



The effect of training and development practices on selected job-related behaviours of public sector employees in Limpopo, South Africa: A justice-oriented analysis

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I, Fhatuwani Raliphaswa with student number _____, declare that this research project submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree of Masters in Human Resources Management is my independent work. It complies with all relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the Central University of Technology, Free State. It has not been previously submitted to any institution, by me or any other person, in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for attaining any qualification.

Signature

Date



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Context- As South Africa emerged from its apartheid past with policies that denied developmental opportunities to most employees, it became necessary for employers to create opportunities for employees to acquire skills required at the workplace. Unfortunately, growing perception and concern exist that training and development (T&D) in the public service is disorganised, uncoordinated, and replete with unfair practices such as favouritism in T&D opportunities. At the same time, there are reports of over-bloated, unproductive, and unprofessional public service, with many employees engaging in behaviours that are not acceptable.

Research gap- The above normative assertions that T&D in the public service is disorganised, uncoordinated, and unfair and claims that public servants engage in unbecoming behaviour need to be tested empirically. Given that organisational behaviour research has shown that unfairness perceptions by employees can lead to negative behaviour, a gap exists to investigate the influence of perceived justness of T&D practices on job-related employee deviant behaviours in the South African context.

Theories employed- Multiple theories made up of Organisational Justice, Social Exchange and Equity underpin this research. Borrowing from Organisational Justice, it is argued that employee perception of unfair T&D practices in South African government departments will result in negativity, low levels of employee motivation and organisational commitment and will likely result in deviant behaviour. Based on this proposition hypotheses were developed and tested using primary data collected from employees of the various government departments in the Limpopo province of South Africa.

Methodology- The positivist paradigm undergirds this study, which led to the gathering of quantitative data through a survey and the application of statistical analysis techniques. A simple random sampling technique was employed to choose 400 participants. A questionnaire featuring a Likert scale was designed and dispatched in October 2022 to multiple governmental units within the Limpopo

province. Of the questionnaires distributed, 175 were returned, indicating an approximately 44% rate of response. Data analysis incorporated both descriptive and inferential statistical methods, including correlation and regression analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA).

Key findings- The study revealed that justice perceptions in T&D practices do not significantly affect all three deviant behaviours (time misuse, poor attendance and withholding efforts). Secondly, procedural justice in T&D practices is significantly associated with length of service.

Implications- The study on training and development practices related to selected job-related deviant behaviours among public sector employees in Limpopo, South Africa, from a justice-oriented analysis standpoint, has significant implications in terms of theory, practice, and policy. Theoretically, the study contributes to a better understanding of the triggers and dynamics of job-related deviant behaviours in the South African public sector context by suggesting that justice perceptions might not be relevant to deviant behaviour. Thus, the study helps clarify the relationship between training and development practices and instances of deviant behaviour in the South African public sector context. In terms of practice, while the empirical findings did not support the proposition that justice perceptions could influence deviant behaviour, the literature review suggests otherwise, thus the theoretical literature part of this study could help the public sector organisations create more effective training and development programs that incorporates a culture of fairness and respect which could address the root causes of job-related deviant behaviours. Also, specific recommendations provided elsewhere in the research report could guide managers and HR professionals in identifying early signs of deviance and effectively intervening to prevent such behaviours. In terms of policy, this research is influential in policymaking by advocating for justice-oriented approaches in public sector management and employee development programs. It could also be used to formulate comprehensive policies that address job-related deviant behaviours, offering a justice-based framework for prevention, intervention, and sanctions where necessary. At national, provincial, and district levels, the research could be



used by government departments to establish standardised training practices and ethical conduct guidelines that can be implemented to ensure a consistent approach to managing deviant behaviour.

Keywords: Training and development, Deviant behaviours, public service, Justice.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Acronym	Meaning
T&D	Training and Development
EDB	Employee Deviant Behaviour
CUT	Central University of Technology
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
NSG	National School of Government
OJT	Organisational Justice Theory
SET	Social Exchange Theory
ET	Equity Theory
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
SALGA	South African Local Government and Administration
PSETA	Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority
MANCOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Covariance
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

To cope with the challenges posed by the world of work, more improved and effective training and development (T&D) is needed by all organisations (Sal & Raja, 2016). The reason is that the more developed employees are, the higher the likelihood of individuals being satisfied with their work, the greater the probability of them exhibiting positive behaviour (eschewing negative conduct), thereby enhancing productivity and sustainability (Andries, 2016). Training and development are, therefore, imperative for government departments in South Africa. In this study, it is argued that it is important that T&D practices should be fair and just. Put differently, for employees to the best of their abilities, they need to feel that there is fairness and impartiality in T&D programs provided by the organisation.

At the same time, it is factual that for an organisation to endure, its employees must abide by its rules (Andries, 2016). While strict adherence to procedures may hinder innovativeness, non-adherence or unacceptable behaviour may risk the organisation's overall efficiency (Sharma, 2017). For instance, Bollman and Krings (2016) note that non-adherence to company standards and procedures leads to employee misbehaviour, commonly referred to as employee deviance, workplace misconduct or counterproductive work.

Deviant behaviour is typically aimed at the organisation, which usually causes the sabotage of work efforts (Seddig, 2020). As alluded to above by Andries (2016), T&D will likely make employees avoid deviant behaviour. This study argues that deviant behaviour will be reduced if employees perceive justness in their organisation's T&D practices.

This chapter provides a general overview of the entire study.

1.2 PROBLEM BACKGROUND

The National School of Government (NSG) was established to ensure that all public servants become competent (Dastile, 2018). This makes the training and development (T&D) a prioritised agenda in South Africa. However, as Portfolio (2020) suggests, the quality of training and development practices (T&D) by South African departments is not just or fair enough leading to potential for deviant behaviour by employees.

The failure of employers to equip employees to cope with changes in the workplace, coupled with the lack of people skills and unjustness in T&D practices, might trigger workplace deviance behaviours such as misuse of time, poor attendance, or withholding efforts that are likely to damage the organisation and its employees. According to Dzansi (2016), T&D practices comply with distributive justice if training opportunities are open and done according to individual employee needs to enable them to perform their duties better. To conduct T&D fairly and systematically, the government needs to formulate a human resource development training policy that will guide employers on matters of T&D (Mondy & Martocchio, 2016). Moreover, T&D policy should be intended to help in the proper planning of training programs to ensure a continued and tolerable stream of knowledge and skills to the service. In other words, T&D are vital in ensuring that employees perceive fair treatment in the workplace. If state departments in Limpopo province ignore the necessity of implementing acceptable and just T&D practices and employees perceive unfair treatment, they may engage in undesirable deviant behaviours.

Various problems can arise from behaviours. For instance, dealing with deviant behaviours can be costly to the respective departments. For example, some behaviours that employees in departments engage in become so adverse that they

result in absenteeism. Therefore, finding effective ways to ensure fair and just training and development practices is vital in lessening such behaviours. As such, it is imperative that T&D practices are distributed in a just and fair manner.

Organisations must have sound T&D endeavours to improve employee competencies to maximise the effectiveness and efficiency of their human resources (Bowen, 2016). At the same time, fair T&D practices have serious ramifications for organisations (Dzansi, 2016). For instance, it is now axiomatic to say that fair and just T&D practices will likely play a vital role in enhancing acceptable employee behaviour and improving organisational performance. On the other hand, without fairness perceptions, employees might resort to unacceptable deviance behaviours with detrimental consequences for the organisation. Therefore, if governmental institutions in South Africa do not recognise the essence of fair T&D practices, this could have serious implications for staff behaviour, such as absenteeism.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the preliminary literature and popular news, and research cited above, it appears that government departments in South Africa have a deficiency in providing fair T&D, which is key to attaining organisational goals. The Public Service Commission (PSC) National Annual Report 2018/19 indicates that government departments' main challenges are the lack of transformation in the workplace and slow progress in achieving fairness and justice, especially at the senior management level. These normative assertions that T&D in the public service is disorganised, uncoordinated, and unfair and claims that public servants engage in unbecoming behaviour need to be tested empirically to find lasting remedies.

Given that organisational behaviour research has shown that employee unfairness perceptions can lead to negative behaviour (Dzansi, 2016), this study investigated

the effect of perceived justness of T&D practices on selected job-related employee deviant behaviours in government departments in South African using sample data from Limpopo province.

1.4 AIM OF THE STUDY

The research was conducted to understand the effect of justice perceptions of T&D practices on selected job-related deviant behaviours of employees in government departments in the South African setting using sample data from Limpopo province.

1.5 OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of this study was to determine how justness perceptions of T&D practices affect the selected job-related deviant behaviours of employees in the study area.

1.5.1 Subsidiary objectives

The specific objectives were to:

1. Determine employee perceptions of the justness of T&D practices in government departments in Limpopo province.
2. Determine the levels of selected job-related deviant behaviours of government employees in Limpopo province.
3. Determine the effect of perceived distributive justice in T&D practices on selected Job-related deviant behaviours of government employees in Limpopo province.
4. The effect of perceived procedural justice in T&D practices on selected Job-related deviant behaviours of government employees in Limpopo province.

5. The effect of perceived interactional justice in T&D practices on selected Job-related deviant behaviours of government employees in Limpopo province.

1.6 HYPOTHESES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The above objectives were addressed through research questions and hypotheses.

1.6.1 Research questions

The following two specific research questions address objectives one and two.

1. How do government employees in Limpopo province assess the justness of T&D practices?
2. To what extent are job-related deviant behaviours prevalent among employees? In other words, what is the level of selected job-related deviant behaviours of government employees in Limpopo province?

1.6.3 Main hypothesis

In addition to the above research questions that focused on objectives one and two, the following null and alternate main hypothesis addresses objectives three, four and five.

- Ho: Justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with the selected Job-related deviant behaviours (time misuse, poor attendance, withholding effort).
- Ha: Justice in T&D practices not negatively associated with the selected Job-related deviant behaviours (time misuse, poor attendance, withholding effort).

The rationale for predicting or expecting negative association/ relationships are provided in Chapter three under hypotheses development.

1.6.4 Subsidiary hypotheses

The above main hypotheses are further broken down into nine specific hypotheses. They are stated as null and alternate hypotheses.

- H1o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H1a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H2o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance.
- H2a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.
- H3o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H3a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H4o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H4a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H5o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance,
- H5a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.
- H6o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H6a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.

- H7o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H7a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H8o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance.
- H8a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.
- H9o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H9a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.

1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study on training and development practices related to selected job-related deviant behaviours among public sector employees in Limpopo, South Africa, from a justice-oriented analysis standpoint, has significant contributions in terms of theory, practice, and policy.

Theoretically, the study contributes to a better understanding of the triggers and dynamics of job-related deviant behaviours in the public sector of South Africa by suggesting that justice perceptions might not be relevant to deviant behaviour in the South African context. Thus, the study helps clarify the relationship between training and development practices and instances of deviant behaviour in the public sector of South Africa.

In terms of practice, while the empirical findings did not support the proposition that justice perceptions could influence deviant behaviour, the literature review suggests otherwise, thus the theoretical literature part of this study could help the public sector organisations especially in Limpopo province to create more effective

training and development programs that incorporates a culture of fairness and respect which could address the root causes of job-related deviant behaviours. Also, specific recommendations provided elsewhere in the research report could guide managers and HR professionals in government departments especially in Limpopo province where the research was undertaken in identifying early signs of deviance and effectively intervening to prevent such behaviours.

In terms of policy, this research is influential in policy-making by advocating for justice-oriented approaches in public sector management and employee development programs. It could also be used to formulate comprehensive policies that address job-related deviant behaviours, offering a justice-based framework for prevention, intervention, and sanctions where necessary. While the research was conducted in Limpopo province, hence the findings are relevant to that province, the findings provide a window to what might be happening in other provinces hence at national, provincial, and district levels, the research could be used by government departments to guide their training practices and ethical conduct guidelines that can be implemented to manage deviant behaviour.

1.8 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A more elaborate discussion is provided in Chapter 4 as such, the discussion here is brief. Firstly, the study followed the positivist paradigm. Aligned to positivism, the deductive approach paradigm was adopted which allowed the researcher to fall on selected justice theories to generate hypotheses around the two variables under investigation. The deductive approach then allowed the researcher to apply the quantitative cross-sectional survey research design and to use measurable attributes and information to create numerical data about the population studied (Singh, 2015; Punch, 2013).

The target population for this study consists of employees in the various 11 provincial government departments (excluding teachers and nurses) in Limpopo

province and those from the National Department of Employment and labour (DEL) stationed at Polokwane. The target population is 17367 from which a sample of 400 was randomly selected from only six departments (see details in Section 4.4 Chapter 4).

A self-constructed seven-point Likert-type measurement instrument was used to collect primary data from respondents (see details in Section 4.6 Chapter 4). The Likert scale was useful in accessing respondents (Seddig, 2020). Validity and reliability are an important issue in research (Brink, van der Walt & Rensberg, 2017). Various steps recommended by researchers such as Brink, van der Walt and Rensberg (2017) and Mohamed and Aisha (2018) just to mention a few, were applied to eliminate threats to validity and reliability in the current research (see Section 4.9 Chapter 4 for details). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 26 was used by the researcher used descriptive statistics and inferential statistics such as correlation and regression analysis and multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used to analyse the data for summarising the sample responses to all items in the questionnaire, operating frequencies, measures of central tendency (the mean, median and mode) and measures of variation (range and standard deviation).

1.9 LIMITATIONS

As with many research endeavours, the current study also has some limitations. These limitations could however give the opportunity for further confirmatory investigations of some of the findings. One limitation of the research the data were self-reported, where respondents in government departments assessed the justness in the T&D practices of their own organisations. This approach was necessary because it was going to be difficult gaining access to objective data in the form of employee records due to the Protection of Personal Information Act (POPIA) requirements. It is also possible that some participants may be reluctant to disclose information for fear of being victimised. As a result, this might lead to

biased responses, making it difficult to pick up the true reflection. However, it was assumed that the participants were truthful and honest in their responses

Another potential limitation is generalizability of the results. While it is reasonable to argue that the sample is representative of the entire Limpopo province and to some extent, the whole country, critics might point to the relatively small sample size. However, one can counter this criticism based on the arguments of Ababneh (2020) and Dodds and Hess (2020) as discussed in Section 4.5.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are significant in each study, and this study was not excluded. Ethical issues that were dealt with during this study comprised discretion, informed consent, and secrecy. To ensure informed consent, the researcher requested respondents' consent in writing while providing them with the purpose of the study. To respect the need for confidentiality, the respondents' traceable personal information was not collected. Participants were also assured that all sensitive information would be protected with the greatest confidentiality. For convenience, respondents were allowed to participate from their places of choice. Questionnaires were designed such that respondents easily understood the terms.

1.14 CHAPTER OUTLAY OF THE THESIS

This dissertation report has six (6) chapters, including the introduction.

Chapter 1: It highlights the study rationale, the problem and its context, the aim, objectives, research questions and hypotheses, the contributions to theory, policy and practice, as well as summary of the research methodology.

Chapter 2: It focuses on the existing empirical and theoretical literature related to the study.

Chapter 3: This section focused on the theories used in the study, the conceptual framework, and hypotheses development.

Chapter 4: This is the methodology chapter covering the methodologies used in collecting and analysing the data and the philosophical assumptions that guided the stud.

Chapter 5: Chapter 5 presented, discussed and interpreted the results taking into consideration previous research and theories related to the study.

