

**THE ROLE OF JUSTICE ON PERCEPTIONS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION,
AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO QUIT**



**UNIVERSITY of the
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Procedural justice

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ABSTRACT

Due to the high costs associated with turnover it has become paramount for organisations within the private sector to retain their human capital. In so doing, organisations are more likely to maintain a competitive advantage.

Intention to quit, an employee's intention to leave the organisation, has been identified as a key factor affecting voluntary employee turnover. Therefore, organisational leaders are confronted with the challenge of creating an environment that will retain their most valued employees. Previous research studies indicate that affective commitment is one of the strongest predictors of intention to quit. Findings show that high levels of affective commitment are associated with low levels of intention to quit. In addition, perceptions based on organisational justice has been identified as a contributor to an employee's intention to quit and levels of organisational commitment. Specifically, research has shown organisational justice to be linked to an increase in affective commitment within the workplace.

Due to apartheid, the post-democratic labour market is governed by strict legislation that aims to address some of the inequalities of the past. Organisations within South Africa need to abide by the basic conditions of employment legislation regarding affirmative action. Since fairness is seen as a crucial construct linked to organisational commitment, the perception of affirmative action and whether or not it is linked to fairness needs to be considered.

The objective of this research study was to understand the role of justice and perceptions of affirmative action in shaping affective commitment and intention to quit among the management of an organisation within the financial services industry. In order to achieve this aim, a theoretical model to describe the relationships between affirmative action, organisational justice, affective commitment and intention to quit was created and tested. Input from the management across the nine provinces in South Africa was gathered. In total 286 respondents participated in the study resulting in a final sample of 201 complete responses. Data was collected by means of an integrated questionnaire measuring the constructs of turnover intentions, organisational commitment attitudes towards affirmative action and cultural diversity.

Once the data was collected, it was subjected to exploratory factor analysis and item analysis. To test the hypothesised relationships within the structural model, bivariate correlation analysis

and regression analysis were used. Mediation analysis was also conducted to test indirect relationships.

The findings of the study indicated that the proposed model could be considered a credible representation of how justice, commitment and intention to quit interact in the work environment. It was found that only distributive justice and intention to quit was fully mediated by affective commitment.

Overall, this research study contributes to existing literature by explaining how the complete interaction between various forms of justice are impacted by perceptions of affirmative action, organisational commitment, and finally intentions to quit. The research holds important implication for organisational leaders, scholars and policy makers in promoting workplaces that uphold democratic principles of the South African constitution.

July 2019



DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis, I declare that *The Role of Justice on Perceptions of Affirmative Action, Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit* in its entirety is my own, original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: July 2019

Name: Lindy Malyon

Signed:

Lindy Malyon



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I would like to give all praise to the Almighty God for blessing me with all that I have and for helping me through this journey.

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my parents, André Malyon and Marina Malyon, for providing me with a platform that allowed me to pursue and achieve my goals. I have been blessed with the best. Thank you for believing in me, encouraging me, supporting me and loving me. Thank you for giving me the gift of education and for providing me with all the opportunities that you did not have.

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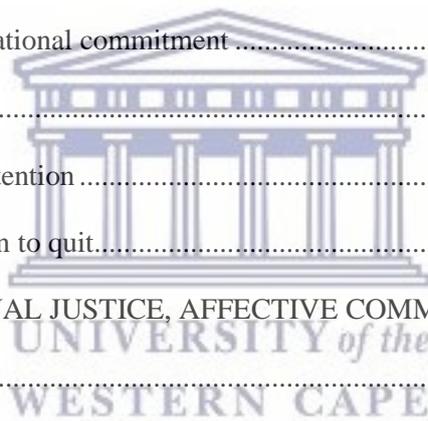
To my family and friends – I am so grateful to have such beautiful and caring souls in my life. Uncle Tommy, Aunty Alvina, Aunty Lucille, Philburn, Chad, Kareemah, Lauren, Monique, Marshall, Michael, Anesh, Bernice, Warren, Walter, Ricardo and Timothy: You have all played a part in my journey. I want to say thank you for the support, patience and words of encouragement and for listening to me when times were tough. Thank you for always checking in and seeing how I was progressing.

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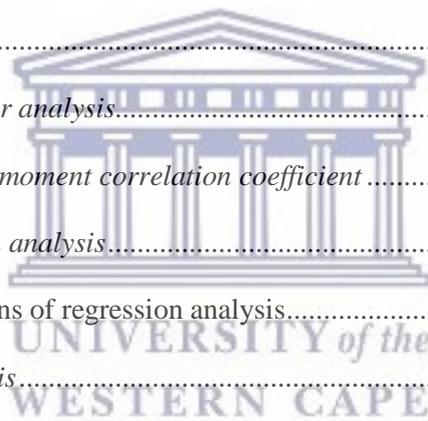
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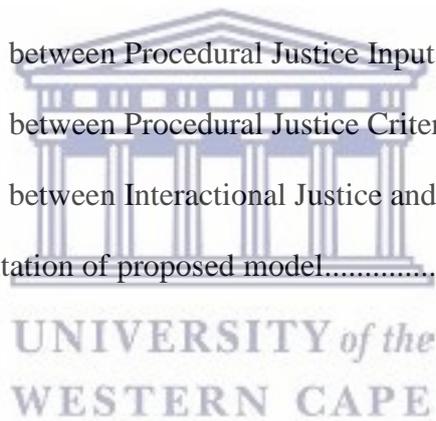
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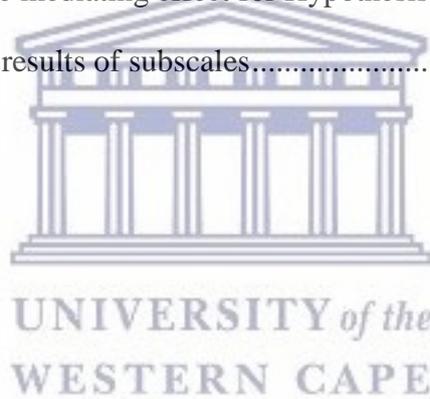
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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, BACKGROUND AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

As technology and the service sectors continue to dominate the global economy, attracting knowledgeable workers is become increasingly important. Some may argue that human capital remains a significant source of competitive advantage for organisations. Therefore, it is crucial that organisations keep abreast of practices that encourage employees to stay with the organisation. In so doing, not only will organisations be able to maintain a competitive advantage but also, the costs associated with the voluntary turnover of employees will be reduced.

According to Iqbal, Ehsan, Rizwan, & Noreen (2014), intention to quit has been reported as a key factor that influences the voluntary turnover of employees. Intention to quit refers to an employee's intention to leave the organisation. Intention to quit can be regarded as the last step of a cognitive process, albeit sometimes a subconscious process, in which employees engage before deciding to leave their organisation (Greenberg, 2011; Mxenge, Dywili, & Bazana, 2014). It is often the highly skilled and productive employees who decide to leave their current organisations when other companies are willing to provide them with compelling career opportunities for growth and for broadening their financial base. Organisational leaders are tasked with the difficult job of creating an organisational culture that will not only retain their most valued employees but will also attract the most talented employees from the broader industry.

According to past research, one of the strongest predictors of an employee's intention to quit is organisational commitment (Sturges & Guest, 2001). Organisational commitment as a construct can be divided into three sub-dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. These three sub-facets provide a conceptual framework for understanding the attraction of employees to their organisations. Affective commitment can be described as the emotional commitment of employees to their organisations. Normative commitment suggests that employees stay with their current organisations because staying demonstrates normative behaviour. Continuance commitment is concerned with the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Organisational commitment is associated with influencing the behaviour of

employees within an organisation and has been identified as a factor that affects an employee's intention to quit. Previous research suggests that affective commitment may be the most important predictor of organisational commitment due to the emotional commitment of the employee to the organisation (Mercurio, 2015). As such, high levels of affective commitment are related to low levels of intention to quit (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013).

Another factor that has been identified as a contributor to an employee's intention to quit is organisational justice. Organisational justice can be defined as the way an employee perceives fairness in the workplace (Coetzee, 2005; Greenberg, 1987). Perceptions of fairness have also been linked to how committed employees feel towards the organisation and ultimately, their intention to leave the organisation (Leung, Wang, & Smith, 2001). Organisational justice consists of three sub-categories, namely distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. Distributive justice is concerned with perceptions relating to the allocation of rewards and opportunities in the workplace. Procedural justice involves feelings or perceptions regarding whether or not procedures and processes within the organisation are fair. Interactional Justice is concerned with whether or not employees feel that they are treated with dignity and respect when decisions are made within the organisation (Coetzee, 2005). Research suggests that perceptions of organisational justice promote organisational commitment within the workplace and that organisational justice is linked to an increase in affective commitment within the work environment.

Due to the unique history of South Africa, the post-democratic labour market is governed by strict legislation that aims to address some of the inequalities in the labour system as a result of apartheid. For this reason, investigating the impact of justice on organisational commitment would be difficult without considering the general South African labour context.

Organisations within South Africa need to adhere to the basic conditions of employment and specifically the legislation regarding affirmative action. This means that organisations have a duty to provide opportunities to employees who were previously disadvantaged under the apartheid regime (Burger & Jafta, 2010) and are mandated to promote the inclusion of designated groups into the labour market. According to the Employment Equity Act, No. 5 of 1998, designated groups refer to black people, women and people with disabilities (Republic of South Africa, 1998). The main purpose of this Act is to redress the inequalities in labour participation with the aim of providing equality between the previously disadvantaged and the previously advantaged groups. The practice of affirmative action and the laws that make

provision for this practice have been clouded in controversy. The perceived fairness of the practice probably depends on the person's group membership (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004). Because fairness is seen as a crucial construct linked to organisational commitment, perceptions of affirmative action and whether or not affirmative action is linked to fairness need to be considered. Human resource practices such as recruitment and selection processes, development and the distribution of rewards are affected by affirmative action legislation. Regardless of the merits of the practice, it is important for organisations to understand the critical links between affirmative action, justice, commitment and intention to quit.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Research has indicated that affective commitment and organisational justice have a direct influence on an employee's intention to quit. Therefore, organisations need to understand these factors and how they influence the intention to quit. This study aimed to unpack these factors in order to understand how these variables are related to one another and ultimately, how they shape intention to quit. Specifically, this study aimed to answer whether or not perceptions of affirmative action and organisational justice play an influencing role in the affective commitment and intention to quit of employees at an organisation within the financial services industry. In addition, the study investigated how the variables of commitment, justice and perceptions of affirmative action are linked to intention to quit.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Based on the aforementioned research question, the main objective of the study was to develop a conceptual model that explained the nomological network of variables that influence turnover intentions by specifically investigating organisational commitment, justice and perceptions of affirmative action.

1.4 SELECTED VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

In order to answer the research question and meet the objectives of the research study, Affective Commitment, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice and Perceptions of

Affirmative Action were modelled in the form of a nomological network in order to explain Intention to Quit. The aim was to validate empirically the complex and dynamic linkages between the variables that shape intentions to quit in organisations.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF HYPOTHESIS

In order to explore the relationships between the variables mentioned in the previous section, the complex theoretical model is broken down into a number of individual hypotheses. These hypotheses are graphically displayed in Figure 1.1.



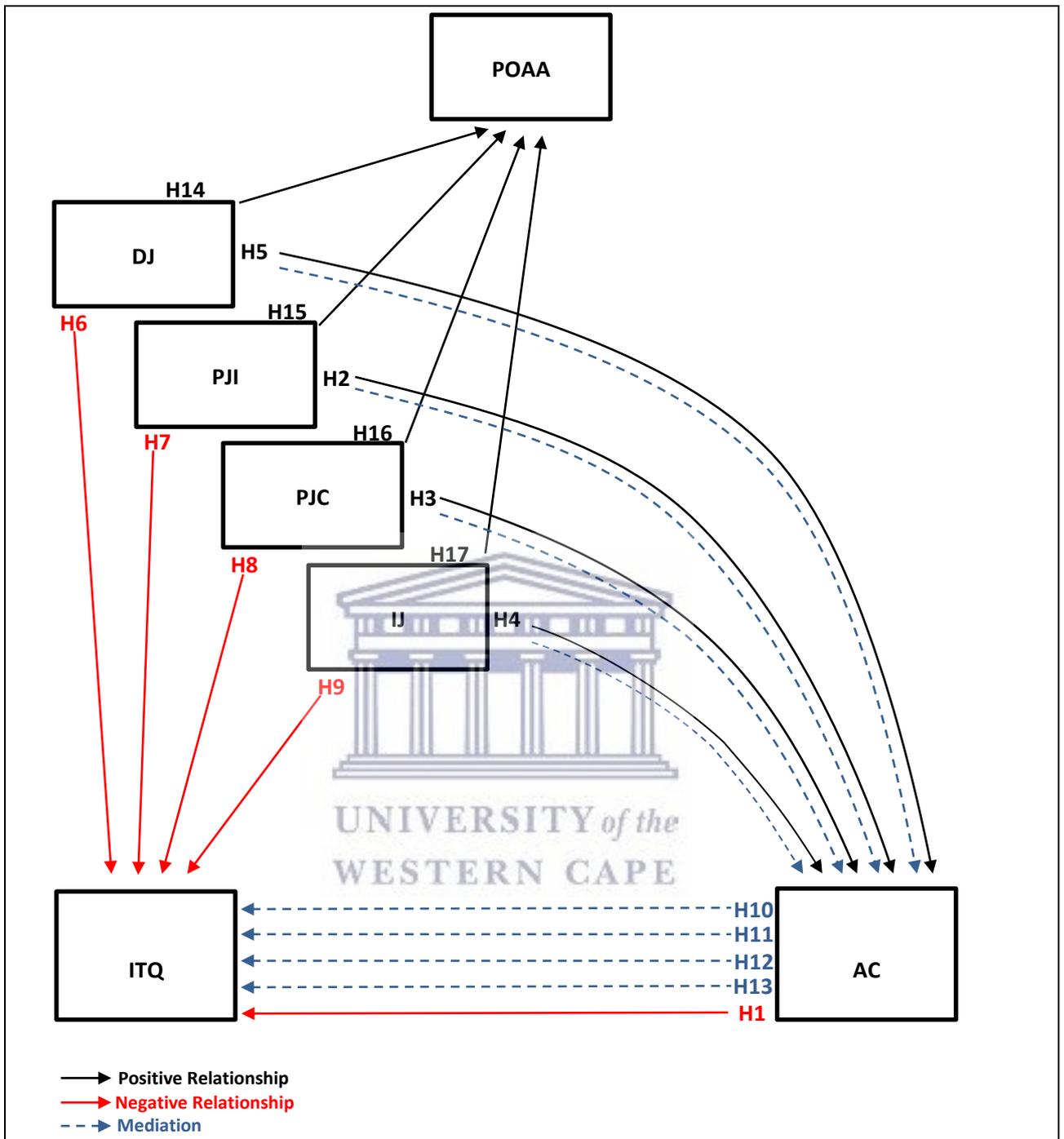


Figure 1.1: Theoretical Framework 1

Hypothesis 1: A negative relationship is predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 2: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 3: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 4: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 5: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 6: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 7: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 8: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 9: A negative relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.

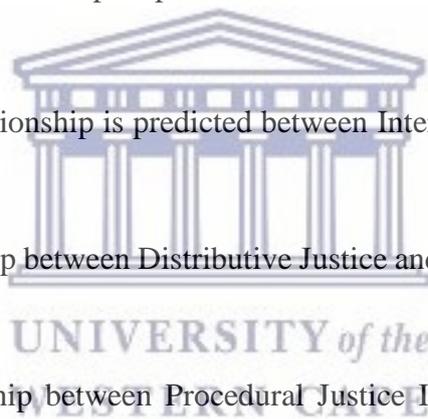
Hypothesis 11: The relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 12: The relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 13: The relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 14: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.

Hypothesis 15: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.



Hypothesis 16: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.

Hypothesis 17: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provides an introduction and background to the research study. The research question and the objectives of the study are reviewed. In addition, the individual hypotheses that make up the conceptual model are delineated.

Chapter 2 consists of an in-depth literature review that culminates in a complex theoretical model explaining how Perceptions of Affirmative Action, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment are related to Intention to Quit.

Chapter 3 presents an overview of the research design that was used in the study. The population, sample strategy, data collection method, measurement instruments and data analysis techniques are defined and explained.

Chapter 4 presents the results of the data analysis and highlights the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables.

Chapter 5 provides a review of the salient findings of the research study in order for conclusions to be drawn. Furthermore, managerial implications are explored. The chapter also includes a review of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

1.7 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Chapter 1 provided an introduction and background to the variables that were explored in this research study. The rationale for the study was presented. The research questions, objectives of the study, variables and hypotheses were briefly discussed. In addition, the content of each chapter was presented.

The following chapter provides an overview of the literature that resulted in the formulation of a complex theoretical model. This conceptual framework presents a perspective on how the linkages between the variables can be understood.



CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa is a country that is internationally known for being rich in natural and cultural history. The political struggle that the country endured and the miraculous uniting of South Africa after democracy without large-scale bloodshed and civil unrest are well known. The country as a whole has witnessed dramatic changes, most significantly the dismantlement of the apartheid system and the changing of South Africa into a fully-fledged democracy. However, the legacy of apartheid left a lasting impact on the greater South African society. The system led to unequal opportunities among ethnic groups, creating deep levels of inequality in terms of education and allocation of resources (Mpeti, Fourie, & Inwood, 2018). In an effort to address these deep-seated structural problems, the newly elected government passed numerous laws to rectify the injustices of the past.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 was instrumental in redressing the imbalance for previously disadvantaged individuals (Tambe Endoh, 2015). However, while progress has been made in a few areas, the advantages of the new dispensation have not benefitted all South Africans equally. Many who were affected by the apartheid system are still challenged by poverty, poor education and income inequality. The implication is that not all groups have been successfully incorporated into the formal economy. As a result, South Africa remains one of the most unequal societies in the international arena (Todes & Turok, 2018). There is much room for progress and, therefore, government has placed increased focus on redressing this historic inequality by vigorously promoting greater integration of previously disadvantaged individuals into the workplace.

According to Erasmus (2015), post-apartheid South Africa is concerned with the repositioning of those who were excluded from opportunities in the past and presenting them with opportunities to participate actively and to contribute to the formal economy. The Constitution can be considered the cornerstone for the creation and implementation of various Acts that aim to promote inclusion of previously disadvantaged groups in the greater society (Burger & Jafta, 2010). The Constitution does not only focus on race as a qualifying criterion but also on women and people with disabilities. One of the most important vehicles envisioned to create a more equal society is the Labour Relations Act, No. 66 of 1995 that aims to create greater access to economic opportunities and jobs for previously disadvantaged groups (Republic of South

Africa, 1995). The Labour Relations Act, 1995 supports the implementation of the guiding principles of the Constitution in the workplace and recognises the need for an employer to design and implement interventions that give equal opportunities to previously disadvantaged individuals by way of the Employment Equity Act, 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1995). The objective is to promote workplace diversity through the implementation of affirmative action policies that seek to redress the inequalities caused by apartheid (Van Wyk, 2002).

Broadly, affirmative action policies aim to promote diversity and inclusion in the workplace. However, based on past research, some groups (predominantly white males) do not view affirmative action as fair but merely reverse discrimination (Naidoo & Kongolo, 2004). Thus, white males may not see this intervention as just and may not actively support or promote it in the workplace. According to Padayachee, Desai, and Vahed (2004), class or socioeconomic status has replaced race privilege, and tensions as a result of transformation and change are producing greater friction with regard to race and class (e.g. resource allocation). While South Africa's legal framework reflects a democratised country and the Constitution focuses on fundamental human rights through the Bill of Rights (Republic of South Africa, 1997), organisations are struggling to balance larger societal needs (e.g. wage equality, equity targets) within their larger mandates of creating shareholder value (Gebremedhin & Joshi, 2016).

In 2013, South Africa was considered worldwide the most unequal country socially, even more so than at the end of apartheid (Erasmus, 2015). Considering that access to employment is the most important factor in addressing inequality, it is surprising that South Africa has made relatively little progress in the last two decades. Despite almost 20 years of implementing affirmative action as a corrective measure, the *Commission for Employment Equity Annual Report 2015 – 2016* (Department of Labour, 2016) states that top and senior management positions are still predominantly held by white males. This proposes that affirmative action has not been as successful as hoped, particularly in managerial positions in organisations operating in the formal economy. For this reason, many scholars have argued that affirmative action has largely failed to promote income equality. However, large-scale correction may take a number of years (Van der Berg, 2010).

The following section critically examines the philosophical and legal roots of affirmative action and its relative success in the South African context.

2.2 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

2.2.1 Origin and definition of affirmative action

According to Twyman (2001), apartheid as a political ideology was based on three basic concepts. Firstly, the South African population was divided into four racial categories, White, Indian, Coloured and Black. Secondly, the white population was believed to be the most advanced ethnic group and thus was entitled to have control over most of the national assets. Thirdly, white interests were promoted over the interests of the other ethnic groups.

Spatial separation was promoted as the ideological ideal to guarantee the peaceful co-existence of ethnic groups. However, the allocation of resources and opportunities was slanted towards the white minority racial group. For instance, education was racially stratified, and separate educational departments governed schools for each of the four racial groups. The effect of these laws created a very unequal society, with the white population benefitting at the expense of other ethnic groups.

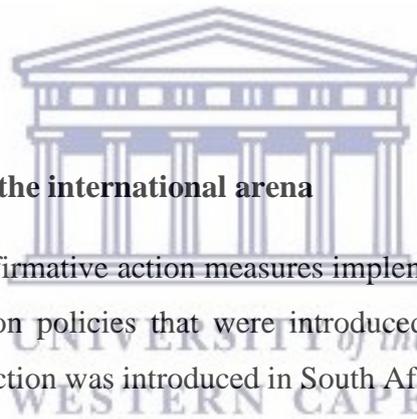
This was also true in the work context. By the early 1990s and as a result of the apartheid laws, 90% of managerial posts were held by white males. According to Knight (2014), South Africa in the post-apartheid era is characterised by distributive inequality, which is demonstrated in the South African statistics on household consumption. Top earners (the white race) reported a 65% share of the annual household consumption, while the bottom earners (the black race) reported only a 3% share (Knight, 2014). Although apartheid has ended, inequality is still stratified by race, where white personal income is eight times higher than the average income of the black individual (Erasmus 2015). Furthermore, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2016) ranked South Africa 119th out of 188 countries in relation to income inequality.

Levy, Kelly, and Levy (2010) state that before the Government of South Africa released formal affirmative action policies and laws, the private sector voluntarily attempted to implement initiatives to redress inequality, but these attempts were largely unsuccessful. The majority of the organisations did not place enough emphasis on transformation. Before affirmative action measures were initiated in South Africa, the government realised that redressing inequality in the workplace voluntarily would probably be a problem for many organisations. Furthermore, due to the inequality of past education, most of the skills needed for South African industries to flourish were still held by white employees. The government realised that most organisations

would not promote transformation voluntarily and thus passed numerous labour laws (Levy et al., 2010). However, these labour laws, specifically affirmative action, are difficult to observe due to the limited pool of black qualified professionals in South Africa.

Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2010) postulate that affirmative action is one of the largest challenges confronting South African organisations due to the strong-armed fashion of implementation. Furthermore, affirmative action is seen by many managers, especially white males, as discriminatory and thus is often met with fierce resistance. In comparison, designated groups may not necessarily resist the objectives of affirmative action, but they could feel undeserving of the position to which they are elevated. Affirmative action programmes have been plagued by similar problems in other countries where they have been introduced (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2010).

The following section examines the effectiveness of affirmative action in various international contexts.



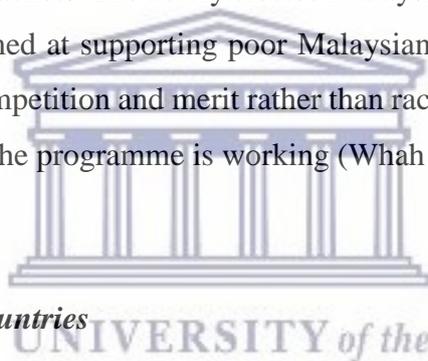
2.2.2 Affirmative action in the international arena

Research has indicated that affirmative action measures implemented in other countries differ vastly to the affirmative action policies that were introduced in South Africa. One major difference is that affirmative action was introduced in South Africa to address employment for the majority of the population whereas in the international community, affirmative action is often used to give preferential treatment to minority groups. For this reason, other countries with affirmative action programmes (with the exception of Malaysia) cannot be directly compared with South Africa (Nel, Werner, Poisat, Sono, Du Plessis, & Ngalo, 2011). However, Nel et al. (2011) argue that lessons can be learnt from other countries, especially when considering the implementation and enforcement of affirmative action laws.

Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011) states that the United States of America is considered the pioneer of this ideological idea and was the first country to implement affirmative action using the legal framework to redress imbalances in the workplace composition. The basic principle is that it is illegal to reject or terminate an employee's contract or to discriminate against an individual based on the individual's race, religion, sex or national origin (Nel et al., 2011). After 20 years of implementation in the United States of America, affirmative action has been

declared unsuccessful since the final outcome often results in favouritism and reverse discrimination. Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011) argue that the same can be said for South Africa since the integration of previously disadvantaged employees into managerial positions has been bewildering slow.

Malaysia focused on ethnic groups rather than racial and gender groupings. The affirmative action policies termed the Bumiputera Policy of Malaysia favoured the Malays (who comprise 55% of the population) over the Chinese and Indian population groups (Nel et al., 2011). There are some commonalities between the South African and the Malaysian application of affirmative action. In both cases, preferential treatment is given to the majority population. However, it appears that in the year 2008, the commitment of the Malaysian ruling party to affirmative action ideals was relaxed due to the poor showing of the ruling party in the national election. Furthermore, the affirmative action policies did not benefit Malaysian individuals who were trapped in low-income brackets. The newly elected Malaysian government initiated a new form of affirmative action aimed at supporting poor Malaysian citizens and implemented an economic agenda based on competition and merit rather than race. However, there is relatively little evidence to suggest that the programme is working (Whah & Guan, 2015).



2.2.2.1 Lessons from other countries

Lessons from countries that have implemented affirmative action policies can be used to assess the relative success of affirmative action in South Africa, especially regarding the impact of the legislation in education and employment contexts (De Witt, 1996). The quality of schooling and tertiary education has a direct impact on the employability of an individual. One of the reasons why white people still occupy the majority of high-paying managerial and professional jobs is largely attributed to their superior education compared with previously disadvantaged individuals. Previously disadvantaged individuals with rare skills and high-quality training are often headhunted by multiple organisations at the same time. However, the vast majority of previously disadvantaged individuals are probably not able to compete with white applicants for high-quality jobs due to differences in the quality of their training. In a competitive global economy such as South Africa, organisations are reluctant to keep key positions vacant if no suitable black individual can be recruited. In addition, organisations that are successful in developing previously disadvantaged individuals often lose the most talented persons to competitors. This may create perceptions of favouritism and unfair discrimination among the

individuals that qualify for a given position but are overlooked since they are not from designated groups.

2.2.3 Unfair and fair discrimination

The Employment Equity Act, 1998 postulates that if a person or a group is discriminated against based on race, culture, gender, pregnancy, disability, HIV status, religion or beliefs, it is an act of unfair discrimination (Republic of South Africa, 1998). Organisations can only discriminate between applicants for the same position based on their predicted job performance (Levy et al., 2010). Discrimination is only fair and legal if preference is given to previously disadvantaged groups over previously advantaged groups if they adhere to the minimum requirements of the job or position. It is unfair to give preferential treatment to previously disadvantaged groups over non-designated groups if the former do not meet the minimum job requirements (Coetzee, 2005). The implementation of affirmative action has been criticised since employers often employ workers based purely on race and not on adherence to the minimum job criteria (Kang & Banaji, 2006).

Furthermore, affirmative action is perceived differently by different people in society, depending on their group membership (Crosby & Konrad, 2002). Applicants from non-designated groups tend to foster more negative attitudes towards affirmative action since the legal framework often blocks them from achieving their own career objectives. Those within the designated groups generally tend to be more accepting of affirmative action since it benefits them directly (Coetzee & Bezuidenhout, 2011; Parker, Baltes, & Christiansen, 1997). In order to understand the impact of affirmative action policies on the attitudes of designated and non-designated groups in the workplace, it is important to investigate the concept of justice.

