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BY

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DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL STUDIES

Faculty of the Humanities

University of Cape Town

2002

COMPULSORY DECLARATION

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people has been attributed, and been cited and referenced.

SIGNATURE

DATE

13 / 12 /2002
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ACRONYMS

**EEOC**- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

**FTES**- Full-time equivalent students

**GDP**- Gross domestic product

**GNU**- Government of National Unity

**HBU's**- Historically Black Universities

**HWU's**- Historically White Universities

**OFCCP's**- Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs

**TBVC**- Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei

**UCT**- University of Cape Town

**UDW**- University of Durban Westville

**NU**- Natal University

**USA**- United States of America

**UWC**- University of Western Cape

**Wits**- University of Witswatersrand
DEFINITION OF TERMS

Affirmative Action is defined as the laws, programmes or activities designed to redress past imbalances and to ameliorate the conditions of individuals and groups, who have been disadvantaged on the grounds of race, gender and disability (Republic of South Africa; 1998:20).

Black- means non-whites.

Corrective Action refers to the constitutionally mandate active dismantling of the continuing effects of apartheid (Republic of South Africa; 1996:3).

De jure means by law.

Discrimination refers to any special provisions or limitations in job selection or service conditions that are not based on legitimate job requirements or the fundamental principle of corrective action and fundamental equality of opportunity (Republic of South Africa; 1996:3).

Diversity involves creating an environment that allows all employees to contribute to organisational goals and experience personal growth (Employment Equity Policy: 1996:3).

Employment Equity means the right to fundamental equality of opportunity among all persons and the right of every person to be treated fairly in seeking and maintaining employment on the basis of authentic merit principles rather than inherited practices rooted in habit, intuition, complacency or prejudices (Republic of South Africa; 1995:2).

Representivity, fundamental equality of opportunity can in part be measured by the related idea of “Representivity” – the idea an organisation must in fact, and not merely in theory, provide actual jobs, not merely hollow possibilities, to individuals across the full spectrum of South African diversity (Republic of South Africa; 1996:3).
Designated groups refer to black people, women and people with disabilities (Republic of South Africa; 1998:27).
ABSTRACT

The 1994 democratically elected government underpinned crucial socio-political changes in South Africa. The historical imbalances created by decades of Apartheid policies demanded employment of specific programmes in order to correct the situation. The period witnessed major transformation that is mainly intended to accommodate the previously marginalised communities; blacks, women and disabled people. These changes brought about the birth of affirmative action. Therefore, this study’s intention is to seek to examine “How successful has UCT been in achieving employment equity and why?”

The main aim of this study is not attacking UCT’s achievement of Employment Equity, but to establish UCT’s course of action as well as inaction in achieving Employment Equity and the promotion of Affirmative Action. Comparative study analysis is used as a tool to capture information and data around the progress made in achieving Employment Equity and the promotion of Affirmative Action at UCT.

This study comprises of six chapters. Chapter One deals with the background and the organisation of the study. Chapter Two is the review of literature on Affirmative Action. Chapter Three examines two theoretical frameworks that are the Contractarian and Libertarian frameworks. Also the connection or relevance of exploring the Contractarian and Libertarian frameworks to UCT is shown. The Libertarian framework as shown in the review of literature on Affirmative Action is not applicable to South Africa’s context of Affirmative Action strategy, although the Contractarian theory has limitations it is more appropriate and applicable to South Africa’s context of Affirmative Action strategy. Chapter Four is the situation analysis exploring Employment Equity at UCT. In this chapter the reader is provided with statistics of UCT before, after and where it is to date. Chapter Five is a comparative exploration of recent Employment Equity reporting at UCT, NU and Wits. Chapter Six consists of the conclusion to the chapters and the conclusion based on the study.
CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of the first section of this chapter is to provide the reader with a detailed account or background of the study. The second section explores the divergent discourses of Affirmative Action. The third section investigates the origins of Affirmative Action in United States and reviews some criticisms from South African academics of its adoption in South Africa. The fourth section examines discrimination in South Africa's Higher Education. The fifth section addresses material inequality and social justice. The sixth section states the research problem, outlines the need for and significance of the study, its methodology, the limitations of the project, and the organization of the study. The final section concludes by summarising the main points of the study.

The struggle for liberation in South Africa was about both political and economic power. The majority of people engaged in this struggle were people from a racially designated group, Blacks (all non-whites), the most disadvantaged group in this country. Black political movements or parties were excluded from the government, while economic power was in the hands of the White minority. The minority group monopolised social, economic and political control, at the expense of the majority. Apartheid marginalised Blacks not only from political power but also from economic participation. Successive National Party governments used legislation to inhibit the economic advancement of blacks and made state budgetary allocations to promote the development of Whites through better education, health facilities and housing. Black capital and technology was severely restricted through a plethora of laws and regulations. Added to this was the demeaning of African culture and values and the adoption of White values and patterns of behaviour as the accepted norm. This made it extremely difficult for Blacks to penetrate the centres of power in the country. Racial prejudice and the degradation of everything African eroded the black sense of self-esteem, stifled creativity and undermined the long tradition of self-reliance.
It is this history and its legacy that militates against blacks in the work place and in the corridors of power in government. Legislative exclusion, discriminatory state budgetary allocations and the lack of an inclusive culture place Blacks at a considerable disadvantage. The call for Affirmative Action is a call to stop this from happening. It is a call to ensure that conditions are created to enable Blacks to overcome the disadvantages of the past and to make a positive contribution to the future.

Affirmative Action is defined by the government as the laws, programmes or activities designed to redress past imbalances and to ameliorate the conditions of individuals and groups, who have been disadvantaged on the grounds of race, gender and disability (Republic of South Africa 1998: 20).

According to Green Walt (1983:17) "Affirmative Action" is a phrase that refers to attempts to bring members of underrepresented groups, usually groups that have suffered discrimination, into a higher degree of participation in some beneficial programme. Some affirmative action efforts include preferential treatment; others do not. In addition, affirmative action has also been associated with the imposition of "quotas" and "goals". Another term often associated with affirmative action is "reverse discrimination", which, in Green Walt's words, "means a difference in treatment that reverses the pattern of earlier discrimination" (Rosenfeld; 1991:42).

According to Ramphele (1995:1) "the legacy of apartheid and colonial conquest has bequeathed us the dubious status of being a society with one of the highest levels of inequality in the world. Current public debates on redress are sadly impoverished by a focus on affirmative action, which evokes strong emotions from both sides of the divide. This latter statement, however, necessitates on unpacking of what the word "affirmative" means. A detailed insight of the historical division caused by the apartheid regime is also vital to the debate. After this, and based on the three definitions previously mentioned a more comprehensive definition of Affirmative Action will be sought." The word "affirmative" means taking positive steps to advance previously disadvantaged individuals. During the apartheid era White people were given preferential treatment over other racially designated groups. It can be seen from this history that colour of skin rather than skills, qualifications or merit was the ticket to a managerial job. Therefore equal employment opportunity and Affirmative Action were the only means of redress. After the South African government
elections in 1994, the Government of National Unity (GNU) put into effect an Affirmative Action programme, as a measure to level disparities in education and in senior jobs created by the apartheid regime.

In light of the afore-mentioned definitions of Affirmative Action, it is possible to understand Affirmative Action as a tool or strategy to enable individuals and groups to utilize the equal opportunities made available to them in the transformed environment. The following section will provide the reader with a deeper insight about the concept of Affirmative Action, specifically by looking at altruism and the “public good” character of Affirmative Action.

2. UNDERSTANDING AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

2.1 Altruism And The Public Good Character Of Affirmative Action

An altruistic person or organisation is one who derives satisfaction from the happiness of others. In economic terms, in a given two-sector model, if B is an altruist and A is not, then a distribution from B to A may make both individuals better off. This is assuming B is benevolent towards A only if the income of B is greater than A’s. The provision of preferential treatment in education to A, if A is a black person, will improve the overall utility of B, the provider, which could be a company offering a bursary, a university or any other institution practising Affirmative Action.

The university or any educational institution itself is benefited by the presence of black students. One conception of the university sees the search for truth as one of its essential functions. The addition of black students to the student body and the faculty will, ceteris paribus, increase substantially the likelihood that important truths, which would have otherwise gone undiscovered, will be discovered. Therefore, black student membership in the university, is by itself a good reason for admitting a student (Wasserstrom; 1977:25). Black students bring with them innovative conceptions of conventional intellectual problems. They give distinctive points of view that will benefit the university in its pursuit of knowledge. In benefiting the black students, the university itself is benefited.

Affirmative action programmes may also be thought of as educational enrichment programmes. The sources of a student’s higher education are not only limited to books and lecturers. They also include fellow students. Interaction with other students allows students the opportunity to appreciate not only the individual differences and similarities, but also
cultural and racial differences and similarities among them. Affirmative Action programmes ensure a significantly mixed student-body, which in turn will be beneficial in attaining a cultural balance. These policies can only benefit the universities in a future society that promotes equality and the advancement of the black race.

All this being true and correct, even altruism (benevolence) may be an economising principle, because it can be a substitute for costly and legal processes. "And yet even an altruist might decide to sell his services to the highest bidder rather than donate them to the neediest applicant. An altruist needs to know the approximate wealth of a beneficiary in order to gauge the value of a transfer to that person. Because of the costs of determining need other than through willingness to pay, allocation by price may confer greater net benefits on the rest of society than allocation by 'need' or 'desert' (Posner, 1983:67).

This problem arises when the providers of financial assistance to needy students spend so much time identifying those students that it reduces their own productive capacity in other work areas. This brings us the public good aspect of Affirmative Action as a form of charity.

The alleviation of poverty and provision of educational services may justify public efforts to institutionalise Affirmative Action. Just (1982:284) view it as a public good in that affirmative action is concerned with the welfare of future black generations. Social optimality is obtained by equating the marginal cost of Affirmative Action with the marginal social benefits derived. Public intervention is required in order to determine individual marginal benefits. Furthermore, Affirmative Action programmes are non-excludable; they are not aimed at individual black applicants, but at the black race as a whole. Affirmative Action should generally be retained as a tool of public policy because, on balance, it is useful in overcoming entrenched racial hierarchy (Kennedy; 1984:47).

The state needs to take an active role in helping universities achieve equality in their educational opportunities. The cost of achieving parity at present white expenditure levels will be prohibitive. Educational parity would require large cuts in state spending on education for whites (Van der Berg; 1986: 160). State supported Affirmative Action must be introduced
in the public and private sector. Government departments and big corporations must be required by law to give high priority to the training of blacks in key areas of management and technology. Targets and programmes will have to be determined and monitored jointly by representatives of the Government, employers, workers, university staff and students (Nafcoc; 1991:24).

Thus, even if universities and other institutions promoting Affirmative Action are doing it for altruistic motives, they simply cannot do it on their own. These institutions, without supportive public policy and intervention, are too small on their own to effect the desired outcomes. The state needs to allocate a greater percentage of its budget for black education, its further needs to enforce legislation such as an Education Act so as to create positive rights enforceable in courts, with emphasis being on need and not on race.

The following section will provide the reader with the history of the concept of Affirmative action in United States and its intentions. Then the US content of Affirmative Action will be contextualised in the context of South Africa. USA is the country, which coined the concept Affirmative Action, and South Africa models its policy on the American example. For this reason, I begin this section by exploring Affirmative Action in the United States.

3. ORIGINS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN UNITED STATES AND ITS INTENTIONS

According to Ramphela (1995:1) Affirmative Action is a concept imported from the United States of America (USA) and means different things to different people. In my preliminary definition, Affirmative Action is a tool or strategy to achieve set goals and enable individuals and groups to utilise the equal opportunities made available to them in the transformed environment.

It should be stated in this study, however, that although the concept of Affirmative Action had its origin in US, it was necessitated by past discrimination of minority American Blacks by majority America Whites, including the institution of slavery. This statement means that the majority American Whites were given preferential treatment in educational opportunities, and senior jobs, whilst minority American Blacks were severely discriminated against. Racial isolation remains high, for example in many urban school systems, both North and South; blacks continue to be underrepresented on faculties and especially in high administrative
positions. Even in desegregated schools, local policy decisions may reduce contact across racial lines. Classroom assignments may result in racial proportions varying widely from class to class. Separation of the races may be furthered by special education programs in which nonwhites are over-represented in classes for the educable mentally retarded but rarely found in classes for the gifted and talented (Bullock; 1975:55).

Prior to 1954, school desegregation was left to state discretion. In Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) the Supreme Court held that the Fourteenth Amendment's equal protection clause allowed state to separate blacks and whites so long as the facilities for each were equal. By 1954 the eleven Southern states, six Border States, and the District of Columbia forbade school desegregation. Kansas and three other states permitted local communities to decide whether to segregate. Contrary to the blind assumption of the doctrine of "separate but equal," the facilities attended by blacks did not come close to equalling those attended by whites. Almost all segregated schools discriminated against blacks in the facilities provided, with Southern states spending from two to ten times as much per student for whites as for black (Bullock; 1975:56).

In Brown v. Board of Education (1954), The Supreme Court overturned Plessy with the statement, "Supreme Court conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of 'separate but equal' has no place." The Court, well aware of the unpopularity of its decision, took the unusual step of not directing the defendants to come into immediate compliance. Rather than set a specific date for compliance, it ordered segregated schools to desegregate "with all deliberate speed."

The Brown decision evoked differing responses from Southern Border States. In the latter, some districts began implementation relatively soon but very slowly. Desegregated at this pace, while of undeniable symbolic benefit, had a negligible impact on the racial composition of Southern schools.

Support for the courts from the other branches of government was slow in coming. President Eisenhower displayed a noticeable reluctance to uphold his oath to "preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States" when it came to desegregation. President Eisenhower justified his laissez faire approach to Brown on the basis that government policy could not force people to change their attitudes about social issues. President Kennedy also
avoided pushing for desegregated legislation, fearing that to do so would jeopardise his other policy objectives.

Not until 1964 did Congress, at President Johnson's urging, overcome the objections of most of its Southern members and endorse school desegregation. The Civil Rights Act of that year included three sections applicable to public schools. The new legislation contained provisions that

Authorised the Justice department to sue school districts on behalf of black students (Title IV)

Authorised the Justice Department to join school desegregation suits filed by private plaintiffs (Title IX)

Directed that the institutions that segregated be denied federal funds (Title VI) (Bullock; 1975:56-57).

From the writer of this study's perspective, equal education opportunity as an anti-discrimination policy in racially isolated urban school systems has been more successfully implemented in public education. For example, schools that had practised de jure segregation (that is, segregation required by law) were told that they had "the affirmative duty to take whatever steps might be necessary to convert to a unitary system in which racial discrimination would be eliminated root and branch." A precise deadline was set with schools being directed to establish unitary school systems no latter than the autumn of 1970 (Bullock; 1975:58).

The main objective or intention of the equal education opportunity was particularly to change largely the financial burdens eliminations and physical, economic, and psychological intimidation, which had deterred many blacks from challenging segregation. However, it should be stated in this study that segregation or discrimination in the US was not only in schools but also in the job market. In the job market minority Americans (Blacks) were systematically and blatantly discriminated against. Most of the better-paying jobs in the private sector, and even in the federal, state, and local governments, were reserved for whites—mostly for white males.

According to Rodgers et al (1972:93) "one of the central thrusts of the civil rights movement was to end this discrimination and overcome its legacy. This was, and is, an extremely
complicated goal. As late as 1964 black Americans were only very modestly represented in middle- and upper-income jobs; as a result, black median family income was only 50 percent of white median family income (Rodgers et al; 1972:93). To bridge this awesome gap would require better education and training for millions of black Americans, an end to discriminatory employment practices on the part of thousands of businesses and employers, and a healthy growing economy vigorous enough to provide opportunities for the labour force. The last point needs to be stressed: even a superbly designed and vigorously enforced job discrimination program can have only a limited impact if the economy is not healthy and growing. Thus progress requires a very high degree of co-ordination between federal, and even state, policies. During the 1960's the federal government took the first major steps towards ending job discrimination (Rodgers et al: 1972:93).

According to Rogers et al (1972:96) employment discrimination by private employers was prohibited by Title VII of the 1974 Civil Rights Act. Title VII prohibited discrimination by employers or unions with twenty-five or more employees, which included about 75 percent of the labour force. To enforce Title VII, the five-member Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) was created. For most of its life, EEOC has proven inadequate to fulfil its mandate. Its problems have been numerous. First, EEOC adopted the mostly passive approach of complaint processing. From the beginning EEOC received far more complaints of discrimination than had been anticipated. During its first seven years, the EEOC received 110,000 complaints of employment discrimination (Rodgers et al; 1972:96). The EEOC did not have enough employees to investigate all the complaints, many of its employees were poorly trained, and the general disorganisation of the Commission caused rapid turnover in personnel and a great deal of internal tension (Rodgers et al; 1972:96).

In the view of the writer of this study, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) would have been a success if it had not experienced the stated problems. Efficiency and survival of this kind of structure requires more funds. Proper funding is needed to cater for training to equip the less equipped, mechanisms or strategies that would have been a member of such a structure, which will quell things like a rapid turnover in personnel and a great deal of internal tension.

According to Rodgers et al (1972:97) the courts also ruled against employment tests that excluded more blacks than whites, and seniority systems that excluded blacks from better-
paying jobs. The courts also ordered specific unions to adopt affirmative action plans in compensation for their past discriminatory behaviour. Even with this type of court backing, the EEOC continued to make minimal progress. In 1972, Congress responded by expanding EEOC's enforcement powers. Prior to 1972 EEOC was only authorised to negotiate with discriminating employers through conferences, conciliation's, and persuasion. If EEOC found a pattern of discrimination, it could refer the matter to the Attorney General for possible prosecution. In 1972, Congress gave the EEOC the authority to take cases directly to the federal district courts. EEOC jurisdiction was also extended to state and local government's employees and to employers and unions with fifteen or more employees. EEOC's effectiveness still proved to be limited. The major problem that continued to plague it was that it failed to approach job discrimination in a systematic manner. Rather than develop industry-wide plans or undertake class action suits, it continued to spend most of its time processing individual complaints" (Rodgers et al; 1972:97).

It should be noted in this study, therefore, that even though the EEOC had its blunders and failures, it was not without its successes or developments. Between 1977 and 1980 two major developments further consolidated EEOC's powers and converted it into the nation's major fair employment agency. The first development concerned the constitutionality of affirmative action plans program designed to overcome the impact of discrimination by giving preference in hiring and training to minorities and women. Affirmative action plans had been the core of the field strategies used by EEOC after 1973. Under such plans employers might, for example, set aside a certain percentage of all job openings for qualified blacks. While very effective, such programs were always controversial. White males began to argue that Title VII's prohibition of racial discrimination included discrimination against white males, thus making affirmative action plans unconstitutional (Rodgers et al; 1972:98).

The second major development affecting EEOC was congressional approval in 1978 of the reorganisation of federal equal employment agencies. This reorganisation created a "Super-EEOC" by transferring to EEOC the Office of Personnel Management's jurisdiction over job discrimination within the federal government, the Department of Labour's responsibilities for enforcing the Equal Pay Act and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, and the Equal Employment Opportunity Co-ordinating Council's duty to co-ordinate all federal employment activities (this latter agency was later abolished) (Rodgers et al; 1972:99).
It should be noted in this study that given the pressures and conditions through which the EEOC operated, it managed to bring about progress regarding equal representation in jobs through Affirmative Action programs by getting the support and boost from the government and the courts of law. For example, affirmative action programs were given a further boost in early July 1980, when the Supreme Court upheld a provision of the Public Works Employment Act which set aside 10 percent of all contracts under the $4 billion federal public works program for minority-owned businesses. In a 6 to 3 decision the Court said such racial quotas were necessary to remedy past inequities (Fullilove v. Klutznick, 1980). The decision bolstered (OFCCPs) Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs authority and indirectly upheld a number of other compulsory affirmative action programs for federal contractors. Between 1958 and 1968 progress was slow but steady. By 1968 black representation in white-collar jobs had increased significantly, and a smaller proportion of black women were working as domestics. Still, over half of all black males were employed in low-paying blue-collar jobs, and most black women were still employed as domestic or service workers. On the negative side, while blacks have made considerable gains over the years, they are still under-represented in the professions and better-paying jobs and over-represented in low-income occupations. In some job categories such as managers, administrations, and sales workers, the under-representation is severe; and, at the current rate of progress, the gap will not be bridged for a long time. Blacks were also under-represented in skilled craft jobs and substantially over-represented among service workers (Rodgers et al; 1972:99-101).

In conclusion to this part, anti-discrimination policy (Equal Education Opportunity) has been more successfully implemented in public education than in many other areas of civil rights. The EEOC with the help or boost from the government and the courts of law made great efforts to bring about changes in the job market although effective Affirmative Action was slow and steady. It should be noted that though these changes do not fully accomplish equal opportunities in jobs, the writer of this study wants to remind the reader that there are no quick-fix solutions to level the playing field caused by apartheid or segregatory laws. In a nutshell, this suggests that this process of bringing about change cannot be accomplished overnight, but needs effort and time.

According to Ramphele (1995: 1) Affirmative Action is a concept imported from the United States of America and one therefore has to question its applicability to the South African
context. There are two main differences between South African social conditions and those of the USA.

Firstly, the US has a majority white population, which in the politics of the 1960's was expected to affirm a minority black population. Secondly, there was no questioning by the most Americans, black or white, of the fundamental tenets of the USA's socio-economic system, beyond its racism. The American dream was, and is still is, seen as the basis of their socio-economic systems, and the clamour is not to transform the systems but to gain access to it and share in the dream.

It should be said explicitly in this study that the South African government is a "hybrid system", that is to say it borrows aspects of government from other countries such as USA and Britain. It should also be stated in the study that Affirmative Action as a strategy is not a South African coined concept or term; rather it is coined from USA. South Africa copied this notion from the USA.

Therefore Affirmative Action as a strategy worked to redress imbalances in the USA and from this picture the South African government adopted the strategy after the 1994 democratic elections. However, even though South Africa adopted Affirmative Action strategy like the USA, the challenges faced by both countries are very different.

Firstly, South Africa has to address the needs of a majority and has to commit itself to fundamental transformation of its social relations. Secondly, South Africa has to deal with the politics of the 1990's and beyond, not of the 1960's, both globally and nationally. Thirdly, South Africa has to look beyond Affirmative Action to tackle its problem of inequality. The essence of this third statement as a challenge is because of argument made by Maphai (1992:92); "The way in which Affirmative Action has evolved in South Africa is another contributing factor to why the concept is problematic- and I am most disappointed that the term is part of South African vocabulary at all. I wish we had avoided using it and had been much more innovative, using our own words to indicate exactly what we are looking at- particularly as the term has brought with it all kinds of American baggage (although I do think Affirmative Action in South Africa is going to be something entirely different from Affirmative Action in the States- even though there are likely to be some overlaps)" (Maphai et al; 1992:92).
Employment Equity means the right to fundamental equality of opportunity among all persons and the right of every person to be treated fairly in seeking and maintaining employment on the basis of authentic merit rather than inherited practices rooted in habit, intuition, complacency or prejudice (Republic of South Africa 1995:2).

Affirmative Action is defined as the laws, programmes or activities designed to redress past imbalances and to ameliorate the conditions of individuals and groups, who have been disadvantaged on the ground of race, gender and disability (Republic of South Africa 1998:20).

Corrective Action refers to the constitutional mandate active dismantling of the continuing effects of apartheid (Republic of South Africa 1996:3).

The three concepts above are distinct but they each champion one mission of seeking fundamental equality of opportunity, redress of past imbalances and dismantling of the continuing effects of apartheid. Therefore the three concepts are interchangeable. A person cannot talk of Affirmative Action issues and negate measures contained in Employment Equity and Corrective Action.

The relations between Employment Equity, Affirmative Action and Corrective Action are broad and complex. They are related by the sense that they all seek positive steps to advance previously disadvantaged individuals or groups.

In conclusion, the past regime had passed inhibiting legislation, which deprived or preempted designated group advancement in health, education and job opportunities. Given this history, the Government of National Unity (GNU) when it came into power in 1994, sought corrective measures to close the gap created by apartheid legislation, and the above three mentioned concepts became buzz concepts of South African situational redress, in workplace, in school of thoughts, in Government, as well as every where in the country. The Department of Labour has given the concepts above more meaning by putting into place the rigorous Employment Equity Act (1998) and Skills Development Act (1995). This puts more pressure on employers, and public and private sector managers, to report annually on the progress made to improve their workforce profiles, as compared to profiles they had in the past.
The next section deals with discrimination in South Africa’s higher education.

4. DISCRIMINATION IN SOUTH AFRICA’S HIGHER EDUCATION

According to the National Commission on Higher Education Report (1996:29) a major characteristic of South Africa’s higher education is the legacy of apartheid ideology, which provided the framework for structuring the education systems after 1948. Starting with the Bantu Education Act of 1953, all education in South Africa was officially divided along racial/ethnic lines to reinforce the dominance of white rule by excluding blacks from quality academic education and technical training.

The extension of the University Education Act of 1959, which established racially based universities, applied this ideology to higher education. The University Colleges of the North and Zululand were established for Sotho, Venda, Tshongha-speaking and Zulu-speaking African people respectively, and the Universities of Western Cape and Durban-Westville for Coloureds and Indians respectively. The University of Fort Hare, which had for many decades played a significant role in providing higher education to black people from South Africa and the rest of Africa, was restricted to Xhosa-speaking Africans.

Prior to this 1959 Act the existing universities catered largely for whites. Although there was no legislation barring black people from any university at that point, universities were differentiated by race. The Extension of University Education Act formally restricted entry to universities according to race. Black people were admitted to White Universities only in cases where equivalent programmes were not offered at black universities and only after ministerial permission was obtained. The early 1980’s saw the establishment of several universities in the independent ‘homelands’ which were intended to service the needs of separate development.

In keeping with international trends and in response to national needs a third type of higher education institution, the technikon developed in 1978 alongside the universities and colleges for vocational training. The technikons developed within the apartheid framework, which at that time defined the rest of the education system. This ultimately led to a South African higher education system having as its main components 21 universities, 15 technikons and about 140 single discipline, vocational colleges (Education, nursing and agriculture), all divided along racial lines.
Boundaries between the university, technikon and college sectors were defined according to their differing functions. These were shaped the Van Wyk de Vries Commission (1974) and the Goode Committee (1978), which distinguished between the university, technikon and college, functions as follows:

- A main function of universities is to educate students in a range of basic scientific (or scholarly) disciplines with a view to high-level professional training; while that of technikons is to train students in the application of knowledge rather than in basic knowledge itself with the view to high-level career training; and that of colleges is preparation for specific vocations, such as nursing, teaching and policing (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:30).
- Universities engage in basic scientific research, technikons engage in development scientific research and colleges are not expected to do research (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:30).

These functional differences between universities, technikons and colleges led to the arguments that just as the functions of the three kinds of institutions were different, so too should their qualification structures be different. Consequently, it was decided that the universities and technikons should have different kinds of qualifications, which flowed from recognition that the essential functions of universities were the study and advancement of the basic sciences and that of the technikons the teaching of the technology.

The policy of introducing and maintaining strict functional boundaries between universities, technikons and colleges has proved difficult to implement. One of the reasons for this it is that when technikons were established in the early 1980's, universities had for a long time been offering instructional programmes with a vocational focus which complied more with the definition of technikon functions, programmes which arguably should have been transferred to the technikons.

Contrary to the aim of sectors developing vertically alongside each other, inequalities exist between the sectors. Universities have the most access to resources and are regarded as more prestigious" (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:30).
According to the National Commission on Higher Education Report (1996:32) many of the debates and struggles in higher education, especially in the 1980’s, were focused on issues of access by black (African, Coloured and Indians) students to higher education institutions. This is understandable if one takes into consideration that even in the 1986, for example, of the total student enrolment at technikons only 7% were African while 83% were Whites. In the university sector 23% were African compared to 64% White. Despite a significant increase in the enrolment figures of black students during the period between 1986 and 1993, the student composition of the universities and technikons still reflects the legacy of apartheid.

