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**AN INVESTIGATION INTO FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE EMPLOYEES TO SUPPORT
DIVERSITY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKPLACE**

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degree of Masters in Organisational Psychology

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DECLARATION

Hereby I, Pumla Hako, declare that this study 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, cited and referenced.

Signature_____

Date_____

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate some of the factors that are associated with support of diversity in the South African workplace. Three particular factors were considered: employees' race and gender and the degree to which employees felt their socio-emotional needs for acceptance or empowerment had been addressed. The importance of satisfying individuals' socio-emotional needs for them to be willing to engage with members of other groups is highlighted in Shnabel and Nadler's (2008) Needs-Based Model of Reconciliation (NBMR), which states that groups are only willing to reconcile once their socio-emotional needs have been addressed. Furthermore, the model specifies that these needs are different for members of groups who were victims in a conflict situation compared to those who belong to the perpetrating group. While victims have a need for empowerment in order to be seen as equal players in society, perpetrators want to feel accepted in society and thus have a need for acceptance. Based on the literature reviewed the study's first hypothesis stated that previously disadvantaged groups would place more value on diversity than previously advantaged groups and that women would value diversity more than men. The second hypothesis was that previously advantaged groups have a higher need for acceptance than empowerment and previously disadvantaged groups have a higher need for empowerment than acceptance. The last hypothesis proposed that the lower their need for empowerment, the more previously disadvantaged individuals would value diversity and the lower their need for acceptance, the more previously advantaged individuals would value diversity.

Participants were recruited through convenience sampling followed by a purposive sampling approach. The final sample consisted of 278 participants. The results showed that the first hypothesis was partially supported. The second hypothesis also had to be rejected because previously advantaged and disadvantaged individuals had equal needs for acceptance and empowerment. The last hypothesis was partially supported. Some of the diversity items were significantly correlated to individuals' need for acceptance but there was no significant correlation between any of the diversity items and the need for empowerment.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

It is important for human resources professionals working in organisations in South Africa to develop and monitor the implementation of the company's employment equity plan. This is a requirement of labour legislation in the South African workplace in order to redress imbalances of the past apartheid system (Employment Equity Act, 1998).

Historically, white South Africans, in particular, white male South Africans, occupied high-profile positions, while access to similar positions was denied to black South Africans and women (Littrel & Nkomo, 2005). Littrel and Nkomo acknowledge that not only were women denied high-profile positions, they were also seen as subordinate to men. The prolonged domination, in particular by white males, has negatively affected subordinate groups. Access to career growth opportunities, for example, has historically been limited for subordinate groups, such as women of all races (Mathur-Helm, 2005). In affirmation, Thomas and Bendixen (2000) argue that the racial and gender divisions, characterised by racial or rather ethnic domination and patriarchy, have led to the evolution of different cultural backgrounds. The varying cultural backgrounds, ethnic domination, assimilation into white culture and patriarchy found their way into the workplace and affected the manner in which decisions were made (Ocholla, 2002; Thomas & Bendixen, 2000).

The unfair treatment inflicted on disadvantaged groups during the period of racial segregation led to unequal sharing of resources and the subsequent struggle to gain access to resources in society and in the workplace (Mathur-Helm, 2005). Efforts to end the unfair treatment of disadvantaged groups started after the demise of the apartheid era in 1994. Amongst those efforts was the introduction of the new Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act No. 108 (1996), which, amongst other things, values respect for human dignity and equal opportunities across gender and racial lines. In subsequent years, the South African Constitution gave rise to new labour legislation. The Employment Equity Act, No. 55 (1998), which aimed to promote equal opportunities and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination, was subsequently promulgated. The Employment Equity Act, informed by the racial categories of the past, classifies designated, and thus disadvantaged, groups as South African black people (African black, coloured and Indian), women and people with disabilities. It exists to promote the implementation of affirmative action measures,

which translate into redress of the disadvantages in employment. This redress of disadvantages refers to the disadvantages experienced by certain designated groups who were not equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels of the workforce.

The Employment Equity Act (1998) in section 15.3 also emphasises the necessity for diversity training. It further advocates that those tasked with the responsibility of offering diversity training should be trained to identify and eliminate constraints associated with the provision of training prospects. The accountability of the employer in terms of consistent monitoring of the transformation process by conducting relevant audits also forms part of the policy and practice of the Employment Equity Act (1998). The question that can be asked is whether employers are failing to implement the Employment Equity Act in its entirety and successfully. Alternatively, the question is whether it is possible to report on the implementation of the Employment Equity Act in its entirety. According to the recent annual report of the Commission for Employment Equity (CEE) (2011), demographic changes in the workforce show that blacks account for 24.1 per cent in top management and whites for 73.1 per cent. White males hold 60.8 per cent of the positions while white women hold 12.3 per cent of the positions. Black women hold 6.3 per cent of the positions while black males account for 17.8 per cent. In senior management positions, blacks account for 33.6 per cent while whites hold 64.1 per cent. White males account for 45.9 per cent, white females for 18.2 per cent, black males for 23 per cent and black females for 10.6 per cent. The CEE annual report comments that whites have continued over the years to dominate leadership and professional levels. However, progress is observed at the professional level where blacks now hold 50.1 per cent of the positions while whites hold 47.7 per cent. This rate of advancement is appreciated, however, it is small if one compares with the majority of the population who are black, unskilled and hence not employed (Free Market Foundation, 2012). Although there seems to be some progress at professional level with blacks taking the majority of positions, progress is quite slow, particularly where women are concerned. The nature of the outlined South African workplace demographics bears reference to the perception that the majority of previously disadvantaged individuals suffer the fate of inequality while their white counterparts enjoy a superior status both socially and economically (Hoffman, 2008).

Finestone and Snyman (2005) noted the slow nature of the process of demographic transformation in South Africa. However, even if the process was not slow, it is not enough to see the demographic transformation as an end goal. This sentiment is shared by various authors, who show concern that legislation alone cannot successfully compel organisations to create a real diverse workforce inclusive of whites without the appreciation of the benefits that come with diversity (Carrell & Mann, 1995; Castelli, 1990; Finestone & Snyman, 2005; Jordan, 2011). Equally so, Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, Zhou and Gilmore (1996) see diversity more broadly than mere affirmative action policies, in their description they include a wide array of physical demographic characteristics and social psychological differences reflected in values, attitudes and norms. Therefore, it can be argued that a diverse workforce can be realised when organisations go beyond affirmative action requirements to ensure representation in terms of demographic characteristics, values, attitudes and norms.

Jordan (2011, p. 6) asserts that, “to pretend that the repeal of explicitly racist laws has now levelled the playing fields is one of the more notorious acts of denial”. While South Africa has succeeded in repealing apartheid laws, the challenge is to achieve real transformation. If Jordan’s statement holds true then the introduction of the Promotion of Unfair Discrimination Act No. 4 of (2000), which makes discrimination a criminal offence, has not yielded value. This is evident in Martin and Durrheim’s (2006) pessimism with legislation’s ability to yield gains for black employees. Therefore pessimism with which transformation associated with legislation is viewed requires the exploration of other factors that may help to bring about the genuine support for diversity.

The identification and investigation of factors that may influence authentic individuals’ support for diversity in the South African workplace is the purpose of this dissertation. The dissertation commences with a review of relevant literature. In the literature review the concept of diversity is explored followed by an outline of why a positive diversity climate is beneficial to organisations. A more in-depth review of the history of racial relations and the current situation is provided. The literature review ends with an outline of the Needs Based Model of Reconciliation (NBMR) which forms the theoretical foundation of parts of the study described in this dissertation. Following this, the method

used in the study is outlined, including a description of the sample, procedure and measures used. The outcomes of the statistical analyses of the data obtained are provided in the results chapter. The discussion section puts the results into context by incorporating the associated literature for justification. Limitations and suggestions for future research are outlined prior to the conclusion.

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Chapter 2: Literature Review

This section helps to explore the meaning of diversity conceptually and in practice, particularly as it applies to the South African context. Mor Barak, Cherin, and Berkman's (1998) model of diversity serves as a guide. The background to Shnabel and Nadler's (2008) NBMR is also explored with an emphasis on its application in the South African context. The literature review serves to substantiate the study's hypotheses.

2.1 Diversity

Various authors identify different types of workplace diversity. This indicates that there is no universal definition (Harrison & Sin 2006). Milliken and Martins (1996) made an effort to re-organise the thinking around the description of diversity by consolidating it into three different types. The three types are observable attributes such as demographic characteristics (race, gender, age), unobservable characteristics such as personality and values, and diversity of skill (knowledge, skill and industry or organisational experience). Milliken and Martins assert that it is normally due to observable characteristics that reactions such as biases, prejudices and stereotypes are elicited. They argue that observable characteristics and unobservable characteristics are not mutually exclusive because people's reactions to situations or other people are normally informed by differences in social backgrounds. The differences in social orientation usually inform people's responses to other people or situations. Associated with different backgrounds is the diversity of skill, which informs the manner in which people with similar or different skills behave in an organisation. The organisational cohort membership further helps to clarify diversity of skill because it helps to describe the differences in people's behaviour in organisations (Pfeffer, 1983). As an example, a group of employees who have worked in a company at a particular time tend to display similar behaviour, which differs from that of others with a different tenure. Ocholla (2002) notes a tendency to emphasise differences rather than similarities when dealing with diversity. She warns against the emphasis on differences, and instead highlights the need to identify unity in people's differences and to accommodate and celebrate similarities.

The appeal to focus on similarities seems to be a challenge because of the threat brought about by transformation policies, which are perceived to threaten the interests of one

group relative to another (Durrheim et al., 2009). However, this is not surprising when one considers the origin of diversity. The concept of diversity stems from the compliance-based inclusion of minority groups in the workplace in the United States of America in the 1960s. This gave rise to tokenism because minority members were merely appointed into positions without any expectations that they would make significant contributions to organisations (Harvey & Allard, 2012). They were often appointed just to prove to the legislators that disadvantaged groups are brought to the workplace. This was bound to create negative perceptions about organisational diversity in both minority and majority groups. Alderfer and Smith (1982) in their research on intergroup relations found that both groups, namely, black and white held the perception that the other group had an undue benefit where promotional appointments were concerned. Alderfer and Smith put these perceptions into perspective by further explaining that white individuals saw affirmative action policies as placing blacks in advantageous positions while black individuals saw white individuals at an advantage as they were the ones occupying senior and thus influential positions.

In South Africa, feelings of tokenism are associated with the resentment of affirmative action policies by black people because black people prefer to be appointed for their competence as opposed to being liked or filling quotas (Adam, 1997). Being perceived as competent is tantamount to being intelligent and is associated with respect (Bergsieker, Shelton, & Richeson, 2010). Bergsieker, et al. further argue that because of a statutory obligation, employment often does not earn a person respect among peers and consequently perceptions of incompetence among previously disadvantaged employees prevail. The public opinion about these policies in South Africa is complex because as much as such policies attract strong support in redressing the effects of apartheid, they also attract strong opposition from both previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged South Africans because of perceptions of reverse racism and tokenism respectively (Durrheim et al., 2009).

2.1.1 Views on achieving workplace diversity

The legislative ways of addressing diversity seem to attract resistance across racial lines indiscriminately. There are various ways in which workplace diversity can be achieved in addition to legislated ways; however, one needs to first gain an understanding of the

type of norms and values that exist in the organisation (Cox, 1991). This can be done through an analysis of the cultural status of the organisation. Gordon's (1964) seven-point societal level integration framework, which was originally created to analyse the level of cultural integration in society, has been adapted by Cox to analyse the level of cultural integration of an organisation.

