THE IMPACT OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION ON OVERSEAS EMPLOYMENT DECISION OF FINAL YEAR STUDENTS

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STATEMENT

I certify that the dissertation submitted by me for the degree Magister Artium (Industrial Psychology) at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University is my independent work and has not been submitted by me for a degree at another university.

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RENALDO GOUWS

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ABSTRACT

Economical and educational problems are caused by the reversed effect of the Employment Equity Act and Affirmative Action. One such problem is called “brain drain” (Lundy, 2006),

The general aim of the research was to determine whether affirmative action caused final year students of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University to consider overseas employment.

A literature study was conducted before the empirical objectives were reached. The empirical study was of a quantitative descriptive and inferential nature. A cross-sectional survey design was used to achieve the empirical objectives. A self-administered survey package was handed out to final year students within the various disciplines at their various classes.

One hypothesis was tested. The results indicated that support was found for the hypothesis. The findings are discussed in relation to the data gathered. The implications of the research and the limitations of the study are outlined in the Results chapter.

CHAPTER 1
RESEARCH ORIENTATION

This research project focuses on the influence that affirmative action (will be referred to from here on as AA) has on final year Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University students' decision to leave South Africa in order to find employment overseas. The purpose of this proposal is to provide an overview of the theoretical background, the problem statement, objectives and the design of the study. In addition, the research design and the method are to be explicated. The chapter is concluded with an outline of the chapters to follow in the dissertation.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

South Africa is a young democracy with many prospective changes on political, societal and educational levels expected. Before 1991, international sanctions prevented people from travelling or migrating to and from the country. The country was under Apartheid rule, which implied different educational and social standards for the various cultural groups of South Africa.

Eventually, one cultural group benefited from exceptional academic education and job reservations. Such a group, that was in the minority, gained a level of experience in all occupational spheres, to the disadvantage of the majority.

The majority of citizens where thus excluded from quality education and white collar jobs. Such groups had to follow careers and education that mainly focused on manual labour with less progression into managerial, office or clerical work.

A new political and social dispensation emerged out of the first democratic election in 1994. This new dispensation enables all South African citizens to study almost any curriculum they want to, to migrate between South Africa and almost any country in the

world and to apply for any job advertisement inside the country.

In order to benefit all citizens in terms of job access, irrespective of gender or cultural group, the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998) was implemented. This act enforces preference to former disadvantaged groups like blacks, Indians, coloureds, Chinese people and people with disabilities (Hermann, 2000).

Given that the Employment Equity Act, from here on known as the EE Act, also stimulates affirmative action (AA), which is a voluntary process to give preference to the above disadvantaged groups with less experience than those that still have the most experience. The latter is strictly limited to enhance in promotion or migrate between companies.

In order to enhance in promotion or to migrate between companies or occupations, experienced individuals, who are restricted by the EE Act as well as AA, immigrate to overseas countries to gain benefits on an equal basis in comparison with other overseas employees.

Economical and educational problems are caused by the reversed effect of the EE Act and AA. One such problem is called “brain drain” (Lundy, 2006), which is to be discussed in the next section.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The term “brain drain” was first used by the British Royal Society in the 1960’s to describe the loss of highly skilled scientists and technologists from the UK to the USA and Canada. Today it is often used to describe the emigration of professionals from South Africa (Lundy, 2006). In this research the brain drain refers to those skilled workers who leave South Africa for employment overseas.

According to Lundy (2006) emigration statistics are often quoted in isolation in the media as a way of highlighting the seriousness of the brain drain. International migration is, however, a complex phenomenon, involving both the inflow and outflow of people. It is also a phenomenon that is notoriously difficult to measure accurately. Therefore a balanced view must be taken when assessing the impact of the movement of skilled professionals in and out of South Africa.

It is very difficult to measure the extent of permanent migration between any two countries. There is no international measuring standard when it comes to migration, and information is not always comparable. In general, information on immigration is more reliable than information on emigration. People do not always declare their intention to leave permanently and in South Africa's case many also have two passports and do not have to declare a permanent move on either side (Lundy, 2006).

Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) is the primary source of migration statistics in South Africa. On the outward bound side, they can only measure self-declared emigration, which is different from actual emigration, because they rely on South African residents completing departure forms at the three international airports of Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban.

The loss of highly skilled professionals has several negative consequences for our economy. The economy is currently growing at 4.8 percent and the government is aiming for 6 percent growth, but a shortage of skilled people like engineers could limit the growth (Lundy, 2006).

Lundy (2006) adds that the major indirect costs of the brain drain can be found in the cost of training professionals who leave, as well as lost experience. The above includes exporting of assets, as people move their money and households abroad.

There have been three major peaks in emigration from South Africa, in 1977 (after the 1976 Soweto riots), 1986 (during the State of Emergency) and 1994 (at the transition from white minority to majority rule, which implies that politics has played a big part in people's decision to leave. Amongst the other most common reasons for leaving are crime, AA, Black Economic Empowerment, hereon referred to as BBBEE, and children's education (Lundy, 2006).

Lundy (2006) also adds that South Africa has undoubtedly suffered to some extent from the brain drain the past ten years, although establishing its extent and impact is far more difficult than much of the media would like to admit.

Due to the fact that direct figures, to calculate general brain drain, are not accurate or not available, researchers have access to universities and students. Through this source, a possible estimate can be calculated of those graduates who consider leaving the country.

It is therefore important to conduct this study in order to gain insight into the relationship between AA and brain drain regarding graduates. A further motive is to establish whether the relationship between AA and brain drain is positive or negative.

Currently, there is the perception that AA positively impacts on brain drain, meaning people are leaving because of it (Lundy, 2006). Furthermore, the South African economy loses revenue by training students locally just to see them leave to the benefit of foreign economies. The purpose of this study will be to establish whether this presumption is correct or incorrect.

The following research questions emanates from the above problem statement.

- Does AA impact on final year students' decision to find work overseas?
- How would the impact of AA be reflected on a sample of final year students?

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS

1.3.1 General Aim

The general aim of the research was to determine whether AA causes final year students of the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University (from here on referred to as NMMU) to consider overseas employment.

1.3.2 Specific Aim

The following was formulated as the literature objective:

- To conceptualise the impact of AA on final year students perceptions on the availability of jobs.

The following was formulated as an empirical objective:

- To determine the impact of AA on a sample of final year students to consider overseas employment.

1.4 RESEARCH MODEL

The research model proposed by Mouton and Marais (1992, p21), served as an over-arching framework for the research process to investigate and address the above-mentioned problem statement and research objectives. In accordance with this model, the assumption can be made that research is a social process. This process is driven by certain disciplines.

Industrial and Organisational Psychology is the discipline through which this research will take place. In terms of this discipline the behavioural assumptions about the empirical study are made out of a humanistic perspective. Humanism assumes that every organism has an inherent growth potential or self-actualization tendency (Shaghnessy and Zechmeister, 1997)

In the case of this research, it can be assumed that final year students have an inherent growth potential via academic studies in order to enhance in selected job opportunities. However the self-actualizing tendency is suppressed or limited by AA. Further growth potential within the South African work context cannot readily be fulfilled and therefore students must seek overseas jobs to satisfy such potential.

Another model that was utilized in this research was that of Abraham Maslow. According to Shaghnessy and Zechmeister (1997) Maslow has set up a hierarchic theory of needs. All of his basic needs are instinctual, equivalent of instincts in animals. Humans start with a very weak disposition that is then fashioned fully as the person grows. If the environment is right, people will “grow straight and beautiful”; actualizing the potentials they have inherited. If the environment is not "right" (and mostly it is not) they will not grow tall and straight and beautiful.

Whereas the Mouton and Marias (1992) model serves as a framework for the research process, Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs serves as the framework to conceptualize human needs in the work environment.

The hierarchy process is explained as follows:

According to Shaghnessy and Zechmeister (1997) Maslow has set up a hierarchy of five levels of basic needs. Beyond these needs, higher levels of needs exist. These include needs for understanding, esthetic appreciation and purely spiritual needs. In the levels of the five basic needs, the person does not feel the second need until the demands of the first have been satisfied or the final until the second has been satisfied, and so on. The five needs in order are:

- Physiological Needs
- Safety Needs
- Needs of Love, Affection and Belongingness

- Needs for Esteem
- Needs for Self-Actualization

By focusing on Maslow's theory of needs one believes that one can find that AA might prevent certain final year students from meeting their psychological needs and therefore leaving South Africa to satisfy the needs elsewhere.

In this regard one can assume that the needs by final year students to find work in their particular area of expertise might be limited due to AA. In this instance AA acts as the barrier for the individual to move from the one set of needs to the next level, as outlined by Maslow's theory.

During the research process the following concepts are part of the research but not measured or explained:

- Anxiety - a relatively permanent state of worry and nervousness occurring in a variety of mental disorders (Beck & Emery, 2005).
- Anger - a strong emotion; a feeling that is oriented toward some real or supposed grievance (Burns, Quartana & Bruehl, 2008).
- Stress - difficulty that causes worry or emotional tension (Edwards, 1992).
- Frustration - The feelings, thoughts, and behaviors associated with not achieving a particular goal or the belief that a goal has been prematurely interrupted (Aubrey, 2008).

1.5 HYPOTHESIS FORMULATION

This last step, the decision-making, will result in either the rejection of, or failure to reject the hypothesis being tested, and will ultimately answer the research question posed in the first step of the process. The following hypothesis can be formulated:

HYPOTHESIS:

Affirmative Action has a positive influence on final year students' decision to leave South Africa.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

The following sections explain the components of the design, namely the research type, validity and reliability of the study, the sample, the measuring instruments, how data was collected, how the data was analysed and the ethical responsibility of the researcher.

1.6.1 Research Type

A literature study was conducted before the empirical objectives could be reached. Primary literature sources form the theoretical basis for the research. Where primary data was not available, secondary information was consulted. AA formed the independent variable whilst student's perceptions constituted the dependant variable.

The empirical study was of quantitative descriptive and inferential nature. A cross-sectional survey design was used to achieve the empirical objectives. The survey technique of data collection was applied to gather information from the target population by means of questionnaires (Shaughnassy & Zechmeister, 1997). Perceptions of individual final year students formed the unit of analysis.

1.6.2 Validity and Reliability of the Study

Validity and reliability of the literature study was improved by:

- Giving conceptual descriptions of concepts that are relevant to this research;

- Consulting literature and text that is mostly of recent and accredited nature;
- Collecting literature through a standardised and systematic procedure;

Validity and reliability in terms of the empirical study can be improved by:

- Applying measuring instruments that were used for similar purposes and which predict high levels of validity, as well as consistency;
- Obtaining data from a representative sample with a magnitude that supports statistical and practical significance.

1.6.3 The Sample

Everitt (1998, p114) defines a population as the total collection of actual and/or potential realizations of the unit of analysis, whether observed or not. Sample is a specific, finite and realized set of observations of the unit of analysis.

The population consisted of the final year students that were currently studying at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth. The total number of final year students is unknown to the researcher.

The sample consists of 194 students all of whom were in their final year. The sample reflected the broad characteristics of the student population in terms of gender and ethnicity.

1.6.4 Measuring Instruments

The measuring instruments that were used in the empherical study were:

- Attitudes towards AA
- Justice perceptions of the employment equity act

1.6.5 Data Collection

Data was collected from the students in the class by means of questionnaires as fully explained in chapter 3 (section 3.2).

1.6.6 Data Analysis

Data collected by means of questionnaires was captured and analyzed in a statistical software program as explained in chapter 3.

1.6.7 Ethical Responsibility in the Research

The APA ethical guide provides a common set of principles and standards upon which psychologists base their professional and scientific work. The role of this Ethics Code is to provide specific standards to cover almost all situations encountered by psychologists. The following ethical guidelines were taken into consideration during the research process:

- Organizational approval was obtained.
- Informed consent to perform the research was obtained.
- Provision of informed consent for research was obtained from the students.
- Research without deception.
- Provide opportunities for participants to obtain appropriate information.
- The researcher will not plagiarise another individual's work.
- Use of assessment techniques that are appropriate to the field of study.
- Informed consent was received from the participants in the assessment process.
- Release of test data to participants if it is requested by participants. The researcher used appropriate psychometric procedures, the most up to date scientific or professional knowledge for test design, standardization, validation, reduction or elimination of bias, and recommendations for use.

- When assessment results were interpreted, the researcher took into account the intention of the assessment as, the various test factors, test-taking abilities, and other characteristics of the person being assessed, such as situational, personal, linguistic, and cultural differences that might have affect the researcher's' judgments or reduce the accuracy of their interpretations.
- Psychological assessment was not performed by unqualified individuals.
- Obsolete and outdated test results were not used.
- The researcher accepted responsibility for the appropriate application, interpretation, and use of assessment instruments.
- The researcher ensured the explanation of the results.

1.7 FLOW PROCESS OF RESEARCH METHOD

The research consists of two phases. Phase one was the literature review and qualitative analysis of concepts prior to the empirical study. Phase two was the operationalisation of the empirical study and also contained the conclusions, recommendations and the shortcomings of the research.

1.8 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1 – Research Orientation
Chapter 2 – The Role of Affirmative Action on student decision-making.
Chapter 3 – Methodology
Chapter 4 – Results
Chapter 5 – Conclusion, Recommendations and Limitations

CHAPTER 2
THE ROLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION ON STUDENT DECISION-MAKING.

2.1. INTRODUCTION

South Africa is currently suffering an immense loss of skilled workers to other countries. This is referred to in South Africa as brain drain. Various factors are said to cause skilled workers and postgraduate students to leave the country.