Between 1986 and 1993, African enrolment at universities and technikons increased at an average annual rate of 14%, compared to an average annual growth of 0.4% for Whites. Total student enrolments at universities and technikons increased by an annual average of 8% during this period. The picture emerging from these and other statistics about increasing African enrolment can, however, be misleading.

Much of this growth in the enrolment of African students at universities, for instance, was due to increasing numbers being registered at Historically Black Universities (HBUs), which as group almost doubled their student numbers, and at distance learning universities of Vista and Unisa. In contrast, growth at Historically White Universities (HWUs) was extremely limited, with annual increase of 1, 5% against almost 10% for HBUs. The marked growth of full-time equivalent students (FTES) at HBUs increased their share of total number of FTES at universities from 16% in 1988 to 26% in 1993, while the share of HWUs dropped from 52% to 45%.

Racial inequalities in access are not limited to the total number participating in the system, but exist across disciplines and are most prevalent in the more senior levels of study. The concentration of particularly African and coloured student enrolments at the HBUs and distance institutions had a significant impact on the type and levels of programmes to which black students had access (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:32-33).

According to the National Commission on Higher Education Report (1996:43-44) a major negative legacy of the apartheid era has been an economy which grew at a rate of less than 1.2% a year during the 1980s and 1990s and which saw per capita income drop in real terms
by 18%. Nevertheless, education’s share of government expenditure actually increased during these decades. For example, in the 1990/91 fiscal years, 20, 9% of government expenditure was allocated to education services (or 6, 1% of GDP).

By the 1995/96 fiscal years this proportion had increased to 21, 3% of government expenditure (or 6, 6% of GDP) (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:44).

In 1995/96, 24, 9% of government expenditure on education (1, 2% of GDP) was expected to be spent on higher education (universities, technikons, teacher’s education and other vocational colleges). Total government plus private expenditure on higher education is expected to amount to R9, 5 billion or 1, 9% of GDP for the 1995/96 fiscal years, of which the contribution from private sources is expected to be R3, 9 billion.

The increases did not, however in real terms match growth rates in enrolment which for the period 1991-1995 were about 4% a year for primary plus secondary education and 8% a year for higher education (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:44).

Because of the poor management information structures within many institutions and education departments, little or no detailed information is available on the financial state of higher education institutions in the college sector or former independent homelands. Of South Africa’s 21 universities and 15 technikons, accommodating approximately 75% of all public higher education students in the country, a reasonably clear picture of only 17 universities and 12 technikons can be given (National Commission on Higher Education Report; 1996:45).

The black university was funded according to a mixture of budget funding and funds deriving from a different formula. In 1985 all universities, excluding the Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) universities, were placed on the same formula as that applying to white universities as a consequence of pressure for uniformity. This funding formula was not designed to take into account pressure put on the system by increasing political turbulence and student unrest. Neither was it designed to cope with the accelerated growth in student enrolments at black institutions. The subsidy formula was also not designed to apply to black institutions, nor did it consider the consequent effects of their special circumstances.
These factors, together with severe resource constraints experienced by the previous government in funding social services, led to the introduction of the so-called α-factors by which funds generated by the subsidy formula were adjusted. These adjustments varied across institutions. In 1993, a revised subsidy formula was introduced which included some measures for dealing with unusually high growth in student enrolment.

The mechanical way in which subsidy formula designed for one set of circumstances was applied to a different set of circumstances led to difficulties. The result was the effective discontinuation of the subsidy formulae for universities and technikons through the introduction of α-factors. The ensuing funding inconsistencies gave rise to serious distortions and inequalities within and between the university and technikon sectors.

**Table 1: Some income inequalities for HWUs and HBUs (1993)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subsidy and tuition fee income</th>
<th>HWU</th>
<th>HBU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Income from investments, donations, grants and contracts</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other income (including residue fees)</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuition fee income per enrolment FTE student</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subsidy income per enrolment FTE student</td>
<td>R4400</td>
<td>R3500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 1 indicates that the relative inability of HBUs to generate income from investments, donations, grants and contracts compared to that of HWUs has given rise to greater reliance on subsidy and tuition fee income by HBUs. In the absence of a national student financial aid scheme, many students from economically deprived backgrounds have been unable to pay tuition fees leading to disastrous consequences, especially for the HBUs which, in addition, have not been able to set tuition fees at the level of the HWUs. In nutshell, it could be deduced from the latter statistics of Historically Black Universities (HBUs) and Historically White Universities (HWUs), that the government funded them skewedly. The notion behind this skewed funding of the above-mentioned universities by the government was to promote
seggregation and racial tensions amongst Whites and Blacks. Secondly, the idea of denying Blacks access to education was to avoid competition across races. Thirdly, if Blacks were given access to education they would have been a threat to apartheid government and a strong challenge to its policies.

In conclusion, it can therefore be seen that the model described above has generated many racial and gender inequalities in higher education. Reducing the disparities is a priority. Given generations of unequal opportunity affecting present generations of blacks and whites, gross inequality is a natural outcome and no realistic improvement can be expressed from a laissez-faire policy. The state must play a visible part in addressing the inequalities especially if economic terms the future of these lies in the effective development of the deprived majority. The section that follows examines material inequality and social justice.

5. MATERIAL INEQUALITY AND SOCIAL JUSTICE
Social justice is viewed from two perspectives; namely equality of opportunity and distributive justice. Equality of opportunity implies that people should have the same start in competing for material rewards. Distributive justice is concerned with actual outcomes. Inequality has emerged in South Africa through market processes and unequal access to state resources.

Inequality through market processes is reflected in wage gaps; different access to employment and inequality of income distribution. This inequality is due to unequal opportunity in the market economy, which is a result of inequality of power. Besides large educational inequality flowing from unequal educational expenditures, discrimination laws and labour practices determining access to jobs have increased inequality of opportunity. Job reservation and inadequate education and training of blacks contributed greatly to artificial rapid white occupational mobility.

Table 2: Expenditure inequalities for HWUs and HBU's (1993)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personnel expenditure per FTE enrolled student</th>
<th>HWU</th>
<th>HBU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12200</td>
<td>7600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to National Commission on Higher Education Report (1996:46) personnel expenditure for HWUs in 1993 amounted to 59% of their total expenditure compared to 56% for HBUs. The large difference in personnel expenditure per full-time equivalent (FTE) enrolled student between HWUs and HBUs reflected in Table 9, in the case of research / levels of academic staff. The seemingly low levels of fixed asset expenditure indicate that both categories of universities are experiencing difficulties in maintaining their productive infrastructures. In the case of technikons, less significant differences occur in the personnel expenditure per FTE enrolled student between Historically Black Tuitions (HWTs), while fixed asset expenditure per FTE enrolled student shows a similar trend to that for universities.

Measured in 1988 Rand the expenditure of HWUs between 1988 and 1993 increased by about 11% compared to figure of 33% for HBUs. Since these figures exceed the corresponding increases in total income for HWUs and HBUs respectively, both categories must have been retaining a far smaller proportion of their income in 1993 than in 1988.

Inequality in access to state resources is reflected in inequalities in expenditure for housing, health, education and urban infrastructure and in the urgency with which the state address issues of poverty. The state directly affects inequalities in turn effect human capital embodiments and thus market outcomes.

The argument for Affirmative Action is in principle a rational, moral and unavoidable option for future economic growth in South Africa. Affirmative Action becomes contentious in practice when pro-active programmes aimed at advantaging those who have been disadvantaged in the past are proposed. Some people perceive such measures as reverse discrimination and others criticise them for creating a new form of dependency. The first position is associated mainly with liberal whites and the second position with conservative blacks who have made it in the world of the white males. Both positions are at best contentions, since they are based on assumptions that are themselves difficult to defend. Adams (1993:13) and Maphai (1989) point out that the criticism of preferential advantages such critics have enjoyed over the decades. On the question of dependency there is no evidence to show that affirmative action inevitably leads to lower performance as argued by Conservative black writers (Adams; 1993:13).
Adams (1993:13) and Innes (1992:158) rebut Steels argument by asking the question: why have other groups like women who are also beneficiaries of Affirmative Action done so well in the USA? Innes’s (1992:158) conclusion is that the weight of evidence does not support the assertion that Affirmative Action leads to lower performance. What is clear is that in situations where affirmative action strategies fail to address all the essential factors, positive results are not achieved. Innes (1992:158) asserts that we should therefore not waste time arguing about the merits and demerits of Affirmative Action, but we should focus our creative minds on formulating comprehensive affirmative action strategies.

It is self-evident that in order to achieve effective equality of opportunity blacks have to be afforded preferential support to enable them to attain a higher level of technological and managerial capability. Secondly, they must be enabled to gain access to economic resources and provided with appropriate support. Thirdly, they must be given space and opportunities to make a contribution. All the efforts would be futile if they are not able to access positions of leadership and decision-making.

The fourth issue that Affirmative Action must address is, changing the mind-set of white managers and the manner in which most organizations approach black advancement. The focus of most managers and of most progressive organizations is to help the black person to overcome his / her deficiencies (Adams; 1993:13).

For Affirmative Action to work it must be realised that the managers must also change. Most white managers do not expect blacks to succeed in managerial positions. These negative expectation demoralises the black trainees. Educational planning and provision is one of the most important means of ensuring effective equalisation of opportunity. However, it is important for Affirmative Action not to be limited to the creation of black middle class, empowerment should also provide for the socio-economic advancement of the most disadvantaged. Disadvantaged groups deserve compensation because of past injuries done to them. Although all Blacks and other members of previously discriminated against groups may not be included, it is argued by Adams (1993) that all have suffered injury and thus the group, as a whole must be compensated. It can thus be concluded that Affirmative Action is a necessary step for improving the welfare of the South African society as a whole. It does not go against the equality principle; a country cannot practice the equality principle if it does not start off from an equal position.
6. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Affirmative Action has been necessitated by the need to strike a balance between different groups in South Africa—this is because of gaps created during the previous apartheid regime. The beginning of the democratically elected government in 1994 underpinned crucial socio-political changes in South Africa. The historical imbalances created by decades of Apartheid policies demand employment of specific programmes in order to correct the situation. The period witnessed major transformation that is mainly intended to accommodate the previously marginalised communities; Blacks, women and disabled people. These changes brought about the birth of Affirmative Action. This background raises the research question as it might apply to the University of Cape Town (UCT);

"How successful has UCT been in achieving employment equity and why?"

6.1 The Need For The Study

Affirmative Action measures are designed to ensure that qualified people from designated groups have equal employment opportunities and are equitably represented in all occupation categories and levels in the workforce of a designated employer (Republic of South Africa 1998:18). The University of Cape Town should given credit for implementing Affirmative Action strategy before the government could impose it. Again during the apartheid era the University of Cape Town was seen as one institution on the forefront amongst other institutions, which resisted the discriminatory laws imposed by the apartheid government. In line with the above-mentioned argument, this study will therefore take documentaries, questionnaires and statistical analysis of the transformation process at the University of Cape Town.

According to Employment Equity Act (1998:18) Affirmative Action measures implemented by a designated employer must include:

1) Measures designated to further diversity in the workplace based on equal dignity and respect of all people;
2) Measures designated to further diversity in the workplace based on equal dignity and respect of all people;
3) Making reasonable accommodation for people from designated groups in order to ensure that they enjoy equal opportunities and are equitably represented in the work place of a designated employer;
4) Subject to subsection (3), measures to:
ii) ensure the equitable representation of suitably qualified people from designated groups in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce, and

ii) retain and develop from designated groups and to implement appropriate training, including measures in terms of an Act of Parliament providing for skill development.

6.2 Significance Of The Study
Affirmative Action is complex policy issue, which requires continuous assessment, for example, is not an event but a process characterized by obstacles such as cost to maintain it. Therefore, the following reasons necessitate this study:

0. This study provides statistical analysis to catalyse and to improve UCT’s Affirmative Action strategies.

0. UCT functions in a dynamic environment, and it is hoped that the study will provide information on the institutional environment and the culture in which UCT constitutes its Affirmative Action programme over time.

0. The University of Cape Town has a demographically “skewed” staff profile, so it is important to ascertain why UCT cannot attract and retain a more “balanced” staff profile.

0. Finally, this study will serve as a source of reference for employees and students, in identifying certain pitfalls in statistical analysis when implementing Affirmative Action and Equity programme.

6.3 Methodology
Affirmative Action has been necessitated by the need to strike a balance between different groups in South Africa – this is because of gaps created during the previous apartheid regime. The beginning of the democratically elected government in 1994 underpinned crucial socio-political changes in South Africa. The historical imbalances created by decades of apartheid policies demanded specific programmes intended to accommodate the previously marginalized communities: blacks, women and disabled people. These changes brought about the birth of Affirmative Action. This background emphasises the importance of the research question:

“How successful has UCT been in achieving employment equity, and why?”

This research will use documentation and a comparative case study to address key areas of concern such as why has employment equity not been achieved or very much advanced at
UCT. I use newspaper articles to gain the internal as well as external view of the public that the University of Cape Town serves, regarding its promotion of affirmative action and equal employment opportunity strategies. Official documents will help supplement the internal view. To gather data from Witwatersrand (Wits) and Natal Universities (NU), other measures or research tools other than the already above-mentioned have been explored, including the internet and phone communication. Internet websites give access to university services and data. The telephone however was essential to make contact with Employment Equity Unit Managers in the three institutions in case the information on their website was not substantive enough, and to follow-up the data materials requested.

This study is a comparative analysis. The institutions in focus are University of Cape Town, Natal University and Witwatersrand University. This study aims to assess their affirmative action strategies to-date, as to how successful they have been in achieving employment equity and why.

According to Lijphart (1971:683) the comparative method is definitely a method, and not just a convenient term vaguely symbolizing the focus of one’s research interests, nor is it a special set of substantive concerns. Shmued N. Eisenstadt cited in (Lijphart 1971:683) definition of the comparative approach in social research; he states that the term does not “properly designate a specific method... but rather a special focus on cross-societal, institutional, or macro societal aspects of societies and social analysis.

This study is an evaluative study and comparative method should perform an indispensable role in a study such as this. From the viewpoint of the writer of the study, comparative method is a relevant method to this study as it enables the writer to explore issues at stake on case-by-case bases, the comparative approach, however, allows comparison of two or three (few case) but not too many issues. Again the comparative method is important because it constitutes reliable knowledge in empirical social science research.

6.4 Limitation Of The Study
The study covers the period from 1995 to 2002. Firstly, one of the limitations is the insufficient data. Due to the latter mentioned limitation, I relied on information on employment equity report submitted to the Department of Labour by all the existing South African institutions. It should be pointed out that even though UCT, NU and Wits have a
similar institutional history in some respect, their resources are not the same. For example, UCT and NU have their own website on Employment Equity which enables communities they serve to access information about progress made by the above institutions with regard to matters of Transformation and Affirmative Action strategy, whilst Wits does not have such kind of a website. It was difficult to obtain data from Wits, until direct contact was made with Wits Employment Equity Unit Manager for assistance in this regard.

Secondly, the compensation of the previously disadvantaged individuals or groups, through the Department of Labour passing rigorous Legislations such Employment Equity Act (1998) and Skills Development Act (1995) had put mounting pressure on organizations and institutions. The sole aim of the above-mentioned Act is to seek advancement of previously disadvantaged group in public and private sector; therefore other institutions to cope with this mounting pressure have played a number game that is by increasing their profile in their employment equity reports. For example, NU had apparently reclassified its workplace profile to the upper tiers in its different occupational categories, and as such universities such as UCT and Wits did not have such kind of reclassification of staff in their workforce profile, so it was difficult to compare the three institutions as NU workforce profile showed tremendous progress achieved in a short space of time.

6.5 Organisation Of The Chapters
This study comprises of six chapters. Chapter One consists of the following sections:

- Background of the study (Affirmative Action); what necessitates it and the definitions of Affirmative Action from various authors as well as the writer of the study’s definition of affirmative action. Secondly, this chapter covered the origins of affirmative action in United States and its intentions, providing brief synopses of the above –mentioned programme in the context of South Africa, and tried to adjust or analyze whether the affirmative action programme has its place in South Africa as it does in the United States. This, however, is analyzed from various authors’ perspectives. Thirdly, Higher Education is discussed as well as the issue of material inequality and social justice.

Chapter Two examines the Review of Literature On Affirmative Action.
Chapter Three deals with theoretical frameworks, which justify the study. These theoretical frameworks are the Libertarian and Contractarian justices. In this chapter a connection of chapter three (theoretical frameworks) to UCT is provided.

Chapter Four set out to explicate the Employment Equity issues as well as Affirmative Action strategies at UCT. The first section seeks to unpack definitions such as institutional and organisational culture and also deals with UCT institutional culture. For example, how the institutional culture was and what impact was made by UCT to change its institutional culture. And to ascertain these changes or what supposed to be changed in the institutional culture, I explored UCT Official reports such as the Institutional Culture Workshop Report (1998), the Institutional Culture Focus group (1999) and the UCT Employment Equity (1994). The second section deals with the race and gender issues of all UCT staff. Interpretable data on these issues is provided to help the reader see changes or improvement about achievement or failures with regard to Employment equity.

In Chapter Five, a comparative exploration of recent Employment Equity reporting of UCT, NU and Wits universities is carried out. Key areas of focus are as follows: 1) Workforce profile; 2) Recruitment; 3) Training and 4) Promotion. Findings of the study will be highlighted in this chapter. Chapter Six is the conclusion, in this chapter the reader is provided with the conclusion of the chapters before and then the conclusion based on the whole study, which also answers the research question.

In summary, we have learned from Chapter One firstly that Apartheid in South Africa marginalised Blacks not only from political power but also from economic participation. Black capital and technology was severely restricted through a plethora of laws and regulations. This made it extremely difficult for Blacks to penetrate the centers of power in the country. In rectifying the situation above, Affirmative Action is a call to stop this from happening. It is a call to ensure that conditions are created to enable Blacks to overcome the disadvantages of the past and to make a positive contribution to the future.

Furthermore, we have also learned that even if universities and other institutions promoting Affirmative Action are doing it for altruistic motives, they simply cannot do it on their own. These institutions, without supportive public policy and intervention, are too small on their own to effect the desired outcomes. The state needs to allocate greater percentages of its
budget for Black education; it further needs to enforce legislation such as an Education Act so as to create positive rights enforceable in courts, with emphasis being on needs and not on race.

In addition, we have learned that Affirmative Action is a concept imported by South Africa from the United States of America (USA) and means different things to different people. On my preliminary definition, Affirmative action is a tool or strategy to achieve set goals and enable individuals and groups to utilize the equal opportunities made available to them in the transformed environment. We also learned that there are two main differences between South African social conditions and those of the USA. We have also learned that a major characteristic of South Africa's higher education is the legacy of apartheid ideology, which provided the framework for structuring the education systems after 1948. Starting with the Bantu Education Act of 1953, all education in South Africa was officially divided along racial ethnic lines to reinforce the dominance of White rule by excluding Blacks from quality academic education and technical training.

Finally, we also learned that inequality through market processes is reflected in wage gaps; different access to employment and inequality of income distribution. This inequality is due to unequal opportunity in the market economy, which is a result of inequality of power. Besides large educational inequality flowing from unequal educational expenditures, discrimination laws and labour practices determining access to jobs have increased inequality of opportunity. Job reservation and inadequate education and training of Blacks contributed greatly to artificial rapid White occupational mobility.

There are two aspects of this chapter to the study, and they are both historical. Firstly, the significance of this chapter is in the historical conception of South Africa. For example, since the National Party ruled from 1948, its successive governments passed legislation to inhibit the economic advancement of Blacks and made state budgetary allocations to promote development of Whites through better education, health facilities and housing. Be the situation as it may the chapter continues to show that out of the disparities created by apartheid era in public as well as in private sectors institutions, a measure or a rectifying programme that can level the play field is needed, and that programme is Affirmative Action.

Secondly, the significance of this chapter is in the historical conception of UCT. For example, UCT is the first institution that challenged the National Party government and its
inhibiting legislations. To single legislation out of a huge list of inhibiting legislations that UCT challenged passed by the National Party government, is the University Education Act of 1959. The University Education Act restricted entry to universities according to race.

In accordance to the latter Act, Black people were admitted to White University only in cases where equivalent programmes were not offered at Black universities and only after ministerial permission were obtained. Given this historical track record, UCT became the first institution in South Africa to adopt Affirmative Action programme even before it could be adopted by the government.

In conclusion to Chapter One, one therefore wants to reiterate the fact that Apartheid in South Africa marginalised Blacks not only from political power but also from economic participation. This made it extremely difficult for Blacks to penetrate the centres of power in the country. So government needs to play an interventionist role and formulate public policy that will help universities and institutions that are promoting Affirmative Action. South Africa borrowed the concept of Affirmative Action from US, and in the US the concept was in many respects successfully implemented. Even in the US, Affirmative action has many critics and has been in retreat in public universities. There are, however, three key differences between South African social conditions and those of the USA. Firstly, the US has a sound economy and infrastructure, its government therefore posses the resources and wealth with which to advance equity. Secondly, the US has a majority White population, which in the politics of the 1960’s was expected to empower and advance a minority Black population. South Africa, by contrast, has a majority Black population, which in the post-1994 settlement has been expected to be affirmed by a minority White population. Thirdly, there was no questioning by the most Americans, Black or White, of the tenets of the USA’s socio-economic system, beyond its racism. The American dream was, and still is, seen as the basis of their socio-economic systems, and the clamour from African Americans is not to transform the system but to gain access to it and share in the dream. South Africa, by contrast, has an unstable economy characterised by poverty and unemployment and vulnerable to globalisation. The South African government and courts need to play an interventionist role and formulate public policy that will help universities and institutions that are promoting Affirmative Action, and in a far more difficult context than in the United States.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW ON AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

This chapter is first to explore definitions of Affirmative Action from various authors, and implications in meaning of these definitions will be interpreted and spelled out clearly to the reader. Secondly, the next section will explore the justification for Affirmative Action, and Nozick rectification approaches. Thirdly, the next section will focuses on three principles of justice, thus; 1) the principle of justice in transfer; 2) the principle of justice in acquisition and 3) the principle of rectification. Fourthly, the next section will provide the reader with the in-depth limitations of the libertarian frameworks. The final section discusses Goldman and his social justice theory and its limitations, and a detailed explanation as to which theory is more applicable to South Africa’s context of Affirmative Action will be provided. Significance of the chapter to the study’s relevance will be shown and a conclusion summarising main points in the chapter follows.

Affirmative Action is defined as the laws, programmes or activities designed to redress past imbalances and to ameliorate the conditions of individuals and groups, who have been disadvantaged on the groups of race, gender and disability (Republic of South Africa 1998:20).

According to Greenwalt (1983:17) “Affirmative Action” refers to attempts to bring members of underrepresented groups, usually groups that have suffered in some beneficial program. Some Affirmative Action efforts include preferential treatment; others do not. In addition, Affirmative Action has also been associated with the imposition of “quotas” and “goals.”

The implications of the two definitions might be different in their interpretations but both emphasise one common objective, that is, Affirmative Action, as a programme should benefit the disadvantaged groups or underrepresented groups. In South Africa’s context, the word “disadvantaged” and “underrepresented” groups implicitly refers to Black (non-white), women and disabled, who have been incapacitated by Apartheid legacy to have a fair share in the socio-political economy of the country. In short the above definitions both carry the view
that Affirmative Action should benefit the previously disadvantage groups in the country (South Africa).

1. JUSTIFICATION FOR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: THE LIBERTARIAN FRAMEWORK AND NOZICK'S RECTIFICATION APPROACH

According to (Rosenfeld; 1991: 120) "the libertarian position is distinguished by its strong philosophical stand on individual autonomy, extensive property rights and a minimal "night watchman" state, which is mainly confined to providing its citizens with police protection for their lives, property and enforcing contracts. This position further adheres rigidly to the notion that the freedom of choice takes precedence overall maximisation of freedom. According to this position, the individuals' rights to property and free association are more paramount and should not be overridden by social interests on maximisation of social goods and services. Consistent with this position, Libertarians demand limitations on the use of the state for social policy and advocate for market freedom characterised by free transaction between individuals."

Robert Nozick (1979:240) "operates within this philosophical framework and developed a theory known as the entitlement theory in which he asserts that a just distribution is whatever distribution results from people's free exchanges. In accordance to this theory any distribution that arises by free transfer from a just is just itself."

Robert Nozick's (1979:241) entitlement theory is characterised by three main principles, namely, "the principle of justice in transfer, which states that whatever is justly acquired can be freely transferred; the principle of justice in acquisition, according to which an account of how people came initially to own the things which can be transferred in accordance with the principle of transfer; and the principle of rectification of justice, which focuses on how to deal with holdings if they were unjustly acquired or transferred." This latter framework or principles will be examined single-handedly and will be contextualised in line with the South African situation.

1.1 The Principle Of Justice In Transfer
This principle asserts that if a person acquires property or something legitimately, that is, without force, fraud or unjust original acquisition, then that person has an absolute property
right over it. Flowing from this, the legitimate property owner has a right to keep everything he or she has, and has a right dispose it as he or she sees fit (Nozick: 1979: 241-242).

According to Nozick’s (1979:242) conception of justice, voluntary exchange of gifts from one person to another constitutes a just transfer. The case of South Africa shows that the transfers from blacks to white since from 1652 until the demise of apartheid in 1994 were neither voluntary nor freely entered into. Blacks were forcefully dispossessed of their rightfully owned properties. Their labour, land and its riches were plundered by the metropolitan states and by the whites who claimed the “discovery” of South Africa and property rights over the illegitimately acquired land and riches belonging to the indigenous people. The government confiscated any property claim blacks had and redistributed part of it to Whites while retaining a lion’s share. This continues to show that, by and large, the transfers that were entered into between blacks, whites and the government in the stipulated period were accomplished through force and for this reason, they are unjust as they negate the requirements of the libertarian position. These injustices need to be attended to with caution and sensitivity because they may be negative impact on South Africa’s reconciliatory agenda.

1.2 The Principle Of Justice In Acquisition
According to this principle, transfer of a holding cannot be initiated until historical titles are ascertained or rectified (Nozick: 1979:242). If the present holding, land for instance, came to be someone’s property by force, then Nozick’s (1979:242) theory renders the initial acquisition illegitimate as well. On the other hand, if the previous title was legitimate, this means free from physical aggression or fraud, then any new distribution that results from market exchanges is just.

Nozick’s (1979:242) argument is premised on the assumption that acquisition of a holding can be made without worsening the situation of others. He argues that this can be accomplished by using the Lockean proviso, which states that people are entitled to appropriation if they leave enough and as good for others. According to Locke, these criteria will be consistent with equality of other individuals since they are not disadvantaged by that appropriation (Nozick: 1979:243). The Lockean proviso shows that the selfish and individualistic interests of the few cannot trample upon the rights and interests of others.
Its primary aim is to create a just and harmonious environment within which appropriations can be conducted without inconveniencing and intruding the rights of others. The application of the Lockean proviso in the case under scrutiny shows that black communities in South Africa had previously held land in common for general use. This means that land was not owned by individuals but by a community as a whole. These communities used land for shelter, grazing of animals and farming.

This set-up was interrupted and destroyed by racist policies, which displaced black communities and reduced blacks into non-citizens in their country of birth with no property-rights and claims. And this came in the form of Forced Removals (1980), Group Areas Act (1950) and the Land Act of (1913). Given this version as highlighted above, it stands to reason that enough and as good were not left for blacks. Their aspirations, needs and interests were not taken into consideration when these initiatives were formulated and implemented and appropriations made. As a result, this situation was unjust because it was to the detriment of the victim and worsened their situation.