2.2.4 Organisational justice and affirmative action

The purpose of affirmative action according to the Employment Equity Act, 1998 is as follows:

Affirmative action measures are measures intended to ensure that suitably qualified employees from designated groups have equal employment opportunity and are equitably represented in all occupational categories and levels of the workforce. (Republic of South Africa. 1998, p. 5)

Thus, the goal of affirmative action is to promote equal opportunity and to facilitate workplace transformation (Department of Labour, 2016). Equal opportunity means that the opportunities relating to jobs, education, remuneration and benefits are not only equal but also equitable. Thus, the goal is not only to treat everybody the same but also to provide opportunities in order to redress the ingrained inequality in South African society.

Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011) believe that before affirmative action can be deemed fair, it is important to examine the related concept of organisational justice. In South Africa, affirmative action is meant to be viewed as a means of justice that is capable of rectifying the consequences of past discrimination (Coetzee & Bezuidenhout, 2011). For a programme to be effective, it must adhere to legal fairness requirements. In order to acknowledge the importance of fairness in organisations, theories of organisational justice have been applied to understand how the various ethnic groups may view affirmative action within the workplace (Zhang, Ling, Zhang & Xie, 2015).

In addition, organisational justice needs to be considered in explaining the role of fairness in the workplace. Organisational justice can be defined as the way in which an individual perceives both fairness within a working environment (Vermeulen & Coetzee, 2006) and fair treatment from the organisation and includes how the individual reacts to this perception (Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Fernandes & Awamleh, 2006).

According to Moorman (1991), organisational justice is described as fairness within the workplace pertaining to whether or not the employees perceive that they have been treated fairly by their employer. These perceptions are likely to influence emotions and behaviours and explain why workers may resist the inequitable outcomes, processes and interactions that they experience at work (Alsalem & Alhaiani, 2007; Al-Zu'bi, 2010). Organisational justice is considered the support that keeps diverse workplaces operating efficiently and productively in pursuit of the common organisational goals (Ajala, 2016; Mathur & Padmakumari, 2013). Coetzee (2005) defines organisational justice as comprising the decisions made by organisations, the procedures that the organisations use to make these decisions and the interpersonal treatment that employees receive when these decisions are made.

2.3 THE DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

According to Coetzee (2005), Greenberg (1987) sought to categorise the various conceptualisations of organisational justice into a two dimensional taxonomy, a reactive-proactive dimension and a process-content dimension. Within the reactive-proactive dimension, the reactive perspective entails redressing injustice by escaping or avoiding it. This dimension focuses on how the employees respond to what they perceive as unfair treatment, for example, the way an employee of one race may feel underpaid compared with an employee of a different race. Alternatively, the proactive dimension consists of efforts to promote justice. This dimension can be regarded as the rules that are put in place for allocators to follow when distributing outcomes to ensure that allocations are fair (Colquitt, 2012; Greenberg, 1987). For example, when distributing incentives to employees, an organisation can choose to do this based on performance outcomes such as reaching targets, which in turn informs the decision about who should receive an incentive. Regarding the process-content dimensions, a process standpoint of justice focuses on how outcomes within an organisation are determined. The process-content dimension focuses on the fairness of the process used to make decisions. Process theories stem from the legal discipline, and the main focus is on the fairness of the process used to make and implement organisational decisions. By comparison, content approaches are concerned with fairness in the distribution of outcomes. This view focuses on the relative fairness of the outcomes that are received by different units, groups or individuals within the organisation. The prediction is that people will be more satisfied with processes that provide them with process control because this is considered fairer than decisions with no controls in place. The process-content dimension distinguishes between distributive justice (outcome justice) and procedural justice (fairness of procedures implemented) (Greenberg, 1987; Singer, 1993). Subsequently, a third perspective emerged from the initial two dimensions. The shift in focus was aimed at understanding justice in relation to how employees perceive their treatment when decisions regarding outcomes are being made. This was coined interactional justice (Coetzee, 2005).

Theoretically, organisational justice can be divided into three sub-categories: (i) distributive justice (perceived fairness of the distribution of the rewards and outcomes); (ii) procedural justice (perceived fairness of the process used to make the decisions that inform the way rewards and outcomes are distributed); and (iii) interactional justice (perceived fairness regarding whether or not the employee is treated with dignity and respect when decisions and outcomes are distributed) (Coetzee, 2005). Individual justice perceptions are likely to be

shaped by observing how others are treated and comparing this with the treatment that the individual receives. A three-step justice model developed by Lansberg (1989) suggests that an individual's sense of entitlement within the organisation depends on the justice perceptions based on the outcome of a group-categorisation process. In this process, individuals undergo a social comparison with persons similar to themselves, followed by a social contrast process in which they compare themselves with persons who are dissimilar (Singer, 1993). This model describes the way people compare themselves based on each sub-category of organisational justice.

Similarly, Greenberg, Ashton-James, and Ashkanasy (2007) state that often, employees are likely to make internal and external comparisons in matters of distributive justice. Internal comparisons are equity judgements based on comparing one's inputs and outputs with those of persons in the organisation who are deemed similar. For example, one could compare pay and workload with that of co-workers performing similar functions. External comparisons that are also equity judgements may also be made. These typically involve people outside the organisation. However, sociologists suggest that these type of comparisons alone are usually insufficient to promote feelings of inequity (Greenberg, et al., 2007).

The role of comparison standards regarding distributive justice is applicable to procedural justice (Allen, 1982; Greenberg et al., 2007). Research has found that people feel unfairly treated if they believe that they or another person would have received a more favourable outcome if a fairer process had been used and employees tend to rely on the processes that are used with their co-workers to determine whether or not the systems used are fair. (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Greenberg et al., 2007).

Research suggests that employees tend to rely on consensual information from their colleagues when forming impressions about interactional justice (Greenberg et al., 2007; Lamertz, 2002). This is especially true if it is their colleagues and not themselves who have suffered injustices (Greenberg et al., 2007; Kray & Lind, 2002). People tend to be sensitive to violations of interactional justice, and employees judging fairness make social comparisons regarding processes and outcomes. Therefore, it can be considered that interactional justice shapes the perceptions of procedural justice. If people are not treated fairly during interactions, it is unlikely that they will feel that the processes being followed are fair. For example, employees have been shown to believe that it is justifiable to strike back at line managers who have treated them in an unfair manner when explaining an outcome. Thus, employees are less likely to

respond negatively towards supervisors who display equal insensitivity to all, providing perceptions of interactional justice are maintained between the leader and the followers (Greenberg et al., 2007).

Equity Theory has been referenced often when trying to understand issues of organisational justice. This theory suggests that employees compare the ratios of their own perceived work outcomes (rewards) to their own perceived work input (contributions) with the ratios of their colleagues. If the ratios are perceived unequal, the person who contributes less is inequitably overpaid or over rewarded. The person with the lower ratio is considered to be inequitably underpaid or under rewarded. Equity Theory predicts that inequitable and lower rewards result in dissatisfaction. Furthermore, the theory suggests that this feeling of dissatisfaction would motivate individuals to take action to reduce the discrepancy between the ratios (Adams, 1965; Coetzee, 2005). When an employee is overly rewarded in comparison with his/her co-workers, this employee is likely to experience guilt, shame or remorse. In addition, these emotions are likely to drive the employee to reduce the imbalance (Barkhordar, 2014).

Perceived imbalances have negative consequences for both the organisation and the employee who experiences these imbalances. Employees who are overpaid or over rewarded may feel guilty and experience distress, which could affect their morale. For the organisation, the consequence is overpaying for services, which is incongruent with return on investment. The negative consequence for employees who are underpaid or under rewarded could be the feeling of unfair treatment, which could cause job dissatisfaction, low morale, lack of trust and psychological safety, reduced organisational commitment and ultimately, cause employees to exit the organisation. Overall, this could lead to a decrease in productivity and the consequent increase in operational costs for the organisation (Kaur, Aggarwal, & Khaitan, 2014).

2.3.1 Distributive justice

Distributive justice can be defined as the perceived fairness of the distribution of the rewards that employees receive from the organisation. Employees' perceptions of distributive justice are measured through comparing the outcomes of equality, need or contribution with the outcomes of others (Alsalem & Alhaiani, 2007; Al-Zu'bi, 2010). If the perceptions of distributive justice are unfair, conflict may arise due to the tension of this perceived injustice. However, the processes used to determine these outcomes may also affect the emotions and

behaviours of employees. According to Hums and Chelladurai (1994), distributive justice is the focus when issues of gender equity, employment equity or pay equity are considered, and these are linked to the objectives of affirmative action. In organisations, these specific issues largely consider the aspects concerning how resources are distributed. According to Garcia-Izquierdo, Moscoso, and Ramos-Villagers (2012), distributive justice focuses on the way in which rewards and penalties are allocated to groups or persons.

2.3.1.1 Theories of distributive justice

The distributive justice approach can be described as an approach that focuses on the perceptions of fairness regarding outcomes and decisions (Esterhuizen, 2008). According to justice literature, decisions or outcomes are the result of applying three major rules, the Equity rule, the Needs rule and the Equality rule (Coetzee, 2005). The Equity rule refers to how individuals view the fairness of outcomes or decisions by comparing their contribution to the organisation with the contribution of others (Vermeulen & Coetzee, 2006). The Equality rule proposes that all persons have an equal chance at a decision or outcome regardless of their contribution. The Needs rule implies that the distribution of decisions or outcomes is made based on the needs of the individual, the group or the goals of the organisation (Vermeulen & Coetzee, 2006).

Rawl's Theory of Justice (1971) suggests that the basic structure of society and social and economic institutions can be established by conceptualising how resources and benefits these functions are arranged (Follesdal, 2014). Rawl (1971) believed that they should be arranged in the order where freedom and political liberties are most important, followed by fairness and equal opportunity. Only when these principles are in place will justice for economic inequalities be achieved (Follesdal, 2014).

Jeremy Bentham (1970) developed a theory called Utilitarianism. This theory argued that an action can be considered just if it increases the welfare of others but is considered bad if it reduces the welfare of others. This theory is largely influenced by wealth; for example, wealthy people have better access to opportunities, health and resources to achieve their goals (Knight, 2014).

The third theory of justice, Luck Egalitarianism, argues that it is unjust for persons to be in a bad position if it is not their fault (Scheffler, 2003). Based on this theory, an individual should

not be responsible for something that is a matter of luck or chance. Luck Egalitarianism is considered to be significantly associated with the 'principle of equality'. This principle claims that it is unacceptable if some people are in a worse situation than others if it is not their fault (Cohen, 2009; Knight, 2015). Luck Egalitarianism is not concerned with equalising the distribution of outcomes for all types of luck since it differentiates between 'option luck' and 'brute luck.' Option luck is linked to the outcomes of deliberate and calculated gambles in which the losses through the acceptance of risk could potentially have been anticipated and declined. In comparison, brute luck is related to luck that is not the result of a deliberate gamble. Therefore, the outcomes of option luck for an individual are based on choice whereas the outcomes of brute luck are not the result of choice. In relation to affirmative action and the distribution of resources and opportunities, Luck Egalitarianism implies that those with bad option luck are not entitled to any assistance relating to equality. However, through affirmative action, those with bad brute luck are due assistance with resources and opportunities.

Knights (2014) associates these distributive theories to the situation in South Africa and postulates that changing the distribution of resources in a society can be done in three ways. Firstly, current economic resources can be restructured so that the disadvantaged and most of the poor can be uplifted as far as possible. Secondly, societal resources can be increased, resulting in the most vulnerable being as well off as possible. Thirdly, existing resources can be restructured to remove involuntary disadvantages without increasing overall advantage levels (Knight, 2014). Thus, the three types of distributive theories in the context of the current study provide various options of how groups may experience affirmative action depending on their group membership. Conforming to Rawls's Theory of Justice (1971), the distribution needs to be equal. According to the Utilitarianism Theory, affirmative action can be viewed as both positive and negative because the process can place another group at a disadvantage. According to Luck Egalitarianism, only those who were discriminated against should be given assistance, which is largely the aim of affirmative action.

Issues pertaining to distributive justice may play a crucial role in the lives of employees and organisations because people in general are considered sensitive towards issues associated with equity (Greenberg, 1990). Knight (2014) argues that there is a high degree of congruence between the distributive justice theories of Rawlsian Justice, Utilitarianism and Luck Egalitarianism in the context of post-apartheid South Africa. All three theories advise significant redistribution of resources among the poor. Furthermore, the theories recommend that current affirmative action policies are reviewed and implemented with a greater focus on

how they can advance economically disadvantaged groups. This means that resources and opportunities need to be transferred to the poor African population from the more affluent minority group (Knight, 2014).

2.3.2 Procedural justice

Justice forms the basis for the way in which people analyse social situations since it is distinct from judgements of self-interest and group gain (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002; Tyler & Blader, 2003). According to Tyler and Blader (2003), procedures and processes are important because they mould people's social identity within groups. This social identity in turn affects the attitudes, values and behaviours of that particular group. It is largely believed that people are more willing to accept fewer resources personally if the resources are fairly distributed among the whole group. Thus, people tend to foster a feeling of injustice when they are over benefitting in comparison with others (Tyler & Blader, 2003). However, perceptions of justice in the context of distributive justice are often biased because people often see themselves as more deserving of outcomes compared with how others see them. Thus, there has been a greater focus on procedural justice.

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the rules and processes used to make decisions (Brockner, Wiesenfeld, & Diekmann, 2009). Aspects such as the neutrality of the process, the way employees are treated and whether or not the employees trust the decisions play a part in influencing perceptions of procedural justice (Tyler & Bies, 1990; Usmani & Jamal, 2013). According to Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011), procedural justice can be further divided into two factors, procedural justice input and procedural justice criteria. Procedural justice input refers to the procedures used in allocating opportunities among employees that influence outcomes. Procedural justice criteria focuses on the criteria used to make the decisions.

Six basic conditions must be met for a process to be considered fair. One or multiple conditions regarding the opportunity may be considered to adjudge if the process can be deemed procedurally fair (Dehaghani & Mirhadi, 2013; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980). The conditions are as follows:

- 1) The consistency condition: This rule considers how consistently the process is applied from person to person.

- 2) Bias suppression condition: This condition specifies that personal interests of decision-makers should not affect the decision-making process.
- 3) The accuracy condition: This rule refers to the quality of the information used to make the decision.
- 4) The correctability condition: This condition determines how opportunities to change unfair decisions are dealt with.
- 5) The representative's condition: This condition focuses on how the needs, values and outlooks of all stakeholders are affected by the decision and the process.
- 6) The ethicality condition: This condition involves the way in which the allocation process is linked to the moral and ethical values of the perceiver.

Past studies have found that procedural judgements play an important role in shaping people's reactions to their personal experiences of fairness (Blader, Chang, & Tyler, 2001). Thus, procedural justice is valued because it facilitates equitable judgements when making decisions regarding the processes that are followed.

2.3.2.1 Theories of procedural justice

Thibaut and Walker (1975) conducted a psychological analysis on procedural justice. The focal points included a comparative empirical analysis of third party procedures used in conflict resolution, which entailed areas of adjudication, arbitration and mediation (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). One of the most interesting findings involved subjective responses to the fairness of the process used during conflict resolution. Disputes and unrelated parties appeared to be more concerned with fairness of the process used to reach an outcome than the outcome itself (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). This sparked additional research on procedural fairness because if disputants do not view the process as fair, they are unlikely to accept the outcome (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Vidmar, 1991).

According to Lind, Kanfer, and Earley (1990), the chance to present information that is applicable to a decision that needs to be made increases the fairness judgements of the decision-making procedure. This finding was named the 'Process Control Effect' or the 'Voice Effect' by Thibaut and Walker (1978). Based on various studies, it is clear that the Voice Effect enhances procedural fairness even when the individual making the fairness judgements has no direct control over the decision made (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Thus, it appears that if

individuals are presented with an opportunity to articulate their views before the decision is made, procedural fairness is enhanced (Lind et al., 1990).

Early theories of procedural justice (Thibaut & Walker, 1978) attempted to articulate procedural justice by referencing the perceiver's assumptions regarding the outcomes that various procedures would create. Here, the Voice Effect was attributed to the beliefs held about the instrumental consequences of input. The belief is that if persons are granted the chance to articulate their views, their arguments could influence the decision-maker to provide better outcomes or a different decision. Subsequently, these expectations are likely to lead to higher procedural fairness judgements. In the early theories, the Voice Control notion was deemed fair because this notion increases the probability of either a more favourable outcome decision or an equitable outcome (Thibaut & Walker, 1978).

It is argued that individuals prefer having more control over the process because it enables them to exert indirect control over the decision that is to be made. This is referred to as the Control Model or Instrumental View of Justice. (McComas, Tuite, Waks, & Sherman, 2007; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) The level of control that individuals have in the decision-making process predicts perceptions of procedural justice. Participants tend to favour processes when they have more control (McComas et al., 2007; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Perceptions of procedural justice are linked to underlying psychological reasoning. In order to address the importance of this link, Lind and Tyler (1988) suggested two models. Firstly, the extended Self-Interest model argues that concerns regarding procedural justice are mainly the result of an individual's self-interest from a long-term perspective. Here, people attempt to optimise their final outcomes by using process controls. The second model is the Group Value model (McComas et al., 2007). This model asserts that procedures signify the norms and values of the group. Individuals are social beings and, therefore, they tend to place a high value on social interactions and belonging to a group. This results in basic concerns about procedural justice (Singer, 1993). The Group Value model argues that the Voice Effect is based on the implication that those given the opportunity to present information are valued and fully fledged members of the group involved in the procedure. According to McComas et al. (2007), people care because procedures symbolically display whether or not individuals are valued and regarded as respected members of a group.

The focus of the Group Value model is on people belonging to social groups and how they communicate information about their position within those groups. The model postulates that people consider three aspects when forming relational judgements (Tyler & Blader, 2003):

- 1) The trustworthiness of the decision-making process
- 2) The objectivity of those involved in the process
- 3) The status of the group

In turn, these relational judgements influence how valued individuals feel in the group. According to Huang and Huang (2016), Process Fairness offers a basis upon which employees can analyse their status in the company. When workers feel that there is fairness in the interacting phase with people of authority, they are likely to feel respected and proud of the organisation, and this in turn is likely to increase their cooperative behaviour.

2.3.3 Interactional justice

Interactional justice reflects the social component of Process Fairness and has proved to increase employee identification within the organisation and to encourage employees to consider organisational problems as their own (Huang & Huang, 2016; Patel, Budhwar, & Varma, 2012). Importantly, regarding the Group-Value Model, Process Fairness will only be considered comprehensive if employees feel they are treated with procedural justice and interactional justice. If they experience both, they are likely to perceive Process Fairness more positively (Huang & Huang, 2016).

In past studies, procedural and interactional justice were treated as interchangeable concepts. However, more recently, interactional justice is presented as a distinct concept of organisational justice (Colquitt, 2001; Huang & Huang, 2016). In addition to formal and fair processes, interpersonal treatment has been identified as a variable that influences an employee's perceptions of justice. Interactional justice can be differentiated from procedural justice since employees are sensitive towards the amount of respect they are shown by their supervisors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Sociologist John Schermerhorn described interactional justice as the degree to which employees who are affected by the decisions made are treated with dignity and respect (Schermerhorn, James & Richard, 2003). This theory involves the interpersonal treatment that

employees receive when decisions are made or procedures are implemented. Research shows that the effects of interactional justice are independent of the employee's perceptions regarding fairness of outcomes received (distributive justice) or processes used in allocating such outcomes (procedural justice) (Crukeru & Macarescu, 2009). Therefore, one can experience interactional justice or injustice even if one does not experience distributive or procedural justice or injustice. For example, an individual may feel that a process within the company is not distributive and procedurally fair, but because the line manager treats the individual fairly and shares information, the individual may have perceptions of fairness.

Interactional justice is related to the quality of behaviours that employees experience before and after decisions that affect them are made (Naderi, Hoveida, Siadet, & Naderi, 2012). According to Crukeru and Macarescu (2009), interactional justice pertains to how decision-makers treat those who are affected by their authority, decisions and actions. Furthermore, Crukeru and Macarescu (2009) state that interactional justice is a significant contributor to aspects such as organisational commitment and retention.

Interactional justice consists of two specific types of interpersonal treatment. The first type is called interpersonal justice. This type reflects the degree to which employees are treated with dignity and respect by the authority figures or third parties involved in allocating outcomes or implementing procedures. The second type of interactional justice, labelled informational justice, focuses on the explanations given to employees regarding why certain processes were used or why outcomes were distributed in a particular way. The higher the adequacy of information provided during the explanation, the greater will be the increase in positive perceptions of interactional justice, which is likely to have a significant influence on the perceptions of overall fairness (Crukeru & Macarescu, 2009).

2.3.3.1 Theories of interactional justice

According to Otto and Mamatoglu (2015), using the Social Exchange Theory as a foundation, the relationship between interactional justice and the outcomes of organisational commitment becomes a focus. Otto and Mamatoglu (2015) state that workers associate human characteristics with their organisations. For example, they may assign a caring nature to their organisation. Based on this, the employees develop a set of beliefs about the degree to which the organisation cares or does not care about their well-being. This concept is known as

perceived organisational support (POS). Perceived organisational support is explained as the quality of the social exchange that takes place between an employee and the organisation (Otto & Mamatoglu, 2015; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Perceived organisational support is closely linked to the perceptions of fairness and increases loyalty by facilitating trust. In turn, this is likely to increase an employee's willingness to remain at the organisation and to reduce an employee's intention to quit.

Social exchange creates unspecified reciprocal obligations that are embedded through cultural and normative standards of behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Otto and Mamatoglu, 2015). This is in contrast to contractual obligations that demand repayment. For example, line managers or supervisors are often perceived to act on behalf of the organisation. Thus, POS is increased when employees believe their supervisors are being supportive. It is argued that supportive supervisors are those who display interactional justice in their interactions. Such interactions involve giving all their direct reports all the applicable and required information (informational justice) and treating the employees with dignity, respect and empathy (interpersonal justice). It has been suggested that interactional justice facilitates the development of social exchange relationships (Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Van Knippenberg, 2007).

Otto and Mamatoglu (2015) argue that interactional justice promotes organisational commitment. Based on research, supervisors who are supportive and share information influence positive emotions and thoughts in employees. As a result, employees are more inclined to feel affectively committed to their organisation, which in turn reduces their intention to quit. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) suggest that interactional justice results in stronger organisational commitment, particularly affective commitment.

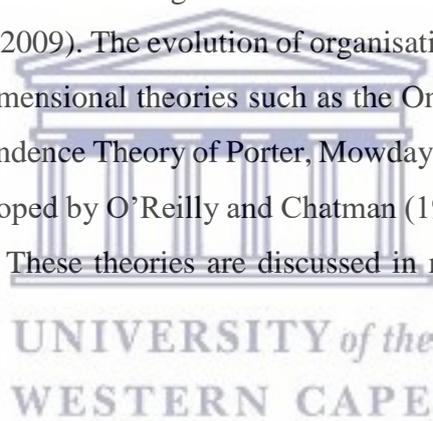
2.4 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment can be seen as a representation of a systematic reaction that an employee displays towards the organisation. Lumley, Coetzee, Tlandiyane, and Ferreira (2011) postulate that perceived organisational justice can be considered an important predictor of organisational commitment. Organisational commitment has been identified as an important aspect of being able to understand and explain the work-related behaviour of employees within organisations (Bakhshi, Kumar, & Rani, 2009). This construct is often explained in relation to

the extent to which an employee identifies and is active within the company. Three related aspects of organisational commitment have been identified. The first factor focuses on how strongly an employee believes in the goals and values of the organisation. The second factor determines how willing an employee is to make an effort for the company and its achievement. The third factor ascertains how strong the employee's desire is to remain as an employee of the organisation (Bakhshi et al., 2009; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

2.4.1 Theories of organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has been an important focal point in many research studies due to rising concerns and beliefs about creating a committed workforce to increase organisational performance and retention (WeiBo, Kaur, & Jun, 2009). Since the inception of the concept, four periods of development have defined organisational commitment (Sinclair, Tucker, Cullen & Wright, 2005; WeiBo et al., 2009). The evolution of organisational commitment began more than 50 years ago with one-dimensional theories such as the One-Side-Bet Theory of Becker (1960) and the Affective Dependence Theory of Porter, Mowday, Boulian (1974). Later, multi-dimensional views were developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), Meyer and Allen (1984) and Allen and Meyer (1990). These theories are discussed in more detail in the subsequent section.



2.4.1.1 The Side-Bet Theory

Becker (1960) conceptualised organisational commitment and defined it as the Side-Bet Theory. This approach was one of the first attempts to provide a comprehensive conceptual framework about organisational commitment in regard to the employee's relationship with the organisation (Cohen, 2007). According to the Side-Bet Theory, the relationship between the employee and the organisation is based on the contract or agreement of behaviour reflected by economic exchange. Thus, the theory postulates that employees are committed because they have hidden investments or side-bets that have accrued as a result of staying in the organisation. The term side-bets can be explained as the accumulation of valued investments by the employee over time. Costs accrue that make it difficult for the worker to disengage from routines such as maintaining membership in the organisation. Becker's (1960) approach

identified organisational commitment as a major predictor of voluntary turnover (Cohen, 2007).

Although the Side-Bet Theory was abandoned as research expanded, the hypothesis suggesting that there is a significant relationship between organisational commitment and turnover influenced later studies and established turnover as the main variable affected by organisational commitment. The Side-Bet Theory influenced the theory of Allen and Meyer, which in turn resulted in the development of their popular measuring instrument (Cohen, 2007).

2.4.1.2 Middle affective-dependence period

Porter et al. (1974) moved away from the Side-Bet Theory, to an Affective-Dependence Theory which was regarded as a tangible approach based on the psychological attachment that an employee develops with the organisation. In this framework, organisational commitment is described as attitude-centred and consisting of an economic contract. In the Affective-Dependence Theory, a worker's commitment is not only affected by economic aspects but also and more importantly by emotional influence. This suggests that the degree of an employee's identification and involvement with the organisation relates to the degree of organisational commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; WeiBo et al., 2009). Furthermore, it is claimed by Porter et al. (1974) that organisational commitment consists of three elements:

- Individuals strongly believe in and accept the values and objectives of the organisation – strong acceptance.
- Individuals willingly display effort on behalf of the company.
- Individuals demonstrate a strong want to stay in the organisation.

Porter et al. (1974) continued to support the aspect that commitment has a strong relationship with turnover, which aligns with Becker's (1960) theory. Based on this, the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed. However, the questions have been criticised for being more reflective of behaviours than attitudes. In response to these concerns, the multi-dimension period was born.

2.4.1.3 Multi-dimension period

The theories of Becker (1960) and Porter et al. (1974) were categorised as one-dimensional. Theorists such as O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Meyer and Allen (1984) advanced the research to multi-dimensional approaches. These approaches were considered to have the most influence over understanding the constructs of organisational commitment (Cohen, 2007; Meyer, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002). Multi-dimensional models differ from the original models because they focus on more than simply one dimension. This is depicted by Becker's Side-Bet Theory (1960) that only focused on side-bets and how these affected organisational commitment. Similarly, Porter et al. (1974) mainly focused on one dimension, which was how employees' emotions affected their commitment to the organisation. The multi-dimension period introduced models that focused on more than one facet of organisational commitment. This perspective provided more nuanced information regarding workers' levels of commitment and the primary reasons for employee commitment in the workplace (Cohen, 2007).

2.4.1.3.1 O'Reilly and Chatman Theory (1986)

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) described organisational commitment as the psychological attachment that an employee feels towards an organisation. This comprises the degree to which the employee internalises or adopts the perspective or culture of the organisation. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggest that a worker's psychological attachment to the company may be predicted by establishing the presence of three independent factors:

- The degree of internalisation or involvement is based on the similarity between the values of the employee and the values of the organisation.
- Identification or involvement is influenced by the employee's desire for employment.
- Compliance or involvement is based on specific extrinsic rewards.