Chapter 6: The chapter concluded the study by providing conclusions and recommendations for practice, policy and future research guided by the theoretical and empirical results.

1.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a snapshot of the study. Chapter 2 provides the first part of the literature review.

THEORETICAL REVIEW OF DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 highlighted the study's rationale, problem statement, aim, research objectives, hypotheses, contributions to theory and practice, and research methodology. The prior section chapter provided a setting of how unjust T&D practices and employee deviant behaviour (EDB) impact employees in government departments.

Many researchers have reinforced the invaluable role of T&D practises as an enabler of justness and impartiality in T&D programs provided by the organisation (Ojo & Raman, 2019). The chapter is a critical review of the existing literature, and it is arranged as follows. To begin with, a comprehensive overview of Employee Deviant Behaviour (EDB) is carried out, encompassing discussion of various existing definitions of EDB. This leads to an exploration of the types, antecedents, outcomes, and measures of EDB, which constitutes the study's problem area. Subsequently, issues related to Training and Development (T&D) practices are investigated, followed by an elaboration on the significance and measurement of T&D practices in South African government departments. The chapter wraps up with a summarizing section.

first, a general overview of EDB is undertaken, including a review of existing definitions of EDB, leading to the types, antecedents, consequences and measuring of EDB that form the problem area for the study. T&D practices issues are then explored, followed by an explication of the importance and measuring of T&D practices in government departments in South Africa. The chapter concludes with a summary.

2.2 EMPLOYEE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR (EDB)

This section of the literature is devoted to discussing the dependent variable EDB. The discussion begins with defining the concept of EDB. This is done to arrive at an operational definition. An operational definition is required because of the plethora of differing definitions and many different meanings assigned to it. Robinson and Benett (1995) stated that workplace deviant behaviour has no standard definition. The same situation prevails up to today because the literature search revealed a plethora of definitions.

2.2.1 Introduction to EDB as a concept

EDB is a deliberate way for employees to disrupt an organisation by engaging in negative workplace behaviours. Moreover, employee deviant is retaliatory conduct that employees perceive as an element of injustice at work; hence they become motivated to violate those expectations (Vogel, Homberg & Gericke, 2016). In other words, employee deviance is the ultimate way employees behave in an organisation where they notice a lack of motivation or fairness regarding job-related issues such as promotion opportunities within the workplace. In addition, workplace deviance can also be described as the intentional or planned desire to cause damage to an organisation based on how the personnel perceives the level of impartiality in the organisation. Deviant workplace behaviour is one of the widely present employee behaviours that create high organisational costs, create an unhealthy working environment, and lead to various social and psychological job- and non-job-related consequences. According to Seddig (2020), workplace deviance can be bitterness towards colleagues and as a result can disrupt an organisation by instigating problems in the workplace (Sharma, 2017).

2.2.2 Defining EDB

Considering that the field of workplace deviance is relatively novel, it's essential to formulate a clear definition for the phenomenon. A frequently referenced definition is that offered by Robinson and Bennett (1995), who describe deviant workplace behaviour as any act or conduct by individuals that incites disarray, agitation, and harm to fellow employees, the relevant organization, and its stakeholders. However, workplace deviant behaviour is defined in this study as a deliberate conduct that violates significant organizational norms, adversely affecting the well-being of an organization, its members, or both, as per Malik and Lenka (2018).

2.2.3 Types of EDB

EDB can be summarised as acts based on intentions to cause damage or discomfort to the organisation or individuals within the organisational setting. Employees who perceive distributive injustice are likely could unhappy and may not be committed to organisational goals. Bennet and Robinson (1995) proposed types of workplace deviance, namely: political deviance, personal aggression (directed to the individual), production deviance, and property deviance (targets the organisation).

2.2.3.1 Political deviance

Political deviance, as defined by Deprez (2017) encompasses a variety of inappropriate actions, including the misuse of power to cause damage to others in the same organization, showing bias towards certain individuals, indulging in office rumors, deflecting responsibility onto co-workers, and engaging in competition that does not benefit the organization. Employers who unfairly favour certain employees over colleagues are also at fault for committing deviant conduct (Choi, 2018). For instance, if employees in various departments want to get promoted to top ranks but discover that no equal chance given or favouritism exists, this can

lead to retaliation by initiating a rumour against the personnel who show partiality to others.

2.2.2.2 Production deviance

Production deviance is characterized by behaviours such as frequently being absent from work, leaving the office ahead of schedule, taking overly long breaks, deliberately slowing down the work pace, and squandering organizational resources all of which harm the organisation's overall productivity (Seddig, 2020). Therefore, when there is a lack of impartial T&D prospects in the public sector, it can cause high absenteeism and taking extended lunch breaks or promote gambling to strike back based on the treatment of personnel. For this reason, employees in the departments may result in less work effort on tasks given or arrive late at work deliberately as a way of reprisal.

2.2.2.3 Property deviance

Property deviance is where employees either damage or acquire tangible assets without authorisation (Aleksic, Braje & Jelavic, 2019). This type of deviance typically involves theft but may include sabotage, intentional work errors, and lying about hours worked. For example, if individuals feel abused or mistreated at the state department, they will be more likely to engage in unethical conduct like obtaining office materials without permission. Moreover, theft transpires when employees take home office materials and fail to return them. Failure to return borrowed items from the company is a symbol of property aberrance. In other words, employees devote themselves to behaviours that satisfy them at the departments' expense.

2.2.4 Personal demographic factors influencing deviant behaviour

In organisations, many factors play a role in influencing deviant behaviour. These include personality, environment, and societal influences. Below are some of these factors.

2.2.4.1 Gender-based differences and employee deviant behaviour

Previous studies, as noted by Lubbadah (2021), suggest that individual characteristics can contribute to variations in workplace deviance. These characteristics can include an employee's personal attributes and skills, their experiences on the job, stress factors they encounter, challenging work environments, and interpersonal disputes. Moreover, a recurring discovery is the possible link between workplace deviance and gender. Broadly speaking, research focused on aggressive behaviour have consistently found that men tend to exhibit and admit to aggression more often than women (Kakarika, Taghavi & González-Gómez, 2023). This implies that when male workers in various departments believe their gender status is not regarded in terms of T&D practices and decisions made, they are more likely than their female colleagues to participate in deviant behaviour such as lying, time misuse or stealing in the workplace.

Such differences are indicative of a consistent personality tendency that remains steady throughout an individual's life and is observable across various life domains, according to Pavlov and Andreescu (2023). Specifically, men are more likely than women to exhibit unprovoked antagonism towards others and to openly express this hostility. Additionally, men are often more inclined than women to respond aggressively to events that undermine their self-worth, as Mitsakis (2019) suggested. Moreover, the gender roles that people adopt are often influenced by dominant cultural gender stereotypes. For instance, men in many cultures are commonly typecast as competitive, self-sufficient, and commanding, whereas women are traditionally perceived as affectionate, nurturing, caring, and reliant (Lubbadah, 2021).

2.2.4.2 Personality traits

Five personality trait research is also useful in comprehending deviant behaviour. The five personality traits research considers openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Openness is often defined as the richness and intricacy of a person's mental and life experience (Fernández-del-Río, Ramos-Villagrasa, & Escartín, 2021), and individuals exhibiting this trait tend to embrace novelty and creativity. Conscientiousness pertains to how a person manages and directs their impulses, acting in a socially appropriate manner (Ellen, Alexander, Mackey, McAllister, & Carson, 2021). Those with extraversion traits are often socially engaged and demonstrate harmonious interactions with others. On the other hand, neuroticism or low emotional stability refers to an individual's propensity to experience negative emotions (Aleksic & Vukovic, 2018). Individuals exhibiting high neuroticism may often be touchy, discontented with themselves, and prone to self-doubt (Mihalache & Mihalache, 2022).

These personality traits have previously been examined as factors influencing both positive and negative behaviour in the workplace. Courtesy at work is entirely distinct from physical aggression (Mihalache & Mihalache, 2022). Nevertheless, the detrimental effects of incivility in the workplace mirror those of other negative behaviours such as deviance and aggression, albeit less severe.

Previous research has typically prioritized the effects of workplace incivility over its causes, especially in Malaysia. Although workplace deviance has been a topic of global study, including in Malaysia, it remains a significant organizational issue. The integrity and performance of Malaysian civil servants remain concerning, as per Di Stefano, Scrima and Parry (2019). Various terms like counterproductive behaviour, antisocial actions, misconduct, and destructive behaviour have been used to describe workplace deviance (Ellen et al., 2021). In fact, such counterproductive or deviant behaviour is recognized as one of the three key dimensions of job performance (Fernández-del-Río et al., 2021).

Given the substantial impact of deviant behaviour on an organization's workforce, it can influence employee performance and cause organizational losses. A study by De Clercq, Haq, and Azeem (2019) discovered that at least a third of organization members had engaged in theft, with 95 percent admitting to stealing at least once. The findings underscore the susceptibility of individuals to engage in deviant behaviour at work, influenced considerably by their personality traits. Moreover, employees subjected to such behaviour often suffer physical and psychological distress, damage to their self-esteem, and increased self-doubt (Ellen et al., 2021).

In essence, the negative impacts of workplace deviance are akin to the harmful effects of rudeness at work, both detrimentally affecting employees and organizations. However, deviant behaviour is more overt and physically engages employees. Researchers have associated such behaviour with harmful outcomes like job resignation intentions, absenteeism, frustration, resource and privilege abuse, theft, and prejudice.

This implies that if employees in the departments perceive unjustness in T&D practices, it will lead to different kinds of workplace deviant behaviour and activities which are not beneficial for the organisation.

2.2.5 Organisational factors

Numerous elements contribute to shaping organizational behaviour, such as the firm's structure, its established rules and regulations, managerial efficiency, and peer interactions. These aspects can either motivate employees to enhance their productivity or lead to their disengagement. In this section, the organizational influences examined are the organizational environment and culture, which are elaborated upon in the subsequent sections.

2.2.5.1 Organisational climate

Organizational climate refers to the shared perceptions and attitudes of employees about their work environment. It encompasses aspects such as the company's structure, policies, procedures, and practices, as well as the nature of interpersonal relationships within the organization. (Martínez-Caro, Cegarra-Navarro, & Alfonso-Ruiz, 2020). For Fitong-Ketchiwou, Naong, van der Walt and Dzansi (2022), organisational climate is a functional bridge connecting employees to their work environment, defining their collective understanding of their workplace. It is perceived as a significant factor influencing employee behaviour as it shapes their attitudes and actions (Roscoe, Subramanian, Jabbour, & Chong, 2019). For example, the climate perceptions of the reward system, support, congenial work conditions, structure, autonomy, risk, and conflict dimensions can steer employees towards either positive or negative behaviour (Maika, 2020). Deviant actions tend to decrease when the climate is perceived as more socially and emotionally supportive (Martínez-Caro et al., 2020). Conversely, employees are more prone to engaging in negative behaviours when the climate overly prioritizes organizational goals at the expense of employee well-being (Maika, 2020).

According to Das and Grover (2022), the organizational climate can be viewed from a psychological perspective where psychological perceptions are sufficiently significant to influence a system's practices and procedures. They further argue that these prevailing perceptions of standard organizational practices and procedures, especially those with ethical content, constitute the ethical work climate (Fitong-Ketchiwou et al., 2022). The ethical climate is conceptualised as an organisation's general and pervasive characteristic, affecting various decisions. Work climates are the beliefs and values of individuals in the organisation. In other words, if the departments shy away from enhancing ethical policies and procedures of T&D practices in employee issues, it will cause personnel to violate the vital norms.

These views lead one to conclude that organisational climate is influenced by factors like the level of support employees receive from management, their

perception of the organization's reward system, the degree of autonomy they're granted, the organizational structure, and their overall perceptions of the workplace. Also, it becomes clear that organizational climate significantly affects employees' behaviour. For instance, a positive climate, characterized by good and fair T&D practices can enhance behaviour, whereas a negative climate can lead to bad behaviour.

2.2.5.2 Organisational culture

Organizational culture refers to the underlying beliefs, assumptions, values, and ways of interacting that contribute to the unique social and psychological environment of an organization (Biron & Hanuka, 2018). It represents the collective behaviour of people who are part of the organization and includes the organization's vision, values, norms, systems, symbols, language, assumptions, and habits (Biron & Hanuka, 2018). Based on the literature including Biron and Hanuka (2018), components of an organization's culture that can influence employee deviance may include the following.

- **Shared values:** The core beliefs and norms that the organization upholds. These are often embodied in its mission or vision statements. When an organization's values emphasize integrity, honesty, and respect, it can discourage deviant behaviours. However, if values are only stated but not enacted or if they favour competitiveness and results over ethical practices, they may indirectly encourage deviant behaviour.
- **Rituals and ceremonies:** These are events or traditions that are unique to the company, such as annual events or celebrations. These often act as reminders of the organization's values and expected behaviours. If these events highlight positive behaviours and achievements, they can reinforce good conduct. Conversely, if they inadvertently reward manipulative or unethical actions (even indirectly, such as celebrating an employee who achieved high sales through aggressive tactics), they might encourage deviance.

- **Heroes:** Individuals who embody the organization's values and who are held up as examples to others. Individuals who are admired within the organization set a precedent for others. If these "heroes" demonstrate ethical behaviour, they can inspire similar conduct in others. However, if these individuals exhibit or endorse deviant behaviour, it might encourage others to behave similarly, thinking such actions are acceptable or even desirable.
- **Communication style:** How information flows within the organization, including the level of transparency and the manner in which discussions take place. Open, transparent, and respectful communication can reduce misunderstandings and conflicts, reducing the likelihood of deviant behaviour. However, if the communication style is secretive, misleading, or disrespectful, it can foster an environment conducive to deviant actions.
- **Stories and legends:** These narratives often recount significant events or people from the organization's history and reinforce its values and norms. Stories that emphasize ethical behaviour and highlight the negative consequences of deviant actions can help discourage such behaviour. However, if these tales glorify rule-breaking or unethical actions, they may inadvertently encourage similar behaviours.

To sum up, organisational culture is essentially the personality of the organization that guides how employees think, act, and feel within the workplace. From this perspective, organizational culture is significant because it can influence and shape the behaviour of the employees within the organization (Biron & Hanuka, 2018). Thus, perceived culture of unfair or inconsistent application of T&D policies can ultimately result employees being bitter or less committed and will get involved in negative deviant behaviour, i.e., voluntary absenteeism.

2.2.6 Consequences of EDB

Employee deviance can have a wide range of effects on an organization, impacting both individuals and the broader workplace environment. Some of the potential consequences according to synthesis of the works of Malisetty and Kumari (2017), Bennet et al. (2018), and Kemper (2018) are as follows.

- Decreased productivity because employees engaging in deviant behaviours can disrupt the workflow and distract others
- Lower morale because deviant behaviours, such as bullying, gossip, or theft, can significantly affect the morale of other employees. This can lead to a toxic work environment where employees feel undervalued, threatened, or anxious.
- Increased turnover since employees who are engaged in deviant behaviours are more likely to leave the organization, resulting in higher turnover rates. This can lead to increased costs associated with hiring and training new employees
- Increased costs since Deviant behaviours, such as employee time wasting can lead to direct financial losses. Additionally, decreased productivity, high turnover, and potential legal actions also carry significant costs.
- Decreased trust because deviant behaviour can erode trust within the organization, which is fundamental to maintaining a positive and cooperative work environment.