South Africa is still a very young democracy and only recently has all the various cultures and races become part of what is known today as the new South Africa. The country, before the first democratic election in 1994, was under the apartheid rule and horrid conditions were the norm for the majority of South Africans, meaning the black, Coloured, Indian and Asian people of South Africa.

The following section gives a brief mention of the most important factors that lead up to AA being implemented in South Africa. These factors include Apartheid, Bantu Education, the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, affirmative action, the reverse discrimination dilemma and the brain drain.

2.2 ORIGIN AND RATIONALLE OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION (AA) IN SOUTH AFRICA

The origin and rationale of AA are discussed in this section with special reference to Apartheid and Bantu education. These are facets that led to counter actions like AA and that influences final year student's decision making.

2.2.1 APARTHEID

After the Second World War, in 1948, the pro-Afrikaner National Party (NP) came to power with the ideology of apartheid, an even more rigorous and authoritarian approach than the previous segregationist policies. While white South Africa was cementing its power, black opposition politics were evolving. In 1943, a younger, more determined political grouping came to the fore with the launch of the ANC Youth League, a development that was to foster the leadership of figures such as Nelson Mandela, Oliver Tambo and Walter Sisulu (Government Communication and Information System (GCIS, 2006).

According to Underwood (2006) in 1961, the NP Government under Prime Minister H.F. Verwoerd declared South Africa a republic after winning a whites-only referendum. A new concern with racial purity was apparent in laws prohibiting interracial sex and in provisions for population registration requiring that every South African be assigned to one discrete racial category or another. Residential segregation was enforced, with whole communities being uprooted and forced into coloured and black “group areas”.

Underwood (2006) adds that at a time when much of Africa was on the verge of independence, the South African government was devising its policy of separate development, dividing the African population into artificial ethnic “nations”, each with its own “homeland” and the prospect of “independence”. The truth was that the rural reserves were by this time thoroughly de-graded by overpopulation and soil erosion. Forced removals from “white” areas affected some 3.5 million people and vast rural slums were created in the homelands. The pass laws and influx control were extended and harshly enforced. The introduction of apartheid policies coincided with the adoption by the ANC in 1949 of its Programme of Action, expressing the renewed militancy of the 1940s. The program embodied a rejection of white domination and a call for action in the form of protests, strikes and demonstrations.

Leaders of the black political organisations at this time either went into exile or were arrested. In this climate, the African National Congress (ANC) and Pan Africanist Congress (PAC) abandoned their longstanding commitment to non-violent resistance and turned to armed struggle, waged from the independent countries to the north. Top leaders still inside the country, including members of the ANC's newly formed military wing, Umkhonto we Sizwe (Spear of the Nation), were arrested in 1963. At the "Rivonia Trial", eight ANC leaders, including Mandela, convicted of sabotage (instead of treason, the original charge), were sentenced to life imprisonment (GCIS, 2006).

While draconian measures kept the lid on activism for much of the 1960s, the resurgence of resistance politics in the early 1970s was dramatic. The year 1976 marked the beginning of a sustained anti-apartheid revolt. In June, school pupils in Soweto rose up against apartheid education, followed by youth uprisings all around the country. Strong, legal vehicles for the democratic forces tested the state, whose response until then had been invariably heavy-handed repression (GCIS, 2006).

Shaken by the scale of protest and opposition, the government embarked on a series of limited reforms in the early 1980s, an early example being the recognition of black trade unions. In 1983, the Constitution was reformed to allow the coloured and Indian minorities' limited participation in separate and subordinate Houses of Parliament, which enjoyed limited support.

In 1986, the hated pass laws were scrapped. At this time, the international community strengthened its support for the anti-apartheid cause. However, these steps fell far short of the democratic aspirations of the majority of South Africans. Mass resistance increasingly challenged the apartheid state, which resorted to intensified repression accompanied, however, by eventual recognition that apartheid could not be sustained (GCIS, 2006).

South Africa's legacy of apartheid has created massive social and economic inequalities along racial and gender lines, resulting, for instance, in the under representation of

Black South Africans and women in the higher echelons of industry and the corporate world and at decision-making level s in the Public Service (Franchi, 2002).

The purpose of apartheid was separation of the races: not only of whites from non whites, but also of non-whites from each other, and, among the Africans (called Bantu in South Africa), of one group from another. Initial emphasis was on restoring the separation of races within the urban areas.

A large segment of the Asian and Coloured populations was forced to relocate out of so-called white areas. African townships that had been overtaken by (white) urban sprawl were demolished and their occupants removed to new townships well beyond city limits. Between the passage of the Group Areas Acts of 1950 and 1986, about 1.5 million Africans were forcibly removed from cities to rural reservations (University of Cape Town, 2004).

Job availability was also very limited for non-whites during and even before Apartheid. The Mines and Works Act (Act no 12 of 1911, amended in 1926) prohibited any person of colour from obtaining certification for their skills. This forced coloured and black people into the 'cheap labour' category, and they were only able to undertake unskilled labour.

This Act, also known as the Colour Bar Act, was originally designed to counteract the force of any economic advantages enjoyed by the non-white community. The revised 1926 legislation mirrored the belief that whites would suffer significantly if non-whites were not legislated out of the market, as they were seen as unfair competition. This act eventually became the catalyst for the forming of the African National Congress (ANC).

To support the Job Reservations Act, known as the The Mines and Works Act (Act no 12 of 1911, amended in 1926) and the the Bantu Education Act No 47 of 1953 specified that non-whites would receive no proper education. Its stated aim was to prevent non-whites from receiving an education that would pose a threat to whites and lead them to

aspire to positions that they were not allowed to hold under the Apartheid regime.

Their education thus provided them with just enough skills to serve their own people, but never to exceed beyond that scope (Department of Education, 2001).

In addition, the Apprenticeship Act 25 of 1922 put apprenticeships beyond the reach of the vast majority of coloured youths by setting a Standard 6 (Grade 8) pass as a minimum qualification for entry as an apprentice. This law was enforced in over 40 trades.

It was an educational entry level that only a handful of coloured schools met, but that fell within the minimum educational standard set for white schools. White schooling was free and compulsory, but non-whites had to pay. Only a handful of non-white families could afford schooling. Ironically, one of the cornerstone professions in South End was that of teachers.

The community prided itself on their high standard of education and valued it immensely. Knowledge was the one thing that could not be taken away from them and it was also seen as a potential way out of an otherwise poverty-stricken future (Department of Education, 2001).

2.2.2 BANTU EDUCATION

For liberal historians, 1948 is viewed as a crucial year in the history of South Africa and, more especially, in the history of the black people of this country. In that year the Nationalist Government of Dr. D. F. Malan came into power. One of the keystones of its political policy was that of apartheid, or the enforced segregation of black and white people of South Africa into different areas.

Liberal opinion also holds that in the pursuance of this policy of apartheid a new ideology was introduced into the black schooling system, namely that known under the generic name, Bantu Education. In January 1949, the Nationalist Government, believing that schooling was an essential means to achieve success in bringing about apartheid, set up a Commission on Native Education under the chairmanship of Dr W. W. M. Eiselen (Christie & Collins, 1982)

Christie and Collins (1982) add that the Bantu Education Act 47 of 1953 was introduced giving wide powers to the Minister of Native Affairs, Dr H. F. Verwoerd, to bring into effect the major recommendations of the Eiselen Commission. Black education was to be directed to black not white needs; it was to be centrally controlled and financed under the Native Affairs Minister; syllabuses were to be adapted to the black way of life and black languages introduced into all black schools. Most importantly, however, the control of black schools was to be slowly taken over from the missionary bodies that were running the vast majority of black schools at that time and to be placed under the Native Affairs Department

The Apartheid system created educational inequalities through overt racist policies. The Bantu Education Act of 1952 ensured that Blacks receive an education that would limit educational potential and remain in the working class.

This policy directly affected the content of learning to further racial inequalities by preventing access to further education. In addition to content, apartheid legislation affected the educational potential of students. School attendance was compulsory for Whites from age seven to sixteen, for Asians and Coloureds from seven to fifteen, and for Blacks from age seven to thirteen (US Library of Congress, 2004).

According to Curtin (1993) the Bantu Education Act 47 of 1953 was a piece of legislation that increased the disparity between white and black South Africans. This act eliminated almost all funding to black schools and forced churches to sell their

schools to the government.

Brown (1993) states that the concept of this educational discrimination was inspired by the Nazi techniques implemented before the Holocaust. The educational system for blacks was designed to educate blacks only to a minimal amount to keep them in the subservient fields of work. The idea was that any person's future job and role in society was dictated by their race and therefore their education was provided accordingly.

Since blacks were considered inferior and destined for menial jobs, their educational facilities were lacking in resources, textbooks, and teachers. Teacher's salaries were decreased and less people became educated to be teachers, and consequently there was a serious shortage of qualified black teachers to educate black South Africans. Education was put under the control of state governments who saw funding black schools as taking away from white education and wasting resources (Brown & Scase, 1994)

Educational inequality was also evident in funding. The Bantu Education Act created separate Departments of Education by race, and it gave less money to Black schools while giving most to Whites (University of Cape Town, 2004)

2.2.3 EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT 55 OF 1998

In South Africa, the Apartheid regime (1948 – 1994) was based on the concept of segregation of population groups along racial lines, in residential areas, provision of education and in the reservation of certain jobs for certain groups. Owing to Apartheid, different groups were not in competition for access to the same educational or occupational opportunities. The ruling party at the time, the National Party, even implemented a job reservation program in which certain senior positions were reserved for white, Afrikaans-speaking people (Esterhuizen, 2008)

According to Mdladlana (2003) when South Africa became a democracy in 1994, all segregation laws were abolished and education, training and equitable workplace practices were recognised as critical elements in successful competition for organisations of all sizes and sectors. Several new laws, such as the Basic Conditions of Employment Act No 75 of 1997, the Skills Development Act No 97 of 1998 and the Employment equity Act No 55 of 1998, were promulgated to promote equal opportunity and access to education and any job category.

Twala (2004) adds that despite this, competing on equal footing was strictly speaking impossible for blacks, woman and people with disabilities. This was mostly owing to the differences in the standard and quality of education under Apartheid. The Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998 was promulgated to speed up the process of redressing the inequities of the past in the workplace.

The following is section 2 of the Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998:

South African equity legislation states that the purpose of this Act is to achieve equity in the workplace by:

a) Promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination; and

b) Implementing AA measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by designated groups, in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce.

(Republic of South Africa, 1998)

The term “equal employment” should therefore not be used as an alternative for AA. There is clear reference made to the differences between the two terms in chapter two of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. It states the following:

“*No person may unfairly discriminate, directly or indirectly, against an employee, in any*

employment policy or practice, on one or more grounds, including race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth

It is not unfair discrimination to:

a) take affirmative action measures consistent with the purpose of this Act; or

b) distinguish, exclude or prefer any person on the basis of an inherent requirement of a job."

(Republic of South Africa, 1998)

Twala (2004) says that given South Africa's history, it was felt that simply changing laws would not ensure equality and that there should therefore be some pressure on organisations to comply. In light of this, further legislation was implemented to speed up the process, including the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act No 5 of 2000 and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act No 53 of 2003.

The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (EEA) provides for AA measures in the workplace. It establishes 'designated groups' as black people, women and people with disabilities as the beneficiaries of those measures. Over and above being a member of one of the designated groups, a person must also be 'suitably qualified' in order to benefit from AA (McGregor, 2002).

"Designated groups" is the collective term used to refer to Blacks, woman and people with disabilities (EEA No 55 of 1998). People with disabilities are defined as people who have a long-term or recurring physical or mental impairment that significantly limits entry to or advancement in employment. As per Chapter 1, Section 1 of the EEA (No 55 of 1998), the term "Blacks" is a generic term that indicates African, Indian, Coloured, and as of late, Chinese people, collectively.

According to Esterhuizen (2008) “suitably qualified” refers to a person as described in section 20 (3 and 4) of the EEA (No 55 of 1998) and is determined on the basis of the person’s ability to acquire, within a reasonable time, the ability to do the job. Although “within a reasonable time” could probably warrant a debate in its own right, it refers basically to having “potential”.

Huysamen (2002) indicates that when determining whether a person is suitably qualified for the job, the employer must consider any or a combination of the following factors: the persons’ formal qualifications, prior learning, relevant experience, or a capacity to acquire, within a reasonable time, the ability to do the job (Section 20, EEA No 55 of 1998). Employers may not discriminate solely on the ground of a person not having relevant experience.

2.2.4 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION (AA)

According to Rossouw (1995, p114) AA can be defined as:

"A strategy to overcome the legacy of inequality in the workplace where discrimination has unfairly disadvantaged certain groups of people it is also temporary intervention to facilitate change from an unfair situation to a situation where inequalities are redressed so that all people can compete on an equal footing for the available opportunities".

According to Coetzee and Vermeulen (2006) AA is meant to ensure macro justice (justice between groups), but resistance frequently arises because of concerns about micro justice (justice for individuals) The accusations most frequently leveled at AA are that AA is a form of reverse discrimination (Thomas, 2002); that AA appointees are less competent than some other applicants and lack the necessary skills, and that they are appointed to fill quotas or to window-dress (Van Jaarsveld, 2000); that AA implies inferiority and that it stigmatizes its beneficiaries (Resendez, 2002); and that AA

decisions are based on preferential treatment rather than on merit (Elkins, Bozeman & Phillips, 2003)

2.2.4.1 Opinions of affirmative action by prominent individuals

Factors such as Apartheid and the Bantu Education Act caused the Parliament of South Africa to pass the Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998). The Employment Equity Act (here forth referred to as EEA) marked an end to unfair discrimination in the workplace. It also gave birth to a new strategy by the government that would be called AA (Franchi, 2002).