Thus, the main contributions of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) focus on the antecedents and consequences of organisational commitment and the results thereof. The conceptual framework of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) clearly differentiates between two processes of commitment. The first is instrumental exchange and the second is psychological attachment. In this theory, the compliance aspect represents the exchange process that leads to relatively shallow attachment to the organisation. The other two aspects, identification and internalisation, form the psychological attachment between the employee and the organisation. O'Reilly and

Chatman's (1986) views on the outcomes of organisational commitment indicate that the psychological attachment could result in organisational citizenship behaviour with less focus on turnover (Cohen, 2007).

While O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) presented an interesting view on organisational commitment, not many researchers followed this approach due to the questionable mechanism advocated in their model. Meyer and Allen (1984) expanded the model of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), and this became the dominant model to examine organisational commitment (WeiBo et al., 2009).

2.4.1.3.2 Theory of Meyer and Allen (1984)

The theory of Meyer and Allen (1984) is rooted in earlier approaches to organisational commitment such as those of Becker (1960) and Porter et al. (1974). The approach is considered three-dimensional and consists of three sub-categories, namely affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment (Kaptijn, 2009).

The affective commitment variable is defined as the tool for measuring commitment characterised by positive feelings of identification and involvement with the organisation (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). The continuance commitment variable depicts the Side-Bet Theory since it measures the extent to which workers feel committed to the company based on the costs that they feel are associated with leaving the organisation. Allen and Meyer (1990) added a third sub-category, normative commitment, which was described as the feeling of obligation to stay with the organisation (Meyer & Maltin, 2010).

These three sub-dimensions were conceptualised by Allen and Meyer (1990) as a three-component model of organisational commitment. Each sub-dimension is considered a distinguishable and independent variable since employees are likely to experience each sub-component in varying degrees (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Kaptijn, 2010). According to Kaur and Sandhu (2010), employees who have positive experiences that satisfy their basic needs are more likely to develop a stronger affective attachment to the company. If employees identify that they have accrued investments of 'side-bets' with the company that will be lost if they leave, continuance commitment is likely to develop. According to Madi, Abu-Jarad, and Akqahtani (2012), continuance commitment involves the employee analysing the cost of leaving the company. Therefore, this commitment is considered cognitive rather than emotional

in nature. Staff members evaluate the financial benefits of staying in the company, which potentially results in a good opportunity for both parties. Employees who stay receive income and benefits, and the organisation is able to retain the skills and abilities of these employees (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Normative commitment is likely to develop based on the encountered social experiences that affect the employees' loyalty to their employer and make them feel obligated to remain in the organisation (Bagraim, 2003).

2.4.2 Antecedents of organisational commitment

Mowday et al. (1979) propose that the antecedents of affective commitment can be separated into four categories, personal characteristics, job characteristics, work experiences and structural characteristics. It is suggested that work experience antecedents such as experiences that fulfil the psychological needs of the employee to feel settled in the organisation and to feel competent at work are linked to affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1987; Allen & Meyer, 1990). Personal aspects include personal information such as the employee's age, tenure, gender and marital status. These variables can influence an employee's perceptions of elements that drive behaviour. Role-related determinants include organisational dependability, role conflict, role ambiguity, job scope, promotion, job level and empowerment. Work-experience determinants comprise co-workers, fulfilment of expectations and incentives (Kotze & Roodt, 2005).

Age and tenure are regarded important antecedents of continuance commitment since they are main indicators of side-bets. Based on various research studies, age has been found to be positively related to organisational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Iqbal, 2010). The relationship between tenure and organisational commitment is rooted in the perceived costs indicated in Becker's (1960) Side-Bet Theory. Increasing tenure is significantly linked with the increase in side-bets, which results in higher sunk costs when leaving the organisation. Due to the large amount of accrued side-bets, long-serving employees tend to regard their tenure as investments and are less likely to leave the organisation and lose their investment. Thus, long-serving employees tend to be more committed (Bosman, Buitendach, & Laba, 2005; Iqbal, 2010).

It is important for organisations to understand which aspects underpin the organisational commitment of their employees in order to drive initiatives that enhance the commitment of

staff. In so doing, turnover of staff can be decreased and retention can improve. This will allow an organisation to be more sustainable and profitable (Maxwell & Steele, 2003). If commitment of employees is not enhanced, productivity levels of staff could decrease and an organisation could see a rise in absenteeism. Both of these could be costly to the organisation (Maxwell & Steele, 2003).

According to Sturges and Guest (2001), research consistently reports that employees who are highly committed to their organisation are less likely to consider leaving. Furthermore, there is a strong relationship between voluntary turnover and the three sub-components of organisational commitment (affective, normative and continuance commitment).

Since there are high costs associated with recruiting and developing a workforce, retaining existing competent and qualified employees is a pressing concern for most organisations (Duraisingam, Pidd, & Roche, 2009). Due to the ever-increasing threats to an organisation's sustainability, companies need to ensure that sustainable strategies are in place to maintain a committed workforce. Research suggests that affective commitment adds the most value to organisations because it is linked to positive feelings of psychological fulfilment that increase the chances of an employee staying loyal to the organisation and reduce the likelihood of the employee leaving the organisation (Sturges & Guest, 2001). However, continuance commitment can be considered to have a negative impact on desirable work outcomes such as performance and psychological fulfilment. While an employee can experience affective, continuance and normative commitment simultaneously, the combinations in which affective commitment is prominent will be most beneficial to the organisation. Therefore, for the purpose of this research, the focus is on affective commitment to determine if the perceptions of affirmative action and fairness and the understanding of how these practices are implemented and carried out influence an employee's positive view and emotional identification with the organisation.

As a result of an organisation's plans to sustain the business, to minimise employee turnover and to address the implications thereof, vast amounts of resources are allocated to the reduction of turnover intentions (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013). The following section briefly considers the concept of turnover intention and its origins.

2.5 TURNOVER INTENTIONS

This section aims to review intention to quit in order to gain an understanding of how this contributes to turnover. An aspect that could potentially affect employees' intentions to quit and ultimately their departure from the organisation is their perceptions of affirmative action (Barak, 2008). In addition, perceptions of injustice regarding the distribution of opportunities and resources may also cause people to leave the organisation (Barak, 2008).

Understanding the factors that contribute to an employee's commitment may result in the development of effective management strategies that will curb turnover and the risks associated with sustainability. Understanding the psychological mechanism through the facets of commitment is important in understanding and countering turnover intentions.

2.5.1 Theories of turnover intention

According to Mxenge et al. (2014), the Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover by Lee and Mitchell (1991) describes the mental processes through which people make decisions about leaving or remaining in their organisations. According to this model, an employee's choice to leave or to remain in the organisation is influenced by two main factors, the shock to the system and decision frames. Shock to the system is when an event is brought to the employee's attention and causes the employee to think about the job. An example of such an event is a merger with another company (Greenberg, 2011; Mxenge et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the Model of Voluntary Turnover provides a framework of four different paths that employees may take when deciding to leave their organisation, accounting for four different types of leavers (Morrel, Loan-Clark, & Wilkinson, 2001). Paths one to three include the decisions made as the shock is initially experienced.

The first decision path occurs when a shock to the system matches an existing decision frame or pre-existing plan. This path precludes a search or an evaluation that leads directly to leaving. For example, the merger of an organisation with another company is usually associated with retrenchment, and employees may choose to leave before this becomes a reality.

The second decision path transpires when a shock to the system occurs that does not match an existing decision frame and there is no specific job substitute or consideration of an alternative opportunity. In the case of a merger, uncertainty and fear could force an employee to quit even

if they do not have a replacement job. The third decision path takes place when a shock to the system does not match a decision frame, but there is a specific job alternative or opportunity at hand. Quitting the organisation in the case of a merger may be easier if another job opportunity is available.

Decision path four occurs when there is no shock to the system and thus, no decision time frame is considered. In this situation, the employee only quits the organisation if circumstances such as low job satisfaction suggest that quitting is a good idea. An example of this decision path is if in a merger situation, the style of the new manager causes dissatisfaction to an employee (Greenberg, 2011; Mxenge et al., 2014).

2.5.2 Antecedents of intention to quit

Intention to quit is considered a strong predictor of turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Therefore, it is crucial to understand which factors influence an employee's intention to quit and thus affect turnover (Duraisingam et al., 2009).

According to Lodewyk (2011), turnover can be influenced by both individual and organisational factors. The following organisational factors can influence intention to quit and eventually lead to turnover:

- The experience of employees throughout the selection and onboarding process
- The impact that managers and leaders of the organisation have on employees
- The way in which employees are recognised and rewarded for their achievements
- Perceptions of fairness regarding remuneration
- The nature of the environment and the culture of the organisation to which employees are exposed

Based on the Unfolding Model of Voluntary Turnover and the antecedents discussed above, it is important to understand that the psychological mechanisms that take place play a significant role in leading employees to consider quitting the organisation. The antecedents was an important consideration in developing the proposed theoretical model in this study.

2.6 LINKING ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE, AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO QUIT

This section theoretically links the concepts of organisational justice, affective commitment and intention to quit to form a coherent theoretical model.

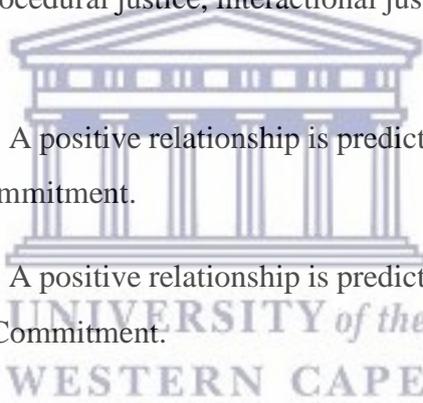
According to Ali, Muhammad, and Baloch (2010), there are numerous variables that negatively affect intention to quit such as salary, social status, promotion, job security, colleagues, affective commitment, distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. The primary objective of the current study was to conceptualise a comprehensive yet parsimonious model to explain turnover intention by considering affirmative action, justice and perceptions of affirmative action.

It is believed that employees who display high levels of affective commitment internalise the goals of the organisation and exert effort to realise the primary goals of the establishment (Lodewyk, 2011). This suggests that the higher the levels of affective commitment of employees towards their organisation, the less likely they are to experience intention to quit.

- Research Hypothesis 1: A negative relationship is predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit.

Ajala (2016) describes organisational justice as the perceptions of employees regarding fairness or unfairness within their organisations. Ajala (2016) continues that organisational justice is linked to the commitment of employees and influences how this commitment is positively affected. Literature suggests that organisational justice is a strong predictor of commitment (Naderi et al., 2012). Past research links the perceptions of procedural justice to judgements about one's group identity, to pride associated with the group and to perceptions relating to respect of the group (Tyler, 2000). Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011) state that procedural justice consists of two components. The first component is procedural justice input. This specifically refers to the procedures adopted in implementing opportunities and in making decisions regarding employees. The elements included in this component of procedural justice are viewing all employees' careers as equally important, giving employees an opportunity to appeal decisions, allowing employees to partake in decision-making and applying rules and processes consistently. The second component is procedural justice criteria, in which the focus is on the standards applied to make the decision. Examples of such criteria are applying the same performance standards to all employees, using the same selection criteria consistently

across all applicants, using accurate performance data for all and applying disciplinary action consistently. Thus, procedural justice influences how people define themselves with regard to group membership, which in turn affects their behaviour within the group. It is suggested that if employees perceive that they are experiencing fair procedural treatment, outcomes are perceived to be distributed fairly and treatment is perceived as dignified and respectful. As is the case with interactional justice, employees are more likely to be loyal towards the organisation, which is linked to affective commitment (Nasurdin & Ahmad, 2001; Tang & Sarsfield-Baldwin, 1996). Experiences that are considered satisfying are likely to make employees feel more affectively committed to the organisation. However, experiences that are not satisfying may reduce the feelings of attachment to the organisation. Furthermore, an employee who experiences interactional injustice is likely to have increased expressions of hostility towards those who treat the employee unfairly, which can result in decreased levels of commitment (Baron & Neuman, 1998; Pietersen, 2005). Thus, positive relationships between distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and affective commitment are expected.

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- Research Hypothesis 2: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 3: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 4: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 5: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Affective Commitment.

It is postulated that the more that workers perceive managerial practices to be fair, the less likely they are to quit voluntarily from the organisation (Bakhshi et al., 2009; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Cantor, Macdonald, and Crum (2011) support this by stating that distributive, procedural and interactional justice perceptions of employees are likely to decrease an employee's intention to quit. Thus, research implies that the more employees perceive the organisation to be just, the more likely they are to stay with the organisation. Therefore, negative relationships between distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and intention to quit are expected.

- Research Hypothesis 6: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit.
- Research Hypothesis 7: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit.
- Research Hypothesis 8: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit.
- Research Hypothesis 9: A negative relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit.

In addition to the direct relationship between organisational justice and intention to quit, research suggests that affective commitment may mediate the relationship between organisational justice and intention to quit. Positive perceptions of organisational justice are likely to increase employees' affective commitment to the organisation and thus reduce their intention to quit (Kaur & Sandhu, 2010).

- Research Hypothesis 10: The relationship between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 11: The relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 12: The relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 13: The relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.

The implementation of affirmative action consists of distributing resources and opportunities. It also seeks to ensure that employees are treated with dignity and respect (Coetzee, 2005). Therefore, affirmative action is likely to influence employees' perceptions of the organisation as just or not, even if the employees do not consider the practice of affirmative action to be just. Thus, it is predicted that if employees perceive affirmative action as being conducted in a fair manner, they are likely to consider it as just. This may be true even for those groups who do not directly benefit from affirmative action. More specifically, if employees believe that resources are being distributed fairly in relation to affirmative action activities, they are more

likely to consider affirmative action as fair. If employees believe that the processes used to make affirmative action decisions are just, they are likely to view affirmative action as fair. In addition, if employees believe that they are being treated in a dignified manner when affirmative action decisions are made, they are likely to perceive affirmative action as fair (Coetzee, 2005).

- Research Hypothesis 14: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.
- Research Hypothesis 15: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.
- Research Hypothesis 16: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.
- Research Hypothesis 17: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.



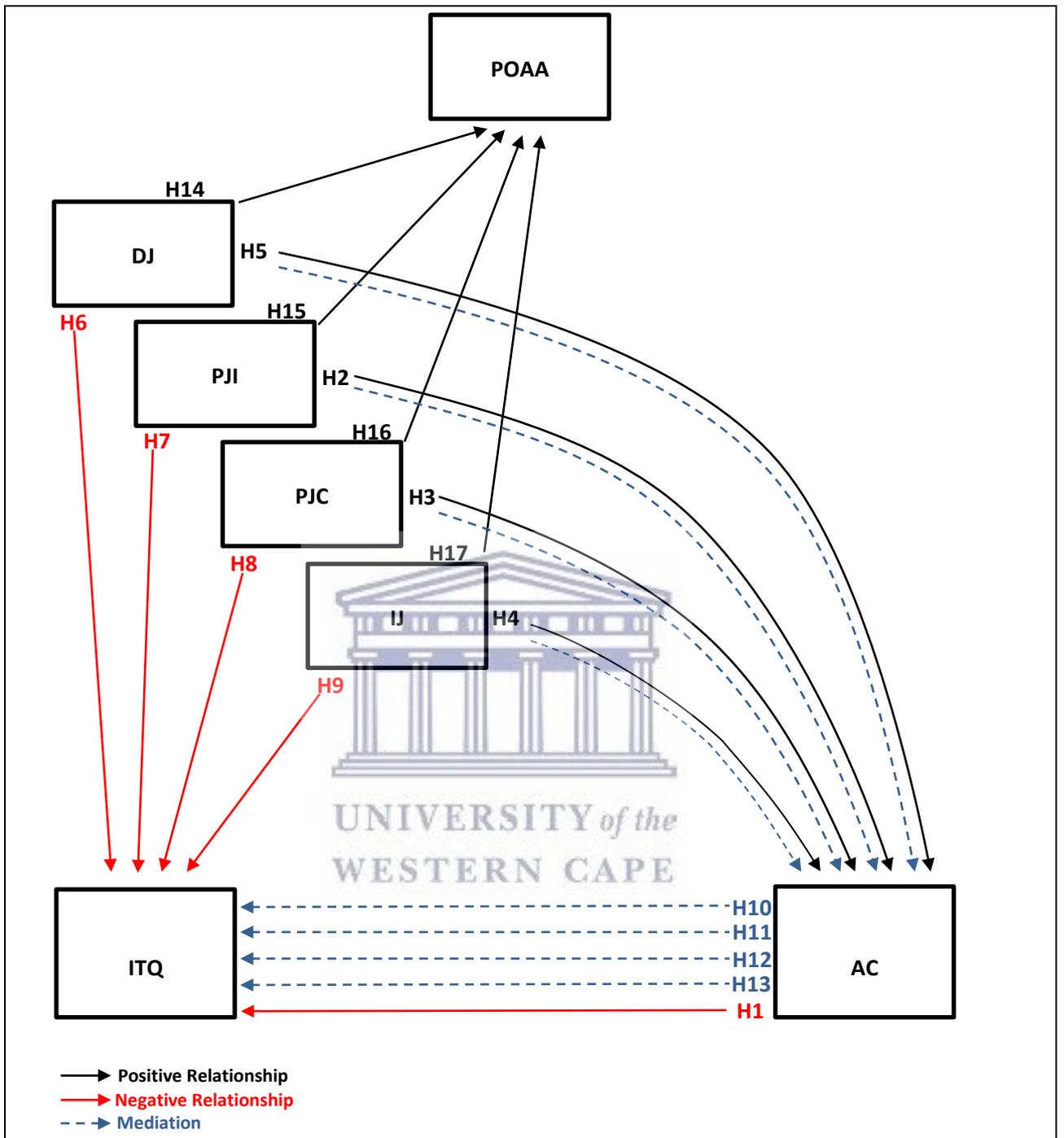


Figure 2.1: Theoretical Framework 2

2.7 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, it was argued that intention to quit is influenced by a complex nomological network of variables. In particular, organisational justice and organisational commitment were identified as strong predictors of attitudes towards affirmative action and intention to quit.

Organisational justice and the sub-components of organisational justice, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice were reviewed in order to understand how employees' perceptions of fairness can be influenced. Furthermore, organisational commitment of the employee to the organisation was examined. Three forms of organisational commitment were identified, namely affective, normative and continuance commitment. Theorising suggests that an employee's perception of organisational justice strongly influences whether or not the employee remains committed to the organisation. Research suggests that there is a strong correlation between organisational commitment and an employee's intention to quit, which is becoming a strong focal point for companies today.

In the following chapter, the research methodology employed to operationalise the research hypotheses is discussed.



CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 highlighted the post-democratic labour market in South Africa and how affirmative action is used as the main legal driver to promote workplace transformation. Affirmative action was evaluated according to theories of justice, which in turn was linked to organisational commitment and intention to quit. The first chapter aimed to outline the research problem and the research-initiating question.

In Chapter 2, the literature review culminated in the formulation of a conceptual model that demonstrates the direct and indirect relationships between the variables that constitute the model. Each of these theoretical linkages can be expressed as a number of statistical hypotheses that can be tested empirically to validate whether or not the role of justice and perceptions of affirmative action influence affective commitment and an employee's intention to quit. Understanding which variables drive affective commitment and intention to quit will be of practical value to organisations since it can inform management strategies.

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to outline the research design and analyse the strategy employed in the current study. Specifically, the aim is to provide guidance and insight into the analysis strategy that was used to test the research hypotheses formulated in Chapter 2 empirically. The research design was chosen in such a way that the credibility of the empirical findings was supported. In this regard, the current chapter aims to analyse the strategy and to explain the research design and data collection method in more detail.

3.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The problem statement can be defined as a clear and precise statement of the question or issue that is to be investigated with the goal of finding an answer or solution to the primary research question (Sekaran, 2001).

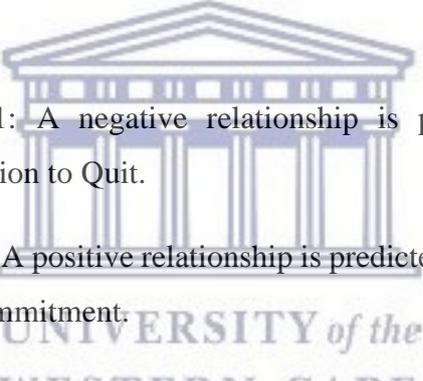
The problem statement for this study is as follows:

What are the roles of justice and perceptions of affirmative action in shaping affective commitment and intention to quit?

3.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives address the primary question that the research aims to answer (Sekaran, 2001). The overarching research objective of the current study is to determine if the proposed model depicted in Figure 3.1 provides a valid account of the psychological mechanism that drives intention to quit and affective commitment in the workplace. The graphical model represents a number of individual hypotheses.

A hypothesis refers to a statement that can be tested to evaluate if the statement is supported by the empirical data (Sekaran, 2001). The specific research hypotheses formulated in the current study are presented as an integrated conceptual model. Each of the paths in the model is considered a single hypothesis. In addition to the 13 direct effects, 4 indirect effects (mediator effects) are also hypothesised. The overarching model is separated into the following substantive hypotheses:

- 
- Research Hypothesis 1: A negative relationship is predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit.
 - Research Hypothesis 2: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 3: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 4: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 5: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Affective Commitment.
 - Research Hypothesis 6: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit.
 - Research Hypothesis 7: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit.

- Research Hypothesis 8: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit.
- Research Hypothesis 9: A negative relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit.
- Research Hypothesis 10: The relationship between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 11: The relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 12: The relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 13: The relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.
- Research Hypothesis 14: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.
- Research Hypothesis 15: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.
- Research Hypothesis 16: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.
- Research Hypothesis 17: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.

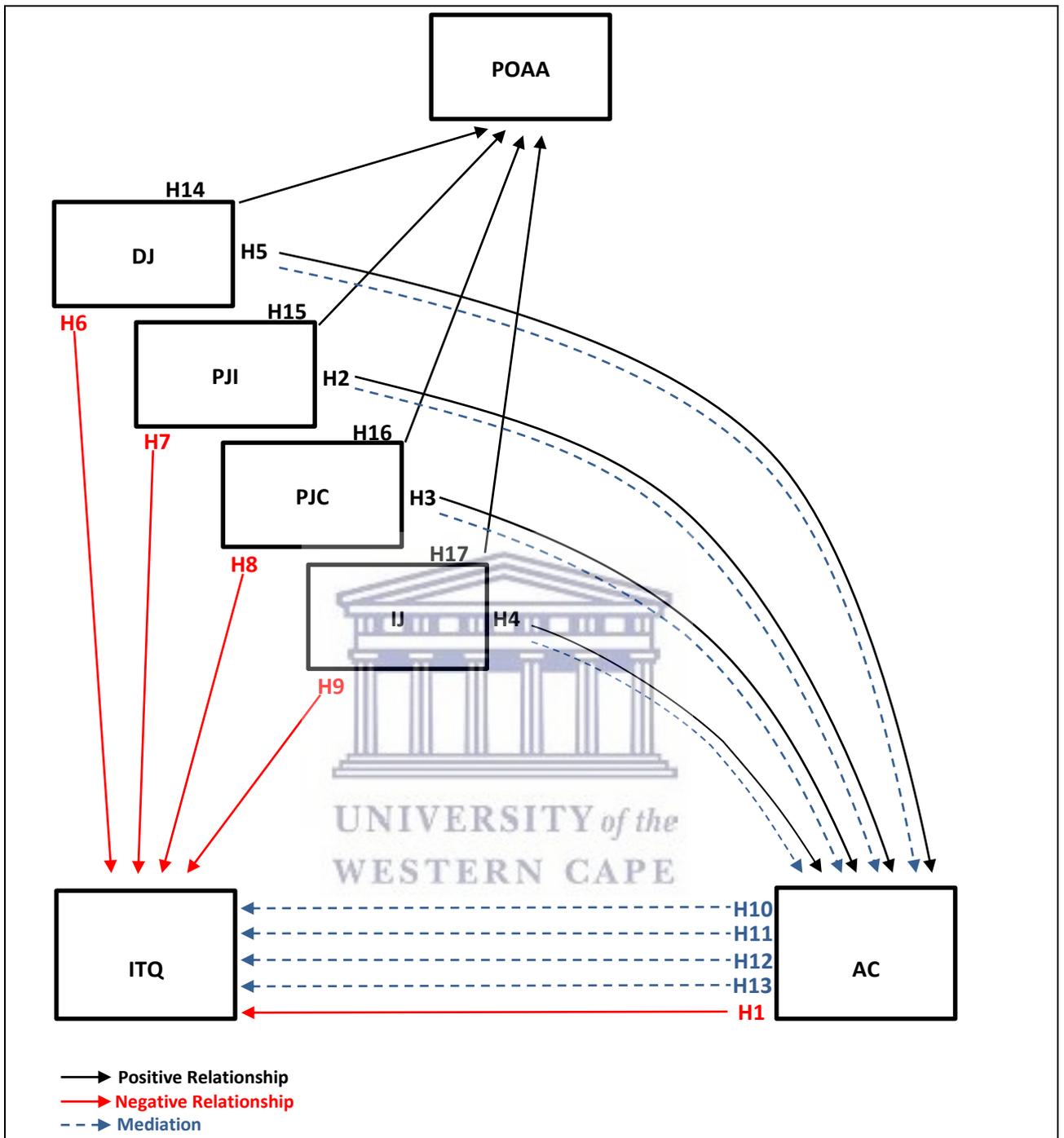


Figure 3.1: Theoretical Framework 3

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is the strategy compiled to assimilate the various constituents of the study in a comprehensive and logical way (De Vaus, 2001). This ensures that the research problem will be effectively addressed since the research design comprises the blueprint for the

collection, measurement and examination of the data. Therefore, the purpose of the research design is to confirm that the evidence gathered effectively addresses the research problem in a logical and unambiguous manner as far as possible. Importantly, the research problem ultimately determines the type of design to be used (De Vaus, 2001).

3.4.1 Quantitative research

For the purpose of this study, a quantitative research design was used to collect data and to test the relationship between variables. Given (2008) states that a quantitative research design refers to a systematic and empirical investigation of social phenomena using statistical, mathematical or computational techniques. According to Anderson (2006), quantitative research comprises predetermined options and typically includes a large number of respondents. Quantitative research is concerned with measurements that are objective, quantitative and statistically valid. Accuracy of results is determined by providing a calculated sample size from a given population. A sample size that produces a 95% confidence interval is desired when conducting research using quantitative methods. Quantitative research allows a reliable population base to be generated and produces data that is generalisable, which enables the establishment of cause-and-effect relationships (Anderson, 2006).

An ex post facto correlational research design was used for the current study. According to Simon and Goes (2013), ex post facto research design is typically used when it is inappropriate or impossible to influence the characteristics of the research respondents. An ex post facto research design is considered a substitute for accurate experimental research and can be used to test hypotheses about cause-and-effect or correlational relationships among variables where it is not practical or ethical to use true experimental design. Kerlinger and Rint (1986) and Simon and Goes (2013) state that within the field of the social sciences, an ex post facto examination strives to reveal potential associations by observing an existing condition and looking back in time for realistic contributing factors.

An advantage of the ex post facto approach is that it has high external validity. Thus, the researcher does not aim to manipulate the variables but rather to observe them naturally (Simon & Goes, 2013). According to Ary, Jacobs, and Sorensen (2010) and Watson (2012), an ex post facto research design is useful to scrutinise the relationships between the dependent and independent variables when one cannot conduct a real-life experiment and is thus unable to

manipulate or randomise the independent variable. Furthermore, the ex post facto approach is practical and cost-effective compared with using laboratory controls to conduct an experiment. The ex post facto research design can also be used when conducting laboratory experiments is deemed unethical (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003).

According to Johnson (2001), a limitation that should be considered when using ex post facto research is that the sample cannot be considered random, which means that generalising the findings is limited. Furthermore, the ex post facto approach does not enable one to manipulate the variables directly in any way, which means that one cannot directly control the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006; Sang, 2015). This provides the possibility of inaccurate analyses. In the situation that a relationship between two variables is discovered, it may be challenging to conclude which is the cause and which is the effect. Due to these limitations, the research findings should be interpreted with caution (Johnson, 2001).

3.4.2 Approach for the study

Because the study investigated employees at a particular point in time, the research was gathered by means of a cross-sectional design using questionnaires as a measuring instrument in order to assemble data for the variables that were being investigated.