1.3 The Principle Of Rectification

In an attempt to find solution to the trivial problem of past injustices, Nozick (1979:245) developed the principle of rectification in entitlement theory. He argues that the principle of rectification requires historical information about the past situations. This information should be consistent with the first two principles of justice, that is, justice in transfer and justice in acquisition. Applying the principle of rectification, “it would be possible to locate the injustice in the past, to measure their effects on the injustice in the past, to measure their effects on the configuration of the present holdings, to determine what that configuration would have in the absence of any past injustices, and then to compare the actual configuration of the present holdings, to determine what that configuration would have in the absence of any past injustices, and then to compare the actual configuration of holdings with what would have been but for the former and latter were found. Moreover, justice would require a rectification in the form of a reallocation of holding to the extent necessary to eliminate such a difference” (Rosenfeld; 1991:125).

The historical information about the past situation in South Africa bears testimony to the fact that the apartheid regime violated the first two principle of Nozick’s (1979:250) entitlement theory. And for this reason, rectification measures have to be instituted in order to
compensate for the harm suffered by the victims of past discrimination. The state-imposed Affirmative Action appears to be the most viable option for South Africa’s endeavors to confront its unjust discriminatory past.

It should be recalled that the victims were not discriminated against as individuals but as a group and for this reason, compensatory measures need to be targeted to blacks as a group. In the domain of job allocation, for instance, "a survey of 455 companies 1998 revealed that 89% of senior management is still White, 6% African of which 1% is female, 2% is Coloured, 3% Indian and 8% of White senior management is female (City Press; 1999:02 May 2). The Presidential Review Commission also revealed that senior management positions in the public service are still White male dominated. A survey of all departments and provinces revealed that white males occupy 16,8% of the management positions 23,4% is African of which 9,2% is female 4,0% of white management is female, Coloured occupy 2.8% and another 2.8% is Asian (Presidential Review Commission Report; 1998:12).

The preceding statistics indicate the disparities that exist both in the corporate sector and in the public service. They show that white males constitute an artificial majority in South Africa’s management positions both in the private and public sector and this is not a true reflection of the country’s population demography, which is black, and female dominated.

The state intervention is thus, required to redress this gaps or imbalances.

The former Minister of Justice and the current Minister of Transport, Dullar Omar, argues “…to create real equality, the notion of a minimalist state is totally inappropriate. We need a government that is interventionist and which has real power to address the massive inequalities” (Financial Mail; 1998:40: July 10).

As it can be seen, this position is contrary to the Libertarian position, which agitates for a minimal state. It is imperative, therefore, to note that although a Libertarian would acknowledge and justify rectification for past injustices, he or she will still resist the state-imposed Affirmative Action. And this is because a libertarian believes that the imposition of Affirmative Action will violate the right of employer to hire whoever he or she pleases. This means that the scope within which a libertarian would justify Affirmative Action is very limited and incapacitated to resolve the massive social and economic problems confronting countries such as the present South Africa.
The following section deals with the limitations of the Libertarian position to better the harm causes by the apartheid system, which permeated South Africa.

1.4 Limitations Of The Libertarian Framework
The libertarian framework rejects the welfare state and maintains that distribution should be pursued within the scope of a minimalist state. This position assumes that the state should not invade the space of corporation to run its business and hire whomever it sees fit. According to this position a corporation has a right to prohibit either discrimination or Affirmative Action.

Rosenfeld (1991) argues that in terms of “… the libertarian conception of justice, therefore, a corporation is an entitled to refuse flatly to hire blacks and women as it is entitled to grant them systematic preferential treatment” (Rosenfeld; 1991:53).

This means that according to a libertarian framework, a corporation is as entitled to perpetuate discrimination, as it is entitled to institute Affirmative Action in allocation of jobs. Nevertheless, the failure of a libertarian to prohibit discrimination should not be viewed as a racist or sexist attitude towards blacks and women respectively, but as an adherence to the notion that a person has absolute property rights over a legitimately acquired property. And that not even the state has a right to temper with the property rights of the holder, regardless of the social conditions and needs of the community and argues that “even if one accepts the libertarian’s belief that rights cannot be overridden by considerations of social welfare, there is no need to recognise a right prospectively when it is plain that such a right would have significantly worse consequences than non-recognition.

Moreover, Nozick’s position misrepresents the way in which rights are ordered. Rights vary in importance and some are not absolute even in the state of nature and “the only way to make progress in understanding the nature of individual rights is to investigate their sources and their relations to each other and to the value on whose pursuit they set limits” (Nagel; 1977:196).

Nozick (1979:260) appears to assume those individual rights and property rights function or operate outside social rule and laws. These rights require morally defensible institutions for
them to be morally defensible. Thus, a distinction has to be drawn between morally defensible property rights within a given social system, the justification of which is relative to social circumstance and moral rights to property that are not relative to social rules or circumstances. To illustrate this point, “an heir can morally defend his claim to some (conventionally) inherited thing only by appealing to the rules of such an institution. His claim is morally successful, so to speak, only if the institution itself is morally defensible. Nozick does not seem to look at inheritance in this way. He seems to assume that an heir could defend his claim to some inherited thing without making any reference to laws and other social rules. He seems to generally assume that the morally supported property rights that we have correspond precisely to moral rights that do not pressure any laws or other social rules (Lyons; 1975:259).

The relationships between past discrimination and property in the South African context today are unique and very different from many other situations in the world. This is because South Africa imposed constraints on it and made a commitment not to temper with the legitimacy of the previously acquired property rights no matter how they came to be acquired. This resolution is a result of negotiations that preceded the election of South Africa’s first democratic government in 1994. It is worth noting that all sectors of the society were represented in these negotiations and that included political parties, liberation movements, civic organisations, trade union movements and business organisations. The property rights clause is entrenched in the constitution, which is the supreme law of the country and reflects the spirit with which the issue of property rights was resolved. Property rights are guaranteed under the new constitution and only allow the agreed upon or court ordered compensation. This scope is limited and makes it difficult to apply justice even within a historical theory like Nozick’s (1979:261), with respect to unjust and illegitimately acquired property rights under the apartheid regime. This happened amidst the availability of substantial historical evidence showing that many transfers in the old order between whites and blacks were either involuntary or violated the Lockean proviso and in other situations victims were cheated and exploited because of their poor bargaining position and lack of social power.

The preceding examination of the South African situation shows that the allergic nature of the libertarian position to state intervention in the rectification of past injustices makes it inappropriate for the socio-economic reality of South Africa. It should be recalled that
Nozick's (1979:261) rectification principle requires these transfers to be carried out voluntarily by individuals. Furthermore, the preceding examination shows that redistribution cannot be stretched to its fullest potential in the current political situation of South Africa given the narrow scope provided by the constitution. South Africa is a constitutional state and thus, it is expected of the government to perform its duties within the constitutional boundaries and requirements. Furthermore, to rearrange the present property rights situation, which concentrates power in the hands of the historically privileged groups, the law requires any government to attain at least a two-thirds majority in order to amend the constitution. Some individuals within the present government have expressed the need and willingness to amend certain aspects of the constitution including the property rights clauses. But all the same, this is not an officially adopted and homogeneous within the ruling party and beyond this, the figure is difficult to attain given the general apathy of the potential voters and the vigilance and active role played by the opposition parties in South African politics. Moreover, most of the meaningful opposition parties are comfortable with the present constitutional arrangements. Particularly in relation to the property rights clause. For this reason, they would do everything in their power to ensure that the constitution is not altered and interfered with.

This situation be as it may, in the domain of the job allocation and work environment the government has adopted an interventionist stance in its attempt to eliminate discrimination and redress past injustices. The overt intention of the government to accelerate change and compensate for past discrimination is unequivocally pronounced by the Employment Equity Act of 1998. The Act is a drastic measure, which shows the government's seriousness in fulfilling the objectives of the transformation process, and it entails punitive measures for employers who fail to state and attain racial quotas in the workplace.

This includes of course, top management positions. The key objective of the Employment Equity Act of 1998 is to prohibit discrimination in the workplace and ensure employment with respect to blacks, women and the disabled in the management positions. As it has been argued in this study, the liberation framework nullifies the state imposed Affirmative Action and perceives it, as a violation of a corporate right to hire whoever it pleases. This shows once more that the libertarian model subordinates welfare considerations to individual interests, which might have little significance in the development of a society. Significantly, this model disregards the harm that might result from prioritizing individualist considerations.
at the expense of community needs. Its adoption and application in the South African situation would have adverse effects on the country’s fragile socio-political stability. This is because it would retain the status quo and perpetuate negative stereotypes about the victims’ inability to occupy positions of responsibility and perform certain tasks. And this will translate into specious assumptions that such positions are the preserve of the white males. In this way, the newly acquired democracy would be worthless to the victims, as it will incapacitate the process to better their situation. The state cannot, therefore, be expected to allow every individual to pursue everything that he or she chooses to pursue.

The central problem of Nozick (1979:261) is ... his persistent failure to take account of the nature of social reality. Nozick’s methods, model and arguments all treat social relationships as transparent rather than as opaque. He portrays social interactions as marginal to the existence, integrity, and coherent identity of the individuals who participate in them, rather than as central and constitutive (Wolff; 1978:25).

Without state intervention, many companies in the private sector will have no inherent obligation to contribute to the general transformation project of the South African society. The society in which they operate and accumulate wealth. The Employment Equity Act of 1998 is; therefore, a considerable effort to redress past imbalances because it puts the plight of the victims at the center of the corporate deliberations about job allocations and internal transformation of a corporation. Without being apologetic about redressing past imbalances, caution have to be applied in appointing members of the historically marginalized groups into positions of responsibility. This is primarily because failure to exercise caution may translate into devastating economic consequences for South Africa.

This suggests that in conforming to the requirements of the Act, the corporate sector should not abandon the merit principle in recruiting and appointing candidates from the identified categories. They should scout for the best-qualified and best talented individuals within the targeted groups. The dangers of opting for arbitrary appointments and promotions of the victims who are in no possession of merit will not be in line with the spirit and objectives of
the Employment Equity Act of 1998, moreover, such a move will be irresponsible because it will unnecessarily jeopardise South Africa’s economic performance.

South Africa has entered an international arena and one of its main objectives is to attain international competitiveness. This is a major challenge, which requires the country to play by the rules set by the international community. Moreover, the attainment of this objective requires an urgent development and training of the skilled workforce and a diversified management with the ability to meet the real challenges posed by globalization and liberalization. The success of any country on the international market, particularly the still developing and new entrants like South Africa is mainly dependent on the highly skilled workforce and adaptable management. This means that despite the pressing issue of redressing past imbalances, South Africa cannot afford to sacrifice the merit principle in the targeted groups in order to achieve the equity goals it has set for itself. South Africa is thus required to pursue compensatory measures in job allocation within the boundaries of the merit principle. People should not be appointed to positions merely because they are black, women or disabled, but because they are the most qualified candidates within these categories.

The private sector this way will fulfill its social duty and contribute to the transformation of the South African society without sacrificing the standards of excellence and the potential of competing on equal footing with their counterparts elsewhere in the world. The imposition of affirmative action will not have adverse effects on the competitiveness and economic performance of the corporate sector, if is run this way. As been demonstrated, Nozick’s (1979) rectification principle is inadequate and incapable to resolve South Africa’s past injustices largely because it does not entail an inherent obligation to adhere to the principle of equality. More significantly, however, the preceding examination of the libertarian position has shown that even a libertarian does acknowledge the legitimacy of affirmative action.

2. GOLDMAN AND SOCIAL JUSTICE
It is imperative to point out from the onset that Goldman’s (1979) consideration of justice and affirmative action has its foundation in the Rawlsian contractarian framework. The central idea of Rawl’s (1971) theory of justice is captured in the original position, which is a hypothetical situation in which rational mutually disinterested individuals choose the
principles of distribution, which will then govern all members of society. Rawls (1971:136-137) asserts the following position:

"I assume that the parties are situated behind a veil of ignorance. They do not know how various alternatives will affect their own particular case. And, they are obliged to evaluate principles solely on the basis of general considerations. First of all no one knows his place in society, his class position or social status; nor does he know his fortune in the distribution of natural asserts and abilities, his intelligence, strengths and the like.
To apply this strategy, Rawls (1971) assumes that his contractors, situated behind the veil of ignorance, would choose the most desirable alternative arrangements in relation to justice. He argues that it is reasonable for them to be risk averse and to allow the maximum rule through which alternatives are ranked by their worst possible outcome, and the contractors are to adopt the alternative the worst outcome of others (Rosenfeld; 1991:120).

Goldman (1979) adopts the contractarian strategy, but unlike Rawls, he does not put his contractors behind a full veil of ignorance but behind a partial veil. He refuses to deny his contractors their natural endowments such as intelligence and physical ability. His reason for not denying contractors their natural asserts stems from his uncertainty as to whatever society is entitled to render all natural differences invalid. More especially differences that are naturally useful to individuals who possess them to perform certain task (Goldman; 1979:120).

Rawls’ (1971) main argument is that no individual deserves his or her natural abilities because the more gifted did not labour for the talents they possess but such talents came as a result of nature favouring them. He argues that the untalented and unintelligent are to be somehow compensated for inequalities in natural abilities. Rawls (1971) argues that even within a group of victim’s preference and Affirmative Action should be focused on the least advantaged and that is the uneducated. According to Rawls arguments it would be unfair to
affirm the already affirmed sections of victims’ category, which is in possession of talent and superior natural endowments.

Rawls (1971) argues that Affirmative Action becomes justifiable only if it compensates and benefits the untalented and unintelligent members of the harmed group. Rawls calls this the difference principle. Through which he argues that the gifted is the common assert of a community from which these individuals are drawn. Indeed, the talents of the more gifted become the common assert of a community in a situation in which society gives the gifted preferential treatment in cultivating their talents. A community becomes a beneficiary because through its investment in the more gifted it will manage to improve over its intellectual and cultural asserts, in which even the least advantage would benefit. But all the same, refuted as it transgresses and denies individuals rights over their talents. A society has to treat natural asserts of individuals as the private possessions of individuals (Rao: 1998).

Goldman (1979) argues that it is not even permissible that society nullifies the distributive effects of natural differences and consistent with this position, he lifts the veil of ignorance with respect to natural asserts. It is important to examine, therefore, the implications of making social contractors aware of their natural asserts and the impact such action is likely to have on their deliberations concerning affirmative action. It is reasonable and permissible to assume that a person who is not aware of her own natural talents will adopt a very different position to a person who is aware of her natural asserts.

In a situation of this nature, differences in talents may lead to conflicting and divergent interests between the talented and untalented deliberators. Under these conditions, social contractors might find it difficult to reach any unanimous agreement about Affirmative Action. Furthermore, even if the social contractors reached unanimous agreement concerning Affirmative Action, it would be incorrect to conclude that such agreement would be similar to that which they would reach without information about their individual talents. Therefore, social contractors would be better off without such information as the most disadvantaged in the absence of Affirmative Action. Rosenfeld (1991) argues that”…a contractarian who would not lift the veil of ignorance with respect to natural endowments might well find a significantly different scope of justification for Affirmative Action than does Goldman (Rosenfeld: 1991: 70).
Rosenfeld's (1991) objection to Goldman's (1979) partial lifting of the veil of ignorance is premised on the assumption that natural inequalities would give rise to egocentric considerations and disregards the situation of the other. It follows, therefore, that under these conditions the just principles of distributions will not be easily attained because everyone will be trying to maximise the benefits of the situation to which nature and society constructed for him or her. For example, conscious of her potential and ability, the more gifted is likely to advocate for the situation in which distribution is based on talent and not on need because she is likely to benefit more in the former scenario than in the latter. While on the hand, the least advantaged would be propagating for distribution based on need because the adoption of talent-based distribution will greatly minimize her distribution benefits.

Goldman (1979) provides an alternative method, however, in determining the justification of affirmative action within a contractarian framework. Goldman calls this alternative method the reversal test for which he states 'the basic idea is to imagine role switches among the individuals in the situation. For our issue, these role switches involve race or sex. Applied as a test of whether discrimination is occurring, the test calls upon us to judge whether a white male with similar qualifications would have given a position refused to a woman or black. To identify reverse discrimination, we ask whether a white male with similar qualifications would have been given the position granted to a minority group member. As a method for rooting out biases in intuitive reactions towards instances of reverse discrimination, it calls upon us to judge whether a white male in similar circumstances ... would deserve preferential treatment in the context in question' (Goldman: 1979: 16-17).

Prior application of the reversal test, argues Goldman (1979), shows that neither race nor sex should be counted as qualifications for positions except under narrow circumstances. Consistent with this argument, hiring a lesser-qualified woman over a more qualified white male would constitute reverse discrimination. It would be acceptable, however, to count race or sex as a qualification if individuals of such characteristics are viewed as role models and contributing to enhancing the capacity of others, to illustrate this point, Goldman (1979) makes an example of a situation in which gender can be counted as a qualification. This can happen when it has been established, for instance, that women students learn better from woman teachers than from male teachers. However, the same reasoning should be extended to white male students learning from white male teachers and on the basis of such reasoning,
hiring teachers on the basis of race or gender can be counted as a qualification (Goldman: 1979).

As proved so far, the scope within which Goldman (1979) applies role switch is limited. It is flawed and fails, therefore, to address itself to crucial aspects of the problem, which demanded attention in the process of considering race and sex as a genuine qualification. Rosenfeld (1991) argues that Goldman’s (1979) limited role switch falls short of addressing important aspects of Affirmative Action because it only offers a partial insight into the situation of the other, that is, blacks or women. The main point of his argument is that assuming the role of the other will not in itself translates into the understanding and adoption of what shapes the perspective of the others. Furthermore, the failure to give a participant access to the perspective of the victim has the potential of leading a participant into wrong conclusions about the situations of the other (Rosenfeld: 1991).

To illustrate Rosenfeld’s (1991) position, the prolonged institutional racism and discrimination has, by and large, inculcated the mentality that white males are superior to blacks and women. While at the same time distorting and shaping the perspective of the victims into believing that they are inferior and incapable of competing with white males. Moreover, racism deprived blacks basic education and as a result, many blacks lack the necessary motivation to compete with a white person is operating within a limited role switch, suppose further that he assumes the role of a black person without relinquishing his own perspective with regard to his high motivation and sense of competence acquired through the discrimination of blacks and women. A white person in question might conclude that all he needs as a black is an educational opportunity to make-up for early deprivation in order to compete with white males on an equal footing for jobs. As observed by Rosenfeld (1991), the process of arriving at this conclusion did not take into consideration the role that the lack of motivation is likely to play in shaping the perspective of blacks and the underprivileged. The implementation of his suggestion and its subsequent failure to motivate blacks despite the availability of educational resources for them is likely to frustrate the individual as he imagined himself as a black and is convinced that all that is needed for blacks to take advantaged of the opportunity made possible by his suggestion and improve their socio-economic position is linked to their culture or genetic make up (Rosenfeld: 1991).
Therefore, this shows that the contractarian theory of justice has limitations and shortcomings that render it incapable to provide a comprehensive assessment of the justice of Affirmative Action. In many regards, Goldman's (1971) principle of rectification. For example, they both use history to determine what would have been the situation had the victims not been harmed by the discrimination. As Rosenfeld (1979) justifications of Affirmative Action under compensatory justice are very similar to those that can be legitimated under Nozick's (1979) principle of rectification. More important, however, the major limitation of Goldman's (1979) theory of partial veil of ignorance is that while it enables the hypothetical contractor not to know if he or she is black or white, or a man or woman, the contractor cannot eliminate or escape having an antagonistic perspective. This means that even if a contractor can eliminate race or gender consciousness, he or she will still be having a white or non-white perspective informing and determining his or her deliberations. Therefore, the partial veil of ignorance deals only with the superficial aspects of the problem and that is the removal of race and gender identity and fails to deal with the perspective governing the hypothetical contractors-cultural biases, system of beliefs, masculine and feminine perspectives.

In line with this, it is clear that Goldman's (1979) partial veil of ignorance has the potential of giving one perspective over other perspectives. Habermas (1979) offers an important analytical tool in dealing with and understanding the problem of conflicting and antagonistic perspectives. Habermas (1979) argues that power, ideology, deceptions and self – deceptions have caused communicative distortions. And that all of these aspects have played an important role in shaping the perspectives and communication between race and gender relations. Consistent with Habermas' (1979) conception of communicative theory, Rosenfeld (1991) gives an example of two mothers with sick children and argues that it would be easier for the mother involved to feel and understand the situation of the other since they are both in the same situation. It would be difficult for any other person who has ever been in the same situation to understand how it feels like to have a sick child. This example is employed to demonstrate the complex scenario surrounding white people to fully comprehend the situation and feelings of black because they have never experienced institutional racism and, therefore, it is impossible for them to put themselves in that situation and fully understand what shapes the perspective of the black people.

To put it in his own words, "... a white person who has never experienced racial discrimination, and who does not
know how it feels to remember of a readily identified minority group, may not understand what systematic racial discrimination means from the perspective of a black victim” (Rosenfeld; 1991:158). Rosenfeld further argues that it is imperative to expose and identify the elements of self – deception in dialogical exchange for social justice. It should be acknowledge that the distortion – free dialogue is an ideal speech situation, which is difficult to attain, but all the same, effort should be made to at least eliminate the conspicuous features of distortion.

Self – deception can be detected and expose for instance, in a situation in which a member of a instance, in a situation in which a member of a discriminated group embraces discriminatory attitudes of racists towards the group to which he / she belong and thus, dissociating himself / herself from that particular group because of the negative stigma attached to it. This usually comes as a response of the victim to discrimination and prejudice (Rosenfeld: 1991).

In conclusion, as it has been discussed in this section, the Libertarian theory is not applicable to the South African context to resolve the issue of social justice in a country with the history of discrimination like South Africa, however, the Contractarian theory has limitations but it is more appropriate and applicable to South Africa’s socio-political situation.

In summary, we have learned from this chapter firstly that Affirmative Action as a programme of redress, as defined from various authors perspectives should benefit the disadvantaged groups or underrepresented groups in the country (South Africa). We have also learned that “the Libertarian position is distinguished by its strong philosophical stand on individual autonomy, extensive property rights and a minimal “night watch” state.

Furthermore, we have learned that Robert Nozick operates within this philosophical framework and developed a theory known as the entitlement theory in which he asserts that a just distribution is whatever distribution results from people’s free exchanges. In addition, we have learned that the Libertarian framework rejects the welfare state and maintains that distribution should be pursued within the scope of minimalist state. Finally we have also
learned that Libertarian principles have limitations, and one of the central problem of Nozick is his persistent failure to take account of the nature of social reality.

Finally, we have also learned that Goldman's consideration of justice and Affirmative Action has its foundation in the Rawlsian Contractarian framework. Rawl's theory of justice is captured in the original position, which is a hypothetical situation in which rational mutually disinterested individuals choose the principles of distribution, which will then govern all members of society. Lastly, we have also learned that Goldman's Contractarian framework also has limitations, and one of the major limitations of Goldman theory of partial veil of ignorance is that while it enables the hypothetical contractor not to know if he or she is Black or White, or a man or woman, the contractor cannot eliminate or escape having an antagonistic perspective.

There are two significant points in this chapter to the study. The Literature Review on Affirmative Action is significant to this study because in it allows the writer of the study to explores various books of different authors about the subject, inter-alia, it allows or promote critical thinking and writing. The Literature Review also informs the writer and the reader to get clues and in-depth understanding of the subject (Affirmative Action) under scrutiny.

UCT is a Liberal and English medium institution. However, an institution such as UCT is likely to produce hard core Liberals, because of the Liberals institutional track record UCT has. Given this enlightenment it serves to say that the majority of Whites who constitute UCT Recruitment and Selection Committee are Liberals, groomed and modeled by Liberal thoughts. So it is possible that some of UCT's guiding policies on Recruitment are benchmarked from other Liberal theorists such as Nozick and Goldman. The latter explicate clearly why I choose to explore these theories in this chapter and the relevance of applying Nozick and Goldman to UCT, is that all the latter mentioned belong to one school of thought, Liberal school.

In conclusion to Chapter Two, Affirmative Action as a programme of redress, as defined from the Republic of South Africa (1998) and Greenwalt (1983) perspectives should benefit the disadvantaged groups or underrepresented groups in the country (South Africa). In South Africa Blacks were not discriminated against as individuals but as a group, and for this group to be compensated equally state or government cannot play a minimalist role during the
compensatory period. Rather, government must play a highly interventionist role in order to be able to address massive inherited inequalities. For these reasons, Nozick’s Libertarian frameworks will not be applicable in the South African context. Its emphasis is on the state playing a minimalist role in the distribution of social welfare. It encourages individual market freedom and free transactions “between consenting adults.” Yet South Africa cannot plausibly be characterized as having a history of free exchange. Its history over the 20th century was dominated by violent and forceful expropriation. While the Contractarian theory has limitations, it is more appropriate and applicable to South Africa’s socio-political situation.
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

1. LIBERTARIAN JUSTICE AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The aims of this chapter are first, to explain to the reader the relevance of the theoretical frameworks to UCT. Before the relevance is displayed I will first explore UCT foundational history from Goosen, et al (1989). The reason to start this chapter this way is to give the reader a broader scope of UCT that it has been modelled and shaped by Liberal thoughts, and those theories of Nozick and Rawls are relevant because they have been coined by Liberal thoughts. Theories of Nozick and Rawls are pertinent in this chapter as they have been coined by Liberals similar to the one’s who groomed UCT. The second section deals with justifications of Affirmative Action. In this section Nozick Libertarian or Entitlement theory and Rawls’ Social Justice theory are explored in detail and contextualised in accordance to the South African context. The third section will summarise the chapter and provide a detailed account of its significance to the study. The final section will be the conclusion of the chapter.

Goosen, et al (1989:18), states that “the University of Cape Town was founded in 1829 as the South African College. The South African college was founded during a period when liberal values were being enshrined in reforms such as the establishment of a free press, adoption of English criminal law and procedure and the formulation of local government structures at the Cape. The University of Cape Town and indeed many other South African universities, grew out of this British colonial tradition, and assumed the character and ethnic of nineteenth century British universities. This heritage is evident today in the structure of UCT, with its governance by a lay Council and predominantly academic Senate, and the high degree of autonomy accorded individual academic departments.”

In addition, this heritage is evident in underlying values and in cultural and political symbols. In Goosen, et al (1989:18), Welsh and Savage, writing about the incorporation of Afrikaans speaking students at UCT, have this to say about its characters: “(Afrikaans speaking students) were left in no doubt that (UCT) was an essentially English institution with deep roots in an essentially British academic tradition. The campus too, contained symbols
redolent of an imperial past: the statue of Rhodes and the imposing Jameson Hall ... . The redoubtable vice-chancellor... Carruthers Beattie... was foreign born, unilingual and committed to British imperialism...”

In light of the above foundations history of UCT, it could be argued that the first aspect of this connection or relevance of this chapter to UCT is the role of ‘Liberal’ thought in the history and self-conception of UCT. Believing themselves to work within a ‘Liberal’ tradition, the academic community at UCT has historically appealed to Liberal conceptions of justice derived from Anglo-American contexts. A second relevance lies in a more subtle sense in which UCT is a ‘Liberal’ institution. Many of its academic staff regardless of any formal education in political philosophy views the issues of Affirmative Action through the lens of Western conceptions of justice. Given this latter argument, it makes sense, however, to deal with or explore these theories. In my view the overall justifications for Affirmative Action contradict each other in many respects. Nozick is the Libertarian who believes individual liberty is most important criteria and the best form of state is a minimal state. In view of Nozick, people are entitled to their holdings if they have been appropriated in accordance with the principle of justice in holdings. If the first two principles of justice in holdings have been violated, then Nozick’s rectification principles take priority over liberty. Rawls on the other hand is an egalitarian liberal who purports that society should choose principles to form a social contract. The ordering of the principles requires the complete satisfaction of the principle of equal liberty before the principle of fair equality of opportunity and the difference principle come into play. This ordering, however, would preclude the denial of anyone’s basic liberties on the grounds of redress of inequalities. Affirmative Action is thus justified on the grounds that adhere to social and distributive justice. The third relevance Rawls and Nozick are products of a very specific intellectual and political culture. Yet the conceptions of justice they advance are quite at odds.