Franchi (2002) states that one of the primary objectives of the post-1994 democratic government was to eradicate discriminatory employment policies and practices based on ‘‘race’’, gender and disability, and redress current imbalances through a process framed in the 1996 South African Constitution as ‘‘positive discrimination’’, also known as AA.

The Employment Equity Act (1998) states that AA makes sure that qualified designated groups (black people, women and people with disabilities) have equal opportunities to get a job. They must also be equally represented in all job categories and levels of the workplace.

In relation to the EEA, the former President of South Africa, Nelson Mandela has said: “The primary aim of AA must be to redress the imbalances created by apartheid. We are not asking for hand-outs for anyone, nor are we saying that just as a white skin has been a passport to privilege in the past, so black skin should be the basis of privilege in the future. The first point to be made is that AA must be rooted in principle of justice and equality” (Human, 1993, p3)

When considering the statement made by Nelson Mandela about AA, one can look by judging the implementation of AA between 1994 and 2004. It is apparent that the principles as expressed by Mandela as a motivation for the introduction of AA measures were not fully supported as this speech was mainly seen as a politically motivated statement from the recently un-banned ANC.

In contrast former President of South Africa, F.W de Klerk, had the following to say about AA:

“To say, equal representation must now be implemented in the social world, the cultural world and the business world... that is, in my opinion, a total distortion of the Constitution. It is, in my opinion, unbalanced and often unconstitutional. AA must be altered so that it is no longer racist. It is being abused to make it sound as if it lays a foundation for the interpretation that AA based on race is acceptable” (Independent online [IOL], 2009, para 3).

The former president, F.W de Klerk, added that AA should be used for previously disadvantaged people regardless of their race or skin colour. He also said it was "absolutely ridiculous" that AA be applied to cultural organisations such as the Afrikaans Christian Women's Movement or Afrikaans newspapers.

De Klerk ended by stating that the key to real empowerment lay in offering previously disadvantaged people good education, proper housing and proper municipal services (Independent online [IOL], 2009, para 6).

Kgapola (2008) states that AA evoke strong emotions from designated and non designated groups, meaning AA beneficiaries and those who do not benefit from it. He also states that some people view AA as an antidote for past discrimination against blacks whilst others believe that it directly promotes discrimination against whites and in particular white males.

The current President of South Africa, Jacob Zuma, stated that the employment equity figures clearly indicate that it is still early days to call for an end of AA in South Africa (Independent online [IOL], 2008, para 5).

The current IFP leader, Mangosuthu Buthelezi, where quoted as saying:

“The government's reckless implementation of the affirmative action policy was forcing many whites to leave the country, creating a skills shortage crisis, The reason a majority of white people supported the then National Party's referendum calling for an end to apartheid rule was because they believed they would have a place in the new South Africa. If the majority of white South Africans had envisaged in the early 1990s the way affirmative action and racial classification would come to dominate the post-apartheid labour market, few would have voted yes in Mr. de Klerk's watershed referendum on constitutional reform” (Independent online [IOL], 2007, para 1-3).

The above paragraphs clearly illustrate the differing opinions on AA. If current and former presidents of South Africa disagree on the topic of AA then one can assume that South African students might also be confused .just imagine how divided the population, and more specifically, the students of South Africa are.

AA does have positive and negative outcomes that are discussed in the next section.

2.2.4.2 Affirmative action globally

AA strategies to achieve employment equity have been operationalised, over the years, in countries such as Malaysia, India, Canada, the USA, Britain and Zimbabwe. While, with the exceptions of Malaysia and Zimbabwe, such strategies have been directed at affirming minority groups, the practices evident in all these countries, with both positive and negative aspects, provide learning points for South Africa (Thomas, 2000).

(a) Malaysia

Thomas (2000) states that the study of AA strategies in Malaysia is perhaps of prime interest to South Africa in that parallels exist between the two countries: AA is designed to benefit the majority of the population and religious differences in Malaysia broadly coincide with the ethnic differences encountered in South Africa.

AA in Malaysia has not been implemented without attendant problems. Thompson (1993) warns that quotas have resulted in non-Malay students leaving the country to study abroad and the continued ownership of wealth by the Chinese and Indians who operate businesses run by Malay "front men". This has resulted in an elite Malay group benefiting from AA, with less benefit occurring to the poorest sectors of disadvantaged groups.

(b) India

According to Thomas (2000), the Constitution of India, adopted AA policies in 1950, it specifically provides that positive measures, in the form of reservations or quotas in education and employment in the government and public sector, are adopted to advance members of scheduled castes (the untouchables) and scheduled tribes (those isolated in remote areas).

Thomas (2000) adds that in South Africa, the legislation aims to redress historical inequalities and has been coupled to programmes of land reform that address the same objective. The widespread poverty in India and the numbers of people who can, therefore, benefit from the legislation has made it beneficial to be classified as a member of a scheduled caste or tribe, or a member of another backward community.

Béteille (1993) argues that AA policies do not reach the most deserving individuals in the country and that the government practice of implementing quotas leads to resentment and the lowering of standards of political parties. This occurs by using the promise of raising reservation quotas, for example, to embrace various religious groups, for lobbying purposes and the domination in public departments of people belonging to

a particular caste or region.

(c) Canada

Three major categories of responses have been forthcoming in Canada to improve the status of designated groups, defined as women, ethnic minorities, aboriginals and people with disabilities, as noted by Jain (2000).

Jain (2000) notes that since the enactment of the federal Employment Equity Act in 1986, progress has been slow, with the communications sector being the only one approximating the representation of women within the context of the broader demographic landscape and none of the three sectors evidencing representation of aboriginals or people with disabilities.

While the representation of visible minorities has improved, especially within the banking sector, it is still below the external availability in the transportation and communications sectors.

(d) United States of America

According to Viljoen (2007), the USA is generally regarded as the country of origin of AA. The concept of AA was first used in the context of race discrimination and became part of legislation in 1961. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 followed and, as amended in the following year, provided that discrimination on the basis of race, sex, colour, religion or national origin was illegal.

In the USA, the term “AA”, directed at the black minority in the country, first appeared in Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This statute covers both private and public sector employers of 15 or more employees and has been extended to include other minority groups (Days, 1993).

Johnson (1997) notes that the focus of AA has been on numbers, with no due regard

being paid to training and development of selected candidates, leading to little investment in human capital. However, even with this apparent success, almost half the states in the USA are moving to abolish AA due to a view that, after 30 years, this policy has become counter-productive and has outlived its usefulness.

(e) Great Britain

In Britain, various legislation and related policies were adopted by the Department of Employment and other public agencies during the 1970s, to ensure employment equity for women, people with disabilities and minority groups (most notably, Indians and West Indians) who were previously discriminated against in the workplace (Naidoo, 1997).

With regard to minorities, Naidoo (1997) notes that discrimination in Britain has been associated with racial rather than with foreign origin and that subsequent programmes of employment equity have shifted from focusing on overt discrimination to that of the removal of barriers in education, training and usual occupations for women and minorities. Separate legislation in Britain covers gender, race, disability, and discrimination against persons with criminal convictions.

Naidoo (1997) notes that little has changed in Britain, as employers are not required to adhere to the codes of practice and would only be sanctioned if the employer is found to be guilty of discrimination and has made no effort to comply with the code. The lack of enforced compliance, which has shaped labour market policy, is based upon the post-war British “principle of voluntarism” the foundation of which is that collective agreements are more likely to be implemented if they are agreed to by the parties themselves without outside interference. Legislation in Britain can be considered to be fragmentary and confusing.

(f) Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe, no explicit legislation regarding employment equity exists. However, the Africanisation of the civil service has been a political imperative since 1980 (BMF, 1993). This imperative requires that black Zimbabweans be appointed, particularly in middle and senior management positions.

Strachan (1993) notes that after independence in Zimbabwe, there was reluctance on the part of the private sector to accept the need to redress the historical discrimination of the past and that it took approximately eight years for the public debate for black advancement to emerge. One of the foremost reasons for this lag was the connotations associated with the word “Africanisation”, as white Zimbabweans viewed themselves as being as African as their black fellow citizens. The term “black advancement” was, therefore, substituted for the word “Africanisation”.

While BMF (1993) cite Zimbabwe as a success story in that the civil service has changed from being all white in 1980 to 95 percent black in 1993, one can also argue that the associated costs have been an increase in the number of civil servants and a sharp decline in efficiency. Nepotism, tribalism, fraud and corruption have also resulted from this practice.

It can also be argued that the Zimbabwean practice has benefited the most advantaged of a disadvantaged majority who are upwardly mobile and highly vocal, with little advantage being afforded to the majority of the population (Bennell & Strachan, 1992).

South African companies are compelled to comply with the provisions of the Employment Equity Act. South Africa needs to look at the successes and the mistakes from the other countries in order to prevent it from happening here.

The macro economic issues are more complex and need to command prime attention of government to ensure, amongst other things, that employment equity and the diversity

that it creates within companies' works towards the competitiveness of the country and that racial and ethnic divisiveness is not created. However it seems that a lot of South African citizens already feel this divisiveness.

2.2.5 THE ADVANTAGES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Those who support AA believe it to be a means of levelling the playing field in terms of correcting Apartheid's wrongs. These individuals believe it to be a way in which the public and private sector can contribute to the reconstruction and development of the country (Pons & McGregor, 1994)

Pons and McGregor (1994) further adds that supporters of AA tend to argue that AA policies are necessary to offset the systematic barriers that minorities and women continue to face in pursuing education and employment opportunities. In this view, discrimination and pernicious stereotypes have persisted into the present, while the cumulative effects of past discrimination also continue to hobble underrepresented groups in a variety of ways.

Thus, AA is needed to counter these barriers and to equalize opportunity in the areas of higher education, employment, and procurement of government contracts

According to George and Edley (1995), AA is essential if the rewards of good jobs, university slots, and government contracts are to be distributed equitably and fairly.

The Black Management Forum, as quoted by Viljoen (1997) states that AA should:

- Reverse the Prevailing situation of disadvantage of the majority
- Represent an affirmation of all the human rights which were historically violated by institutionalised discrimination
- Create opportunities for education, training and development in the workplace

which should result in the demonstrable economic empowerment of those who will benefit from them

- Bring about complete transformation of the racist and sexist attitudes and practices that have been at the core of organizations in the past – it must help to develop a new organisational ethos and an innovative set of policies and procedures for the empowerment of all staff
- Reach certain targets in order to reflect the demographic profile of the South African population at a given time

According to Charlton and Van Niekerk (1994), AA will benefit the beneficiaries in the following ways:

- Economic empowerment (improved education and the creation of employment opportunities)
- Access to resources (transport and social welfare)
- The meeting of basic needs (security, food and housing)
- Political Rights
- Psychological growth (improving quality of life, restoring human dignity, boosting confidence and promoting a sense of co responsibility for the country's prosperity.

According to Coetzee (2005), it cannot be denied that, in the past, the vast majority of the population of South Africa was denied access to all resources – economic, political, social and psychological. Consequently, proactive change, which constructively redresses the inhumanity of the past in all these spheres of human activity, is needed. However, while this change has a moral perspective, it has also become an economic necessity. The critical ingredient for success is human competence. The better people are equipped to unleash their potential and the people around them, the sooner everybody will be able to contribute to the success of organizations and the country as a whole.

Coetzee (2005) concludes by saying that affirmative action serves no purpose if it is based on handouts such as money, material resources and glamorous jobs instead of empowerment, the restoration of human dignity and the development and utilization of people's skills and abilities. To ignore the human spirit as part of AA is economic suicide. Indeed, action without the correct attitude will simply result in short-term change, without long-term growth.

2.2.6 THE DISADVANTAGES OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

McGregor (2002, p141) states that AA is not a right but a means to achieve the equality end as set out by the EEA. The means needs to be distinguished from the end itself. And the need for the means will cease when past imbalances have been rectified.

Van Jaarsveld (2006, p.74) warns that the careless use of AA may cause a loss in efficiency which may reduce the advantages of AA. The objective of AA in South Africa is to eradicate social inequalities and the way to do this will be through proportional representation in the work force. She also states that only qualified people should be admitted to professions even if the only qualified people available are white.

With that being said the Minister of Labour, Mr. Membathisi Mdladlana, said the following on March 7th 2007:

"Contrary to Parliamentary calls by opposition Democratic Alliance (DA), AA and current employment equity legislation would never be repealed but would be intensified instead," (Independent online [IOL], 2007, para 2)

The above statement according to many is seen as defeating the initial purpose of AA and is now causing a huge separation amongst the people of South Africa. Many are seeing AA as reverse racism and do not agree with its policies. AA is a hotly debated

topic by the local political parties and arguments regarding its usefulness are discussed in parliament almost on a daily basis.

Another negative aspect of AA is the costs involved. Coetzee (2005) argues that the economic costs of not fully utilising all employees in organisations, as evidenced in absenteeism, employee turnover, poor morale, underperformance and poor customer service, are substantial and detrimental to companies.

According to Charlton and Van Niekerk (1994), costs incurred in poor implementation of AA programmes include the following:

- High recruitment costs due to the high turnover of AA candidates.
- High salaries paid in order to prevent AA candidates from being head-hunted by other organisations.
- Indirect costs associated with the dissatisfaction of the current workforce with AA programmes.
- Legal costs resulting from the need to terminate employment contracts of AA candidates who cannot cope with the demands of the position.
- Additional compensation paid for overtime and contract work due to AA employees not being developed or optimally utilised.