The research study was presented to the Human Resources Executive and Director of the chosen organisation in order to obtain permission to conduct the study within the particular establishment. Upon approval, the questionnaires were administered electronically. A request to participate in the study was sent to employees in the business unit and included an information sheet that explained the aim of the study and the rights of respondents in terms of confidentiality and anonymity. Additionally, the purpose of the research was presented and potential benefits and possible disadvantages were clarified. Respondents could withdraw from the study at any time without consequence.

While collecting data, the researcher paid attention to the following ethical considerations:

- Participation was voluntary. The procedure of the study was explained and informed consent was obtained before the respondent completed the questionnaire.

- No harm was anticipated to befall any respondent. The call-centre number for employee well-being was included in the survey in the event that a respondent needed counselling.
- Respondents were not coerced to complete the survey, and they could withdraw from the study at any point.
- Responses to the survey were kept anonymous and confidential by using an offsite server for data storage. The data was password protected, and only the lead researcher had access to the original data.

By following the foregoing ethical guidelines during the data collection procedure, the researcher was confident that no harm would befall the respondents. However, in the unlikely event that a respondent may have needed psychological support, the necessary support infrastructure through the company's Employee Assistance Programme was put in place. The information page that was presented at the start of the survey questionnaire highlighted the rights of the respondent and provided the contact details for counselling and support services within the organisation.



3.4.3 Population and sampling

3.4.3.1 Population

A population can be defined as a group of people, events or phenomena that interests a person sufficiently to conduct an investigation (Sekaran, 2001). The population in the current study consisted of managers of organisations within the financial services industry. In this study, the researcher investigated the link between affirmative action and the perceived fairness thereof and determined how likely perceptions of these influenced the levels of affective commitment and intention to quit.

3.4.3.2 Sample

A sample can be defined as a subset of a population that comprises members chosen from the population being investigated (Sekaran, 2001). In total, 286 respondents participated in the survey but only 201 completed surveys were collected. A total of 85 questionnaires were disregarded since large amounts of information was incomplete in those 85 questionnaires.

A convenience sampling approach was employed, and everybody who participated in the study with completed questionnaires was included in the final sample used for analysis. Due to the size and characteristics of the final sample, results from the study could not be generalised to the greater organisation or to the financial services industry within South Africa.

The demographic characteristics of the sample are described in Table 3.1 below.



Table 3.1: Sample characteristics

Sample Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	72	35.8%
	Female	129	64.2%
	Missing values	0	0%
Ethnicity	African	65	32.3%
	Coloured	69	34.3%
	Indian	19	9.5%
	White	47	23.4%
	Other	1	0.5%
	Missing values	0	0%
Qualification	Grade 12	13	6.5%
	Certificate	21	10.4%
	Diploma	40	19.9%
	Undergraduate Degree	42	20.9%
	Honours	58	28.9%
	Master's	26	12.9%
	Other	1	0.5%
	Missing values	0	0%
Tenure	0–1 year	17	8.5%
	1–3 years	40	19.9%
	3–10 years	64	31.8%
	10–15 years	15	7.5%
	15+ years	64	31.8%
	Missing values	1	0.5%
Job Category	Top Management	7	3.5%
	Middle Management	100	49.7%
	Junior Management	93	46.5%
	Missing Values	1	0.5%
Ethnicity of Supervisor	African	41	20.4%
	Coloured	66	32.8%
	Indian	25	12.4%
	White	62	30.8%
	Missing Values	7	3.5%
Gender of Supervisor	Male	68	33.8%
	Female	133	66.2%
	Missing Values	0	0%
Total N=201			

The sample comprised 72 males (35.8%) and 129 females (64.2%). Thus, the sample consisted of mostly females. Age was considered a continuous variable. Therefore, it is fitting to report on the mean age of the sample group. The sample presented a mean age of 39.08 years. The

bulk of the respondents fell within the 40-year age group. The race distribution of the sample was African black respondents (32.3%), coloured respondents (34.3%), Indian respondents (9.5%), white respondents (23.4%) and other (0.5%). The data set was mostly completed by respondents within the coloured race category.

Qualification levels indicated that the majority of the sample held an honours degree (28.9%). An undergraduate degree was held by 20.9%, a master's degree by 12.9%, a diploma by 19.9%, a certificate by 10.4%, a matric certificate by 6.5% and another type of qualification by 5%. The data set indicated that 31.8% of the sample has been at the organisation for 3–10 years. A total of 31.8% of respondents have been at the organisation for 15 years or more. This is followed by 19.9% of respondents who have been at the organisation between 1 year and 3 years and 8.5% of respondents who have been with the organisation for less than one year. Approximately 0.5% of the respondents did not indicate their tenure, which is demonstrated by their missing values. The majority of respondents hold a position in the category Middle Management (49.7%). This was followed by 46.5% of respondents at the level of Junior Management and 3.5% at the level of Top Management. Approximately 0.5% of the sample did not indicate their job category and were thus coded as missing values.

Regarding the race/ethnicity of the line managers, the majority of the sample (32.8%) reported that their line manager fell into the coloured category. This was followed by 30.8% reporting that their line manager was a white person, 20.4% indicating that their line manager was an African black manager and 12.4% indicating that their line manager fell into the Indian category. As indicated by the missing values, 3.5% of the respondents did not answer the question. The majority of the line managers were reported to be female (66.2%), with the remaining managers being male (33.8%).

3.4.3.3 Sampling procedures

Probability sampling can be defined as a situation in which random selection of respondents occurs. Thus, the units within the entire population have an equal probability of being chosen (Sekaran, 2001). However, in the current study, a non-probability sampling approach was employed since the researcher did not have access to the entire population of middle-level managers in the financial services industry. For this reason, not all members of the population had an equal opportunity to participate in the study.

An advantage of non-probability sampling is that it is cost and time effective compared with probability sampling. Non-probability sampling is considered a feasible alternative when probability sampling is impractical or impossible to conduct. A disadvantage of non-probability sampling is lack of generalisability to the larger population since the entire population is not equally represented.

3.4.4 Data collection

The data was collected using four questionnaires, namely the Turnover Intention Scale-6 (TIS-6), the OCQ, the Attitudes towards Affirmative Action Measure and the Cultural Diversity Beliefs Scale (CDBS).

Sekaran (2001) defines a questionnaire as a pre-formulated written set of questions that allows one to record the answers from respondents. Questionnaires are generally a cost-effective and non-intrusive data collection technique.

When compiling the questionnaire, information from various surveys was used. In the attempt to obtain permission to use the measure, the original authors of the measures were contacted, but not all responded. Finally, only permission to use the Turnover Intention Scale-6 was received. When the measures were administered to the respondents, a cover letter explaining their rights and the goal of the research was included. Respondents could withdraw from the questionnaire at any time without consequence.

3.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

3.5.1 Biographical questionnaire

One of the reasons for collecting demographic information from each respondent is to understand and describe the characteristics of the sample. Some of these variables can also be used to investigate comparisons between racial, gender and age groups or be used as control variables.

The combined questionnaire sought to gather demographic information on the respondents. This section also included questions aimed at measuring the gender and race of the supervisors.

3.5.2 Turnover Intention Scale-6

Turnover Intention refers to the intention to leave or to stay in a given organisation and was measured with the TIS-6. The TIS-6 consists of six items adapted from the 15-item scale initially developed by Roodt (2004). The shorter version was used because the combined questionnaires were quite lengthy and the researcher was wary that the results may be negatively affected by fatigue and boredom. Examples of items included in the TIS-6 were ‘How often have you considered leaving your job?’ and ‘How often do you look forward to another day at work?’ Furthermore, the TIS-6 consisted of three different 5-point Likert response scales: never to always; no extent to a large extent; and highly unlikely to highly likely.

Bothma and Roodt (2013) conducted a study on a census-based sample (n=2 429) of workers who were working in junior management positions in the information, communication and technology sector in South Africa. The TIS-6 was a criterion variable used in the study of Bothma and Roodt (2013). The TIS-6 reliably measured turnover intentions with a Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient of 0.80 ($\alpha=0.80$). According to Bothma and Roodt (2013), the TIS-6 also significantly differentiated between employees who left (turnover) and those who stayed, thereby confirming the criterion validity of the measure. The scale also indicated significant variances between leavers and stayers, which confirmed its differential validity. This led the authors to conclude that the TIS-6 can be used as a reliable and valid instrument to test turnover intentions and predict actual turnover (Bothma & Roodt, 2013). For the purpose of this current study, Item 4 (Item 8 on the original scale) ‘How often do you look forward to another day at work?’ was reversed as per the original scoring key from the authors.

3.5.3 Organisational Commitment Questionnaire

The OCQ developed by Meyer and Allen (1991) measures the commitment of employees on three types of commitment: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), the Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS) and the Normative Commitment Scale (NCS) were used to measure the eight items of each dimension. Thus, the measure consisted of 24 items in total. In the development of the original questionnaire of Meyer, Allen and Smith (1991), the questions were operationalised

using a 5-point Likert scale. However, for the purpose of this research, a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree was employed, which is in line with the research study of Bagraim (2003). According to Finstad (2010), 7-point Likert scales are more likely to produce an accurate measure of a respondent's true evaluation and are more appropriate for questionnaires that are electronically distributed and unsupervised.

Bagraim (2003) conducted a study on a sample of full-time student members of the Actuarial Society of South Africa within the life assurance industry. Of the 434 questionnaires distributed, 241 were returned completed, representing an acceptable response rate of 55.5%. This study yielded coefficient alphas of 0.79 for ACS, 0.85 for CCS and 0.82 for NCS (Bagraim, 2003). Thus, the OCQ was considered a reliable measure.

In addition, Bagraim (2003) conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on the data and found support for the three-factor structure of the measure. It was found that affective, nominal and continuance commitment are separate from one another. This indicates the discriminant validity of the measure.



3.5.4 Attitudes towards Affirmative Action Measure

The Attitudes towards Affirmative Action Measure was developed by Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011). This measure aims to determine employees' perceptions and attitudes regarding affirmative action based on a distributive justice, procedural justice and an interactional justice perspective. It is divided into four subscales, namely Interactional Justice (8 items), Procedural Justice Input (7 items), Procedural Justice Criteria (6 items) and Distributive Justice (8 items). Overall, the measure consists of 29 items measured on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree).

In the study of Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011), the sample consisted of employees from a leading bank in South Africa. The Attitudes towards Affirmative Action Measure was found to be reliable. The Cronbach's alpha values reported were Interactional Justice (0.88), Procedural Justice Input (0.86), Procedural Justice Criteria (0.87) and Distributive Justice (0.80) (Coetzee & Bezuidenhout, 2011).

Based on the study of Coetzee and Bezuidenhout (2011), principal axis factor analysis with varimax rotation was used on the data to reveal the different factors related to both affirmative

action and fairness. Four factors were uncovered, Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice (input), Procedural Justice (criteria) and Distributive Justice.

3.5.5 The Cultural Diversity Beliefs Scale

The CDBS was developed by Rentsch, Turban, Hissong, Jenkins and Marrs (1995). The purpose of this scale is to measure three aspects of the attitude towards cultural diversity. The three subscales included in the measure are Valuing Individual Differences (VID), Affirmative Action (AA) and Competitive Advantage (CA). The measure consists of 23 items rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Agree) to 7 (Strongly Disagree). However, Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, and Wright (2006) aimed to validate this measure in the context of South Africa, using the complete 23-item version and adapting the 7-point Likert scale to a 6-point Likert scale in order to reduce central response theory. The adapted 6-point measure was used in this study.

In a previous study by Rentsch et al. (1995), data was collected at two universities in South Africa. Sample 1 consisted of 622 students attending accounting courses. Sample 2 consisted of 349 students enrolled in a management degree at a different university. Reported Cronbach's alpha values per subscale were VID (0.83 and 0.86), AA (0.72 and 0.63) and CA (0.82 and 0.77). Therefore, the CDBS was considered a reliable measure (Rentsch et al., 1995, as cited in Becker, 2009).

Factor analysis on the same data in the study conducted by Rentsch (1995) suggested that VID accounted for 19% and 14% of the variance in samples 1 and 2 respectively; AA described 16% and 12% of the variance while CA informed 15% and 18% of the variance in samples 1 and 2 respectively (Rentsch et al., 1995, as cited in Becker, 2009).

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Once the data was collected, it was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 25, 2017) and screened for outliers and typos. Descriptive statistics were also used to test the sample-specific assumptions underlying multiple regression (multivariate normality, linearity, collinearity, homoscedasticity of residuals). The following section discusses the treatment of missing values in the data.

3.6.1 Missing values and data preparation

Missing values or missing data is explained as the data value that has not been inserted for a variable that is being investigated (Kang, 2013). Missing values are likely to occur in most applied research studies, irrespective of how controlled the study may be. The reason for missing data could be related to the respondents, the design of the study or the interaction between the two (Long, Engelbrecht, Scherman, & Dunne, 2016). Missing data poses a risk to the outcomes because it could decrease the statistical strength of the study and, therefore, needs to be addressed during the analysis process. The danger of not mitigating these risks is that the results could lead to unsound inferences. If the impact of missing data is not taken into consideration, the outcomes of the statistical analyses will be biased and the degree of variability in the data will be estimated incorrectly (Long et al., 2016). Furthermore, if the strength of the outcomes is reduced, the likelihood that the null hypothesis will be rejected is increased. Missing values could reduce the representativeness of the sample, and the analysis of the study could be complicated. Each of these challenges places the validity of the study at risk (Kang, 2013).

There are three types of missing values: missing completely at random (MCAR); missing at random (MAR); and missing not at random (MNAR). The nature of the missing data in a data set influences the correct method to use in managing the missing values when analysing the data (Bennet, 2001).

Missing completely at random indicates unsystematic patterns. This type of missingness indicates that the data that is absent is not linked to the specific value that needs to be obtained or to the set of observed responses. An example of this type of missing values is when a research respondent overlooks an item accidentally (Long et al., 2016). The advantage of MCAR is that the analysis remains unbiased in the absence of the missing values (Kang, 2013).

The second type of missing values is MAR. Data values viewed as MAR occur when the likelihood of elements to be missing is influenced by the set of observed or traceable responses, not by the missing values that were expected to be found (Long et al., 2016). Although randomness can be considered not prejudicial, MAR still presents a challenge and cannot be ignored. If MAR values occur, it may be expected that the chance of the missing value in each

instance is independent of the variable that is attained at the time and that is expected to be gathered in the future (Kang, 2013).

The third type of missing value is MNAR, which is classified as unobserved data that is not MCAR or MAR. Missing not at random implies that the missing values are omitted for a particular reason. These cases are deemed problematic (Long et al., 2016). The only way to obtain an unbiased estimate of the limits in instances such as this is to model the missing data (Kang, 2013).

According to Bennet (2001), there are various ways of managing missing values based on the type and the degree of missing values in the data set. These include methods that ignore missing observations, single imputation methods, multiple imputation methods, likelihood-based methods and indicator methods.

The complete case method is a technique that ignores missing observations. This entails deleting the cases with incomplete data from the analysis and analysing the remaining cases (Pampaka, Hutcheson, & Williams, 2016). Another technique that can be used is the available-case analysis, also known as pairwise deletion. This method makes use of the largest set of accessible data cases for approximating the restriction of interest and is often used for the computation of relevant statistical tests (Bennet, 2001). Thus, if the variables to be used in the analyses are available for a certain case but other variables are missing for the specific case, the whole case will not be omitted from the analysis.

Another option when managing missing values is to use single imputation. In this method, an attempt is made to estimate and replace the missing values or impute new values. Once this is achieved, the analysis can be conducted as if the data set were complete. The most common methods of single imputation are last value carried forward, mean substitution, regression methods, hot-deck imputation and cold-deck imputation (Bennet, 2001). The main purpose of this approach is to reduce bias resulting from missing values. With this approach, the sample size is maintained as opposed to deleting cases (Durant, 2009; Pampaka et al., 2016).

Multiple imputation methods within this category have been created in order to manage the problem of single imputation methods, which result in underestimation of the variability within the data set (Bennet, 2001). In a multiple imputation method, the researcher analyses the new data set and combines the results into a single summary result that represents the additional

variation as a result of the missing values. This method is useful for both cross-sectional and longitudinal data (Pampaka et al., 2016).

The likelihood methods approach consists of an expectation-maximization (E-M) approach. This entails estimating the missing values (Bennet, 2001). It is an iterative process that entails two steps in each repetition. The likelihood-based method also entails a second technique, the raw data maximum likelihood method. This method produces estimates of the missing values using maximum likelihood by employing all available information on the observed data such as means and variances for each accessible covariate. The indicator method approach tries to integrate the missing data patterns into the data analysis by generating an extra missing grouping for the covariate when only a single covariate has a missing value (Bennet, 2001).

The current study considered all the above information and employed available case analysis (pairwise deletion) since the data yielded relatively few missing cases after deleting the 85 cases that demonstrated a large percentage of missing information. This technique is easy to execute without significantly reducing the data set.

3.6.2 Inferential statistics

The use of inferential statistics allows more definite findings to be presented. For this particular research study, the following inferential statistical analyses were used:

- Item analysis
- EFA
- Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient
- Simple linear regression analysis
- Mediation analysis by way of hierarchical regression analyses

The author acknowledges that structural equation modelling (SEM) could have been used to test the proposed relationships between the latent variables proposed in the current study. Although SEM is a regression-based technique, it offers numerous benefits compared with traditional multiple regression analyses (e.g. modelling of latent variables, decomposing total variance in error and common variance, comparing proposed models based on fit indices)

(Civelek, 2018). While SEM has become a popular technique to use, it was not used in this study because it is best used for larger sample sizes. This approach also requires high levels of statistical expertise to ensure appropriate interpretation of results. Additionally, SEM requires one to use specialised statistical software that was not available to the researcher (Jeon, 2015). For these reasons, the author decided to use multiple regression to operationalise the substantive research hypotheses of the current study.

3.6.2.1 Item analysis

According to Theron (2007), item analysis assists in identifying and removing items that do not add to the internal consistency of the dimension(s) of the variables being examined. Therefore, item analysis serves to identify inferior items that do not operationalise the underlying variables in an adequate manner. Items that are not considered suitable are considered for exclusion.

Similarly, Pallant (2010) states that item analysis is a method used to evaluate whether or not the scale items are related in the way that they measure the same underlying variables. The purpose of this process is to help determine the internal consistency of the measure, which increases when the items of the scale are related, thus measuring the same latent variables. If this is determined, it results in a higher Cronbach's alpha (Pallant, 2010).

3.6.2.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Matsunaga (2010) states that factor analysis can be explained as a method that assists with the reduction of a vast number of variables to a set of factors or smaller variables that are meaningful, manageable and interpretable in order to confirm that the concepts have been measured appropriately. According to Williams, Onsman, and Brown (2010), factor analysis is a valuable tool that is used in the development, refinement and evaluation of tests, measures and scales. Factor analysis can also be used to establish underlying dimensions between measured variables and latent constructs. This then enables the formation and refinement of theory. Furthermore, factor analysis provides construct validity evidence of self-reporting scales (Williams et al., 2010). There are two main types of factor analysis, EFA and

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). For the purpose of this research, the EFA method was used.

Exploratory factor analysis is considered an investigative method. In EFA, the investigator has no anticipations of the number or nature of the variables and as the name suggests, the analysis is exploratory in nature. However, EFA can also be conducted as a confirmatory analysis (Van Prooijen & Van der Kloot, 2001) by specifying the number of theoretical factors to extract. In the current investigation, EFA was used to test the dimensionality of the measures used in the regression analyses (Kasper & Ünlü, 2013). In the current study, the dimensionality of most measures was known and thus, EFA was used in a confirmatory fashion. Restricted maximum likelihood EFA extractions with promax rotation were performed on the various scales and subscales. Promax rotation is regarded as a practical method to use because it allows one to work quickly with larger data sets. Promax rotation includes raising the loadings to a power of four that results in greater correlation among the factors (Gorsuch, 1983; Yong & Pearce, 2013). Promax rotation is regarded as a hybrid method that initially rotates factors orthogonally and then obliquely, allowing for correlation between the factors that are correlated. However, if the factors are truly orthogonal, the promox rotation will rotate the factors at right angles (Allen, 2017).

The advantages of using EFA as opposed to CFA are that EFA is easier to execute and is generally more robust against termination issues. An added benefit is that EFA can be conducted with conventional statistical programmes, which is not the case with CFA that is typically specified by specialised software programmes (ten Holt, Van Duijn, & Boomsma, 2010).

3.6.2.3 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) is a common method that is used to determine the strength and stability of the relationships between variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2000). In the current study, Pearson's r was used to test the assumption of linearity between the entered variables in the multiple regression analyses. Multiple regression analysis was also used to test the validity of the hypotheses empirically.

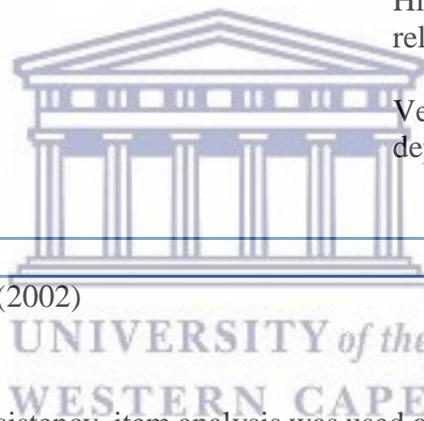
When interpreting the strength of the relationship between variables, it is useful to have a guide to assist with the interpretation. Although two variables display a relationship, it is important

to determine the strength of the relationship to ascertain the value added to the research study (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002; Samuel, 2017). The criteria for interpreting the Pearson's r is summarised in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Criteria for interpreting Pearson r

Guilford's informal interpretations of the magnitude of correlations (r)	Description
<.2	Slight, almost no relationship
.2 – .4	Low correlation; definite but small relationship
.4 – .7	Moderate correlation; substantial relationship
.7 – .9	High correlation; strong relationship
.9 – 1.0	Very high correlation; very dependable relationship

Source: Tredoux & Durrheim (2002)



In order to test for internal consistency, item analysis was used on scale items of variables such as Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice, Affective Commitment, Intention to Quit and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. However, unidimensionality remains an important prerequisite for internal consistency reliability (Sijsma, 2009). For this reason, the dimensionality of the variables was assessed prior to conducting item analysis.

3.6.2.4 Linear regression analysis

Linear regression is a widely used statistical method to establish the relationship between the dependent variable and on or more independent variables (Kumari & Yadav, 2018). One of the advantages of using linear regression in a study is that it assists in analysing the strength of the relationship between the outcome variable (dependent variable) and the predictor variables. Furthermore, linear regression assists in assessing major violations of the regression model that

may have an impact on the reported regression result. The method also helps the researcher to analyse the degree of change in the independent variable by a unit's effect on the dependant variable (Schneider, Hommel, & Blettner, 2010).

Regression models can be interpreted in various ways. One way is by means of the R-square, which can be described as the extent of variance explained in the dependent variable by the predictors. Where two or more predictors are jointly regressed against the criterion variable, it is considered a multiple regression model (Kraha, Turner, Nimon, Zientek, & Henson, 2012).

According to Kao and Green (2008), the F-test signifies the determination of significance of the F-ratio by equating it to a critical value from the probability distribution. If the F-ratio is more than the critical value, then the F-test supports refutation of the null hypothesis. The critical value is never less than 1. As the F-ratio rises, the more the disparity in the result is explained by differences in the independent variable (Kao & Green, 2008).

Freedman (2009) states that the standardised beta coefficient relates to the strength of the effect of each singular independent variable compared with the dependent variable. The greater the absolute value of the beta coefficient, the stronger the outcome. For example, a beta of -0.9 has a stronger effect than a beta of $+0.8$. Standardised beta coefficients have standard deviations as the unit of interpretation. This means the variables can be compared with each other without difficulty. Thus, standardised beta coefficients are the coefficients as a result of the variables in the regression if all were converted to z-scores before running the analysis (Freedman, 2009).

In cases where multiple independent variables are regressed on a single dependent variable, multivariate partial correlation analysis becomes important. This is often the case where the objective is to determine how to study the effect and control of these variables separately. This is known as partial correlation. Thus, partial correlation serves to measure the strength of a relationship between two variables and to control the influence of one or more other variables. Partial correlation has one continuous and dependant variable and one continuous independent variable (Cowden, 2012).

There are various types of regression analysis models. The type of regression model depends on the distribution type of Y. Furthermore, there are a number of assumptions that need to be met in order to specify the multiple regression model (Blanton & Jaccard, 2006). Conclusions and generalities about the theory are only valid if the expectations in an analysis have been

confirmed and fulfilled. Regression analyses are usually determined by a theoretical or conceptual model that can be drawn in the form of a path diagram (Blanton & Jaccard, 2006). This diagram provides the model for setting the regression and which statistics to inspect. These assumptions include homoscedasticity, linearity, collinearity, singularity and normality, which are discussed in more detail in the section below.

3.6.2.4.1 Assumptions of regression analysis

The assumption of homoscedasticity denotes equal variance of errors through all levels of the independent variables (Keith, 2006; Osborne & Waters, 2002). This implies that researchers assume that errors are spread out consistently among the variables. This becomes apparent when the variance around the regression line is identical for all values of the predictor variable. When heteroscedasticity manifests, it can lead to misrepresentation of the results and weaken the overall analysis and the statistical power of the analysis due to the increased possibility of Type I error, erratic and unreliable F-test results and inaccurate deductions (Aguinis, Petersen & Pierce, 1999; Keith, 2006; Osborne & Waters, 2002). Consequently, the incorrect approximations of the variance lead to statistical and inferential complications that may hinder theory development. Homoscedasticity can be found by visual inspection of a plot of the standardised residuals by the regression standardised predicted value. Preferably, residuals are randomly scattered around zero (the horizontal line) in order to provide an equal distribution spread (Keith, 2006; Osborne & Waters, 2002).

According to Alexopoulos (2010), the linearity assumption is the most essential because it directly relates to the bias of the outcomes of the whole study. Linearity describes the dependent variable as a linear function of the predictor (independent) variables. If a linear model is used, the subsequent expectations that should be met are that for every value of the independent variable, the distribution of the dependent variable must be normal. The difference in the distribution of the dependent variable should be continuous for all values of the independent variable. The relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables should be linear, and all observations should be independent. So the assumptions are independence, linearity, normality and homoscedasticity. Multiple regression can evaluate the relationship between dependent and independent variables in a precise manner when the relationship is of a linear type. If the relationship between the dependent and independent variables is not linear,

the outcome of the regression analysis will under or overestimate the true relationship and increase the risk of errors.

Normality assumes that variables have normal distributions. This means that errors are normally distributed and that a plot of the values of the residuals will imprecisely result in a normal curve (Keith, 2006). Non-normally distributed variables can misrepresent relationships and significance checks by decreasing the accuracy of outcomes. The researcher can test this assumption through the kurtosis and reviewing the skewness (Keith, 2006; Osborne & Waters, 2002). Skewness and kurtosis can be checked in the statistic tables, and values that are close to zero indicate normal distribution.

According to Rose, Spinks, and Canhoto (2015), skewness refers to the extent of balance or the absence of balance. The distribution of a data set is equal if it is the same to the left and right of the mid-point. Kurtosis is described as a measure of whether the distribution is heavy-tailed or light-tailed relative to a normal distribution. According to Rose et al. (2015), a positive skewness value is rightly skewed, and a negative skewness is skewed to the left. The greater the absolute value, the greater the skewness will be. Likewise, the higher the absolute value, the greater the kurtosis. This allows a simple criterion to be followed and applied. If either score is divided by its standard error and the result is greater than ± 1.96 , it suggests that the distribution is not normal (Rose et al., 2015). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test can also be used to test the normality of distribution scores.

Collinearity refers to the postulation that the independent variables do not overlap (Darlington, 1968; Keith, 2006). The researcher is able to deduce regression coefficients as the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables when collinearity is low in order to comprehend the cause and effects of variables in a reliable manner. Multicollinearity happens when numerous independent variables correlate at high levels with one another or when one independent variable is a near linear mixture of other independent variables. When more variables correlate, the chances of researchers being able to separate the individual effects of variables decrease. Preferably, independent variables are more highly correlated with the dependent variables than with other independent variables. If this assumption is not fulfilled, autocorrelation is present (Keith 2006; Poole & O'Farrell, 1971). This could lead to misleading and unusual results, with an increase in standard errors and a decrease in the power of the regression coefficients. Consequently, the regression coefficients can be suppressed or inflated if the independent variables are not distinct from one another.