Cox (1991) developed a six dimensional framework composed of acculturation, structural integration, informal integration, cultural bias, organisational identification and intergroup conflict. Acculturation refers to the behaviour displayed and skills employed by groups when engaging in conflict resolution emanating from their cultural differences. This happens in three ways, through a process of assimilation in which the members of the less powerful culture adopt the norms and values of the more powerful culture. The second way is through a process of pluralism where both groups adopt the norms and values of each other. The last is cultural separatism where there is little adaptation from each side. Structural integration refers to the mere existence of people from different cultural backgrounds in one organisation. This can be reflected through affirmative action statistics. It does not take into account the level of interaction between groups. Informal integration is about the level of social interactions which include all cultures, particularly members of the less powerful culture outside working hours, namely in recreational activities, which promote networking platforms. These interactions should be free from cultural bias. Cultural bias bears two components, namely, prejudice and discrimination. Prejudice entails the attitudes people have of each other, while discrimination refers to behaviour displaying those attitudes. The issue here is that discrimination exercised by the powerful may have far-reaching effects on the less powerful in an organisation and this may have an impact on the nature of organisational identification. Organisational identification is the extent to which members of different cultural groups personally identify with the organisation. This depends on the nature of experiences in the organisation. Some experiences may lead to conflict between groups. Intergroup conflict indicates the levels of strife brought about by the co-existence of members from different cultural backgrounds particularly the reactions of the privileged to affirmative action appointments.

In order to complete the model, the six-dimension framework should be employed to assess organisations' stages of development as a path towards the achievement of diversity (Cox, 1991). Alvarez-Robinson (2001) supports the notion of measurement before embarking on any diversity intervention and subsequent continuous measurement and redress thereafter. Cox (1991) further argues that there are three stages of organisation development towards achievement of diversity: the monolithic, plural and multicultural stages. These stages will be discussed simultaneously with Jackson and Hardiman's (1981, as cited in Jackson & Holvino, 1988) levels of organisation development, which are the organisations at a mono-cultural stage, the non-discriminating stage and the multicultural stage. The identification of the stage of an organisation will enable a better appreciation of the cultural dynamics around diversity.

2.1.1.1 Stages of development as a path towards the achievement of diversity

- **Monolithic and mono-cultural stages of development**

The major defining characteristic of this stage is that the structural integration of employees from other cultural backgrounds is limited. Only one culture dominates to the exclusion of other cultures (Cox, 1991; Jackson & Hardiman, 1981, as cited in Jackson and Holvino, 1988). These authors purport that few minorities that exist in these organisations experience cultural bias displayed through discrimination and prejudice towards the less dominant culture. This approach is not only limited to white-dominated organisations because even in organisations belonging to the minority, the dominant minority culture prevailed. Those who can be accepted in this culture are labelled as unique because of their capability and willingness to assimilate the values of the dominant culture. The exclusionary nature of this culture promotes superiority of the dominant culture and pushes the subordinate culture to exert pressure for change which will bring about their workplace inclusion. This pressure pushes organisations to seek acceptance by succumbing to pressure through the display of minimum accepted change.

- **Plural/Non-discriminatory organisation**

The movement to the plural or non-discriminatory stage has the demographic inclusion of members of the subordinate group as its most defining characteristic (Cox, 1991; Jackson & Hardiman, 1981, as cited in Jackson & Holvino, 1988). The

pressures experienced by the majority are associated with the appointment of members of the minority into organisations just to illustrate the demographic presence to the authorities (Harvey & Allard, 2012). Jackson and Hardiman (1981, as cited in Jackson & Holvino, 1988) acknowledge that the demographic presence of the subordinate groups in response to the societal pressure leads to change driven by compliance and later efforts to accommodate the subordinate groups. Jackson and Hardiman argue that at the compliance stage, an organisation will change the gender and racial profile without necessarily making major changes. They further argue that efforts to accommodate subordinate groups may go beyond compliance to affirmative action where policies are revised to encourage employees to think in a non-discriminatory manner. However, the culture under which all this happens is still that of the dominant group because it is easy to observe legal requirements but a challenge to appeal to the psychological side of reconciliation where all groups are valued (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Cox (1991, p. 38) calls this stage “the plural organisation” whereby structural integration of the subordinate groups is improved. Cox agrees with Jackson and Hardiman on most issues of this stage, like the prominence of assimilation, cultural bias, skewed structural integration because of transformation, which occurs mostly at lower levels, and failure to address cultural issues. Cox adds that the conflict arises from the white resentment of opportunities provided to minorities or black people in the American context. This stage is characteristic of the South African situation between 1995 and 1999 where professional and management positions were still occupied by whites while blacks were still found in low-level positions (Martin & Durrheim, 2006). Therefore, bringing members of the subordinate group to the culture of the dominant group comes with its challenges, and organisations who reach this stage need to be aware and plan accordingly. Maturity reached at this stage can propel the organisation to move from partial integration to full structural integration, which is characteristic of the multicultural organisation.

- **Multicultural organisation**

A multicultural organisation is an organisation that has overcome the challenges of the monolithic and the plural stages (Cox, 1991; Jackson & Hardiman, 1981, as cited in Jackson & Holvino, 1988). Cox (1991) argues that overcoming these challenges could mean that an organisation reflects a combination of characteristics discussed above in section 2.1.1 such as the following:

- pluralism
- full structural integration
- full integration of the informal networks
- an absence of prejudice and discrimination
- no gap in organisational identification based on a cultural identity group
- low levels of intergroup conflict.

Alvarez-Robinson (2001) complements these views through the emphasis of the incorporation of a multicultural organisation culture into performance management processes to ensure full ownership. Jackson and Holvino (1988) contend that ownership of multicultural principles should start at a strategic level and should be reflected in the mission and various structures in the organisation.

2.1.2 Classification of South African organisations in relation to stages of achieving diversity

The South African workplace is known to have gone through the history of apartheid, which was dominated by mono-cultural workplace values (Ocholla, 2002). Ocholla argues that, in light of the legislated changes that have since been introduced and to which companies have to adhere, South Africa has graduated to the non-discriminatory stage. However, she acknowledges that this cannot be said for all South African organisations because some companies continue to be indifferent towards diversity implementation. These companies therefore remain monolithic in the midst of other companies that are moving towards the plural stage (Strydom & Erwee, 1998). A case in point are the results of a study on diversity management by Strydom and Erwee, where their sample of South African companies appreciated the advantages that come with diversity but did not voice an urgency to capitalise on the benefits of diversity. Strydom and Erwee (1998) list a number of factors that could have contributed to the behaviour

displayed, namely, being dismissive of the changing needs of the workforce and pressure for organisational change, a lack of desire to change, the need to emphasise white males' existence as the cream of the crop and lastly, the continued existence of a white-dominant culture.

The urge to postpone diversity implementation is associated with different perspectives from which the privileged and the less privileged come (Eibach & Ehrlinger, 2006). Eibach and Ehrlinger provide further clarity by arguing that the different ways in which the respective groups have experienced bias differ. The group that has experienced negative effects tends to look at the ultimate destination while the group that has experienced positive effects – white males in this case – looks at the ground that has already been covered as opposed to the ultimate destination. South African workplace is not immune from these differing perspectives.

While South African organisations can be categorised in terms of Jackson and Hardiman's (1981 as cited in Jackson and Holvino, 1988) and Cox's (1991) stages of transformation as outlined above it needs to be acknowledged that the stages were developed in a Western context. To understand the dynamics in South African organisations it needs to be considered that they are influenced by both Western and African culture. Prime (1999, as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005) identified three approaches to management which help to highlight the particular situation in South African organisations. These are the Eurocentric approach, the Afrocentric approach and the synergistic inspirational approach. Prime describes the Eurocentric style of management as the type of management dominated by Western values of management such as individualism, self-centredness, competition and relations informed by exclusion. The history of colonialism followed by apartheid, which favoured white domination, has made the practice of Eurocentric management style the most dominant style in South Africa to date (King, Kruger, & Pretorius, 2007). King et al. claim that this style is reflected in the way business is conducted and in written contracts compared to oral communication based on trust.

The second style is the Afrocentric style, which is usually called Ubuntu. It is more inclusive, collective, empathetic, communal, favouring oral communication compared to written communication, harbouring values such as caring, respect and responsiveness

(King et al., 2007; Mangaliso, 2001, Prime, 1999 as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005). Mangaliso asserts that the Ubuntu value system is valued by the majority of South Africans, mostly previously disadvantaged. He argues that management still strongly rejects this value system due to a lack of appreciation of this approach.

The synergistic inspirational approach is the merging of the two approaches, namely the Eurocentric approach and the Afrocentric approach, resulting in community-based management (King et al., 2007; Prime, 1999 as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005). King et al. (2007) argue that this is the best approach to follow in South Africa as it represents the values of all groups. In South Africa subcultures exist within corporate culture (Thomas & Bendixen 2000) which makes South Africa a country rich in different cultures, however, the aim of creating a unified culture differentiates South Africa from other countries (Finestone & Snyman, 2005). This is reflective of the assertion that the synergistic inspirational style, is reflective of the multicultural approach (Ocholla, 2002) which is associated with transformation to a better culture.

2.1.3 Employees' reactions to diversity

The results of the study by Prime (1999 as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005) revealed an ethnocentric culture prevailing in South African organisations. In this type of culture, each group attaches positive traits to the in-group. Therefore, the attachment of positive traits to the in-group results in the exclusion of the less dominant groups in decision-making in the workplace. Prime's study revealed a situation in which previously disadvantaged black employees had to assimilate the values of whites to survive in a workplace dominated by Eurocentric values. Although South Africa has moved from a monolithic culture and mono-cultural practices (Cox, 1991; Jackson & Hardimen, 1981 as cited in Jackson and Holvino, 1988) to a non-discriminatory culture (Ocholla, 2002), there is bound to be conflict if the Eurocentric culture still dominates. In addition, the reluctance to embrace diversity despite its benefits becomes a challenge particularly in a country where values of Ubuntu are shared by the majority. The demise of apartheid has led to the recognition of unions through labour legislation leading to the vocal nature of the previously disadvantaged despite the dominant Eurocentric culture. Mangaliso (2001) outlines an incident where a mine experienced a prolonged strike by employees acting as a collective where management was requested to address employees publicly on an issue. Management failed to address these employees and this resulted in a loss of

millions of Rands in revenue. All employees wanted was oral communication, which would have signified respect and acknowledgement of their concerns, following which they would have ended the strike. Whites prefer written commitments while blacks prefer oral communication in order for trust to prevail (King et al., 2007). This signifies the disharmony in the workplace resulting from the parallel existence of a Eurocentric culture and the Ubuntu approach in a company where an ethnocentric culture prevails. Prime (1999 as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005) describes the ethnocentric approach as reflected in the positive attributes attached to one's own group and negative attributes to the other group or out-group. Prime argues that this approach consequently leads to a challenge whereby each group believes it has the best method of engagement. This disharmony is not only reflected during strikes. In plural organisations, whites cannot appreciate the value of diversity when previously disadvantaged individuals are brought into the workplace. This is because white South Africans currently in the workplace maintain that they did not create apartheid and should consequently not be punished for actions implemented by their predecessors (Cox, 1991). This punishment is experienced in the form of a decrease in power status due to a reduction in the number of positions of power occupied by whites and a decline in the associated resources, notwithstanding the alteration of the dominant values (Cox, 1991; Kossek & Zonia, 1993).

It is a challenge that both black and white employees see affirmative action as problematic. Some South African individuals, including the previously disadvantaged, believe that people should compete based on qualification and skill, as opposed to being appointed in line with affirmative action policies (Adam, 1997). Findings by Bergsieker et al. (2010) showed that blacks prefer being competent and as a consequence earn respect, while whites prefer to be liked and considered moral. The authors argue that blacks would prefer to be appointed based on competence rather than on being liked or even to being appointed based on a quota system.

The attraction and appointment of members from previously disadvantaged groups into the workplace is the easiest part of creating a diverse workforce (Kossek & Zonia, 1993). Kossek and Zonia note that the difficulty lies with the effective utilisation of skills from all including the previously disadvantaged for the achievement of organisational goals. This adverse display of workplace behaviour, namely, lack of appreciation of diverse

skills, cannot be distanced from suppressed social attitudes influenced by the values of the group to which an individual belongs (Mangaliso, 2001). To some extent, a journey towards multicultural organisations will be reflective of the South African corporate culture. This culture is characterised by the tension between the Eurocentric and Afrocentric approaches, with some employees being more comfortable with the one and some with the other approach, thus leading to conflict when attempting to create non-discriminatory organisations (Cox, 1991; Mangaliso, 2001). This influences the diversity climate of an organisation. Diversity climate refers to the collective employee perceptions about the characteristics of the organisation's diversity-related formal structure, as may be reflected in strategy, policies and procedures and unwritten norms and values (Gonzalez & Denisi, 2009). Mor Barak et al. (1998) provide a contextual definition of diversity climate. They describe diversity climate as the extent to which groups of employees have a shared meaning regarding the company's application of just employee policies. This implies that not only appointing employees from the underrepresented groups, but taking steps to encourage their social integration into the work setting would reflect just policies and lead to a positive diversity climate.