Finally, and most importantly, these liberal theories of justice are organised around Western conceptions of the individual and his or her rights, and also around a model of social structure (with only minority disadvantage) derived from the United States. Such approaches to justice will be problematic in addressing Affirmative Action policy in country with a history of group discrimination and disadvantage, and where one key disadvantage group represents an overwhelming majority of the population. The above-mentioned relevance makes sense for Nozick and Rawls theories to be explored in this chapter as well as to be applied to an
institution such as UCT. The following section deals with the justifications of Affirmative action.

The aim of Affirmative Action is to neutralize the unjust advantage held by White people. The White applicant is not being penalised, or being made to pay reparations for the wrongs but is not being allowed to profit from past wrongs and injustices done to blacks. The historical principles of injustice hold that past circumstances or actions of people can create differential entitlements. Nozick is not an egalitarian that purports that everyone in society should be maximized. Nozick is a libertarian who believes that the best form of state is a minimal state and the people are entitled to their holdings it they have been acquired and transferred in a just manner. Affirmative action in this context is only justified on the grounds of rectification and will thus not be a violation of people’s rights.

The South African Constitution, therefore, holds that (1) everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law; (2) Equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons, or categories or persons, disadvantage by unfair discrimination may be taken. (3) The state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth. (4) No person may unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone or more grounds in terms of subsection (3). National legislation must be enacted to prevent or prohibit unfair discrimination. (5) Discrimination on one or more of the grounds listed in subsection (3) is unfair unless it is established that the discrimination is unfair.

I want to disagree with Nozick’s theory on the account of individualism. In essence although this theory focuses on individuals, (1) black people in South Africa have been discriminated against as members of a group because they are black and not because of they are individuals. (2) It thus seems acceptable to compensate the disadvantaged blacks as a group and not as individuals. Implicit in this latter statement is that blacks are in majority in South Africa and they suffered and discriminated against by apartheid legislation as a majority, therefore, blacks need to be compensated as a group rather than as individuals like Nozicks theory
purports, so Nozick’s theory on this account will not be applicable to South Africa’s compensation to disadvantaged blacks caused by apartheid.

A strategy of rectification (Affirmative Action) must achieve equality of opportunity. Black people have to be offered preferential support to enable them to attain a higher level of technological and managerial capability. They must be allowed to gain access to economic resources and provided with appropriate support. A key component of any Affirmative Action programmes are to change the way of thinking of the White race and the manner in which most organisations approach Affirmative Action.

Furthermore, black people must overcome the feelings of anger, alienation and inferiority produced by detrimental experiences under apartheid. At present the distribution of economic, political and social resources is unjust, not because of the way society has freely allocated the resources in this manner, but because of direct interference by the past Government and their racist legislation. This is in direct conflict with Nozick’s concept of distributive justice and thus calls for rectification.

Where a present holding does not satisfy these criteria, the present holder is not entitled to her holding, and this raises the issue of compensation for past injustices. Ideally, it would be possible to locate the injustices in the past, to measure their effect on the configuration of holdings with what would have been but for the past injustices. If a difference between the former and latter were found, moreover, justice would require a rectification in the form of a reallocation of holding to the extent necessary to eliminate such a difference. Thus, Nozick’s entitlement theory of justice embraces a principle of rectification, which in his own words, “presumably property rights. Consider the first person Z for whom there is not enough and as good left to appropriate. The last person Y to appropriate left Z without his previous liberty to act on an object, and so worsened Z’s situation. So Y’s appropriation is not allowed under Locke’s proviso. Therefore the next to last to last person X to appropriate left Y in a worse position, for X’s act ended permissible appropriation. Therefore X’s appropriation was not permissible. But then the appropriation two from last, W, ended permissible appropriation and so, since it worsened X’s position, W’s appropriation was not permissible. And so on back to the first person A to appropriate a permanent property right.
With the weaker requirement, we cannot zip back so quickly from Z to A, as in the above argument, for though person Z can no longer appropriate, there may remain some for him to use as before. In this case Y's appropriation would not violate the weaker Lockean condition. (With less remaining that people are at liberty to use, users might face more inconvenience, crowding, and so on; in that way the situation of others might be worsened, unless appropriation stopped far short of such a point). It is arguable that no one legitimately can complain if the weaker provision is satisfied (Nozick; 1979:176).

Discriminatory policies such as the Industrial Conciliation Act (1924), The Land Act (1913), Forced Removals (1980), the Group Areas Act (1950), Bantu Education Act (1951-53), and others sorts discriminatory policies that have pre-empted the just acquisition of objects by the black race. In the past, there has been, direct and aggressive intervention to violate the rights of the black and other non-white races, this constitutes a violation of the principle of justice in acquisition. The white race gathered economic and political power in an unjust manner at the expense of the other race groups.

1.2 The Principle Of Justice In Transfer
Another second principle of justice in holdings concerns the transfer of holdings from one person to another. Transfer in the form of gifts or voluntary exchange constitutes Nozick's idea of a just transfer. Historically black people have been forced to transfer their land and other right's to the white race. Legislation ensured that black people were excluded from owning property and any property they claimed to own was forcefully transferred to the Government. There has thus been a violation of the principle of justice in transfer.

1.3 The Principle Of Rectification
The final principle to illustrate how Nozick deals with a violation of the first two principles is the principle of Rectification. "If past injustices has shaped present holdings in various ways, some identifiable and some not, what now, if anything, ought to be done to rectify these injustices? What obligation do the sufferers have?" The principle of rectification uses historical information about previous situations and injustices done in them, and information about the actual course of events that flowed from these injustices, until the present, and it yields a description of holdings in the society (Nozick; 1979:59).
The historical injustice in South Africa is an evident example and results of these injustices are even foreseeable. Apartheid has violated the first two principle of justice in holdings, rectification will occur through a policy of Affirmative Action in all spheres in life. Questions arise in setting out a strategy of rectification, as to who will be compensated? Who will compensate? And how far the compensators have to go back in cleaning the historical slate?

Members of formerly targeted groups should be compensated as they have suffered the effects of policies of unjust exclusion and have been damaged in such a way that makes them the victims of injustice. Present members of the white group are beneficiaries of those same injustices and should thus compensate, even though they themselves may not have received unjust preferential treatment (Nagel, 1977:1)

Affirmative Action programmes should be implemented for as long as it takes to equalize the positions of black people in this country. Rectifying justice occurs only when there is corrective action, when amends are made or when the moral balance is restored (Heslep; 1977: 36). Until recently black have been denied equal educational opportunity. As a result, they have not been able to acquire similar knowledge, skills and dispositions as whites to meet the standards of tertiary educational institutions. There is thus no fair compensation between black and white candidates.

Blacks should in the auspices of justice be compensated for disadvantages in higher education, which have been imposed upon them. In Nozick’s terms, educational opportunity, which has been denied, is a violation of black people’s cardinal right to equal educational opportunity. The violators of these rights should rectify the situation- it is students with preferential treatment in admissions and support programmes. It may be argued that such programmes are a violation of others rights. A white candidate with a lower Matriculants pass is unjust. The question to be asked here is why the white candidates have better credentials than the black candidates do. If it is because the black candidates has been subjected to an education environment of ill-trained teachers, in crowded and inadequate schools then it is due to the past white racist policies of denying equal education. A white student’s better qualifications do not automatically entitle them to admission. Nor is it the fact that the competing applicant is black.
The essential element is that have, as a result of past discriminatory practices the black student has unfairly handicapped in trying to achieve the sort of academic standing required for admission (Rachel; 1982:162). The historical principles of justice hold that past circumstances or actions of people can create differential entitlements or differential deserts to things. Nozick is not an egalitarian that purports that everyone in society should be maximized. Nozick is a libertarian who believes that the best form of state is a minimal state and that people are entitled to their holdings if they have been acquired and transferred in a just manner. Affirmative action in this context is only justified on the grounds of rectification and will thus not be a violation of people’s rights.

2. CONTRACTARIAN JUSTICE AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

In Rosenfeld (1991:65), contractarian theories postulate that, to be legitimate, principles of justice must be grounded on the consent of those who are supposed to be morally bounded by them. The metaphor associated with contractarian justice is that of the social contract, according to which free and equal individuals enter into a mutual agreement concerning the normative principles that are to govern all their future inter-subjective dealings in organised society. Moreover, from a contractarian standpoint, the purpose of the social contract is to generate an institutional framework suited to provide an optimal equilibrium between the achievements of the degree of social co-operation necessary to secure the proper functioning of society to pursue his own conception of the good.

Classical social contract theory as elaborated in the works of Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau, and Kant raises vexing problems concerning both the relative equality (of bargaining power) among the social contractors and the nature and scope of the requisite consent. To avoid these problems, Rawls formulates a contractarian theory that seeks “to present a conception of justice which generalizes and carries to a higher level of abstraction the familiar theory of the social contract as found, say, in Locke, Rousseau and Kant” (Rosenfeld; 1991:66).

Specifically, Rawls addresses the problem concerning equality by placing his social contractors in an original position in which they themselves behind a veil of ignorance. Rawls also seemingly circumvents the problem regarding consent by stipulating the contractors operating behind the veil of ignorance in the original position reach a hypothetical agreement on a particular conception of justice (Rosenfeld; 1991:66).
Rosenfeld (1991:66) it is contends that “Because of the veil of ignorance none of the parties in the original position” knows his place in society, his class position or social status, nor does anyone know his fortune in the distribution of natural assets and abilities, his intelligence, strength, and the like. The parties do not know their conceptions of the good or their special psychological propensities.”

Moreover, by depriving the parties in the original position of this information, the veil of ignorance appears to level the bargaining field so that no one has an advantage in bargaining power. Accordingly, the veil of ignorance is designated to permit every party in the original position to consent rationally only to those principles of justice that would be fair regardless of that party’s position in society or conception of the good.

2.1 Rawls And Social Justice

Rawls social contract approach is an effort to find a theoretical basis for determining social and economic justice in terms of justice as fairness. Social justice refers to the structures and policies of a society, to its political, economic, legal and social institutions. According to Rawls (1971:27) individuals in the original position define justice as the outcome of collective choice. The original position is a hypothetical situation in which rational, mutually disinterested individuals choose the principles of distribution, which will then serve to govern all members of society. Such a choice is made behind a veil of ignorance; people do not know their race, religion or social position in order to ensure the fairness of the result. The social ideal Rawls develops is one in which equality, for reasons of justice, is given priority.

Rawls (1971:83) argues that justice is the primary virtue of social institutions; it provides a standard for determining whether the distribution of goods provides a standard for determining whether the distribution is fair or unfair. Rawls accepts social and economic inequalities only if they benefit the advantaged in a society. Rawls proposes the difference principles, for redressal of inequalities, which are characterized in the following way:

The difference principle represents, in effort, an agreement to regard the distribution of natural talents as a common assert and to share in the benefits of this distribution whatever it turns out to be. Those who have been favored by nature, whoever they are, may gain from their good
fortune only on terms that improve the situation of those
who have lost out (Rawls; 1971:100).

The principles chosen in the original position are equality in the assignments of basic rights
and duties, and social and economic inequalities are just only if they result in the
compensatory benefits for everyone, in particular for the least advantaged members of
society. Although the interests of some others are being sacrificed to further the interest of
others, it is better placed who are being sacrificed and the worst placed who are being helped
(Nagel; 1977:16).

Affirmative Action is normally objected on the grounds that it sometimes aids black people
who are not the worst off or need it the least and thus worsens black positions that are worse
off. However, those black persons receiving preferential treatment will rise to higher levels in
society and occupy positions regarded as prestigious and strategic.

This will provide all black people with role models to base their aspirations on and provide an
incentive to achieve higher aims. Furthermore, black people occupying decision-making
positions will be more empathetic to the needs of their fellow citizens and formulate
strategies to raise the standards of lower strata.

Rawls (1971:73) principle of fair equality of opportunity does not reject the principle of merit
totally. He stipulates a requirement of “career open to talents.”

“Positions are to be not only open in a formal sense, but all should have a fair chance to attain
them. "Those with similar abilities and skills should have similar life chances.

Fishkin (1983; 155) interprets Rawls’ statement in this way; assuming that there is a
distribution of natural talents, those who are at the same level of talent and ability, and the
same willingness to use them, should have the same prospects to succeed regardless of their
place in the social systems, irrespective of race into which they are born. Chances to acquire
cultural knowledge and skills should not depend upon one’s class position, and so the
education systems, whether public or private, should be designated to even out class barriers.

Rawls (1971:74) does, however, disagree with the view that people deserve their endowments
based solely on merit; his prime considerations are equality and self-esteem. He believes that
meritocracy is unfair, because, under meritocratic arrangements, equality of opportunity signifies an equal chance for the more fortunate to leave the less fortunate behind.

Rawls (1971:74) rejects a theory of distributive justice based primarily on desert; he claims that no one deserves the arbitrary advantages or disadvantages of inherited wealth, intelligence, health or race for that matter. Natural inequalities are to be compensated for. The decisive characteristics, which are required for higher education, have a great deal to do things over which the individual has neither control nor responsibility. These include Intelligence Quotient (IQ), home environment, socio-economic class, and the quality of primary and secondary schools attended and, in South Africa, the race one belongs to (Wasserstrom; 1977:24).

The White race has been historically the better-placed individuals in South Africa. This, however, has not been due to the principle of merit or even natural talents, but as a result of artificial means of achieving their positions. Affirmative action does not abandon Rawls requirement for equal opportunity, it promises to make opportunity really equal for the first time. Natural endowments of the black race (disadvantaged) cannot overcome their histories immediately, but at some time in the future, when these disadvantaged histories have been overcome by affirmative action (Mansfield; 1984:130).

In the systems of apartheid the advantaged white race had greater life chances and more than equal opportunities, they also had greater than equal influence on the political process and greater than influence on the political process and greater than equal consideration from the educational and legal systems. These background inequalities have produced severe inequalities in today's society and it is only through affirmative action programmes that equality will be restored, even if it is at the insensitive to all harms and benefits to strata other than the minimum (Fishkin; 1983:15).

In Rosenfeld (1994:64) Goldman stresses, “Affirmative Action plans benefit the best qualified members of the discriminated-against group and are likely to hurt most the least qualified members of the nonvictim group. Hence, it seems clearly in the interest of the most talented members of society to adopt the proposal; thus of putting Affirmative Action in place. Indeed, if a highly talented person turns out to be white, he would have little to fear from an Affirmative Action program that would result in the exclusion of less talented whites
from the position. On the other hand, if a highly talented member turns out to be black, the existence of an Affirmative Action plan would either leave unaffected or enhance his chances of obtaining a coveted position.

Those who rank in the middle of the talent scale, on the other hand, are likely to find it difficult to determine whether accepting the proposal would be in their best interests. If a person in that group turns out to be black, Affirmative Action would enhance prospects of obtaining a position. If that person turns out to be white, then Affirmative Action would threaten to reduce or eliminate to secure a position.

Given that differences in talents may give rise to sharply diverging interests, social contracts aware of their natural talents might not reach any unanimous agreement concerning Affirmative Action. And if they did, there is no reason to assume that such agreement would be similar to that which they would reach without information concerning their individual talents. Without such information the social contractors would have to determine if they would be better off as the most disadvantaged under Affirmative Action plan would or as the most disadvantaged in the absence of Affirmative Action. In short, a contractarian who would not lift the veil of ignorance with respect to natural endowments might find a significantly different scope of justification for Affirmative Action than does Goldman" (Rosenfeld; 1994:64).

The above-mentioned reasons stressed by Goldman are similar to the South African situation whereby many South African whites object on the ground that the policy of Affirmative Action is unfair. South African whites' reasons, however, for objection are derived from the fact that they see themselves as losing out if such a policy were adopted. Their unequal political and economic power, which was acquired unjustly in the first place, is being threatened. Admittedly, South African white people know the conditions under which black people live in and the past injustices done to them, they would surely opt for a policy that would benefit the worse off, thus; black women and the disabled people in society.

In summary, we have learned from Chapter Three that there is relevance, which necessitate theoretical frameworks to be explored to UCT. The first aspect of this relevance is the role of 'Liberal' thought in the history and self-conception of UCT. A second relevance lies in more subtle sense in which UCT is a 'Liberal' institution. Many of its academic staff regardless of
any formal education in political philosophy views the issue of Affirmative Action through the lens of Western conceptions of justice. It makes sense, therefore, to explore analyses of justice, like Rawls; that attempts to build a theory upon a community’s conceptions of what is fair or just. The third relevance is that Rawls and Nozick are products of a very specific intellectual and political culture. Yet the conceptions of justice they advance are quite at odds. Lastly, these liberal theories of justice are organized around both Western conceptions of the individuals and his or her rights, and also around a model of social structure (with only minority disadvantage) derived from the United States. Such approaches to justice will be problematic in addressing Affirmative Action policy in a country with a history of group discrimination and disadvantage, and where one key disadvantaged group represents an overwhelming majority of the population.

Also, we have learned that the historical principles of injustices hold that past circumstances or actions of people can create differential entitlements or differential deserts to things. Nozick is not an egalitarian that purports that everyone in society should be maximized. Nozick is a libertarian who believes that the best form of state is a minimal state and the people are entitled to their holdings if they have been acquired and transformed in a just manner. Affirmative Action in this context is only justified on the grounds of rectification and will thus not be a violation of people’s rights.

Another point, we have learned how the writer of this study disagrees with Nozick’s theory on the account of individualism. Although this theory focuses on individuals, (1) black people in South Africa have been discriminated against as members of a group because they are black and not because of they are individuals. (2) It thus seems acceptable to compensate the disadvantage blacks as a group and not as individuals. A strategy of rectification (Affirmative Action) must achieve equality of opportunity. Black people have to be offered preferential support to enable them to attain a higher level of technological and managerial capability.

Additionally, we have learned that another second principle of justice in holdings concern the transfer of holdings from one person to another. Historically black people have been forced to transfer their land and other rights to the white race. Legislation ensured that black people were excluded from owning property and any property they claimed to own was forcefully
transferred to the Government. There has thus been a violation of the principle of justice in transfer.

Moreover, we have learned that the final principle illustrate how Nozick deals with a violation of the first two principles is the principle of Rectification. Affirmative action programmes should be implemented for as long as it takes to equalise the positions of black people in this country.

Still, we have also learned that Rawls social contract approach is an effort to find a theoretical basis for determining social and economic justice in terms of justice as fairness. Social justice refers to the structures and policies of a society, to its political, economic, legal and social institutions. The social ideal Rawls develops is one in which equality, for reasons of justice, is given priority.

Lastly, we have learn that an objection to Affirmative Action is that it sometimes aids black people who are not the worst off or need it the least and thus worsens black positions that are worse off. However, those black persons receiving preferential treatment will rise to higher levels in society and occupy positions regarded as prestigious and strategic. We also learned that Rawls (1971:73) principle of fair equality of opportunity does not reject the principle of merit totally. He stipulates a requirement of “career open to talents.” Finally we have learned that Rawls disagree with the view that people deserve their endowments based solely on merit; his prime considerations are equality and self-esteem. He believes that meritocracy is unfair, because under meritocratic arrangements, equality of opportunity signifies an equal chance for the more fortunate to leave the less fortunate behind.

There are two significance point made in Chapter Three to the study. Firstly, theories are significant to the research method because they form a foundational base as a tool in research. The implicit in this statement is that theories such as Nozick and Rawls, helps in that the person involved in the process of research can learn the critics in their theories, and produce or divulge his / her understanding to the reader about flaws and relevance contained in those theories to justify his or her study. Secondly, the significance of this chapter is that UCT is a ‘Liberal’ institution. Many of its academic staff regardless of any formal education in political philosophy, view the issue of Affirmative Action through the lens of Western conceptions of justice. The latter argument makes sense to deal with or explore these theories
in this chapter and they are significant and relevant to an institution such as UCT modeled by Liberal thoughts from its inceptional history.

In conclusion to chapter three, the foundational history of UCT as a Liberal institution bears the relevance of Nozick and Rawls theories to be explored in this chapter. The first aspect of this relevance is the role of 'Liberal' thought in the history and self-conception of UCT. Believing themselves to work within a 'Liberal' tradition, the academic community at UCT has historically appealed to Liberal conceptions of justice derived from Anglo-American contexts. A second relevance lies in a more subtle sense in which UCT is a 'Liberal' institution. Many of its academic staff regardless of any formal education in political philosophy views the issue of Affirmative Action through the lens of Western conceptions of justice. Given this latter argument, it makes sense to deal with or explore these theories. The third relevance is that Rawls and Nozick are products of a specific intellectual and political culture. Yet the conceptions of justice they advance are quite at odds.

Finally and most importantly, these Liberal theories of justice are organized around Western conceptions of the individual and his or her rights, and also around a model of social structure (with only minority disadvantage) derived from the United States. Such approaches to justice will be problematic in addressing Affirmative Action policy in a country with a history of group discrimination and disadvantage, and where one key disadvantaged group represents an overwhelming majority of the population. The historical principles of injustices hold that past circumstances or actions of people can create differential entitlements. Nozick is a libertarian who believes that the best form of state is a minimal state and the people are entitled to their holdings if they have been acquired and transferred in a just manner. Affirmative Action in this context is only justified on the grounds of rectification and will thus not be a violation of people's rights.

I disagree with Nozick's theory on the account of individualism. Although this theory focuses on individuals, (1) black people in South Africa have been discriminated against as a group and not because of they are individuals. (2) It thus seems acceptable to compensate the disadvantage blacks as a group and not as individuals. A strategy of rectification (Affirmative Action) must achieve equality of opportunity. Black people have to be offered preferential support to enable them to obtain a higher level of technological and managerial capability. The second principle of justice in holdings concerns the transfer of holdings from one person
to another. Legislation ensured that black people were excluded from owning property and any property they claimed to own was forcefully transferred to the Government. There has thus been a violation of the principle of justice in transfer. The final principle illustrates how Nozick deals with a violation of the first two principles are the principle of Rectification. Affirmative Action programmes should be implemented for as long as it takes to equalise the positions of black people in this country. Rawls social contract approach is an effort to find a theoretical basis for determining social and economic justice in terms of justice as fairness. The social ideal Rawls develops is one in which equality, for reasons of justice, is given priority. An objection to Affirmative Action is that it sometimes aids black people who are not the worst off or need it the least and thus worsens black positions that are worse off. Rawls principle of fair equality of opportunity does not reject the principle of merit totally. He stipulates a requirement of “career open to talents.” Rawls disagree with the view that people deserve their endowments based solely on merit; his prime considerations are equality and self-esteem.

The following section is a situation analysis of UCT, which will provide the reader with the statistics of UCT before, after and the present.
CHAPTER FOUR

SITUATION ANALYSIS: EMPLOYMENT EQUITY AT UCT

In this chapter we set out to explicate the Employment Equity issues as well as Affirmative Action strategies at UCT. The first section seeks to unpack definitions such as institutional and organisational culture and also deals with UCT institutional culture. For example, how the institutional culture was and what impact was made by UCT to change its institutional culture. And to ascertain these changes or what supposed to be changed in the institutional culture, I explored UCT Official Reports such as the Institutional Culture Workshop Report (1998), the Institutional Culture Focus Group (1999) and the UCT Employment Equity (1994). The second section deals with the race and gender issues of all UCT staff. Interpretable data on these issues is provided to help the reader see changes or improvement about achievement or failures with regard to Employment Equity. The last section covers the significance of the chapter and a conclusion.

Situation analysis is important because it enables the reader to distinguish between a situation that is how the situation was before, after and the situation to-date. For example, the analysis could entail what has changed, how the changes were made and why as well as showing what is different to-date about measures of redress in a particular institution. In this study we address or answer the question: "How successful has UCT been in achieving employment equity and why?" The research question, however, is not intended to discredit UCT's Affirmative Action programme but serves as catalyst information to the public about the status of UCT’s Affirmative Action to date. An update serves to examine and provide the public with any successes or failures the institution incurs. Because the focus of this study is based on the events or processes of the period 1995 to 2002, thus 8 years period, we will visit or analyse UCT statistics before, after and where it is to date regarding its institution of Affirmative Action, in promoting Employment Equity. The reason for this statistical analysis or visit is to enable both the present writer and reader to understand various trends UCT has engaged in towards instituting affirmative action with the aim of promoting Employment Equity.
Statistics is easily interpreted than narrative. On the same score, statistics can allow us to capture data, with regard to of whether UCT is static or progressive in instituting its Affirmative Action programme, to give effect to Employment Equity. Lastly statistics enable an interpreter to see changes between certain time frames, in a nutshell, to identify successes and failures.

This chapter will however include the following issues as areas of concern, thus:

d) Institutional culture

d) Permanent and Temporary Support Staff by Gender as at January each year (1993-1999)
d) Support Staff by ‘Race’ (Black / White) as at January each year (1993-1999)
d) Academic Appointments by ‘Race’ and ‘Gender’ (1996-1999)

The reason to explore or include the above issues as areas of concern is because they have been key issues within UCT Affirmative Action strategies; achieving Employment Equity at UCT requires that the above issues be scrutinized. In short, whether Employment Equity is achieved or not.

1. INSTITUTIONAL CULTURE

The issue here is, institutional and organisational culture has the same connotation and meaning in that they both hold ‘a common perception held by the organisation’s members.’ According to Robbins (1996:680) institutionalisation “is when an organisation take on a life of its own, apart from any of its members, and acquires immortality.” According to Robbins (1996:681) organisational culture is a common perception held by the organisation’s members; a system of shared meaning. In my view institutional culture is a common practices held by institutional members.

The issue here is, institutional and organisational culture has the connotation and meaning in that they both hold ‘a common perception held by the organization’s members.’ Therefore with institutionalisation it becomes different in that, ‘an organization takes on a life of its own, apart from any of its members, and acquires immortality.

Institutional or organisational culture is a descriptive term, in that; it is concerned with how employees perceive the characteristics of an organisation’s culture, not with whether or not they like them. In view of the writer of the study it will be worthwhile to point out that, the institutional or organisational culture is not generic but it is descriptive and dynamic.
To mention but a few, the perceived employees’ characteristics of an organisation’s culture include:

2. Innovation and risk taking that is the degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks.

2. Attention to detail, that is the degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail.

2. Outcome orientation that is the degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve these outcomes.

2. People orientation that is degree to which management decisions takes into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organisation.

3. Team orientation that is the degree to which work activities are organised around teams rather than individuals.

3. Aggressiveness, that is the degree to which people is aggressive and competitive rather than easy-going.

3. Stability, that is the degree to which organisational activities emphasizes maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth

(Robbins; 1996: 681-682).

Organisations or institutions differ, and so is the process of socialisation within those organisations or institutions. This is what distinguishes institutions or organisations to be dynamic in their cultures. For example, other institutions are socialised to have talks during their tea breaks, while others have talks on the jobs, some institutions are socialised to have teamwork, but others do not. In this way we see how dynamic institutional cultures are, it also proves that organisations and institutions do not have uniform cultures and culture itself is not uniform.
It is imperative to point out that although the organisational or institutional culture is not uniform, every institution can change its institutional culture, from its old traditional style to a new more collaborative employee-management style, to suit the changing time. Undeniably, the University of Cape Town is one of those institutions, which is determined to change its institutional culture, from a traditionally white, Anglo-Saxon male institution, so as to fit the new era.