Given these potential consequences, it's crucial for organizations to establish clear policies and procedures to discourage deviant behaviours, as well as provide mechanisms for reporting and addressing such actions when they do occur.

2.2.7 Measuring EDB

Finding the factors and different types of deviance will help organisations to measure and control employee behaviour. It is also important to build an ethical

culture within the organisation to improve the well-being of the organisation. It is also vital to understand how to choose what to measure, which indicators are most relevant such as observing employee behaviour, and which grounds will be used for this measurement (Fazel-e-Hasan, Mortimer, Lings & Drennan, 2019). Therefore, it is critical for a business to create deviant behaviour indicators to assess results. For Employee Deviant Behaviour (EDB), individuals could be prompted to express their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement concerning their behaviour in relation to work in the organisation.

2.3 EMPLOYEE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT (T&D)

T&D plays a key role in employee performance and increases organisational productivity. Therefore, it is pertinent to how T&D is defined and its importance in the public service context.

2.3.1 T&D as a Concept

The concept of T&D refers to the educational activities within an organization designed to improve the skills, abilities, and knowledge of its employees. They are strategic initiatives that help an organization to be more competitive, efficient, and productive (Long et al., 2016). The training component of T&D refers to activities directly related to an employee's current job. It aims to equip the employees with specific skills or knowledge to improve performance (Sal & Raja, 2016). In other words, training is often job- or role-specific, training could involve teaching a new employee the basics of their role, instructing an employee on how to use a new software or technology, or guiding a team on procedures and policies. On the other hand, the development activities aim to equip employees with new skills and capabilities that will enhance their potential within the organization (Sal & Raja, 2016). This might include leadership training for potential future managers, courses on strategic thinking, or education to improve soft skills like communication or team collaboration.

2.3.2 Importance of employee T&D

Training and development are essential for both the individual and organizational growth. They not only increase job satisfaction and motivation among employees but also make the organization more efficient and adaptable in a competitive business environment.

2.3.2.2 Organisational benefits of employee T&D

For the organisation, synthesis of the works of authors including Susomrith, Coetzer and Ampofo (2019); Dixit and Sinha (2020) Dixit and Sinha (2020); Alsama and Abunar (2021); Purwanto and Prasetya (2021) suggest that training and development are vital for organisations for several reasons including the following.

- **Improved employee performance:** Training and development can enhance an employee's knowledge and skills related to their job function. This can improve their performance and productivity, making them more efficient and effective in their roles.
- **Increased employee satisfaction and morale:** Employees who receive necessary training and opportunities for development often have a greater sense of satisfaction and morale. This can result in lower turnover rates, as employees are likely to stay with a company that invests in their growth and career development.
- **Addressing organisational weaknesses:** Training and development programs can help to address any gaps in knowledge or skills among employees. This ensures that employees have a consistent experience and background knowledge.
- **Consistency:** A robust training and development program ensures that all employees have a consistent experience and similar skills and knowledge. This consistency can be particularly important in terms of company policies and procedures, company culture, and operational procedures.
- **Increased organisational capacity to adopt new technologies and methods:** Ongoing training and development can make it easier for a

company to adopt new technologies and methods, keeping the company at the forefront of industry developments and ensuring competitive advantage.

- **Innovation:** Training and development foster an environment of creativity and innovation. Employees who are up-to-date with industry best practices can bring innovative ideas and approaches to your business.
- **Reducing risk:** Training in areas such as workplace safety, cybersecurity, and regulatory compliance helps reduce risk to the organization and ensures employees know how to act in various situations.
- **Succession planning:** Developing employees to take on leadership roles in the future helps ensure the long-term success of the company. This makes succession planning easier and lets the company cultivate its future leaders from within.

2.3.2.2 Employee benefits of T&D

Training and development programs play a significant role in the lives of employees. Again, synthesis of the works of authors including Kamau, Goren, Okemwa and Biwott (2015); Andries (2016); Vogel et al. (2016); Susomrith, Coetzer and Ampofo (2019); Dixit and Sinha (2020) Dixit and Sinha (2020); Alsama and Abunar (2021); Purwanto and Prasetya (2021) suggest that training and development are vital for employees for several reasons including the following.

- **Skill enhancement:** Training programs help employees improve their professional skills and learn new ones. These enhanced abilities can make them more effective in their current roles and open up opportunities for advancement.
- **Career progression:** Development programs, such as leadership training or management courses, can prepare employees for higher-level roles within the organization, aiding in career progression.
- **Job satisfaction:** Employees who feel their employers are investing in their growth tend to have higher job satisfaction. They are more likely to feel valued, engaged, and committed to the organization.

- **Increased confidence:** Training and development can boost employees' confidence by increasing their competency in their role. This confidence can lead to improved performance and increased motivation.
- **Adaptability:** Training in new technologies or methodologies allows employees to adapt to changes in their industry or role, keeping their skills relevant and marketable.
- **Greater productivity:** Well-trained employees can perform their duties more efficiently and effectively, leading to greater productivity and performance.
- **Sense of belonging:** Employees who are provided with regular training and development opportunities often feel a greater sense of belonging to the organization. They see the investment in their skills as a sign of being valued, which can increase loyalty and retention.
- **Better understanding of industry trends:** Continuous learning through development programs can help employees stay up-to-date with the latest industry trends and best practices, improving their overall effectiveness in their roles.
- **Improved job security:** Employees with up-to-date skills and knowledge are more likely to have job security, especially in rapidly changing industries.

In a nutshell, training and development are critical for employees because they contribute to professional growth, job satisfaction, and long-term career prospects.

2.3.3 Training and development practices

Human Resource Management (HRM) practices such as T&D enhance employee skills, knowledge, and ability, strengthening individual task performance and increasing organisational productivity (Singh & Dangwal, 2017). Furthermore, T&D is a Human Resource Management (HRM) practice that enhances employee skills, knowledge, and ability, strengthening individual task performance and increasing organisational productivity (Singh & Dangwal, 2017).

Training offers the chance for career advancement and personal growth, enhanced job contentment via improved performance, the opportunity to acquire new knowledge, and increased capacity to adapt to and manage changes (Vogel et al., 2016). Therefore, if learning and development can be done impartially in the state departments, it will make employees feel valued, motivated, and competent because fairness prevails within the workplace constantly. Alternatively, if employees perceive that they are not valued in decisions affecting their T&D, they are most likely to withhold effort from their duties as a way of reprisal, for example.

Furthermore, Long, Kowang, Chin, and Hee (2016) view T&D as a structured process to alter attitudes, knowledge, or skill behaviour through learning experiences to accomplish efficient performance in a set of activities. Companies are providing a variety of training programs tailored to their organizational needs, encompassing topics such as IT and systems, processes, business practices, industry-specific training, managerial supervision, people skills, and regulatory compliance.

Development is a long-term educational initiative using an organized and methodical approach, through which managerial staff garner conceptual and theoretical knowledge for broad purposes. Singh and Dangwal (2017) suggest development signifies personal growth and self-discovery on a wider scale. Cole (1990) advocates for a more expansive perspective on the procurement of knowledge and skills through training, focusing more on the employees' potential rather than immediate skillsets, viewing employees as adaptable resources aiming at personal growth and tapping into an employee's latent potential. Armstrong (2001) denotes that individual development is an individual's career progression aided by a manager's guidance and assistance. Training and development enhances the proficiency of the workforce, thus creating a competitive edge and contributing to organizational success.

By providing equitable T&D opportunities, employers assist employees in developing their competitive edge and ensuring their employability in the long run

(Vogel et al., 2016), implying that T&D also serves as a mechanism for employers to cater to the needs of the employees. Hlatywayo and Mpofu (2015) posit that development symbolizes a continuous process, with progress being incremental over time, aligning with the focus on lifelong learning. From the public service view, if the management of departments does not offer equal opportunities for all employees in the same job categories, it will result in personnel being demotivated from their duties.

2.3.4 Consequences of unjust T&D practices

Training is vital to an organisation's success. Therefore, sectors that do not offer superior training to new and current employees damage the progress of individual employees and the organisation's development (Andries, 2016). Thus, disregarding the importance of workplace T&D can lead to the following.

2.3.4.1 Poor performance

Employees who do not get adequate training may struggle to meet the performance standards. While some staff workers may be self-driven and take it upon themselves to learn how to do their jobs better (Noe & Kodwani, 2018), some can only do this when pushed or encouraged by the organisation. As a result, they may learn by test and error or by emulating co-workers of changing competency levels. Therefore, the management has a legal duty to ensure that employees are provided with impartial and adequate T&D at all levels. Ignoring this responsibility will lead to decreased staff morale and increased organisational absence.

Lack of training leads to lower standard services to clients. If an untrained employee can finish tasks as quickly as his colleagues, the finished job may have more faults or inconsiderate errors (Ellingson & Noe, 2017). For example, a poorly trained employee in a department may not know how to operate the systems put in place or assist clients electronically. If this is neglected, low-quality service delivery to clients might negatively dent the organisation's image. If all employees

are making the same errors and performing poorly, it signals that assessment is necessary to know the type and standard of training needed.

However, it is evident that in some cases, poor-quality work from lack of training can negatively impact employees and organisations. For example, suppose the government departments do not train employees in the online systems processes. In that case, employees might enter the wrong administrations, give clients back inaccurate information, or otherwise leave a bad impression of that department. This implies that the departments must maintain an open-door policy to allow employees to have a say in T&D requirements decisions. Failure to engage and empower employees in the decision-making procedures will ultimately lead to individuals deviating from work-related duties to non-work-related tasks,

2.3.4.2 Reduced productivity

With constant technological updates and an increase in global trading, the levels of competition between industries are ever-increasing. This situation means that it is even more important that workers are sufficiently skilled with the education and talent levels required to work safely and effectively (Ellingson & Noe, 2017). Poorly trained employees will likely feel undervalued, reducing productivity, loyalty, and engagement. Therefore, if the department manager does not offer equal opportunities for all employees in the same job categories, this will demotivate personnel from their duties.

An important reason for low employee productivity might be that they do not feel they belong with their company. For instance, when department employees notice that their request for any information on T&D procedures is not consented to/recognised. This sense of feeling will cause withdrawal behaviours, i.e., withholding efforts.

2.3.4.3 Increased staff turnover

Employee turnover is when employees leave their job at an organisation (Noe & Kodwani, 2018). When employee turnover transpires, corporations tend to lose employee efficiency and be required to recruit new employees. As a result, organisations suffer from lower morale and must deal with additional expenses incurred.

In addition, increased workplace stress and poorly trained employees are likely to feel unappreciated in their jobs. As a result, they will either leave in search of better opportunities (Noe & Kodwani, 2018). However, if employers show that they have invested in the development and success of employees, it is most likely to increase employee loyalty and self-confidence.

Employees are interested in performing their jobs well to advance the company, feel a sense of pride for a job well done and advance to higher positions (Zehra, 2016). This implies that if there are no effective T&D practices within the department in areas of need, employees will not understand how to do their jobs, and none of the objective goals can be achieved. This leads to low employee morale, ultimately resulting in employee turnover. An organisation with a reputation for high employee turnover is unattractive to possible job entrants.

2.3.5 Measuring justness of T&D practices

Measuring the justness of T&D practices is a procedure that requires the creation of indicators that may be consistently tracked to detect progress toward a set goal. It is critical for a department to create performance values to review outcomes. It is also vital to understand how to choose and what to measure, that is, employee engagement and which grounds will be used for this measurement. The indicators evaluated were grouped under three categories: distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter delineated an overview of the definition, types, and causes of deviant employee behaviour and how it will be measured within the selected government departments. The chapter further outlined the concept of T&D and its importance and made an overview of practices of T&D and its consequences. The next section will focus on developing hypotheses using the theories linked to this study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a synopsis of the study through a comprehensive discussion on the variables of T&D practices and EDB. Building on Chapter 2, the following tasks are undertaken in this chapter (Chapter 3). The discussion begins with the theoretical framework underpinning the research is discussed. Following this, the conceptual framework illustrating the problem under investigation is presented and discussed. Finally, hypotheses are developed guided by the literature review.

3.2 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for this study is linked to three (3) theories, namely, Organisational Justice Theory (OJT), Social Exchange Theory (SET) and Equity Theory (ET). These theories are based on the argument that an employee's perception of unfair T&D practices in South African public service organisations will lead to negative feelings and low employee motivation. The three theories are discussed below.

3.2.1 Social exchange theory

Social exchange theory is a framework for understanding social interactions and relationships, based on the idea that these interactions are a form of exchange where individuals seek to maximize their benefits and minimize their costs. This theory, which is rooted in economics, psychology, and sociology, assumes that individuals engage in social interaction as a kind of 'trade' seeking a return on their

investments. In this context, 'benefits' or 'rewards' could be material (like money or goods), but could also be non-material, such as receiving love, approval, or information. 'Costs' can include time, energy, or resources expended in the interaction, or negative experiences such as stress or disappointment (Homans, 1958). From this perspective, key concept in SET is reciprocity, or the mutual expectation for exchange of value or service where individuals expect that kindness, effort, or investment of resources on their part will be repaid in some way in the future (Homans, 1984). Overall, the theory helps explain why individuals form and maintain certain relationships, suggesting that people are more likely to continue relationships in which the benefits outweigh the costs (Homans, 1984).

3.2.1.1 Origin of SET

Social exchange theory is attributed to several key sociologists and psychologists in the mid-20th century with Homans (1958, 1961, 1974), Blau (1964, 1987) and Thibaut and Kelley (1959) the most notable. The SET perspective transcends a blend of economic theory, psychology, and sociology, and it considers human interactions and relationships through the lens of costs and benefits.

George C. Homans (1910-1989) is often credited as one of the founders of social exchange theory, Homans, a sociologist, introduced the idea that social behaviour revolves around exchanges, where individuals aim to maximize rewards and minimize costs. He proposed five basic propositions (success, stimulus, value, deprivation-satiation, and aggression-approval propositions) to describe how the theory works in social interactions. Another significant contributor is Blau (1964, 1987) who further expanded Homans' (1958, 1961, 1974) works and highlighted the broader social structures and norms that guide social exchanges. His contributions emphasized the role of inequality and power dynamics in social exchanges, and he made clear distinctions between economic and social exchanges. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) expanded the theory by considering social interactions in the context of interpersonal relationships. They introduced the concept of comparison levels (expectations based on past relationships) and

comparison level alternatives (potential opportunities outside the current relationship) that influence individuals' decisions to continue or leave a relationship. These foundational theories have been expanded and adapted over time to study various aspects of social interactions and relationships, including power dynamics, reciprocity, dependence, fairness, and trust.

3.2.1.2 Explaining social exchange

As indicated above, George C. Homans, an American sociologist, is considered one of the pioneers of the Social Exchange Theory. In his seminal work, Homans (1958) defined social exchange as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and rewarding or costly, between at least two persons. He posited that social exchange entails a series of interactions that generate obligations, and these transactions form the basis of social structure and are shaped by the norm of reciprocity. This implies that relationships entail a give-and-take dynamic, and individuals anticipate a return on their social investments, thus creating a continuous cycle of reciprocity.

Homans (1958, 1961, 1974) believed that individuals, in their social interactions, aimed to maximize rewards (which can be material or immaterial) and minimize costs. He articulated several key propositions to explain this behaviour, including the success proposition (repeatedly rewarded behaviour will likely be repeated) and the stimulus proposition (if in the past an activity was rewarded, similar future activities will also likely be rewarded), among others.