When considering the above, it appears that AA suggests several disadvantages that are not to the benefit of the country.

2.2.6.1 The problems with affirmative action

AA is not just debated by the politicians. The big corporations and executives also are very opinionated in this regard, and so they should be as AA can be a very good thing if managed properly but it can be detrimental to businesses in South Africa if it’s not implemented properly.

AA strategies are challenged by the fact that these initiatives occur against the backdrop of South Africa's long history of entrenched racism. Changing the way things are done and re-examining concepts internalised over many years can be a difficult process, strongly resistant to change (Coetzee, 2005, p.29).

According to Coetzee (2005) people hold strong views on AA. At the one extreme is a positive view which questions the right white people had to exclude blacks and woman from leadership positions, power and opportunities in the past. The other end of the argument asks how anyone who believes in equality can agree to a policy of special treatment for specific categories of people (reverse discrimination).

Van Jaarsveld (2000) contends that the problems with AA do arise not from the principle as such but from the manner in which it is implemented. AA is implemented incorrectly when an organisation views employment equity as a political imperative that has to be complied with, and not as a business objective – to have as effective and competent a workforce as possible. In such instances, AA leads to the following:

- People are appointed in AA positions to fill quotas or to window-dress without taking into account their ability or suitability for the position.
- Reverse discrimination occurs against a certain ethnic group.
- An elite group of AA candidates is advanced while the rest of the population stays where they are.
- The "revolving door" syndrome develops. Organisations often appoint a few black faces at the right levels in the organisation to make the organisation seem politically correct.

Thomas (2002) adds to this section by stating that the following problems have surfaced

since AA was implemented:

- In the quest to appear acceptable in terms of race and gender, token appointments of people lacking the necessary skills have been made. This has led to a decline in service levels, people being given meaningless jobs and the attendant costs to business.

- There is a prevalence of negative expectations about candidates from designated groups, heightened scrutiny of them, fears and resentments on the part of those who stand to lose promotional opportunities and the resultant overt and covert sabotage of the process, for example, by the withholding of information and by the exclusion of members of designated groups from formal and informal networks and systems that assist in job progress.

- Employment equity and AA measures have not been regarded as strategic business issues and accordingly, there has been a lack of management commitment to this process at all levels in companies. Rather, the task of achieving employment equity has been delegated to the human resources departments of large corporations that seldom have the authority or necessary mechanisms to ensure progress.

- No business imperative has been identified by management with regard to the competitive advantage that a diverse workforce can afford. Rather, the diversity created by strategies to achieve employment equity has been regarded as a response to moral or legal compliance issues and, accordingly, as a “necessary evil” with which business has to contend.

- Performance management, as a means to training and developing people from designated groups into fully productive employees, has been poor, especially in the areas of managerial commitment to performance management, the recognition of potential and non-traditional skills, mentoring and coaching and career planning.

- Informal networks, functional in promotions and advancement, exist in the South African workplace, coupled to which new recruits are expected to assimilate to prevailing corporate cultures.

Thomas (2002) concludes by saying that the reality is that South African companies are required to comply with AA policies. Accordingly, it is suggested that, with due recognition of the concerns noted above, energy and focus should now be placed upon a concerted effort to ensure that AA policies are implemented in a holistic manner that is of benefit to both employees and to companies.

2.2.7 THE REVERSE DISCRIMINATION DILEMMA

People have criticised AA as reverse discrimination or back-door Apartheid, thus creating resentment amongst white males (Mclean, 2002)

One can see from the previous sections in this chapter that the Employment Equity Act and more specifically, affirmative action, aims at righting the wrongs of Apartheid, however, at what cost?

“Unfair discrimination” implies that the discrimination against an employee in any employment policy or practice, may not take place in an unfair manner because of race, gender, age, religion, marital status, pregnancy, disability or anything else that is not inherent requirement of the job (EEA, 1998, Chapter 2, Section 5).

Guion (as cited in Esterhuisen, 2008, p19) states: “Unfair discrimination exists when persons with equal probabilities of success on the job have unequal probabilities of being hired for the job.”

Esterhuisen (2008) continues by saying that two broad forms of discrimination exists:

- Unequal treatment / direct discrimination

  This form of discrimination is based on the intention to discriminate unfairly and also the intention to retaliate against any person opposing the discrimination.

- Adverse impact / indirect discrimination

  Adverse impact occurs when the same standards are applied seemingly fairly to everyone, leading nonetheless to a substantial difference in employment outcomes for members of a specific group, unrelated to success on the job. For example, height requirements for acceptance into a police college will have an adverse effect for woman.

When looking at affirmative action one has to ask whether unfair discrimination is not occurring against non-beneficiaries. According to the Employment Equity Act, this is not the case. The EEA (Section 5, 1998) states that employers must remove unfair discrimination from all their policies and procedures. However, it is not unfair to discriminate when affirmative action measures are applied or to exclude or prefer people based on the inherent requirements of the job. For example, when two applicants have the same merit for a job the black person could be chosen over the white person without constituting unfair discrimination (Esterhuisen, 2008).

One cannot help but ask whether discrimination is discrimination regardless of internal or external factors. Twala (2004) states that the chief criticism concerning the implementation of affirmative action measures to achieve employment equity is that these are views as a firm of reverse discrimination. There is also the belief that people who were not part of the apartheid regime, for example young white males, are now bearing the brunt of the new legislation. In addition Twala (2004) adds that the question of whether all blacks and women were in fact previously disadvantaged and need to be affirmed has not been answered.

Russouw (1995) counters this argument by saying that the aim of affirmative action is not to substitute one form of discrimination for another. On the contrary, the aim is to get rid of discrimination altogether. This means that AA is not the same as reverse discrimination.

Beauchamp (1998) also provides a different perspective by saying that It has often been said that reverse discrimination is caused by affirmative action policies and that this discrimination is no better than the racial or sexual discrimination that affirmative action's allegedly frustrates. Some instances of such discriminatory exclusion do occur, of course, and compensation or rectification for an injured party is sometimes the appropriate response. However, some of these setbacks to the interests of those excluded by a policy may be no more objectionable than various burdens produced by social policies that advantage some members of society and disadvantage others. Inheritance laws, for example, favor certain members of society over others, whereas policies of eminent domain disadvantage persons who wish to retain what is legitimately their property in order to advance the public good.

Beauchamp (1998) adds that such laws and outcomes are warranted by a larger public benefit and by justice-based considerations that conflict with the interests of the disadvantaged parties. The point is that disadvantages to majorities produced by affirmative action may be warranted by the promotion of social ideals of equal treatment for groups that were severely mistreated in the past.

Beauchamp (1998) ends off by saying that in assessing the disadvantages that might be caused to members of the minority (primarily white males); we should remember that there are disadvantages to other parties that operate in the current system, many of which will not be affected by affirmative action or by its absence. For example, just as young white males may now be paying a penalty for wrongs committed by older white males (who will likely never be penalized), so the older members of minority groups and older women who have been most disadvantaged in the past are the least likely to gain an advantage from affirmative action policies. Paradoxically, the younger minority

members and women who have suffered least from discrimination now stand to gain the most from affirmative action. Despite these unfairness's, there is no clear way to remedy them

Some researchers claim that using merit-based explanations for opposition to race-targeted policies like affirmative action actually may be a strategy used to justify underlying racism. A wide range of research has pointed to racism as one of the driving factors behind affirmative action opposition. If people believe that ethnic majorities who benefit from affirmative action are less capable, less hard working, and thus less qualified than Whites, then they may perceive any policy that gives opportunities to these groups as violating merit. Symbolic racism theory in particular proposes that modern day racism is influenced strongly by concerns of merit and personal effort. If racism is mostly driving opposition to affirmative action, then any reframing of this issue is unlikely to affect greater support for affirmative action policy (Reyna, Tucker, Korfmacher & Henry, 2005)

One can see from the above arguments that there are indeed different opinions on whether or not AA and the Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998, causes discrimination against certain ethnic groups.

2.3 THE ORIGINS OF THE BRAIN DRAIN

The issues mentioned in the previous sections can affect a brain drain. This section will explain in more detail how this is possible.

As stated in Chapter 1, the term "brain drain" was first used by the British Royal Society in the 1960's to describe the loss of highly skilled scientists and technologists from the UK to the USA and Canada. Today it is often used to describe the emigration of professionals from South Africa (Lundy, 2006). In this instance the brain drain refers to those skilled workers who leave South Africa for employment overseas.

The brain drain has become a major concern and research issue at the national, regional and continental level in Africa. African governments emerged from colonialism with a woefully inadequate skills base. After independence, most invested heavily in skills creation, universalizing access to primary and secondary education, setting up new universities and training colleges, offering generous financial support in the form of grants and bursaries to students, and sponsoring the brightest and most promising to go overseas for advanced training. Coupled with a complementary strategy of temporary import of expatriate skills, this strategy seemed to pay off in many countries. The skills base of many countries expanded rapidly and most locally-trained citizens were absorbed into the public and private sectors (Campbell, Crush, Green, Nangulah, & Simelane, 2005).

Campbell et al. (2005) also mentions that the concerns first began to surface in the 1980s when increasing numbers of students sent overseas for further training stopped returning home and began a new life elsewhere. Then, in the 1990s, a new trend began to emerge in Southern Africa (mirroring an earlier trend in West and East Africa). Home-grown professionals began to look outside their own countries for employment. Part of this had to do with conditions at home. Certainly, economic mismanagement, political instability and civil strife made other pastures appear much greener. But externally driven economic forces, such as Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP's), debt repayment and global trade imbalances plunged many small economies into crisis.

Although precise data on the extent of the skills exodus is lacking, all the countries of the region have expressed concern about the impact of an accelerating brain drain on economic growth and development and on the quality of service delivery in the public sector. The impact of the brain drain is being exacerbated by the HIV/AIDS epidemic which is debilitating and "killing off" large numbers of people in their most productive years. Rather than adopting "brain gain" strategies (importing skills to replace those departing) most SADC countries have preferred a "brain train" strategy. Their rationale

is that training of sufficient numbers of citizens in new skills is the only way to ensure that the skills base is not depleted in the long run (Crush, Pendleton & Tevera, 2005).

2.3.1 SOUTH AFRICA AND THE BRAIN DRAIN

According to Crush (2002), South Africa has easily the most advanced higher education sector on the African continent and in many fields (particularly health, IT, engineering and accountancy), the skills produced are readily transferable to, and recognized and valued in, the industrial countries. As such, the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the United States have emerged as the destinations of choice.

Official South African emigration figures are highly misleading and give little concrete indication of the dimensions and likely impacts of the brain drain from the country. Crush (2002) indicates that South Africa recorded that a total of 62,088 people (including 10,140 with professional qualifications) emigrated from South Africa between 1987 and 1997. However, destination-country statistics of immigrant arrivals from South Africa paint a rather different picture: they show 32,296 professionals and 198,393 total immigrants arriving from South Africa during the same time period. Official South African emigration statistics therefore undercounted the loss by around two-thirds.

Crush (2002) further state that between 1998 and 2001, a further 39,411 people officially emigrated from South Africa. Arrivals data are not available for this period but assuming a similar rate of undercounting and ratio of total to professional emigration (approx. 6:1), it is reasonable to infer that a further 120,000 people including 20,000 professionals emigrated from South Africa during this time period. Overall, then, between 1987 and 2001, South Africa lost an estimated 310,000 citizens, including 50,000 professionals. This is a significant brain drain by any standards.

Brown, Kaplan and Meyer (2002) state that recent research by the Southern African

Migration Project (SAMP) suggests that the outflow of skills is unlikely to slow down in the foreseeable future. In a nationally representative sample survey of the skilled South African population, as many as 69 percent of the respondents had given some thought to leave permanently. Fifty-eight percent expressed a desire to leave and 49 percent said that it was likely or very likely that they would do so at some point.

According to Mattes and Mniki (2005), skilled South Africans who emigrated in 1997 alone cost the government about R68 billion of investment in human capital. However, a brain drain is likely to be particularly damaging to an economy when skills leave relatively soon after training and governments fail to receive any appreciable return on direct investments in training.

The magnitude of the current and future South African brain drain cannot, of course, be attributed solely to skills raiding and the internationalization of the skills market. Brown et al. (2002) has suggested that for the developing world as whole, the brain drain is more a “vote of no confidence” in the home country than theft by the developed countries of the skilled workers. Skilled people undertake a flight from spectacular misgovernment from appalling working conditions and pay levels so low that they are below subsistence.

South Africa's post-apartheid crime wave has been the subject of much commentary and not a little hyperbole. A better measure of its impact on the brain drain is whether and how it has mediated the perceptions and intentions of potential émigrés. In the national SAMP survey, skilled South Africans were asked about their level of dissatisfaction with a range of “quality of life” indicators. The results showed the proportion of respondents who were dissatisfied/very dissatisfied with the various measures; these results were broken down by race (Crush, 2002).

A set of questions from the SAMP survey probed skilled South Africans on their perceptions of government. In this case there were major differences by race with whites feeling extremely alienated from the political process as compared to blacks. For example, 67 percent of blacks but only 17 percent of whites approved of the way that the national government had performed over the previous twelve months. Or again, 74 percent of blacks and only 15 percent of whites felt that government was interested in hearing what they thought. Unsurprisingly, 83 percent of whites but only 20 percent of blacks opposed/strongly opposed the government's corrective AA policies (Crush, 2002).

In general, the above research shows that South Africa's skilled population is very uncomfortable and dissatisfied with economic and security conditions in the county. And they do not perceive that things will improve. These findings certainly suggest that all is not lost, but that South Africa's government should act to prevent this mass migration by shedding the light on its policies, especially AA. The above discussion explained an overview of the South African brain drain situation. The next section explores the brain drain situation with regard to graduates.

