 25: ANOVA for Salary

	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Procedural	429.84	143.28	5.17	.002*
Distributive	257.98	85.99	14.25	.000*
Interpersonal	58.16	19.38	2.39	.071

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 26: Least Significant Difference Post Hoc Test on significant ANOVA results (Salary)

	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Procedural	1.00	2.00	-1.73	1.65	.295
		3.00	-7.69	2.06	.970
		4.00	2.45	1.63	.136
					.136
	2.00	1.00	1.73	1.65	.295
		3.00	1.66	1.65	.316
		4.00	4.19*	1.07	.000
					.000
	3.00	1.00	7.69	2.06	.970
		2.00	-1.66	1.65	.316
		4.00	2.52	1.63	.000
					.000
Distributive	1.00	2.00	.76	.77	.326
		3.00	1.84	.96	.058
		4.00	3.62*	.76	.000
					.000
	2.00	1.00	-.76	.77	.326
		3.00	1.08	.77	.162
		4.00	2.86*	.49	.000
					.000
	3.00	1.00	-1.84	.96	.058
		2.00	-1.08	.77	.162
		4.00	1.78	.76	.021
					.021
	4.00	1.00	-3.62*	.76	.000
		2.00	-2.86*	.49	.000
		3.00	-1.78*	.76	.021
					.021

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Key:

- 1 – Earns between R1000 and R2000
- 2 – Earns between R2001 and R4000
- 3 – Earns between R4001 and R5000
- 4 – Earns R5001 and above.

Table 27: Cross tabulation for Race, Gender, and Salary Bracket

			GENDER		Total
SALARY			1.00	2.00	
1.00	RACE	Black	5	1	6
		White	2		2
		Coloured	5		5
	Total		12	1	13
2.00	RACE	Black	26	3	29
		White	5	6	11
		Coloured	6		6
	Total		37	9	46
3.00	RACE	Black	4	1	5
		White	6	1	7
		Coloured	1		1
	Total		11	2	13
4.00	RACE	Black	1	3	4
		White	38	9	47
	Total		39	12	51

Key:

1 – Earns between R1000 and R2000

2 – Earns between R2001 and R4000

3 – Earns between R4001 and R5000

4 – Earns R5001 and above.

Table 28: T-test for Medical Aid

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Distributive	Equal variance assumed	2.40	.124	-2.09	121	.038*
	Equal variance not assumed			-2.23	52.10	.029
Interpersonal	Equal variance assumed	10.55	.002	-2.09	121	.039
	Equal variance not assumed			-2.39	59.74	.020*
Total	Equal variance assumed	2.96	.088	-2.14	121	.034*
	Equal variance not assumed			-2.24	50.38	.029

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 29: T-test for Pension

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Distributive	Equal variance assumed	8.31	.005	-2.73	121	.007
	Equal variance not assumed			-3.15	60.36	.003*

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 30: Cross tabulation for Race and Medical Aid Membership

		MED.AID		Total
		1.00	2.00	
RACE	Black	30	14	44
	White	56	11	67
	Coloured	8	4	12
Total		94	29	123

Key:

1.00: Respondent is a member of a medical aid

2.00: Respondent is not a member of a medical aid

Table 31: Cross tabulation for Race and Pension Membership

		PENSION		Total
		1.00	2.00	
RACE	Black	25	19	44
	White	60	7	67
	Coloured	9	3	12
Total		94	29	123

Key:

1.00 : Respondent is a member of a pension plan

2.00: Respondent is not a member of a pension plan

Pearson Product- Moment Correlations for financial variables (See Table 32, p. 79) indicates a weak but significant relationship between the number of household items owned and perceptions of procedural justice perceptions. A stronger negative relationship exists between household items and distributive justice perceptions. The respondents number of investments does not correlate with any of the justice scales. There is a weak but significant positive relationship between number of dependents and procedural, interpersonal, and distributive justice perceptions. There is a weak but significant relationship between dependents occupation and distributive justice, for both number of voluntary and number of involuntary dependents.