However, Homans' (1958, 1961, 1974) interpretation of social exchange has been expanded upon by subsequent theorists, incorporating elements such as power dynamics, social equity, and relationship contexts. Apart from George Homans, other sociologists and psychologists have also made substantial contributions to the development of SET.

For example, building upon Homans' (1958, 1961, 1974) works, Blau (1964, 1987) distinguished social exchange from economic exchange. Blau defined social exchange as interactions that generate obligations and are built on trust and a sense of personal obligation rather than explicit bargains, contracts, and reciprocity. He emphasized that social exchange involves an element of uncertainty as there is no guarantee of reciprocation.

Emerson (1976) introduced the concept of "power-dependence relations" in social exchange. He defined social exchange as a process that can lead to balance (or imbalance) of power in relationships, stating that the power one party holds in a relationship depends on how much they can control resources that are valued by the other party.

Thibaut and Kelley (1959) in their "Interdependence Theory" framed social exchange within the context of interpersonal relationships. They defined social exchange as a mutual, interdependent interaction between two or more individuals who seek to maximize rewards and minimize costs, with the understanding that the actions of each party affect the other.

Adams (1965) argued that the basic principle of SET is that employees view satisfying HRM practices as an 'organisation's commitment towards them. Therefore, employees respond through positive behaviours such as employee commitment to excel, dedication, loyalty, and dependability in exchange for fair and just HRM practices. The central belief in SET is that relationships frequently evolve into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments if the parties abide by specific exchange guidelines. Therefore, in this study, SET will be used to disclose how social interactions can positively impact employees' commitment, citizenship behaviour, and satisfaction, to mention a few.

In other words, social exchange is focused on the reciprocal exchange of extrinsic benefits and the forms of association created between individuals. For example, employees will become more enthusiastic about working beyond limits and always

obey rules and set values because they feel cherished and appreciated by their organisation. On the contrary, if individuals perceive that they do not benefit from their relationship with the organisation, they are likely to display deviant behaviours. Adams (1965) also states that once employees perceive injustice and lack of reciprocal exchange from employers on T&D advancement opportunities, they will likely display adverse deviant behaviours such as tardiness and vandalism of the company's property.

Therefore, the provision of justness on T&D prospects will likely increase the employees' enthusiasm, and they will likely be constantly flexible in their jobs. Implementing T&D practices fairly or unfairly, depending on employees' perceptions, can positively or negatively impact employees' commitment, satisfaction, or citizenship behaviour (Blau, 1964). Managers in Government departments need to take heed and ensure that justness in T&D practices prevails. This implies that if employees in the department perceive that they are valued and respected in decisions of T&D practices, it will result in positive outcomes of employees being more committed to their workplace.

3.2.1.3 Applications of SET

Social exchange relationships evolve when employers care for employees and engender beneficial consequences. In other words, the social exchange relationship is a mediator or intervening variable: Advantageous and fair transactions between strong relationships, and these relationships produce effective work behaviour and positive employee attitudes. This line of reasoning has received much attention, most of which uses Blau's (1964) framework to describe social exchange relationships. Social exchange theory hold many applications for practitioners and managers in aspects such as workplace behaviour and relationship rewards.

In addition, social exchange principles explain the nature of social interactions between organisational members and organisations. For example, suppose an

employee within an organisation has a good social exchange relationship with an employer. In that case, that employee is motivated to put extra effort with confidence because of the perceived support and element of fairness.

3.2.1.4 Relevance of SET to the current study

SET has been used to analyse the employee-organisation relationship in the USA and is increasingly attracting empirical research activities (Meira & Hancer, 2021). It highlights the role between management and workers, affecting their commitment, motivation, and desire to remain in an organisation. Therefore, it is very applicable to this study as the context is commitment level which can measure an employee's success. For instance, when employees in departments trust their supervisors, they may have confidence that they can achieve better long-term outcomes with cooperative behaviour, offering interesting context to study the justness of T&D practices.

3.2.2 Equity Theory

Equity theory (ET) is a key concept in social psychology that deals with the balance or imbalance of interpersonal relationships. The theory is based on the idea that individuals are driven to maintain equity in the social exchanges or relationships they are involved in, and when these exchanges feel unfair, they experience distress and work to restore balance. The sections below discuss the definitions, origins, applications of ET and the relevance of ET to the current study.

3.2.2.1 Definition and origins of ET

Equity theory posits that people value fair treatment, which motivates them to maintain fairness within their relationships. In an equitable relationship, the ratio of inputs (e.g., effort, time, resources) to outcomes (e.g., rewards, recognition) are perceived as equal by all parties involved (Adams, 1963). For Adams (1963), when a person perceives inequity or unfairness (either they are over-rewarded or under-

rewarded relative to their inputs), they experience distress, which leads to efforts to restore equity.

Equity theory was first proposed by the behavioural psychologist John Stacey Adams in 1963. Adams' work focused on the workplace and employee relationships. He argued that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs they bring to a job and the outcomes they receive from it, and they compare this ratio with the input-outcome ratios of others (referents). If they perceive an imbalance, they may adjust their work effort, seek a change in pay, or alter their perception of their own or their referent's inputs or outcomes (Adams, 1963).

This theory is connected to employee's fairness perception of how they are being treated at work (Homans, 1958). Employees measure fairness by comparing themselves with others to determine if they are treated fairly (Adams, 1965). Adams's theory implies that should T&D practices at the government departments in Limpopo Province be conducted fairly and justly, employees will likely be more devoted to their duties by putting more effort into reaching the targeted organisational objectives. In other words, equity theory suggests that an individual's motivation level increases with their perception of fairness. On the other hand, if individuals perceive injustice, their motivation will decrease, and they are likely to exhibit deviant behaviour in the workplace.

3.2.2.2 Applications of ET in the workplace

Over time, the equity theory has been expanded and applied to various types of relationships beyond the workplace, including personal and romantic relationships. However, the core concept of maintaining a fair balance of inputs and outcomes at the workplace remains central to the theory. For example, equity theory has been widely applied in HRM to enhance employee motivation, job satisfaction, and productivity.

Following Dzansi (2016), some of the ways it can be utilized at the workplace relate to HRM aspects namely compensation and benefits, recognition and reward programs, performance appraisals, workload distribution, and training and development opportunities. Regarding compensation and benefits, equity theory underscores the importance of fair compensation (Homans, 1958; Adams, 1963; Adams, 1965). If employees perceive their pay and benefits to be equitable with their workload and compared to what their peers are receiving, they are likely to be more satisfied and motivated. Secondly, equity theory demands that performance appraisals should be conducted fairly, with managers providing clear, objective feedback because when employees see the appraisal process as fair and balanced, they're more likely to accept feedback and make necessary improvements compensation (Homans, 1958; Adams, 1963; Adams, 1965). Similarly, distributing tasks and responsibilities equally can help to promote a sense of fairness among employees. Overloading some employees while others have lighter workloads can lead to perceptions of inequity, which could harm morale and productivity. Further, rewards and recognitions should be given based on merit and contribution. When employees see that their hard work and dedication are recognized and rewarded in an equitable manner, they are likely to remain motivated and engaged. Last but not the least, offering equal opportunities for skill development and career progression ensures that all employees have a fair chance to advance within the organization compensation (Homans, 1958; Adams, 1963; Adams, 1965). When employees feel they have equal access to growth opportunities, they're likely to be more committed to the organization. Thus, by applying the principles of equity theory, HRM can create a work environment that encourages fairness, which can lead to increased employee motivation, job satisfaction, productivity, and reduced workplace conflict.

3.2.2.3 Relevance of ET to the current study

ET has been used to enhance the effects of favouritism on employees and is increasingly attracting practical research activities (Keshavarz & Ansari, 2023). It ensures everyone is treated fairly and has a chance to succeed. In addition, it can

help reduce discrimination and promote diversity, which is essential for a productive and successful workplace. Therefore, it is very applicable to this study as the context revolves around justness, which can measure employee success. For instance, when the departments offer bias-free job positions or promotions to their employees, it reflects an element of equity for all individuals. It, therefore, contains an interesting perspective to study the justness of T&D practices.

3.2.3 Organisational justice theory

Dixit and Singh (2019) believe OJT is linked to T&D practices and EDB. Organisational justice conveys a message to employees about whether they are being treated fairly by their organisations, superiors, and colleagues regarding T&D practices (Cropanzano et al., 2017). The following subsections discuss the definitions, origins, and applications of OJT, the significance of OJT to the current study and measuring perceptions.

3.2.3.1 Defining organisational justice (OJ)

There seems to be a general agreement on what the concept of OJ entails by several scholars. For example, Cropanzano et al. (2017) view OJ as the perceptions of fairness regarding the appropriateness of workplace practices. Dixit and Singh (2019) posit that the OJ refers to employees' fairness perceptions about how they are being treated by their organisations, superiors, and colleagues. Lind and Tyler (2017) define OJ as the psychology of justice applied to organisational settings. These definitions reflect the essence of OJ in the literature. Therefore, it is fair to define the concept of OJ in terms of how employees experience or perceive their organisations' practices as fair. In this sense, OJ is inherently subjective, as what one employee views as fair may be seen as unfair by another. However, any perceived sense of injustice by an employee can negatively impact their dedication to the organization. This could lead to decreased job performance, diminished job satisfaction, an increase in instances where employees are hesitant to help their

colleagues, and potential for employees to engage in disruptive behaviour like sabotage (Choi, 2018).

Greenberg (1987) focuses on perceptions of fairness in organisations by categorising employees' views and feelings about their treatment and others within an organisation. Therefore, the term OJ refers to the degree to which personnel perceive workplace measures, relations, and results to be just in nature. These perceptions are likely to impact attitudes and behaviour for good and, as an out turn, positively or negatively impact employee performance and the organisation's success. In other words, insights into justice are significant for the effective organisational operation and the welfare of employees since justice perceptions are primarily linked to aspects such as satisfaction, commitment, and motivation (Muqadas, Rehman & Aslam, 2017).

3.2.3.2 Origins of OJT

The origins of OJT lay in ET, developed by Adams in 1965. Under ET, an employee is thought to engage in an internal balancing of perceived inputs such as effort, knowledge, and education and outputs, for instance, rewards, punishments, and provisions, in relation to a chosen referent other's perceived inputs and outputs (Lim & Loosemore, 2016). As a result, the concept becomes relevant to organisational dimensions; securing fair treatment for personnel in the public service is the utmost imperative goal of service delivery.

Organizational Justice has been recognized as having several unique dimensions: distributive, procedural, interactional, and informational Justices (Demir, 2015). Researches examining distributive and procedural justices, like the study by Dixit and Singh (2019), point out the differences in their predictive capacities. They propose that procedural justice more accurately forecasts organizational outcomes, while distributive justice is a more robust predictor of personal results, particularly evident when metrics like employee turnover and satisfaction are assessed on an individual rather than organizational level. Distributive justice and

procedural fairness amplify the social exchange relationship, whereas office politics can undermine it. (Sal & Raja, 2016).

3.2.3.3 Typologies of OJ

The three types of OJ are defined in numerous ways based on different managerial decisions. Each is interrelated and constitutes the overall organisational fairness system (Demir, 2015).

3.2.3.3.1 Distributive justice

Distributive justice pertains to the equitable distribution of resources within an organization (Lim & Loosemore, 2016). For instance, it applies to the allotment of both monetary and non-monetary resources, like rewarding an employee who hits performance targets with a bonus. The concept of distributive justice can be traced back to the work of Adams (1965), who framed it within the broader context of social exchange, a reciprocal process where employees agree to provide their best knowledge and skills in exchange for the compensation and benefits offered by their employers.

Adams' goal was to understand when and why employees might perceive such exchanges as fair or unfair, and how they would react to perceived inequity. Adams (1965) suggested that compensation and benefits should be transparent and equitable, thus leading to higher employee engagement and motivation. Many organizations already uphold the principle of equity to a large extent, through standardized HR policies such as established job grades and salary bands, equal opportunities for training and development, and avoidance of favouritism (Muqadas, Rehman & Aslam, 2017).

Under this perspective, employees engage in a transactional relationship with their employers, offering their best knowledge, skills, and labour in return for wages and benefits. This implies that employees who contribute more value should receive

higher compensation. Distributive justice often comes into play when considering issues like the relative distribution of salaries and benefits, merit-based pay, office space allocation, and budgetary fund distribution. In other words, when employees in the departments perceive that they are offered equal T&D opportunities and equal pay for the equivalent work, it will result in work dedication and less engagement in deviant behaviours.

3.2.3.3.2 Procedural justice

Procedural justice involves employees' assessment of the fairness of the policies and procedures implemented by management that govern decision-making processes (Muqadas et al., 2017). It suggests that employees should feel their contributions are valued by the organization and that fairness in procedures is as important to them as the outcomes themselves. This sense of justice is often recognized by employees when they are allowed to express their opinions about fair procedures.

Scholars like Cropanzano et al. (2017) and Demir (2015) agree that procedural fairness significantly influences how employees perceive their status within the organization. They also discovered that employees are more likely to appreciate and pay attention to information derived from the procedures that lead to decision outcomes that affect them. Donovan and Klahm (2015) view procedural fairness as a bridge between commitment and the organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) of employees. As such, it is reasonable to infer that employees who demonstrate commitment to the organization are likely to respond positively to procedural fairness. Thus, if the employees in the departments perceive that the process of promotion or pay was managed unfairly, they are likely to retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviours.

3.2.3.3.3 *Interactional justice*

Interactional justice pertains to the manner in which individuals are treated during the execution of decisions and how employers convey the reasons behind these decisions with sensitivity and respect (Dixit & Singh, 2019). In essence, it involves the interpersonal transactions between employees and their superiors. Enhancements in interactional justice can be made by providing comprehensive information and justification for managerial decisions (Donovan & Klahm, 2015). The fairness aspect of interactional justice hinges on judgments concerning the perceived veracity and sufficiency of the explanations given to substantiate decisions (Lim & Loosemore, 2016). It is associated with perceptions of trustworthiness, honesty, and consistency within decision-makers.

Interactional justice emphasizes the treatment of individuals when decisions are enacted. Employees perceive fairness when their employers clarify decisions and treat them with dignity, respect, and sensitivity (Colquitt et al., 2013). Nevertheless, factors like courteousness, appropriateness of behaviour, and fairness of decisions shouldn't be overlooked, as employees see just treatment as respectful and reaffirming their status as esteemed members of the organisation.

Supporting this viewpoint, researchers like Adil, Owais, and Qamar (2018) propose that shifts in employee attitudes and behaviours are dependent on their experiences of the execution of organizational justice interventions. Thus, a positive and consultative or inclusive implementation of fairness within the organization can significantly influence employee motivation, performance, job satisfaction, trust, organizational commitment, and organizational climate, more so than negative experiences. Interactional justice can be further categorized into interpersonal and informational justice, with the following paragraph detailing informational justice.

Informational justice is communicating relevant reasons for the procedures used in appraising and the rationale of distributing rewards to the employee in the organisation (Demir, 2015). In other words, informational justice relates to the

capability of information and the clarifications given regarding appropriateness and honesty based on the procedures used to arrive at decisions that affect employees. This type of justice strongly affects the emotional attachment of the employee and the organisation. It affects organisational outcome behaviours such as organisational commitment, influenced by the organisation's environment (Dixit & Singh, 2019). For instance, in different departments, if a manager conveys T&D decisions confidentially to subordinates, employees will not participate in deviant behaviours because they will feel respected.