2.3.2 GRADUATES AND THE BRAIN DRAIN

To what extent is emigration potential simply a function of a person's place in South Africa's social structure? Given the country's history, the most obvious starting point is race. Due to their loss of dominant political and economic power and perceptions of reduced employment opportunities due to AA, it is widely assumed that white South Africans are much more likely to leave than blacks (Mattes & Mniki, 2005).

Since the end of apartheid, young South Africans can look beyond the country's borders to find employment due to the boundaries of isolation that were removed by foreign countries yet, while greater opportunities and a wider range of choice may be good news for South Africa's talented tertiary students, it may also be bad news for the country as a whole in the form of a high loss of skills.

Mattes and Minky states (2005) that skilled emigration, such as graduates, has the potential to rob the country of considerable investment in training and education, and also deprive the economy of needed skills and upper-end consumers. The brain drain is likely to be particularly damaging to the economy when students leave relatively soon after graduating and the country fails to receive any appreciable return on direct investments in training.

According to SAMP (2007), the country's potential skills base (as represented by final-year students at the country's tertiary institutions), with a sample of 4,784, is more female (54%) than male (46%); more black (48%) than white (40%) and coloured and Asian (12%); and young (the median age of the total sample is 22).

SAMP (2007), further states that South Africa's final-year students are patriotic but restless. They are generally optimistic about their country's future but less so in terms of their own prospects for professional advancement and development. They show surprisingly high interest in leaving the country and have an emigration potential that is greater than that of their older, working counterparts.

The above study also showed that, with a sample of 4,784 students. The student's perceptions of a range of features of life in South Africa were tested looking at present satisfaction with personal and national economic conditions, and that then they were asked whether they thought conditions in South Africa would be better or worse in five years time across a whole range of specific features of national life.

The results indicated that 80 percent said the HIV/AIDS situation would be worse, two thirds felt the cost of living would get worse. Six in ten predicted that their ability to find the job they want (58%), their personal safety (58%), and their family's safety (58%) would all be worse than they are today.

One half surveyed in the above research, foresaw deterioration in the upkeep of public amenities and 40 percent expected things to deteriorate with regard to availability of affordable quality products, job security, level of taxation, and the future of children. This should indeed be very worrisome for the government as it stands to lose a lot of skilled labour if they don't address these concerns.

A study done by Franchi and Swart (2002) at the University of Witwatersrand indicated how policies in South Africa, such as AA, could lead to brain drain if it isn't addressed. The population sampled were undergraduate students attending South African universities in and around Johannesburg at the end of 1998. A class of 542 second year psychology students at Wits were requested to complete the self-report identity measure as part of their second-year social psychology course requirements.

The goal of the above study was to see to what extent the sociopolitical changes in South Africa and the imperatives of the new democratic dispensation reflected in the identity-articulations of the country's student population were. It also considered whether macro-realities of present-day South Africa offered young adults new conceptions of personhood, against which to construct identity, that differed from the 'racial' categorization upon which identity was premised in the past, or to see whether 'race' still acted as a central defining feature of self- and other identity or of self in relation to those designated as other.

The article focused on selected aspects of data collected using a multidimensional identity questionnaire (Franchi, 2002). The variables in the study were defined and measured in the following ways:

- Self-Concept
- Future identity aspirations and threats as a South African
- Desire to stay in South Africa
- Perceived opportunities for success

Franchi and Swart (2002) indicated the following results:

Participants who expressed a desire to leave South Africa most often motivated their response by referring to the crime rate and lack of safety (50.9%) or to personal (39.5%), occupational (24.6%), political (21.1%), and economic (14%) concerns.

A slightly lower percentage of respondents evaluated their opportunities for succeeding as equal (39%) to those of other South Africans than unequal (44%). Only 17.2 percent reported not knowing. Of those who rated their opportunities for success as equal, most motivated their responses by relating success to personal effort (39.4%), individual capabilities or interests (19.2%), and academic or university opportunities (23.9%).

Conversely, those who perceived their opportunities to be unequal to those of other South Africans substantiated these claims by making reference to unequal opportunities among South Africans (30.6%), the lack of good previous education (17.9%), social comparison (24.0%), and economic factors (20.5%)

The study above was conducted in 1998 when AA was implemented as explained in chapter 1.Through the study of Franchi and Swart (2002), one can already see the attitude of the younger generation in 1998 through bad job prospects (21.5%), people with the desire to emigrate (21.1%), and perceived unfairness of job opportunities (44%).

After the announcement by the Minister of Labour, Mr. Membathisi Mdladlana with regards to AA, one needs to consider whether more young skilled adults are considering leaving the country because they feel that South Africa are discriminating against them through policies such as AA (Franchi and Swart, 2002)

A very important question that should be asked is whether AA benefits South Africa or does it hurt it more by creating a lack of skilled workers in this country? This research will aid in providing some information regarding AA and the brain drain.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with how affirmative action affects final year student's decision to leave the country due to affirmative action. It discussed the origins and rationale for affirmative action in South Africa by showcasing the most important elements of Apartheid, Affirmative Action, Bantu education, the Employment Equity Act and the Brain Drain. It indicated both the positive and negative aspects of each of the above elements.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter gave a brief understanding about Apartheid and the policies that followed because of it. This chapter, Chapter 3, will indicate how the researcher gathered the information that was required to support or disprove the research hypothesis.

This chapter provides information regarding the data collection, population and sample, measuring instruments, reliability and validity of the instruments and data analysis. This chapter gives a description of the manner in which the research was carried out and the research instruments used.

The design and the research type were fully discussed in chapter 1. Furthermore, the hypothesis for this research is also formulated in chapter 1 and will not be repeated in this chapter. The next section therefore commences with the population and sample demarcated for the research.

3.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Everitt (1998, p.114) defines a population as the total collection of actual and/or potential realizations of the unit of analysis, whether observed or not. The population consists of the final year students that are currently studying at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University in Port Elizabeth. Ethnical groups representing the broader society in South Africa are included in this research. This includes black, white, Indian and Asian students. A Sample is a specific, finite and realized set of observations of the unit of analysis.

A non-probability convenience sample (n = 194) was used. Malhotra (2006) describes non-probability sampling as a sampling procedure in which each facet of the population has a fixed probabilistic chance of being chosen for the sample. Convenience sampling attempts to obtain a sample of convenient elements (Malhotra, 2006).

The sample consists of 194 students all of whom were final year. The sample reflected the broad characteristics of the student population in terms of gender and ethnicity.

3.3 DATA COLLECTION

Upon receiving ethical clearance from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University ethics committee, a self- administered survey package was handed out to final year students within the various disciplines at their various classes. The package included a:

- Covering letter
- Biographical form
- A questionnaire consisting of 3 scales, namely: Attitudes towards Affirmative Action scale (Kravitz and Plantania, 1992), Justice Perceptions of Affirmative Action scale (Katz, 1999), the Affirmative Action Questionnaire (self–developed)

The nature of the study was explained to the final year students, by means of a covering letter detailing the reasons for the research and the focus area. The covering letter explained the purpose of the study, stating that participation was voluntary, and that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained at all times.

The covering letter invited participation in the research. Those who volunteered to take part in the study were asked to answer a questionnaire which included - The Attitude towards Affirmative Action scale (Kravitz and Plantania 1992) and the Justice Perceptions of the Employment Equity Act questionnaire (Katz 1999). The students

who volunteered to participate in the study completed the questionnaire and then placed their completed questionnaire in a sealed box which was provided by the researcher, before they left the lecture room. Once all the students had left the lecture room the researcher collected all the completed questionnaires from the sealed box. This ensured that no one had access to the completed questionnaires and thus maintained confidentiality.

The ethical considerations as mentioned in Chapter 1 (section 1.7.7) were adhered to during the interaction with the students.

Prior consent was obtained from final year students and lecturers where students were surveyed in lecture rooms. The questionnaires were distributed to the 400 students by the various lecturers before, or immediately after a particular lecture. The faculties that were involved include:

- Faculty of Arts
- Faculty of Business and Economic Sciences
- Faculty of Education
- Faculty of Engineering, the Built Environment and Information Technology
- Faculty of Health Sciences
- Faculty of Law
- Faculty of Science

Questionnaires were handed out to the students to be completed before the start of that specific lecture as arranged with the lecturer involved.

No time limits were set. The questionnaires were collected by the lecturers from the students and thereafter, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires from the various lecturers after completion. Anonymity was guaranteed and the final year

students had a choice with regards to whether they wanted to participate or not.

3.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used in this study are in a paper-and-pencil format which comprised of a biographical information form followed by a questionnaire comprising three scales. The psychometric properties of the scales discussed, in section are discussed in the following sections.

3.4.1 Biographical Information Form

The response options in the biographical form have the purpose of helping the researcher effectively describe and characterise the sample, as well as assist the researcher to select respondents in terms of the aims of the study the respondents that meet the inclusion criteria. Moreover the response options in the biographical form assisted the researcher in dividing up the respondents into their respective racial and beneficiary status groups, as well as the appropriate gender group.

Therefore the response options in the biographical form asked respondents to indicate their age, race, gender and language, as well as to verify that they are a third year/final year students.

3.4.2 Attitudes towards Affirmative action Scale

The above instrument measures the respondent's attitudes towards AA. The following sections deal with the rationale, the motivation for using the instrument as well as the nature, administration and interpretation of the instrument.

3.4.2.1 Nature, administration and interpretation

The ATAAS (Attitudes towards Affirmative Action Scale) is a five point Likert Intensity Scale ranging from 1 (“Strongly Disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly Agree”). An intensity of 3 represents a “Neutral” feeling towards the statement made. The questionnaire can be self-administered. The questionnaire had 6 items originally but the researcher added another 17 questions for this particular study, making it 23 items.

The 17 added questions were developed by the researcher to get information that directly related to AA and the brain drain. The researcher’s ultimate goal is to see whether AA has an impact on final year students leaving South Africa for employment overseas. This particular study will be done in a qualitative manner whilst the other two measures are done in a quantitative manner.

A pilot study was conducted by the researcher. A sample of 15 students was used and the feedback and concerns were noted and certain questions were altered by the researcher so that it could be better understood.

The questionnaire takes approximately three minutes to be completed. The Respondent is expected to circle how much they agree or disagree with the statements in the questionnaire. The questionnaire can be administered in groups or individually. The instrument consists of six statements.

The questionnaires are interpreted and scored manually by the researcher. In this research, the questionnaire is analysed by a computer program. Raw scores are converted and a profile of each respondent’s raw scores can be drawn. A total score is then calculated for each respondent and raw scores are used during comparisons among other respondents.

3.4.2.2 Rationale and motivation for application of instrument

The questionnaire aids in providing vital information to the researcher about the general feelings that the respondent might have towards AA. This questionnaire gives a quantified summary of the individual final year student's attitude towards AA.

The questionnaire also provides a high validity and reliability rating. This is discussed in the next section.

3.4.2.3 Validity and Reliability

The Attitudes towards Affirmative Action Scale is reported to have an internal reliability score (Cronbach's alpha) of .86 (Kravitz and Plantania, 1992), which is deemed as satisfactory. The reliabilities yielded in the current study for the attitudes towards affirmative action scale were .78 which is also deemed satisfactory.

3.4.3 Justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act

The questionnaire consists of three sub-scales, which measure three different aspects of justice perceptions in relation to employment equity, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice perceptions (Katz 1999).

3.4.3.1 Nature, administration and interpretation

The Justice perceptions of the employment equity act scale consist of 18 items, of which five examine distributional justice, nine examine procedural justice, and four examine interactional justice, (Katz, 1999). The questionnaire consists of a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Disagree") to 3 ("Agree"). An intensity of 2 represents a "Neither agree nor disagree" feeling towards the statement made. The questionnaire can be self-administered.

It takes approximately fifteen minutes to complete the questionnaire. The respondent is expected to circle how much he/she agrees or disagree with the statements in the questionnaire. Examples of the statements are: “Past discrimination in the work place must be redressed” and “Affirmative action policies take in to account all parties interests”.

The questionnaire can be administered in groups or individually. The items are in a statement format.

The questionnaires are interpreted and scored manually by the researcher. In this research, the questionnaire is analysed by a computer program. Raw scores are converted and a profile of each respondent’s raw scores can be drawn. A summated score is then calculated for each respondent and raw scores are used during comparisons among other respondents.

3.4.3.2 Rationale and motivation for application of instrument

The measure would greatly aid the researcher in understanding the justice perceptions of the respondents. Therefore, for the purposes of this study the scale was used in its entirety as a measure of overall justice perceptions of AA

This scale was used previously in a study conducted in South Africa. Although distributive, procedural and interactional justice are distinctive in their own right and function independently from one another, one aspect should not be considered more important than the other. Rather they operate in unison, and therefore should be considered in a holistic manner (Katz, 1999).

3.4.3.3 Validity and Reliability

The overall internal consistency reported on the justice scale is .94 which is high. Both the procedural and interactional sub-scales previously produced Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging between .90 (.91 and .93 respectively), the distributive scale had a Cronbach alpha of .77 (Katz, 1999).

The reliabilities yielded in the current study for the justice perceptions of affirmative action scale was an overall .68 but individually procedural had a Cronbach alpha of .96, Interactional had .66 and distributive had .55, all of which are deemed satisfactory.