4.6. HEALTH VARIABLES

The t-test for Respondents/dependents with a physical disability (See Table 33, p. 80) indicates that there are no significant differences between the mean scores of respondents/dependents with a disability and those without on any of the justice scales.

The t-test for health (See Table 34, p. 81) indicates that there are no significant differences between the mean scores of respondents/dependents with a health problem requiring treatment and those without on any of the justice scales.

Table 32: Pearson Product- Moment Correlations for Financial Variables

	Procedural	Distrib utive	Inter personal	H/hold Items	Invest ments	No. Depndnt	Vol depndnt	Invol Depndnt
Procedural		.725**	.816*	-.236**	-.159	.232**	.132	.060
Distributive	.725**		.586*	-.405**	-.149	.295**	.205*	.184*
Inter personal	.816**	.586**		-.143	-.025	.185*	.143	.148
Household Items	-.236**	-.405**	-.143		.381**	-.497**	-.306**	.381**
Investments	-.159	-.149	-.025	.381**		-.228*	-.078	-.497**
No. Depndnt	.232**	.295**	.185*	-.497**	-.228*		.680**	-.306**
Vol Depndnt	.132	.205*	.143	-.306**	-.078	.680**		-.273**
Invol Depndnt	.060	.184*	.148	-.273**	-.120	.410**	.151	

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Key:

H/hold Items - Total number of household items owned out of an option of 15
Investments – Total number of financial investments that respondent has
No. Depndnt – Number of people financially dependent on the respondent
Vol. Depndnt – Number of financial dependents who are dependent by choice
Invol. Depndnt – Number of financial dependents who are dependent not by choice

Table 33: T-test for Respondents/dependents with a Physical Disability

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Procedural	Equal variance assumed	.37	.540	-.13	121	.891
	Equal variance not assumed			-.12	20.49	.899
Distributive	Equal variance assumed	.14	.709	.80	121	.423
	Equal variance not assumed			.72	20.08	.475
Interpersonal	Equal variance assumed	.24	.621	-.19	121	.843
	Equal variance not assumed			-.18	20.67	.853

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

Table 34: T-test for Health

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Procedural	Equal variance assumed	1.459	.229	1.46	121	.147
	Equal variance not assumed			1.45	118.13	.148
Distributive	Equal variance assumed	2.965	.088	1.86	121	.064
	Equal variance not assumed			1.86	117.03	.065
Interpersonal	Equal variance assumed	1.264	.263	.914	121	.363
	Equal variance not assumed			.913	119.88	.363

* Result significant at the 0.05 level

CHAPTER 5 : DISCUSSION

This chapter will discuss the findings of the current research as presented in chapter 4, and explain and relate these findings to the literature and previous research findings as presented in chapter 2. This will be followed by a discussion of the limitations of this study and proposed directions for future research.

5.1. BIOGRAPHICS

When considering the biographic grouping, it can be seen that only half of the variables included in this section proved to be significant in relation to justice perceptions of the Act. The variables that did produce a significant result include race, education, and number of children, while age, gender, and marital status all proved to be non-significant.

While there are significant differences between different racial groups for the procedural, and distributive, scales, there are no significant differences on the interpersonal scale. The differences between racial groups with regards to their justice perceptions of the Act is perhaps inevitable, considering the Act legislates employment practices on racial grounds. As such, the fact that Black and colored people scored significantly higher than White people on the distributive justice scale is understandable, as they stand to benefit directly from the outcomes, in the form of affirmative action practices. With regards to procedural justice perceptions, only Blacks and Whites scored significantly different from one another, with Whites scoring lower. This finding is in line with Lind and Tyler's (1988) self-interest model, which proposes that individuals

concern themselves with procedural justice because fair procedures are likely to result in favourable outcomes for themselves. As such Black respondents, who may perceive the procedures as possibly resulting in better employment prospects from themselves, are more likely to hold higher justice perceptions of those procedures than White people, who do not stand to benefit directly from the outcome. The fact that Coloured people were not significantly different from either Blacks or Whites is perhaps reflective of their position in society, where they hold somewhat of a middle ground. They are not considered to be as previously disadvantaged as Blacks, yet were not afforded the same benefits as Whites. Coloured people may be included as targets for affirmative action in the legislation, but they may hold doubts that they will actually ever benefit from such practices in reality. As such, the real thrust of the legislation is felt to be towards Blacks, and Black candidates more likely to be successful over both Coloureds and Whites. Hence colored people may feel that while the outcomes of the act are fair, the procedures outlined may not be particularly helpful in enabling them to benefit from such outcomes.