3.2.3.4 Applications of OJT

Maintaining OJ is a priority of every business entity as it will encourage communication and trust and avoid counterproductive behaviour, disengagement, absenteeism, and deviance at the workplace (Zehra, 2016). In order to ensure fairness in the workplace, organisations should create a fair appraisal system that will allow employees to express their feelings and opinions in the appraisal consultation. For example, if department employees have a say in decisions affecting their T&D requirements, it will make them feel more valued. Employees want to see their work performance assessed accurately and unbiasedly. In addition, employees should feel supported, and managers should feel prepared so the whole organisation can benefit.

Organisational justice should be applied in case of conflict resolution. It is an emerging concern for organisations because if not managed correctly, it results in a higher risk of perceived injustices (Dixit & Singh, 2019). It is important that all involved parties are permitted to voice their concerns during conflict resolution procedures. For example, if employees in different departments perceive a lack of equal T&D opportunities, they may engage in deviant behaviour to retaliate to suit themselves. Thus, the conflict resolution practice must be applied to ensure workplace justice.

An organisational change research by Cropanzano, Strah, Rupp and Cannon (2022) showed that perceptions of fairness affected the extent to which employees accepted and adjusted to organisational changes. Factors influencing perceptions of fairness centred around communication and involvement, for example, receiving regular, honest information about the objectives of change and its progress and the opportunity to express views and concerns. Employees also wish to be involved in decision-making, and their suggestions are taken seriously and acted upon (Sims, Yurova, & Zeidler, 2021). For instance, when employees are always provided with up-to-date information on how T&D decisions are concluded. This will, in turn, increase their level of commitment and loyalty to the organisation. Communication and involvement play a huge role in helping individuals to understand the reasoning for change and to make a fair perception of the new environment.

3.2.3.5 Relevance of OJT to the current study

Organisational justice theory has been used to investigate organisational citizenship behaviour in China (Luyang Li, Shi & Chan, 2022). It was found that OJ promotes positive attitudes of job satisfaction, commitment and trust, breeding healthy and constructive professional and interpersonal behaviour. Therefore, it is very applicable to this study as the context revolves around justness which can measure impact on the behaviour and attitude of the employee at the workplace. For example, department employees want to be informed on various organisational T&D procedures, outcomes, and decision-making processes. Through this exercise of justness, employees will remain committed to their workplace.

3.2.3.6 Measuring justice perceptions

Well-designed systems that promote distributive, procedural and interactional justice profit both the employee, who will be satisfied that been fairly treated and the organisation, which will maintain control over potential challenges and threats from its staff while reaping the benefits of being an employer of choice. Measuring

justice perceptions is key because it increases the perception of distributive, procedural and interactional OJ.

3.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The thesis statement of the research which is depicted in the conceptual framework is that employees' perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justices in T&D practices affect the Job-related deviant behaviours time misuse, poor attendance, and withholding efforts in government departments in Limpopo province.

3.3.1 DIAGRAM OF THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework depicted in Figure 3.1 presents the framework of the study. The conceptual framework provides an illustrative view of how the justness of T&D practices affects the selected job-related employee deviant behaviours at the government departments.

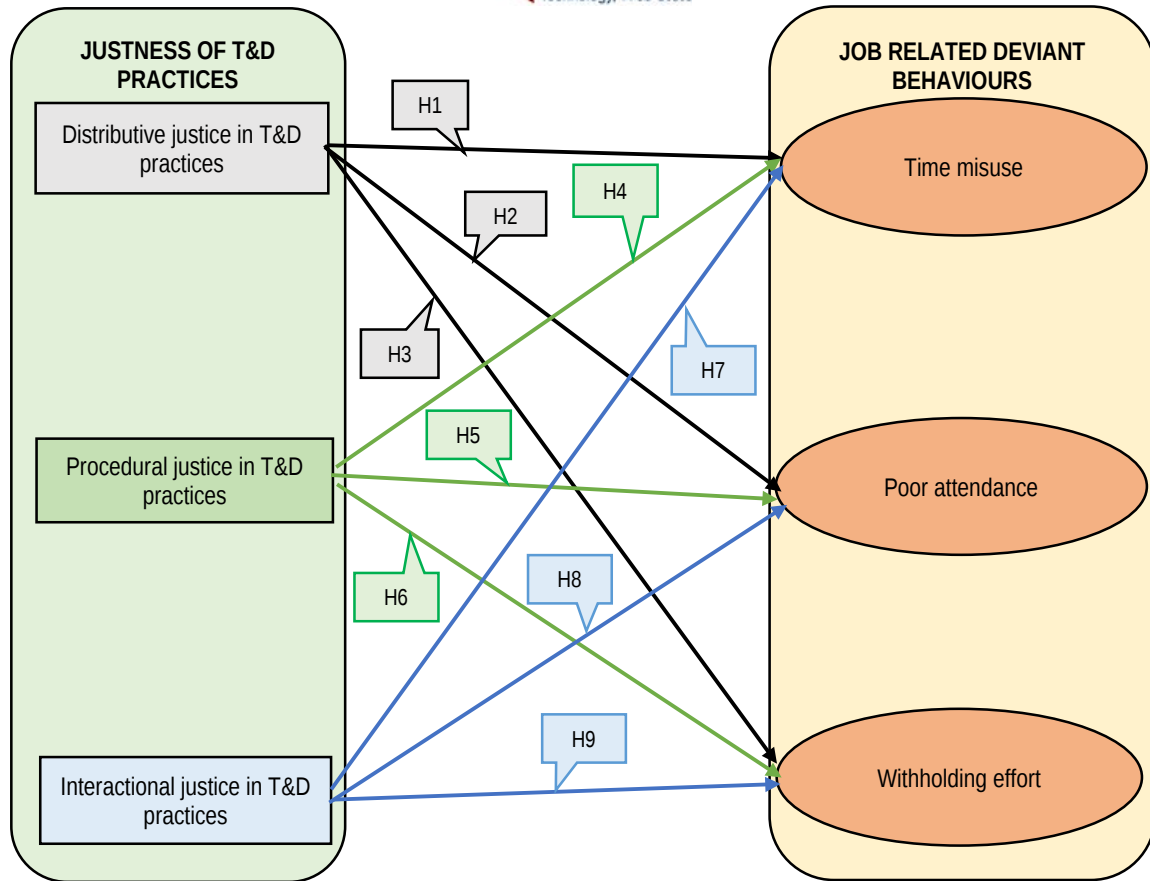


Figure 3.1: The hypothesised relationships among variables

3.3.2 Explanation of the proposed conceptual model

The conceptual framework underpinning this study has one central construct, thus, the justness of T&D practices. It needs to be emphasised that the justness of T&D practices is delivered by organisations entirely. Firstly, the justness of T&D practices constituents, such as distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, affect selected Job performance-related deviant behaviours. These justness dimensions in T&D practices are anticipated to be negatively associated with the selected Job performance-related deviant behaviours. These are time misuse, poor attendance and withholding efforts, as discussed independently and in detail below.

3.3.2.1 Distributive justice in T&D practices and time misuse

Fundamentally, distributive justice and job-related deviant behaviour can be attributed primarily to whether individuals have unbiased share of outcomes in the workplace. It specifically deals with outcomes allocation in organisations when members perceive that they are treated unfairly in allocations of outcomes (Luyang et al., 2022). For example, if individuals perceive injustice in T&D decisions made in a biased manner, this will lead to behavioural and psychological reactions. Many studies have revealed that justice can lead to various positive outcomes like job satisfaction and organisational commitment while injustice leads to negative outcomes like misuse of time (Qureshi, Lambert & Frank, 2020). In other words, if employees in the government department feel that their organisation does not value or treat them equally, this perception can lead them to bring balance between their contributions and what they receive in response, for which they become involved in some toxic organisational behaviours such as taking longer breaks than permitted by the department. Earlier studies (Letsa, Frempong, & Mensah, 2021; Shah, Anwar & Irani, 2017) found a strong negative link between justness in T&D practices and deviant behaviour. Others like Fagbenro (2019), Oosthuizen, Rabie and De Beer (2018) have found to the contrary. However, based on the findings of those who have found negative association between organisational justice and deviance behaviour, the following hypothesis is proposed, inferring from the above discussions and findings from the extant literature. *H1: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.*

3.3.2.2 Distributive justice in T&D practices and poor attendance

The reason for dissent between the employer and the employee is the feeling of injustice and unfair dealings (Dixit & Singh, 2019). When employees perceive that they are paid and treated equally, it will result in fair employment practices within the organisation (Dixit & Singh, 2019). However, when employees feel that they are at an unfair disadvantage relative to others or have not received their fair share, they may wish to engage in deviant behaviours such as poor attendance or absenteeism (Dixit & Singh, 2019). Research suggests that justice is significantly

associated with the social exchange in this connection. For example, De Boer, Bakker, Syroit, and Schaufeli (2002) found negative association between organisational justice and absenteeism. However, surprisingly, Opara (2021) found that there is positive and significant relationship between organisational justice and employee work attendance which conversely implies positive and significant relationship between organisational justice and employee poor work attendance. Similarly, Ha and Moon (2023) also found that organizational justice is positively associated with employee voluntary absence. While employees contribute their time and effort to the organisation, employers must be considerate by compensating them through appropriate rewards and recognition (Adil et al., 2018). In other words, if the departments do not provide equal T&D opportunities for all employees, this may lead to staff calling in sick to avoid going to work. Therefore, it can be argued that maintaining the equal provision of T&D opportunities could improve the organisations' productivity and positively impact employee performance. Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed. *H2: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance.*

3.3.2.3 Distributive justice in T&D practices and withholding efforts

It is observed that withholding efforts in the workplace is considered a key typical factor in determining the success/ failure of an organisation (Harlos & Knoll, 2021). In public service, withholding efforts affects a firm's ability to achieve results if employees are demotivated or less productive (Zehra, 2016). Social exchange theory posits that the fair treatment of employees should make employees develop a sense of obligation toward their organization and they normally reciprocate by not engaging in positive work behaviour (Adams, 1995). By the same token, unfair treatment of employees should make employees develop a negative sentiment toward their organization and they normally retaliate by engaging in deviant behaviour. For instance, if employees' training requirements are unmet, they will retaliate by putting in less effort than expected (Ellingson & Noe, 2017). Empirical results back this claim. For example, Jaakson et al. (2017) conducted a search and the results showed that unfairness treatment of employees resulted in withholding

effort. Similarly Kim (2017) found that perceived organisational prejudices led to employee to exert minimal effort at work. Similarly, Bagheri and Shahroodi (2014) found a negative association between organisational justice and underperformance. Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed. *H3: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.*

3.3.2.4 Procedural justice in T&D practices and time misuse

OJ research shows the importance of procedural justice because it enhances beneficial behaviours and attitudes, such as cooperation, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB), performance, and job satisfaction, and reduces potentially harmful behaviours and attitudes (Harlos & Knoll, 2021). Procedural justice refers to the justice of the decision-making procedures. In addition, a decision process is perceived as fair if the recipients have a say during the process or influence over the outcome and if justice criteria, i.e. consistency and lack of bias, are considered. For example, when employees in the organisation deem an unjust T&D decision-making process or to have input on areas of concern, they are likely to use their working hours to cover their agendas. Inferring from the above discussions and findings from the literature reviewed, the below hypothesis is proposed. *H4: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.*

3.3.2.5 Procedural justice in T&D practices and poor performance

Perceptions of fairness in organisations are not only influenced by outcomes (distributive justice) but are also driven by the justness of the process used to reach those outcomes (procedural justice). Situations in organisational life provide opportunities to evaluate and experience fairness and influence the perceptions of and reactions to these situations (Long et al., 2016). Therefore, fair T&D practices in the public sector are vital to combat poor staff attendance Adil et al., (2018). For example, high-stress levels among employees might lead to poor attendance.

Considering the ensuing discussions and literature findings, the hypothesis below is proposed. *H5: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance.*

3.3.2.6 Procedural justice in T&D practices and withholding effort

Perceptions of procedural justice are enhanced when the implemented procedure is one people believe most likely to promote distributive justice on average. Another aspect of looking at procedural fairness and employee voice is examining the extent to which employees justify the decisions made by their employer. In this perspective, employees. Consequently, justness of T&D practices in the public sector is fundamental to avoid employees withholding efforts (Adil et al., 2018). For example, poor management within the department might lead to withholding efforts through job neglect. Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is proposed. *H6: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.*

3.3.2.7 Interactional justice in T&D Practices and misuse of time

Interpersonal justice is all about how an employee is treated. It is defined as the extent that an employee is treated with dignity, respect, and justness. Interpersonal justice is related to a lot of positive things at work. If employees are treated with respect and dignity, they are more likely to be satisfied in their jobs and committed to their companies (Adil et al., 2018). Employees with supervisors who do not provide what is expected are likely to demonstrate greater levels of job negligence which is a component of an employee–employer connection that can affect job neglect anxieties and fairness perceptions (Zehra, 2016). In addition to the employee–employer relationship, another job context area associated with job neglect involves characteristics of an employee’s work group. For example, when employees in the organisation deem T&D decisions are not based on merit in the workplace, they will resort to running their personal errands, surfing the internet and so on (Zehra, 2016). Based on the above discussions and literature findings,

the hypothesis is proposed. *H7: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.*

3.3.2.8 Interactional justice in T&D practices and poor attendance

The impact of absenteeism is widespread, affecting personnel and the company's financial bottom line. Managers need to hire temporary replacements, co-workers take on reassigned tasks, and the company experiences a loss in general productivity. Clark (2019) found that employees were less likely to neglect their jobs if they perceived that their managers showed proficiency and consideration. Employees with supervisors who do not provide what is expected will likely exhibit greater job desertion. Noe and Kodwani (2018) also add that if employees notice poor management, they might be absent from work or arrive late deliberately as a form of retaliation against unfair practices. This justification, referred to as counteraction or defiant behaviour, implies that when employees think that their managers have not recognised their contributions. For example, if employees' rights are not valued during T&D decision-making courses, they will retaliate by spending work time on nonwork benefits (Ellingson & Noe, 2017). Considering the discussions and literature findings, the hypothesis below is proposed. *H8: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance.*

3.3.2.9 Interactional justice in T&D practices and withholding efforts

Jaakson et al. (2017) emphasised the importance of enhancing OJ at the workplace to reduce employees' negative behaviours. Their research discovered that when employees perceive some form of injustice at their workplace, they are more likely to engage in deviant behaviours such as theft, deception, concealment, and sabotage (Dixit & Singh, 2019). Lim and Loosemore (2016) found that employees are likely to report sick while not sick and put little effort at work when they perceive organisational injustices. Withholding efforts by using the Internet for personal purposes during work hours is often thought of as a simple way in which

to get back at the organisation because it is convenient. In other words, if government departments in Limpopo Province implement elements of justness in T&D practices, such as providing explanations for T&D decisions made and treating employees with dignity, respect, and sensitivity, more competent in all levels of management, this will result in an exceptional performance of employees and the organisation. The following hypothesis is proposed based on the above discussions and extant literature findings. *H9: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.*

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed the variables in the theoretical and conceptual framework. The chapter further hypothesised some linkages between the independent and the dependent variables. The study's research methodology is discussed in the next chapter.

METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the conceptual framework of the study and drew on extant literature regarding the impact of the perceived justness of T&D practices on job-related deviance behaviours. Following Snyder (2019), the main issues to be covered in this chapter include the research paradigm, the research design, the methods and procedures for data collection and analysis, and steps to assure the reliability and validity of the study. In addition, ethical considerations in this study will be discussed. The discussion commences with the research paradigm.