2.2 Importance of diversity climate

As outlined in section 2.1 above, the compliance of an organisation with affirmative action policies such as the Employment Equity Act (1998) does not automatically lead different groups to feel positively about having a diverse work environment and to work in harmony with each other. Nor does it lead to them feeling supported by their employers to work with colleagues from diverse backgrounds. The introduction of programmes that propel companies' alignment to diversity can only be measured and re-adjusted as informed by insights into employees' actual perceptions of diversity programmes (Herdman & McMillan-Capehart, 2009). Herdman and McMillan-Capehart contend that the perceptions of employees are influenced by the direct experience of the companies' diversity programmes. Therefore, Herdman and McMillan-Capehart argue that the good intentions reflected in company diversity policies should not be mistaken as a reflection of employees' experiences. In their research to examine the contribution of group membership and the organisation culture on diversity climate at a large unnamed public sector university in Mid West United States, Kossek and Zonia (1993)

found that group membership such as race, ethnicity, gender and employment level were more important to employees than the culture of the organisation.

Concurring with Kossek and Zonia's (1993) assumption that diversity climate perceptions are determined by employees' group membership and the organisational environment or culture, Mor Barak et al. (1998) argue that an organisation's diversity climate is made up of personal and organisational dimensions. Mor Barak et al. describe the personal dimension as individuals' opinions towards people who happen to differ from themselves and associated attitudes displayed toward other employees who are view as different. This personal dimension is consistent with the ethnocentric approach where one's own views are regarded as the best (Prime, 1999 in as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005).

The second dimension, the organisational dimension, is described by Mor Barak et al. (1998) the observation of whether policies and procedures in an organisation support diversity. These policies and procedures may have an impact on the preferential treatment or discrimination which affect groups such as minorities and women. Kossek and Zonia (1993) put this into perspective by arguing that while company policies may help in bringing into organisations large numbers of diverse groups, they may also obstruct their progress into senior or influential positions, subsequently creating a glass ceiling for the diverse groups. This obstruction of progress into senior positions mostly affects the disadvantaged groups such as minorities and women.

It is important to highlight that given employees' experiences in an organisation, adverse and supportive diversity climates can be identified (Gonzales & Denisi, 2009). In their study, they discovered that diversity in terms of race was associated with lower return on income and productivity when the diversity climate was negative. Supportive diversity in terms of race was associated with higher return on income and productivity. Gonzales and Denisi further argue that when people feel that organisational policies are fair and diversity is utilised to build knowledge and insight into the manner of conducting business rather than to avoid punishment, perceptions of employees are likely to be positive and supportive. The diversity climate can be utilised as an added benefit in that the company will tap into skills, which were not previously available in

the company when the culture was mono-cultural (Finestone & Snyman, 2005). If managed well, according to Gonzales and Denisi, the diversity climate can moderate the adverse effects associated with diversity such as increased relationship conflict. This conflict becomes evident in some companies as more diverse groups are brought into the workplace (Cox, 1991). Gonzales and Denisi further argue that a supportive diversity climate mitigates potential attrition and lower organisational commitment. Lower organisational commitment, which reflects in absenteeism by black employees in a study by Avery, McKay, Wilson, and Tonidandel (2007) may signal a psychological withdrawal from an organisation due to negative perceptions of the organisation's support for diversity. The conflict which is experienced as more diverse groups enter into the workplace may be due to a lack of proper management of diversity perceptions (Cox, 1991). Results of Avery et al.'s research on differing rates of absenteeism between racial groups revealed that the organisation's perceived support for diversity is associated with organisational commitment, turnover intentions and decreased absenteeism across racial groups and inclusive of white employees.

Given the diverse nature of an organisation's workforce and the celebration of this diversity, multicultural organisations have an advantage of responding in good time to diverse markets (Ocholla, 2002; White, 1999). However, it should be noted that employees do not appreciate the utilisation of their presence merely to access diverse markets without the full appreciation of cultural diversity that is the sole driver of knowledge they bring to the company which subsequently benefits the workplace. (Gonzales & Denisi, 2009).

The interaction between the individual diversity perception and the organisational context in the form of diversity policies and programmes offered by the organisations and subsequent genuine support for diversity is associated with support of diversity by employees across racial lines. South African diversity perceptions are unique due to the Eurocentric approach of conducting business (Prime, 1999 as cited in Finestone & Snyman, 2005) within a South African culture dominated by the previously disadvantaged who value Ubuntu (Mangaliso, 2001).

2.4 South African context

The conceptualisation of the South African diversity context cannot be divorced from its previous apartheid system, which had an extraordinary influence on the culture of South African people (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). Littrell and Nkomo (2005, p. 563) trace the South African history of conflict to the “powerful, antagonistic colonial rulers who governed concurrently”, which was followed by racial classification of people by the Nationalist government referred to as apartheid. Suzman (1960, as cited in Posel, 2001) highlighted the lack of legislation associated with racial classification during the colonial rule, which preceded 1948’s rule of the National Party. However, racial classification started during the colonial rule already. Cronin (2012, p. 2) argues that a strong foundation of the apartheid system was laid before 1948 because “land dispossessions, native reserves, indirect rule through compliant hand-picked traditional leaders, pass laws, the migrant labour system, a racialised labour market and urban segregation” all happened before 1948. Posel (2001) adds that, amongst other systems for racial classification of people prior to 1948, the South African Native Affairs Commission was set up in 1904 to address the lack of clarity in the process of racial classification of people, with the most contentious being the native classification in the presence of the coloured people. Cronin adds that the apartheid government helped to legislate the already existing discrimination ideology.

The introduction of the Population Registration Act No. 30 (1950), which required people to be identified and registered from birth as one of four distinct racial groups, namely white, coloured, Bantu or black African, and other. The fourth one was not so distinct because Asians or Indians, as they are now classified in the Employment Equity Act (1998), were at that stage regarded as a subgroup of the coloured race group (Posel, 2001). The Population Registration Act promoted the preservation of racial pureness, white civilisation and supremacy irrespective of the insensitive manner in which it was implemented.

In line with the maintenance of white supremacy, the Bantu Education Act, No. 47 of 1953 was promulgated. It was tailor-made to offer inferior and less funded education to black individuals than was offered to white individuals. The aim of the Bantu Education Act (1953) was to relegate black youth to the unskilled general workforce, and to reserve professional jobs for the white group. This unskilled general workforce was generally

cheaper and encouraged by the mining revolution, which required large investment of capital inclusive of human capital. The unskilled labour force made the bulk of this human capital, subsidised by poor households in the then homelands (Cronin, 2012). Males from previously disadvantaged race groups were relegated to unskilled, menial jobs while white males occupied skilled, professional and managerial jobs (Littrell & Nkomo, 2005). In addition, Littrell and Nkomo report that women of all races were primarily classified as minors. However, black women or women from previously disadvantaged groups occupied unskilled jobs such as domestic work, while white women or women from previously advantaged groups held low-level administrative jobs. The demise of apartheid and the post-1994 political dispensation has consequently seen the increase in black owned and controlled businesses (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000).

The South African government has made efforts to redress past imbalances through the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa No. 108 (1996), which serves as a foundation for the regulation of employment policies and practices such as affirmative action policies, like the Employment Equity Act (1998). The perception of reverse discrimination by whites, which is brought about by lawful discrimination in job appointments in favour of previously disadvantaged individuals, can only be managed through proper governance of the integration process (Hammet, 2008; Ocholla, 2002). In the Employment Equity Act, South Africans are classified as white, coloured, African (black) and Indian. For the purpose of this study, the white race group is classified as previously advantaged, and the coloured, African and Indian groups as previously disadvantaged.

Hammett (2008) argues that the redressing of past imbalances sees South Africans relying on previously legislated categories such as race and gender. Although some sections of the South African population may dream of a non-racial society, the challenge in becoming a nation without racial categories is that South Africa lacks alternative ways in which to measure progress in redressing the past injustices (Hammett, 2008; Mare, 2001). Therefore, the continued reference to racial categories is required. However, the sensitivity surrounding reference to race should be observed as it has a potential to adverse consequences such as genocide in some countries (Alexander, 2006). Finestone and Snyman (2005) cite a study by Herman (2002) on the effects of affirmative action on

whites, particularly, white males. Herman uncovered that race-based efforts of redressing the imbalances of the unjust past tend to lead to estrangement of white employees. This estrangement is reflected in a perception that white males' career progress is negatively affected by affirmative action. The study solely focused on actions of white persons and therefore cannot be generalised to the whole population. Franchi's (2003) research reveals that as much as affirmative action policies can bring about conflict, they are more positively evaluated by individuals who had experienced discrimination than by those who did not experience discrimination. This is the case because individuals who have been previously discriminated against believe that affirmative action policies would save them from unlawful discrimination. It needs to be noted that there are also findings that support the view that previously disadvantaged South Africans do not support affirmative action, either, as they prefer to be appointed based on competence (Adam, 1997).

Affirmative action is not only resisted by employees, but also by organisations as a whole. Organisations' resistance plays itself out in many ways, amongst them higher salaries paid to previously advantaged than to previously disadvantaged individuals (Bezuidenhout, 2005). Bezuidenhout also asserts that the business language has changed, with much emphasis on globalisation and fixed-term contracts. A study conducted by the Free Market Foundation (FMF) (2012) shows a significant income improvement for blacks since 1996 to date, however, whites still earn 14 times more than blacks. The land ownership and employment being the areas that lag behind led to the conclusion that blacks form the majority of the unemployed. This shows that those who are outside the system of employment struggle to find employment, let alone climb up the corporate ladder. Therefore, white managers continue to be masters because relatively few permanent individuals from previously disadvantaged groups gain entry into organisations. This new form of subtle racism is known as "symbolic racism" (Baldwin, Day, & Hecht, 2000, p. 554). Franchi (2003) found in her research on symbolic racism that power differences still characterise the relationship between previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged groups in South Africa. Franchi argues that previously advantaged individuals use their power to train new staff and become instrumental in facilitating and motivating for the trainees' appointments into permanent posts. Through this, she adds, previously advantaged individuals delay the

appointment of affirmative action recruits, despite the availability of opportunities in the company for the mere satisfaction of their self-interest and resistance to change.

To this end, race, gender and the attitudes people hold about members of racial and gender group other than their own need more investigation. Affirmative action policies and legislative changes do not seem to be enough to transform the South African workplace. Alternative forms of interventions with a cognitive and emotional appeal should be considered for effective transformation to occur in the South African workplace.

In the context of the history of discrimination and interventions to diversify South African workplaces, the current research sought to establish the extent to which different groups of employees are in favour of diversity in the African workplace given their different experiences and value systems. In line with Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) findings that Caucasian (white) men perceive the organisation as more fair and more inclusive than Caucasian women and men from the ethnic minority, it is expected that in the South African context previously disadvantaged racial groups value diversity more than previously advantaged racial groups and women value diversity more than men. Hypothesis 1 below is formulated to investigate this assumption.

Hypothesis 1

- a. Previously disadvantaged racial groups place more value on diversity than previously advantaged racial groups.
- b. Women value diversity more than men.

In addition, in this dissertation, the role of socio-emotional needs as determinants of the extent to which people embrace diversity is explored. This assumption is based on Shnabel and Nadler's (2008) Needs Based Model of Reconciliation (NBMR). The NBMR was developed to investigate factors that encourage reconciliation in individuals who were considered enemies during a conflict situation. The apartheid era in the South African situation is equated to a conflict situation wherein the same NBMR principles may apply when people choose to embrace or to resist diversity. The section that follows provides an overview of the NBMR.