The Equal Opportunity Research Project (EORP) established in 1991, is a good indicator that UCT is determined to change its culture. It is based at the University of Cape Town as part of the Equal Opportunity portfolio. Its purpose is to undertake policy research in the area of institutional equity, with a special emphasis on gender issues. The EORP was mandated to investigate employment equity at the University of Cape Town and is directed by the Deputy vice-chancellor with special responsibilities for equal opportunity at UCT (UCT’s Employment Equity; 1994: 1).

It can be said though, that the establishment of the Equal Opportunity Research Project (EORP), is making positive inroads to bring to a halt this notion of traditionally white, Anglo-Saxon male institutional culture at UCT, although the process in itself cannot be changed overnight, thus it is a long process which demands the 3 D’s; dedication, devotion and determination.

The (EORP) conducted a questionnaire analysis around the institutional culture at UCT, and their subject aim of the questionnaire analysis was to ascertain all the Blacks and Whites subjects in relation to their working environment at UCT. From the EORP’s study it appears that experiences of working at UCT differ in important respect for Black and White staff members:

- More White respondents (91%) than Black respondents (76%) found their work at UCT satisfying. While the overall numbers are high, the difference is also significant.
- Only 16% of White respondents reported that it took them a long time to settle down and feel comfortable, proportionally more than twice as many (39%) Black respondents did so. This is perhaps the clearest indicator of the alienation that Black staff members feel in coming to an institution dominated by White staff.
• 82% of Black respondents agreed with the statement that racism still existed at UCT while only about half (52%) the White respondents did. Related to this, more than 90% of White respondents reported that in their view, in general, working relationships between Black and White staff members were good, while 68% of Black respondents recorded the same opinion.

• 82% of White respondents reported that they thought the Executive Officers were genuinely committed to race and gender equity, while significantly fewer (56%) Black respondents reported the same.

• Nearly a third of White respondents reported that they thought the Equal Opportunity Employment Policy would lead to a lowering of standards—only 5% of Black respondents registered the same concern.

• Black respondents were the single highest group (20%) reporting that they generally could not communicate openly and honestly with the more senior people in their department. Just over 10% (12%) of White respondents answered similarly (UCT’s Employment Equity; 1994: 36).

The overall picture suggested by EORP questionnaire analysis, are at best, one of complacency on the part of White staff members with regard to racism and a lack of recognition of the need for change. Without this recognition, changing the institutional culture will be much more difficult, but no less urgent. Further, employment equity frequently challenges the beliefs, values and behaviours within institutions. Such changes to the work environment almost inevitably raise concerns on the part of employees. One of the best ways of dealing with these concerns explaining why such changes are beneficial and how the changes will take place. Finally, staff development is not simply a matter of providing education and training for disadvantaged groups. Central to the success or failures of development programmes are the expectations, prejudices and management skills of those people in charge of staff.

The role of senior management within the institution in all of these areas is critical: as ‘builders’ of a new institutional culture, as advocates of employment equity and as the key players in people development. While senior management (pay-class nine and above in the non-academic sectors, and senior lecturer and above in the academic sector) were amongst the largest categories of respondents who knew about the Equal Opportunity Employment
Policy (84%), supported the policy (97%), and who considered the Executive Officers genuinely committed to ‘race’ and gender equity (93%), there were a number of other issues that are cause for concern.

As the above statistics suggest, there appears to be a large gap between the perception of senior management and the rest of the University. This is supported by different responses to a range of questions concerning employment policies and practices at the University:

- Significant numbers (70%) of non-management respondents [below grade 9 (non academic) and senior lecturer (academic) thought that “it's not what you know but who you know that gets you a job at UCT. Approximately 20% of middle and senior management thought the same.

- While the same numbers of ‘non-management’ respondents (70%) agreed with the statement, “it’s not what you know but who you know that gets you a promotion at UCT,” almost a third (30%) of middle and senior thought the same.

This is 10% higher than those who thought that having the right ‘connections’ helped to get a job at the University;

- An even higher percentage of ‘non-management’ respondents (86%) reported that in their opinion, “for reasons other than their qualification, some people have a better chance of promotion and senior management agreed with this statement;

- Less than half (45%) of ‘non-management’ reported that in their opinion the selection procedures at UCT generally ensure that the best person for the job is appointed. Three quarters of middle and senior management thought the same;

- Over 80% (84%) of middle and senior management respondents thought the disciplinary procedures at UCT were fair, while under two thirds (56%) of ‘non-management respondents agreed with this statement.
Only a third of all respondents reported that in their opinion UCT has clear vision of where it is going in the future. A third of respondents disagreed with this statement, and a quarter of respondents said they did not know with the remaining respondents not answering the question. Of greatest concern, however, is that less than half (44%) of people in senior management positions agreed that, in their opinion, UCT has a vision of where it is going. However, the response of middle and senior management needs to be addressed, particularly as almost two thirds (62%) of middle and senior level respondents thought their department had a vision of where it was going, which is much higher than the response concerning the University as a whole.

All these factors suggest that there is a need for greater communication, between management and the Executive Officers, and in particular between management and the rest of staff at the University. As argued previously, the Equal Employment Opportunity Policy, the reasons for its adoption by the University, and the Executive Officers support and collective responsibility for its successful implementation need to be thoroughly understood by as broad a range of UCT staff as possible.

In achieving this end, it is likely that many of the other issues where there are differences in perception between management and staff will also be addressed, by implication if not directly. This can only be of benefit to the University (Employment Equity; 1994: 37-38). The point made by (70%) of non-management respondents [below grade 9 (non academic) and senior lecturer (academic)] that “its not what you know but who you know that gets you a job at UCT- this point in case was added by Equal Opportunities officers Frank Molteno in Mail & Guardian (1998: 8). There has been a very difficult for selection committees to be open to talent in other forms. This will help get people into a proactive frame of mind.

1.2 Impact Of Affirmative Action On UCT’s Institutional Culture
Institutional culture is mentioned across all the equity plans, the Institutional Culture Workshop Report (1998) and the Institutional Culture Focus Group (1999), as inhibiting employment equity.

The above-mentioned documents express the views of some staff at UCT that there are particular practices, often deep-rooted, which affect both social and professional interactions
and threaten the UCT’s equity initiatives. The University acknowledges that the concerns about institutional culture are strongly inter-connected with the others raised in the Employment Equity report, such as staff development and training and management issues. Institutional culture concerns permeate all aspects of work at UCT.

Although it is clear that institutional “cultures” can vary enormously from faculty to faculty and department to department, there are norms within the institution that have developed as a result of the history of the institution as an “historically white” university.

This institutional culture, sometimes termed as Eurocentric, leads to perceptions of discrimination even where the institution itself has gone to great lengths to tackle discrimination in its own policies and within the arena of higher education at large. Staffs acknowledges the role that UCT has played in furthering its equity objectives and the strong institutional positions that it has adopted on issues such as racism, sexism and diversity. However, staff commented that the reality of employees’ experiences of work at UCT is affected most strongly by the perpetuation of attitudes amongst some individuals, which do not encourage and respect diversity (UCT Institutional Culture Workshop Report; 1998:3).

The UCT Institutional Culture Workshop Report (1998:4) identifies the following problems as evidence of the point just mentioned above, those evidence are as follows:

- “There is a general lack of tolerance and celebration of diversity and difference at UCT

- UCT does not acknowledge the way in which it colluded with Apartheid. The University has always presented itself as heroic in challenging Apartheid, and in many ways it did, but the ways in which it did not, are not acknowledged in any way. UCT hides behind the notion of “excellence”

- Stereotyping by dominant groups on campus. It was acknowledged that stereotyping happens in a number of different ways, and is a general problem. There is an issue, however, about who has the power and ability to use stereotypes and influence them. People at UCT often assume that race coincides with a particular viewpoint. It is a
commonly held view; for example, that black members of staff are more interested in money than white staff. Stereotypes can lead to low morale and negative feelings. It is often the small things that can make someone feel unwanted and wish to leave the workplace. When black people leave UCT, it is always assumed that they are looking for greener pastures. Many people have left because of the institutional culture of UCT. This should not be trivialised.

- **The staff profile can change, but the culture of the institution can remain the same.** If for example, the curriculum remains the same, even though different people may teach it, things do not necessarily shift. Black children in a primary school may still learn English nursery rhymes and not songs in their own language, even if black teachers are teaching them.

- **Groups that are not dominant do not have a voice.** UCT is predominantly to participate in that space.

- There are strong feelings that **certain tasks and accomplishments at UCT get valued and others not.** Some institutional tasks are often invisible. What gets valued often has to do with power inequalities.

- **There is a monopoly on information.** There is a language of the knowledgeable, which consists of acronyms and jargons and locks people out of strategic discussions.

- There is **lack of resource allocation to social and cultural development issues,** including structures that counsel, train and raise awareness of discrimination and harassment.

- There are **concerns about who is responsible for making decisions about equity.** Some participants felt that finances are prioritised over equity.

- **UCT is defined as an English institution.** English is the language of governance, communication, teaching, and day-to-day interaction. There are whole sets of barriers
therefore, for people who do not speak English as a first language. **Multilingualism also is not valued.**

- There is a strategic silence with regard to looking at people and cultural issues. These are generally marginalised and seen as peripheral, ad hoc, and out of the mainstream. There is a disjuncture here between how planning takes place and the content of real institutional cultural transformation” (Institutional Culture Workshop Report; 1998:5).

The workshop participants addressed these problems and they focused on the following six areas in the problem-solving session, and they were addressed as follows:

Firstly, around the concern about lack of transparency at UCT, the problem was explained, thus, staff holds strong views about the fact that important decisions are made in the university that are not communicated effectively and widely. This leads to distrust and rumours and often to rifts between management-level staff and others.

- The goal for improvement as to alleviate fear and concern at the workshop was as follows:

| - Staff wish to understand decision-making
| - To facilitate better and greater communication
| - Stop rumours and fears
| - Enabled staff to give input into important decisions
| - Fewer gaps between managers and staff
| - Better University image
| - Greater support for policy
| - Greater trust


Inter-alia with all the above mentioned, the Workshop’s recommendations were as follows:

| - Regular sharing of information on policy and important decisions
| - Information must be accessible
| - Questions and answer sessions
| - More resources into publications

70
- Retrenchment information letter (1998) a positive form of communication
- Regular communication about pension and medical aid is also positive


Secondly, lack of tolerance and celebration of diversity and difference was identified as an area of concern. This is a general problem at UCT. The reasons for this lack of tolerance are historical, and often determined by fear and prejudice. Although there is some success at the level of policies and procedures that prevent discrimination and harassment, attitudes need to change.

Goals for improvement were attained and were as follows:

- To work in an institution that acknowledges differences and enables their expression
- To achieve social transformation
- Ensure inclusivity
- Facilitate team work
- Ensure a diversity of work output
- Improve staff retention
- Free the potential of staff members
- Create a richer environment in which to work


It is, however, noteworthy that around the concerns raised by the workshop report, on lack of tolerance and celebration of diversity and differences no suggestions or recommendations were put forward.

As far as the third problem is concerned language was identified as an area of concern. The workshop report explained this problem of language this way; “Although English is the language of all teaching and governance at UCT, there is little acknowledgement, use, or appreciation of other South African languages. To live up to its Mission, UCT needs to embrace some multi-lingualism.”
Students do not leave the university with language skills and members of staff cannot always pronounce the names of their colleagues, or remembers them.

Goals for improvement were attained and were as follows:

- The institution must embrace and appreciate languages other than English, including sign language
- Staff should know greetings and names in other languages
- An appreciation of multi-lingualism
- Create a sense of belonging for non-English first language speakers
- Move UCT towards becoming an African university
- Produce graduates that can communicate effectively in South Africa
- Greater understanding of cultural differences.


In respect to the goals of improvement attained above, it was recommended that there should be:

- Opportunities for language skills development for staff

Fourthly, what is valued and rewarded was identified as an area of concern, and the problem was explained as follows:

"There is a perception amongst staff that certain kinds of contributions are not well supported or recognised at UCT.

This includes, for example, contributions that have a broader impact at community level; community-based research; some committee work; interpersonal work; the work of support staff; public-oriented work, such as that done in the Health Science Faculty (Report of a Workshop on Institutional Culture and the Work Environment at UCT; 1998:7).

Goals for improvements were attained regarding this problem explained and were as follows:

- Greater valuing and recognition of the contributions that staff members make to the institution
- Greater job motivation for more staff members
- Better staff retention
- Effective role-modelling
- Staff feel a greater sense of ownership and belonging
- Economic spin-offs


Regarding the goals of improvement mentioned above it was recommended that there should be:

- Structural mechanisms for extension support
- Institutional mechanisms of validation to be extended
- Broader criteria for job appraisals
- Communication strategies that recognise a broader range of contributions

Fifthly, the need to reduce negative stereotyping, and achieve an environment free of cultural domination was identified as one area of concern. The workshop report explained the problem this way; Stereotyping of different groups of people is common at UCT, and people’s experiences of being stereotyped affect their enjoyment of the work environment. Participants to the workshop felt that there needs to be institutional commitment to reducing and acknowledging prejudices that exist (Report of a Workshop on Institutional Culture and the Work Environment at UCT; 1998:7).

Nevertheless, there were also goals of improvement toiled by the workshop and these features the following:

- Improve the quality of life of staff on campus
- Facilitate better social interaction
- Improve UCT’s image
- Improve efficiency and effectiveness
- Fewer feelings of exclusion
- Acknowledgement of prejudices that exist at UCT


For the above-mentioned it was recommended that:

- Communication is key to reducing stereotyping and challenging stereotypes
- Acknowledgement of problems of prejudice needs to happen at top level
Lastly, participants identified the history of UCT as the sixth area of concern and they agreed that there is not one view of the history of UCT as an institution. UCT presents itself as an institution that heroically challenged apartheid policies (which it did in part), but does not acknowledge the ways in which UCT may have colluded with apartheid and discrimination. As UCT is a part of South African society, the UCT community is not separate from the broader social problems in South Africa, and cannot be discrimination free (Report of a Workshop on Institutional Culture and the Work Environment at UCT; 1998:8). Goals of improvement were attained regarding the above and were as follows:

- Build an honest institution
- Move forward inclusively
- Establish a common view of UCT’s role in the past and present
- Avoid superficial change that is not supported by staff members
- Acknowledge of alternative views of UCT’s history will decrease cynicism, demotivation and mistrust
- Greater pride in the institution


Regarding the goals of improvement mentioned above, it was recommended, however, that:

- A statement acknowledging a truer picture of UCT’s historical role in South Africa
- Effective communication of the commitment of leadership to challenge discrimination at UCT


Based on the analysis of UCT situation, one concludes that UCT should consider changing its institutional culture that is reconstructing it in line with the Republic of South Africa. For example, in the Republic of South Africa (1998:26) it is held that developing a diverse management culture not only in order to support broad representation and to achieve
democratic legitimacy, but also to increase efficiency and effectiveness, improve service
delivery and develop more participatory management styles. Therefore, one does want to
share the same sentiments with the latter view, in that where cultural diversity is properly
managed; it can provide competitive advantage, both internally and externally. By internal
advantage the writer of the study means the sectoral parts within UCT; in which it strive so
hard to promote equity- while the external advantage serves to mean the communities that
are served by UCT. The enhanced views above, however, serve to say UCT values
benchmarking as an indicator of excellence. In this regard, this coincides with what the
writer have said above. If UCT strives to reconstruct its institutional culture towards a more
diverse management culture, there will be broad representation, efficiency and effectiveness
and participatory management styles. Whilst diverse management culture is fully impacted
at UCT, there will not be miscommunication, lack of transparency and stereotyping like it
used to have. Diverse management culture if is properly managed and emphasised serves to
eliminate all the latter said and it will create a working and studying environment conducive
for all employees, management and students.

In the section that follows, we view and comment on statistical data which deals with the
race and gender issues of all UCT staff. Interpretable data on these issues is provided to help
the reader see changes or improvement about UCT achievement or failures with regard to
Employment Equity.
1.3 Permanent And Temporary Support Staff By Gender As At January Each Year (1993-1999)

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Permanent</th>
<th>1993</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>1999</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>1036 (49%)</td>
<td>937 (48%)</td>
<td>826 (45%)</td>
<td>773 (44%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>1060 (51%)</td>
<td>1029 (52%)</td>
<td>1013 (55%)</td>
<td>997 (56%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Permanent</td>
<td>2096</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>1839</td>
<td>1770</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temporary</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>24 (27%)</td>
<td>29 (27%)</td>
<td>42 (23%)</td>
<td>82 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>64 (73%)</td>
<td>80 (73%)</td>
<td>137 (77%)</td>
<td>227 (73%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Temporary</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>309</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Total Support Staff | 2184 | 2075 | 2018 | 2079 |

(Table 3 adapted from UCT Employment Equity Plan 2000-2002)

Table 3 gives a breakdown by gender of permanent support staff and temporary support staff as at January each year for the period 1993 to 1999. In 1993 the permanent males were 1036 (49%), in 1995 males were 937 (48%), in 1997 males were 826 (45%) and in 1999 males were 773 (44%). Females' permanent staffs in 1993 were 1060 (51%), in 1995 females were 1029 (52%), in 1997 females were 1013 (55%) and in 1999 females were 997 (56%). The total number of Permanent Support Staff, thus, both males and females was 2096 in 1993, in 1995 was 1966, in 1997 was 1839, and in 1999 was 1770 (UCT 2000-2002).

In 1993, the Temporary Support Males Staff was 24 (27%), in 1995 males were 29 (27%), in 1997 males were 42 (23%) and in 1999 males were 82 (27%). In 1993, the females Temporary Support Staff was 64 (73%), in 1995 was 80 (73%), in 1997 was 137 (77%) and in 1999 was 227 (73%). Therefore, the total number of both males and females Temporary Support Staff was 2184 in 1993, in 1995 was 2075, in 1997 was 2018 and in 1999 was 2079 (UCT 2000-2002).
What is obvious from this data is that statistical figures as included in Table A, were not compiled yearly (in succession). Instead the statistical compilation was done after every two years. From the writer's point of view, UCT had a large proportion decrease from 1036 (49%) to 937 (48%). This, however, serves to mean that between the periods of two years (1993-1995), UCT lost 99 of male's proportion of the permanent support staff. So, from 1995 to 1997, UCT was also faced with another loss, dropping from 937 (48%) to 826 (45%) in 1997. Between 1995 and 1997, their decrease was 112, which were much bigger than in 1993 to 1995.

In 1997 the number of males permanent support staff was 826 (45%), and in 1999 was 773 (44%). It could be deduced however that the decrease between 1997 and 1999 was only 53, which was relatively a small number compared to the other years, thus, from 1993 to 1997. Female's Permanent Support Staff was 1060 (51%) in 1993 and in 1995 was 1029 (52%). The decrease in between the above-mentioned periods was only a difference of 31. So in 1997, females permanent support staff was 1013 (55%) and in 1999 were 997 (56%). The difference or the decrease between the above-mentioned periods was only 16, which is the slide proportion as compared to males permanent support staff.

To conclude on the part of males and females support staff, it is evident that the decrease proportion of males permanent support staff was larger than females permanent support staff. Again though females permanent support staff is decreasing, the decrease, however, is not affecting the equilibrium of females in any way, like of males, which could be seen as occurring drastically along the mentioned above periods or years.

The males temporary support staff was 24 (27%) in 1993, and in 1995 were 29 (27%). This shows that two years down the line, the males temporary support staff increases by 5%. So between 1995 and 1997, there was a further increase of 23%, amounting the increase to 42 (23%) in 1997. Between 1997 and 1999 there was a rapid increase of 40%, which total to (27%) in 1999.

Female's temporary support staff was 64 (73%) in 1993 and was 80 (73%) in 1995. This means that two years down the line the proportion of females temporary support staff increased by 6%, which is an incredible increase as compared to males temporary support staff, which increase by an infinitesimally percentage. From 1995 the females temporary support staff was 80 (73%) and in 1997 was 137 (77%). This, however, serves to mean that
between 1995 and 1997, there was again an incredible increase of females temporary support staff, amounting to 57%. Therefore, from 1997 the females temporary support staff was 137 (77%) and in 1999 was 227 (73%). In essence between 1997 and 1999, there was a remarkable increase of 90% of Females Temporary Support Staff.

Comparatively speaking it is self-evident, however, that the proportion of female permanent staff increased from 51% in 1993 to 56% in 1999. The proportion of female temporary staff was 73% in 1993 and was still 73% in 1999. The proportion of male's temporary staff was 27% in 1993 and was still 27% in 1999. In terms of the total permanent staff by gender, UCT had the proportion of 2096 in 1993, which decreased to 1770 in 1999. However, the proportion of temporary staff by gender was 2184 in 1993 and was 2079 in 1999.

Based on these statistics, it is worth-noting that UCT has a smaller total number (1770) of permanent staff, and a larger number (2079) of temporary staff. The small total number in permanent staff has been as a result of large proportion of males decrease over the above mentioned years and a slide decrease of females. And large total number in temporary staff has been as a result of partial males' proportion increase over the above mentioned years, and a remarkable increase of females. The next section deals with the support staff by race (Black / White) as at January each year (1993-1999).
2.3 Support Staff By ‘Race’ (Black / White) As At January Each Year (1993-1999).

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1993</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>1999</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Permanent</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks</td>
<td>1253 (60%)</td>
<td>1184 (60%)</td>
<td>1131 (62%)</td>
<td>1122 (63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>843 (40%)</td>
<td>776 (40%)</td>
<td>698 (38%)</td>
<td>616 (35%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4 (0.2%)</td>
<td>10 (0.5%)</td>
<td>32 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Permanent</td>
<td>2096</td>
<td>1966</td>
<td>1839</td>
<td>1770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Temporary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blacks</td>
<td>28 (32%)</td>
<td>44 (40%)</td>
<td>80 (45%)</td>
<td>148 (48%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whites</td>
<td>50 (67%)</td>
<td>63 (58%)</td>
<td>94 (53%)</td>
<td>139 (45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>5 (3%)</td>
<td>22 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Temporary</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Support</strong></td>
<td>2184</td>
<td>2075</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>2079</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table 4 adapted from UCT Employment Equity Plan 2000-2002)

Table 4 gives a breakdown by “race” of permanent support staff and temporary support staff as at January each year for the period 1993 to 1999. The proportion of black permanent staff increased marginally from 60% in 1993 to 63% in 1999. The proportion of black temporary staff increased comparatively more from 32% in 1993 to 48% in 1999. The proportion of white permanent staff increased by 40% in 1993 and decreased by 35% in 1999. The proportion of white temporary staff increased comparatively more from 67% in 1993 and faced a drastically decrease of 45% in 1999 (UCT 2000-2002).

Based on the above analysis, one can relate that from 1993 to 1999 UCT had a stable increase of permanent blacks support staff. From 1993 to 1995 permanent whites support staff increase has been stable but faced a severe decrease from 1997 to 1999. In 1995 to 1999, there has been a partial increase of permanent unknown support staff. In a whole in 1993 to 1999, UCT had a better and stable blacks support staff as compared to less and unstable white
support staff. In short UCT had a higher blacks permanent and temporary support staff and a less and unstable permanent and temporary white support staff from 1993 to 1999.

From 1993 to 1999, UCT had a relatively stable increase of blacks temporary support staff. In 1993 whites temporary support staff increase sharply by 67% and faced a slow and steady increase of unknown temporary support staff. This tells us that UCT got better and stable blacks temporary support staff from 1993 to 1999, and a less and stable whites temporary support staff. And unknown temporary support staff had been slow and steady from 1993 to 1999. What follow is academic appointments by race and gender (1996-1999).

1.5 Academic Appointments By ‘Race’ And ‘Gender’ (1996-1999).

Graph 1

In this graph progress has been more marked, in relation to appointments over the period 1996 to 1999 (see Graph 1 above). Thus, the proportion of academic appointments of white men dropped from 51% in 1996 to 28% in 1998 and 19.5% in 1999. The proportion of academic appointments of women rose by 38% in 1996 to 49% in 1999.

As stated by the then University of Cape Town’s Vice Chancellor Mamphela Ramphele in Saturday Argus (1996:14) “UCT is a traditionally White, Anglo-Saxon male institution which has to be brought into the new era.” In my view, the provided statistics as cashmired in Graph
1, indicate that the vice-chancellor's words were put into practice. To conclude, it is clear that though the process of promoting Affirmative Action and Employment Equity at UCT is fairly slow, the institution is constantly trying to effect Employment Equity and Affirmative Action.

Participants of a Workshop on Institutional Culture and Work Environment at UCT state that the profile may change but the institutional culture will remain the same. The latter statement triggers immediate and effective change of the institutional culture. For example, in the Republic of South Africa (1998:26) it is held that developing a diverse management culture not only in order to support broad representation and to achieve democratic legitimacy, but also to increase efficiency and effectiveness, improves service delivery and develops more participatory management styles.

UCT values benchmarking as a quality of excellence, so it will be imperative for the institution to reconstruct its institutional culture to reflect participation, competitiveness and diversity like the Republic of South Africa White Paper on Affirmative Action (1998) aspires to. The writer of the study wants to share two reasons underpinning the latter statement. Firstly, where cultural diversity is properly managed, it can provide competitive advantage, both internally and externally. Secondly, if UCT strives to reconstruct its institutional culture towards a more diverse management culture, there should be broad representation, efficiency and effectiveness and participatory management styles. If diverse management culture is fully impacted at UCT, there will be no miscommunication, lack of transparency and stereotyping, as it seems to be the case. Diverse management culture if is properly managed and emphasised serves to eliminate all the latter said and it will create a working and studying environment conducive for all employees, management and students.

UCT has a smaller proportion of permanent staff both by gender, as compared to the temporary staff by gender, which is in large number. Critically speaking, this statistics tells us that UCT was and is still relying more to temporary staff as compared to permanent staff. To be precise, the notion behind the promotion of the Employment Equity and Affirmative Action is to attract as many people as possible from a wider pool of human potential, this mean that people with the same skills and capabilities should have similar life chances.

The above brings us back to question this study attempts to answer "how successful has UCT been in achieving employment equity and why? The evidence presented so far points towards the following answer(s): First racist attitudes and fear of change by minority White groups in
UCT inhibits the effective promotion of Employment Equity and Affirmative Action, and as a result UCT has become faced with the situation of not diversifying. Second the institutional culture at UCT is another inhibiting factor. In Goosen, et al, (1989:18), Welsh and Savage, writing about the incorporation of Afrikaans speaking students at UCT, have this to say about its characters: ... “(Afrikaans students) were left in no doubt that (UCT) was an essentially English institution with deep roots in an essentially British academic tradition. The campus too, contained symbols redolent of an imperial past: the statue of Rhodes and the imposing Jameson Hall ... the redoubtable vice-chancellor ... Carruthers Beattie... was foreign born, unilingual and committed to British imperialism...” For example an institution cannot claim to be changing hence it hold on to the past history, because it is this past that we want to see changing and say there is change in that particular institution. Third the change of managers' attitudes, in whatever organisations or institutions can bring about an environment conducive for all at UCT and Affirmative Action and Employment Equity can be positively effected. UCT as an institution should strive to change attitudes that one race is holding against each other, this is the way through to start; Employment Equity and Affirmative Action can be promoted positively in such an environment. Certainly changing individuals attitudes is a process which cannot be achieved overnight but it is worth trying, if UCT wants to accomplish what it is aiming at; thus a just and fair promotion of the employment equity.