The lack of significant differences between any of the groups on the interpersonal scale, can perhaps be explained by an absence of self interest on all sides. The interpersonal aspects of the Act do not necessarily refer to fixed or limited resources, but rather principles which can be equally applied to everyone. This would make them more acceptable to all parties. The interpersonal items refer to general principles of respect, and with the new focus in South Africa on racial tolerance, improved communication, and emphasis on human rights, interpersonal aspects of justice may be regarded by all parties as being important and valuable.

For level of education, there were differences between groups on the procedural and distributive scales, but again, no significant differences on the interpersonal scale. On all of the scales, the results generally indicated that people with less education had higher justice perceptions of the Act than people with a matric or tertiary education. This can possibly be understood in relation to perceived inputs and outcomes, and in conjunction with the cross tabulations for race and level of education. People with higher levels of education may feel that their inputs are higher relative to people with less education, and as such their outcomes should be higher. They would be less likely to see affirmative action as being fair, as it violates this equity principle. Your outcomes are not necessarily in proportion to your inputs as far as education goes, as the Act recognises other variables as being valuable inputs i.e. race and gender, and not education. Thus the incongruity between what each party views as being relevant to the exchange, may result in lower justice perceptions for more educated groups. On the other hand, people with less education may view this factor as less important to the exchange, and see other inputs, such as strength or manual skill, as being more valuable. In addition, a lack of education is likely to be one of the biggest obstacles to improving their employment prospectives. Thus a distributive principle that recognises factors other than education as being valuable to the exchange is more likely to be seen as fair by them. Looked at in conjunction with the cross tabulations for race and level of education, which indicate that the more highly educated people were White, with the majority of Black respondents having little or no high school education, it can be seen that those with lower levels of education are also the people who stand to benefit from affirmative action. As such, their higher levels of perceptions of justice with regards to the Act can be understood.

With regards to number of children, it appears that the more children one has the higher justice perceptions of the Act are. This relationship was observed for procedural, distributive, and interpersonal. It is very difficult to understand this finding in isolation from its interactions with other variables such as race and financial status. If you perceive yourself as being a possible benefactor of affirmative action because of your race, and you feel that this will put you in a better financial position to provide for your children, then the size of your family is likely to correlate with your justice perceptions of the Act. If, however the opposite were true, and you felt that affirmative action could jeopardise your ability to care for your children, a negative relationship might be expected. While the exact nature of this relationship is difficult to understand in isolation, it does indicate that in order to gain a better understanding of what impacts on justice perceptions, a closer inspection of the individual and his/her circumstances is warranted.

Age, gender, and marital status were found to be non significant. Given that there is a disproportionately large number of married people in this sample and very few single and divorced respondents, it is difficult to draw any meaningful conclusions or make any reasonable generalisations. The lack of significance in terms of age could be as a result of the fact that different age groups will perhaps have an equal number of concerns or hopes relating to affirmative action. For example on the one hand younger people might be more hopeful about their future prospectives given affirmative action, but on the other hand other younger people may feel that affirmative action will ruin their chances of a future career. Older people might feel that their job security is threatened at a critical time in their lives or that it is too late for them to

benefit from affirmative action, while others may feel that as they were part of the generation that was seriously disadvantaged affirmative action can help redress past inequalities. As such while a correlational analysis of age and justice perceptions of the Act is not statistically significant, it may mean just that the relationship is not linear in nature, and not that a relationship does not exist at all.