4.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

A researcher's philosophy is the beliefs they have regarding what constitutes true knowledge (ontological beliefs), the acceptable methods of generating true knowledge or how true knowledge can be generated (epistemological beliefs) and to what extent a researcher must be independent of the research process (axiological beliefs) (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2019). In other words, Kaushik and Walsh (2019) and Saunders et al. (2019) contend that the beliefs or philosophical stand points that are crucial to research include *being* (ontology), *knowing* (epistemology), and *acting* (Axiology). Research philosophy determines research paradigm, and they are closely related (Saunders et al., 2019). A research paradigm is the aggregate belief system and collective primary assumptions supporting knowledge development (Rahman, 2020; Saunders et al., 2019; Singer, 2019; Bloomfield & Fisher, 2019). In other words, research paradigm concerns the *kind of knowledge* (ontology), *how the knowledge* (epistemology) originated and how distant the researcher was during the research process (Rahman, 2020; Saunders et al., 2019). Research philosophy is crucial since it

impacts the research paradigm, and selection of the design type and methods in conducting a study (Rahman, 2020; Singer, 2019; Bloomfield & Fisher, 2019; Saunders et al., 2019). In other words, the choice of research paradigm is defined by the type of knowledge being studied in the research project (Held, 2019). This position is affirmed by Kamal (2019), who noted that the most critical dimensions of research beliefs or philosophy relevant for any effective study include the assumed *epistemology*, *ontology*, and *axiology*. These three assumptions, beliefs, or philosophies are explicated in detail below.

4.2.1 Ontological position of the study

The two ontological assumptions or beliefs of research are objectivity and subjectivity. This study follows the objectivist ontology. Ontology refers to the nature of knowledge or nature of being (Lackey, 2021; Saunders et al., 2019). That is, ontology examines the question of whether, social reality exists independently from human origins and interpretations (Lackey, 2021; Saunders et al., 2019) meaning, whether there is a shared social (objective) reality or only multiple, context-specific (subjective) reality (Al-Ababneh, 2020; Saunders et al., 2019).

4.2.2 Epistemology position of the study

Following the adoption of the objectivist ontology, the study is logically founded on the positivist epistemology. According to Saunders et al. (2019), epistemology concerns the means of discovering the truth or producing valid or acceptable knowledge. Similarly, for Lackey (2021), Al-Ababneh (2020), and Rahman (2020) epistemology is concerned with how knowledge originates. Epistemology is divided into two broad camps of assumptions. Underpinning these assumptions are the researchers' conclusions on the kind of technique(s) to adopt in their research, considering their epistemological assumptions (Saunders et al., 2019). From one perspective, if knowledge is assumed as hard, empirical, and tangible, the researcher then plays a viewer role and aligns with the so called 'scientific method' which is the procedures of natural discipline involving data collection, testing, and measuring (Lackey, 2021; Al-Ababneh, 2020; Rahman, 2020; Saunders et al.,

2019). On the other hand, knowledge is seen as personal, subjective, and unique, based on individual perceptions and interpretations of the world other than direct observation (Lackey, 2021; Al-Ababneh, 2020; Rahman, 2020; Saunders et al., 2019). Thus, the underlying assumption in this philosophy is that people's perceptions influence their interpretation of reality. Therefore, knowledge of the world is premised on the subject's 'understanding, (Lackey, 2021; Al-Ababneh, 2020; Rahman, 2020; Saunders et al., 2019). Thus, the objectivist ontology aligns with the 'scientific method' which is the procedures of natural discipline involving data collection, testing, and measuring. On the other hand, the subjectivism ontology is associated with the belief that individual perceptions and interpretations of the world other than direct observation constitute a legitimate way of knowledge generation. In other words, knowledge of the world is premised on the subject's 'understanding (Lackey, 2021; Al-Ababneh, 2020; Rahman, 2020; Saunders et al., 2019).

4.2.3 Axiology position of the study

Following the adoption of the objectivist ontology and the positivist epistemology, this research aligns with the value-free axiology. Essentially, axiology is concerned with the impact of the researcher's values and opinions on the data collection and analysis. According to Trovato (2021), axiology refers to the role of the researcher's orientations or values on the research process. Like ontology and epistemology, axiology has two broad categories. On the one hand, some subscribe to value-free research where researchers distance themselves from the research process while on the other hand, some subscribe to value-laden research where the researcher is an active participant in the research (Dukor, 2021; Trovato, 2021; Gustafsson, 2020). Again, it is easy to see that value free research aligns with the objectivist ontology and the positivist epistemology while the value-laden axiology aligns with subjectivity and interpretivism. It is this philosophical dichotomy that leads to the three main research paradigms discussed below.

4.2.4 The chosen research paradigm from competing paradigms

The three main competing research paradigms often followed are positivism, Interpretivism and pragmatism (Saunders et al. 2019). This research was based on the positivism paradigm. These paradigms are briefly discussed including justification for why positivism was followed.

Positivism – As stated above, the positivist paradigm stresses the primacy of the so called 'scientific method' of objectivity by seeking hard, empirical, and tangible evidence in assessing the truth without the researcher's interference (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). In other words, positivism accentuates the vitality of facts and values that enhance the conduct of an objective inquiry (Edwards, 2021; Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). As such, only knowledge that can be genuinely confirmed through the 'scientific method' should be viewed as true knowledge (Leavy, 2022). According to Farghaly (2018), positivist knowledge is viewed as objective, value-free and replicable. The positivism paradigm relies heavily on empirical logic, hypothesis formation, testing those hypotheses, results, reasoning, and deriving conclusions from data (Walsh, 2019). As Kaushik and Walsh (2019) noted, the positivist paradigm employs a quantitative methodology to test the research hypothesis for verification or falsification.

The study followed the positivist paradigm because the researcher sought to maintain an objective viewpoint regarding the effect of the justness of T&D practices on selected job-related behaviours. Thus, a structured questionnaire was used, leaving no room for bias (Cheung, 2021). In the process, hypotheses were formulated, tested and the data were analysed using statistical (quantitative) techniques, to produce "objective" results, and deriving conclusions from the results (Walsh, 2019). As Kaushik and Walsh (2019) noted, the positivist paradigm employs a quantitative methodology to test the research hypothesis for verification or falsification. Lastly, the positivism paradigm was adopted in a similar study by Ozoemenam (2020) to Investigate the impact of learning and development on employee engagement within the banking sector.

Interpretivism- In a total rejection of the positivist and objectivist traditions, opposing views of the world and knowledge appeared, known as interpretivism and constructionism (Johnston, 2018). The opponents of the positivists are commonly called interpretivists. They subscribe to the subjectivist ontology and follow the epistemology that believes in perceptions and interpretations of the of reality other than direct observation. Therefore, knowledge of the world is premised on the subject's 'understanding, derived from reflections on events and their lived experiences (Bager-Charleson & McBeath, 2020). In other words, interpretivism postulate that knowledge can be procured through exploration and comprehension of the social world with a direct focus on their meaning and interpretations. This paradigm was not adopted.

Pragmatism - Pragmatism stipulates that the prime principle of selecting either positivism or interpretivism is insignificant and these choices may occasionally be irrational and unreasonable, and the results may be misleading (Simpson, 2018). This position therefore demands the researcher to select a robust research philosophy, strategy, and methodology to undergird the study by deploying a pragmatist position. As such researcher can either adopt one or integrate different strategies, approaches, and techniques in single research to engender accurate findings (Saunders et al., 2019; Simpson, 2018). However, considering the plethora of diverse and divergent designs, strategies and techniques, the caution is that the pragmatist researcher needs to identify the appropriate mix of techniques (Hickman, 2020; Szikra, 2019). In other words, the pragmatist researcher should spot the right research designs, paradigms, methodologies, and techniques in an inquiry process (Johnston, 2018).

To conclude this section, it becomes clear that a researcher's predisposition to a positivist, interpretivist, or pragmatist orientation significantly influences the choice of research method (Dukor, 2021; Edwards, 2021; Gustafsson, 2020 & Kamal, 2019). Considering all the above, this research was based on the positivism paradigm by relying on empirical logic, hypothesis formulation and testing,

reviewing the results, reasoning, and deriving conclusions from data as advocated by Walsh (2019), Cheung (2021), Ozoemenam (2020) and many others.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH AND RESEARCH DESIGN

This section describes and justifies the research design and approach.

4.3.1 Research approach

Research approach is a key element of research (Saunders et al., 2019). According to Leavy (2022) and Saunders et al. (2019), research approach can be inductive, deductive, and abductive.

Inductive approach involves developing a hypothesis or theory based on observations and data gathered from research. It starts with specific observations and works to broader generalizations and theories (Saunders et al., 2019; Farghaly, 2018). Inferences are substantially drawn from the data observed in the inductive approach (Johnston, 2018; Szikra, 2019; Simpson, 2018). This approach was not followed in this research.

On the contrary, the deductive approach starts with a proven theory to suggest hypotheses, and then the data collection and analyses follow to confirm the hypotheses through testing (Saunders et al., 2019; Farghaly, 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In other words, deductive research involves testing a hypothesis or theory by gathering and analysing data and then using that data to confirm or disprove the hypothesis (Saunders et al., 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). It starts with a general theory or hypothesis and works towards a specific conclusion based on empirical observations (Hickman, 2020; Szikra, 2019; Saunders et al., 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The approach's major benefit is its ability to decide valid or null conclusions (Okrent, 2019).

Following the research paradigm in the discussions above, the study employed the deductive approach. This approach is considered suitable and appropriate in testing the hypotheses in Chapter 5.

The abductive approach is a mix of inductive and deductive methods and involve examining a situation or problem and generating several possible solutions based on observations and patterns (Hickman, 2020; Szikra, 2019; Saunders et al., 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2017). The abductive approach was not used in this study.

4.3.2 Research design

Research design connotes the inquirer's rational alignment toward a quantitative, qualitative, or mixed method (Kamal, 2019; Ababneh, 2020). This research followed the correlational survey design which is quantitative in nature. It involved collecting numerical data through survey and analysing the data using statistical techniques to determine relationships among variables to arrive at research conclusions that can be generalised to the population (Mishra & Alok, 2022; Kamal, 2019; Saunders et al., 2019; Sahin, 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Curral & Inkpen, 2002).

The reason for choosing the correlational survey design is that it aligns with the positivists' assumptions of the social world (Patel & Patel, 2019) that underpins the study. Secondly, although there are various specific quantitative designs, such as experimentation, in social science, the predominant design type is correlational survey research (Hickman, 2020). Moreover, this type of study aligns with the positivist approach to research (Dodds & Hess, 2020). In addition, quantitative design types like the one adopted correlational survey design emphasise the generalisability of research results to a larger population, enhancing theory building (Kamper, 2019; Sahin, 2018). Also, as the correlational survey design uses standardised measuring tools, the results tend to be more objective, reliable, and valid, thus facilitating the replicability of the studies (Molina, 2020). Lastly, the correlational survey design enables using comprehensive explanatory statistics to investigate the study phenomenon (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

The second is the qualitative design types used for collecting verbal (non-quantitative) data from media such as interviews, observations, individual opinions, and introspection, amongst others, to elicit a broader discernment of a subject under investigation (Sileyew, 2019; Basias & Pollalis, 2018; Burns & Kamal, 2019; Ababneh, 2020). This design is subjective because it involves individuals' views on events (Ababneh, 2020; Hickman, 2020; Burns & Kamal, 2019; Basias & Pollalis, 2018). Opponents of qualitative research argue that it is too suggestive and biased (Sileyew, 2019). The critics contend that qualitative research rests exclusively on the enquirer's disjointed experiences with the relevant phenomenon (Ababneh, 2020). They further argued that replication is limited due to the non-availability of standard procedures to be followed. This design was not used in this research. However, its characteristics are discussed.

The third design type that was also not used in this study is the mixed research design which combines the qualitative and quantitative methods in the same study (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2017). The mixed design stems from the realisation that the two designs have benefits and defects that the researcher can integrate ingeniously to play a reciprocal role (Molina, 2020). This design aims to validate results with the belief that its application facilitates the validity of the findings because of the integration of the various supplementary data in the study (Bairagi & Munot, 2019). For Kamper (2019), a major strength in combining quantitative and qualitative research is that one can make up for the drawbacks of another. There are different types of mixed designs. Concurrent triangulation is a mixed design that involves concurrently collecting qualitative and quantitative data (Sahin, 2018). The explanatory sequential triangulation design involves the methodical collection and analysis of quantitative data in the first stage, while the second stage involves collecting and analysing qualitative data. Stage two confirms the results of the quantitative study from stage one. A significant challenge of this type of triangulation is the uneven sample sizes deployed at each stage (Bairagi & Munot, 2019). The sequential triangulation design implements the method of collecting and analysing qualitative data at stage one, after which quantitative data is collected and analysed at stage two. Its major objective is to investigate a research

phenomenon and test the model to generalise (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Similarly, sample size differences at the various stages remain a major design drawback.

To sum up this section, the study adopted the correlational survey design to investigate the effect of training and development practices on selected job-related behaviours of public sector employees in Limpopo province.

4.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A research population is defined as the total number of units, including individuals, artefacts, events, or organisations from which data can be collected (Basias & Pollalis, 2018). As stated in Section 1.8, the target population for this study consists of employees in the various provincial government departments in Limpopo province and the only national department, the Department of Employment & Labour (DEL).

The Limpopo Provincial Government consists of 11 Departments. namely:

1. Office of the Premier (OTP)
2. Department of Agriculture and Rural Development (DARD)
3. Department of Education (DoE)
4. Department of Economic Development, Environment & Tourism (LEDET)
5. Department of Social Development (DSD)
6. Department of Health (DoH)
7. Co-operative Governance, Human Settlement and Traditional Affairs (CoGHSTA)
8. Department of Provincial Treasury (DPT)
9. Department of Public Works, Roads and Infrastructure (DPWRI)
10. Department Transport and Community Safety (DTCS)
11. Department of Sport, Arts and Culture (DSAC)

(Limpopo Provincial Government, 2023).

As stated in Section 1.8, the target population for this study consists of employees in the various 11 provincial government departments (excluding those working public schools) in Limpopo province and those from the National Department of Employment and labour (DEL) stationed at Polokwane. The 2022 workforce profile in the Limpopo Provincial Administration was 97185 (Limpopo Provincial Government, 2023) (see Table 4.0). While there is no official published data accessible for the number of employees working for DEL, a human resources department official of DEL in Polokwane gave a figure of 585 employees. The total target population therefore was 97770. This figure (97770) includes 54506 employees in the DoE most of whom are educators and 29897 employees of the DoH who are nurses and like teachers are not office based. The decision was therefore made to exclude non-office-based workers. Thus, the target population excludes educators in public schools since educators have their own working conditions that differ from office-based workers and nurses who by their nature are not office-based workers are excluded from the target population. Considering that the number of employees in rest hover between 330 to 2075 (Limpopo Provincial Government, 2023). Thus, one can conservatively estimate office-based workers in DoE and DoH to be approximately 4000 (2000 + 2000) and not 84403 (54506 + 29897). Therefore, the target population was reduced by 80403 making it to be $(97185 - (54506 + 29897) + 4000 + 585) = 17367$.