In light of these 3 points mentioned here, we can say that the process of promoting Affirmative Action and Employment Equity at UCT is fairly slow, but it is worth mentioning that UCT is constantly trying to effect Employment Equity and Affirmative Action.

In conclusion, staff should strive hard to work on their attitudes and work closely with one another, so as to bring about change in the institution. Because UCT value benchmarking, so it will be to the best interest of the institution if it can be modelled by the government culture, which values participation, openness, and transparency, like it stands in the White Paper on Affirmative Action (1998:8). In overall the change of managers attitudes, in whatever organisations or institutions can bring about environment conducive for all at UCT and Affirmative Action and employment equity can be positively effected.

In summary, we have learned from Chapter Four that institutional and organisational culture has the same connotation and meaning in that they both hold ‘a common perception held by the organisation’s members. Robbins (1996:681) defines organisational culture as ‘a common
perception held by the organisation’s members. And in my view institutional culture is a common practices held by institutional members. Both latter definitions has one thing in common which is ‘a system of shared meaning.’ In addition, we have learned that organisational or institutional culture is not uniform; every institution can change its institutional culture, from its old traditional style to a new more collaborative employee-management style. UCT is one of those institutions, which is determined to change its institutional culture, from a Traditionally White, Anglo-Saxon male institution, so as to fit the new era.

Besides, have learned that the (EORP) conducted a questionnaire analysis around the institutional culture at UCT, and their subject aim of the questionnaire analysis was to ascertain all the Blacks and Whites subjects in relation to their working environment at UCT. And from the EORP’s study it appears that experiences of working at UCT differ in important respect for Blacks and whites members (for further details about the latter see p 64 to 65 in this study).

Additionally, we have learned that institutional culture is mentioned across all the equity plans, the Institutional Workshop Report (1998) and the Institutional Culture Focus Group (1999), as inhibiting employment equity. These documents express the views of some staff at UCT that there are particular practices, often deep-rooted, which affect both social and professional interactions and threaten the UCT’s equity initiatives. Although it is clear that institutional “cultures” can vary enormously from faculty to faculty and department to department, there are norms within the institution that have developed as a result of being history of the institution as an “historically white” university. This institutional culture, sometimes termed as Eurocentric, leads to perceptions of discrimination even where the institution itself has gone to great lengths to tackle discrimination in its own policies and within the arena of higher education at large. Staffs acknowledges the role that UCT has played in furthering its equity objectives and the strong institutional positions that it has adopted on issues such as racism, sexism and diversity. However, staff commented that the reality of employees’ experiences of work at UCT is affected most strongly by the perception of attitudes amongst some individuals, which do not encourage and respect diversity (Report of a Workshop on Institutional Culture and Work Environment at UCT; 1998:4).
Furthermore, have learned that the Institutional Culture Workshop Report (1998:4) identifies problems as evidence of the point just mentioned above, those evidence are cited in detail in chapter four of this study (see page 71-73). Due to time constraint the account of the above-mentioned concerns will not be dealt with into deeper detail as presented in chapter four already, the same goes to the goals of improvements and recommendations made by the workshop participants around the identified problems.

Also, we have learned that by gender UCT has a smaller total number (1770) of permanent staff, and a larger number (2079) of temporary staff. The small total number in permanent staff has been as a result of large proportion of males decrease over the above-mentioned years and slides decrease of females. And the large total number in temporary staff has been as result of partial males' proportional increase over the above mentioned years, and a remarkable increase of females.

Finally, we have also learned that by race from 1993 to 1999 UCT had a stable increase of permanent blacks support staff. From 1993 to 1995 permanent whites support staff increase has been stable but faced a severe decrease from 1997 to 1999. From 1995 to 1999, there has been a partial increase of permanent unknown support staff. In a whole from 1993 to 1999, UCT had a better and a stable blacks support staff as compared to less and unstable white support staff during the periods mentioned above. In short UCT got higher blacks permanent and temporary support staff and a less and unstable whites permanent and temporary support staff from 1993 to 1999. Finally we learned that by race and gender the proportion of academic appointments that was white men dropped from 51% in 1996 to 28% in 1998 and 19, 5% in 1999. The proportion of appointments that were women rose 38% in 1996 to 49% in 1999. This is to say from 1996 to 1999 there has been an incredible increase of women than men at UCT.

There are two reasons to the significance of this chapter to the study. Firstly, the significance of the situational analysis chapter to this study is because it provides the reader with an in-depth knowledge about a particular institution that he / she is not directly involved with. Secondly, situation analysis is important because it enables the reader to distinguish between a situation that is how the situation was before, after and the situation to-date.
In conclusion to Chapter Four, institutional and organisational culture has the same connotation and meaning in that they both hold 'a common practices' held by the organisation's members.' Robbins (1996:681) defines organisational culture as a common perception held by the organisation's members. And in my view institutional culture is a common practices held by institutional members. Both latter definitions have one thing in common, 'a system of shared meaning.' Organisational or institutional culture is not uniform. Every institution can change its institutional culture, from its old traditional style to a new more collaborative employee-management style. UCT is one of these institutions, which is determined to change its institutional culture, from a traditional White, Anglo-Saxon male institutions, to something more appropriate to the new era. The Equal Opportunity Research Project (EORP) established in 1991 is a good indicator that UCT is determined to change its culture. Its purpose is to understand policy research in the area of institutional equity, with a special emphasise on gender issues. The overall picture suggested by EORP questionnaire analysis, is at best, one of complacency of the part of white staff members with regard to racism and a lack of recognition of the need for change. Without this recognition, changing the institutional culture will be much more difficult. However, staff commented that the reality of employees' experiences of work at UCT is affected most strongly by the perpetuation of attitudes amongst some individuals, which do not encourage and respect diversity (Report of a Workshop on Institutional Culture and Work Environment at UCT; 1998:4). By gender UCT has a smaller total number (1770) of permanent staff, and a larger number (2079) of temporary staff. By race UCT had a higher black permanent and temporary support staff and less and unstable white permanent and temporary support staff during 1993 to 1999. By race and gender, between 1996 and 1999, there has been an impressive increase in women working at UCT.

In the chapter that follows, we view a comparative exploration of recent employment equity reporting at UCT, NU and Wits.
CHAPTER FIVE

A COMPARATIVE EXPLORATION OF RECENT EMPLOYMENT EQUITY REPORTING AT UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN, NATAL UNIVERSITY AND WITWATERSRAND UNIVERSITY

The purpose of this chapter is to place the employment equity performance of UCT in comparative context and to explore the limitations of equity reporting requirements. While the writer of this study has compiled comparable data for all employees categories, the focus of analysis will be only on three occupational categories of academic staff, that is; i) “Senate and Council”; ii) “Professionals” and iii) “Technicians / Associate Professionals”. The focus of analysis will be specifically on three institutions University of Cape Town (UCT), Natal University (NU) and Witwatersrand (Wits). These institutions share a history of relative advantage within the higher education system, while each set within its own distinctive regional context. NU and Wits should provide an informative comparison to UCT in ascertaining progress made so far with regard to Employment Equity programmes.

1. METHODOLOGY

This chapter uses a comparative analysis approach. It will use employment equity data from the three institutions to weigh and gauge their Affirmative Action strategies to-date and to see whether they have or have not achieved Employment Equity targets and why. My focus will be chiefly on the following issues: 1) “Overall Workforce Profile”; 2) “Recruitment and Selection”; 3) “Training and Staff Development” and 4) “Promotion”. The main focus of the analysis of the above-mentioned programmes will ascertain how much progress has been made in three occupational categories of academic staff: i) Senate and Council ii) Professionals and iii) Technicians / Associate Professionals.

Data collection should be relatively straightforward because of the requirements of Employment Equity Legislation. This chapter explores 1) Employment Equity Reports submitted on different time frames by UCT, NU and Wits to the Department of Labour. In addition, use was made of websites of the universities under scrutiny in collecting data. Finally, telephone direct and with contacts were used, primarily with existing Employment
Equity Unit Managers in the divergent institutions, who unpacked data and explained anomalies or problems arising in the data capturing and interpretation process.

In terms of processing data, I first took raw data from the Employment Equity Reports submitted to the Department of Labour by the three universities, focusing mainly on three occupational categories of academic staff, that is: i) Senate and Council, ii) Professionals and iii) Technicians / Associate Professionals. Secondly, this raw data from Employment Equity Reports was broken-down by gender and race, to ease interpretation and clarify the significance of direct dimensions of non-equity. Lastly, the raw data from Employment Equity Report was converted into percentages again by gender and race, as through percentages one can identify trends—for example, in terms of this data were there increases and decreases of staff with a particular profile. In short, the data was organised so as to identify relative success and failures in those institutions, with a view to formulating hypotheses, which might explain differing performance.

According to Lijphart (1971: 683) the comparative method is definitely a method, and not just a convenient term vaguely symbolizing the focus of one’s research interests, nor is it a special set of substantive concerns Shmuel N. Eisenstadt cited in (Lijphart 1971:683) definition of the comparative approach in social research; states that the term does not “properly designate a special method... but rather a special focus on cross-societal, institutional, or macro societal aspects of societies and social analysis.”

The comparative method should perform an indispensable role in an evaluative study, such as this. From the viewpoint of the writer of this study, the comparative method is a relevant method to this study as it enables the writer to explore relevant similarities and differences between institutions. The comparative method is important here because it should help generate hypotheses for empirical social science research.

2. LIMITATIONS
Firstly, it is important to mention that the use of universities websites was useful than one might imagine. In some instances there were web pages in the website which were under construction for long periods. For example, the UCT website on recruitment and selection process, training and development of staff is under construction and also NU training and development of staff is under construction and all these web pages are not accessible. The
writer of the study had to try other means, like making direct contacts with Employment Equity Unit Managers in these institutions through the use of telephone and electronic mail (e-mail), and even the complete data were not always forthcoming.

Secondly, Wits data was not freely available even to the degree of making it stringently difficult to track down information. On this score the writer of the study had to travel personally to Wits and talk to the Employment Equity Manager there, to access data. This was a difficult and costly process.

Thirdly, this study’s focus is on Employment Equity performance from 1995 to 2002, thus an 8 years period. Yet universities such as NU and Wits do not have data dating back to 1995 on the areas of concern explored in this chapter. So it was difficult to get balanced data amongst these institutions on the previously mentioned areas of concern to be explored in this chapter.

Fourthly, a time frame recommended by Department of Labour to institutions for submission of their annual Employment Equity Reports was a problem. Some universities had been given time frames ranging from 5 to 6 months and others a year. This made the availability of genuinely comparable data a problem throughout the study and to give necessary qualifications.

Fifthly, moreover, data is in some cases available only for very recent years, so providing too one with small room to show change or comparison. Trends will not become apparent over periods of three or four years. For example, NU had reclassified its staff profile and there is no genuine explanation from its Employment Equity Unit, other than their moving of lower staff to different occupational categories. This was a shock to the writer of the study for an institution to accumulate such a large number in its workforce profile in a space of a year that is between 2000 and 2001. It should be pointed out to the reader that the comparison process amongst the already mentioned universities was a bit a problem due to NU reclassification of the data profile which UCT and Wits have not undergone. In short it was difficult at the first stage to say whether NU had done better than both UCT and Wits.
Lastly and most importantly, the Department of Labour had set rules and standards for tertiary institutions and private sector institutions to report annually the progress made to change their demographic profiles of employees. This process brought about by the Department of Labour has put intense pressure on various institutions in public and private sectors to make this reporting process a numbers game.

The next section is the analysis of UCT, NU and Wits academic staff workforce profiles. The focus of analysis will be on every institution mentioned above three occupational categories of academic staff, that is: 1) Senate and Council, 2) Professionals and 3) Technicians / Associate Professionals. To accomplish the analysis on the above-mentioned occupational categories, raw data will be presented to the reader and it will be extracted from the Employment Equity Reports submitted annually by each and every institution mentioned above to the Department of Labour about their annual progress in terms of their different improvement on the workforce profiles.

The raw data from the divergent Employment Equity Reports of these three above-mentioned institutions about their different annual workforce profiles will be broken-down or converted into percentages by race and gender. The reason for breaking down or converting raw data from Employment Equity Reports of every institution submitted to the Department of Labour is because it is easy to read as well as helps to make interpretation in showing the differences between or amongst institutions and changes made in different years. After this process, the gender and race analysis will follow. This section will look at three different patterns: 1) general patterns of gender inequality 2) change in the three institutions and 3) why there is a difference between the three institutions.

The method used for the data processing and capturing of workforce profile of the three institutions above, will also be repeated in the analysis of other programmes such as i) recruitment and selection, ii) training and development and iii) promotion, which also forms part in this chapter currently explored. Again patterns used in the processing of workforce profiles will be applied in the already mentioned above programmes or strategies as well. Research finding to the study will also be provided. Lastly an overall conclusion to the chapter as well as to the entire study will be provided. The following section deals with the workforce profiles of UCT, NU and Wits.

1. **WORK-FORCE PROFILES OF UCT, NU AND WITS**
### UCT Profile data as at May 1999 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

**Table 5**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
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<th>FEMALE</th>
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<tr>
<td>Technicians/Associate Professionals</td>
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<td>186</td>
<td>343</td>
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<td>101</td>
<td>123</td>
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(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Plan 2000-2002)

### UCT Profile data as at 25 May 2000 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

**Table 5.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
<th>MALE</th>
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<th>FEMALE</th>
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<th></th>
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<td>Senate and Council</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>96</td>
<td>134</td>
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(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 October 2001)

### UCT Profile data as at 25 May 2001 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

90
Table 5.2

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<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
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<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>103</td>
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<td>734</td>
<td>939</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians/Associate Professionals</td>
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<td>181</td>
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<td>926</td>
<td>1231</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 October 2002)

Natal University Profile data as at 01 May 2000 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

Table 5.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>T</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>509</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians/Associate Professionals</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>564</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 June 2000)
Natal University Profile data as at 01 October 2001 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

Table 5.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council Professionals</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>1368</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians/Associate Profess</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>455</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>1076</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>815</td>
<td>1891</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 October 2001)

Wits University Profile data as at 30 March 2000 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

Table 5.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council Professionals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>497</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>999</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians/Associate Profess</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>476</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>632</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>1528</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 30 March 2000)
Wits University Profile data as at 31 March 2001 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

Table 5.6

| Occupational Categories | MALE | | | | | | FEMALE | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|                         | A    | C | I | W | T | A  | C | I | W | T | Total |
| Senate Council          | 7    | 2 | 5 | 35 | 49 | 2  | 2 | 2 | 28 | 34 | 83   |
| Professionals           | 62   | 6 | 29 | 404 | 501 | 43 | 3 | 14 | 271 | 331 | 832  |
| Technicians/Associate Professionals | 65   | 10 | 24 | 90 | 189 | 75 | 18 | 48 | 169 | 310 | 499  |
| Sub-Total               | 134  | 18 | 58 | 529 | 739 | 120| 23 | 64 | 468 | 675 | 1414 |

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 31 March 2001)

Wits University Profile data as at 31 March 2002 by Gender, Race and Occupational Categories

Table 5.7

| Occupational Categories | MALE | | | | | | FEMALE | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|                         | A    | C | I | W | T | A  | C | I | W | T | Total |
| Senate Council          | 8    | 4 | 3 | 54 | 69 | 6  | 3 | 6 | 28 | 43 | 112  |
| Professionals           | 71   | 7 | 34 | 419 | 531 | 53 | 5 | 23 | 314 | 926 | 1457 |
| Technicians/Associate Professionals | 60   | 9 | 22 | 101 | 192 | 81 | 24 | 51 | 283 | 439 | 631  |
| Sub-Total               | 139  | 20 | 59 | 574 | 792 | 140| 32 | 80 | 639 | 891 | 1683 |

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 31 March 2002)
We turn to the interpretation of the above statistical as per categories discussed below.

3.1 Gender Profiles Per University
This section deals with the percentages of gender profiles of UCT, NU and Wits. As indicated this section will be broken down into percentages of both men and women academic staff as reflected in the profile data extracted from the Employment Equity Reports of these three institutions submitted to the Department of Labour in terms of their various submission dates and years to the above Department. After the profiles of every institution, the overall gender analysis section will follow which includes the entire discussions centered on the data of profiles extracted from these three institutions Employment Equity Reports and the broken down data into percentages as it will be displayed to the reader in this section.

UCT
Table 5.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% Of Men</th>
<th>% Of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>55.32%</td>
<td>44.68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>55.56%</td>
<td>44.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>56.81%</td>
<td>43.19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


NU
Table 5.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% Of Men</th>
<th>% Of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>62.86%</td>
<td>37.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>56.90%</td>
<td>43.10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Natal University Employment Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 June 2000 and 01 October 2001)
3.2 Gender Analysis

This section deals with the gender analysis of UCT, NU and Wits. Therefore, the writer of the study will look at this section from three different patterns or perspectives. Firstly, it will be looked at from the perspective of general patterns of gender inequality. Secondly, from the perspective of change in the three institutions. Lastly, it will be looked from the perspective of why differences between the three institutions. An overall conclusion inclusive of this section on gender analysis and the section to follow race analysis will be provided at the end of this section.

In 1999 in UCT, men concentration in the first tier was less (12 in total), than women concentration (15 in total) in the same tier. Men dominate the second tier (856 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (477 in total). Women are concentrated to some degree in third tier (486 in total); and men dominate second tier (856 in total).

In 2000 in UCT, men concentration in the first tier was higher (19 in total), than women concentration, which was less (5 in total) in the same tier. Men dominate the second tier (627 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (461 in total). Women concentrated to some degree in third tier (413 in total); and men dominate second tier (627 in total).
In 2001 in UCT, men concentration in the first tier was higher (16 in total), than women concentration, which was less (4 in total) in the same tier. Men dominate the second tier (939 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (578 in total). The women proportion on the third tier is higher (354 in total) than men proportion in the third tier (296 in total). However men dominate the second tier and women dominate the third tier.

In 2000 in NU, men concentration in the first tier was higher (24 in total), than women less concentration (15 in total) in the same tier. Men dominate the second tier (509 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (302 in total). Women are concentrated to some degree in third tier (109 in total); men dominates second tier (509 in total).

In 2001 in NU had an increase in men concentration in the first tier (33 in total), women concentration remains stable (15 in total) in the same tier. Men dominate the second tier (502 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (358 in total). Men dominate second and third tiers and women concentration in these tiers is only to some degree.

It is evident even in percentages provided in the gender analysis data of each University that in NU men dominates the upper tiers and women are only concentrated to some degree in lowest tiers. No change has been accomplished to-date.

In 2000 in Wits, men concentration in first tier was higher (36 in total), and women concentration (13 in total) in the same tier. Men dominate the second tier (600 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (335 in total). Women are concentrated to some degree in third tier (166 in total); and men dominated second tier (600 in total).

In 2001 in Wits, men concentration increased to (49 in total) and women concentration also increased to (28 in total), but still men dominate the first tier. Men dominate the second tier (501 in total) and women concentration in this tier is only to some degree (395 in total). Women are concentrated to some degree (439 in total), and men dominate second tier (531 in total).
In terms of answering the question of change in the three institutions, it is worth mentioning for the writer of the study to begin by pointing out the difference in these institutions, as differences gives the reader a clear idea of change in particular institution. Firstly, emanating from the Employment Equity Reports data provided in the beginning of this section, UCT have a larger proportion of men as compared to NU and Wits in the second tier throughout the years of the above-presented data. Secondly, UCT has more stable gender proportion as compared to NU and Wits.

Disregarding the above differences in this institutions, it becomes self-evident even from the data presented throughout to the reader on gender that there has not change in the three institutions with regard to gender representation as men in all the three institutions dominate the second tiers and women are concentrated to some degree in the third tiers or lower tiers.

The explanations of differences between the three institutions are manifold. Firstly, from the viewpoint of the writer of this study if management does not include staff in decisions that impact directly on their job, workload, and changes to their jobs, certainly there is a high possibility or likelihood for institution to incur gender imbalances.

Secondly, communication within institutions appears to be problematic and management in these institutions must tackle the issues of information sharing within departments and between departments and sections of the universities. If this problem is not realised and continue to persist in institutions like there one's mentioned above, certainly the gender profile will not be stable or reach the equilibrium as it is the main aim of many employment equity unit existing in these institutions above.

Thirdly, lack of promotion too can lead to universities to differ gender wise. For example, if a person worked in an institution for long time and other people who came after you got promoted, certainly this does not reflect symptoms of fairness, it means to a person who is in suffer of this situation to come to a conclusion that, his/her contribution in that institution is not realised, and negative spin of that will be for that person to move on and taste waters somewhere else. In nutshell biasness in terms of promotion can cause disparities in universities and make gender profiles of universities to differ.
Fourthly, lack of performance appraisal can also make universities to differ. For example, if accomplishments of staff members are not realised by universities, that is a negative reinforcement and the result of this will be lack of innovation and less turn over rate of staff members to their work, and the worse thing universities are likely to lose their valuable staff members in high numbers. From the view of the writer of this study, where performance appraisal is acknowledged, there is always the retention of staff members and skills development from staff members is promoted and developed and also the turn over rate of staff members to their work becomes high. Therefore, if performance appraisal is not acknowledged in universities, universities are continuously to incur or loose potential staff members, and universities which acknowledge performance appraisal are highly likely to retain its staff and the profile by gender even though is not 100% but is not to be like in universities which do not acknowledge performance appraisal.

Lastly, lack of training and staff development can also cause universities to differ. For a mere fact where there is effective training and staff development staff always enjoys what they doing they prepared for whatever challenges they face in their day-to-day routine without being cautioned by their senior staff members. So universities that promote training and staff development are less likely to incur the leaving staff rate than universities, which do not. However, from the above-mentioned viewpoint universities can differ.

In conclusion, all the highlighted factors can contribute to why universities differ. If these are not realised in certain universities, certainly the difference between universities is going to be markedly high, as compared to when they are realised, this do not leave out the gender profile issue in or amongst universities.

3.3 Race Profile
This section deals with the percentages of race profiles of UCT, NU and Wits. As indicated this section will be broken down into percentages of both men and women, by race of academic staff as reflected in the profile data extracted from the Employment Equity Reports of these three institutions submitted to the Department of Labour in terms of their various submission dates and years to the above Department. After the profiles of every institution, the overall race analysis section will follow which includes the entire discussions centred on the data of profiles extracted from these three institutions Employment Equity Reports and the broken down data into percentages as it will be displayed to the reader in the section below.
## UCT

**Table 6.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% Of African</th>
<th>% Of Coloured</th>
<th>% Of Indian</th>
<th>% Of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>73.0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>17.53%</td>
<td>1.96%</td>
<td>5.49%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>99.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>9.28%</td>
<td>13.20%</td>
<td>4.25%</td>
<td>73.28%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Plan 2000-2002 and Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 October 2001)

## NU

**Table 6.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% Of African</th>
<th>% Of Coloured</th>
<th>% Of Indian</th>
<th>% Of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>69.5%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
<td>57.6%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Natal University Employment Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 01 June 2000 and 01 October 2001)
Table 6.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% Of African</th>
<th>% Of Coloured</th>
<th>% Of Indian</th>
<th>% Of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>17.54%</td>
<td>1.96%</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>8.6%</td>
<td>70.5%</td>
<td>99.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>16.5%</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>72.0%</td>
<td>99.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from WITS University Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour from 2000-2002)

3.4 Race Analysis

This section deals with the race analysis of UCT, NU and Wits. Therefore, the writer of the study will look at this section from three different patterns or perspectives. Firstly, it will be looked at from the patterns of racial inequality. Secondly, it will be looked at from the pattern of change in the three institutions. Lastly, explanation or hypotheses about causes of change in these three institutions will be looked at or scrutinised. A conclusion on this three above patterns and a conclusion on data and employment equity policy will be provided.

In general there is race stability in UCT and Wits, excerpt at NU. Again an interesting and a fascinating overall picture about these three institutions is in their reflections of their demographic profiles. Firstly, UCT profile reflection is highly Coloured and White, both males and females, and African and Indian reflection in UCT profile, both males and females, is an infinitesimally percentage.

Secondly, NU profile reflection is highly Indian and White, both males and females, and in NU, African males and females profile is higher than in UCT and is constantly increasing by the year. What’s different though in NU profile is that the reflection of Coloureds both males and females is in a small number and where there is change, it is not that much high than Africans.
Lastly, Wits profile reflection is highly African and White, both males and females, and Indian females and males comes third in the Wits profile reflecting at least a better number than Coloured, both males and females in Wits. The latter profile however is an interesting feature that NU and Wits shares in their profiles that is Coloureds are less represented in NU and Wits profile, other than in UCT where they form part of UCT large profile number.

The reasons however behind these skewedness of profiles amongst universities it hinges or far traced behind the history of where these universities are located as well as the self-conception instilled by the apartheid legacy in tertiary institutions.

To start with Cape Town was mostly Coloured and White area, and Africans were subjected to live in far apart areas or remote areas, the intention behind this apartheid government master-plan of racial segregation was to keep Africans as far apart from Coloureds and Whites. The same happens in the education sector, that is Coloureds and Indians enjoyed most of their franchise from the apartheid or tri-cameral government. By tri-cameral government the writer of the study means government representing only three racial sectors, that is, Whites, Coloureds and Indians, and leaving the Black majority behind.

It is however from this brief provided history that Whites and Coloureds enjoyed their franchise from apartheid government and Africans were denied access in totality in tertiary education; this was even made worse by the draconian Education Act passed in 1953. The already indicated three benefited racial classes from apartheid legacy became able to acquire the most educationally and happened to be dominating racial classes with the profile of UCT.

Secondly, in Durban because of it’s know sugar plantation, Indians were mostly used to grow sugar as well as transporting it to other part of the country. Because Indians were ill treated as well as exploited by Whites in this plantation, it was not long that one Indian activist called Mahatma Ghandi organised a protesting march, which challenges the apartheid system, and the intention of this march was to seek a total emancipation of Indians from the Whites. After this freedom was granted, other Indians decided to stay permanently in Durban and settle themselves there. Most of this Indians evenly pursued their education in other parts of the country and because of the extensive travel to seek for education the apartheid government created UDW. After completion of their degrees most Indians decided to go back an implant their knowledge and skills to their place of their birth rite, such as in UDW and NU.
Thirdly, in Johannesburg because of the discovery of gold in the Witswatersrand, blacks and whites were attracted as labourers in the mining industry. Most of this blacks and whites were not Johannesburg bona-fide only but they were from all over the part of South Africa. So it was due to this economic and infrastructure development that most of these blacks and whites never returned to their homes were they come from but instead decides to stay in Johannesburg. Blacks who decided to stay in Johannesburg were given place in Soweto (South Western Townships) due to the segregatory law passed by apartheid government that time and whites were staying far away from blacks that are in Johannesburg. These blacks and whites after settling in Johannesburg they came back to fetch their families back to their original place so as to start a new life with them in Johannesburg. This does not omit the fact that there were already blacks and whites that were studying in other universities and because of distance of this universities, the University of Witswatersrand was formed. Blacks and whites enrolled in their many in Wits. Other blacks and whites after finishing their degree went abroad to pursue their other degrees such doctorate degree and came back again in Wits to implant their knowledge and skills to the University of their birth rite. That is how Wits have too many whites and blacks in its demographic profile, it has been historical shape by the history of where is situated.

These short historical background and the self-conceptions of apartheid legacy contributed in shaping the overall picture of what we now see existing in the profile of the universities to-date, and marks ranges of differences in universities.

In terms of change in these three institutions it is evident from the data on race that nothing drastically has changed excerpt that UCT and Wits are faced with a common problem of race inequalities, and NU looks like it has performed best in addressing its race inequalities more than UCT and Wits did.