2.5 The Needs-Based Model of Reconciliation

2.5.1 Background

The mid- to late 1990s formed a unique period internationally as it was made prominent by public apologies from public personalities around the world. Shnabel, Nadler, Canetti-Nisim and Ulrich (2008), for example, report that the Argentinean President Fernando de la Rúa tendered a public apology in 1997 for Argentina's accommodation of Nazi immigrants following World War II and the country's lack of interest in helping to make them stand trial for the war crimes they committed. Another incident cited occurred in 1998 when both UN Secretary-General Kofi Annan and former president Bill Clinton apologised for the failure by the UN and America to prevent the Rwandan genocide or even to protect the people of Rwanda against the genocide. Shnabel and Nadler's (2008) observation of such apologies raised their interest in the study of the exchange of symbolic emotional resources, which occurs between victims and perpetrators during the cycle of apology and forgiveness. This cycle focuses on mending relations between two conflicting parties.

The apologies cited above were rendered in reaction to real conflicts, which arose out of the physical fight for resources. Mostly, research on conflict resolution seems to suggest that once the parties agree on criteria to redistribute resources the conflict is resolved (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008). However, reconciliation is necessary to ensure the redress of psychological causes of separation in a relationship (Staub, Pearlman, Gubin, & Hagenimana, 2005), which will bring about a positive change in attitude towards the other (Nadler & Liviatan, 2006). Shnabel and Nadler purport that the manner in which the two parties interact in resolving conflict reflects the nature of their relationship; hence, it becomes important to study the social interaction of both sides to the conflict.

According to Shnabel and Nadler (2008), the NBMR assumes that in the aftermath of conflict between two groups, one group (victim) is left feeling victimised by the other group (perpetrator). Both groups are, however, stripped of a psychological resource (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008). The impairment caused by this lacking psychological resource is associated with the development of an emotional need, which cannot be satisfied by the distribution of physical resources. This creates a barrier to reconciliation, which can

be removed through an apology offered by the perpetrator and forgiveness offered by the victim. As a condition, the victim should have the power to decide the terms of forgiveness in order to forgive fully. The cycle of apology and forgiveness helps to reinstate the psychological resources. Reconciliation cannot occur until the apology-forgiveness cycle takes place through the social interaction between the victim and perpetrator groups. Exline, Worthington Jr, Hill, and McCullough (2003) argue that in retributive justice, the perpetrator is often punished without due regard to the victim's emotional state. However, a trend towards restorative justice, which advocates interaction between the victim and perpetrator, is developing (Exline et al., 2003; Shnabel et al., 2008). These authors further argue that the restorative justice helps to restore the impaired emotional resources.

According to Bennis and Sherpard (1956, as cited in Shnabel and Nadler, 2008), various authors provide different perspectives of the impaired emotional resources; however, an all-encompassing view is that these resources are referred to as needs. These needs differ with respect to each group. The victim group, which in the South African context comprises previously disadvantaged individuals, has a need for power because of a perception that they had been deprived of their rights, while the perpetrator group, in the South African context comprised of previously advantaged individuals, has a need for belonging and love because of the perceived rejection by the other group. Without social interaction, the two sides will remain at two opposing ends.

The two opposing ends encourage each respective group to experience an increasing need such as the increasing need for empowerment for victims, which helps to restore a sense of control and autonomy if this need is satisfied (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008; Shnabel et al., 2008). These authors argue that at the opposite end, the perpetrator experiences an increasing need for acceptance. This satisfaction of the need for acceptance helps to which helps to reassure the perpetrator that he or she will not be rejected by the victim.

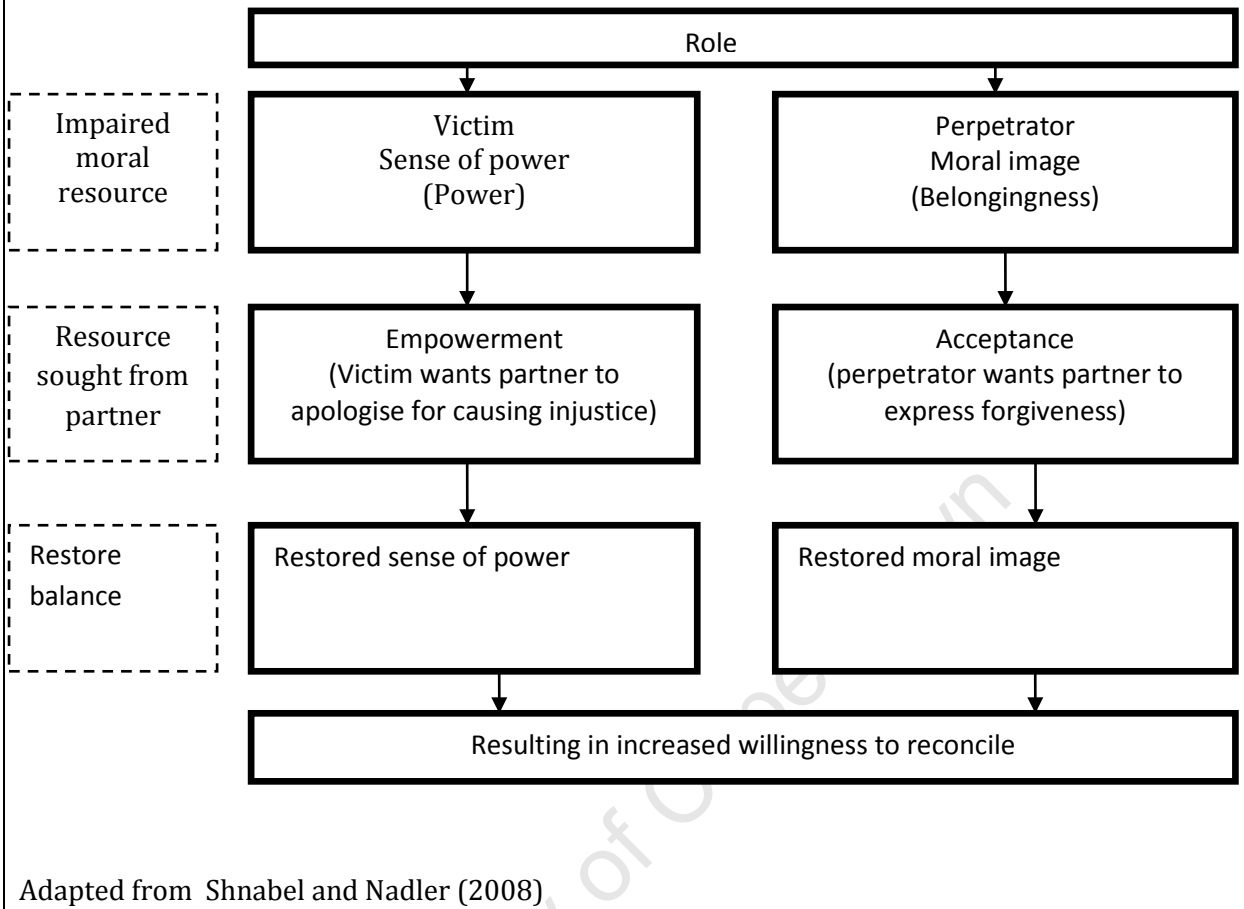
2.5.2 Need for acceptance and need for empowerment

The need for empowerment and the need for acceptance are considered primary needs and should be satisfied for reconciliation to occur (Shnabel et al., 2008). Another condition for reconciliation is the provision of space for social exchange to enable the

restoration of the perpetrator's need for acceptance by victims and the restoration of victims' power (Shnabel & Nadler 2008). The creation of a platform for social exchange should enable the perpetrator to recognise, show empathy and take responsibility for the pain he or she has caused the victim (Shnabel et al., 2008). The ownership of adverse activities towards the victim and associated consequences thereof serve as admission of guilt and are interpreted as a pledge to correct the status quo (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Saguy, 2009). Consequently, this behaviour will provoke feelings of understanding, status and respect and provide the victims with the authority to cancel the debt they are owed by the perpetrator (Nadler & Liviatan, 2006; Shnabel & Nadler, 2008). These authors contend that the cancellation of this debt leads to the acceptance of the perpetrator.

Once the psychological needs have been honoured by the respective groups, stability is achieved because a sense of power is restored in the victim, and a sense of moral image in the perpetrator. This leads to an increased willingness to reconcile or at least to work and live together. Figure 2.1 below outlines a summary of the Needs-Based Model of Reconciliation as outlined above.

Figure 2-1: The Needs-based Model of Reconciliation



2.5.3 Alignment of the Needs-Based Model of Reconciliation to the South African context

Based on the country’s history, white South Africans can be seen as perpetrators; black South Africans as victims. White South Africans should thus have a high need for acceptance, and black South Africans, a high need for empowerment. Forte (2011), in her study, used a between-subjects and within-subjects experimental design to test this assumption. Her sample consisted of University of Cape Town students and a South African company’s full-time employees. The two groups were used to ensure fair distribution of age, so that participants who were raised during the apartheid era and those raised after the apartheid era were included.

Forte (2011) hypothesised that previously advantaged individuals have a higher need for acceptance than empowerment and previously disadvantaged individuals have a higher need for empowerment than acceptance. Results showed that previously advantaged individuals have a higher need for acceptance than empowerment. Similarly,

previously disadvantaged individuals indeed have a higher need for empowerment than acceptance. Forte also hypothesised that previously advantaged individuals are more willing to reconcile the more their need for social acceptance has been addressed. Similarly, previously disadvantaged individuals are more willing to reconcile the more their need for empowerment has been addressed. Both hypotheses were supported by data. Indeed previously advantaged were willing to reconcile if their need for social acceptance was addressed while previously disadvantaged were willing to reconcile if their need for empowerment was addressed.

Forte(2011) took this a step further investigating whether individuals socialised during and after the apartheid system identified stronger with being previously advantaged or previously disadvantaged respectively. Results show that previously advantaged individuals who were socialised during and after the apartheid system did not display a difference. Previously disadvantaged individuals socialised during the apartheid system identified stronger with being previously disadvantaged than those who had not been socialised during the apartheid system. However, it was interesting to discover that previously disadvantaged individuals socialised after the apartheid system had a greater need for empowerment than those who had been socialised during the apartheid system. It was also discovered that previously disadvantaged individuals were more willing to reconcile if their need for empowerment was met than those who were not socialised during the apartheid system. These results seem to be mixed particularly where previously disadvantaged individuals are concerned.

Forte's (2011) study was the first study employing the NBMR in the South African context. Therefore it is important to investigate whether her results can be replicated in a different organisational setting, hence, hypothesis 2 for this study is as follows:

Hypothesis 2

- a. Previously advantaged groups have a higher need for acceptance than empowerment.
- b. Previously disadvantaged groups have a higher need for empowerment than acceptance.

Forte (2011) also hypothesised that the more previously advantaged individuals' need for social acceptance has been addressed the more willing to reconcile they are. Similarly, the more their need for empowerment has been addressed, the more willing to reconcile are previously disadvantaged individuals. Her results indicated a positive relationship between the willingness to reconcile and addressing the need for acceptance through a message which reflected acceptance in previously advantaged individuals. Similarly, a positive relationship between the willingness to reconcile and addressing the need for empowerment through a message reflecting empowerment in previously disadvantaged was identified. The interest in this study was to establish whether employees with lower socio-emotional needs would be more supportive of diversity, as it was assumed that diversity is supported if individuals are willing to reconcile. This assumption is reflected in hypothesis 3:

Hypothesis 3

- a. The lower their need for empowerment, the more previously disadvantaged individuals will value diversity.
- b. The lower their need for acceptance, the more previously advantaged individuals will value diversity.

Chapter 3: Method

3.1 Sampling and participants

In this research, convenience sampling, followed by a purposive sampling approach using the snowball technique was used (see section 3.3.2 for further detail). The sample was drawn from a South African financial services organisation. There were seven participants who had preferred not to answer the question regarding their racial self-classification. Data for these individuals was excluded from the analysis, as it was not possible to categorise these individuals as either previously advantaged or previously disadvantaged. The target sample's average age ranged from 22 to 60 with an average age and standard deviation for previously advantaged ($M = 41.08$; $SD = 8.88$) and average age and standard deviation for previously disadvantaged ($M = 33$; $SD = 7.23$). The final sample thus consists of 278 participants. The table below provides detailed information of the sample demographics.