With regards to gender, a non significant result is surprising given that the Act includes woman as part of the target group for affirmative action. This result, however, needs to be understood within the context of this organisation and industry. The cross tabulations for gender and job level indicate that woman primarily fill clerical positions, which are essentially support roles in the organisation, as opposed to occupying any key or central functions. While the woman sampled may be representative of this organisation, which operates in a male orientated industry, they may not be representative of working women. The sampled woman are likely to be less career orientated and emotionally invested in their jobs, and as such they may not be that concerned with benefiting from affirmative action. In addition to this, woman in South Africa do not always see themselves as having been previously disadvantaged, and gender equality issues have not been a top priority in our society in the light of other more severe and institutionalised human rights violations. Hence woman may not really perceive themselves as being able to benefit very easily from affirmative action policies.

5.2. EMPLOYMENT VARIABLES

When considering the employment related variables, it can be seen that the majority of questions in this section produced significant results. Job title, job level, number of jobs had in the past five years, perceptions of how many people in the organisation do the same type of work as the respondent, and union membership all proved to be significant when looked at independently in relation to justice perceptions. Only tenure and length of time in current position proved to be non-significant.

A comparison of means between full time employees and those working under other types of contracts indicates a significant difference only on the interpersonal justice scale, with full time staff scoring lower. This may relate back to the idea that people who have full time employment perhaps feel a sense of having more to lose than employees who are working on a contract, casual, part time or temporary basis. Full time staff may feel that they have jobs to protect, while non full time staff may see affirmative action as a means of acquiring greater job security. Lower justice perceptions on behalf of full time employees could therefore be as a result of them needing to protect their own interests. While they may not feel threatened at a distributive or procedural level at the moment, possibly due to the fact that affirmative action procedures are not yet in place in this organisation, the interpersonal principles that underpin affirmative action can already be of concern to them.

With regards to job level, significant differences were observed between different job levels on the procedural and distributive perception scales. There are no significant differences on the

interpersonal scale. On both scales agreement staff scored significantly higher than people further up in the organisation's hierarchy. The cross tabulations for race and job level indicate that the top positions in the organisation are primarily filled by White males, with labour being primarily Black males. Thus many of the lower level staff are part of the affirmative action target group, and they stand to benefit from the Act. At a distributive justice level the differences in justice perceptions may emanate from lower level staffs' hopes of what affirmative action can do for them, and higher level staffs' concerns over protecting what they already have. Procedurally, Lind and Tyler's self interest model (1988) can again be drawn on to explain the significant differences in perceptions. If people will support processes that they view as being likely to produce favourable outcomes for themselves, then agreement staff, who would have more to benefit from affirmative action procedures, will see such procedures as being more fair. On the whole, agreement staff's higher justice perceptions can be understood as them having less to lose and more to gain.

When looking at union membership, it can be seen that there are significant differences in perceptions of all three dimensions of justice as well as justice as a whole. However, there is not a clear cut dichotomy between members and non-members. Unionised employees fall into two categories, namely those that belong to NUMSA and those that belong to an alternate union. The majority of alternate unions that people in this organisation belong to are trade unions, that cater to specific trades operating in the industry. The cross tabulations indicate that the majority of people belonging to alternate unions are White, as are non members, while NUMSA members are predominantly Black.

On the procedural scale, NUMSA members scored significantly higher than both non unionised respondents and members of alternate unions. There was no significant difference between the latter two groups. This can perhaps be understood given the history of unions in South Africa. Blue collar worker unions, such as NUMSA, took on a distinctly political role, fighting for issues far broader than simple bread and butter concerns. They played a fundamental role in fighting Apartheid and its resultant policies and practices. With the end of apartheid, such unions are fighting to maintain their political role and retain their very strong power base. On the other hand trade unions, such as the Boilermakers association of South Africa, had a predominantly White male power base (as is the case in the current sample). These White men, however, were also poorer and considered to be at risk from the 'Black threat'. As such these organisations aimed to protect their White members. Trade unions have taken on a different role since the end of Apartheid, and their membership is more racially diverse, yet they have historically not taken on particularly political roles. People who do not belong to unions are people who traditionally have not needed the protection of a union, or who have not shared the same ideologies as the union. As such, they are less likely to be part of the previously disadvantaged groups that affirmative action is trying to target. In other words they do not stand to benefit from affirmative action procedures and are therefore more likely to see such procedures as less fair. On the other hand, unions such as NUMSA have been very active in their support of the Employment Equity Act, and have even been instrumental in helping to develop the legislation. Trade unions are more concerned with protecting their members with regards to threats to their trades. As such members of NUMSA are likely to differ not only from non unionised respondents in their support of