3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Data collected by means of questionnaires will be captured in a statistical software program. A statistical analysis will be conducted with the aid of Statistica (2008) program. Descriptive statistics, such as the frequency distribution, mean, kurtosis, skew ness and standard error will consequently be computed to describe data.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients and inter-item correlations are used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity and unidimensionality of the measuring instruments (Maholtra, 2007). Exploratory factor analysis will be used to confirm the factor structure of the questionnaire used in the research.

During the analysis the researcher was in particular interested in tendencies, patterns and outliers reflected in the summated data. Conclusions about the data were drawn and reported in accordance with such characteristics reflected in the data.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the methodology of the study. It discussed the population and sample, data collection, measuring instruments and how the data would be analyzed. It also discussed how reliability and validity would be established for the measuring instruments.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the methodology of this study. This chapter will interpret the data that was gathered via the questionnaires. This chapter provides information regarding biographical information, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The next section therefore commences with the Biographical information.

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

A breakdown of the sample according to the various biographical variables is depicted in Table 1.

TABLE 1:

BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE

HOME LANGUAGE	NUMBER	PERCENTAGE (%)
English	78	40%
Afrikaans	51	26%
Xhosa	34	18%
Other	30	16%
Total	**193**	**100.0%**
AGE CATEGORY	**NUMBER**	**PERCENTAGE**
Under 20	0	0%
20 – 24	163	84%
25 – 29	24	12%

30 – 39	5	3%
40 – 49	2	1%
50+	0	0%
Total	**194**	**100.0%**
GENDER	**NUMBER**	**PERCENTAGE**
Male	56	29%
Female	135	71%
Total	**191**	**100.0%**
Ethnicity	**NUMBER**	**PERCENTAGE (%)**
Black	69	36%
White	74	39%
Coloured	36	19%
Indian	11	6%
Asian	1	1%
Total	**191**	**100%**

It can be seen in Table 1 that English speaking individuals made up the majority of the sample with 40 percent followed by Afrikaans speaking (26%), Xhosa speaking (18%) and other making up 16 percent. The majority of the respondents were female (71%), with males making up 29 percent of the sample. Most of the respondents were between the ages of 20 and 24 (84%), with the remaining 16 percent of the sample being 25 years and older.

4.2.1 CALIBRATION OF INSTRUMENT

In order to maintain the reliability and validity of the instrument as mentioned in chapter 3, the researcher calibrated the ATAAS (Annexure A) in a pilot study. The pilot study consisted out of a sample of 15 students. Participants in the pilot study were obviously excluded from the empirical study. The instrument originally consisted of 23 items relating to affirmative action. However, item nine, ten, eleven, sixteen, nineteen, twenty and twenty-one were later eliminated because the items were misunderstood by some and therefore they gave it the wrong rating. The items that represent the three sub scales can be seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2:

ATAAS FACTORS

SUB SCALE	ITEM NUMBER
Implementation	7, 8, 11, 12, 13
Moral Principle	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 23
Work Principle	14, 15, 17, 18, 22

The Justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act (Annexure B) originally consisted of eighteen items relating to justice perceptions. The items and the sub scales they represent can be seen in Table 3.

TABLE 3:

JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT FACTORS

SUB SCALE	ITEM NUMBER
Procedural Justice	9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18

Distributive Justice	1, 2, 3
Interactional Justice	4, 5, 17

4.3 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

Gravetter and Wallnau (2005, p.5) state that "descriptive statistics are statistical procedures that are used to summarize, organize and simplify data". Descriptive statistics take raw scores and organize them in a manner that is more manageable. The mean or the arithmetic average is the sum of scores divided by the number of scores (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2005). The researcher made use of a statistical program, Statistica version 8.0.360 (2008) to determine Cronbach's coefficient alpha, for the purposes of internal consistency.

Table 4 below illustrate that Moral principle produced the highest mean score of 3.37, which indicates that the respondents were neutral with regards to affirmative action and the morals behind it. The other 2 sub scales of the ATAAS were slightly turning negative towards affirmative action when it came down to the implementation and work principle.

TABLE 4:

ATAAS DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	IMPLIMENTATION	MORAL PRINCIPLE	WORK PRINCIPLE
n	194	194	194
MEAN	2.57	3.37	2.25
STANDARD DEVIATION	0.74	0.93	0.87
MIN.	1.00	1.00	1.00

MEDIAN	2.60	3.43	2.10
MAX	4.60	5.00	5.00
CRONBACH'S ALPHA	0.71	0.88	0.76

Table 5 below illustrate that distributive justice produced the highest mean score of 3.92, which indicates that the respondents were slightly positive with regards to how fair the Employment Equity Act is towards Distributive Justice, The other 2 sub scales of the Justice Perceptions of the EEA were slightly turning negative towards the Employment Equity Act when it came down to Procedural and Interactional Justice.

TABLE 5:

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF THE EEA QUESTIONNAIRE

	PROCEDURAL	DISTRIBUTIVE	INTERACTIONAL
n	194	194	194
MEAN	2.50	3.92	2.59
STANDARD DEVIATION	0.98	0.70	0.90
MIN.	1.00	1.00	1.00
MEDIAN	2.44	4.00	2.67
MAX	5.00	5.00	5.00
CRONBACH'S ALPHA	0.96	0.66	0.55

4.3.1 THE ATTITUDE TOWARDS AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SCALE

This section will focus on the mean scores of the 3 sub scales of the ATAAS. They are implementation, moral principle and work principle. By showing the mean scores of these three sub scales one will be able to see where and how the respondents differ with regards to their attitudes towards affirmative action. The differences will be noted through categorizing it in four sections, these are ethnicity, gender, age and gender and ethnicity. This will give a better understanding to how certain groups of people feel towards affirmative action.

4.3.1.1 Ethnicity

Table 6 below is a comparison of ethnicities for the ATAAS. Table 6 indicates that black respondents had higher mean scores than people from other ethnicities on all three of the sub scales in the ATAAS. This indicates that black respondents have a more positive attitude towards affirmative action than people from other ethnicities. The sub scale that attained the highest mean score for black respondents, 3.93, were moral principle, which asked questions such as “Affirmative Action is a good policy.” and “The Goals of Affirmative Action are good”.

The sub scale with the lowest mean produced by the white respondents, 1.73, was work principle, which asked questions such as “Affirmative Action should have a cut of date” and “Affirmative Action is causing skilled people to leave the country”. It should be noted that this was also the lowest mean for the black respondents; however, the mean was still considerably higher than the white respondents mean on this sub scale.

The “other” ethnicity group (Indian and Asian) scored close to the mean on all three of the subscales and therefore can be seen as neither agreeing nor disagreeing with affirmative action. The closest factor, where the “other” respondents might have a negative attitude towards affirmative action, is that of work principle, where they had a mean score of 2.35.

TABLE 6:

A COMPARISON OF ETHNICITIES FOR THE ATAAS

	BLACK	WHITE	OTHER
IMPLEMENTATION			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	3.04	1.95	2.58
SD	0.70	1.24	0.98
MORAL PRINCIPLE			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	3.93	2.72	3.32
SD	0.84	1.50	1.18
WORK PRINCIPLE			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	2.78	1.73	2.35
SD	0.85	1.51	1.19

4.3.1.2 Gender

Table 7 below is a comparison of gender for the ATAAS. Table 7 indicates that male and female respondents had almost identical mean scores on all three of the sub scales in the ATAAS. This indicates that there is not much of a difference between males and females with regards to what their attitudes are towards affirmative action when inspecting the mean scores for each.

TABLE 7

A COMPARISON OF GENDER FOR THE ATAAS

	MALES	FEMALES
IMPLEMENTATION		
n	55	134
MEAN	2.54	2.52
SD	0.82	1.14
MORAL PRINCIPLE		
n	55	134
MEAN	3.28	3.38
SD	0.98	1.37
WORK PRINCIPLE		
n	55	134
MEAN	2.30	2.29
SD	0.99	1.38

4.3.1.3 Age

Table 8 below is a comparison of age for the ATAAS. The mean scores for both age groups are very similar for all three subscales. The only notable difference is the Moral Principle Sub scale where the mean score was higher for the 20-24 year age group. The other two sub scales' mean scores were very similar. This should indicate that there isn't a difference in attitudes towards affirmative action amongst the different age groups of this study.

TABLE 8:

A COMPARISON OF AGE FOR THE ATAAS

	20-24	25+
IMPLEMENTATION		
n	159	30
MEAN	2.61	2.45
SD	0.71	0.75
MORAL PRINCIPLE		
n	159	30
MEAN	3.51	3.15
SD	0.86	0.90
WORK PRINCIPLE		
n	159	30

MEAN	2.24	2.35
SD	0.86	0.90

4.3.1.4 Gender and Ethnicity

Ethnicities were condensed into three categories for this study as the EE Act draws a distinction between white (previous advantaged group) on the one hand and black (previous disadvantaged group) on the other hand. The three categories are Black, White and Others. Others consist of Coloured, Indian and Asian respondents.

Table 9 below is a comparison of gender and ethnicities for the ATAAS. Table 9 indicates that black male and black female respondents produced higher mean scores than people from other ethnicities on all three of the sub scales in the ATAAS. This indicates that black male and black female respondents have a more positive attitude towards affirmative action than people from other ethnicities.

The sub scale that attained the highest mean score for black male and black female respondents was moral principle, which they scored 3.98 and 3.89 respectively. This sub scale asked questions such as “Affirmative Action is a good policy.” and “The Goals of Affirmative Action are good”. So it means that blacks are very much in favour of affirmative action while other groups are not feeling that strong in this regard. The sub scale with the lowest mean produced by both male and female white respondents was work principle, which the white respondents scored 1.90 and 1.58 respectively. This sub scale asked questions such as “Affirmative Action should have a cut-of date” and “Affirmative Action is causing skilled people to leave the country”. It should be noted that this was also the lowest mean for the black male and female respondents; however, the mean was considerably higher for the black respondents than the white respondents in this sub scale.

The “other” ethnicity group (Indian and Asian) scored close to the mean on two of the three sub scales. Both “other” male and female respondents had very high mean scores for the Moral Principle.

TABLE 9:

A COMPARISON OF GENDER AND ETHNICITY FOR THE ATAAS

	Black Male	White Male	Other Male	Black Female	White Female	Other Female
IMPLEMENTATION						
n	24	19	12	45	54	35
MEAN	3.24	2.04	2.34	2.86	1.86	2.84
SD	0.63	0.84	0.82	0.73	1.62	0.96
MORAL PRINCIPLE						
n	24	19	12	45	54	35
MEAN	3.98	2.45	3.41	3.89	3.00	3.23
SD	0.76	1.01	0.98	0.88	1.94	1.15
WORK PRINCIPLE						
n	24	19	12	45	54	35
MEAN	2.74	1.90	2.25	2.82	1.58	2.46
SD	0.76	1.01	0.99	0.89	1.96	1.16

4.3.2 THE JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF EEA (EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT) QUESTIONNAIRE

This section will focus on the mean scores of the 3 sub scales of the justice perceptions of EEA questionnaire. These sub scales consist out of procedural justice, distributive justice and interactional justice. By showing the mean scores of these three sub scales one will be able to see where and how the respondents differ with regards to their justice perceptions of the Employment Equity Act. The differences will be noted through categorizing it in four sections, these are ethnicity, gender, age and gender and ethnicity. This will give a better understanding to how certain groups of people feel towards the EEA.

4.3.2.1 Ethnicity

Table 10 below is a comparison of ethnicities for the Justice Perceptions of the EEA Questionnaire. Table 10, just like Table 6, indicates that black respondents produced higher mean scores than people from other ethnicities on two of the three sub scales, the lower sub scale being Distributive justice, the difference in mean scores being miniscule, in the Justice Perceptions of EEA Questionnaire. This indicates that black respondents have a more positive attitude towards the justice perceptions of the EEA than people from other ethnicities.

The factor that attained the highest mean score for black respondents, (4.07), were Distributive justice, which asked questions such as “Past discrimination in the workplace must be redressed” and “Equality in the workplace must be promoted through this Act”.

The factor with the lowest mean produced by the white respondents, (1.80), was Procedural justice, which asked questions such as “Policies of affirmative action allows for all parties concerns to be heard” and “The affirmative action Act is a fair and just one”.

The “other” ethnicity group (Indian and Asian) scored close to the mean on two of the three sub scales and scored very high, (4.10), on the Distributive justice, which is an even higher mean score than what the black respondents produced for that factor.

TABLE 10:

A COMPARISON OF ETHNICITIES FOR THE JUSTICE PERCEPTION OF EEA QUESTIONNAIRE FACTORS

	BLACK	WHITE	OTHER
PROCEDURAL			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	3.20	1.80	2.41
SD	0.87	1.55	1.22
DISTRIBUTIVE			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	4.07	3.77	4.10
SD	0.77	1.38	1.08
INTERACTIONAL			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	3.07	1.96	2.60
SD	0.88	1.57	1.24

4.3.2.2 Gender

Table 11 below is a comparison of gender for the justice perceptions of EEA Questionnaire. Table 11 indicates that male and female respondents notably produced higher mean scores on all three of the sub scales in the justice perceptions of EEA Questionnaire. This indicates that there is not a significant difference between males and females with regards to what their justice perceptions of the EEA are.

TABLE 11:

A COMPARISON OF GENDER FOR THE JUSTICE PERCEPTION OF EEA QUESTIONNAIRE FACTORS

	MALES	FEMALES
PROCEDURAL		
n	55	134
MEAN	2.52	2.43
SD	1.02	1.42
DISTRIBUTIVE		
n	55	134
MEAN	3.91	4.07
SD	0.91	1.26
INTERACTIONAL		
n	55	134
MEAN	2.57	2.53

SD	1.03	1.44

4.3.2.3 Age

Table 12 below is a comparison of age for the justice perceptions of EEA Questionnaire. The mean scores for both age groups are very similar for all three factors. This should indicate that there isn't a difference in justice perceptions of the EEA with regard to the different age groups of this study.