Table 3.1:

Spread of research participation according to racial and gender groups

	Racial self-classification	Male	Female	Total
Previously advantaged	White	19 (31.67%)	41 (68.33%)	60 (21.58%)
	Black African	44 (35.48%)	80 (64.52%)	124 (44.60%)
Previously disadvantaged	Coloured	29 (32.95%)	59 (67.05%)	88 (31.65%)
	Indian	1 (16.67%)	5 (83.33%)	6 (2.16%)
	Total	74 (33.94%)	144 (66.05%)	218 (78.41%)
	Total	93 (32.63%)	185 (67.02%)	278 (100%)

3.2 Research design

The aim of this study was to establish the degree to which men and women and members of previously advantaged and disadvantaged racial groups support diversity in the workplace in relation to the degree to which they are deprived of particular socio-emotional needs. Gender and advantage status thus served as the two independent variables, while the value placed on diversity and socio-emotional need deprivation were the dependent variables. A non-experimental descriptive between-subjects design was

employed (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003). Cooper and Schindler (2003) mention three characteristics of descriptive studies, namely –

- the description of a subject or its qualities;
- an approximate proportion of a population that portrays these characteristics; and
- the identification of relations among diverse variables.

This study displayed all three characteristics and therefore qualified as a descriptive study. The study sought to discover associations among factors that are associated with employees' support for diversity and the manner in which these associations manifest themselves. The design can also be referred to as a relational research design because of the investigation of relationships between variables through observation without any manipulation of the variables concerned (Tredoux & Smith, 2006, as cited in Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). The study was conducted in a real workplace setting in the South African context.

3.3 Research procedure

This section describes the nature of the organisation utilised for the purpose of this study, as well as the procedure followed.

3.3.1 Background to research organisation

The company where the research was conducted is a national financial services organisation with 3 000 employees and office presence throughout South Africa. In a recently conducted organisation-wide survey it was discovered that the organisation's employment equity plan was compliant with the Employment Equity Act (1998) as far as the achievement of demographic representation was concerned, yet, no diversity policy was in place (The Human Capital Engine, 2011). The Human Capital Engine further discovered that the company's employment equity policy was perceived as reverse racism by white employees. In the current study, all racial groups felt other racial groups were favoured over the in-group. Of the white respondents, 79% indicated that sufficient progress had been made in terms of employment equity, while fewer than 50% of the black female employees shared this view. Overall, the study revealed that there was a potentially limited understanding of and tolerance for issues of diversity. Women and men perceived the members of the opposite gender group to be treated better than

themselves. The study found that overall race and gender issues were intertwined, and perceptions characteristic of intolerance towards members of different racial and gender groups were observed.

3.3.2 Procedure

Written permission was obtained from the organisation's management to recruit company employees as participants for this study. As an ethical requirement of the University of Cape Town, the study was approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee. After both approvals had been obtained, the company's communications department sent out an electronic communication to all employees within the business unit with a link to an online questionnaire drafted by the researcher. The survey could be accessed for three weeks, and one reminder per week was sent out for the duration of the survey. Study participation was voluntary, anonymous and confidential. In order to increase the response rate, participants were offered entry to a lucky draw for their participation. Three R400 vouchers from a convenience store were offered.

At the end of the three weeks participation from previously advantaged individuals was still low. This was partly due to the business unit within which the research was conducted, which employed few previously advantaged employees. It was thus necessary to approach other business units within the organisation where previously advantaged individuals were in the majority. When the response rate amongst previously advantaged individuals remained low despite subsequent reminders, the researcher asked close acquaintances to approach friends and colleagues within the company in order to reach an acceptable number of previously advantaged participants.

Participants who wished to participate in the lucky draw were asked at the end of the questionnaire to forward their names to an email address. The email address was provided at the end of the questionnaire to ensure participants had completed the questionnaire prior to the email address being made available. Respondents were made aware of the voluntary nature of the survey to ensure that they were willing participants and that they had consented to participate in the survey.

3.4 Measures

The first measure in the questionnaire focused on assessing participants' perceptions of the diversity climate in their organisation through a diversity perception scale. The diversity perception scale was followed by scales to assess participants' need for empowerment and need for acceptance, respectively. Demographic information was asked at the end of the questionnaire. A complete questionnaire is provided in Appendix A.

3.4.1 Diversity perception scale

The value participants placed on diversity was measured using Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) Diversity Perception Scale, which has two components. The first component assesses participants' opinions about the efforts the organisation makes to foster a diverse climate, such as policies and procedures. The second component focuses on the value that individuals themselves place on diversity. Only the six items assessing this personal dimension of diversity were included in the questionnaire. Mor Barak et al. pointed out that there are two factors underlying the personal dimension. Three of the items measure the value a person places on diversity (personal diversity value) and the other three measure personal comfort in interactions with members from other groups. All items were measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". An example of a personal diversity value item is "I believe diversity is a strategic business issue." An example for a personal comfort item is "I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own."

Two diversity scale items required reverse coding, namely item 4 ("Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness") and item 6 ("I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced"). This was done so that a high score on these items indicates affirmation of the questions asked.

The overall reliability of the scale in Mor Barak's et al.'s (1998) research was .83, which indicates a high internal consistency. However, no separate reliability for the personal dimension sub-scale was provided.

3.4.2 Need for empowerment and acceptance scale

The constructs “need for empowerment” and “need for acceptance” originate from Shnabel and Nadler’s (2008) research on the NBMR. Shnabel and Nadler and Forte (2011) focused on diversity in society, and used scales suitable for that purpose. As the current study focused on employees’ workplace perceptions, new scales had to be developed to fit the purpose of this study.

3.4.2.1 Need for empowerment scale

A 13-item need for empowerment scale was developed. Of the 13 items, two required reverse coding, namely item 4 (“My company and colleagues support me in developing my skills further”) and item 5 (“I have been appointed to my position because I have the required competence”). The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. A high score in this scale indicated a high need for empowerment.

3.4.2.2 Need for acceptance scale

For the purpose of the current study, a need for acceptance scale was developed, with a total of 11 items. Of these, five items required reverse coding, namely –

- item 6 “I feel accepted at work”;
- item 8 “When I experience difficulties at work my colleagues assist me without doubting my capability”;
- item 9 “My colleagues trust that I have good intentions”;
- item 10 “I feel that my ideas are appreciated by my colleagues”; and
- item 11 “I have a right to be in my position because I am South African”.

The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. A high score in this scale affirmed a high need for acceptance.

3.4.3 Demographic information

Participants were required to provide their age and gender and to categorise themselves in terms of their respective racial groups (coloured, white, Indian, African or they could prefer not to answer). Participants were also requested to indicate their role in the company, by indicating the role most appropriate to them, namely, clerks, specialists, team leaders, managers, senior managers, executives or others.

Chapter 4: Results

The results chapter provides an analysis of the consistency, structure, and descriptive statistics related to each scale. Following this, the results relating to the three hypotheses will be described.

4.1 Analysis of diversity scale

4.1.1 Consistency

Reliability analysis showed that the 6-item diversity scale was not reliable, as Cronbach's alpha was .32 and, thus, below the acceptable level of .70 (Hair et al., 2003). As Mor Barak et al. (1998) had assumed the scale to consist of two subscales, diversity value and personal inclusion, this could explain the scale's overall low internal consistency. Cronbach's alphas were, thus, determined separately for the 3-item diversity value subscale ($\alpha = .51$) and for the 3-item personal inclusion subscale ($\alpha = .17$). The low Cronbach's alphas for each of the subscales indicated that these scales were not reliable, either. It can thus be concluded that the diversity scale had too little internal consistency to be considered reliable.

4.1.2 Structure

As reliability is a precondition for validity, a scale with poor reliability cannot be valid (Aamondt, 2007). No validity analysis was thus conducted. Rather than to consider the diversity items as belonging to a scale, it was decided to conduct analyses related to the diversity hypothesis at item level.

4.1.3 Descriptive statistics

Table 4-1 outlines the mean and standard deviation for each of the diversity items. As items 4 and 6 were reverse coded, the mean for item 4 indicates that on average the participants felt that diversity issues kept some work teams from performing to their maximum effectiveness. For item 6 on average participants were not afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being prejudiced. For the remaining four items participants on average were in favour of diversity.

Table 4-1

Descriptive statistics: Means (M) and standard deviations (SD) for the six diversity items (n = 278)(Minimum =1, Maximum = 5)

Item statement	M	SD
1. I think diverse viewpoints add value at work	4.15	.86
2. I believe diversity is a strategic business issue	3.96	.88
3. I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own	3.93	.95
4. Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness	2.80	1.12
5. Knowing more about cultural norms or diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job	3.72	1.06
6. I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced	3.57	1.12

4.2 Analysis of need for empowerment scale

4.2.1 Consistency

The 13-item need for empowerment scale resulted in a slightly low Cronbach's alpha of .64. An analysis of corrected item-total correlations revealed that seven items had correlations of less than .30 (item 1, item 2, item 3, item 5, item 6, item, 7 and item 12) which is considered the minimum acceptable item-total correlation (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1999). Table B-1 in the appendix refers to all the item-total correlations for the empowerment scale. Excluding either item 1 or 6 would have decreased the Cronbach's alpha to .62. It was therefore decided to keep these two items and to only exclude the remaining five items with low item-total correlations. This increased the Cronbach's alpha to .72, and thus the scale's reliability. Item-total correlation for item 1 was again lower than .30 but deleting it would not have increased the Cronbach's alpha (see table B-2 in the appendix). Ultimately, eight out of thirteen items were thus included to make up the final need for empowerment scale, as this 8-item scale had been found to be reliable.

4.2.2 Structure

A principal component analysis (PCA) without rotation was conducted to determine the 8-item need for empowerment scale's validity. Rotation serves to improve the interpretation of factors (Field, 2009). In this case, only one factor was expected, and the

purpose of the PCA was to ascertain whether the items could be summarised into one overall component. Therefore, rotation was not considered necessary.

Field (2009) points out various ways of choosing the number of factors one should retain. He further points out that the scree plot is the best decision criterion if the sample size exceeds 200, while the commonly used the rule of Kaiser (1960) can be the worst in establishing which factors to keep as it often overestimates the factors.

For this reason, the scree plot was used in this study to determine the number of relevant components (see figure 4-1). On the scree plot, there was a clear break between the first and the second components (eigenvalue component 1: 2.75 and eigenvalue component 2: 1.28). This also means that component 1 captured substantially more of the variance (34.41%) than component 2 (16.00%) (see table B-3 in the appendix for all eigenvalues and explained variances). As all items loaded significantly on the first component (minimum loading .40 (item 1), maximum loading of .74 (item 9) all items can be summarised into one overall empowerment score and the scale be considered valid. For all item loadings see table B-4 in the appendix.

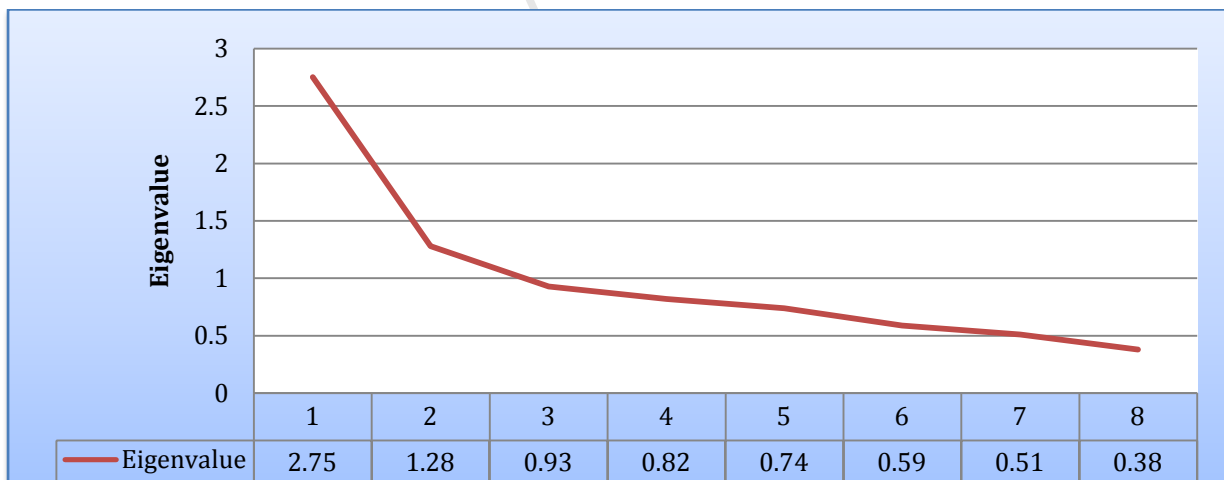


Figure 4-1: Scree plot analysis on the empowerment scale

4.2.3 Descriptive statistics

The average need for empowerment score was 2.50 ($SD = 0.59$; $n = 285$; $minimum = 1$ $maximum = 5$). This score is below the scale midpoint of 3, which suggests that, on average, participants do not have a strong need for empowerment.