Table 4.0: Statistics of Limpopo provincial government employees as at 31st March 2022

Department	Males	Females	Total	Disabled	%Females	%Disabled
Premier	136	194	330	10	58,8	3,0
Education	20 418	34 088	54 506	143	62,5	0,3
Soc Dev	917	2 037	2 954	62	69,0	2,1
CoGHSTA	659	905	1 564	16	57,9	1,0
PWRI	1 292	823	2 115	40	38,9	1,9
SAC	199	247	446	11	55,4	2,5
Treasury	149	183	332	5	55,1	1,5
Health	7 806	22 091	29 897	130	73,9	0,4
ARD	1 048	894	1 942	45	46,0	2,3
LEDET	569	455	1 024	14	44,4	1,4
Trans & Com Serv	1 124	951	2 075	22	45,8	1,1
TOTAL	34 317	62 868	97 185	498	64,7	0,5

Source: Extracted from Limpopo Provincial Government (2023)

4.5 SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

Sample size is determined by the population size (Mukherjee, 2019) with Ababneh (2020) viewing 30% sample size where the population is small and 10% for large populations. However, Dodds and Hess (2020) believe representativity is the key and not necessarily its size. There is therefore no consensus on what a sample size should be. So, while several factors govern sample size, it is noteworthy and a fact that sample size used in student research is largely restricted by economic reasons. Application of the Ababneh (2020) recommendation of 10% of large population would mean a minimum sample size of 1737 out of the estimated target population of 17367. However, based on Dodds and Hess (2020), and due to financial constraints, the sample size of 400 was considered sufficient for the purpose of this Masters level research based on the advice of the study leaders and the statistician. In short, financial constraints and time constraints led to the decision to select 400 respondents. Based on the same reason, the decision was made to restrict the number of departments to six randomly selected departments in the province. The belief is that the six (6) departments and 400 respondents are representative of the population.

Four (4) departments were allocated 67 respondents while the remaining two were allocated 66 respondents through simple random sampling, bringing the total to 400 respondents. The allocation was done as follows.

- Department of Education (67)
- Department of Sports, Arts and Culture (67)
- Department of Employment and labour (66)
- Department of Treasury (66)
- Department of Social Development (67)
- Department of Public Works, Roads & Infrastructure (67)

Thereafter, the same simple random sampling was used to select respondents from the list of employees from each department. Simple random sampling was used so that each group member would have a fair chance of being selected (Patel

& Patel, 2019; Mishra et al., 2021; Mishra & Alok, 2022). Moreover, the simple random sampling method is justified based on its capacity to select more significant participants from a larger population unit and the shared aims associated with the government departments.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION

The main instrument employed to collect the data is the questionnaire. The questionnaire is based on the works of Dzansi (2014) and Bennett and Robinson (2000). Dzansi (2014) developed a questionnaire to conduct research titled: “An organisational justice perspective on the impact of human resource management practices on the quality-of-service delivery in municipalities in the Free State province of South Africa”. On the other hand, Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed a questionnaire in the research titled “Development of a measure of workplace deviance”. The data was then analysed with quantitative data analysis techniques by the researcher.

4.6.1 Data collection instruments

Data collection sources have been categorised into primary and secondary data (Bairagi & Munot, 2019). Primary data lend themselves to investigating new research problems. Seddig (2020) observed that primary sources constitute the events from which the actual data for a study are generated. The study’s data was obtained from the six (6) departments in Limpopo province through a survey questionnaire. They were physically delivered to a contact person in each department. Each contact person administered the questionnaire to respondents according to the prevailing COVID-19 protocols in their departments.

4.6.1.1 The survey questionnaire

A questionnaire refers to several structured questions administered to seek information from respondents. A questionnaire can be administered digitally or

physically in a paper format. The fundamental reasoning for using the questionnaire is that it helps to collect relevant data from numerous respondents in the sampled locations. Also, using a questionnaire promotes the researcher independence and objectivity (Cresswell & Cresswell, 2017). It is cost-effective as well (Snyder, 2019). Given these reasons, the questionnaire was used to seek the opinions of government department employees on the impact of justness on T&D practices in Limpopo province, South Africa.

The questionnaire was self-constructed and designed in cognisance of the main research objectives. As stated above, the questionnaire used in this study is adapted from Dzansi (2014) and Bennett and Robinson (2000) both validated with high internal consistency. Thus, the questionnaire used in the current study is based on two validated questionnaires. The two sources Dzansi (2014) and Bennett and Robinson (2000) are public domain items. Moreover, the items were not lifted verbatim or "as is" and as such did not require permission to use. However, they are acknowledged.

The questionnaire for the current study was segregated into three major parts. Section 'A' represented the participants' personal data, while section 'B' explored the justness/ fairness of training and development practices. Lastly, section 'C' explored job-related deviant behaviours. Sections B items were based on Dzansi (2014) but adapted in semantics to suit the context of the present study. Furthermore, the current used a 7-point scale instead of the 5-point scale used by Dzansi (2014). Secondly, all the items in Section C were based on Bennett and Robinson (2000) with adaptation in semantics to suit the context of the present study.

The 7-point Likert Scale was employed to measure the respondents' views on the impact of perceived T&D practices on selected EDB: Insights from the Limpopo province, South Africa. The 7-Likert Scale used the indicators 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=Neutral and 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Agree, 7 strongly agree. The close-ended items enabled the participants to select from

several multiple responses hinged on a Likert scale between 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree) that allowed subjects to indicate their opinions on the impact of the justness of T&D practices on selected EDB in their departments.

4.6.1.2 Questionnaire items

The questionnaire items employed to measure the justness of T&D practices and EDB constructs are presented in Tables 6.3 and 6.4.

Table 4.1: Questionnaire items for the justness of T&D practices

(SN)	Questionnaire Item
1	Distributive Justice (DJ) Training and development are done based on each employee's requirements. Training and development decisions are made in an unprejudiced manner. That is, regardless of race, gender etc. Training and development opportunities are available to all employees. Equal training and development opportunities exist for all employees in the same job categories. The number of training days available to employees is calculated based on the length of service Individuals with higher status, authority, or control receive more training and development opportunities. <i>[Based on Dzansi (2014) with adaptations]</i>
2	Procedural justice (PJ) Employees are free to request for any information on training and development procedures. Employees are always provided with up-to-date information on how training and development decisions are concluded. Employees have a say in decisions affecting their training and development There are mechanisms in place for employees to appeal against perceived unfair training and development decisions. There are established training and development policies and procedures Training and development policies and procedures are consistently applied <i>[Based on Dzansi (2014) with adaptations]</i>

3	Interactional justice (IJ) Employees are always treated with respect during the training and development decision-making process. Training and development decisions are based on correct information. I believe that training and development decisions are made in an honest manner in my workplace. I believe that training and development decisions are based on merit in my workplace. Employees' rights are always valued during training and development decision-making courses. Declined training and development decisions are conveyed to employees in a respectful manner Managers personally convey training and development decisions to their subordinates in a confidential manner. Employees are provided full explanations and reasons when training requests they make are turned down. <i>[Based on Dzansi (2014) with adaptations]</i>
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Table 4.2: Questionnaire items for job-related EDB

Questionnaire item
Employee deviant behaviour (EDB) Instead of getting my work done, I spend time talking with colleagues at work. Sometimes, I add time to my time log and timesheet so that it looks like I worked more than I did. I tend to take longer breaks than permitted by the department. I extended my shift deliberately by working slower than required. While at work, I normally spend time checking my personal email or social media accounts. I usually spend time on non-work-related tasks, while I should have been working. Sometimes I do not show up at work for no reason I show up late for work even when I could make it in on time I sometimes call in sick to avoid going to work I sometimes fake sickness while at work in order to go home I put less effort on the work when colleagues are around to do the work. I take more and longer breaks than I should. I deliberately avoid my manager to avoid being assigned extra work I give less than 100 percent effort on my job. I tend to spend too much time at work on personal issues instead of working. <i>[Based on Benet and Robinson (2000) with adaptations]</i>

4.7 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

The collection of the data for this study was limited to six government departments in Limpopo province, South Africa. Earlier, a letter of introduction from the Central University of Technology was dispatched to the HODs of selected departments in Limpopo province to facilitate access to their employees. This step undisputedly contributed greatly to the response rate. The researcher visited the respondents randomly on given dates. The visit started on the 22nd of October 2022 and lasted for two (2) weeks. A greater part of the questionnaires was completed immediately. The researcher had to revisit respondents who were too busy to complete their questionnaire fully, and those respondents who could not fill out the questionnaires immediately were given a day to complete the questionnaire, which was subsequently collected by the researcher.

4.8 PILOT TEST/PRE-TESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Pre-testing a questionnaire or a pilot study as some call it can be defined as a small-scale test of the questionnaire to be used on a larger scale (Robinson, 2018). It is an essential step in the survey development process with the primary aim being to identify potential problems before using the questionnaire in implementing the full survey. For example, pretesting helps determine if respondents understand the questions (Robinson, 2018). Prior to the full-blown research, the questionnaire was pre-tested (piloted) on 40 respondents selected from government departments in Polokwane, the capital of Limpopo.

Among other reasons, the pre-testing of the questionnaire enabled the researcher to achieve the following specific objectives.

- To ensure that the questions are clear and understandable. Respondents may interpret questions differently than intended if there is any ambiguity. No such problem was detected.

- To identifying and correcting typographical or language errors since there might be typographical or grammatical errors that were overlooked during the design phase. The researcher was able to make typographical and linguistic corrections to the final questionnaire.
- To estimate completion time as it provides an estimate of how long it will take respondents to complete the survey. This step allowed the researcher to ensure that the questionnaire is not too lengthy or burdensome.
- Assessing sensitive questions. The fact is, some questions may be seen as intrusive or sensitive by respondents. This helped the researcher make modifications to some of the items.
- To evaluate the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Although, the questionnaire was based on previous validated questionnaire (Dzansi, 2014; Bennett & Robinson, 2000), the items were extensively modified thus constitute self-constructed questionnaire hence required evaluation of validity and reliability properties. For validity, face validity, content validity, construct validity tests were done prior to the pre-testing by submitting the questionnaire to renowned HR experts to judge. Feedback provided by the experts were incorporated into the final questionnaire. For reliability, The Cronbach's Alpha (α) the most used statistic for assessing internal consistency which indicates reliability averaged. In this case, the Cronbach's Alpha (α) were all greater than 0.70 indicating high internal consistency.

4.9 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY ISSUES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED

Steps were taken to ensure validity and reliability of the questionnaire. After the data were collected, the instrument was tested for validity and reliability. This section first discusses the validity and reliability assurance followed by their determination.

4.9.1 Ensuring validity

Validity denotes the degree to which an assessment instrument accurately measures the underlying construct it is intended to gauge (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Therefore, data collection tool needs to be precise and accurate (Fawns-Ritchie & Deary, 2020). Burns and Yates (2022) identify content and construct validity as the greatest concerns when using questionnaires.

To assure content and construct validity, researchers including Sahin (2018) suggest that the full domain of the concepts or constructs must be sufficiently covered and they must be clearly defined without ambiguity. To achieve this, extensive literature review was conducted. This approach ensured adequate exposure to the entire domain of the concepts leading to sufficient questionnaire items (Denis, 2020). Secondly, the resultant operational definitions ensured that the questionnaire items correctly relate to the concepts and constructs (Denis, 2020).

4.9.2 Ensuring reliability

Reliability is the extent to which the measurement of a construct is consistent or dependable (Pandey & Pandey, 2021). Careful development and wording of Likert scale items are prerequisites to ensuring reliability because it leads to each item being clear, unambiguous, and directly related to the T&D practices and job-related deviant behaviours that you are studying (Pandey & Pandey, 2021). Secondly, there was consistency of response scales (Pandey & Pandey, 2021) because all scale items in the instrument were measured on the 7-point scale. Thirdly, pilot testing was conducted with a sample of the target population to test the instrument before using it in the main study. The feedback from the participants about the clarity of items and the response format were instrumental in refining the questionnaire.

4.9.3 Determining reliability of the instrument used

Internal consistency, as described by Cronbach (1951), gauges the degree of similarity or homogeneity among items within a measurement tool intended to

capture a specific construct (Dodds & Hess, 2020). This type of reliability is determined using a statistical test known as Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α). According to Mukherjee (2019), an alpha coefficient of approximately 0.70 or higher is indicative of a reliable instrument. In this research, the researcher employed Cronbach's alpha coefficient to evaluate the internal consistency of the scale items. The results showed excellent internal consistency, with Cronbach's Alpha statistic equal to or greater than 0.700, as shown in Table 5.3.

4.10 DATA ANALYSIS

An objective data analysis exercise places a huge responsibility on enquirers to evaluate data to facilitate rational conclusions (Denis, 2020). Data analysis involves critically observing the composition of the information collected to select, organise, and process data for use (Abulela & Harwell, 2020). Data analysis refers to summarising, categorising, and arranging data in an orderly manner to engender comprehension (Mishra and Alok, 2022). Ritchie and Deary (2020). proposes four techniques for data analysis. These include (i) reliance on theoretical propositions; (ii) case description development; (iii) application of qualitative and quantitative data (iv) assessing alternate conclusions.

Descriptive and inferential statistics such as correlation and regression analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) were used to analyse the data collected in accordance with the research objective. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) statistical software is the most preferred statistical package when the research objective is comparative analysis. In essence, this software package can execute both parametric and non-parametric comparison analyses and further allows for checking the tests' propositions, such as the normality test and outliers test. Moreover, this statistical package permits the conduct of frequency analysis. The above compelling benefits justified the adoption of the SPSS software.

The study used SPSS version 26 in processing the data. The results were organised and presented visually using tables and graphs to comprehend the analysed data better. To assess the relationships between justness in T&D practices, (independent variable) and job-related deviant behaviours (dependent variables), the linear regression was used believing that the data conforms to the assumptions of the linear regression model.

4.9.1 Regression analysis

The study deployed linear regression in testing the itemised hypothesis advanced in Chapter 5. This model was employed as the study is predicated on the assumption that the seven prerequisites of a standard linear regression model have been met. According to Poole and O'Farrell (1971) and Berry (1993), the seven assumptions below may apply if linear regression is denoted as $Y = a + \sum_{i=1}^k b_i X_i + u$. Where Y denotes the dependent variable; $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ are k independent variables; ' a ' and ' b_i ' represents the coefficients of the regression, the specification of the model concerning a definite population; while u represents the error term which could arise because of the influence of an unknown variable of predictor (s) or just a typically random component in the relationship:

- Value ' X_i ' and ' Y ' must be observed accurately in the measurement independently.
- A linear form relationship should exist between ' Y ' and each of the predictor variables.
- u as a zero mean should be distributed conditionally.
- A homoscedasticity assumption should be present such that the conditional distribution of u should be constant.
- Serial independence of the values of ' u ' of each other with an expected covariance of zero.
- Linear independence of each of the independent variables.
- Normal distribution of the error term and normal distribution of the dependent variable ' Y '.

4.9.2 Justification for employing regression analysis

The conceptual model supporting the study demands a robust statistical measuring tool to measure the relationships between the various variables. Therefore, regression has been deployed to analyse the variables because it is considered one of the most suitable methods for assessing various independent variables in the model proposed by the study (Shrestha, 2020). Furthermore, regression analysis assesses the impact of several independent variables on the dependent variable. Adopting justness in T&D practices variables and the dependent variables (DV) (job-related deviant behaviour characteristics) explains the employment of regression analysis in testing the correlation. It is worthy of note that there is a high level of possibility in forecasting a future impact of the independent variable on the dependent variables once the link between the two variables is identified from the regression analysis.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The pressing ethical issues to be addressed in social science research range from sound research practices, non-discrimination, objectivity, competency, and respect for human rights to conflicts of interest (Montgomery, Peck & Vining, 2021). The research aims to conduct the study using the highest ethical standards. Therefore, research modalities of the Central University of Technology (CUT), assurance of no harm, freedom of subject to participate, confidentiality, anonymity, team competency and academic credibility were highly adhered to in observing and ensuring ethical issues.