The Employment Equity Policy rendered by Department of Labour depends upon reporting of Employment Equity Reports data by universities and other institutions in the private sector as well. The call made by the above mentioned Department for institutions to submit annually reports of their workforce profiles to show rigorous progress they made to compensate for the past injustices by the apartheid government put a stringent or an insurmountable pressure on institutions. As a result institutions turn process to be a number game or a blacker-than-thou-mentality. This serves to mean institutions increases the number of designated groups in their
workforce profile to give the impression that they are the best or they constantly cope up with the rules and standards of the Department of Labour.

So what explains cause of change between these universities is the fact that NU had reclassification of staff in their workforce profile. That is to say NU moved up their staff from lower tiers to the upper tiers of different occupational categories. This process improved racial inequality in NU as compared to Wits and UCT where racial inequality are evident still in large number. This serves to say that NU due to its process of reclassification has performed best and Wits and UCT have failed to close the gap of racial inequality.

In summary as well as concluding the above section it is imperative to point out to the reader that certain racial groups dominate in each of the university, and history bears the brunt or justify the means of racial inequalities in these universities. For example, UCT profile is highly dominated by Coloured and White, both males and females, and African and Indian, both males and females are only in a small number.

NU profile is highly dominated by Indians and Whites, both males and females, and African males and females profile is higher than in UCT and is constantly increasing by the year. What’s different though in NU profile is that the reflection of Coloured both males and females is in a small number and where there is change, it is not that much high than Africans.

Wits profile is highly dominated by African and White, both males and females, and Indian females and males comes third in the Wits profile reflecting at least a better number than Coloureds, both males and females in Wits. Coloureds are less represented in NU and Wits.

To conclude the above part of pattern of racial inequality it is self-evident from the race profile that NU has performed best in closing gaps of racial inequality as compared to Wits and UCT, where racial disparities seems still to be a major problem. Racial attitudes, discrimination inculcated by apartheid system to the educational sector has a major bearing to all the disparities existing in the profiles of the universities to-date.

What explains causes of change between these universities is the fact that NU has reclassification of staff in their workforce profile. That is to say NU moved up their staff from lower tiers to the upper tiers of its different occupational categories. This process
improved racial inequality in NU as compared to Wits and UCT where racial inequalities are
evident in large number. This serves to conclude this part on changes between these
universities, that NU due to this process of reclassification of staff has performed best and
UCT and Wits have failed to close the gap of racial inequality created by the past apartheid
systems in its profiles.

In terms of concluding to the question of why differences between these universities, the
writer of the study does want to say that NU reclassification of staff as the above-mentioned
is what caused the differences amongst two existing universities (UCT and Wits).

Generally speaking the Employment Equity Policy depends upon reporting of Employment
Equity Reports or data by universities. So in terms of the data presented earlier in this chapter
by UCT, NU and Wits, it shows that UCT and Wits have failed to promote gender and race
equality. So it serves to conclude the overall section by saying that NU may or may not have
failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data. The
following section deals with the recruitment and selection gender analysis of UCT, NU and
Wits.

4. RECRUITMENT AT UCT, NU AND WITS

4.1 Gender Analysis
This section is first to define the two contested processes, thus: recruitment and selection.
Secondly, this section will be looked at from three patterns, that is from the general patterns
of gender inequality in each university, what’s changes in the three universities, and
explanation about causes of change will be provided. A conclusion summarising important
points about the three patterns above will be provided.

Recruitment and personnel selection are Human Resource Management issues, and in most
organisation and institutions the two processes are handled by Human Resource Department,
inter alia, with the committee’s of specific institutions or organisations. This two above are
contested processes, in the sense that, when individuals recruit candidates, automatically
there should be the selection committee, which deals specifically with the placement of such
candidates. So for the purpose of the reader, these two processes need to be unpacked as they
both bear different weight of responsibilities and duties or functions. In Human resource
recruitment refers to any organisational activity that is designed to affect (1) the number of
people who apply for them, and or (2) the likelihood that those applying for vacancies will accept positions if offered. The goal of an organisational recruitment program is to ensure that when a vacancy occurs the organisation has a number of reasonably qualified applicants (who would find the job acceptable) to choose from.

The goal of recruiting, in other words, is not simply to generate large numbers of applicants. If these applicants are unqualified, the organisation will incur great expense in personnel selection, but few vacancies will actually be filled. Neither is the goal of a personnel recruitment program to finely discriminate among reasonably qualified applicants. Recruiting new personnel and selecting new personnel are both complex processes. Each task is hard enough to accomplish successfully, even when one is well focused. Organisations explicitly trying to do both at the same time will probably not do either well. Finally, the goal of human resource recruitment is not to trick applicants into accepting a job they would not find acceptable if they knew more about it. The biggest reason new employees quit jobs are unmet expectations. Perhaps the biggest cause of unmet expectations is inflated description (Noe et al; 1994:355).

According to Noe et al (1994: 377) personnel selection is the process by which companies decide who will or will not be allowed into their organisations.

In 2000 in UCT, the recruitment of men dominates the third tier and women are only recruited to some degree in the third tier. (See Appendix A for data verification).

In 2000 in NU, the recruitment of men dominates the third tier and there was no women recruitment at all, in all these three tiers. In 2001 in NU, men recruitment also dominates the third tier and women are recruited to some degree in the third tier (See Appendix A for data verification).

In 2000 in Wits, the recruitment of men dominates the second tier and women are only recruited to some degree in the second tier (See Appendix A for verification of data). Following the analysis above it is propelling to touch first on differences between these universities before showing the changes in them, in light of the latter statement the writer of the study want to say that differences enables a person to see changes and relate those differences and changes from one situation to the other.
The difference between these three universities is that UCT has a large recruitment proportion of women, and low proportion of recruitment of men as compared to NU and Wits. Secondly, UCT and NU have three tiers hence Wits have only two tiers. Lastly, what these three universities shares in common is that men recruitment proportion is higher than women proportion and men dominate the third tier, whilst women recruitment proportion is only to some degree in the third tier.

From the viewpoint of the writer of the study there are reasons, which contributed to these universities or variance or caused universities to differ in terms of gender recruitment. Firstly, one does want to reiterate that the institutional history can have an impact or influence in the paradigm shift of the recruitment process of each and every institution, which can have a negative impact on the institutional gender profile even to-date, and to correct that is not an overnight achievement. It requires proper evaluation and monitoring. For an example, the then UCT Vice Chancellor, Dr. Maphela Ramphele believes that “UCT is a traditionally White, Anglo-Saxon male institution which has to be brought into the new era” (Saturday Argus; 1996:14).

This latter example, justifies the above statement the writer of the study made about the institutional history, again the evidence also lies in the reflections of values of each institution, the values in the tables provided on each institution speaks for themselves. In furtherance of this statement above, about the institutional history it also goes to NU and Wits, as the writer of this study cannot make any point explicitly clear about their history, but it serves to conclude this point by reiterating that values in gender profile justifies each and every institutional history correct, which can cause skewdness in gender representation.

Secondly, if goals and objectives in any recruitment policy of whatever universities are flawed, that is never being revisited and revised to close gender recruitment gaps, there is always a likelihood of those to implement that policies to manoeuvre the policy in order to benefit themselves at the institutional expense. In short the recruitment team can recruit most men and overlook women or versa-versa recruit most women and overlook men.

In most cases these turn recruitment process in any institution to be a buddy-buddy process and end up being a zero-sum game. The end result is that goals and objectives end up not
being achieved, thus of striving for gender balance. This calls for every institution to set up proper, racial and gender base composition of recruitment and selection team.

Lastly, programmes such as Affirmative Action and achieving main aim of Employment Equity Act, of redressing gender imbalances may fail as result of mediocre applicant screening. Therefore it is to every institution to be in line with its screening process of its applicants which corresponds to its mission, vision as well as to set standards in Employment Equity Act, to be able to attract as widest pool of human potential, and be able to achieve the main aim of gender representivity.

So in terms of answering the question of what is change between the three universities, the writer of the study want to say that nothing has changed between these universities in terms of gender profiles, other than to say that the three universities are dominated by men on the third tiers and women concentration is only to some degree in the third tiers of the three universities. Emanating from the above said it becomes difficult to answer or to explain anything about change in these universities with regard to recruitment by gender as there is nothing accomplished to-date to show change other than the differences only in these universities, which are unpacked already in the early versions of this section to the reader.

In summary as well as concluding this section, UCT has a large recruitment proportion of women as compared to NU and Wits, and a low men recruitment proportion as compared to NU and Wits. The latter statement means that NU and Wits shares a common problem that is of having a high recruitment proportion of men. This serves to show that a gender inequality in terms of recruitment and selection in these three universities still exists, and there is no changes accomplish yet to compensate women in the three universities profiles. In short there is gender recruitment imbalance in these three universities. The following section deals with race analysis on recruitment of UCT, NU and Wits.

4.2 Race Analysis
This section deals with the race analysis on recruitment and selection of UCT, NU and Wits. The writer of the study will look at this section from three different patterns. Firstly, it will be looked at from the patterns of racial inequality. Secondly, from the pattern of change in the three universities. Lastly, explanation or hypotheses about causes of change in these three
universities will be looked at or scrutinised. A conclusion on this three above patterns will be provided.

In 2000 in UCT, there were a high recruitment proportion of Whites and Africans. Coloureds recruitment proportion was also high but not as African recruitment proportion. Indians recruitment proportion was relatively low amongst other mentioned above races. In 2001 in UCT, the recruitment proportion of Whites increased which make the proportion higher than in 2000, African recruitment proportion decrease but still African recruitment proportion remains high like in 2000. Coloureds recruitment proportion also decreased and Indians recruitment proportion increased drastically, which made recruitment proportion of Indians looked better as compared to 2000 (See Appendix A for data verification).

In 2000 in NU, there was no recruitment of Africans, Coloureds and Indians, excerpt Whites recruited proportion. In 2001 In NU, the recruitment proportion of Africans increased, Coloureds recruitment proportion remains the same as in 2000. Indians recruitment proportion also changes making a tier with Africans recruitment proportion in 2001. Whites recruitment proportion also increased drastically which made the White recruitment proportion to look better as compared to in 2001 (See Appendix A for data verification).

In 2000 in Wits, there was a high recruitment proportion of Whites and a tire of recruitment proportion of Africans and Indians. Coloureds recruitment proportion was relatively low (See Appendix A for data verification).

The change between these three universities is that NU recruitment proportion improved drastically in 2001 as compared to UCT and Wits. UCT and Wits share a common problem in terms of recruitment to close the widening gap of racial inequalities.

In summary as well as concluding the above section NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals on recruitment by race but it has improved its performance according to its data, and UCT and Wits have failed to achieve its goals on recruitment to straighten up its racial inequalities. It is also noteworthy to mention that NU reclassification of staff process is the reason, which made NU different in performance as compared to UCT and Wits. It serves to conclude that NU may or may not have failed to achieve its recruitment goals, but it has
improved its performance. UCT and Wits have failed to achieve its recruitment goals to address racial and gender inequalities.

5. TRAINING AND STAFF DEVELOPMENT AT UCT, NU AND WITS

5.1 Gender Analysis

This section is first to define the two terms or concepts that is training and development. Secondly, this section will be looked at from three patterns that are from the general patterns of gender inequality in each university, what is change in the three universities and explanations about causes of change will be provided. A conclusion summarising important points about the three patterns above will be provided.

In general, training refers to a planned effort by a company or institution or organisation to facilitate the learning of job-related knowledge, skills, or behaviour by employees. The goal of training efforts is for employees to master the specific knowledge, skill, or ability emphasised in a specific training program and to apply it in their day-to-day activities. For institutions or companies that use high-leverage training to gain a competitive advantage, training can also help to create a learning organisation (Noe et al; 1994:419).

Traditionally, development has focused on management level employees, while line employees received training designed to improve a specific set of skills needed for their current job. With the greater use of work team and greater involvement of employees in all aspects of business, development is becoming increasingly important for all employees. Development refers to the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and behaviours that improve employee’s ability to meet changes in job requirements and client and customer demands. It involves learning that is not necessary related to the employee’s current job. Whereas training usually focuses on employee’s current jobs, development helps prepare them for a variety of jobs in the company and increase their ability to move into jobs that may not yet exist. Why is employee development important? Employee development is a necessary component of a company’s efforts to improve quality, to meet the challenges of global competition and social change, and to incorporate technological advances and changes in work design (Noe et al; 1994:460)
In 2001 to 2002 in UCT, the proportion of men who received training was only to some degree and the proportion of women who received training was high (See Appendix B for verification of data).

In 2000 to 2001 in NU, the proportion of men who received training was relatively high, and the proportion of women who received training was relatively low (See Appendix B for verification of data).

In 1999 in Wits, the proportion of men who received training was high and the proportion of women was relatively low. In 2001 in Wits, the proportion of men who received training decreased and there was an increase in women proportion that received training, which made women proportion to dominate men proportion who received training in the same year. In 2001 in Wits, the proportion of men who received training increased again and the proportion of women who received training decreased. In nutshell, the proportion of men who received training dominates and the proportion of women who received training was only to some degree (See Appendix B for verification of data).

It is important to point out to the reader that before the writer of the study show what is change between the three institutions or universities, the differences in these universities are also important to make mention of. The major difference is that UCT had a large proportion of women who received training than men in successive years as compared to NU and Wits. A relative situation happened in Wits in 2000 but it was not as in UCT. What is change between these three universities is the increase of both men and women in NU who received training as compared to UCT and Wits. In a whole Wits and UCT share a common problem with regard to training and staff development. Lastly, NU has a stable gender profile as compared to UCT and Wits. In explaining causes of change between these three universities, the writer of the study wants to say that the reclassification of staff in NU caused change or drastically change in its profile.

In summary as well as concluding this section, UCT training is predominated by women and men are to some degree promoted. In NU though there are gender inequalities but they are pretty slide, they are not huge like in UCT and Wits. This serves to conclude this part by saying that NU has performed best in achieving its training and staff development goals and UCT and Wits have failed.
In conclusion on the part of what is change and what caused change in the three universities, one daring answer to this is NU reclassification of staff, and it made NU unbeatable. In short NU may or may not have failed to achieve its training and staff development goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data (See Appendix B for verification of data).

5.2 Race Analysis
This section deals with the race analysis on training and staff development of UCT, NU and Wits. The writer of the study will look at this section from three different patterns. Firstly, it will be looked at from the patterns of racial inequality. Secondly, from the pattern of change in the three universities. Lastly, explanations of change or hypotheses about causes of change in these three universities will be looked at or scrutinised. A conclusion on this three above patterns will be provided.

In 2001 in UCT, there were a high proportion of Whites and Coloureds that received training. Africans proportion was low but not as low as Indians, that is to say Indians proportion was the lowest. In 2002 in UCT, there was an increase in Whites proportion that received training, which made the proportion even higher as compared to in 2001. Coloureds proportion decreased but still the percentage was not affected as they were still in a high number. Africans proportion also decreased and Indians proportion increased, this however still stands, as Africans in proportion were still higher than Indians (See Appendix B for verification of data).

In 2002 in NU, there were a high proportion of Whites and Indians that received training. Africans proportion was relatively higher than Coloureds proportion, that is to say Coloureds proportion who received training was the lowest of other races mentioned above (See Appendix B for verification of data).

In 1999 to 2000 in Wits, there was a decrease of Whites proportion that received training, and an increase of Africans, Coloureds and Indians proportions. Though there was an increase in the latter mentioned races it is worth-mentioning that Coloureds proportion is relatively the lowest as compared to Africans and Indians. In short, Africans and Indians form the highest proportions than Coloureds, and Whites though there was a decrease constitutes a majority to other mentioned above races in a whole. In 2001 in Wits, there was a further increase of Whites proportion that received training. Africans, Indians and Coloureds proportion also
decreased. Disregarding the decrease in the latter races, Africans and Indians constitutes larger proportions as compared to Coloureds (See Appendix B for verification of data).

So before touching on what is change between these three universities, it is imperative for the writer of the study to highlight first the differences in these universities to the reader. The difference between these universities is that by race UCT is predominately dominated by Whites and Coloureds, and Africans and Indians are only trained to some degree.

NU is predominately White and Indians, and Africans are fairly trained and their representation is high than in UCT. One interesting feature is that Coloureds are less trained in NU as compared to UCT and versa-versa in UCT Indians are less trained as compared to NU. Wits training and development is predominately Whites and Africans, Coloureds and Indians are fairly trained but Indians profile is relatively higher than of Coloureds. What caused these differences in these universities are the past history as well as the self-conception instilled in these universities by apartheid system and the location of the above universities. Their location justifies the race domination in each university. The point won't be touched in depth as it has been pointed out to the reader in the earlier versions of this chapter, so the writer of the study want to refer the reader to these earlier versions for more details in relation to the above said.

The change in these three universities is not that much with regard to training and staff development, excerpt that UCT shares a common problem with Wits in achieving their training and staff development goals. NU in this regard may or may not have failed to achieve its training and staff development goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data, and its data is relative stable by race as compared to UCT and Wits. NU reclassification of staff is the reason that made these universities to be or look different.

In summary as well as concluding this part above, relatively disparities in terms of race exist in these three universities as shown in detail in the section, but UCT and Wits data portrayed the two universities to have a common problem in achieving its goals and one can say literally that Wits and UCT have failed in achieving training and staff development to balance racial inequalities that are existing in them. And NU looks like it has performed best.
In conclusion Wits and UCT have failed to achieve in training and staff development by race and NU may or may not have failed to achieve its training and staff development goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data.

6. PROMOTION AT UCT, NU AND WITS

6.1 Gender Analysis

This section is an attempt to first define the concept or term promotion. Secondly, this section will be looked at from three patterns that are from the general pattern of gender inequality in each university, what is change in the three universities, and explanation about causes of change will be provided. A conclusion summarising important points about the three patterns will be provided.

In accordance to the writer of the study, promotion can be defined as an upward mobility of staff from lower ranks to top or senior ranks within the echelons of the employment circle. For the process of promotion to be achieved candidates should be promoted based on qualifications and merit, irrespective of race, sex and colour. Planned, monitored, evaluated and well carried out promotion process always promote employees skill development and creativity, and such an organisation or institution is able to progress and grow.

In 2000 in UCT, the promotion of men dominates the third tier and women promotion was only to some degree in the third tier. In 2001 in UCT, the promotion of men also dominates the third tier and women were only promoted to some degree in the third tier (See Appendix C for verification of data).

In 2000 in NU, the promotion of men dominates the third tier and women promotion was only to some degree in the third tier. In 2001 in NU, the promotion of men dominate the third tier and women promotion was again only to some degree in the third tier (See Appendix C for verification of data).

In 1999 in Wits, the promotion of men dominates the second tier and women promotion was to some degree in the second tier. In 2000 in Wits, the promotion of men dominates the second tier and women promotion was to some degree in the second tier. In 2001 in Wits, the promotion of women dominates the second tier and men promotion was to some degree in the second tier (See Appendix C for verification of data).
Following the analysis above the three universities promotion were men dominated, but the difference between them is that in Wits in 2001 women promotion dominated the second tier as compared to in NU and Wits. By gender NU got a stable promotion profile as compared to UCT and Wits. Wits and UCT got or share a common problem in terms of promotion by gender. What is change between the three universities is the rate of promotion amongst these universities that is the stability of promotion profile in NU and instability of promotion profile in UCT and Wits.

The NU reclassification of staff process that is the moving of staff from lower tiers to the upper tiers in different occupational categories is what caused change between these universities in terms of promotion by gender. In short Wits and UCT have failed in achieving their goals that is in terms of promotion by gender in its profiles. On the contrary NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, that is in terms of promotion by gender and bring about a stable promotion by gender in its profile, but it has improved its performance to its data.

In summary as well as concluding this section, UCT promotion is predominated by men and women are only promoted to some degree. NU promotion is also predominated by men and women are only promoted to some degree, but NU promotion profile data is better and stable as compared to UCT and Wits.

Wits promotion in 1999 to 2000 was predominated by men and women were only promoted to some degree, but in 2001 the situation became versa-versa that is the promotion of women was dominating men's profile and this serves to say men were promoted to some degree in 2001. This is what marked the difference between these three universities. It serves to conclude this part on general pattern of gender, that Wits and UCT have failed to achieve its goals in terms of bring about promotion which addresses gender inequalities in its profile data. On contrary the reclassification process in NU made it to have performed best as compared to UCT and Wits. In short NU has improved its performance according to its data and UCT and Wits have failed in achieving gender balance. The change between the three universities is the stability of promotion between them by gender, as a result this gives NU credit to look like it has performed best and Wits and UCT to have failed.
In conclusion the looks in the profile data of the three universities is the prima-facie evidence, that NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data, and Wits and UCT have failed to achieve its goals given their performances in their data. The reclassification of staff process in NU is the answer, which explains causes of change between these three universities. And because of reclassification of staff NU looks like it has performed best as compared to Wits and UCT, according to its data. In conclusion NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data as compared to Wits and UCT.

6.2 Race Analysis
This section deals with the race analysis on promotion of staff of UCT, NU and Wits. The writer of the study will look at this section from three different patterns. Firstly, it will be looked at from the patterns of racial inequality. Secondly, from the pattern of change in the three universities. Lastly, explanation of change or hypotheses about causes of change in these three universities will be looked at or scrutinised. A conclusion on this three above patterns will be provided.

In 2001 in UCT, there was a high proportion of Whites who were promoted and there was a tire in the proportion of Africans and Coloureds who were promoted. Indians who were promoted were relatively low as compared to the already unpacked races above. In 2002 in UCT, there was a decrease in Whites proportion that was promoted, drastically changing the Whites proportion in 2002. Coloureds proportion of promotion also increased. Africans and Indians proportion also decreased. Though there was a decrease of Africans and Indians but it stand to mention that Whites and Coloureds proportion constitutes the high number in UCT as compared to Africans and Indians, but Africans proportions is higher than Indians proportion at UCT (See Appendix C for verification of data).

In 2000 in NU, there were a high proportion of Whites and Indians who were promoted. Africans proportion was relatively low and there was no Coloureds promotion at all. In 2001 in NU, there was a decrease in Whites proportion that was promoted, changing the Whites proportion in 2002. Indians proportion of promotion also increased, changing the Indians proportion slightly. And there was no promotion for Africans and Coloureds that took place (See Appendix C for verification of data).
In 1999 in Wits, there were a high proportion of Whites and Africans who were promoted. There was a slight Indians promotion and there was no promotion for Coloureds at all. In 2000 in Wits, there was an increase in the proportion of Whites who were promoted, changing the Whites proportion in 2000, and Coloureds promotion proportion also increased as compared to nothing at all in 1999. Africans promotion proportion decreased, making a slight change in proportion as compared to in 1999. And there was no Indians promotion at all in 2000. In 2001 in Wits, there was a decrease in the proportion of Whites who were promoted, changing the White proportion in 2001. Indians promotion proportion also changed in 2001, making the reflection in proportion better as compared to nothing in 2000, and there was a tire of both Africans and Coloureds promotion proportion in 2001 (See Appendix C for verification of data).

It is important to highlight to the reader the differences between these universities as they also form a formidable part of helping to see changes in the three universities. Racially the difference between the three universities is that UCT promotion is dominated by Whites and Coloureds, and Africans and Indians promotion is only to some degree. Whites dominate NU promotion and Indians and Africans are fairly promoted and Coloureds got no representation at all in terms of promotion in NU. An interesting feature between UCT and NU is that UCT got more Coloureds and NU more Indians, and Coloureds representation is less in NU and more in UCT, versa-versa the statement. Wits is dominated by Whites and it has a fairly representation in terms of promotion in its profile data of Africans, Coloureds and Indians. The change between the three universities is the stability of promotion between them by race, as a result this gives NU credit to look like it has performed best and Wits and UCT to have failed.

In conclusion the looks in the profile data of the three universities is the prima-facie evidence, that NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data, and Wits and UCT have failed to achieve its goals given their performance in their data. The reclassification of staff process in NU is the answer, which explains causes of change between these three universities. And because of reclassification of staff NU looks like it has performed best as compared to Wits and UCT, according to its data. In conclusion NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals that are by addressing racial inequalities in terms of promotion but it has improved its performance according to its data as compared to Wits and UCT.
In summary, we have learned that the purpose in Chapter Five is that it set to place the employment equity performance of UCT in comparative context and to explore the limitations of equity requirements. The focus of analysis will be only on three occupational categories of academic staff, that is; i) “Senate and Council”; ii) “Professionals” and iii) “Technician / Associate institutions.” Analysis focus will be specifically on three institutions UCT, NU and Wits. The latter institutions share a history of relative advantage within the higher education system, while each set within its own distinctive regional context.

Besides, we have learned that this chapter uses a comparative analysis approach, and also use Employment Equity data from the three institutions to weigh and gauge their Affirmative Action strategies to-date and to see whether they have or have not achieved Employment Equity targets and why. Focus will be chiefly on the following issues: 1) Overall Workforce Profile”; 2) “Recruitment and Selection”; 3) Training and Staff Development” and 4) “Promotion” (See details in 86-87 of this study).

Furthermore, we have not learned that according to Lijphart (1971:683) the comparative method is definitely a method, and not just a convenient term vaguely symbolising the focus of neither one’s research interests, nor it is a special set of substantive concerns. Shamucl N. Eisenstadt cited in (Lijphart; 1971:683) definition of the comparative approach in social research; states that the term does not “properly designate a special method… but rather a special focus on cross-societal, institutional, or macro societal aspects of societies and social analysis.” We also learned that the comparative method should perform an indispensable role in an evaluative study such as this. The comparative method is a relevant method to this study as it enables the writer of this study to explore relevant similarities and differences between institutions. The comparative method is important here because it should help generate hypotheses for empirical social science research.

Additionally, we have learned that there are numerous limitations in this study collection of data (See much details of these limitations in 87-89 of this study). Moreover, we have learned that the focus of analysis will be on every institution mentioned above three occupational categories of academic staff, that is: Senate and Council, 2) Professional and 3) Technicians / Associate Professionals. Also, have learned that there is a section, which deals with the percentages of gender profiles of UCT, NU and Wits. This will be broken down into
percentages of both men women academic staff as reflected in the profile data extracted from the Employment Equity Reports of these three institutions submitted to the Department of Labour in terms of their various submission dates and years to the above Department. After the profiles of every institution, the overall gender analysis section will follow which includes the entire discussions centred on data of profiles. The latter process will be repeated throughout the chapter for strategies such as recruitment and selection; training and staff development and promotion. We also learned that there is a section, which deals with the gender analysis of UCT, NU and Wits. This section is been looked at from three different patterns, that is from the general patterns of gender inequality, from the pattern of why differences between the three institutions. We also learned that in all the three institution by gender men proportions dominate the first and the second tiers and women are only concentrated to some degree in the third tiers.

Furthermore, we have learned from the pattern of change in the three institutions that UCT have a larger proportion of men as compared to NU and Wits in the second tier throughout the years of the earlier data extracted from the Employment Equity Reports presented to the reader when this chapter starts. We also learned that UCT has more stable gender proportion as compared to NU and Wits.

Also, from the pattern of why differences between the three institutions we have learned that the differences are manifold (Please refer to these differences between the three institutions in 97-98 in this study). Additionally, we have learned that there is a section, which deals with the race profiles of UCT, NU and Wits. This section is broken down into percentages of both men and women, by race of academic staff as reflected in the profile data extracted from the Employment Equity Reports of these three institutions submitted to the Department of Labour in terms of their various submission dates and years to the above Department. After the profiles of every institution, the overall race analysis section will follow which includes the entire discussions centred on the data of profile extracted from these three institutions Employment Equity Reports and the broken down data into percentages. We also learned that there is a section, which deals with race analysis of UCT, NU and Wits. This section is looked at from three different patterns that are from the pattern of racial inequality, from the patterns, from the pattern of change in the three institutions and lastly, explanation or hypotheses about causes of change in these three institutions is being looked at or scrutinised.
A conclusion on this three above patterns and conclusion on data and employment equity policy is being provided.