4.3 Analysis of need for acceptance scale

4.3.1 Consistency

The Cronbach's alpha for the 11-item need for acceptance scale was .60. The low Cronbach's alpha was caused by four items with corrected item-total correlations below .30 (item 1: $r = .23$; item 2: $r = .14$; item 3: $r = .08$; and item 11: $r = -.16$, see table B-5 in appendix for all item-total correlations). Deleting these items from the scale improved the Cronbach's alpha to .72; therefore, the original 11 item scale was reduced into a seven-item need for acceptance scale (see table B-6 in the appendix for corrected item-total correlations). This seven-item scale was found to be reliable at .72.

4.3.2 Structure

A principal component analysis (without rotation) was conducted to determine the need for acceptance scale's validity. Two components emerged. The eigenvalue of the first component was 2.71 (explained variance of 38.70%). The second component had an eigenvalue of 1.47 (explained variance of 20.92%). As there was a steep decline in eigenvalues between the first and second component and as all items loaded significantly on the first component (minimum loading: .52 (item 4), maximum loading: .73 (item 6)), summarising the need for acceptance items into one overall need for acceptance score was deemed appropriate (see table B-7 in the appendix for principal component analysis reflecting eigenvalues and explained variance for the 7 components). The need for acceptance scale was thus valid.

4.3.3 Descriptive statistics

The average need for acceptance score was 2.56 ($SD = 0.57$; $n = 285$) and thus similar to the average need for empowerment in the sample. It was below the scale midpoint of 3, indicating that, on average, participants did not have a strong need for acceptance.

4.4 Results related to hypotheses

Hypothesis 1:

- a) Previously disadvantaged groups place more value on diversity than previously advantaged groups.
- b) Women value diversity more than men.

Six 2 (male versus female) x 2 (previously advantaged versus disadvantaged) ANOVAs were conducted with each of the diversity items as dependent variables. This served to test whether men and women and both, previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged, South Africans differ in the degree of value they place on diversity. The ANOVA and descriptive results are depicted in Table 4-2. Table 4-3 reflects the mean and standard deviation for previously disadvantaged and previously advantaged groups; women and men.

Table 4-2:

F-values, significance for ANOVAs and interaction effects of gender and previously advantaged vs disadvantaged status as independent variables and individual diversity items as dependent variable

Item content	Model		Main effect for gender		Main effect for prev adv vs disadv, status effect		Interaction effect	
	F(df1: 3; df2 274)	p	F(df1: 1; df2 274)	p	F(df1 : 1; df2 274)	p	F(df1: 1; df2 274)	p
1. I think diverse viewpoints add value at work	1.32	0.27	0.19	0.66	0.38	0.54	1.74	0.19
2. I believe diversity is a strategic business issue	2.47	0.06*	0.27	0.60	6.18	0.01**	0.1	0.76
3. I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own	1.4	0.24	0.13	0.72	3.28	0.07	0.01	0.90
4. Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness	0.41	0.75	0.37	0.55	0.13	0.72	0.14	0.71
5. Knowing more about cultural norms or diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job	3.31	0.02**	7.41	0.01**	0.61	0.44	0.48	0.49
6. I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced	0.73	0.53	0.05	0.83	1.01	0.32	0.81	0.37

**p< 0.05

*p<0.10

Table 4-3:

Means (M) and standard deviations (in brackets) for men, women, previously disadvantaged and previously advantaged individuals on the six diversity items

Diversity items	Gender		Race	
	Female (n = 185)	Male (n = 93)	Prev. disadv. (n = 218)	Prev. adv. (n = 60)
1. I think diverse viewpoints add value at work	4.10 (.82)	4.26 (.92)	4.16 (.90)	4.13 (.68)
2. I believe diversity is a strategic business issue	3.94 (.85)	4.04 (.97)	4.01 (.81)	3.72 (.96)
3. I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own	3.91 (.99)	3.96 (1.10)	3.86 (.99)	4.13 (.81)
4. Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness	2.83 (1.12)	2.69 (1.10)	2.78 (1.12)	2.79 (1.01)
5. Knowing more about cultural norms or diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job	3.64 (1.01)	4.01 (.99)	3.80 (1.02)	3.63 (1.01)
6. I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced	3.50 (1.15)	3.63 (1.06)	3.57 (1.10)	3.45 (1.21)

For item 1 in Table 4.2, no significant effects emerged, indicating that there was no significant difference between either gender or status groups on how much individuals felt diverse viewpoints added value at work.

Table 4.2 shows that for item 2, a significant main effect emerged for the difference between previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged participants. Previously disadvantaged individuals felt to a larger extent that diversity was a strategic business issue than did previously advantaged individuals. No significant differences were observed for items 3, 4 and 6. Item 5 showed a significant gender main effect. Men felt to a larger extent than women that knowing more about cultural norms or diverse groups would help them to be more effective in their jobs, as reflected in the higher average response value for men than for women.

Hypothesis 2:

- a) Previously advantaged groups have a higher need for acceptance than empowerment.
- b) Previously disadvantaged groups have a higher need for empowerment than acceptance.

The paired samples t-test was used to test this hypothesis. Pallant (2005) argues that a paired-samples t-test is applied to compare the mean scores for the same group of people on two different occasions, or when matched pairs are compared on two different variables. Pallant (2005) further provides clarity on the use of paired-samples t-tests by arguing that the same person can be asked to respond to two different questions as long as the feedback is rated on the same scale. Similar to Pallant (2005), Hair et al. (2003) contend that when a researcher collects information from the same sample (related sample) using independent questions, the use of a paired samples t-test is recommended.

While the paired samples t-test is most commonly used to compare the scores of participants on the same variable, for example participants' knowledge of a particular issue before and after a training intervention, Pallant's (2005) explanation shows that this is not a necessary condition for the paired samples t-test to be appropriate. In this study, the scores participants had obtained on two different variables were compared. This was possible as both variables had the same response format (5-point Likert scale) and were thus directly comparable.

Table 4-4

Means (M) and standard deviations (SD) of previously advantaged and disadvantages individuals for their need for acceptance and empowerment

Status	Number of participants	Need for acceptance M (SD)	Need for empowerment M (SD)
Previously disadvantaged individuals	218	2.61 (.56)	2.55 (.61)
Previously advantaged individuals	60	2.36 (.59)	2.29 (.46)

Table 4-4 above shows the average acceptance and empowerment values for the previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged participants. For the previously advantaged individuals, the average acceptance value was found not to be significantly higher ($t(59) = 1.16, p = 0.13$) than the average empowerment value. This part of the hypothesis could thus not be supported. For the previously disadvantaged individuals, the average empowerment value was not found to be significantly higher ($t(217) = 1.58, p = 0.94$) than the average acceptance value. The second part of the hypothesis could not be supported, either. Therefore, hypothesis 2 needs to be rejected. The needs for empowerment and acceptance are equally high for previously disadvantaged and previously advantaged individuals.

Hypothesis 3:

- a) The lower their need for empowerment the more previously disadvantaged South Africans will value diversity.
- b) The lower their need for acceptance the more previously advantaged South Africans will value diversity.

Pearson product moment correlations were computed separately for each part of the above hypothesis. The resulting correlations indicated the degree and significance of the association between the need for empowerment and diversity for previously

disadvantaged individuals, and the degree and significance of the association between the need for acceptance and diversity for previously advantaged individuals.

Table 4-5 shows that in the case of previously disadvantaged individuals, there was no significant correlation between any of the diversity scale items and the need for empowerment, and that in the case of previously advantaged individuals, only diversity items 1, 4 and 6 were significantly negatively related to the need for acceptance.

Table 4-5

Degree of correlation co-efficient and p-value (in brackets) between need for acceptance, need for empowerment and support for diversity (results relevant for hypothesis 3 shaded in grey)

Diversity scale items	Need for Acceptance		Need for Empowerment	
	Previously Adv (n = 60)	Previously Disadv (n = 218)	Previously Adv (n = 60)	Previously Disadv (n = 218)
1. I think diverse viewpoints add value at work	-.30*	.03	-.33*	.11
2. I believe diversity is a strategic business issue	.04	.08	-.06	.09
3. I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own	-.17	-.02	-.15	.09
4. Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness	-.55***	-.13	-.39*	-.10
5. Knowing more about cultural norms or diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job	.01	.02	-.08	.02
6. I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced	-.46***	-.29	-.35*	-.12

*** < 0.01

** < 0.05

* < 0.10

Instead of the expected negative correlation between the need for empowerment and diversity scale items for the previously disadvantaged, no significant correlation was established. Therefore, this part of the hypothesis was not supported.

The significant negative correlation between the need for acceptance and diversity amongst previously advantaged individuals was established only for diversity scale items 1, 4 and 6. The results thus partially support the hypothesis.

Even though the correlations between the need for acceptance and the diversity scale items in previously disadvantaged individuals and the correlations between the need for empowerment and diversity scale items in previously advantaged individuals were not the subject of investigation, for completion sake they are included in Table 4-5. These unsolicited results may assist in providing potential reasons for the partial support of the current hypothesis. The previously advantaged individuals showed a significant negative correlation between the need for empowerment and diversity in diversity scale items 1, 4 and 6. There was a significant correlation between need for empowerment and the following diversity scale items among the previously advantaged:

- 1 (I think diverse viewpoints add value at work);
- 4 (Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness); and
- 6 (I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced).

A significant correlation was also found between the need for acceptance and diversity scale item 6 (I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced) among the previously disadvantaged individuals.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results will be summarised and compared to prior literature, limitations will be highlighted and recommendation for future research as well as practical implications raised. The chapter ends with a conclusion. Cox (1991) mentions ongoing survey feedback as a tool to gauge the feelings of employees relating to diversity so that an organisation can identify shortcomings and devise solutions. Therefore it was, firstly, at the centre of this study to establish the extent to which diverse employees (previously advantaged employees, previously disadvantaged employees, men and women) value diversity given the current legislated transformation initiatives. Secondly, it was expected in the current research that the use of the NBMR would assist to establish whether previously advantaged individuals have a higher need for acceptance than empowerment. It would also assist in establishing whether previously disadvantaged individuals have a higher need for empowerment than acceptance. The identification of the level of existence of these needs will assist in redirecting efforts to reconcile in the workplace. It was also expected that the lower the need for acceptance in previously advantaged individuals and empowerment in previously disadvantaged individuals, the more individuals would value diversity. The assumption was that the degree of satisfaction of these needs informs the extent to which diversity would be valued in previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged individuals respectively.

5.2 Value placed on diversity by previously disadvantaged and advantaged groups; women and men

The expected greater value placed on diversity by previously disadvantaged employees than by previously advantaged employees and by women than by men is the focus of this section. This section on diversity is guided by the results obtained in this current research. To a large extent, the results did not support the hypothesis. It should also be taken into consideration that the diversity scale was not reliable and that individual items were therefore analysed. Previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged individuals – both men and women – did not differ in the extent to which they embraced diversity for most of the diversity items. This is a contradiction from the results obtained by Mo Barak et al (1998), upon which this study was based. It also differed from research

on employment equity conducted two months prior to this study in the same organisation (The Human Capital Engine, 2011). This was clear in instances where employees from previously advantaged groups were vocal in their frustration about what they perceived as the never-ending employment equity implementation. Previously disadvantaged employees on the other hand, had expressed the view that previously advantaged employees were favoured in terms of promotion. However, it should be noted that, due to the history of discrimination and based on personal experience, minority groups tend to differ from majority groups in how far racial equality has been achieved (Eibach & Ehrlinger, 2006). Eibach and Ehrlinger argue that in the United States minority group members (or previously disadvantaged individuals in the South African context) consider that they have not yet obtained equal status. Majority groups (or previously advantaged individuals in South Africa), on the other hand, tend to consider that advancements from the previous status quo have been made, suggesting that affirmative action has been successful.