affirmative action, but also from members of alternate unions. Each union will support the procedures they perceive as being more likely to produce favourable outcomes for their members. Such support will be reflected in union members perceptions.

Similar trends can be observed on the other justice perception scales. With regards to the distributive justice scale, all groups differed significantly from one another, with alternate members scoring the lowest, followed by nonunion members, and NUMSA members the highest. Again this result is best understood in relation to the conservative nature of some of the trade unions. Members of these unions have historically always felt threatened by Black progress, which has even perhaps been their primary reason for unionising to begin with. Affirmative action is less likely to be seen as just by them. Non members have traditionally not felt threatened either by Black workers or by their own organisation, and very often are the decision makers in the organisation. Their justice perceptions of affirmative action are likely to be higher than alternate union members, but not as high as NUMSA members.

For the interpersonal justice scale, similar results were evident, with members of an alternate union scoring significantly lower than the other two groups. Interestingly, however, non unionised staff and NUMSA members did not differ significantly from one another on this dimension. This could be because non members find the interpersonal principles underpinning employment equity acceptable, more so than the procedures and the outcomes, which may feel more threatening to them.

The negative relationship between the number of jobs respondents have had in the past five years and procedural and interpersonal justice perceptions indicates that the more jobs someone has had, the lower their perceptions of procedural and interpersonal justice are. This can perhaps be explained if you consider that the more jobs someone has had, the more jobs they have had to leave. Someone who has had five jobs in the last five years, has lost four jobs. The ending of an employment relationship, particularly if it is not by the employee's choice, is likely to leave a person with a sense that the human resources procedures of that organisation have failed to provide them with a desired outcome. Thus the more jobs a person has left, the lower their perceptions of procedural justice may be. With regards to affirmative action, it may be that Black people who have had a lot of jobs in the past five years feel that affirmative action procedures have not led to their desired outcomes, in other words a permanent and secure job. For White respondents who have had numerous jobs, affirmative action may be seen as producing undesired outcomes i.e. I cannot keep a job because of affirmative action. and therefore perceives those procedures to be unfair.

There is a positive relationship between perceptions of how many people are doing the same job as the respondent and perceptions of distributive justice. In other words, the more people the respondent perceives as doing the same job as him, the higher the perception of distributive justice. This relationship makes sense if one considers that rarity of skills provides somebody with increased job security and an enhanced sense of value to the organisation. If there are many people who can do the same work as you, you are less likely to feel secure in your job.

Affirmative action policies may make unskilled labour feel more secure.

5.3. FINANCIAL VARIABLES

The majority of finance related variables produced significant results, with only additional monthly income, home ownership, and number of investment proving to be insignificant.

All significant variables aimed at assessing how financially well off a respondent is (salary, number of household items owned, membership of a medical aid, and membership of a pension plan) all indicated that the more a person has, the lower their justice perceptions of the Act are. People who are on medical aids and pension plans scored significantly lower means on one or more of the justice subscales than respondents not on such schemes and plans. People falling into the higher salary brackets scored significantly lower on the procedural and distributive justice perception scales than people in the lower salary brackets.

Significant negative relationships exist between the number of household items a person owns and procedural and distributive justice perceptions. In other words the more items owned, the lower justice perceptions of the Act are. When looked at together, these results indicate that the wealthier a person is, the less fair they perceive affirmative action to be. This relates back to other findings which indicate that perhaps those who are less disadvantaged may feel the need to protect what they have, while the more disadvantaged will see affirmative action as something that can give them their desired outcomes. The cross tabulations for race and salary bracket indicate that the majority of people falling into the higher salary brackets are White, while the lower earners tend to be Black. As such, those in lower salary brackets are the same people for

whom affirmative action policies are intended. They will, therefore , be more likely to view the Act as fair.