3.6.2.5 Mediation analysis

According to Hood, Conlon, and Andrews (2008), mediation analysis can be described as a method used to determine the degree to which indirect paths via the mediator explain the association between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, Kashy, & Bolger, 1998; Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

Three basic conditions need to exist for mediation:

- 1) The predictor must be able to explain significant variation in the hypothesised mediator, which is path a.
- 2) The mediator must account for significant variation of the criterion in path b.
- 3) When steps 1 and 2 of the analysis are satisfied, a previously significant relationship between the predictor and criterion (path c) will result in non-significance (complete mediation) or substantially reduced significance (partial mediation).

Firstly, path c of the model needs to be determined by conducting a bivariate regression analysis, predicting the dependant variable (criterion) from the independent variable (predictor). The next step entails determining path a by applying a bivariate regression, thus predicting the mediator from the independent variable (predictor). Thereafter, a multiple regression analysis predicting the dependant variable (criterion) from the mediator and the independent variable (predictor) needs to be performed. This will produce the coefficients for path b and path c. In order to produce the final coefficient, the coefficients for paths a and b that were determined in the previous steps need to be multiplied. This will provide the

coefficient, indicating the mediating affect among the dependent (criterion) and independent variables (predictors) (Hood et al., 2008). The mediation model is illustrated in Figure 3.2.

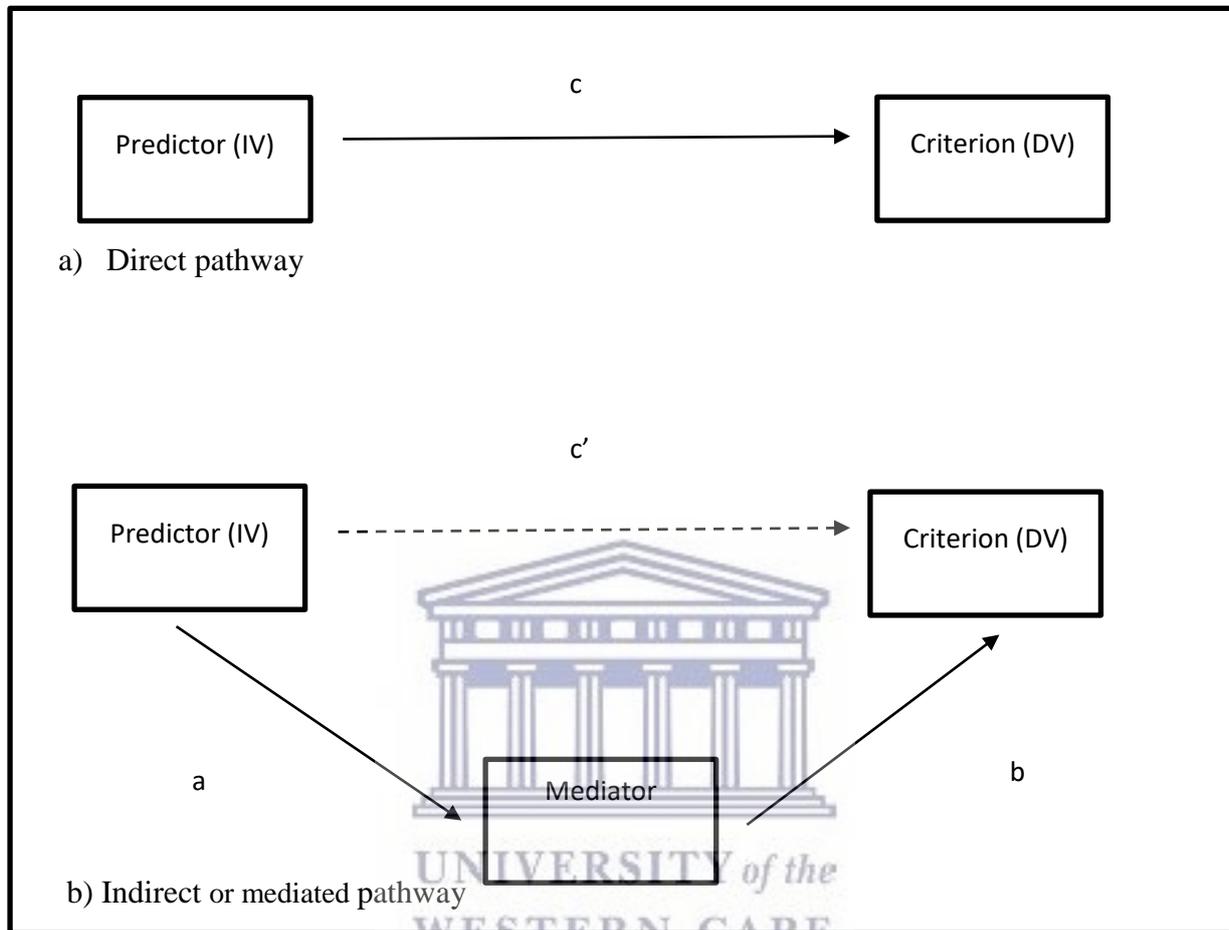


Figure 3.2: Genetic mediation model (Baron & Kenny, 1986)

3.7 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to provide insight into the research methodology that was used to investigate the proposed relationship between the variables that made up the theoretical model. Detailed descriptions for the problem statement, objectives, sample and research design were provided. The sampling strategy and characteristics of the sample were discussed. In addition, the ethical considerations relating to the collection of data were reviewed.

The study made use of an ex post facto research design since the independent variables could not be manipulated. The strengths and weaknesses of the research design were discussed in

detail. The treatment of missing values and the examination of the assumptions of multiple regression were discussed.

The findings of the research based on the research methodology explained in Chapter 3 are discussed in the following chapter.



CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The conceptual model was formulated in Chapter 2, and the method used to validate the linkages in the model empirically was discussed in Chapter 3. The purpose of Chapter 4 is to report on the findings of the statistical analyses discussed in Chapter 3. The variables discussed, namely Perceptions of Affirmative Action, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice, Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit were subjected to exploratory factor analysis and item analysis. The goal of the item analysis and factor analysis was to establish the construct validity of the measures prior to including them in the multiple regression model. The primary reason is that the proposed linkages between latent variables will remain ambiguous if the construct validity of the variables entered into the regression model is not initially established (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). Furthermore, the proposed hypotheses conceptualised in Chapter 2 are empirically validated in this chapter using the research design and strategy discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 fundamentally focuses on reporting the results of the statistical analyses.

The approach used for managing missing values is initially reviewed, followed by a discussion of the descriptive statistics. Thereafter, the reliability and dimensionality of the measures included in the conceptual model are discussed. Finally, the results of the multiple regression analysis are discussed in relation to the proposed hypotheses that constitute the conceptual model.

4.2 MISSING VALUES

The data set gathered from 286 respondents showed that there were missing values that needed to be addressed before an analysis could be conducted. When dealing with missing values in a data set, it is important to consider carefully the approach that will be used in order to minimise the risk of introducing bias into the data set. Initially, a strategy of multiple imputation was considered; however, it was subsequently realised that a significant proportion of the sample had failed to complete large sections of the questions.

It was decided to adopt a two-pronged approach to address the problem of missing values. Firstly it was decided to exclude all cases for which more than 80% of the values were

missing. This resulted in deleting 85 cases from the data. The remaining cases had less than 10% missing values, and it was decided to use the complete-case analysis approach to deal with the missingness in the data. Thus, the effective sample size was 201 cases for the multivariate statistical analyses.

4.3 UNIDIMENSIONALITY

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to verify the unidimensionality of each scale and subscale used within the research study (Hair, Black, Balbin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). Restricted maximum likelihood EFA extraction with promax rotation was performed on the various scales and subscales.

Before conducting EFA to determine unidimensionality, the measures had to be investigated. For data to be conducive to factor analysis, it needs to meet three requirements: (i) inter-item correlations that are higher than .30 in general and statistically significant ($p < .05$); (ii) a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy that approaches unity (at least $> .60$); and (iii) a Bartlett's test of sphericity that is significant ($p < .05$), resulting in the rejection of the hypothesis of identity matrix (Pallant, 2010). If the data meets these requirements, the data is suitable for factor analysis.

Furthermore, the eigenvalues-greater-than-one rule was used to identify the discernible factors that needed to be retained (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). Factor loadings greater than 0.50 were considered satisfactory. This showed that the items reflected the factors it was meant to reflect. The greater the value of the loading, the more the factor explains the total variance of scores on the designated factor (Kinnear & Gray, 2004). Negatively worded items were reversed prior to conducting the factor analysis.

4.3.1 Unidimensionality of the Affirmative Action subscale

A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.766 (> 0.60) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .001$) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. In total, five items were reversed since they were negatively worded.

Initially, when factor analysis was conducted on the Affirmative Action dimension, items loaded on two factors. All the items, with the exception of two items, loaded on the first factor. Since only two items loaded on the second factor, this was deemed an underrepresentation of the factor and explained only 6% of the common variance. For this reason and because two items may not properly represent a distinct factor (Gosling, Rentfrow, & Swann, 2003; MacCullum, Widaman, Zhang, & Hong, 1999; Raubenheimer, 2004), it was decided to delete Item B7.40 and Item B7.42. After deleting these two items, the remaining items all loaded on one factor and, therefore, a unidimensionality solution was obtained.

As demonstrated in Table 4.1, only one factor with an eigenvalue of greater than 1 was obtained. All factors loaded on one factor, and this factor accounted for 52.43% of the total common variance.

Table 4.1: Unidimensionality analysis of Affirmative Action subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Affirmative Action subscale	4	.766	1	52.436

As demonstrated in Table 4.2, the factor matrix indicated that all items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor. Item R_B7.44 had the highest loading of .830 and Item R_B7.41 had the lowest loading of .560, which was considered satisfactory.

Table 4.2: Factor matrix for Affirmative Action

	Factor 1
R_B7.44 The concept of diversity is simply a fad and organisations would be wise to ignore it.	.830
R_B7.45 Recruiting, hiring and training a diverse workforce is far too costly to be beneficial to most organisations.	.812
R_B7.43 Valuing diversity is simply another name for meeting employment equity targets.	.660
R_B7.41 Valuing diversity refers to valuing only members of the workforce who are different from their counterparts.	.560

Results from tables 4.1 and 4.2 indicate that the Affirmative Action subscale was unidimensional and that all the factor loadings loaded strongly on a single factor ($>.50$). Therefore, this subscale was regarded construct valid.

4.3.2 Unidimensionality of the Distributive Justice subscale

When EFA was initially applied to the Distributive Justice subscale, it became evident that the items loaded on two different factors. The decision was made to delete items that cross-loaded to obtain a clearer picture of the salient factor loadings on each factor. Items B26, B27, B28 and B29 loaded on the first factor. Items B22, B24 and B25 loaded on the second factor. Item B23 loaded across both factors and was deleted. After deleting Item B23, a clear two-factor structure emerged whereby items B26 to B29 loaded on a single factor. This factor was renamed Distribute Justice External because upon scrutiny of the items, it was clear that the first factor posed questions relating to perceptions of distributive justice from an external employee perspective. Subsequently, it was decided to conduct a restricted EFA analysis on the Distributive Justice External dimension. The results from the analyses are reported below.

A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.770 (>0.60) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were achieved for the Distributive Justice External subscale. Therefore, the correlation matrix was factor analysable. As shown in Table 4.3, all the items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor. Furthermore, Table 4.3 indicates that Distributive Justice External loaded on only one factor, and this factor accounted for 53.526% of the total common

variance. Therefore, unidimensionality was obtained for the Distributive Justice External factor.

Table 4.3: Unidimensionality analysis of Distributive Justice External subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Distributive Justice External	4	.770	1	53.526

As demonstrated in Table 4.4, the factor matrix indicated that all items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor. Item B4.27 had the highest loading of .839 and Item B4.26 had the lowest loading of .551, which was considered satisfactory.

Table 4.4: Factor matrix for Distributive Justice External subscale

	Factor 1
B4.27 The EE plan and workforce profile are used to appoint.	.839
B4.28 There is a focus on the development/advancement of AA employees.	.805
B4.29 Criteria (gender, ethnicity) are used to appoint.	.697
B4.26 AA people are recruited through provisions in advertisement.	.551

EE: Employment Equity
AA: Affirmative Action

Regarding the second factor that emerged from the analyses of Distributive Justice, items B22, B24 and B25 loaded on the second factor and accounted for approximately 47% of the common variance in the unrestricted EFA analyses. The factor was named Distributive Justice Internal because the questions related to employees' perceptions and experiences as they occur within the organisation internally. Only one factor with an eigenvalue of greater than 1 was reported, and all the items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on a single factor. A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.662 (>0.60) and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were

achieved as displayed in Table 4.5 and Table 4.6. Therefore, the correlation matrix was factor analysable.

Table 4.5: Unidimensionality analysis of Distributive Justice Internal subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Distributive Justice Internal subscale	3	.662	1	47.095

As demonstrated in Table 4.6, the factor matrix indicated that all items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor. Item B4.25 had the highest loading of .782 and Item B4.22 had the lowest loading of .568, which was considered satisfactory.

Table 4.6: Factor matrix for Distributive Justice Internal subscale

	Factor 1
B4.25 Less qualified are appointed/promoted.	.782
B4.24 There are unrealistically high salaries for AA members.	.692
B4.22 Black managers are given token positions.	.568

AA: Affirmative Action

Based on the analysis, factors loaded on one factor for both Distributive Justice External and Distributive Justice Internal. Therefore, unidimensionality was achieved for the Distributive Justice (Internal and External) subscales, and the measures were deemed acceptable to use the in the regression analyses.

4.3.3 Unidimensionality of the Procedural Justice Input subscale

As displayed in Table 4.7, a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.890 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were achieved. Therefore, the correlation matrix was suitable for factor analysis.

Only one eigenvalue greater than one was returned, which suggested that the factor solution was unidimensional. The single factor accounted for 59.770% of the total common variance.

Table 4.7: Unidimensionality analysis of Procedural Justice Input subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Procedural Justice Input subscale	7	.890	1	59.770

The factor loadings ranged from 0.460 to 0.900. Only one item had a factor loading that was marginally lower than 0.500, but it was decided to retain this item. This is shown in Table 4.8.

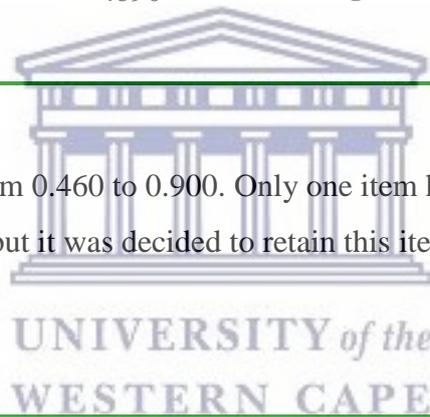


Table 4.8: Factor matrix for Procedural Justice Input subscale

	Factor 1
B2.12 There is joint decision-making.	.900
B2.11 There are equal chances to influence selection decisions.	.865
B2.10 There are opportunities to appeal.	.833
B2.9 All employees' careers are regarded as equally important.	.829
B2.14 Rules/procedures are applied strictly and consistently.	.738
B2.13 There are mechanisms to protect against discrimination.	.698
B2.15 Systems are adjusted in order to integrate AA employees.	.460

AA: Affirmative Action

Based on the factor analysis conducted, results demonstrated that unidimensionality was achieved for the Procedural Justice Input subscale. All items except one loaded strongly on a single factor, and the single factor explained a large percentage of the common variance.

4.3.4 Unidimensionality of the Procedural Justice Criteria subscale

A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.895 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable.

Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was reported. As demonstrated in Table 4.9 and Table 4.10, the factor matrix indicated that all the items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor, and the single factor accounted for 65.858% of the common variance. The factor loadings were robust and ranged between .894 and .637.

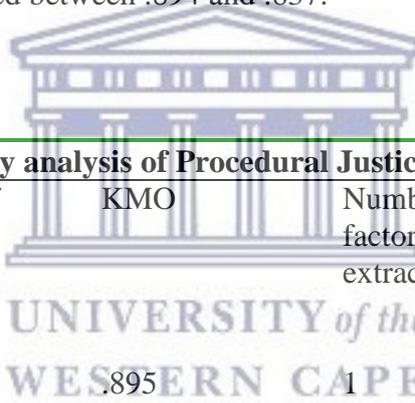


Table 4.9: Unidimensionality analysis of Procedural Justice Criteria subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Procedural Justice Criteria subscale	6	.895	1	65.858

Table 4.10 indicates that all items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor. Item B3.17 had the highest loading of .894 and Item B3.20 had the lowest loading of .637, which was considered satisfactory.

Table 4.10: Factor matrix for Procedural Justice Criteria subscale

	Factor 1	
B3.16 Selection criteria are applied consistently.		.864
B3.17 Accurate performance data is used for evaluation.		.894
B3.18 Same performance standards are used.		.887
B3.19 Predetermined job-related selection criteria are used.		.811
B3.21 Disciplinary action is applied strictly and consistently.		.744
B3.20 More than one performance appraiser is used		.637

Unidimensionality was achieved for the Procedural Justice Criteria subscale. This is evident due to the results produced by the factor analysis. All items loaded on one factor.

4.3.5 Unidimensionality of the Interactional Justice subscale

A KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.887 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were reached, showing adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable.

Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was obtained. The factor matrix as demonstrated in Table 4.11 and Table 4.12 indicated that all the items loaded satisfactorily (> 0.50) on one factor, and this factor accounted for 56.546% of the total common variance.

Table 4.11: Unidimensionality analysis of Interactional Justice subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Interactional Justice subscale	8	.887	1	56.546

Table 4.12 indicates that Item B1.1 had the highest loading of .897 and Item B1.5 had the lowest loading of .559, which was considered satisfactory. Therefore, there was no need to delete any items.

Table 4.12: Factor matrix for Interactional Justice subscale

	Factor 1
B1.1 The value of AA employees is recognised.	.897
B1.2 The capabilities of AA employees are recognised.	.877
B1.3 AA employees are guided in respect of realistic career expectations.	.817
B1.6 AA culture is accommodated when socialising	.746
B1.7 Accurate and complete record are available	.682
B1.4 Employees are informed about the EE policy.	.676
B1.8 Employees are informed about EE implications for careers.	.669
B1.5 Supervisors are trained to manage diversity.	.559

AA: Affirmative Action
 EE: Employment Equity

All the factor loadings were strong, ranging between 0.897 and .599, and loaded on a single factor.



4.3.6 Unidimensionality of the Affective Commitment subscale

Before conducting the factor analyses, a number of items had to be reversed because they were negatively worded. The initial factor analyses suggested that the items may not be unidimensional. All the negative items loaded on the second factor. This is considered a statistical artefact, which is a tendency for the respondent to react symmetrically to positive and negative expressions (Coleman, 2013; Greenberger, Chen, Dimitrieva, & Farraggia, 2003; Quilty, Oakman, & Risko, 2006). Negatively worded items are, therefore, likely to load not only on the intended factor but also on a factor that consists solely of items that are negatively worded.

Since there were no convincing theoretical arguments for why the negatively worded items should load on a separate factor, it was decided to specify a restricted one-factor solution. The

KMO measure of sampling adequacy returned a value of 0.862 and a significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) was obtained, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable.

The first eigenvalue explained 46.495% of the common variance. The factor matrix displayed satisfactorily loaded items (> 0.50) on the single factor, except for one item at R-D1.4 that reported a lower factor loading value of .364. The model and item-specific statistics of the factor analyses are displayed in Table 4.13 and Table 4.14. The single factor accounted for 46.495% of the total common variance.

Table 4.13: Unidimensionality analysis of Affective Commitment subscale

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Affective Commitment subscale	8	.862	1	46.495

Table 4.14 indicates that Item D1.2 had the highest loading of .760 and Item R_D1.4 had the lowest loading of .364. A decision was made to keep item R,D1,4.

Table 4.14: Factor Matrix for Affective Commitment subscale

	Factor 1
D1.2 I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside the company.	.760
R_D1.6 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	.745
R_D1.8 I do not feel a strong sense of belonging in my organisation.	.743
R_D1.5 I do not feel 'part of the family' at my organisation.	.701
D1.1 I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	.695
D1.3 I really feel as if the problems of this organisation are my own.	.695
D1.7 This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.666
R_D1.4 I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	.364

Unidimensionality was achieved for the Affective Commitment subscale since all items loaded on one factor. Items ranged from .760 to .364. This indicated that unidimensionality was achieved for the Affective Commitment subscale.

4.3.7 Unidimensionality of the Intention to Quit subscale

As indicated in Table 4.15, a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.816 and a significant Bartlett’s test of sphericity ($p < 0.001$) were achieved, demonstrating adequate evidence that the correlation matrix was factor analysable. Only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was returned from the factor analyses. The single factor accounted for 48.566% of the total common variance.

Subscale	Number of items	KMO	Number of factors extracted	Cumulative percentage common variance
Intention to Quit scale	6	.816	1	48.566

The factor matrix in Table 4.16 shows that almost all the items loaded satisfactorily (>0.50) on one factor; Item R_E8 reported a slightly lower factor loading (.488). However, since this value was marginally lower than 0.50, it was decided to retain the item rather than deleting it from the scale.

Table 4.16: Factor matrix for Intention to Quit scale

	Factor 1	
E1 How often have you considered leaving your job?		.860
E6 How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?		.856
E4 How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunities at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?		.686
R_E3 To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?		.681
E7 How likely would you be to accept another job at the same compensation level should one be offered to you?		.518
R_E8 How often do you look forward to another day at work?		.488

As indicated by the factor analysis results, unidimensionality was achieved for the Turnover Intention scale . All items loaded on one factor, with factor loadings ranging between .860 and .488.

4.4 ITEM ANALYSIS-RELIABILITY RESULTS

Item analysis was performed in order to determine the internal reliability of the measurement scales and subscales and to identify any items that did not contribute to the reliability of the measurement scales. The purpose for conducting this analysis was to ensure that the measuring scales were measuring the same construct consistently (Hinkin, Tracy, & Enz, 1997). Item analysis was conducted with SPSS version 20 to determine the reliability of each scale/subscale. Cronbach's alpha was used to indicate the reliability of the scale. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be at least 0.70 to be considered a reliable scale (Ursachi, Horodnic, & Zait, 2015).

Another aspect that needed to be considered was the item-total correlation. This is regarded as an indication of the degree to which each item correlates with the total coefficient outcome. An item with a value below 0.20 could indicate that the item is not correlating with the specific variable sufficiently (Nunnally, 1978, Panayides, 2013). Items with such low coefficients may

need to be deleted since they could lead to a higher Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the full scale.

4.4.1 Reliability analysis of the various subscales

A summary of the statistics for the level of internal consistency of each scale is presented in Table 4.17. For each of the revised measures, the Cronbach's alpha, the mean and the variance are displayed.

Table 4.17: Reliability analysis results of the subscales

Subscale	Number of scales	Cronbach's alpha	Mean	Variance
Affirmative Action	4	.797	19.2513	19.724
Distributive Justice External	4	.812	15.22	20.706
Distributive Justice Internal	3	.721	8.83	11.368
Procedural Justice Input	7	.905	23.09	64.498
Procedural Justice Criteria	6	.916	21.28	50.102
Interactional Justice	8	.915	29.55	77.004
Affective Commitment	8	.870	37.0406	100.264
Intention to Quit	6	.840	18.1538	32.420

The Affirmative Action subscale consisted of four items. The results of the item analysis are indicated in Table 4.17 and Table 4.18. The item analysis related to the Affirmative Action subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.797. The scale, therefore, shows adequate

reliability. None of the item-total correlations reported values lower than 0.20 and, therefore, none of the items were considered for deletion.

Table 4.18: Reliability Analysis results of the Affirmative Action subscale

Affirmative Action (Cronbach's alpha = .797)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
R_B7.41	Valuing diversity refers to valuing only members of the workforce who are different from their white male counterparts.	.530	.797	.791
R_B7.43	Valuing diversity is simply another name for meeting employment equity targets.	.614	.797	.749
R_B7.44	The concept of diversity is simply a fad and organisations would be wise to ignore it.	.676	.797	.724
R_B7.45	Recruiting, hiring and training a diverse workforce is far too costly to be beneficial to most organisations.	.659	.797	.727

The EFA suggested that the Distributive Justice scale should be split into two distinct and more nuanced dimensions, namely Distributive Justice External and Distributive Justice Internal. The Distributive Justice (External) subscale consisted of four items. The results of the item analysis are presented in Table 4.17 and Table 4.19. The item analysis conducted on the Distributive Justice (External) subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.812. This subscale, therefore, shows good reliability. Item B4.26 displayed a low item-total correlation, which may suggest that the item is not contributing to the internal consistency of the scale. The Cronbach's alpha measure that would result if the item were deleted indicated that the overall alpha level would

increase. However, since there were only four items in the subscale, the decision was made to retain Item B4.26.

Table 4.19: Reliability analysis results of the Distributive Justice External subscale

Distributive Justice External (Cronbach's alpha = .812)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
B4.26	AA people are recruited through provisions in advertisement.	.501	.812	.821
B4.27	The EE plan and workforce profile are used to appoint.	.721	.812	.722
B4.28	There is a focus on the development/advancement of AA employees.	.684	.812	.739
B4.29	Criteria (gender, ethnicity) are used to appoint.	.628	.812	.767

AA: Affirmative Action
 EE: Employment Equity

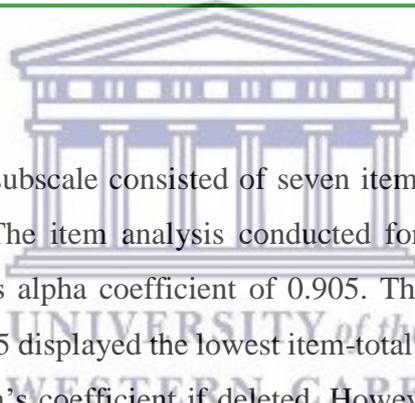


The Distributive Justice (Internal) subscale consisted of only three items. This is the minimum number of items allowed for item analysis due to the restricted degrees of freedom. The results are shown in Table 4.17 and Table 4.20. The item analysis relating to the Distributive Justice (Internal) subscale produced a Cronbach's alpha of 0.721. The scale, therefore, displays adequate reliability. None of the item-total correlations fell below 0.20 and, therefore, none of the items were considered for deletion.

Table 4.20: Reliability analysis results of the Distributive Justice Internal subscale

Distributive Justice Internal (Cronbach's alpha =.812)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
B4.22	Black managers are given token positions.	.486	.721	.699
B4.24	There are unrealistically high salaries for AA members.	.556	.721	.619
B4.25	Less qualified applicants are appointed/ promoted.	.588	.721	.573

AA: Affirmative Action

The Procedural Justice Input subscale consisted of seven items. The results are displayed in Table 4.17 and Table 4.21. The item analysis conducted for the Procedural Justice Input subscale yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.905. The subscale, therefore, displays excellent reliability. Item B2.15 displayed the lowest item-total correlation and would result in an increased Cronbach's alpha's coefficient if deleted. However, it was decided to keep the item since the overall scale reliability was good and the improvement in the alpha level was marginal in the event that the item were deleted.

Table 4.21: Reliability analysis results of the Procedural Justice Input subscale

Procedural Justice Input (Cronbach's alpha =.905)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
B2.9	All employees' careers are regarded as equally important.	.750	.905	.887
B2.10	There are opportunities to appeal.	.786	.905	.883
B2.11	There are equal chances to influence selection decisions.	.787	.905	.884
B2.12	There is joint decision-making.	.835	.905	.878
B2.13	There are mechanisms to protect against discrimination.	.691	.905	.894
B2.14	Rules/procedures are applied strictly and consistently.	.746	.905	.887
B2.15	Systems are adjusted in order to integrate AA employees.	.458	.905	.919

AA: Affirmative Action

The Procedural Justice Criteria subscale consisted of six items. The results are displayed in Table 4.17 and Table 4.22. The item analysis conducted for the Procedural Justice Criteria subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.916. The subscale, therefore, displays excellent reliability. Item B3.20 displayed the lowest item-total correlation, and the overall alpha level would increase to 0.921 if this item were deleted. However, it was decided to retain the item since the overall alpha level for the scale was high, and the deletion of this item would not increase the alpha significantly.