The employment equity survey conducted by the employer prior to this survey may have contributed to a limited interest on the side of the previously advantaged group to complete the latest survey, and reasonable participation from this group was only obtained subsequent to an extension and subsequent reminders. Approximately a quarter of the participants in the sample belonged to the previously advantaged group. This was partly due to the fact that the business unit within which the research was conducted employed few previously advantaged employees. It was, thus, necessary to approach other business units within the organisation where previously advantaged individuals were in the majority. As few previously advantaged participants responded, even from those business units despite subsequent reminders, the researcher had to ask close acquaintances, mostly from previously disadvantaged background, to approach their friends and colleagues in order to reach an acceptable number of previously advantaged participants. Therefore, it is possible that some or most of the previously advantaged individuals who participated in this survey may have embraced diversity more than the non-participants.

Men expressing more than women that knowing more about cultural norms and diverse groups would help them be more effective in their job was inconsistent with the

expected results. This may be due to the fact that, until recently, men have paid less attention to diversity issues in the workplace than women who have thus already gained substantial knowledge about members of other cultural groups. Male employees, in the past, were the dominant group and therefore might not have seen a need to know more about other groups. The results of this study indicated that men now have the perception that they need to know more. In South Africa, women of all races were regarded as inferior and they held low-level positions, if any positions at all in business, compared to men (Littrell & Nkomo, 2005). Men and women therefore held different reference points due to past experiences (Eibach & Ehrlinger, 2006). If Littrell and Nkomo's argument is adopted, women approach situations from a less empowered viewpoint than men do. It should therefore hold true that in the past, men did not see any benefits in business interactions with women who held low-level positions with limited influence. In a study conducted in the United States (Tropp & Bianchi, 2006), minority group members showed interest in contact with the majority only when they were convinced that diversity was valued by the majority while the majority group did not impose any conditions.

The only aspect of diversity in which previously advantaged and disadvantaged individuals differed was the consideration of diversity as a strategic business issue. Previously disadvantaged individuals considered this as more important. In the employment equity survey conducted in the same organisation roughly two months before the current study took place, it was noted that no diversity policy existed in the organisation to compliment the employment equity policy (The Human Capital Engine, 2011). The Human Capital Engine found that the organisation's employment equity policy focused only on the achievement of employment equity targets and not on other diversity-related issues such as the management of perceptions from diverse cultural groups. This could suggest to employees that the company itself does not consider diversity as a strategic business issue. Previously advantaged individuals do thus not see its relevance. Previously disadvantaged employees, on the other hand, who might have experienced adverse effects of the lack of a documented diversity strategy, see a need for diversity to be brought into the company's strategy. This might be related to power dynamics. Research conducted in the United States by Mor Barak et al. (1998) has shown that the value placed on diversity by different groups varies according to their status in

the workplace. The previously disadvantaged individuals' perception of diversity as a strategic business issue should be seen in the interest of creating better processes of arriving at representative decisions reflective of a multicultural workplace (Cox, 1991). If diversity is viewed as a strategic business issue, the perception is that it should be prioritised and supported by legitimate policies.

There were no other significant differences in diversity perceptions between men and women and previously disadvantaged and advantaged employees, which is inconsistent with Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) findings. This might be attributed to the changing demographic make-up of the company in which this study was conducted. The change in the political landscape in South Africa, which has led to the abolition of apartheid laws and the emergence of employment legislative requirements such as the Employment Equity Act (1998) has forced companies to transform. The business unit where this study was conducted, is just but one of the companies which has observed the legislative requirements of diversity, such as the Employment Equity Act (1998). The demographic make-up at the company where this study was conducted consists of a larger number of employees from previously disadvantaged groups in senior positions compared to members from the previously advantaged racial groups. In this environment, positions which were historically occupied by previously advantaged individuals are now occupied by previously disadvantaged individuals and therefore the behaviours which should have been directed at previously advantaged individuals in authority are now directed at previously disadvantaged individuals. Previously disadvantaged managers may find themselves in precarious positions because by virtue of being in management, they are accountable for the profitability of the company whose model is based on a Eurocentric systems as opposed to African models (Mangaliso, 2001; Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). Therefore, these managers need to learn fast in the foreign system compared to the African style of management to which they may be accustomed and they are now accountable for profitable production and leading the workforce. This can lead to alienation considering the conflicting positions they occupy, namely the employer's expectation of profits based on the Eurocentric model of production and subordinates' mixed expectations. Studies carried out in other organisations may be different due to differing degrees of appreciation of diversity in different organisations. Value placed on

diversity is therefore informed by the context of the organisation and the degree of emotional needs of those involved.

5.3 Needs for acceptance and empowerment in previously advantaged and disadvantaged groups

The second hypothesis tested whether previously advantaged groups have a higher need for acceptance than for empowerment, and whether previously disadvantaged groups have a higher need for empowerment than for acceptance. It aimed to replicate research by Forte (2011) who had shown that previously disadvantaged South Africans have a higher need for empowerment while previously advantaged individuals have a higher need for acceptance. It was assumed that once these needs have been met both groups would support diversity.

The data did not support the hypothesis. In previously advantaged individuals, on average the need for acceptance was not found to be significantly higher than the need for empowerment. Equally so, in previously disadvantaged individuals, on average, the needs for empowerment and acceptance were the same. The lack of a significant difference between the need for acceptance and empowerment for both, previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged individuals meant the second hypotheses was not supported. This result, therefore, contradicts the finding of Forte (2011) and the assumptions of Shnabel and Nadler's (2008) NBMR. The reason for the difference in findings may be attributed to the composition of the sample. The business unit from which the majority of the sample was drawn, was mainly composed of employees from previously disadvantaged groups. These individuals also held more senior positions than white employees. Therefore, comparatively speaking, the make-up of the company used in the current research might have been different from the make-up of the company where Forte (2011) conducted her research. The fact that there were mainly previously disadvantaged individuals in management positions might mean that they were already empowered; thus, they have a lower need for empowerment than employees in other organisations. For the same reason previously advantaged individuals might have had a higher need for empowerment than in other organisations. This may also mean that previously advantaged employees may feel accepted by members from the previously disadvantaged group and in their organisation itself.

The implication for this study is that, given the stage of transformation in the company, in which data was collected, previously disadvantaged groups do not need to be empowered. This may be due to the previously disadvantaged individuals' lack of trust of the previously advantaged to value diversity (Tropp & Bianchi, 2006). It may also hold true that previously disadvantaged participants feel empowered as they have the skills to do the job for which they are appointed thereby valuing diversity through the diverse skills they bring to the workplace (Adam, 1997).

Previously disadvantaged employees might have felt empowered by occupying senior positions or even merely by being employed. The retired Archbishop of Cape Town, Desmond Tutu's assertion that most black people remain the have-nots (De Lange, 2011) provides a reason for the feeling of empowerment if one has employment. The relatively high need for acceptance among previously advantaged individuals may be due to the changing political landscape, supported by employment legislation, such as the Employment Equity Act (1998). This may be also be a question for further research as the results may be different in other organisations than they were in the organisation in question.

In the last hypothesis, it was expected that the lower their need for empowerment the more previously disadvantaged South Africans value diversity. Equally, the lower their need for acceptance, the more previously advantaged South Africans value diversity. No significant correlation was found between any of the diversity scale items and empowerment for the previously disadvantaged group. For previously advantaged individuals, only diversity items 1 (I think diverse viewpoints add value at work), 4 (Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness) and 6 (I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced) were significantly negatively related to their need for acceptance.

This is in line with the NBMR arguments that perpetrators are more willing to reconcile when their need for acceptance has been addressed (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008).

The NBMR theorists argue that victims have a need for empowerment while perpetrators have a need for acceptance (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008). Therefore, previously advantaged individuals have a need to be socially accepted by previously disadvantaged

South Africans as a prerequisite to value diversity. Previously disadvantaged South Africans have a need to be empowered or be seen and affirmed as powerful citizens by previously advantaged South Africans as a prerequisite to valuing diversity. On the whole, this hypothesis aimed to assess whether a lower need for empowerment among previously disadvantaged South Africans and a lower need for acceptance among previously advantaged South Africans would be associated with a higher value for diversity. The low need for empowerment among previously disadvantaged individuals was not found to be significantly negatively correlated to any of the diversity aspects.

5.4 Conclusion

The significance of the results is that, as much as progress has been made in terms of legislative changes, there is still room for improvement. This means the diverse skills offered by all employees have not been fully utilised as they would in multicultural organisations (Alvarez-Robinson, 2001). While the Employment Equity Act (1998) assists in making organisations representative in terms of numbers and policies exist to eradicate imbalances of the past, these tend to lead to reverse discrimination where whites feel alienated and offer the bare minimum performance. Previously disadvantaged individuals felt more than previously advantaged individuals that diversity was a strategic business issue. This may be associated with the legislative reliance of the company with more bias towards demographic transformation than a focus on the emotional needs. If diversity is going to be considered a strategic business issue the company needs to develop policies that promote inclusive decision-making and proper utilisation of diversity in the organisation (Cox, 1991; Mor Barak et al., 1998). The prioritisation of diversity by incorporation into policies should also take into consideration the interest men have shown more than women to know more about cultural norms or diverse groups. Such knowledge might help them be more effective in their jobs. An investment in mentoring and social events where men would interact with other cultural groups within the company is recommended (Cox, 1991).

5.4 Limitations and recommendations for future research

A limitation of this study was that it was a self-reported diversity study conducted in only one organisation. The diversity context of the participating organisation may not be

generalisable to all South African workplaces. The research organisation is unique because in addition to legislative requirements to transform, its major client places additional diversity requirements on the organisation such as the reflection of the national demographics on the organisation demographics at all levels. Although the stage of South African change is considered to be in the non-discriminatory stage (Ocholla, 2002), organisations differ in their levels to which of transformation has been achieved due to different cultures and unique business requirements. Transformation cannot be completed without fully graduating from the non-discriminatory stage to a multicultural stage

As an employment equity survey had recently been conducted in the organisation in which data was collected, the organisation's management had compelled the researcher not to include items which could be perceived as a repeat of the employment equity survey by participants. This meant that the items related to the organisational dimension of Mor Barak et al's (1998) diversity scale had to be omitted. The results revealed that the personal dimension subscale, utilised in isolation, was not valid and reliable. For this reason, the hypotheses were tested using the individual diversity items instead of scale scores, but Gliem and Gliem (2003) point out that single item analyses are unreliable. Further research should therefore look at utilising the whole diversity perception scale inclusive of the organisational dimension, which probes deeper into the policies of a company, or possibly to find different scales to measure perceptions of diversity.

Previously advantaged individuals were less-represented in the sample compared to the previously disadvantaged individuals. The limited willingness by previously advantaged individuals to participate in the study may have affected the results of the study because those who did not participate may hold different views to those of individuals who participated. The need for empowerment and need for acceptance scales were developed for the purposes of this study and future research should establish their value by conducting further validity analyses.

Since the advent of democracy, progress informed by employment equity has been observed although it is slow. This may have an impact on the psychological orientation of employees in the workplace. The partial support of hypotheses 1 and 3 provides a reason for further investigation. It is also recommended that future research should look into

whether previously advantaged individuals and previously disadvantaged employees have a need for both acceptance and empowerment in organisations with different organisational contexts.

6. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate factors that are associated with employees' value for diversity through the application of Mor Barak et al.'s (1998) study on diversity and the NBMR in the South African context (Shnabel & Nadler, 2008).