Similar trends can be seen when looking at financial dependents. The positive relationship between number of dependents and all three sub scales indicates that the more people financially dependent on the respondent the higher their perceptions of justice with regards to the Act. Again, if one has a lot of people depending on them for financial support, the more financially pressured you are likely to be, and the more concerned over your job security. You are therefore likely to perceive employment policies that favour you as being more fair.

5.4. HEALTH VARIABLES

None of the health variables proved to be significant, indicating that the state of the respondents health, and that of his/her respondents health, is not associated with differences in justice perceptions. While one might have expected the disability variable (i.e. do you or any of your dependents have a physical disability?) to be significant, as affirmative action does purport to target people with disabilities, this is not so. This could perhaps be explained by the fact that including people with disabilities in the target groups for affirmative action has been a very low profile decision, and not one that has gained popular attention. When people think of affirmative action, they immediately associate it with race, and perhaps gender. People with disabilities are not high up on the list of priorities as far as redressing past injustice is concerned. As such, people will be unlikely to associate disability with increased job opportunities.

5.5. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

On the whole, the results of the current study indicate that demographic variables do impact on justice perceptions of the Act. This has practical implications for the implementation of affirmative action policies within organisations, as well as theoretical implications in relation to the justice literature.

At a practical level, it is important that the concerns and needs of all groups within the organisation be addressed if the implementation of affirmative action is to be both successful and effective. Demographic variables and profiles can provide organisations with important cues with regards to how justice perceptions of affirmative action may differ, and training and interventions can be targeted, aiming in at specific groups, and thus facilitating the change process. Further to this, management may be alerted to potentially problematic 'profiles' of people, and will be able to strategise around the interpersonal aspects of conveying information to them, in order to minimise dysfunctional responses. Similar approaches can also be used with regards to other organisational policies or interventions.

At a theoretical level, the current findings indicate that new directions in justice research are called for. It is evident that the individual is a significant unit of analysis with regards to exploring differences in justice perceptions, and that our understanding of distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice issues can be enhanced with this focus. While it is important to look at characteristics of the environment, of outcomes, and of procedures as

potential explanations for how and why justice judgements are made, the current research has indicated that characteristics of the individual him/herself cannot be ignored. Demographic variables are only one aspect of such individual characteristics, but these findings do indicate that this is an area worthy of further academic attention.

5.6. LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

A major limitation of the study is the sampling statistic, which although may be representative of a specific type of South African organisation, does render the ecological validity of the results as problematic. The findings of this study are not generalisable to organisations with different profiles to the one sampled here, or to companies outside of South Africa. In addition to this, while the size of the sample (N=124) was adequate for the statistical analyses carried out in the present study, the nature of this research dictates that a large sample with a diversity of demographic variables is needed. Not all possible groups were represented in this sample (e.g. Indians and Asians), and some of the combinations of variables (e.g. Coloured women) were also absent.

The low response rate of 27.5% presents as a limitation of the study. While the sample was representative of this organisation, the people who did respond may not be representative of the full range of perceptions with regards to affirmative action. It is likely that people who did participate in the study either felt particularly strongly about affirmative action, or felt compelled to fill in a questionnaire. Evidence of this emotional investment in the issues became apparent

from the number of spoilt questionnaires that were purposively placed into sealed envelopes. Those who responded, in whatever form, were making a statement about affirmative action.

As importantly, the poor response rate raises questions about the 72.5% of respondents who did not participate in the study, as they may have been able to provide the researcher with additional important information pertaining to justice perceptions of the Act. A possible reason for the low response rate is that affirmative action is a highly contentious and sensitive issue in post apartheid South Africa, and as such, people are likely to be suspicious or guarded when presented with questionnaires such as the one in the current study, as they may be unsure of the motivation behind such surveys. Those who feel insecure about their jobs or threatened by affirmative action might be reluctant to respond. In addition to this, although confidentiality was assured, people might be reticent to commit their perceptions of affirmative action to paper, for fear of reprisal.