Table 4.22: Reliability analysis results of the Procedural Justice Criteria subscale

Procedural Justice Criteria (Cronbach's alpha =.916)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
B3.16	Selection criteria are applied consistently.	.823	.916	.892
B3.17	Accurate performance data is used for evaluation.	.832	.916	.892
B3.18	Same performance standards are used.	.831	.916	.892
B3.19	Predetermined job-related selection criteria are used.	.767	.916	.901
B3.20	More than one performance appraiser is used.	.622	.916	.921
B3.21	Disciplinary action is applied strictly and consistently.	.727	.916	.907

The Interactional Justice subscale consisted of eight items, and the results are indicated in Table 4.17 and Table 4.23. The item analysis conducted for the Interactional Justice subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.915. The subscale, therefore, shows excellent reliability. None of the item-total correlations were below 0.20 and, therefore, none of the items were considered for deletion.

Table 4.23: Reliability analysis results of the Interactional Justice subscale

Interactional Justice (Cronbach's alpha =.915)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
B1.1	The value of AA employees is recognised.	.785	.915	.898
B1.2	The capabilities of AA employees are recognised.	.746	.915	.902
B1.3	AA employees are guided in respect of realistic career expectations.	.741	.915	.902
B1.4	Employees are informed about the EE policy.	.725	.915	.903
B1.5	Supervisors are trained to manage diversity.	.640	.915	.910
B1.6	AA culture is accommodated when socialising.	.737	.915	.902
B1.7	Accurate and complete records are available.	.700	.915	.905
B1.8	Employees are informed about EE implications for careers.	.701	.915	.906

AA: Affirmative Action

EE: Employment Equity

The Affective Commitment subscale consisted of eight items. The results are shown in Table 4.17 and Table 4.24. The item analysis conducted for the Affective Commitment subscale displayed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.870. The subscale, therefore, displays good reliability. Item R_D1.4 displayed the lowest item correlation and if deleted, the reliability would increase to 0.879. However, given the modest increase in alpha if deleted, it was decided to retain the item in the scale.

Table 4.24: Reliability analysis results of the Affective Commitment subscale

Affective Commitment (Cronbach's alpha = .870)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
D1.1	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	.638	.870	.852
D1.2	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside the company.	.696	.870	.846
D1.3	I really feel as if the problems of this organisation are my own.	.648	.870	.852
R_D1.4	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	.353	.870	.879
R_D1.5	I do not feel 'part of the family' at my organisation.	.646	.870	.852
R_D1.6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation.	.703	.870	.845
D1.7	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.622	.870	.854
R_D1.8	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging in my organisation.	.683	.870	.847

The Intention to Quit scale consisted of six items. The results are indicated in Table 4.17 and Table 4.25. The item analysis conducted for the Intention to Quit scale displayed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.840. The scale, therefore, displays good reliability. If Item E7 were deleted, the reliability would increase marginally to 0.842. It was decided to retain this item in the scale since it still reported a good item-total correlation.

Table 4.25: Reliability analysis results of the Intention to Quit scale

Intention to Quit (Cronbach's alpha =.840)

Item	Description	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha per subscale	Cronbach's alpha if item is deleted
E1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	.741	.840	.789
R_E3	To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs?	.655	.840	.809
E4	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunities at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	.639	.840	.809
E6	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	.719	.840	.792
E7	How likely would you be to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?	.501	.840	.842
R_E8	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	.485	.840	.837

The overall outcomes of the item analyses performed on the various subscales/scales are displayed in Table 4.17 to Table 4.26. The results suggest that all the scales reported acceptable reliability. Each subscale/scale is, therefore, considered internally consistent and reliable. Considering this evidence in conjunction with the EFA results and considering that the individual items were shown to be unidimensional and internally consistent, the researcher felt confident in combining the factor scores to use in the regression analyses.

Table 4.26: Composite reliability scores for indicators for each subscale

Variable:	Total Composite:
Affirmative Action	.797
Distributive Justice External	.812
Distributive Justice Internal	.721
Procedural Justice Input	.905
Procedural Justice Criteria	.916
Interactional Justice	.915
Affective Commitment	.870
Intention to Quit	.840

4.5 BIVARIATE (PEARSON) CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Since the aim of the study was to predict intention to quit, the relationships between the independent variables (Distributive Justice Internal, Distributive Justice External, Procedural Justice Input, Procedural Justice Criteria, Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment) and the dependent variable (Intention to Quit) were analysed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (see Table 4.27 and Table 4.28). Since the regression analysis is a correlational-based statistical technique, it made methodological sense to consider the correlations between factor scores before entering them in the regression model. Linearity is also one of the assumptions of regression analysis, so it is important to test the linearity assumption prior to conducting the multiple regression analysis. However, it is important to note that the substantive hypotheses were not statistically validated based on the correlational analyses.

As indicated by the theoretical framework, the model consists of both direct and indirect relationships that were tested using the Pearson correlation technique in order to establish whether or not these variables demonstrated significant statistical relationships with one another. Furthermore, because the Distributive Justice variable loaded on two factors,

Distributive Justice External and Distributive Justice Internal, the correlation analysis was conducted on these sub-variables separately.

4.5.1 Direct relationships

Results from the correlation analyses are summarised in Table 4.27 below.

Table 4.27: Bivariate correlation results for direct relationships

Hypothesis:	Correlation:
H1: A negative relationship is predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit.	$r = -.676, p < .001$
H2: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment.	$r = .394, p < .001$
H3: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment.	$r = .343, p < .001$
H4: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment.	$r = .367, p < .001$
H5.1: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Affective Commitment.	$r = .212, p < .001$
H5.2: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice Internal and Affective Commitment.	$r = -.147, p < .019$
H6.1: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit.	$r = -.158, p < .013$
H6.2: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit.	$r = .154, p < .016$
H7: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit.	$r = -.423, p < .001$
H8: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit.	$r = -.377, p < .001$
H9: A negative relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit.	$r = -.415, p < .001$

H14.1: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice Internal and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$r = -.421, p < .001$
H14.2: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$r = .024, p < .368$
H15: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$r = .056, p < .217$
H16: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$r = .052, p < .235$
H17: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$r = .051, p < .236$

According to Table 4.27, the bivariate correlation analysis displayed a moderately significant negative correlation between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit ($r = -.676, p < .001$), with higher levels of Affective Commitment leading to lower levels of Intention to Quit. This was in line with Hypothesis 1. Furthermore, a small but statistically significant and positive correlation was found between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment ($r = .394, p < .001$). This indicates that the more employees experience Procedural Justice Input in the workplace, the higher their Affective Commitment levels will be. The analysis also reported a small but statistically significant positive correlation between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment ($r = .343, p < .001$). High levels of Procedural Justice Criteria are, therefore, associated with higher levels of Affective Commitment. There was a small and statistically significant positive correlation found between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment ($r = .367, p < .001$), with higher levels of perceived Interactional Justice linked to higher levels of Affective Commitment. A small but statistically significant and positive relationship between Distributive Justice External and Affective Commitment was obtained following the correlation analysis that was conducted ($r = .212, p < .001$). This shows that high levels of perceived Distributive Justice External are likely to lead to high levels of Affective Commitment. A statistically significant negative correlation was not found between Distributive Justice Internal and Affective Commitment ($r = -.147, p < .019$), with increased levels of perceptions of Distributive Justice Internal being associated with decreased levels of Affective Commitment. This result was unexpected and was contrary to initial theorising.

The correlation analysis found a statistically significant negative correlation between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit ($r = -.158, p < .013$). This implies that higher levels of perceived Distributive Justice External could lead to lower levels of Intention to Quit. A statistically significant positive correlation was found between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit ($r = .154, p < .016$), which suggests that increased perception levels of Distributive Justice Internal are associated with an increase in an employee's Intention to Quit. This relationship is contrary to initial theorising. Furthermore, there was a moderately negative and statistically significant correlation found between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit ($r = -.423, p < .000$). Higher levels of perceived Procedural Justice Input can be associated with lower levels of Intention to Quit. The analysis also indicated a small negative and statistically significant correlation between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit ($r = -.377, p < .000$), with high levels of Procedural Justice Criteria associated with low levels of Intention to Quit. There was a moderately negative and statistically significant correlation between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit ($r = -.415, p < .000$), with higher levels of perceived Interactional Justice associated with lower levels of Intention to Quit.

The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to determine the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. The results indicate that there is a moderate and statistically significant negative relationship between employees' levels of Distributive Justice Internal and their perceptions of Affirmative Action ($r = -.421, p < .000$). Higher levels of Distributive Justice Internal are associated with lower levels of Perceptions of Affirmative Action. The results of the correlation analysis conducted to determine the relationship between Distributive Justice External and Perceptions of Affirmative Action did not indicate a significant relationship ($r = .024, p < .368$) and as a result were not supported by the data. Distributive Justice is not likely to influence Perceptions of Affirmative Action. The results indicate that there is a non-significant positive relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action ($r = .056, p < .217$). Procedural Justice Input is not likely to affect Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Based on the outcomes of the correlation analysis, results indicate that there is a non-significant positive relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action ($r = .052, p < .235$). Employees' experiences of Procedural Justice Input in the workplace are not likely to affect their perceptions of Affirmative Action. The results display a non-significant positive relationship between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action ($r = .051, p < .236$).

Employees' experiences of Interactional Justice within the organisation are not likely to influence their perceptions of affirmative action.

4.5.2 Indirect relationships

The results from the mediation analyses are presented in Table 4.28. In order to calculate the total indirect effect, the method described by Hood et al. (2008) was used. The process that this method follows initially requires the analysis to determine path c of the model. This is done by conducting a bivariate regression analysis, predicting the dependant variable from the independent variable. The next step entails determining path a by applying a bivariate regression, predicting the mediator from the independent variable. Thereafter, a multiple regression analysis predicting the dependant variable from the mediator and the independent variable is performed. This produces the coefficients for path c and path b. In order to produce the final coefficient, the coefficients for paths a and b that were determined in the previous steps are multiplied. This provides the final coefficient that indicates the mediating affect among the dependent and independent variables (Hood et al., 2008). The correlation coefficient reported in Table 4.28 can be regarded as the total indirect effect.

Table 4.28: Bivariate correlation results for indirect relationships

Hypothesis:	Correlation:
H10.1: The relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.	$r = .098, p < .001$
H10.2: The relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.	$r = -.142, p < .001$
H11: The relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.	$r = -.238, p < .001$
H12: The relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.	$r = -.212, p < .001$
H13: The relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.	$r = -.222, p < .001$

Table 4.28 displays the results that demonstrate whether or not the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal (independent variable) and Intention to Quit (dependant variable) is mediated by Affective Commitment (mediator variable). The results indicate that the total indirect effect between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit via Affective Commitment is small, positive and statistically significant ($r = .098, p < .001$.) An analysis to determine whether or not the relationship between Distributive Justice External (independent variable) and Intention to Quit (dependant variable) as mediated by Affective Commitment (mediator variable) was also conducted. The results indicate that the total indirect effect between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit via Affective Commitment is small, negative and statistically significant ($r = -.142, p < .001$).

An analysis to determine whether or not the relationship between Procedural Justice Input (independent variable) and Intention to Quit (dependant variable) is mediated by Affective Commitment (mediator variable) was conducted. The results indicate that the overall indirect effect between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit via Affective Commitment is small, negative and significant ($r = -.238, p < .001$). An analysis was performed to determine whether or not Procedural Justice Criteria (independent variable) and Intention to Quit (dependant variable) is mediated by Affective Commitment (mediator variable). The results indicate that the total indirect effect between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit via Affective Commitment is small, negative and significant ($r = -.212, p < .001$). An analysis was performed to determine whether or not the relationship between Interactional Justice (independent variable) and Intention to Quit (dependant variable) is mediated by Affective Commitment (mediator variable). The results indicate that the overall indirect effect between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit via Affective Commitment is small, negative and significant ($r = -.222, p < .001$).

The correlation results that are displayed Table 4.27 and Table 4.28 provide the basis for the regression analysis described in the following section. The hypotheses of the study were not corroborated based on the results of the correlational analyses.

4.6 REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Based on the EFA that was conducted, Distributive Justice loaded on two factors, and a decision was made to create two sub-variables, Distributive Justice External and Distributive Internal. In view of these findings, the theoretical framework was revised to reflect these changes. Figure 4.1 displays the direct and indirect relationships that were tested using the regression analysis.



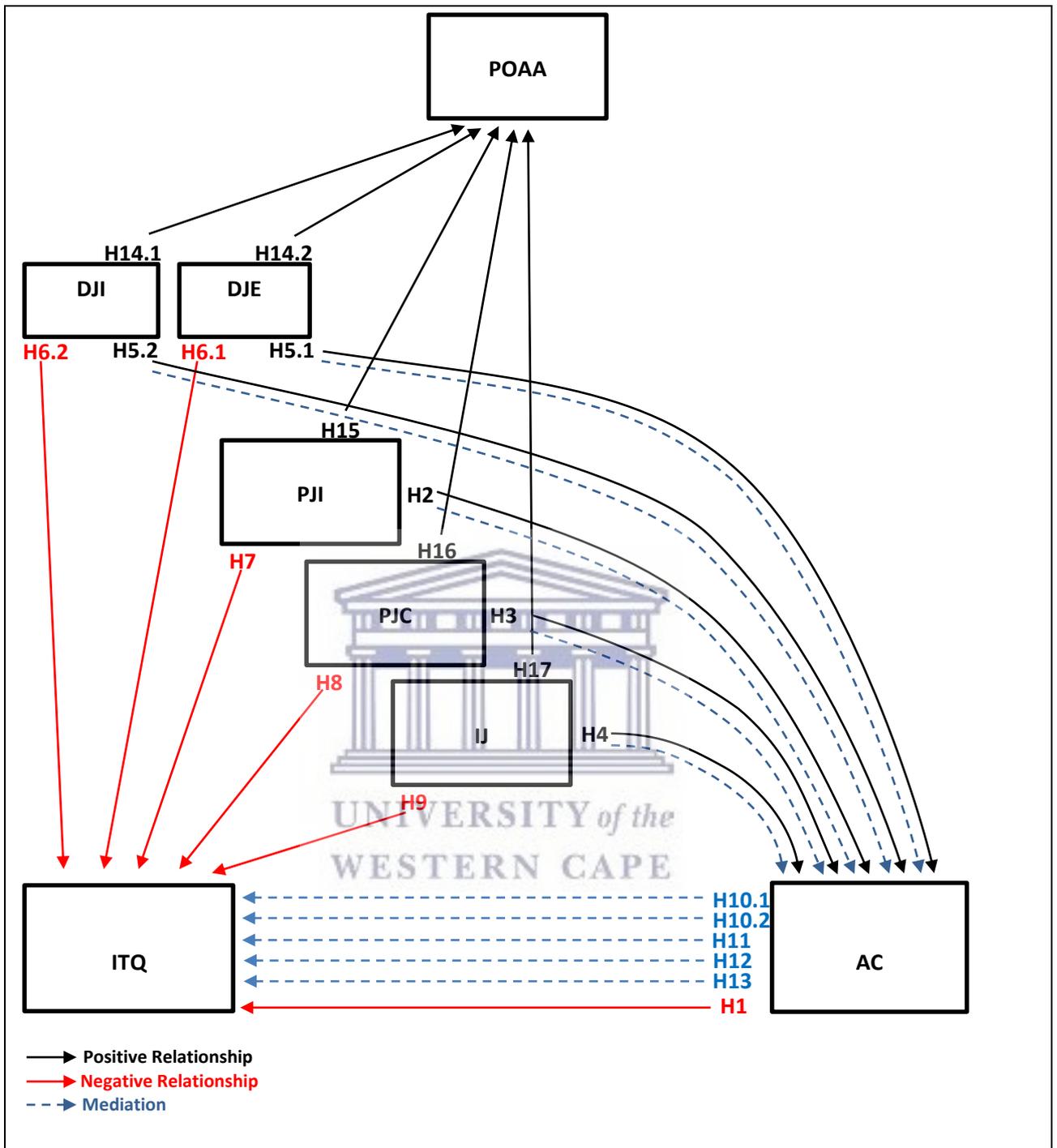


Figure 4.1: Theoretical Framework 4

It was decided to conduct a simple bivariate regression analysis to test the proposed relationships in the model empirically. The regression model in this case indicated that the six independent variables (Affective Commitment, Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice Input, Procedural Justice Criteria, Distributive Justice Internal and Distributive Justice External) in

combination had a significant influence in predicting Intention to Quit ($F = 31.780, p < .000$). The proposed predictive model accounts for 50.5% of the variance in Intention to Quit, and only Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment were significant predictors of Intention to Quit when entered into a multiple regression model.

However, when the hypotheses were operationalised with simple linear regression as opposed to multiple regression, most of independent variables significantly predicted the outcome variables. Table 4.29 displays the standard regression analysis results.

4.6.1 Direct relationships

In total, support was found for nine of the sixteen hypotheses. However, seven of the hypotheses (the null hypotheses) could not be rejected due to a non-significant F-test or the directions of the predicted relationships were not congruent with a priori theorising.



Table 4.29: Direct relationships: Results from the regression analysis (linear)

Hypothesis:	Beta value and statistical significance	R-squared value and F-test
H1: A negative relationship is predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit.	$B = -.676, p < .000$	$R^2 = .505, F = 31.780, p < .001$
H2: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment.	$B = .394, p < .001$	$R^2 = .155, F = 35.708, p < .001$
H3: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment.	$B = .343, p < .001$	$R^2 = .117, F = 25.946, p < .001$
H4: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment.	$B = .367, p < .001$	$R^2 = .135, F = 30.739, p < .001$
H5.1: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Affective Commitment.	$B = .212, p < .003$	$R^2 = .045, F = 9.257, p < .003$
H5.2: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice Internal and Affective Commitment.	$B = -.147, p < .039$	$R^2 = .022, F = 4.337, p < .039$
H6.1: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit.	$B = -.158, p < .026$	$R^2 = .025, F = 4.999, p < .026$
H6.2: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit.	$B = .154, p < .031$	$R^2 = .024, F = 4.716, p < .031$
H7: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit.	$B = -.423, p < .001$	$R^2 = .179, F = 41.736, p < .001$
H8: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit.	$B = -.377, p < .001$	$R^2 = .142, F = 32.069, p < .001$
H9: A negative relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit.	$B = -.415, p < .001$	$R^2 = .172, F = 40.547, p < .001$
H14.1: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice Internal and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$B = -.421, p < .001$	$R^2 = .177, F = 42.705, p < .001$
H14.2: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$B = .024, p < .736$	$R^2 = .001, F = 114, p < .736$
H15: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$B = .056, p < .434$	$R^2 = .003, F = .614, p < .434$
H16: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$B = .052, p < .471$	$R^2 = .003, F = .522, p < .471$
H17: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action.	$B = .051, p < .471$	$R^2 = .003, F = .521, p < .471$

In Hypothesis 1, a negative relationship was predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit. Results from the regression analysis demonstrate that a statistically negative

significant result was obtained ($B = -.676, p < .000$). This result indicates that empirical support was obtained for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment. The results based on the regression analysis demonstrate that a small positive and statistically significant result was obtained ($B = .394, p < .001$). This outcome indicates that empirical support was found for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment. Results from the regression analysis indicate that a small positive and statistically significant result was obtained ($B = .343, p < .001$). Thus, empirical support was found for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 predicted a positive relationship between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment. The outcome of the regression analysis indicated that a small positive and significant result was obtained ($B = .367, p < .001$). The result indicates that empirical support was obtained for Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 5.1 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice External and Affective Commitment. The results of the regression analysis indicated a small positive and statistically significant result ($B = .212, p < .003$). Thus, support was found for Hypothesis 5.1.

Hypothesis 5.2 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Affective Commitment. The results from the regression analysis that was conducted indicated a small negative and statistical significant result ($B = -.147, p < .030$). Thus, empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 5.2 since a positive relationship was hypothesised.

Hypothesis 6.1 predicted a negative relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit. The regression analysis results indicated a small negative and statistically significant result ($B = -.158, p < .026$). Thus, empirical support was found for Hypothesis 6.1.

Hypothesis 6.2 predicted a negative relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit. The results based on the regression analysis indicated a small positive and statistically significant result ($B = .154, p < .031$). Hence, empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 6.2 since a negative relationship was originally hypothesised but a positive relationship was found.

Hypothesis 7 predicted a negative relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit. The results based on the regression analysis indicated a moderately negative and statistically significant result ($B = -.423, p < .001$). Thus, empirical support was found for Hypothesis 7.

Hypothesis 8 predicted a negative relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit. The results from the regression analysis that was conducted indicated a weak negative and statistically significant result ($B = -.377, p < .001$). Thus, empirical support was found for Hypothesis 8.

Hypothesis 9 predicted a negative relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit. The results based on the regression analysis indicated a moderately negative and statistically significant result ($B = -.415, p < .001$). Thus, empirical support was found for Hypothesis 9.

Hypothesis 14.1 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Results from the regression analysis suggested that a moderately negative and statistically significant result was found ($B = -.421, p < .001$). This result indicated that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 14.1 since the reported relationship was not congruent with the original hypothesised relationship.

Hypothesis 14.2 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice External and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Results from the regression analysis indicated that a small positive and non-significant result was obtained ($B = .024, p < .736$). This result indicated that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 14.2.

Hypothesis 15 predicted a positive relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Results from the regression analysis indicated that a weak positive but non-significant result was found ($B = .056, p < .434$). This result demonstrates that empirical support was not obtained for Hypothesis 15.

Hypothesis 16 predicted a positive relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Results from the regression analysis demonstrated that a small positive and non-significant result was found ($B = .052, p < .471$). This result indicates that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 16.

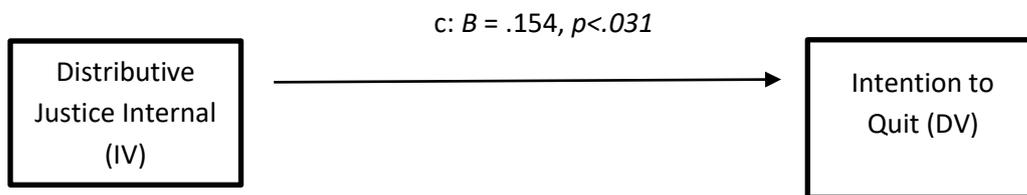
Hypothesis 17 predicted a positive relationship between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Results based on the regression analysis demonstrated that a small positive but non-significant result was found ($B = .051, p < .471$). The results indicate that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 17.

4.6.2 Indirect relationships

Hypothesis 10.1 predicted that the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. The results from the regression analysis conducted demonstrated that the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment ($B = .098, p < .001$).



A) Direct pathway



B) Indirect or mediated pathway

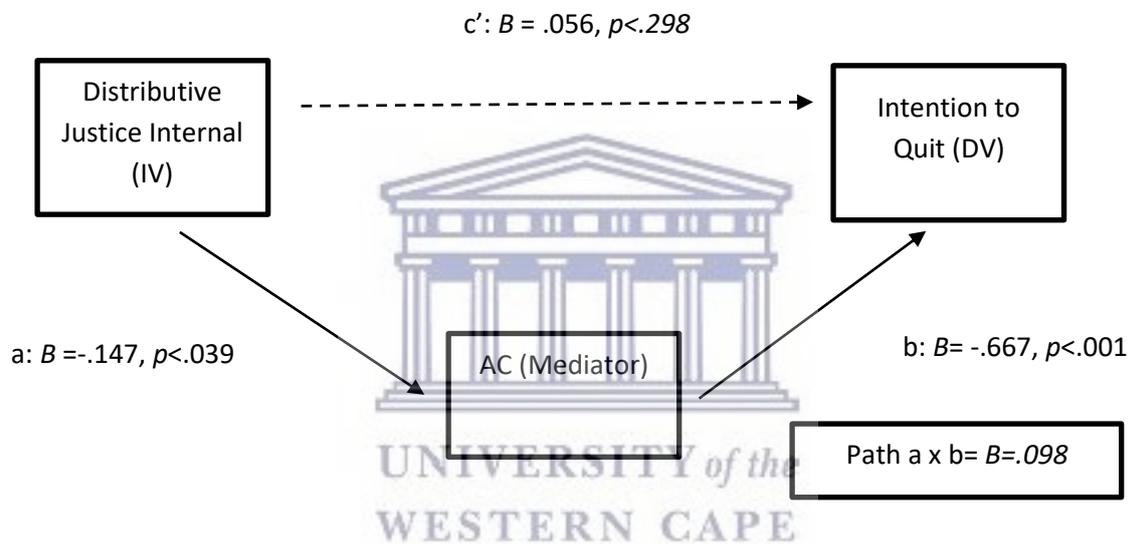


Figure 4.2: Mediation analysis between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit

Table 4.30: Coefficients for the mediating effect for Hypothesis 10.1

Testing Paths	Unstandardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Standard Error (SE) (<i>B</i>)	Standardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Sr ²
Path c DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² =.024, <i>F</i> = 4.716, <i>p</i> <.031				
IV: Distributive Justice Internal	.130	.060	.154*	0.0237
Path a DV: Affective Commitment				
<i>R</i> ² =.022, <i>F</i> = 4.337, <i>p</i> <.039				
IV= Distributive Justice Internal	-.163	.078	-.147	0.0216
Paths b and c' DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² =.460, <i>F</i> = 82.467, <i>p</i> <.001				
IV: (c)	.047	.045	.056	0.0031
IV: (b)	-.507	.041	-.667**	0.4448
Total (a) * (b)			.098**	

SE refers to Standard Error

Sr² refers to Semi-Partial

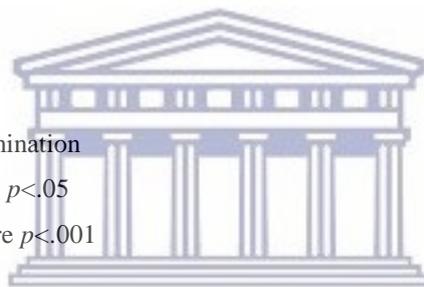
DV refers to Dependent Variable

IV refers to Independent Variable

*R*² refers to the Coefficient of Determination

* Refers to a significant result where *p*<.05

** Refers to a significant result where *p*<.001

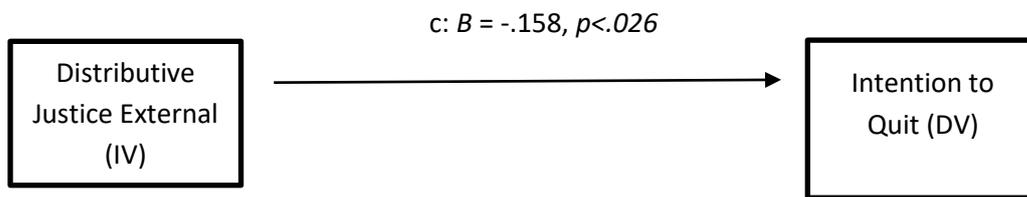


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The relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit may be regarded as full mediation since this relationship changed from a statistically significant relationship in step 1 (*B* = .154, *p*<.031) to a non-significant relationship in step 3 when the mediator variable Affective Commitment was included in the multiple regression equation (*B* = .056, *p*<.298). This indicates that empirical support was found for Hypothesis 10.1 and the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit is fully mediated by Affective Commitment. The total indirect effect was 0.098, indicating that the indirect effect explained 9.8% of the variance in the total mediation model when taking the impact of the direct effect into consideration.

Hypothesis 10.2 predicted that the relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. The results based on the conducted regression analysis indicated that the relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment (*B* = -.142, *p*<.001).