TABLE 12:

A COMPARISON OF AGE FOR THE JUSTICE PERCEPTION OF EEA QUESTIONNAIRE FACTORS

	20-24	25+
PROCEDURAL		
n	159	30
MEAN	2.60	2.35
SD	0.89	0.93
DISTRIBUTIVE		
n	159	30
MEAN	3.89	4.08
SD	0.79	0.83

INTERACTIONAL		
n	159	30
MEAN	2.67	2.42
SD	0.90	0.94

4.3.2.4 Gender and Ethnicity

Table 13 below is a comparison of gender and ethnicities for the justice perceptions of EEA Questionnaire. Table 13 indicates that black male and black female respondents produced higher mean scores than people from other ethnicities on two of the three sub scales in the justice perceptions of EEA Questionnaire. This indicates that black male and black female respondents have a more positive attitude towards the justice perceptions of EEA than people from other ethnicities. The factor that produced the highest mean score for black male and black female respondents was distributive justice, which they scored 4.09 and 4.06 respectively.

White Females and “other” males had the highest mean scores on the distributive justice factor, which were 4.13 and 4.20 respectively, which means that white females and “other” males felt that the EEA had very high distributive justice.

White males scored the lowest mean score on two of the three justice factors. The lowest mean score produced by white males were 1.98 for procedural justice.

White females scored the lowest mean score for procedural justice. They produced a mean score of 1.63. This indicates that they agree with distributive justice, as they produced the highest mean score for that factor, but definitely do not agree with the procedural justice factor.

TABLE 13:

A COMPARISON OF GENDER AND ETHNICITY FOR THE JUSTTICE PERCEPTIONS OF THE EEA QUESTIONNAIRE

	Black Male	White Male	Other Male	Black Female	White Female	Other Female
PROCEDURAL						
n	24	19	12	45	54	35
MEAN	3.45	1.98	2.14	2.95	1.63	2.69
SD	0.79	1.05	1.02	0.92	2.02	1.20
DISTRIBUTIVE						
n	24	19	12	45	54	35
MEAN	4.09	3.43	4.20	4.06	4.13	4.01
SD	0.70	0.93	0.91	0.81	1.79	1.06
INTERACTIONAL						
n	24	19	12	45	54	35
MEAN	3.15	2.13	2.42	2.99	1.80	2.79
SD	0.80	1.06	1.04	0.93	2.04	1.21

4.3.3 ITEM B23

The climax of the study resides in the question whether final year students are affected or influenced by affirmative action to consider overseas employment. This item was added to the ATAAS questionnaire to see whether final year students would leave South Africa due to Affirmative Action. This item is very important for this study as it directly relates to what this study is focusing on.

Table 14 below illustrates how different Ethnicities feel about leaving the country due to affirmative action. In this instance a high mean score would indicate that you wouldn't leave South Africa due to affirmative action. A low mean score would mean that you would leave South Africa due to affirmative action.

"Other" and Black respondents had very close mean scores and both were very high. This indicates that Black and "other" respondents aren't considering leaving South Africa due to affirmative action. White respondents on the other hand had a mean score that was very low compared to that of Black and "other" respondents.

A mean score of 3 would indicate that you are undecided to whether you would leave South Africa due to affirmative action. A score of 2.58 would mean that you are leaning towards considering leaving South Africa due to affirmative action.

TABLE 14:

A COMPARISON OF ETHNICITY FOR ITEM B23 on the ATAAS

	BLACK	WHITE	OTHER
Item B23			
n	69	73	47
MEAN	3.98	2.58	4.01
SD	1.20	2.13	1.68

Table 15 below illustrates how different Ethnicities from different ages and gender feel about leaving the country due to affirmative action. In this instance a high mean score would indicate that you would not leave South Africa due to affirmative action. A low mean score would mean that you would leave South Africa due to affirmative action. A

mean score of 3 would indicate that you are undecided to whether you would leave South Africa due to affirmative action.

“Other” males between the ages 20-24 and “Other” female 25+ had very close mean scores and both scored the highest means scores with 4.50 and 4.25 respectively, which indicates that they aren’t consider leaving the country due to affirmative action. White Males on an age of 25+ and White Female between the ages 20-24 had the lowest mean scores with 2.00 and 2.46 respectively, which indicate that they are considering leaving the country due to affirmative action.

Black Males and black females from the different age groups all had above average mean scores which indicate that they aren’t considering leaving South Africa due to affirmative action.

TABLE 15:

A COMPARISON OF GENDER, ETHNICITY AND AGE FOR ITEM B23 on the ATAAS

	n	Mean	SD
Ethnicity, Gender, Age			
Black Male 20-24	15	3.87	1.19
Black Male 25+	9	4.11	1.05
White Male 20-24	16	2.88	1.20
White Male 25+	3	2.00	1.00
Other Male 20-24	10	4.50	0.71
Other Male 25+	2	4.00	1.41
Black Female 20-24	35	4.34	0.87
Black Female 25+	10	3.60	1.35
White Female 20-24	52	2.46	1.00

White Female 25+	2	3.00	1.41
Other Female 20-24	31	3.29	1.13
Other Female 25+	4	4.25	0.50

Table 16 below indicates that 75.4 percent of black respondents, 56.3 percent of "other" respondents and only 17.6 percent of white respondents felt negative towards the idea of leaving South Africa due to affirmative action, this means that they would not leave because of it. White respondents had the highest positive score as 47.3 percent felt positive and 35.1 percent moderate towards the idea of leaving South Africa because of affirmative action.

It is therefore seen that affirmative action does have a positive impact on final year's decision to leave the country as 8.7 percent of black respondents, 47.3 percent of white respondents and 25.1 percent of coloured respondents indicated that they would consider leaving South Africa because of affirmative action. Hypothesis 1 is therefore accepted.

TABLE 16:

HOW THE DIFFERENT ETHNICITIES ANSWERED ITEM 23 on the ATAAS

	ITEM B23							
	n	Negative	n	Moderate	n	Positive	n	Total
Black	52	75.4%	11	15.9%	6	8.7%	69	100.0%
White	13	17.6%	26	35.1%	35	47.3%	74	100.0%
Other	27	56.3%	14	29.2%	7	14.6%	48	100.0%
Total	92	48.2%	51	26.7%	48	25.1%	191	100.0%
(Chi^2(d.f. = 4, n = 191) = 54.71; $p < .0005$; V = 0.38 Large).								

4.4 ANOVA's AND MANOVA's

ANOVA's were calculated in order to determine whether attitudes towards affirmative action and the justice perceptions of the EEA differ significantly between the respondents, specifically in the areas of ethnicity, gender and age.

Statistica version 8.0.360 (2008) was used to perform analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine statistical significance between the various language groups, age, gender and ethnicity levels.

Table 17 indicates that there was statistical significant difference for ethnicity on all three of the ATAAS sub scales. The significance for all sub scales was on the 0.001 level. This indicates that there are statistical significant differences amongst the different ethnicities when it comes to their attitudes towards affirmative action.

Table 17 also indicates that there is a statistical significance on the 0.05 level when it comes to moral principle and age. This indicates that there are statistical significant differences when it comes to age and the moral principle.

Table 17:

ANOVA FOR ATAAS FACTORS

		IMPLEMENTATION		MORAL PRINCIPLE		WORK PRINCIPLE	
	DF	F	p	F	p	F	p
GENDER	1; 177	0.02	.888	0.28	.598	0.00	.969
ETHNICITY	2; 178	21.60	**.000**	18.97	**.000**	13.45	**.000**
AGE	1; 179	1.15	.284	4.24	**.041**	0.35	.552

Table 18 indicates that there was statistical significance for ethnicity on the procedural and interactional sub scales on the justice perceptions of the EEA questionnaire. The significance for these two sub scales was on the 0.001 level. This indicates that there are statistical significant differences amongst the different ethnicities when it comes to their justice perceptions of the act based on the interaction and procedures followed.

Table 18:

ANOVA FOR JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF EEA QUESTIONNAIRE FACTORS

		PROCEDURAL		DISTRIBUTIVE		INTERACTIONAL	
	DF	F	p	F	p	F	p
GENDER	1; 177	0.27	.605	0.95	.332	0.04	.842
ETHNICITY	2; 178	24.18	**.000**	1.42	.244	13.89	**.000**
AGE	1; 179	1.96	.163	1.31	.254	1.72	.192

Table 19 indicates that there was statistical significance for ethnicity and Item B23. The significance for this factor was on the 0.001 level. This indicates that there are statistical significant differences amongst the different ethnicities when it comes to item B23. This in turn means that different ethnicities have different opinions on whether they will leave South Africa because of affirmative action.

Table 19:

ANOVA FOR ITEM B23

	F	DF	p	Partial eta²
GENDER	0.07	1; 177	.788	n.a.
ETHNICITY	12.65	2; 177	**.000**	**0.13**

AGE	0.06	1; 177	.805	n.a.

Table 20 indicates that there was practical significance for the overall data of this research. The practical significance for ethnicity was 0.17, which is considered to be moderate practical significant. This indicates that among the various sub scales of this study there were differences amongst the different races of the study.

Table 20:

MANOVA FOR OVERALL DATA

	F	DF	p	Partial eta²
GENDER	0.33	6; 172	.919	n.a.
ETHNICITY	5.88	12; 344	.000	0.17
AGE	1.80	6; 172	.102	n.a.

Eta²	Interpretation
$.01 < \eta^2 < .09$	Small
$.09 < \eta^2 < .25$	Moderate
$\eta^2 > .25$	Large

4.5 SCHEFFÉ'S TEST

Scheffé's Test is used to find where the statistically significant differences between means lie when the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) indicates the means are not all equal. The Scheffé test is the recommended post-hoc test for the ANOVA when the sample sizes of the groups being compared are different.

Table 21 illustrates that for all three sub scales of the ATAAS there were statistically significant differences of the means for the different ethnicities. For the implementation factor there were significant mean differences between black and white respondents, and also between "other" and white respondents. For the moral principle factor there

were significant mean differences between black and white respondents, between black and “other” respondents and also between white and “other” respondents.

The work principle factor also indicated significant mean differences between black and white respondents, black and “other” respondents and finally between white and “other” respondents. All of the significant differences were at the 0.001 level except the mean differences between black and “other” respondents for the work principle factor, which indicated significant differences at the 0.01 level.

Table 21:

SCHEFFÉ TEST RESULTS FOR ATAAS FACTORS BASED ON ETHNICITY

	IMPLIMENTATION			MORAL PRINCIPLE			WORK PRINCIPLE		
	Black	White	Other	Black	White	Other	Black	White	Other
Black		**.000**	.057		**.000**	**.001**		**.000**	**.005**
White	**.000**		**.000**	**.000**		**.000**	**.000**		**.000**
Other	.057	**.000**		**.001**	**.000**		**.005**	**.000**	

Table 22 illustrates that for the two sub scales for which the ANOVA found statistically significant differences between the races groups with regard to the justice perceptions of the EEA questionnaire there were significant differences of the means for the different ethnicities. For the procedural factor there were statistically significant mean differences between black and white respondents, black and “other” respondents and also between white and “other” respondents. For the interactional factor there were significant mean differences between black and white respondents and also between white and “other” respondents.

All of the significant differences were at the 0.001 level except the mean differences between black and “other” respondents for the procedural factor, which indicated a significant difference at the 0.01 level.

The differences for ethnicity on the distributive factor were not statistically significant according to the ANOVA and therefore a Scheffé test was not done on the factor, hence it being excluded from Table 22.

Table 22:

SCHEFFÉ TEST RESULTS FOR THE JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF EEA FACTORS BASED ON ETHNICITY

	PROCEDURAL			INTERACTIONAL		
	Black	White	Other	Black	White	Other
Black		**.000**	**.002**		**.000**	.055
White	**.000**		**.000**	**.000**		**.000**
Other	**.002**	**.000**		.055	**.000**	

Table 23 indicates that question B23 shows significant differences of the means for the different ethnicities. There were significant mean differences between black and white respondents and also between white and “other” respondents. All of the significant differences were at the 0.001 level.

Table 23:

SCHEFFÉ TEST RESULTS FOR QUESTION B23 BASED ON ETHNICITY.

	Black	White	Other
Black		**.000**	**.085**

White	**.000**		**.000**
Other	**.085**	**.000**	

Table 24 indicates that there were statistically significant mean differences between the various ethnicity/gender groups for the implementation factor of the ATAAS. There were significant mean differences between black male and white male respondents, black male and white female respondents, black male and “other” female respondents, white male and black female respondents, “other” male and white female respondents, black female and white female respondents, white female and “other” female respondents.

All the significant mean differences occurred at the 0.001 level except for black male and “other” female respondents, “other” male and white female respondents and white female which were at the 0.05 significance level. It is very important to note that different genders from the same ethnicity did not produce a significant mean difference.

Table 24:

SCHEFFÉ TEST RESULTS FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION FACTOR BASED ON ETHNICITY AND GENDER

	Black Male	White Male	Other Male	Black Female	White Female	Other Female
Black Male		**.000**	.075	.512	**.000**	**.019**
White Male	**.000**		.640	**.001**	.591	.146
Other Male	.075	.640		.627	**.018**	.999
Black Female	.512	**.001**	.627		**.000**	.516

White Female	**.000**	.591	**.018**	**.000**		**.000**
Other Female	**.019**	.146	.999	.516	**.000**	

Table 25 indicates that there were statistically significant mean differences between the various ethnicity/gender groups for the interactional factor of the justice perceptions of the EEA questionnaire. There were significant mean differences between black male and white male respondents, black male and white female respondents, white male and black female respondents, white male and “other” female respondents, black female and white female respondents, white female and “other” female respondents.