A further limitation of this study is the different means of data collection used. Due to the diversity of the sample, geographically, in literacy levels, and in language, several different methods of data collection had to be used. The method used to collect information may impact on the data yielded (Anastasi, 1976). If only one method of data collection is used, the effects of that method are controlled for. Due to the number of methods utilised in the present study, it was not possible to control for the different impacts these methods may have had on responses.

A further limitation of the study involves the reliance on self report data. While this is an easy and time effective method to use, there may have been biases in individual responses. Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991) describe what they term the good subject effect, where respondents may provide answers they feel the researcher or company would want to find. Social desirability bias may have caused respondents to try and present themselves in a favourable light, particularly in relation to affirmative action, which may be viewed as a politically correct policy. There also may have been a tendency for respondents to respond all positively or all negatively to items.

5.7. DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The limitations of this study, as discussed above, indicate possible future directions for research. Firstly, studies in organisations with different profiles, as well as studies with larger samples are warranted. In addition to providing more or less support to the current findings, such studies would also enhance the generalisability of the results. Research on other policies and practices may also be valuable in increasing the scope of application for the current findings. Studies that incorporate samples with a wider range of demographic variables, as well as a wider range within the demographic variables is needed if this area is to be fully explored.

Other methods of data collection need to be investigated, particularly because the very nature of this type of research means that the sample needs to be as diverse as possible. The more traditional methods of collecting information (i.e. self report paper and pencil tests) may not be

adequate under these circumstances.

The current research is exploratory in nature, and as such is attempting to establish this area of research as worthy of further attention. The findings do indicate that other characteristics of the individual (e.g. culture, intelligence, personality traits) in relation to justice perceptions should be investigated.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

Justice perceptions permeate every aspect of our day to day functioning, and impacts on our attitudes and behaviours in a myriad of ways. Aside from the more subtle justice judgements that we make on a continuous basis, justice concerns have played a large part in the history of our country, and form the foundation for much of our societies debate about our way forward. Given the centrality of this construct, it has become essential to enhance our understanding of what factors impact on how and why we make justice judgements. Research in this area specific to South Africa and South African concerns has become increasingly necessary.

The present study attempted to explore the relationship between demographic variables and justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act. This was a relatively under explored facet of justice research, as past research had focussed on outcomes, procedures, and context, in attempting to explain justice perceptions. The current research, also attempted to explore a recent piece of labour legislation, in an effort to enhance our understanding of it.

The results of the study indicate that many of the demographic variables were significant in relation to perceptions of justice. Variables in the biographic, employment, health, and financial categories proved to be significant in relation to justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act. The current research study has provided additional knowledge to the area of justice perceptions as well as affirmative action, and has provided areas for future investigation.

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APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE

Your company is involved with research about the Employment Equity Act. The aim of this research is to try and establish how different groups in the organisation feel about this act. It is therefore very important that you are honest and open when answering the following questions. **This questionnaire is completely confidential. You are not required to provide your name or any other identifying information.**

Please read all information and instructions carefully before answering the questions. Please write clearly and legibly. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please check to make sure that you have answered all the questions.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your opinion is important and your contribution to this research is appreciated.

Section 1

Please answer the following questions about yourself. Either fill in the answers in the space provided, or mark the appropriate box.

1. What is your age? _____

2. What is your gender?

Male	Female
------	--------

3. What is your race?

Black	White	Coloured	Indian	Asian
-------	-------	----------	--------	-------

4. What is the highest level of education you have passed? _____

5. What is your marital status?

Married	Single	Divorced
---------	--------	----------

6. How many children do you have? _____

7. What is your staff level?

Manager	Supervisor	Admin	Clerical	Scheduled
---------	------------	-------	----------	-----------

7. What is your job title? _____

8. Is your employment:

Full time	Part time	Casual	Contract	Temporary
-----------	-----------	--------	----------	-----------

9. How long have you worked for this organisation? _____

10. How long have you been in your current position? _____

11. How many jobs have you had in the last five years? _____

12. How many people in your company do the same work as you? _____

13. Which union do you belong to? _____

14. Do you have a spouse or partner that earns an income?

Yes	No
-----	----

15. How many people are financially dependant on you (e.g. children)? _____

16. Of these dependants, how many:

Are being educated?	
Are unemployed by choice (e.g. housewife, mother)?	
Are unable to find work	
Are unable to work due to old age or ill health?	