A) Direct pathway



B) Indirect or mediated pathway

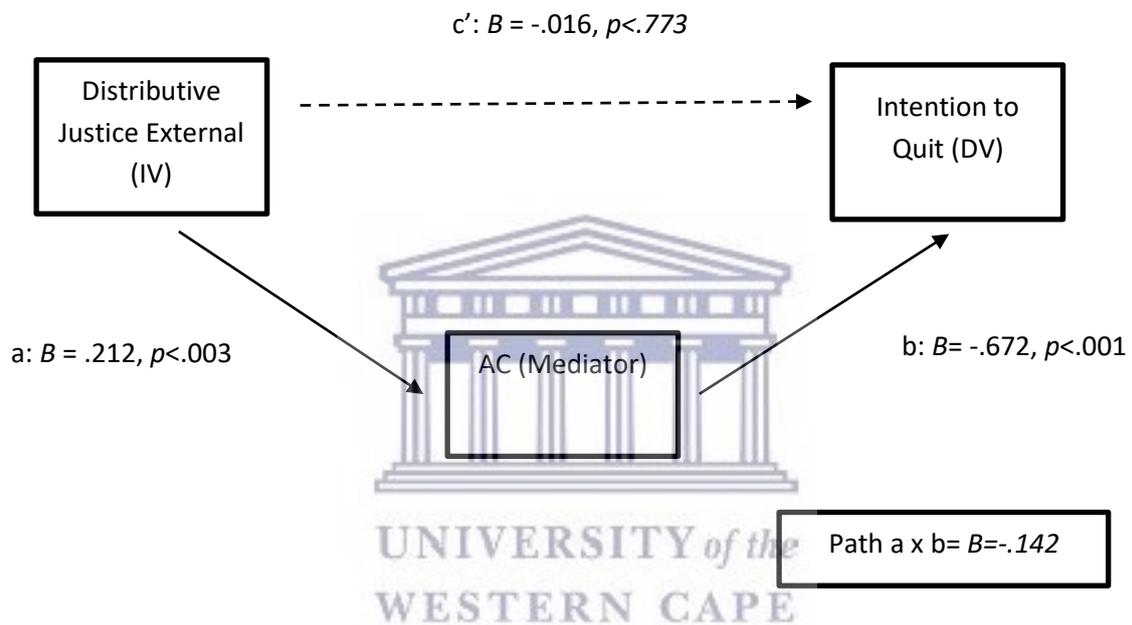


Figure 4.3: Mediation analysis between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit

Table 4.31: Coefficients for the mediating effect for Hypothesis 10.2

Testing Paths	Unstandardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Standard Error (SE) (<i>B</i>)	Standardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Sr ²
Path c DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .025, <i>F</i> = 4.999, <i>p</i> < .026				
IV: Distributive Justice External	-.132	.059	-.158*	0.0249
Path a DV: Affective Commitment				
<i>R</i> ² = .045, <i>F</i> = 9.257, <i>p</i> < .003				
IV= Distributive Justice External	.233	.076	.212*	0.0449
Paths b and c' DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .457, <i>F</i> = 81.541, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV: (c)	-.013	.045	-.016	0.0002
IV: (b)	-.511	.041	-.672**	0.4515
Total (a) * (b)			-.142**	

SE refers to Standard Error

Sr² refers to Semi-Partial

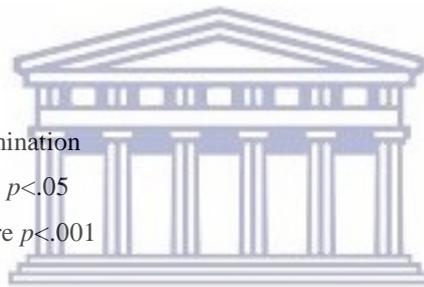
DV refers to Dependent Variable

IV refers to Independent Variable

*R*² refers to the Coefficient of Determination

* Refers to a significant result where *p* < .05

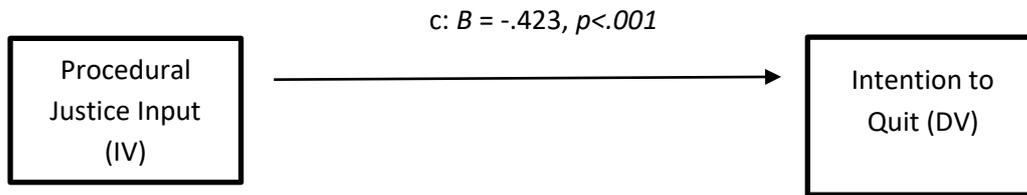
** Refers to a significant result where *p* < .001



The relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit may be regarded as fully mediated since the relationship changed from a statistically significant relationship in step 1 (*B* = -.158, *p* < .026) to a non-significant relationship in step 3 when the mediator variable Affective Commitment was included in the multiple regression equation (*B* = -.016, *p* < .773). This indicated that empirical support was found for Hypothesis 10.2. The total indirect effect was -0.142, showing that the indirect effect displayed 14.2% of the variance in the total mediation model when considering the direct effect.

Hypothesis 11 predicted that the relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. The results from the regression analysis demonstrated that the relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is partially mediated by Affective Commitment (*B* = -.238, *p* < .001).

A) Direct pathway



B) Indirect or mediated pathway

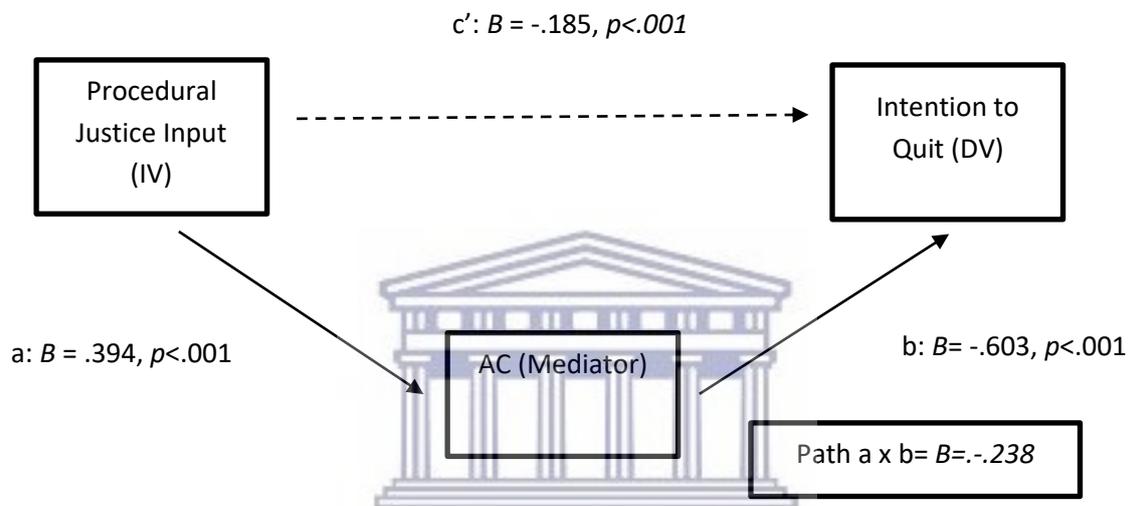


Figure 4.4: Mediation analysis between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit

Table 4.32: Coefficients for the mediating effect for Hypothesis 11

Testing Paths	Unstandardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Standard Error (SE) (<i>B</i>)	Standardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Sr ²
Path c DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .179, <i>F</i> = 41.736, <i>p</i> < .000				
IV: Procedural Justice Input	-.349	.054	-.423**	0.1789
Path a DV: Affective Commitment				
<i>R</i> ² = .155, <i>F</i> = 35.708, <i>p</i> < .000				
IV= Procedural Justice Input	.428	.072	.394**	0.1552
Paths b and c' DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .485, <i>F</i> = 90.065, <i>p</i> < .000				
IV: (c)	-.153	.047	-.185**	0.0342
IV: (b)	-.458	.043	-.603**	0.3636
Total (a) * (b)			-.238**	

SE refers to Standard Error

Sr² refers to Semi-partial

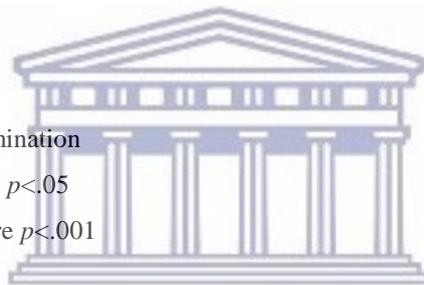
DV refers to Dependent Variable

IV refers to Independent Variable

*R*² refers to the Coefficient of Determination

* Refers to a significant result where *p* < .05

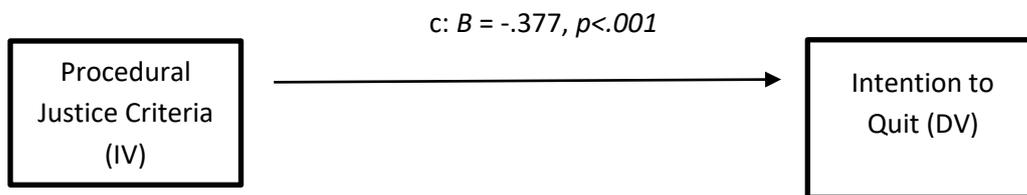
** Refers to a significant result where *p* < .001



The relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit may not be regarded as fully mediated since the relationship did not change from a statistically significant relationship in step 1 (*B* = -.423, *p* < .001) to a non-significant result in step 3 when the mediator variable Affective Commitment was included in the multiple regression equation (*B* = -.185, *p* < .001). However, the beta coefficient decreased significantly from -.423 in step one to -.185 in step 3, which indicates that the relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is only partially mediated by Affective Commitment. Therefore, empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 11. The total indirect effect was -0.238. This shows that the indirect effect explained 23.8% of the variance in the overall mediation model when taking the impact of the direct effect into account.

Hypothesis 12 predicted that the relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. The results from the regression analysis demonstrated that the relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is partially mediated by Affective Commitment (*B* = -.212, *p* < .001).

A) Direct pathway



B) Indirect or mediated pathway

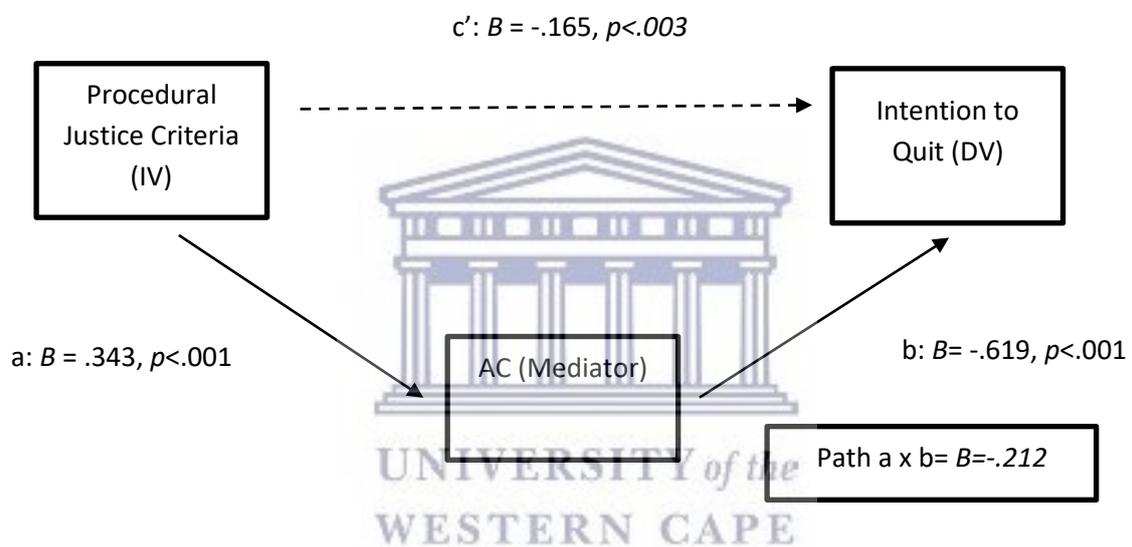


Figure 4.5: Mediation analysis between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit

Table 4.33: Coefficients for the mediating effect for Hypothesis 12

Testing Paths	Unstandardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Standard Error (SE) (<i>B</i>)	Standardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Sr ²
Path c DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .142, <i>F</i> = 32.069, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV: Procedural Justice Criteria	-.303	.054	-.377**	0.1421
Path a DV: Affective Commitment				
<i>R</i> ² = .117, <i>F</i> = 25.946, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV= Procedural Justice Criteria	.362	.071	.343**	0.1176
Paths b and c' DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .481, <i>F</i> = 88.831, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV: (c)	-.133	.044	-.165*	0.0272
IV: (b)	-.471	.042	-.619**	0.3831
Total (a) * (b)			-.212**	

SE refers to Standard Error

Sr² refers to Semi-Partial

DV refers to Dependent Variable

IV refers to Independent Variable

*R*² refers to the Coefficient of Determination

* Refers to a significant result where *p* < .05

** Refers to a significant result where *p* < .001

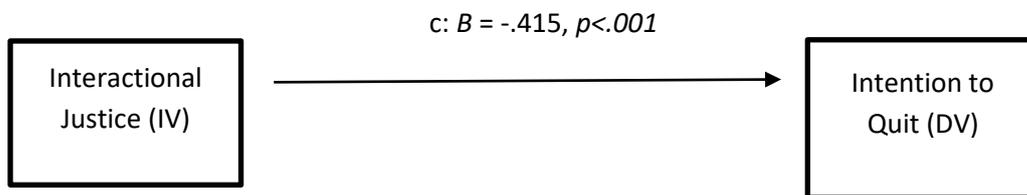


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The relationship Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit may not be regarded as fully mediated since this relationship did not change from a statistically significant relationship in step 1 (*B* = -.377, *p* < .001) to a non-significant relationship in step 3 when the mediator variable Affective Commitment was included in the multiple regression equation (*B* = -.165, *p* < .003). However, the beta coefficient decreased significantly from -.377 in step one to -.165 in step 3, which indicates that the relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit is partially mediated by Affective Commitment. This demonstrates that empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 12. The total indirect effect was -0.212, indicating that the indirect effect accounted for 21.2% of the variance in the total mediation model when considering the direct effect.

Hypothesis 13 predicted that the relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. The results from the regression analysis conducted demonstrated that the relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is partially mediated by Affective Commitment (*B* = -.222, *p* < .001)

A) Direct pathway



B) Indirect or mediated pathway

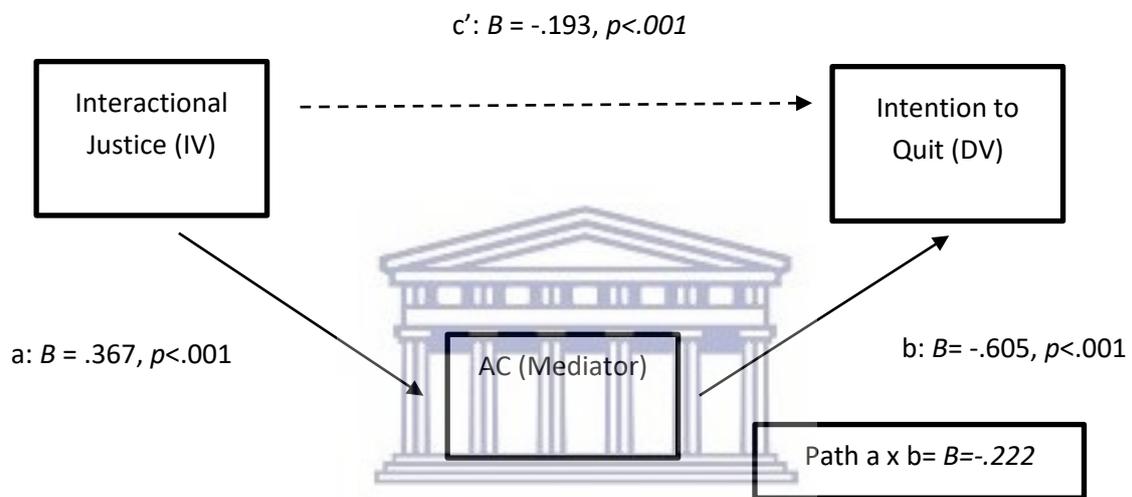


Figure 4.6: Mediation analysis between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit

Table 4.34: Coefficients for the mediating effect for Hypothesis 13

Testing Paths	Unstandardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Standard Error (SE) (<i>B</i>)	Standardised Beta (<i>B</i>)	Sr ²
Path c DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .172, <i>F</i> = 40.547, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV: Interactional Justice	-.358	.056	-.415**	0.1722
Path a DV: Affective Commitment				
<i>R</i> ² = .135, <i>F</i> = 30.739, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV= Interactional Justice	.417	.075	.367**	0.1346
Paths b and c' DV = Intention to Quit				
<i>R</i> ² = .489, <i>F</i> = 92.672, <i>p</i> < .001				
IV: (c)	-.166	.048	-.193**	0.0372
IV: (b)	-.469	.042	-.605**	0.3660
Total (a) * (b)			-.222**	

SE refers to Standard Error

Sr² refers to Semi-Partial

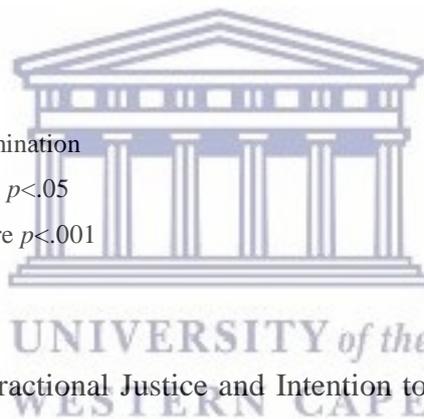
DV refers to Dependent Variable

IV refers to Independent Variable

*R*² refers to the Coefficient of Determination

* Refers to a significant result where *p* < .05

** Refers to a significant result where *p* < .001



The relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit may not be regarded as fully mediated since the relationship did not change from a statistically significant relationship in step 1 (*B* = -.415, *p* < .001) to a non-significant relationship in step 3 when the mediator variable Affective Commitment was included in the multiple regression equation (*B* = -.193, *p* < .001). However, the beta coefficient decreased significantly from -.415 in step one to -.193 in step 3, which indicates that the relationship between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit is only partially mediated by Affective Commitment. Thus, empirical support was not found for Hypothesis 13. The total indirect effect was -0.222, indicating that the indirect effect explained 22.2% of the variance in the total mediation model when taking the impact of the direct effect into consideration.

It was predicted that Affective Commitment is a mediator between Organisational Justice and Intention to Quit. It was found that the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal, Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment.

4.7 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to operationalise the primary hypotheses formulated in the literature review chapter. Chapter 4 initially explained how missing values were analysed and managed. This was followed by the results of the item analysis that determined reliability and the factor analysis that determined the validity of the measuring tools used. The substantive hypotheses were empirically tested by means of simple linear regression and multiple regression in the case of mediation analyses. The results indicated that support was found for most of the a priori hypotheses. However, empirical support was not found for some of the bivariate relationships.

The findings are discussed in more detail in the following chapter, and specific reference is made to the hypotheses that did not receive empirical support. Chapter 5 also focuses on the limitations of the study and suggests avenues for future research emanating from the current study.



CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary research question in the study was centred around the relationship between the perceptions of affirmative action on organisational justice, commitment and intention to quit. The primary goal was to conceptualise a theoretical model that captures the intricate relationship between the aforementioned variables. Chapter 2 examined the relevant literature and laid the theoretical foundation for the theoretical model that was conceptualised and empirically tested. The literature examined the relationships between the following variables, Perceptions of Affirmative Action, Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice, Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit. Descriptions of the relationships between these variables culminated in a structural model that was operationalised with an ex post facto correlational research design. Chapter 3 described the sample and the methods used to collect and analyse the data. Chapter 4 presented the findings of the data analyses. The aim of the current chapter is to discuss the findings in more detail, specifically the hypotheses for which limited or no empirical support was found. Furthermore, this chapter provides a view of the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and information for managers and organisations.

5.2 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The focal variable in the current investigation was Intention to Quit. In the knowledge economy, human resources remain a strategic asset and their motivation and commitment are directly linked to the sustainability and success of organisations. However, turnover intentions are shaped by a myriad of factors that interact in a complex web of causal relationships that cannot be examined simultaneously. For this reason, the study focused on some of the most prevalent drivers of turnover intention in the South African context by specifically investigating the financial services industry.

This study unpacked certain variables that could have an impact on an employee's view of organisational justice, which in turn could influence the employee's perceptions of affirmative action, affective commitment and intention to quit.

The overarching research objective claims that the proposed model depicted in Figure 4.1 provides a valid account of the psychological mechanism that drives intention to quit among managers in the financial services industry. The theoretical model presented in Chapter 2 can be broken down into 21 specific direct and indirect hypotheses. The results of the statistical analyses are presented in the following section.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE RELIABILITY AND UNIDIMENSIONALITY OF THE MEASURING INSTRUMENT

To determine the relationships between the variables and to have confidence in the findings, the measuring tools used to operationalise latent variables needed to be evaluated to ensure they were reliable and valid. Item analysis was used to determine the reliability of the measuring tool. Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the unidimensionality and validity of the tool. A brief summary of the results are presented in the subsequent section.

5.3.1 Summary of unidimensionality results

Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the unidimensionality of the subscales used to compile the overall measuring tool. The aim was to determine whether or not the items saliently loaded on a single dimension. Measures that were not unidimensional were split up, and problematic items were deleted in order to achieve simple factor models (Matsunaga, 2010). In this study, EFA was used to confirm the dimensionality of the variables. Exploratory factor analysis could also be employed to assess the strength of the relationship between the latent variable and the indicator variables used to reflect the latent construct. In general, the factor structure of Intention to Quit, Affective Commitment, Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice Input and Procedural Justice Criteria seems to be unidimensional.

Initially, the Affirmative Action subscale split into two factors, but only two items loaded on the second factor. It was, therefore, decided to delete these two items since they did not form a

theoretical sub-component of the Affirmative Action construct. The remaining items loaded on a single factor with robust factor loadings.

Exploratory factor analysis indicated that Distributive Justice split into two subscales. When analysing the items further, it was confirmed that one factor focused on distributive justice from an internal perspective and the other from an external perspective. A decision was made to create two separate factors, Distributive Justice External (Factor 1) and Distributive Justice Internal (Factor 2). After splitting this scale, the two sub-dimensions were unidimensional.

5.3.2 Summary of reliability results

After each measure was subjected to EFA, the internal consistency of each measure was assessed with an item analysis. It is good practice to use measuring instruments that yield appropriate reliability and validity estimates in correlational research designs. The goal of item analyses is to assess the overall reliability of measures, and a normative cut-off value of .70 is typically indicative of a measure that is internally consistent (Pallant, 2010).

The item analysis that was conducted confirmed that all measures yielded a reliability coefficient that was 0.70 or greater (.721 to .916). See Table 5.1. Therefore, it was confirmed that the measuring tool used in this study was reliable.

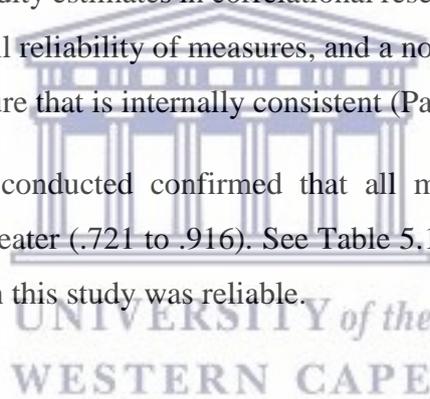
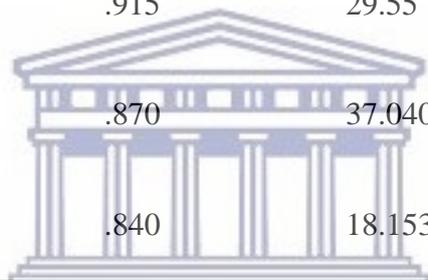


Table 5.1: Reliability analysis results of the subscales

Subscale	Number of scales	Cronbach's alpha	Mean	Variance
Affirmative Action	4	.797	19.2513	19.724
Distributive Justice External	4	.812	15.22	20.706
Distributive Justice Internal	3	.721	8.83	11.368
Procedural Justice Input	7	.905	23.09	64.498
Procedural Justice Criteria	6	.916	21.28	50.102
Interactional Justice	8	.915	29.55	77.004
Affective Commitment	8	.870	37.0406	100.264
Intention to Quit	6	.840	18.1538	32.420



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5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE DIRECT THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIPS

The primary goal of the current study was to conceptualise a theoretical model that would depict the workings between Justice, Perceptions of Affirmative Action and Affective Commitment on Intention to Quit. The model proposed a number of direct and indirect relationships that are graphically depicted in Figure 5.1 below.

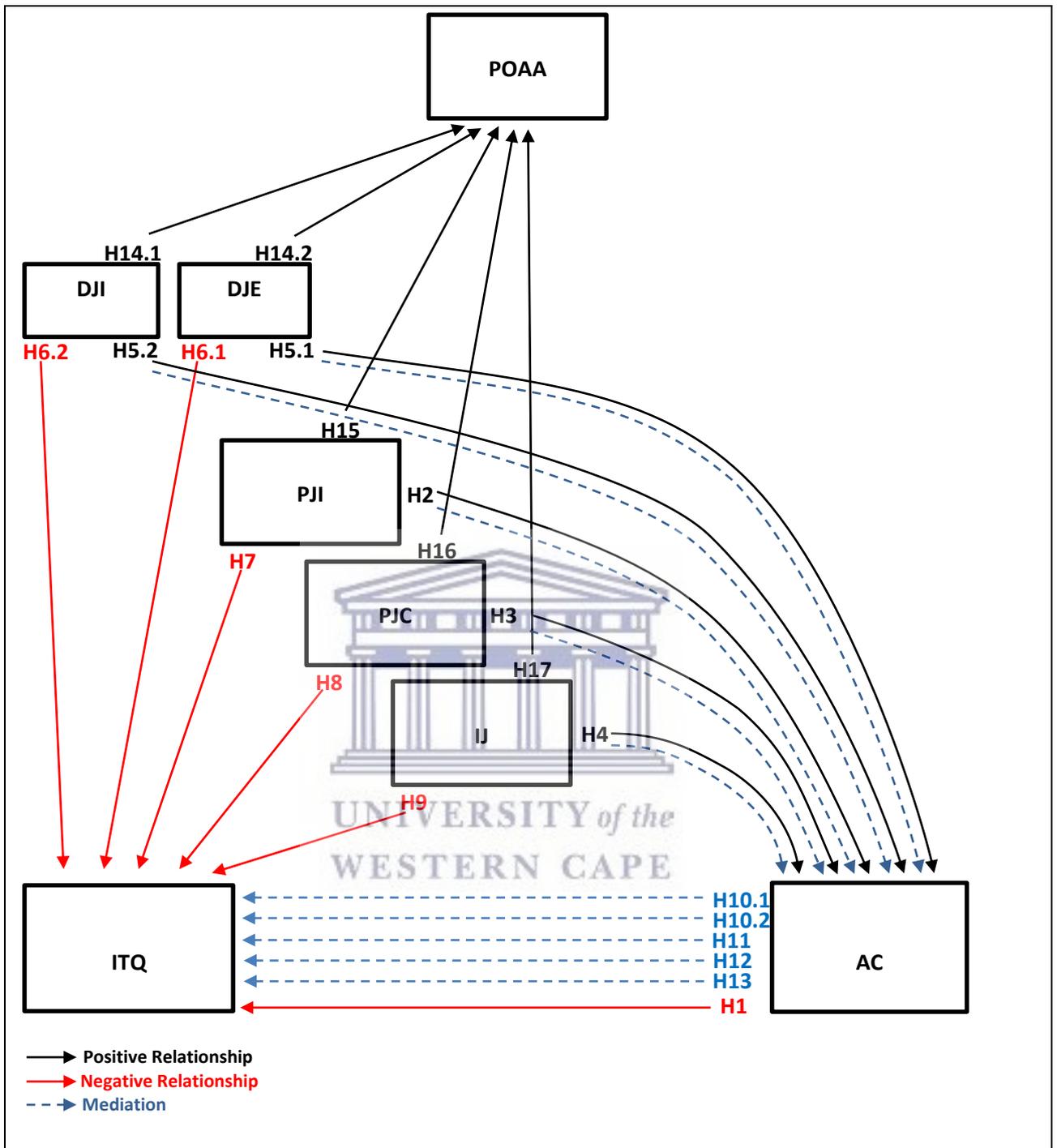


Figure 5.1: Graphical representation of proposed model

Figure 5.1 provides an overview of the linkages for which support was found. As can be seen, none of the proposed relationships regarding the Perceptions of Affirmative Action received support.