The research started off by investigating the extent to which previously disadvantaged groups place more value on diversity than previously advantaged groups, and the question whether women value diversity more than men. Even though an established diversity scale was employed it was found not reliable. During the analysis of individual diversity items, differences between male and female and previously advantaged and disadvantaged employees were found on two aspects of diversity. Firstly, previously disadvantaged employees were found to support diversity as a strategic business issue more than previously advantaged employees, while men were found to support diversity as a strategic business issue more than women. The respective experiences of previously advantaged and previously disadvantaged groups regarding diversity are displayed in the different perspectives from which the different groups approach diversity. Lastly, men felt to a larger extent than women that becoming knowledgeable about cultural norms or diverse groups would help them to be more effective in their jobs. The advantaged status men enjoyed in the past may have led to their ignorance of interactions with women in the workplace. This interaction may not have been important in the past, as men did not benefit from business relations with women due to lack of influence women had.

The remainder of the study focused on the investigation of the level of the need for empowerment and the need for acceptance among previously disadvantaged employees and previously advantaged employees respectively in order to explore the applicability of the NBMR in the South African work context. Lastly, the correlation between the respective needs and diversity in both groups of employees was explored as follows:

- a) previously advantaged groups have a higher need for acceptance than for empowerment;
- b) previously disadvantaged groups have a higher need for empowerment than for acceptance;

- c) the lower the need for empowerment, the more previously disadvantaged individuals will value diversity; and
- d) the lower the need for acceptance the more previously advantaged individuals will value diversity.

For the previously advantaged individuals, the need for acceptance was found not to be significantly higher than the average empowerment. For the previously disadvantaged individuals, the average empowerment was not found to be significantly higher than the average acceptance. Therefore, this hypothesis (2) could not be supported by data in its entirety. The finding on the last hypothesis was that for previously disadvantaged individuals, there is no significant correlation between any of the diversity scale items and empowerment, and for the previously advantaged individuals, only diversity items 1, 4 and 6 are significantly negatively related to acceptance. This hypothesis (3) was therefore partially supported. The current discussion of the results is well supported by literature; however, depending on the culture, demographic make-up and period within which the study is conducted in another organisation, different outcomes may be reached.

The implications for the human resources practitioners is that Employment Equity Act (1998) should be included in the strategy of the company and implemented in its entirety inclusive of diversity. The previously disadvantaged individuals who feel it is a strategic business issue because the policies may not translate into observable behaviours. The diversity programmes should include mentorship and informal social events (Cox, 1991) to allow intercultural mentorship and expose men to other cultural groups to afford them to get to know other cultural groups better. Although informal these should be well developed programmes with clear outcomes in order to enhance effectiveness on the job by men and employees at large.

The association between need for acceptance and diversity in previously advantaged employees means that some employees have a lower need for acceptance and the satisfaction of this need would help them to embrace diverse viewpoints. If diversity issues keep some work teams from performing to their maximum effectiveness and some individuals are afraid to disagree with members of other groups diversity interventions need to be prioritised. Employee engagements through climate surveys

and appropriate interventions are necessary in this company in order to keep leadership informed of employee feelings.

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Appendix A - Survey

Survey into factors related to diversity in the workplace

Created: July 12 2011, 10:08

Last Modified: August 17 2011, 15:01

Design Theme: Chalk Board

Language: English

Button Options: Custom: Start Survey: "Start Survey!" Submit: "Submit"

Disable Browser "Back" Button: False

University of Cape Town

Introduction

Welcome to my survey

The purpose of this research is to conduct an investigation into factors related to diversity in the workplace. I am conducting this research as part of my Master's degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of Cape Town. Participation in this survey will take approximately 10 minutes. It will not be possible to link your answers in this survey to you personally. Your participation is thus anonymous and confidential. Please note that your participation is also voluntary. You may opt out of completing the survey at any point.

Three participants will win a Woolworths voucher to the value of R400.00 in a lucky draw. If you want to take part in this lucky draw, please forward your name and surname to the e-mail address provided at the end of the survey. If you have any questions about this research please contact me on phako@mhg.co.za.

Thank you for your participation.

Yours sincerely

Pumla Hako

An investigation into factors related to diversity in the workplace

Page 1 – Heading

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following 30 statements relating to your workplace by ticking the answer option that best reflects your view.

Page 1 – Question 1 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I think diverse viewpoints add value at work

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 2 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I believe diversity is a strategic business issue

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 3 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I feel at ease with people from backgrounds other than my own

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree or disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 4 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

Diversity issues keep some work teams here from performing to their maximum effectiveness

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither Agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 5 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

Knowing more about cultural norms or diverse groups would help me be more effective in my job

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 6 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I am afraid to disagree with members of other groups for fear of being called prejudiced

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 7 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I would like to have more authority than I currently have to take decisions

- Strongly disagree

- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 8 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I do not want a position just because I am of a particular race and/or gender

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 9 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I want to know that I am promoted because of my capabilities, not just because of my race and/or gender

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree or disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 10 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

It is hard for me to progress in my career in South Africa

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 11 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I want my colleagues to know that I do not act without thinking

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 12 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I would like my colleagues to understand the reasons that inform my behaviour in my workplace

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 13 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be considered for a promotion

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 14 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

My company and colleagues support me in developing my skills further

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree

- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 15 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be allocated a performance score that qualifies me for a salary increase

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 16 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I have been appointed to my position because I have the required competence

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 17 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

My colleagues seem to think that I do not deserve to be in this position

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 18 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I feel accepted at work

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 19 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I feel I have a right to be appointed into any suitable position because of my current work performance, qualifications and my future potential

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 20 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

When I experience difficulties at work my colleagues assist me without doubting my capability

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 21 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I have to work extra hard for my colleagues to accept me

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 22 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I am acknowledged for my work achievements

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 23 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

My ideas are valued at my workplace

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 24 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I often feel unaccepted in my workplace

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree

- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 25 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

If I make a mistake my supervisor usually think it happened because I do not know what I am doing

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 26 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

My colleagues trust that I have good intentions

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 27 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I am equipped with the required skills to perform even better in my workplace than I currently do

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 28 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I feel I have to justify reasons for the decisions I make at work

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 29 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I feel my ideas are appreciated by my colleagues

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 1 – Question 30 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

I have a right to be in my position because I am South African

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Agree
- Strongly agree

Page 2 – Heading

Please provide your demographic details

Page 2 – Question 31 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

Please indicate your race

- Coloured

- White
- Indian
- Black African
- Prefer not to answer

Page 2 – Question 32 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

Please indicate your role in the company

- Clerical
- Specialist
- Team leader
- Manager
- Senior manager
- Executive
- Other, please specify

Page 2 – Question 33 – Choice – One Answer (Drop Down) [Mandatory]

Please indicate your age by choosing from the drop down menu

- 18
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- 60

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Page 2 – Question 34 – Choice – One Answer (Bullets) [Mandatory]

Please indicate your gender

- Male
- Female
- Other

Thank You page

If you wish to participate in a lucky draw, please forward your name and surname to hakoluckydraw@gmail.com to stand a chance to win one of three Woolworths vouchers to the value of R400.00.

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Appendix B - Tables

Table B-1

Item-total correlation for empowerment scale

Empowerment items	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
1. I would like to have more authority than I currently have to take decisions	.28 .14 .06	.62 .65 .65
2. I do not want a position just because I am of a particular race and or gender		
3. I want to know that I am promoted because of my capabilities, not just because of my race and or gender		
4. My company and colleagues support me in developing my skills further	.44	.59
5. I have been appointed to my position because I have the required competence	.02	.66
6. My colleagues seem to think I do not deserve to be in this position	.29	.62
7. I feel I have a right to be appointed into any suitable position because of my current work performance, qualifications and my future potential	.06	.65
8. When I experience difficulties at work my colleagues assist me without doubting my capability	.31	.62
9. I am acknowledged for my work achievements	.50	.58
10. My ideas are valued at work	.52	.58
11. If I make a mistake my supervisor usually thinks it happened because I do not know what I am doing	.43	.60
12. I am equipped with the required skills to perform even better in my workplace than I currently do	.10	.65
13. I feel I have to justify reasons for the decisions I make at work	.35	.61

Table B-2

Item-total correlation for empowerment scale after removal of items 2, 3, 5, 7 and 12

Empowerment items	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted
1. I would like to have more authority than I currently have to take decisions	.27	.72
4. My company and colleagues support me in developing my skills further	.46	.68
6. My colleagues seem to think I do not deserve to be in this position	.30	.709
8. When I experience difficulties at work my colleagues assist me without doubting my capability	.35	.70
9. I am acknowledged for my work achievements	.54	.65
10. My ideas are valued at work	.54	.66
11. If I make a mistake my supervisor usually thinks it happened because I do not know what I am doing	.45	.68
13. I feel I have to justify reasons for the decisions I make at work	.37	.70

Table B-2

Principal component analysis reflecting eigenvalues and explained variance for the 8 need for empowerment components

Component	Eigenvalue	Explained variance%
1	2.75	34.41
2	1.28	16.00
3	.93	11.58
4	.82	10.20
5	.74	9.25
6	.59	7.37
7	.51	6.40
8	.38	4.80

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Table B-4

Component factor loadings per empowerment item

Need for empowerment items	Components							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. I am acknowledged for my work achievements	.74	-.32	-.19	-.019	-.180	.20	-.30	-.39
10. My ideas are valued at work	.74	-.37	-.18	-.183	.084	.04	-.22	.44
6. My company and colleagues support me in developing my skills further	.65	-.44	.06	-.054	-.264	-.20	.52	-.03
11. If I make a mistake my supervisor usually thinks it happened because I do not know what I am doing	.60	.42	.07	-.301	.237	-.53	-.12	-.12
1. I feel I have to justify reasons for the decisions I make at work	.52	.50	.27	-.391	.067	.47	.18	.01
8. When I experience difficulties at work my colleagues assist me without doubting my capability	.51	.23	-.47	.47	.45	.09	.20	-.02
1. I would like to have more authority than I currently have to take decisions	.42	.58	-.02	.35	-.58	-.06	-.09	.14
6. My colleagues seem to think I do not deserve to be in this position	.40	-.20	.75	.43	.21	.01	-.10	.01

Table B-5

Item-total correlation for acceptance scale

	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Need for acceptance items		
1. It is hard for me to progress in my career in South Africa	.23	.60
2. I want my colleagues to know that I do not act without thinking	.14	.60
3. I would like my colleagues to understand the reasons that inform my behaviour in my workplace	.08	.61
4. I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be considered for a promotion	.46	.53
5. I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be allocated a performance score that qualifies me for a salary	.382	.55
6. I feel accepted at work	.467	.54
7. I have to work extra hard for my colleagues to accept me	.399	.55
8. I often feel unaccepted in my workplace	.467	.53
9. My colleagues trust that I have good intentions	.315	.58
10. I feel my ideas are appreciated by my colleagues	.382	.56
11. I have a right to be in my position because I am South African	-.156	.69

Table B-6

Item-total correlation for acceptance scale without items 1, 2, 3 and 11

Need for acceptance items	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
4. I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be considered for a promotion	.44	.69
5. I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be allocated a performance score that qualifies me for a salary	.43	.69
6. I feel accepted at work	.51	.67
7. I have to work extra hard for my colleagues to accept me	.47	.68
8. I often feel unaccepted in my workplace	.44	.68
9. My colleagues trust that I have good intentions	.36	.70
10. I feel my ideas are appreciated by my colleagues	.41	.69

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Table B-7

Principal component analysis reflecting eigenvalues and explained variance for the seven need for acceptance components

Component	Eigenvalue	Explained variance %
1	2.71	38.70
2	1.47	20.92
3	.90	12.82
4	.65	9.31
5	.50	7.18
6	.42	6.04
7	.35	5.03

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Table B-8

Component factor loadings per acceptance item

Need for acceptance items	Component						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel accepted at work	.74	-.27	-.28	-.25	-.15	-.47	.02
8. I often feel unaccepted in my workplace	.68	-.25	-.48	-.24	.18	.37	-.13
10. I have a right to be in my position because I am South African	.64	-.34	.47	.04	-.45	.18	-.13
7. I have to work extra hard for my colleagues to accept me	.62	.23	-.32	.67	-.06	-.01	.05
9. I feel my ideas are appreciated by my colleagues	.60	-.46	.43	.11	.43	-.04	.21
5. I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be allocated a performance score that qualifies me for a salary	.52	.68	.27	-.05	.21	-.12	-.37
4. I have to work harder than my colleagues in order to be considered for a promotion	.52	.70	.08	-.26	-.11	.13	.37