17. Are you on a pension plan?

Yes	No
-----	----

18. Do you belong to a medical aid?

Yes	No
-----	----

19. Do you own the home in which you live?

Yes	No
-----	----

20. Which of the following items do you own?

Car	M-Net Decoder	Radio	Washing Machine	Fridge
Bicycle	DS-Tv	Microwave Oven	Dish Washer	Cell Phone
Video Machine	Vacuum Cleaner	Personal Computer	Hi-Fi System	Television

21. What is your monthly salary?

R1000 – R2000
R2001 – R3000
R3001 – R4000
R4001 – R5000
R5001 – R6000
R6001 – R7000
R7001 – R8000
R8001 or above

22. Apart from any other household salaries (as discussed above), do you have any other additional monthly income?

Yes	No
-----	----

23. If yes, please specify: _____

24. Do you or your spouse/partner have any of the following investments

Unit Trusts	Stocks	Insurance policies	Investment Accounts	Other
-------------	--------	--------------------	---------------------	-------

25. If you marked "Other" in question 24, please specify _____

26. In the last two years, have you, your spouse or any of your dependants :

Required hospitalisation?	
Required an operation?	
Suffered from a sustained illness?	
Required chronic medication?	

27. Do you, your spouse, or any of your dependants, have a disability of any kind ?

Yes	No
-----	----

28. If you answered yes to question 27, does this disability:

Require on going treatment?	
Require specialised equipment?	
Require hospitalisation or specialised facilities	
Exclude the person from any future employment?	

Section 2

Please read the following information before answering the questions.

The Employment Equity Act was passed in 1998. This act calls for particular employers, such as yours, to implement affirmative action in your company. This means that previously disadvantaged people (blacks, coloureds, Indians, people with a disability, and women) should be employed where ever possible, in order to allow the workforce to be more representative of the population. In order to do this, employers have to:

- Consult with employees, in order to
- Conduct an analysis of the company, one aim of which is to identify particular jobs or levels of jobs where the population is not represented.
- Prepare an Employment Equity plan , part of which outlines how they will be implementing affirmative action
- Report their Employment Equity plan in a public report
- Designate one manager to oversee, monitor, and enforce the Employment Equity plan

- Designate one manager to oversee, monitor, and enforce the Employment Equity plan
- Implement the employment Equity Plan.

The company's Equity Plan will also be monitored by the state.

The purpose of the Employment Equity Act is to achieve workplace equity by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in the workplace.

Please answer the following questions about the Employment Equity Act. Please note that these questions concern your overall impressions of the Act, and not any one aspect in particular. Please indicate whether you agree, disagree, or neither agree nor disagree with the following statements. It is important that you give your own opinion, and not what you think the answer should be. Please indicate your answer by marking the appropriate box.

In the interest of fairness:

	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree
1. Past discrimination in the workplace must be redressed.			
2. Equality in the workplace must be promoted through this Act.			
3. It is important to achieve a workforce representative of our population.			

The procedures outlined in this Act:

	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree
1. Are free from all forms of unfair discrimination			
2. Take into account all parties interests.			
3. Allow for decisions to be based on accurate information.			
4. Are designed to favour certain groups.			
5. Allow for incorrect decisions to be changed.			
6. Apply equally to everyone.			
7. Are fair and just.			
8. Allow for all parties concerns to be heard.			
9. Allow for all parties to have a say in how decisions are made.			

This Act:

	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree
1. Reflects respect for all parties.			
2. Considers all parties view points.			
3. Values all parties as important to the workplace.			
4. Allows for all parties to be part of the Employment Equity process.			
5. Promotes reverse racism.			
6. Is a fair and just one.			

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