All the significant mean differences occurred at the 0.001 level except for white male and “other” female respondents which were at the 0.01 significance level. It is very important to note that different genders from the same ethnicity didn’t have a significant mean difference.

Table 25:

SCHEFFÉ TEST RESULTS FOR THE INTERACTIONAL FACTOR OF THE JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF EEA QUESTIONNAIRE BASED ON ETHNICITY AND GENDER

	Black Male	White Male	Other Male	Black Female	White Female	Other Female
Black Male		**.000**	.056	.595	**.000**	.335
White Male	**.000**		.611	**.000**	1.000	**.003**
Other Male	.056	.611		.485	.292	.763
Black Female	.595	**.000**	.485		**.000**	.994
White Female	**.000**	1.000	.292	**.000**		**.000**
Other Female	.335	**.003**	.763	.994	**.000**	

4.6 DECISION ON GENERAL RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

A general hypothesis was formulated in chapter 1 and the decision in terms of such a hypothesis will be reflected in this section.

Given the significant inferential statistics it can be concluded that the following research hypothesis can be accepted:

Hypothesis:

Affirmative Action has a positive influence on final year students' decision to leave South Africa.

The hypothesis stated that affirmative action has a positive influence on final year students' decision to leave South Africa. Support was found for the hypothesis

indicating that there is a significant relationship between affirmative action and final year students' decision to leave South Africa.

The researcher therefore reject the null hypothesis based on the results discussed in the previous section of this paper, as these results indicated that there are correlations between affirmative action and final year students' decision to leave South Africa. This then indicates that the researcher can accept the hypothesis that affirmative action has a positive influence on final year students' decision to leave South Africa.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the results of the research done in this study. It discussed the biographical information, calibration of the instrument, the descriptive statistics of the measuring instruments, the ANOVA's and MANOVA's of the results and the Scheffé tests done on the results. It concluded by discussing the hypothesis and how and why it got accepted.

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on the results of the research done in this study. This chapter, Chapter 5, will conclude this study by providing a conclusion, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future researchers.

5.2 CONCLUSION

Affirmative action has been accused of promoting inherent unfairness of practices and procedures that give preferential treatment to certain groups of people based on gender, race and ethnicity (Parker, 1997). Affirmative action has also been accused of reducing job opportunities for non-beneficiaries, as well as being blamed for stigmatising those it aims to assist (Kravits and Plantania, 1992).

Affirmative action has in the past been described as a contentious policy (Heilman, Block & Lucas 1992), which evokes controversial attitudes. The overall statistical findings reveal that although beneficiaries (black and “other” respondents) of affirmative action tend to be more in support of affirmative action, both beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries seem to agree that affirmative action is a good policy and which should be implemented to eradicate the ills of the past. It is however understandable, that beneficiaries are slightly more positive than non-beneficiaries as they have the most to gain from affirmative action.

Moreover these findings are in keeping with past research (Kravitz and Plantania, 1992, Parker, et al, 1997), which documents that although non-beneficiaries support equal opportunity they are generally less positive about affirmative action, due to the perception that the policies give beneficiaries an unfair economic advantage.

Thus considering the litigious nature of affirmative action, it was deemed appropriate to conduct research on affirmative action within the South African context. The current research was conducted to investigate final year student’s perceptions of affirmative action and attitudes towards affirmative action. The research was undertaken at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University and conducted on 194 final year students.

The research was conducted on this group as they were final year students and would possibly be affected the following year by affirmative action. In addition this group, final year students are considered to be most affected by affirmative action as they enter the working world.

One hypothesis was tested. The results support the hypothesis. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted. The hypothesis indicated that affirmative action has a positive influence on final year students' decision to leave South Africa.

It can be concluded that attitudes towards affirmative action differ between the different ethnicities, age- and gender groups. The degree to which affirmative action is perceived fair and just has attitudinal consequences and thus there is a direct link between justice perceptions of affirmative action and attitudes towards affirmative action, the same goes for perceptions of job opportunities which also influence attitudes towards affirmative action.

It is therefore critical that the impact of affirmative action be recognised and that better efforts to understand the implications of attitudes towards affirmative action are made. This research is just one step in that direction. It can further be concluded that the research objectives as formulated in chapter 1, were achieved.

5.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study conducted by the researcher has many limitations. These limitations will be discussed below, and suggestions will be made to rectify these situations in the future.

As demonstrated by the current literature review much research has been conducted on affirmative action, but most of it occurred overseas, which is not considered applicable to the South African context, for the reason that our history and political past is vastly different. Furthermore the South African population is diverse with many cultures and languages and therefore South Africans cannot be compared to other nations. In addition affirmative action affects all South Africans and as a result more emphasis should be placed on this area. Further research on affirmative action in South Africa should be conducted bearing in mind that affirmative action is expected to have a significant impact on the South African population.

Even though this research found mainly favourable attitudes towards affirmative action, it is felt that affirmative action is a policy that should receive much attention and should be continuously monitored, because attitudes could become more negative as time passes and the momentum of affirmative action increases. Affirmative action is gaining force, and the full brunt of affirmative action and its affect will soon be wide spread. It is expected as more pressure is placed on organisations to come up with figures that reflect increased Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment, non beneficiary attitudes will become increasingly negative primarily because more weight will be placed on quotas.

The tentative findings should be treated with caution, as a major concern in this study is the reliability of the ATAAS. The ATAAS was modified for this particular study as more questions were added to focus on final year students. The original scale still stayed intact for the original questions but the extra questions added to the questionnaire could have affected the reliability even though a pilot study was conducted which returned good reliability and validity scores.

Another limitation of this study was that both questionnaires had to have items removed to make it more reliable as certain questions were not understood by certain respondents.

An additional limitation to this study is that it does not directly explore the psychological bases underlying attitudes. Therefore such research should be conducted if one is to understand attitudes towards affirmative action. Psychological explanations have included traditional and modern racism, belief in the dominant ideology of opportunity, self interest, fairness and other concepts (Kravitz, 1993; Nacoste, 1987). Thus future research should provide information about the relative importance of these factors.

Lastly, there was a lack of information with regards to final year students and the brain drain. This sort of problem may be rectified by networking with other universities and

institutions that have conducted studies related to final years specifically and obtaining information in this manner.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

It is recommended that a follow-up study be conducted to test the results of this study and to minimize the lack of knowledge in this field as it is pertinent in a world where a skilled workforce is harder to come by. It is also recommended that more than one university be utilized so as to get a broader range of students across South Africa. Lastly the researcher would also recommend that a larger sample size be used so as to get more consistent picture of what students in South Africa feel towards affirmative action and also leaving the country for employment overseas.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter concluded the study by discussing the key components on what was achieved through this study. The conclusion, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future researchers were discussed in detail.

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ADDENDUM A – QUESTIONNAIRE

Department of Industrial & Organizational Psychology,
P O Box 77000, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University,
Port Elizabeth, 6031, South Africa.
July 2009

My name is Renaldo Gouws, and I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining a Masters degree at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. My area of focus is that of Affirmative Action, and its impact on final year university students'

decision to leave the country. The research aims to explore final year university students' justice perceptions of and attitudes towards the Employment Equity Act and affirmative action in South Africa.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study. Participation in this research will entail completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Participation is voluntary, and no student will be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way for choosing to complete or not complete the questionnaire. While questions are asked about your personal attitudes, no identifying information, such as your name, student or I.D. number, is asked for, and as such you will remain anonymous.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. This research will contribute both to a larger body of knowledge on attitudes towards affirmative action and job opportunities. This can help to inform the future development of policies and procedures.

Your completed questionnaire will not be seen by any person in this University at any time, and will only be processed by myself. Your responses will only be looked at in relation to all other responses. This means that feedback will be in the form of group responses and not individual perceptions.

If you choose to participate in the study please complete the attached questionnaire as carefully and honestly as possible. Myself the researcher, will provide a sealed box in which you may place your completed questionnaire as you leave the lecture room. Once all the students have left the lecture room I will immediately collect all the questionnaires from the sealed box. This will ensure that only I will have access to the completed questionnaires to ensure your confidentiality.

If you complete a questionnaire, this will be considered consent to participate in the study.

You have the right to query concerns regarding the study at any time. Immediately report any new problems during the study, to the researcher. Telephone numbers of the researcher and study leader are provided. Please feel free to call these numbers.

Furthermore, it is important that you are aware of the fact that the ethical integrity of the study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee (Human) of the university. The REC-H consists of a group of independent experts that has the responsibility to ensure that the rights and welfare of participants in research are protected and that studies are conducted in an ethical manner. Studies cannot be conducted without REC-H's approval. Queries with regard to your rights as a research subject can be directed to the Research Ethics Committee (Human), Department of Research Capacity Development, PO Box 77000, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, 6031. If no one could assist you, you may write to: The Chairperson of the Research, Technology and Innovation Committee, PO Box 77000, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth, 6031.

Thank you for taking the time to read this letter, it is greatly appreciated.

Regards,

Renaldo Gouws (Researcher)

Email: rengouws@yahoo.com

Tel: 0834685567

Dr G.J. Louw (study leader)

Email: Gerrit.louw@nmmu.ac.za

Tel: 041-504 1289

A. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Please tick the appropriate boxes:

1. **Home Language:** ☐English ☐Afrikaans ☐Xhosa ☐Other, please specify _____

2. **Age:** ☐Under 20 ☐20 – 24 ☐25-29 ☐30 – 39 ☐40 – 49 ☐50+

3. **Gender:** ☐Male ☐Female

4. **Ethnicity:** ☐1 Black ☐2 White ☐3 Coloured ☐4 Indian ☐5 Asian

   ☐6 Other, please specify_____

5. **Faculty:** ☐1 Arts ☐2 Business & Economic Sciences ☐3 Education ☐4 Engineering, IT

   ☐5 Health Sciences ☐6 Law ☐7 Science

6. **Degree:** _____

7. **Core Subject(s):** _____

6. **I am a final year student:** ☐ Yes ☐ No

B. ATTITUDES TOWARDS AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements: answer as honestly as possible, by circling the number in the appropriate box:

Please note*:* the term 'beneficiaries' is, according to the Affirmative Action policy, a general term referring to Blacks; Coloureds; Indians and Asians, Whilst the term non-beneficiaries refers to whites.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Affirmative action is a good policy.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I would NOT like to work at an organisation with an affirmative action plan.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The goals of affirmative action are good.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Employees should be actively involved in attempts to improve the affirmative action conditions at their place of employment.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I would be willing to work at an organisation with an affirmative action plan.	1	2	3	4	5
6	All in all, I oppose affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7	The way affirmative action is implemented in the workplace is fair.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Affirmative action needs to be intensified.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I believe that beneficiaries, who were not previously disadvantaged by Apartheid, are being advantaged by affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Affirmative action only benefits the elite and not the previously disadvantaged.	1	2	3	4	5
11	The way in which affirmative action is being implemented in South Africa does not really benefit the masses.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Affirmative action promotes democracy.	1	2	3	4	5
13	The approaches adopted in the implementation of affirmative action are sufficiently transparent.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Whites born after 1994 should be excluded from being affected by affirmative action.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Opportunities should be created for people who were previously discriminated against, regardless of race or gender.	1	2	3	4	5
	If no beneficiaries are found for an affirmative action post, that post should stay	1	2	3	4	5

16	open till a suitable beneficiary is found.					
17	Affirmative action should have a cut off date.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Affirmative action is causing skilled people to leave the country (Brain Drain).	1	2	3	4	5
19	Young people entering the job market for the first time should be exempted from affirmative action policies.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Affirmative action is causing white people to feel like second class citizens.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Affirmative action causes tension between different ethnic groups.	1	2	3	4	5
		Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither Agree nor Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
22	Affirmative action should only be implemented if the beneficiary is at least the equal of the other candidates.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I am planning a career overseas due to Affirmative Action.	1	2	3	4	5

24. If you would like to add something regarding the topic of affirmative action as implemented in South Africa, then please do so here:

_____

_____

_____

C. JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS OF THE EMPLOYMENT EQUITY ACT

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements: answer as honestly as possible, by circling the number in the appropriate box:

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Past discrimination in the work place must be redressed.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Equality in the work place must be promoted through this act.	1	2	3	4	5
3	It is important to achieve a workforce representative of our population.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Procedures outlined in affirmative action are free from all forms of unfair discrimination.	1	2	3	4	5
	Affirmative action policies take in to account					

5	all parties' interests.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Affirmative action policies allow for decisions to be based on accurate information.	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither Agree nor Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
7	Policies of affirmative action are designed to favour certain groups.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Policies of affirmative action allow for incorrect decisions to be changed.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Policies of affirmative action apply equally to everyone.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Policies of affirmative action are just and fair.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Policies of affirmative action allow for all parties' concerns to be heard.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Policies of affirmative action allow for all parties to have a say in how decisions are made.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5

13	Affirmative action reflects respect for all parties.					
14	Affirmative action considers all parties' view points.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Affirmative action values all parties as important in the work place.	1	2	3	4	5
16	This act allows for all parties to be part of the affirmative action process.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Affirmative action promotes reverse racism.	1	2	3	4	5
18	The affirmative action act is a fair and just one.	1	2	3	4	5

19. If you would like to add something regarding your Justice Perceptions of the Employment Equity Act then please do so here:

_____

_____