Furthermore, from the pattern of racial inequality we have learned that there is race stability in UCT and Wits, except at NU. We also learned that an interesting and fascinating overall picture about these three institutions is in their reflections of demographic profiles. Firstly, UCT profile reflection is highly Coloured and White, both males and females, and African and Indian reflection in UCT profile, both males and females, is an infinitesimally percentage. Secondly, NU profile is highly Indian and White, both males and females, and in NU, African males and females profile is higher than in UCT and is constantly increasing by the year. What’s different though in NU profile is that the reflection of Coloureds both males and females is in small number and where there is change, it is not that much high than of Africans. Lastly, Wits profile reflection is highly African and White, both males and females, and Indian females and males comes third in the Wits profile reflecting at least a better number than Coloured, both males and females in Wits. The latter profile however is an interesting feature that NU and Wits shares in their profiles that is Coloureds are less represented in NU and Wits profile, other than in UCT where they form part of UCT large profile number. We also learned that there reasons behind these skewedness of profiles amongst universities and they hinges or are far traced behind the history of where these universities are located as well as the self-conception instilled by the apartheid legacy in tertiary institution. These latter reasons are presented in much detail in this section of this chapter and they will not be repeated again in the summary (See 101-102 in study for more details).

Besides, from the pattern of change in the three institutions we have learned that from the data on race nothing drastically has changed except that UCT and Wits are faced with a common problem of race inequalities and NU looks like it has performed best in addressing its race inequalities more than UCT and Wits did.

Finally, we have learned that the Employment Equity Policy rendered by Department of Labour depends upon reporting of Employment Equity Reports data by universities and other institutions in the private sector as well. The call made by the above mentioned Department for institutions to submit annually reports of the workforce profiles to show rigorous progress they made to compensate for the past injustices by the apartheid government put a stringent
or an institutions turn process to be a number game or a blacker-than-thou-mentality. This serves to mean institutions increase the number of designated groups in their workforce profile to give the impression that they are best or they constantly cope up with the rules and standards of the Department of Labour. We also learned that what explains cause of change between these universities is the fact that NU had reclassified staff in their workforce profile. That is to say it moved up their staff from lower tiers to the upper tiers of different occupational categories. This process improved racial inequality in NU as compared to Wits and UCT where racial inequality are evident still in large number. This serves to say that NU due to its process of reclassification has performed best and Wits and UCT have failed to close the gap of racial inequality.

In conclusion to this section (Workforce Profile) we learned that certain racial groups dominate in each of the university, and history bears the brunt or justify the means of racial inequalities in these universities. UCT profile is highly dominated by Coloureds and Whites, both males and females, and Africans and Indians, both males and females are only in a small number. NU profile is highly dominated by Indians and Whites, both males and females, and African males and females profile is higher than UCT and is constantly increasing by the year. What’s different though in NU profile is that the reflection of Coloureds both males and females is in a small number and where there is change, it is not that much high than of Africans. Wits profile is highly dominated by Africans and Whites, both males and females, and Indian females and males come third in the Wits profile reflecting at least a better number than Coloureds, both males and females in Wits. From the pattern of racial inequality it is self-evident that NU has performed best in closing gaps of racial inequality as compared to Wits and UCT. What explains cause of change between these universities is the fact that NU had reclassification of staff in its workforce profile. That is to say NU moved up their staff from lower tiers to the upper tiers of different occupational categories. The Employment Equity Policy Reports depends upon reporting of Employment Equity Reports or data by universities. So in terms of the data presented earlier in this chapter by UCT, NU and Wits, it shows that UCT and Wits have failed to promote gender and race equality. It serves to say NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data.

Also, we have learned from gender analysis on recruitment and selection that recruitment and personnel selection are Human Resource Management issues, in most organisations and
institutions the two processes are handled by Human Resource Department, inter-alia, with the committees of specific institutions and organisations. We also learned that in Human Resource recruitment refers to any organisation activity that is designed to affect (1) the number of people who apply for them, and or (2) the likelihood that those applying for vacancies will accept positions if offered. We also learned that the goal of an organisational recruitment program is to ensure that when a vacancy occurs the organisation has a number of reasonably qualified applicants (who would find the job acceptable) to choose from. We also learned that the goal of recruiting is not simply to generate large numbers of applicants, and also that the goal of human resource recruitment is not to trick applicants into accepting a job they would not find acceptable if they know more about. We also learned that personnel selection is the process by which companies decide who will or will not be allowed into their organisations.

Finally, we have learned that in 2000 in UCT, the recruitment of men dominates the third tier and there was no women recruitment at all, in all these three tiers. We also learned that in 2001 in NU, men recruitment dominate the third tier. We also learned that the recruitment of men dominates the second tier and women are only recruited to some degree in the second tier. We learned that the difference between these three universities is that UCT has a large recruitment proportion of women, and low proportion of recruitment of men as compared to NU and Wits. We also learned that what these three universities shares in common is that men recruitment proportion is higher than women proportion and men dominate the third tier, whilst women recruitment proportion is only to some degree in the third tier. Finally we have learned that values in gender profile justify each and every institutional history correct, which can cause skewdness in representation.

In conclusion to gender analysis on recruitment we have learned that UCT has a larger proportion of women as compared to NU and Wits, and a low men recruitment proportion as compared to NU and Wits. The latter statement means that NU and Wits shares a common problem that is of having a high recruitment proportion. This serves to show that gender inequalities in terms of recruitment and selection in these three universities still exist, and there is no changes accomplished yet to compensate women in the three universities profiles.

Besides, we have learned that by race in 2000 in UCT, there were a high recruitment proportion of Whites and Africans. Coloureds recruitment proportion was also high but not
like Africans recruitment proportion. Indians recruitment proportion was relatively low amongst other mentioned above races. We also learned that in 2001 in UCT, the recruitment proportion of Whites increased which make the proportion higher than in 2000. African recruitment proportion remains high like in 2000. Coloureds recruitment proportion also decreased, and Indians recruitment proportion increased drastically, which made recruitment proportion of Indians looked better as compared to in 2000.

Furthermore, we have learned that in 2000 in NU there was no recruitment of Africans, Coloureds and Indians excerpt Whites recruitment proportion. We also learned also learned that in 2001 in NU, the recruitment proportion of Africans increased, Coloureds recruitment proportion remains the same in 2000. Indians recruitment proportion also changes making a tier with Africans recruitment proportion in 2001. White’s recruitment proportion also increased drastically which made the White recruitment proportion to look better as compared to in 2001. Additionally, we have learned that in 2001 in Wits, there was high recruitment proportion of Whites and a tire of recruitment proportion of Whites and a tire of recruitment proportion of Africans and Indians. Coloureds recruitment proportion was relatively low. Finally we also learned that what is changed between these three universities is that NU recruitment proportion improved drastically in 2001 as compared to UCT and Wits. UCT and Wits share a common problem in terms of recruitment to close the widening gap on racial inequalities.

In conclusion to race analysis on recruitment we have learned that NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals on recruitment by race, but it has improved its performance according to its data, and UCT and Wits have failed to achieve its goals on recruitment to straighten up its racial inequalities.

Also we have learned from the gender analysis on training that training refers to planned effort by a company or institution or organisation to facilitate the learning of job-related knowledge, skills, or behaviour by employees. We also learned that the goal of training efforts is for employees to master the specific knowledge, skills, or ability emphasised in a specific training and to apply it in their day-to-day activities. We also learned that development refers to the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and behaviours that improve employee’s ability to meet changes in job requirements and client and customer demands. We also learned component of a company’s efforts to improve quality, to meet the challenges of
global competition and social change, and to incorporate technological advances and changes in work design (Noe et al; 1994: 460).

Furthermore, we have learned that in 2001 to 2002 in UCT, the proportion of men who received training was only to some degree and the proportion of women who received training was high. Also we have learned that in 2000 to 2001 in NU, the proportion of men who received training was relatively high, and the proportion of women who received training was relatively low. Moreover, we learned that in 1999 in Wits, the proportion of men who received training was high and the proportion of women was relatively low. We also learned that in 2001 in Wits, the proportion of men who received training decreased and there was an increase in women proportion that received training, which made women proportion to dominate men proportion who received training in the same year. Still, we learned that in 2001 in Wits, the proportion of men who received training increased again and the proportion of women who received training decreased.

Finally, we have learned that what is change between these three universities is the increase of both men and women in NU who received training as compared to UCT and Wits. In a whole Wits and UCT share a common problem with regard to training and staff development. Lastly, NU has a stable gender profile as compared to UCT and Wits. We also learned that the reclassification of staff in NU caused change in between UCT and Wits.

In conclusion to the gender analysis, UCT training is predominated by women and men are to some degree promoted. NU though there is gender inequalities but they are pretty slide, they are not huge like in UCT and Wits. We also learned that what change is and what caused change in the three universities, is the reclassification of staff. In short NU may or may not have failed to achieve its training and staff development goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data.

Moreover, we learned that in 2001 in UCT, there were a high proportion of Whites and Coloureds that received training. Africans proportion was low but not as low as Indians, that is to say Indians proportion was the lowest. We also learned that in 2002 in UCT, there was an increase in Whites proportion that received training, which made the proportion even higher as compared to in 2001. Coloureds proportion decreased but still the percentage was not affected as they were still in a high number. Africans proportion also decreased and
Indians proportion were still higher than Indians. Besides, we learned that in 2002 in NU, there were a high proportion of Whites and Indians that received training. Africans proportion was relating higher than Coloureds proportion, that is to say Coloureds proportion who received training was the lowest of other races. Also we learned that in 1999 to 2000 in Wits, there was a decrease of Whites proportion that received training, and an increase of Africans, Coloureds and Indians proportions. Though there was an increase in the latter mentioned races it is worth-mentioning that Coloureds proportion is relatively the lowest as compared to Africans and Indians. Still, we have learned that in 2001 in Wits, there was a further increase of Whites proportion that received training. Africans, Indians and Coloureds proportion also decreased. Disregarding the decrease in the latter races, Africans and Indians constitutes larger proportion as compared to Coloureds.

Finally, we have also learned that what caused these differences in these universities is the past history as well as the self-conception instilled in these universities by apartheid system and the location of the above universities. Their location justifies the race domination in each university (See p104-102 in this study). Also, we learned that the change in these three universities is not much with regard to training and staff development, excerpt that UCT shares a common problem with Wits in achieving their training and staff development goals. NU in this regard may or may not have failed to achieve its training and staff development goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data.

In conclusion to race analysis, we have learned that Wits and UCT have failed to achieve in training and staff development by race and NU may or may not have failed to achieve its training and staff goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data.

Furthermore, we have learned from gender analysis on promotion that in 2000 in UCT, the promotions of men dominate the third tier and women promotion was only to some degree in the third tier. We also learned that in 2001 in UCT, the promotion of men also dominates the third tier and women were only promoted to some degree in third tier. Also, we have learned that in 2000 in NU, the promotion of men dominate the third tier. Additionally, we have learned that in 2001 in NU, the promotion of men dominate the third tier and women promotion was again only to some degree in third tier. Besides, we have learned that in 1999 in Wits, the promotion of men dominates the second tier and women promotion was to some degree in the second tier. Still, we have learned that in 2000 in Wits, the promotion of men...
dominates the second tier and women promotion was to some degree in the second tier. Additionally, we have learned that in 2001 in Wits, the promotion of women dominates the second tier and men promotion was to some degree in the second tier. Finally, we have learned that what is change between the three universities is the rate of promotion amongst these universities that is the stability of promotion profile in NU and instability of promotion profile in UCT and Wits. Finally, we have learned that NU reclassification of staff process is the cause of change between UCT and Wits.

In conclusion we have learned that by gender NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data, and Wits and UCT have failed to achieve its goals given their performance in their data.

Also, we have learned from the race analysis on promotion that in 2001 in UCT, there was a high proportion of Whites who were promoted and there was a tire in the promotion of Africans and Coloureds who were promoted. Indians who were promoted were relatively low as compared to the already unpacked race. Additionally we have learned that in 2002 in UCT, there was a decrease in Whites proportion that was promoted, drastically changing the Whites proportion in 2002. Coloureds proportion of promotion also increased. Africans and Indians proportion also decreased. Though there was a decrease of Africans and Indians but it stand to mention that Whites and Coloureds proportion constitutes the high number in UCT as compared to Africans and Indians, but Africans proportion is higher than Indians proportion at UCT. We also learned that in 2000 in NU, there were a high proportion of whites and Indians who were promoted. Africans proportion was relatively low and there was no Coloureds promotion at all. We also learned that in 2001 in NU that there was decrease in Whites proportion that was promoted, changing the Whites proportion in 2001. Indians promotion also changes in 2001, making the reflection in proportion better as compared to nothing in 2000, and there was a tire of both Africans and Coloureds promotion proportion in 2001.

Finally, we have learned that in 2000 in Wits, there was an increase in proportion of Whites who were promoted, changing the White proportion in 2000, and Coloureds promotion proportion also increased as compared to no increase at all in 1999. Africans promotion proportion decreased, making a slight change in proportion as compared to in 1999. There was no Indians promotion at all in 2000. We also learned that in 2001 in Wits, there was a
decrease in the proportion of Whites who were promoted, changing the Whites proportion in 2001. Indians promotion proportion also changed in 2001, making the reflection in proportion better as compared to nothing in 2000, and there was a tire of both Africans and Coloureds promotion in 2001. We also learned that what is change between the three universities is the stability of promotion between them by race, as a result this gives NU credit to look like it has performed best and Wits and UCT to have failed. We also learned that what causes change in these three universities is the reclassification of staff process in NU.

In conclusion to race analysis we have learned that NU may or may not failed to achieve their goal that is by addressing racial inequalities in terms of promotion but it has improved its performance according to its data as compared to Wits and UCT.

The significance of chapter five is that comparative method enables the person or writer involved in research to explore similarities and differences between institutions. Lastly, the comparative method is important because it helps generate hypotheses for empirical social science research.

One of the key or central finding of chapter five is that in overall the reclassification process of NU in its workforce profile, the recruitment and selection, training and staff development and promotion had made NU to out perform UCT and Wits. Due to the reclassification process it serves to say Wits and UCT have failed to promote gender and race equality (Employment Equity), and NU may or may not have failed to achieve its goals, but it has improved its performance according to its data.

In conclusion to Chapter Five, the purpose of the chapter has been to set to establish the employment equity performance of UCT in comparative context and to explore the limitations of equity reporting requirements. The focus of analysis has been on three occupational categories of academic staff, that is; i) “Senate and Council”; ii) “Professionals” and iii) “Technicians / Associate Professionals.” Analysis focused on three institutions: UCT, NU and Wits. These institutions share a history of relative advantage within the higher education system, while each has developed within its own distinctive regional context. Comparative analysis of employment equity data from the three institutions has been used to assess their Affirmative Action strategies and to see whether they have or have not achieved Employment Equity targets and why. Focus has been chiefly on the following issues: 1)
“Overall Workforce Profile;” 2) “Recruitment and Selection;” 3) Training and Staff Development” and 4) “Promotion.” Data collection was relatively straightforward because of the requirements of Employment Equity Legislation.

The limitations were numerous. Firstly, data was not freely available, making it very difficult to track down information. Much of the data was obtained by personal communication with Employment Equity managers. Secondly, this study’s focus has been on Employment Equity performance from 1995 to 2002, thus an 8 years period. Yet universities such as NU and Wits do not have data dating back to 1995 on the areas of concern explored in this chapter. So it was difficult to get satisfactory data amongst these institutions on the previously mentioned areas of concern to be explored in this chapter. Thirdly, time frames recommended by Department of Labour to institutions for submission of their annual Employment Equity Reports create a problem. Some universities had been given time frames ranging from 5 to 6 months and others a year. This made the availability of genuinely comparable data a problem throughout the study. Fourthly, data is in some cases available only for very recent years, proving insufficient to identify trends. Trends will not become apparent over periods of three or four years. Lastly, and most importantly, the Department of Labour has set rules and standards for tertiary institutions and private sector institutions to report annually the progress made to the profiles of their employee. This process, brought about by the Department of Labour, has put intense pressure on various institutions in public and private sectors to make this reporting process a numbers game.

The Employment Equity Policy rendered by Department of Labour depends upon reporting of Employment Equity Reports data by universities and other institutions in the private sector as well. The call made by the Department for institutions to submit annually reports of their workforce profiles, to show rigorous progress they made to compensate for the past injustices by the apartheid government, put a stringent or even an insurmountable pressure on institutions. As a result institutions turned to a number game or a blacker-than-thou-mentality. Institutions are forced to increase the number of designated groups in their workforce profile, to give the impression that they are making progress. In the reclassification process undertaken by NU in its workforce profile, for example, NU seemed out perform UCT and Wits. Due to its reclassification of staff, it made seem that Wits and UCT have failed to promote gender and race equality to the same degree. We cannot tell from the available data and the same data that is available to Department of Labour, whether NU has
really performed better than Wits and UCT. What NU data does indicate, however, is that once an indicator is used for monitoring and assessing progress, it is likely to be deformed or perverted in consequence. This finding is of great significance in designing monitoring mechanisms for affirmative action policies.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

Based on the conclusions from chapter one to five, I, want to conclude that interpretations of Affirmative Action and Employment Equity have largely been drawn from overseas, especially from the US. But the US context is quite different. The US has a sound economy and infrastructure, and its government therefore possesses the resources and wealth with which to advance equity. South Africa, by contrast, has an unstable economy, characterised by poverty and unemployment and vulnerable to globalisation. South Africa’s black people experienced discrimination as a group and not as individuals. Redress requires an interventionist strategy by the state (not the minimalist one associated with, for example, Nozick). UCT academics, and the institution itself, are often self-consciously ‘liberal.’ UCT academics tend to appeal to understandings of fairness or justice that make sense in US, or other such contexts. UCT as an institution is determined to change its institutional culture, but many of its academic staff are complacent, or perhaps confused by their ‘Liberal’ intellectual inheritance. Chapters one to four have shown how difficult it has been even to conceptualise an Affirmative Action or Employment Equity strategy to suit South African conditions. Chapter five demonstrated the problems with operationalising such a strategy. My most important finding was that the data used in monitoring Employment Equity performance cannot be a reliable guide to real achievements. This indicates that it is not merely the contested nature of underlying conceptions of equity and fairness that are obstructing progress in employment equity policy. The problems are common to all South African higher education institution, and UCT should not therefore be singled out for its poor performance to date.

The above leads one to answer the research question as posed earlier in the study: “How successful has UCT been in achieving employment equity and why? Following the above highlighted points, one can say without any reasonable doubt that between 1993 and 1999, UCT was attempting to progress towards achieving Employment Equity and was addressing Affirmative Action. However, the data used in monitoring Employment Equity performance cannot be a reliable guide to real achievements of employment equity. The implications of this study are twofold. Firstly, the mechanisms of implementation (Employment Equity) must
also be rethought by the Department of Labour in order to make them as fair and just as possible in reporting employment equity. The problems identified are common to all South African higher education institutions, and UCT should not therefore be singled out for its poor performance to date. Secondly, we cannot tell from the available data what the comparative performance of the institutions has been. Whether NU has really performed better than Wits and UCT. Once an indicator is used for monitoring and assessing progress, it is likely to be deformed or perverted in consequence. This finding is of great significance for affirmative action policies.
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NU, Training and Staff Development (http://www.nu.ac.za / department / default. Asp? Dept = standdund
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Wits 2001, Employment Equity Report (submitted to the Department of Labour)

Wits 2002, Employment Equity Report (submitted to the Department of Labour)
Appendix A

2. Recruitment And Selection Procedures At UCT, NU And Wits

Recruitment

Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 months) from 1/01/2000 to 31/12/2000

UCT

Table 6.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
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</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>C</td>
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<tr>
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Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001
Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 months) from 1/01/2001 to 31/12/2001

Table 6.5

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<th>Occupational Categories</th>
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<tr>
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Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2002)

Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 months) from 01 May 1999 to 30 April 2000

NU

Table 6.6

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<th>Occupational Categories</th>
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<td>Senior management</td>
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Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000)
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Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000

Reporting period of workforce movement: From January 2000 to 31 December 2000

Wits

Table 6.8

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<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
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Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 31 December 2000
Gender Profiles

UCT

Table 6.9

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<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>68.42%</td>
<td>13.58%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>68.18%</td>
<td>31.82%</td>
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(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001 and 2002)

NU

Table 7

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
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<td>2001</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)

Wits

Table 7.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)
Race Profile

UCT

Table 7.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>19.30%</td>
<td>12.28%</td>
<td>3.51%</td>
<td>64.91%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>12.12%</td>
<td>10.61%</td>
<td>12.12%</td>
<td>57.58%</td>
<td>92.43%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001 and 2002)

NU

Table 7.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>36.36%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>36.36%</td>
<td>27.27%</td>
<td>99.99%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)

Wits

Table 7.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>12.50%</td>
<td>3.13%</td>
<td>12.50%</td>
<td>71.88%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 2000 and 2002)
3. Training And Staff Development At UCT, NU And Wits

Training

Reporting period of the total number of people who received training (past 12 months): From 1/01/2000 to 31/12/2000

UCT

Table 7.5

| Occupational Levels | MALE | | | | | FEMALE | | | | |
|---------------------|------|---|---|---|---|------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Senate and Council  | A    | C | I | W | T | A | C | I | W | T | Total |
|                     | 0    | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Professional        | 1    | 2 | 1 | 10 | 14 | 2 | 6 | 0 | 9 | 17 | 31 |
| Technicians and Associate Professionals | 2 | 8 | 0 | 14 | 24 | 7 | 10 | 1 | 29 | 47 | 71 |
| Sub-Total           | 3    | 10 | 1 | 24 | 38 | 9 | 16 | 1 | 38 | 64 | 102 |

Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001

Table 7.6

| Occupational Levels | MALE | | | | | FEMALE | | | | |
|---------------------|------|---|---|---|---|------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Senate and Council  | A    | C | I | W | T | A | C | I | W | T | Total |
|                     | 2    | 0 | 1 | 11 | 14 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 6 | 20 |
| Professional        | 15   | 20 | 8 | 174 | 217 | 11 | 21 | 3 | 127 | 162 | 379 |
| Technicians and Associate Professionals | 13 | 27 | 1 | 40 | 81 | 18 | 42 | 13 | 107 | 180 | 261 |
| Sub-Total           | 30   | 47 | 10 | 225 | 312 | 30 | 63 | 16 | 239 | 348 | 660 |

Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2002
Reporting period of the total number of people who received training (past 12 months): From 1/06/2000 to 1/06/2000

NU

### Table 7.7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>596</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000

### Table 7.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001
Reporting period of the total number of people who received training (past 12 months): From 1 January 1999 to 31 December 1999

Wits

**Table 7.9**

| Occupational Categories | MALE | | | | | FEMALE | | | | |
|-------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--| |
|                         | A  | C  | I  | W  | T  | A  | C  | I  | W  | T  | Total |
| Senate and Council      | 4  | 2  | 3  | 27 | 36 | 6  | 3  | 3  | 24 | 36 | 72   |
| Professional            | 55 | 6  | 24 | 274| 364| 38 | 3  | 15 | 251| 307| 671  |
| Technicians and Associate Professionals | 31 | 2  | 3  | 31 | 67 | 11 | 2  | 5  | 37 | 57 | 124  |
| Sub-Total               | 90 | 10 | 30 | 337| 467| 55 | 8  | 23 | 312| 398| 865  |

Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002)

Reporting period of the total number of people who received training (past 12 months): From 1 January 2000 to 31 December 2000

**Table 8**

| Occupational Categories | MALE | | | | | FEMALE | | | | |
|-------------------------|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--| |
|                         | A  | C  | I  | W  | T  | A  | C  | I  | W  | T  | Total |
| Senate and Council      | 13 | 2  | 6  | 32 | 53 | 13 | 7  | 6  | 29 | 55 | 108  |
| Professional            | 67 | 6  | 27 | 252| 352| 61 | 6  | 25 | 225| 317| 669  |
| Technicians and Associate Professionals | 19 | 1  | 3  | 24 | 47 | 16 | 62 | 40 | 32 | 150| 197  |
| Sub-Total               | 99 | 9  | 36 | 308| 452| 90 | 75 | 71 | 286| 522| 974  |

Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002)
Reporting period of the total number of people who received training (past 12 months): From 1 January 2001 to 31 December 2001

**Table 8.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Categories and Senate</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>774</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>774</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technicians and Associate Professionals</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>399</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>774</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002
Gender Profile

**UCT**

**Table 8.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>37.25%</td>
<td>62.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>47.27%</td>
<td>52.73%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour 1 October 2001 and 2002)

**NU**

**Table 8.3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>44.37%</td>
<td>38.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>55.56%</td>
<td>44.44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)

**Wits**

**Table 8.4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>53.99%</td>
<td>46.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>46.41%</td>
<td>53.59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>51.55%</td>
<td>48.45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Report 2000 to 2002)
Race Profile

UCT

Table 8.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>11.76%</td>
<td>25.49%</td>
<td>1.96%</td>
<td>60.78%</td>
<td>99.99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>9.09%</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
<td>3.94%</td>
<td>70.30%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report on 1 October 2001 and 2002)

NU

Table 8.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>12.98%</td>
<td>0.67%</td>
<td>13.27%</td>
<td>73.08%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>7.41%</td>
<td>3.70%</td>
<td>22.22%</td>
<td>66.67%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)

Wits

Table 8.7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>16.76%</td>
<td>2.08%</td>
<td>4.39%</td>
<td>75.03%</td>
<td>98.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>19.40%</td>
<td>8.62%</td>
<td>10.99%</td>
<td>60.99%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>20.41%</td>
<td>2.33%</td>
<td>7.62%</td>
<td>69.64%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Report 2000 and 2002)
4. Promotion At UCT, NU And Wits

Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 months): From: 1/10/2000 to 31/12/2000

Promotion

UCT

Table 8.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professionals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001)
Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 month): From 1/01/2001 to 31/12/2001

Table 8.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
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<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2002

Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 months): From 1 May 1999 to 30 April 2000

NU

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>32</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000)
Reporting period for workforce movement (past 12 months): From 30 April 2000 to 1 May 2001

Table 9.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001)

Reporting period for workforce movement: From 1 January 1999 to 31 December 1999

Wits

Table 9.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>W</td>
<td>T</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002)
Reporting period for workforce movement: From 1 January 2000 to 31 December 2000

### Table 9.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002

Reporting period for workforce movement: From 1 January 2001 to 31 December 2001

### Table 9.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Levels</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate and Council</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and Associate Professionals</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002
Gender Profile

UCT

Table 9.5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>56.67%</td>
<td>36.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>54.43%</td>
<td>45.57%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001 and 2002)

NU

Table 9.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>72.73%</td>
<td>27.27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>71.43%</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)

Wits

Table 9.7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of Men</th>
<th>% of Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>69.23%</td>
<td>30.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>46.67%</td>
<td>53.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Progress Reports 2000 to 2002)
Race Profile

UCT

Table 9.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>%of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>6.67%</td>
<td>6.67%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>5.06%</td>
<td>17.72%</td>
<td>2.53%</td>
<td>2.53%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from UCT Employment Equity Reports submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 October 2001 and 2002)

NU

Table 9.9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2.27%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>15.91%</td>
<td>81.82%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
<td>78.57%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from NU Employment Equity Report submitted to the Department of Labour on 1 June 2000 and 1 October 2001)

Wits

Table 10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>% of African</th>
<th>% of Coloured</th>
<th>% of Indian</th>
<th>% of White</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
<td>87.50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2.56%</td>
<td>5.13%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>92.31%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>99.99%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Adapted from Wits Employment Equity Plan and Employment Equity Reports 2000 to 2002).