Based on the empirical results, support was largely found for the proposed relationships that are indicated below. The following hypotheses survived the opportunity to be refuted and were thus supported by the data:

Hypothesis 1: A negative relationship is predicted between Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 2: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 3: A positive relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 4: A positive relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 5.1: A positive relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Affective Commitment.

Hypothesis 6.1: A negative relationship is predicted between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 7: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 8: A negative relationship is predicted between Procedural Justice Criteria and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 9: A negative relationship is predicted between Interactional Justice and Intention to Quit.

The findings indicate that the proposed model is a credible representation of how justice, commitment and intention to quit interact in the world of work. However, almost no support was found for the relationships with Perceptions of Affirmative Action.

To understand why support was not found for certain hypotheses, the author examined the available literature.

Hypothesis 5.2 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Affective Commitment. The results indicated a negative statistically significant relationship,

which contradicted the original hypothesis. It is important to recruit and retain employees in such a way that they develop an emotional attachment to the organisation. However, in many organisations, this is not the case (Dockel, Basson, & Coetzee, 2006). For example, there are still perceptions of favouritism within internal recruitment practices and outcomes. Additionally, employees who have the knowledge and skills may still not experience the promotions or opportunities that other employees receive. This could be due to transformation efforts resulting from the affirmative action initiatives that have been implemented (Coetzee & Bezuidenhout, 2011). This may be particularly true regarding internal promotions and the allocation of resources. For example, white males could be experiencing lower levels of affective commitment because they may believe that policies and procedures in the organisation (especially those related to affirmative action) are just, but since such strategies are of no benefit to them, they may become more detached from the organisation. Thus, as perceptions of distributive justice increase, perceptions of affective commitment decrease. This may not be an unrealistic hypothesis since 23.4% of the sample consisted of white respondents who may not regard affirmative action as it is currently implemented in the organisation to be just and this, in turn, is likely to affect their affective commitment to the organisation.

Hypothesis 6.2 predicted a negative relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit. The null hypothesis could not be rejected for this hypothesis since the results indicated a positive relationship between the two variables, which is contrary to previously published literature. Research suggests that distributive justice has a significant impact on an employee's intention to leave the organisation. When employees feel that resources are not fairly distributed within the organisation, they may quit their current role or position and look for opportunities that distribute resources in a more just way. According to Ponnu and Chuah (2010) and Johan, Talib, Joseph, and Mooketsag (2013), if opportunities are unavailable or unattractive, employees may emotionally or mentally withdraw from the organisation, which could increase employees' intention to quit.

Based on these findings and the finding of a negative relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit, it could be argued that the internal sub-dimension may capitalise on some nuanced feature of distributive justice that is dissimilar to the external dimension. When investigating the items that comprised Distributive Justice Internal, one can understand why there is a positive relationship between the construct and Intention to Quit. The items that comprised the dimension Distributive Justice Internal are as follows: Less qualified applicants are appointed/promoted; there are unrealistically high salaries for AA members; and Black

managers are given token positions. From this perspective, the results make sense because all three items capitalise on a lack of distributive justice, and most of the respondents in the sample were from non-designated groups.

This would explain the finding that an increase in perceived distributive injustice internally, especially the belief that opportunities are not distributed fairly among all employees in the organisation, increases employees' intentions to leave. This may be particularly true in the current sample that included a large group of white males.

Hypothesis 14.1 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. However, a negative relationship was found as discussed in Chapter 4. The reason for the negative relationship is probably similar to that of the previous hypotheses that included Distributive Justice Internal. Considering the items comprising Distributive Justice Internal, one can understand that the relationship with Perceptions of Affirmative Action is negative. However, perhaps an alternative explanation could be offered. Since affirmative action is contrary to the basic tenets of distributive justice, one can see why the relationship may be negative. Non-designated groups may feel that the affirmative action approach is reverse discrimination and, therefore, view the concept as unfair. From an affirmative action perspective, the way that resources and opportunities are distributed internally could, in reality, be increasing perceptions of injustice (Esterhuizen & Martins, 2008).

Hypothesis 14.2 predicted a positive relationship between Distributive Justice External and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. While the result was positive, it was not statistically significant. This means that the result could be due to chance and thus, further investigation is required to verify the relationship. In the current study, no support was found for the relationship.

Hypothesis 15 predicted a positive relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Results indicated a small positive but non-statistically significant result. Similarly, Hypothesis 16 predicted a positive relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. Again, a small positive but non-significant result was obtained. Literature suggests that when employees are given the opportunity to provide input in decisions and criteria regarding the way that affirmative action initiatives are implemented, they are more inclined to view affirmative action positively (Coetzee, 2005). In the current study, only a few respondents regarded affirmative action as

fair based on having input in the procedures followed when carrying out affirmative action initiatives. The more that respondents viewed the organisation as practising procedural justice, the more likely they were to consider affirmative action initiatives as fair. The respondents (higher management) who indicated that they had input in the decisions regarded the processes and criteria as fair and in turn viewed affirmative action as fair. However, other respondents may not have had input in the decisions or criteria used and, therefore, the result obtained was not significant.

Hypothesis 17 predicted a positive relationship between Interactional Justice and Perceptions of Affirmative Action. A small positive but non-significant relationship was found. Research suggests that employees who are treated with dignity and respect and are given information about why things are done are likely to have a fair perception of affirmative action (Coetzee & Bezuidenhout, 2011). However, this result indicates that this idea may be wishful thinking. It is likely that the majority of the sample did not perceive affirmative action as just, which was specifically salient from the perspective of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice. The results obtained were surprising since one would expect interactional justice and procedural justice to be positively related to perceptions of affirmative action. However, the perceptions probably depend on one's group status. Unfortunately, the current study did not investigate the moderating effect of race and gender on the relationship between justice and affirmative action. However, this possibly provides important clues as to why all three relationships were found to be non-significant in the current study.

It is also important to consider potential methodological reasons for the non-significant results. A Type 1 error (false-positive) arises if the null hypothesis is rejected when in reality, it is a true depiction of the population. A Type II error (false-negative) occurs when the null hypothesis is not rejected but should have been since in reality, it is not a true representation of the population (Banerjee, Chitnis, Jadhav, Bhawalker, & Chaudhury, 2009). Correlational studies with small sample sizes could be susceptible to Type I or Type II errors, and results should be interpreted carefully (Knudson & Lindsey, 2014). Due to the limited sample size in the current study, it is not possible to rule out the impact of Type II errors, suggesting that the null hypotheses that were not rejected should have been rejected in reality. From time to time, a sample may not be representative of the population by coincidence. When this happens, it means that the sample is not a true reflection of reality, which could lead to inaccurate inferences (Banerjee et al., 2009). Although type I and type II errors can never be avoided entirely, the investigator can reduce their likelihood by increasing the sample size (the larger

the sample, the lesser is the likelihood that it will differ substantially from the population). (Banerjee et al., 2009)

5.5 DISCUSSION OF THE INDIRECT THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIPS

The theoretical model conceptualised in Chapter 2 included a number of indirect effects in the form of mediated relationships. Empirical support was found for hypotheses 10.1 and 10.2. Each of the relationships are explained in the following section.

Hypothesis 10.1 proposed that the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. Empirical results demonstrated that the relationship between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit is fully mediated by Affective Commitment. This is an important finding since Affective Commitment acts as the relaying mechanism between Distributive Justice Internal and Intention to Quit. For managers, this is an interesting finding since low perceptions of distributive justice are likely to lead to intention to quit. However, high levels of Affective Commitment may intervene between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit.

Hypothesis 10.2 proposed that the relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. Similar to Hypothesis 10.1, the relationship between Distributive Justice External and Intention to Quit was fully mediated by Affective Commitment. The psychological mechanism and practical implications of this finding is important for managers insofar as justice may lead to turnover intentions via affective commitment. Thus, organisations that promote affirmative action should try to promote affective commitment in order to reduce the impact on intention to quit. The findings from the current study indicate that employees do not regard affirmative action as fair from a distributive justice perspective.

Hypothesis 11 proposed that the relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit is mediated by Affective Commitment. Based on the analysis conducted and reported in Chapter 4, the strength of the relationship decreased when Affective Commitment was added as a mediator to the relationship. However, the relationship between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit was still statistically significant. This may suggest partial mediation of Affective Commitment between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit. This result can be interpreted to mean that the direct relationship between Procedural Justice Input and

Intention to Quit is important, even when Affective Commitment is added as a mediator. This may suggest that higher levels of Procedural Justice Input are likely to lead to lower levels of Intention to Quit, even when a high level of Affective Commitment is present. This may indicate that Affective Commitment is not as potent a mediator in this relationship as it is in the relationship between Distributive Justice and Intention to Quit.

Regarding the direct relationship, a negative relationship was predicted and found between Procedural Justice Input and Intention to Quit. This means that respondents who had an increase in Procedural Justice Input within the organisation had lower levels of Intention to Quit. This result remained the same whether Affective Commitment was added or not. Therefore, when investigating Affective Commitment as a mediator, affective commitment increases when people are able to give input in decisions in the organisation and in turn, decreases the intention to quit. The same view can be taken when considering why Affective Commitment did not mediate the relationship between Procedural Justice Criteria (Hypothesis 12) and Interactional Justice (Hypothesis 13) and Intention to Quit.

5.6 MANAGERIAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

High costs are associated with turnover of employees. Therefore, it is in the best interest of the organisation to implement or to enhance policies and practices that will decrease the turnover intention of employees. As organisations promote affirmative action in the workplace, it is particularly important not to alienate skilled and productive workers who do not belong to designated groups. This can be achieved through the manager's understanding of the factors that contribute to the increase or decrease of an employee's intention to quit. Additionally, by identifying and understanding these influences, managers will be better equipped to deal with the matter proactively, thus decreasing intention to quit as opposed to dealing with turnover costs.

Affective Commitment was identified as the major predictor of Intention to Quit among employees. These insights can be built into managerial and people strategies to ensure interventions are implemented that reduce the intention to quit of employees. As reported by the study, the implementation of such strategies is predicted to increase the affective commitment levels of employees and to reduce their intention to quit. Ultimately, it is suggested that organisations enhance affective commitment among their employees. This may

be difficult while trying to promote affirmative action and workplace diversity. In this regard, organisations need to ensure that they apply fair policies regarding interactional and procedural justice. However, the results of this study suggest that this may not be enough if employees perceive affirmative action as an unfair form of distributive justice.

In addition to managers' understanding of the various factors, management should be trained to implement interventions that will enhance employees' affective commitment and diminish their intentions to quit. The proposed model indicated the internal workings between Distributive Justice, Procedural Justice, Interactional Justice and how these variables are linked to Affective Commitment and Intention to Quit. Overwhelming support was found for the mediating role of affective commitment between justice perceptions and intention to quit. Herein lies an important practical implication for managers – an emotional attachment to the organisation must be fostered since such an attachment is likely to mediate a subordinate's intention to quit. Affirmative action as a prominent legal lever used in post-apartheid South African society to redistribute wealth and opportunities among more equitable lines still applies and is unlikely to be phased out in the near future. Thus, managers should equip themselves with strategies to attract the best candidates from designated groups without alienating competent and high-performing individuals from non-designated groups.

Based on the results obtained, Distributive Justice Internal, Procedural Justice Input, Procedural Justice Criteria and Interactional Justice demonstrated a negative relationship with Affirmative Action. It is suggested that organisations ensure that the affirmative action plans that they implement are fair, transparent and defensible. According to Esterhuizen and Martins (2008) and Kovach, Kravitz, and Hughes (2004), the only approach for organisations to promote equity and diversity in a way that reduces perceptions of reverse discrimination is to be fair and transparent. Another aspect that needs to be considered is Employment Equity and Affirmative Action training to explain the importance and the reasons for these initiatives. Employees are more likely to view the initiatives as positive if they understand why they are necessary. Organisations should also follow an integrated approach. According to Esterhuizen and Martins (2008), the focus should be on applying best practice that includes training and development, transparent communication and fair processes in addition to creating an inclusive and diverse culture. These best practices should be based on distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice while ensuring that they abide by legislation.

5.7 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

While the study displayed valuable insights into certain factors that have a direct influence on intention to quit and affective commitment, it is important to highlight the limitations of the study.

A limitation of this research is that the study made use of a self-report measure. McDonald (2008) highlighted a number of challenges associated with self-report measures. Self-reports can be susceptible to response bias, with respondents attempting to present themselves favourably through their answers rather than demonstrating how they truly feel or what they really perceive. Other tendencies associated with self-report measures involve ‘acquiescent’ responding (McDonald, 2008). This occurs when respondents agree with a statement in the measure without trying to understand what it means. Furthermore, self-reports may be prone to ‘extreme responding’. In such cases, respondents agree/disagree with the extreme ends of the Likert scales without giving the statement full consideration. These tendencies create concern since they will affect the validity of the measure. Extreme responding may be a type of defence mechanism, especially when reflecting on sensitive issues such as race, affirmative action and identity.

Perhaps the most important methodological limitation is related to mono-method bias, also known as common-method variance (Spector, 2006). This refers to using the same method for assessing all variables. In this study, questionnaires were mainly used to collect the data. This type of bias has important implications for the overall validity of the results of the study. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, mono-method bias influences the numbers that are generated. For example, if a socially sensitive issue is investigated, respondents who are high in social desirability will be likely to underreport on the negative aspects. Secondly, if the same method is used to assess two variables with a common source of bias, it is likely that the correlation will be inflated (Chen, Dai, Spector, & Jex, 1997; Spector, 2006). Hence, it is suggested that methods to reduce these tendencies are considered. To combat these tendencies and to decrease the effects of acquiescence bias, the construction of the questionnaire can be improved by balancing the scoring key of the survey (McDonald, 2008; Paulhus & Vazire, 2007).

The limitations associated with the generalisability of the study to the broader industry must also be considered. The population was selected from one organisation within the financial services sector. This means that the results of the study cannot be generalised to other organisations within the financial services sector. Therefore, it is suggested that multiple

organisations are included in future research so that the results are more representative of the greater population. Furthermore, non-probability sampling was used in selecting the sample. Being able to identify possible bias is considered a limitation of this approach since bias can affect the overall validity of the results. It is recommended that future research make use of probability sampling to increase control over possible bias within the study. A cross-sectional design was used to collect data in this study. Because data is collected at a certain point in time, causal conclusions cannot be considered as more than inferences. In order to reduce these limitations, future research should make use of the longitudinal study approach. This approach is preferred for analysing causality because factors investigated can be measured over a period of time as opposed to the collection being a once-off event (Moorman, 1991; Samuel, 2017).

Another limitation is that a quantitative research design was used in this study. Quantitative data collection is associated with limited outcomes since it often makes use of closed-ended responses within the questionnaire. This means that there is no opportunity for further probing and understanding perceptions to enrich data. It is suggested that future studies make use of qualitative methods such as interviews or focus groups in order to enrich the data for greater understanding of the results. The use of the ex post facto research approach meant that the variables could not be directly manipulated and thus, the influence of the independent variable on the dependant variables could not be controlled (Johnson, 2001). This limitation could be decreased by the use of longitudinal studies that have greater ability to test for causality (Moorman, 1991; Siwela, 2018).

Only six variables were evaluated and tested in this research study. Therefore, verification of which factors ultimately predict intention to quit was limited. It is suggested that additional constructs are investigated to determine other factors that could predict intention to quit of employees within the organisation.

Finally, it may be fruitful to include race and gender as possible moderators in the proposed theoretical model. In the current study, it became apparent that perceptions of affirmative action and distributive justice probably depend on the group membership of the respondents. Persons who are part of a designated group may experience distributive justice very differently from persons who are part of a non-designated group. Thus, the findings are largely dependent on group membership and are, therefore, not universally applicable.

5.8 CONCLUSION

The main aim of the research initiative was to determine the complex interactions between procedural justice, interactional justice, distributive justice, intention to quit and affective commitment. The empirical results largely supported the validity of the proposed model. Although these variables are well researched, the researcher is unaware of another study that modelled the variables in this particular format.

As previously highlighted, the research aims to steer organisations to compile and implement intention to quit strategies that specifically focus on aspects of affective commitment. The current research suggests that employees who are affectively committed to the organisation demonstrate a decreased intention to quit the organisation. Furthermore, the study recommends that employers need to make a greater effort in implementing fair, transparent and integrated affirmative action initiatives so that employees can fully understand affirmative action and perceive the policy more favourably. In this regard, distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice can play important roles in shaping perceptions of affirmative action. However, the research findings suggest that affirmative action is regarded as a violation of distributive justice and high interaction and that procedural justice is unlikely to mitigate these relationships to a significant degree. Turnover intentions may be amplified when affirmative action is implemented and employees are not experiencing interaction and procedural justice in its application. Research suggests that if perceptions of fairness are in place, employees would be more inclined to feel affectively committed to the organisation and have fewer intentions to leave the organisation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire Codebook

University of the Western Cape

Masters Dissertation

THE ROLE OF JUSTICE ON PERCEPTIONS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION, AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND INTENTION TO QUIT

Student Researcher:	Lindy Malyon Cell No.: 0739914430 Work No.: 0215098785 Tel No.: 0219316963 Email: lindy.malyon@gmail.com
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Appendix B: Cover letter

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in a study on affirmative action. The purpose of this study is to identify issues which influence the fairness of affirmative action.

Although affirmative action has been widely researched, little is known of how perceptions and assumptions of affirmative action and fairness affect the commitment of employees and increase their intention to quit. In order to determine how successful Financial Institutions has managed affirmative action, the department of Industrial Psychology wishes to obtain information about employees' perceptions on, assumptions about and attitudes towards affirmative action. Furthermore, we wish to investigate how these perceptions may affect their organisational commitment and intention to quit.

You are part of a selected sample of employees who are requested to complete the enclosed questionnaire. We know how valuable your time is and appreciate your efforts. The completion of the questionnaire should, however, take you no longer than 30-45 minutes. Your inputs will play a valuable part in our efforts to gain valuable insights into matters of Affirmative Action.

The processing of research results is undertaken by the University of the Western Cape and the results will be communicated to parties directly involved within the study only. The results will be utilized as an input for further management practices and decisions within the Financial Sector.

Your responses will be treated as confidential.



Thank you for assisting us in this survey.

Ms L Malyon

Lindy.malyon@gmail.com

UWC: Department of Industrial Psychology

Appendix C: Questionnaire

Please indicate your status regarding each of the following statements by completing the field or placing an X opposite the statements that is most applicable to you.

The information will be treated confidentially. To ensure valid results, it is important that you respond honestly to all the questions, reflecting your own opinions and perceptions only.

Please do not omit any questions.

Section A: Personal Particulars (Please tick the appropriate box)

Age: _____

Gender:

Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
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Race:

White	<input type="checkbox"/>
African/ Black	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>
Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>



Highest Qualification obtained:

Grade 12	<input type="checkbox"/>
Certificate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Diploma	<input type="checkbox"/>
B-Degree	<input type="checkbox"/>
Honours or equivalent	<input type="checkbox"/>
Masters	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doctorate	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tenure:

0-1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-3 year	<input type="checkbox"/>
3-10 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10-15 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
15 years +	<input type="checkbox"/>

Staff Category:

Top Management	
Middle Management	
Supervisory Level	
Intermediate Level	
Entry Level	

Please answer the following questions about your supervisor

1. Ethnicity of supervisor

Black	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	

2. Gender of supervisor

Male		Female	
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***Please turn the page



SECTION B

Perceptions of Affirmative Action

Instruction:

Please select the appropriate box based on your perceptions for the following statements. Please answer all items.

(Based on Coetzee & Bezuidenhout's scale)

			Strongly Disagree.....Strongly Agree					
	B1	Interactional Justice (IJ)						
B.1.1	1	The Value of AA employees are recognised	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.2	2	The capabilities of AA employees are recognised	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.3	3	AA employees are guided in respect of realistic career expectations	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.4	4	Employees are informed about the EE policy	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.5	5	Supervisors are trained to manage diversity	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.6	6	AA Culture is accommodated when socialising	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.7	7	Accurate and complete record are available	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.1.8	8	Employees are informed about EE implications for careers	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
	B.2	Procedural Justice-input (Pji)						
B.2.9	9	All employees careers are regarded as equally important	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.2.10	10	There are opportunities to appeal	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.2.11	11	There are equal chances to influence selection decisions	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.2.12	12	There are joint decision-making	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.2.13	13	There are mechanisms to protect against discrimination	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.2.14	14	Are rules/ procedures applied strictly and consistently	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

			Strongly Disagree.....Strongly Agree					
B.2.15	15	Are systems adjusted in order to integrate AA employees	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
	B.3	Procedural Justice- Criteria (PJc)						
B.3.16	16	Selection Criteria are applied consistently	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.3.17	17	Accurate Performance data are used for evaluation	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.3.18	18	Same performance standards are used	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.3.19	19	Predetermined, job-related selection criteria are used	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.3.20	20	More than one performance appraiser is used	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.3.21	21	Disciplinary action is applied strictly and consistently	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
	B4	Distributive Justice (DJ)						
B.4.22	22	Black managers are given token positions	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.23	23	AA employees are trained to replace the job holder	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.24	24	There are unrealistically high salaries for AA members	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.25	25	Less qualified are appointed/promoted	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.26	26	AA people are recruited through provisions in advertisement	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.27	27	The EE plan and workforce profile are used to appoint	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.28	28	There are a focus on the development/advancement of AA employees	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.4.29	29	Criteria (Gender, ethnicity) are used to appoint	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

			Strongly Disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
		SAQA						
B.5.30	30	There should be preferential hiring and promotion of black South Africans in employment (SAQA)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.5.31	31	There should be preferential hiring and promotion of women in employment (SAQA)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.5.32	32	AA policy is contributing to a more unified society (SAQA)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.5.33	33	AA policy is creating a more skilled workforce (SAQA)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
		Valuing Individual Differences						
B.6.34	34	People who value diversity respect others' individual differences.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.35	35	Organizations that value diversity provide advancement and career development opportunities for all high quality employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.36	36	Employees would feel free to express their diverse backgrounds in an organization that values diversity.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.37	37	Valuing diversity means to value individual differences.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.38	38	Organizations that value diversity should offer equal employment opportunities to all people regardless of race, national origin, religion, sex or age.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.39	39	Employees would be allowed to observe their own religious and ethnic holidays in organizations that value diversity.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.40	40	Valuing diversity in the workplace means understanding people who are different from you.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

			Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
B.6.41	41	One would expect ethnic foods to be served in an organization that values diversity.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.42	42	Your unique characteristics should be valued in an organization that values diversity.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.43	43	In an organization that values diversity, employees from diverse backgrounds would feel comfortable working with each other.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.44	44	You could be yourself in an organization that values diversity.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.6.45	45	You would have equal employment opportunities in an organization that values diversity.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Affirmative Action								
B.7.40	46	Organizations will benefit most by selecting high quality employees who represent the majority of the population. (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.7.41	47	Valuing diversity refers to valuing only members of the workforce who are different from their white male counterparts. (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.7.42	48	Organizations that value diversity are as committed to black male employees as they are to minority employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

			Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
B.7.43	49	Valuing diversity is just another name for meeting employment equity targets. (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.7.44	50	The concept of diversity is just a fad and organizations would be wise to ignore it. (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.7.45	51	The cost of recruiting, hiring and training a diverse workforce is far too costly to be beneficial to most organizations. (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
Competitive Edge								
B.8.52	52	The more similar employees are to one another, the more productive the organization will be. (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.8.53	53	Organizations that value diversity are likely to require diversity training for all employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.8.54	54	An organization that hires many different types of people (e.g. different races, sexes, national backgrounds) will have a competitive edge over organizations that hire only one type of person.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.8.55	55	Valuing diversity is crucial to organizational success.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥
B.8.56	56	Organizations should capitalize on a diverse workforce.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥

SECTION C

Organisational Justice

Instruction:

Please select the appropriate box based on your perceptions for the following statements. Please answer all items.

(Niehoff, Brian P., and Moorman, Robert H. (1993) and deontic scale added- 21 to 44)

			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Distributive Justice							
C.1.1	1.	My work schedule is fair	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.1.2	2.	I think that my level of pay is fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.1.3	3.	I consider my work load to be quite fair	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.1.4	4.	I feel that my job responsibilities is fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.1.5	5.	Overall the rewards I receive here quite fair.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Procedural Justice							
C.2.6	6.	Job decisions are made by the manager in a biased manner.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.2.7	7.	My manager makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before Job decisions are made.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.2.8	8.	To make job decisions, my manager collects accurate and complete information	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.2.9	9.	My manager clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤

C.2.10	10.	All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all affected employees.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.2.11	11.	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their managers.	①	②	③	④	⑤
Interactional Justice							
C.3.12	12.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.13	13.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with respect and dignity.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.14	14.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.15	15.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.16	16.	When decisions are made about my job, the manager shows concern for my right as employee.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.17	17.	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses with me the implications of the decisions.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.18	18.	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.19	19.	When making decisions about my job, the manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.3.20	20.	My manager explains very clearly any	①	②	③	④	⑤

		decisions made about my job.					
Deontic Justice							
C.4.1 Moral Obligation							
C.4.1.21	21.	I have a moral obligation to treat others fairly	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.22	22.	Treating others fairly should be a moral obligation for everyone.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.23	23.	Treating people with respect and dignity is a moral obligation	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.24	24.	I have a moral obligation to uphold the principles of fairness.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.25	25.	It is important for me to see that others are treated fairly.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.26	26.	For me, treating others fairly is a moral duty.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.27	27.	Fairness is a moral virtue	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.1.28	28.	I deeply care about fairness.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.2 Moral Accountability							
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
C.4.2.30	30.	People who treat others unfairly should be held accountable	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.2.31	31.	It is important to hold people accountable for their failure to follow fairness rules	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.2.32	32.	People should be confronted when they act unfairly	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.2.33	33.	Violators of fairness should be held accountable.	①	②	③	④	⑤

C.4.2.34	34.	It is important to identify violators if fairness.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.2.35	35.	Being held accountable should be a must when people act unfairly	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.3 Moral Outrage							
C.4.3.36	36.	I feel sad when I see others being unfairly treated.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.3.37	37.	It bothers me when I see that others are not fairly treated.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.3.38	38.	I feel saddened by injustices done to others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.3.39	39.	I am concerned by unfairness done to others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.4 Willingness to punish							
C.4.4.40	40.	People who treat others unfairly should resign from their positions.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.4.41	41.	People who treat others unfairly should be demoted.	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.4.42	42.	People who treat others unfairly must never be promoted to higher positions	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.4.43	43.	Tolerating people who act unfairly should not be an option	①	②	③	④	⑤
C.4.4.44	44.	People who act unfairly should lose their jobs.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (Meyer and Allen's scale)

Instruction:

Please select the appropriate box based on your perceptions for the following statements. Please answer all items.

			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
Affective Commitment									
D.1.1	1.	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.2	2.	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.3	3.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.4	4.	I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.5	5.	I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.6	6.	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.7	7.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.1.8	8.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Continuance Commitment									
D.2.9	9.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

D.2.10	10.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.2.11	11.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.2.12	12.	It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.2.13	13.	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.2.14	14.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.2.15	15.	One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.2.16	16.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
Normative Commitment									
D.3.16	17.	I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.3.17	18.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.3.18	19.	Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.3.19	20.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.3.20	21.	If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦

D.3.21	22.	I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.3.22	23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦
D.3.23	24.	I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦



Section C: Turnover Intention

TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (TIS)

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The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organisation.

Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS.....

		DURING THE PAST 9 MONTHS.....	Never----- -----Always				
E.1	1.	How often have you considered leaving your job?	①	②	③	④	⑤
E.4	4.	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	①	②	③	④	⑤
E.6	6.	How often do dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	①	②	③	④	⑤
E.8	8.	How often do you look forward to another day at work? (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤
			To no extent-----To a very large extent				
E.3	3.	To what extent is your current job satisfying your personal needs? (R)	①	②	③	④	⑤
			Highly unlikely----- - Highly Likely				
E.7	7.	How likely you are to accept another job at the same compensation are level should it be offered to you?	①	②	③	④	⑤