First and foremost, to ensure sound research practices, the research topic was only selected after thorough consultations with a team of specialists and supervisors. This ensured the originality of the work and enhanced fresh thinking and the potential of the research output. The university ethics clearance form was completed, approval was sought and was given by the Departmental and Faculty Research and Innovation Committee (FRIC) before the commencement of the study.

The process acquainted the researcher with all related ethical issues at the Central University of Technology.

According to Hancock, Naaman and Levy (2020), attention must be taken to protect the rights and dignity of research participants. Maximum efforts were accordingly made to ensure that neither respondents nor research assistants engaged suffered any physical or psychological harm during the study. Participants were administered at their place of convenience and safety. No one was compelled to participate. Respondents freely consented to participate.

Confidentiality was also highly ensured and assured. The questionnaire clearly explained that the research was for academic purposes only, the required information will not be used for any other purpose, and the respondents' names were not required. Confidentiality of information and anonymity of respondents are assured. However, investigating and publishing issues of T&D practices on selected job-related deviant behaviour, where protection strategies tend to be information restriction, still raises ethical issues. To limit this risk, participants were guided to feel free not to disclose confidential departmental information during the survey.

Researchers must protect subjects, gather valid data, and properly analyse and interpret data (Hancock et al., 2020). Intellectual property was highly recognised, and academic credibility was maintained throughout. Appropriate acknowledgements were given, and references were cited where other ideas and knowledge were used.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided a detailed account of the procedure adopted for the investigation. It elaborated on the research paradigm, approach, conceptual framework, the hypotheses tested and design including the methods used for

gathering and analysing data, the targeted group and the sampling approach. The techniques used in the data analysis were also explained. Ethical concerns relating to the study were also examined. The ensuing chapter offers the results, including their interpretation and a comprehensive discussion.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the methodology for the study, detailing the research paradigm, approach, hypotheses, and design, including data collection and analysis methods, target group, and sampling technique. It also addressed ethical issues associated with the study. This next chapter presents and interprets the results, followed by a thorough discussion.

5.2 RESPONSE RATE

A total of 175 questionnaires were returned from the 400 distributed, accounting for an approximate response rate of 44%. Brick and Williams (2013) and Dillman (2020) do not see anything wrong with low response rates even under 50%. The decision was therefore made to consider the 175 responses sufficient for analysis.

5.3 DEMOGRAPHICS

This segment of the chapter offers a snapshot of the demographic characteristics of the respondents covering aspects like gender, age, education, departmental location, job title, duration of service, and household income of the participants.

5.3.1 Description of the study sample

The demographic variables' descriptive statistics are detailed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Demographic profile of respondents

Demographic variable		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	60	34.3%
	Female	115	65.7%
Age	18-30 years	33	18.9%
	31-40 years	40	22.9%
	41-50 years	54	30.9%
	50+ years	48	27.4%
Highest Educational qualification	PhD	15	8.6%
	Masters	15	8.6%
	Honours/PGDip	42	24.0%
	Bachelors/Adv Dip	39	22.3%
	Diploma	45	25.7%
	Below Diploma	19	10.9%
Religion	Christian	155	88.6%
	Muslim	7	4.0%
	Traditional African	11	6.3%
	Hinduism	1	0.6%
	Other	1	0.6%
Marital Status	Single	77	44.0%
	Married	76	43.4%
	Divorced	8	4.6%
	Separated	4	2.3%
	Windowed	10	5.7%
Household Income	R15000-R25000	70	40.0%
	R26000-R35000	38	21.7%
	R36000-R45000	30	17.1%
	R46000+	21	12.0%
	Other	16	9.1%
Race	African	171	97.7%
	White	4	2.3%
Family Size	1-2	21	12.0%
	3-5	109	62.3%
	6-10	44	25.1%
	11+	1	0.6%

Results in Table 5.1 show that most of the respondents are females (65.7%), and there was a fair distribution across the age groups with a slight bias towards the age groups of 41-50 years (30.9%) and the over 50-year-olds (27.4%). Most had educational levels above the diploma, with only 10.9% below the diploma. The majority were Christian (88.6%) and mainly either married (43.4%) or single (44.0%). Regarding income, 40.0% of the participants reported earnings between R15 000 – R 25 000, while 21.7% fell into the R26 000-R35 000 bracket.

Participants with salaries between R36 000-R45 000 constituted 17.1% of the sample, and those earning R46 000 or more made up 12.0% of the sample. These figures suggest that the employees are adequately educated and possess the necessary qualifications for their roles. The importance of these statistics lies in demonstrating that the departments recruit from all age groups, ensuring a variety of skills for different tasks.

5.4 WORK-RELATED DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Table 5.2 represents respondents' demographics that are work related in nature. It refers to characteristics of respondents that pertain to their work life. Since the study is about workplace, it made sense to focus on the four variables in the table. The variables are analysed to understand patterns among the respondent groups.

Table 5.2, work-related demographic profile of the respondents shows a fair representation of all government departments covered in this study. According to the results in Table 5.2, the most represented department in the study was the Department of Education, with 27.4 %. The Department of Employment and Labour followed it, by accounting for 20.6 %. The Department of Social Development accounted for 17.7 %, followed by the Department of Public Works, Roads and Infrastructure which had 14.3 %. The departments with smaller percentages were the Department of Sport, Arts and Culture (10.9%), respectively, and the lowest was the Department of Treasury (9.1%).

Regarding job designations within the departments, the majority of the employees held the position of Assistant Directors (24.0%), succeeded by interns (23.4%), and administrators (22.3%). Other roles included personnel officers (13.7%), line managers (9.1%), and inspectors (7.4%), all of which represented smaller portions of the sample. The notable percentages of clerical and intern positions underline their crucial role in the department's operational tasks. Moreover, 38.9% of the participants had served the department for 15 years or more, and 16.0% had been

there for 11-15 years. Those with a tenure of 1-3 years made up 13.1% of the sample, followed by those with less than 1 year (14.3%), 4-6 years (6.9%), and finally, those with 7-10 years of service (10.9%). The percentage of employees who had been with the department for a longer period was higher than those with shorter tenures, possibly reflecting the value placed on job security.

Table 5.2: Work-related demographic profile of the respondents

Work-Related Demographic Variables		Frequency	Percent
Government department	Education	48	27.4%
	Sports, Arts and Culture	19	10.9%
	Employment & Labour	36	20.6%
	Treasury	16	9.1%
	Social Development	31	17.7%
	Public Works, Roads & Infrastructure	25	14.3%
Employment status	Employed	148	84.6%
	Retired (re-employed on contract)	1	0.6%
	Temporary (but more than one year)	26	14.9%
Length of Service	Less than 1 year	25	14.3%
	1-3 years	23	13.1%
	4-6 years	12	6.9%
	7-10 years	19	10.9%
	11-15 years	28	16.0%
	15+ years	68	38.9%
Position in Organisation	Administrator	39	22.3%
	Intern	41	23.4%
	Line manager	16	9.1%
	Personnel officer	24	13.7%
	Inspector	13	7.4%
	Assistant directors	42	24.0%

5.5 CONSTRUCTS RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

The study comprised three scales of justice in T&D practices and the scales in Employee deviant behaviours. The reliability analysis of these scales is presented in Table 5.3 below. A construct is reliably measuring the intended latent variable if

its items have high internal consistency with a Cronbach's Alpha statistic greater or equal to 0.700.

The results presented in Table 5.3 show that the distributive justice in T&D practices construct has less than adequate internal consistency with a Cronbach's Alpha statistic of 0.604. However, when question 18 is removed from the scale, the remaining items have adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha statistics of 0.719). The other five scales have high internal consistency, with Chronbach's Alpha statistics of at least 0.853. Thus, the latent variables generated by combining various items that constitute a construct in this study are reliable measurements with the adjustment made with question 18 for distributive justice in T&D practices.

Table 5.3: Reliability statistics of the six constructs in the study

Construct	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Comment
Justice in T&D practices			
Distributive justice in T&D practices	6	0.604 (0.719)	Low internal consistency, but consistency improves to 0.719 when question 18 is deleted from the scale.
Procedural justice in T&D practices	8	0.867	High internal consistency
Interactional justice in T&D practices	7	0.853	High internal consistency
Overall justice in T&D practices	21	0.910	High internal consistency
Employee deviance behaviours			
Time misuse	6	0.891	High internal consistency
Poor attendance	4	0.923	High internal consistency
Withholding effort	5	0.951	High internal consistency
Overall, Employee deviant behaviours	15	0.951	High internal consistency
Overall questionnaire			
All Likert Scaled Questions	36	0.900	High internal consistency

5.6 CONSTRUCT DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF JUSTICE IN T&D PRACTICES

This section reports on the construct descriptive statistics of the three constructs of Justice in T&D practices, which are presented in the following sections. The statistics will describe the general levels of justice in T&D practices. The levels of

the 7-point Likert scale used in this study are grouped into three main categories of agreement or disagreement with the statements in the questionnaire. The three disagreeing levels (strongly disagree/ disagree/ somewhat disagree) are combined, the neutral category stands alone, and the three agreeing categories (somewhat agree/ agree/ strongly agree) are combined. Thus, according to Robison (2018), a mean of 3.2 is a good guideline to distinguish between positive and potential negative perceptions. Tables 7.15 and 7.16 show the descriptive statistics. The results for each construct are presented in a dedicated subsection.

5.6.1 Distributive justice in T&D practices

The results in Table 4 show high levels of agreement with equity and fairness on matters of training and development as far as employee requirements (65.7%), no prejudice (69.7%), availability (69.7%) and opportunities (66.9%). The results also show no high incidences of bias towards the length of service in determining the number of training days (only 40% agree) nor bias towards higher status, authority or control (only 44%). These imply that most respondents positively perceived Distributive justice in T&D practices.

Table 5.4: Distributive justice in T&D practices

Distributive justice in T&D practices		Strongly Disagree/Disagree/ Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree/Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev
13. Training and development are done based on each employee's requirements	Count %	43 24.6%	17 9.7%	115 65.7%	4.83	1.82
14. Training and development decisions are made in an unprejudiced manner. That is, regardless of race, gender etc.	Count %	39 22.3%	14 8.0%	122 69.7%	5.02	1.81
15. Training and development opportunities are available to all employees.	Count %	40 22.9%	13 7.4%	122 69.7%	5.07	1.83
16. Equal training and development opportunities exists for all employees in the same job categories.	Count %	41 23.4%	17 9.7%	117 66.9%	4.91	1.84
17. The number of training days available to employees is calculated based on the length of service.	Count %	76 43.4%	29 16.6%	70 40.0%	3.89	1.94
	Count	69	29	77	3.98	1.88

18. Individuals with higher status, authority, or control receive more training and development opportunities.	%	39.4%	16.6%	44.0%	
Cronbach's Alpha (Question 18 removed from scale)					0.719

The means of the first four items were all above 4.5 which is greater than mid-point 4, on the 7-point Likert scale used. The last two items had means less than 4 indicating that there is not much prejudice in the distributive justice of the T&D practices. Five of the six items of the scale had adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.719). This was not the case when question 18 was included. This means that question 18 will be left out when the latent score for this scale is determined.

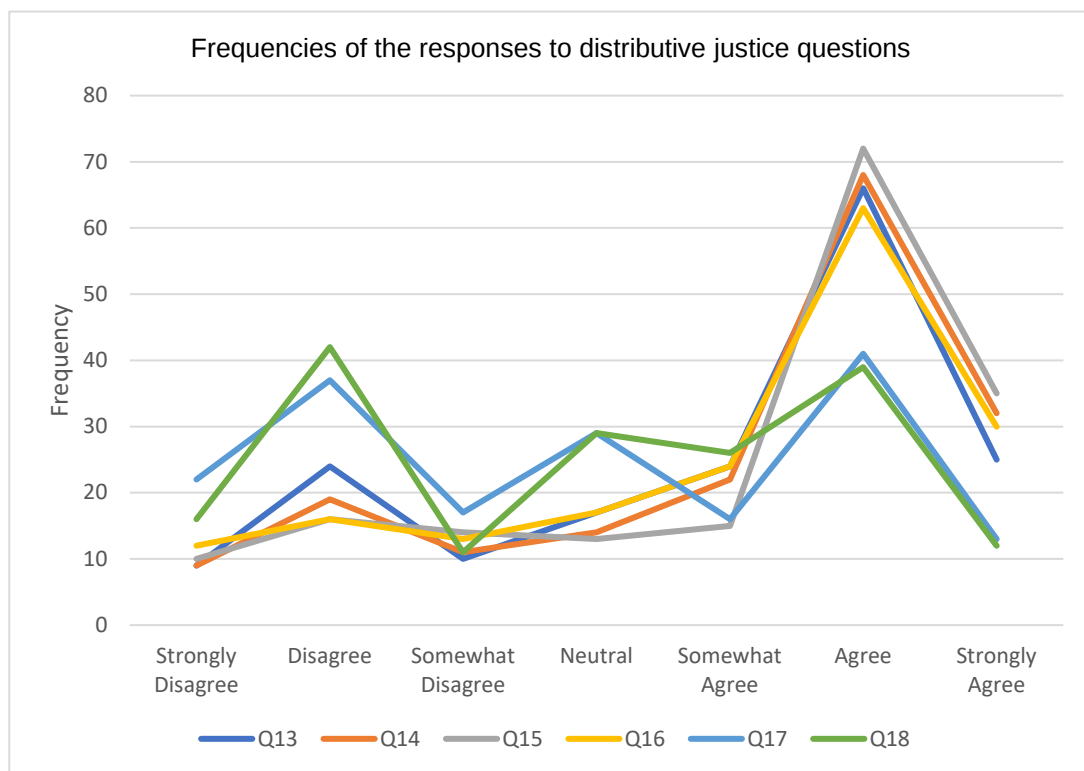


Figure 5.1 Comparative frequency distributions of distributive justice items

Figure 5.1 shows the frequency distributions of the 6 items of distributive justice in T&D practices. The frequencies are higher on the positive responses than negatives, showing general positive distributive justice in T&D practices.

5.6.2 Procedural justice in T&D practices

Results for procedural justice in T&D practices show more positive responses to the items of the scale than negative ones. Most of the items had greater than 50% responses in the positive categories of somewhat agree, agree and strongly agree. The means were also all above a score of 4.00, which means that, in general, matters of procedural justice in T&D practices were positive.

Table 5.5: Descriptive statistics of procedural justice in T&D practices

Procedural justice in T&D practices		Strongly Disagree/Disagree/Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree/Agree/Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev
19. Employees are free to request for any information on training and development procedures.	Count %	48 27.4%	18 10.3%	109 62.3%	4.76	1.86
20. Employees are always provided with up-to-date information on how training and development decisions are concluded.	Count %	53 30.3%	18 10.3%	104 59.4%	4.57	1.83
21. Employees have a say in decisions affecting their training and development.	Count %	60 34.3%	21 12.0%	94 53.7%	4.35	1.76
22. There are mechanisms in place for employees to appeal against perceived unfair training and development decisions.	Count %	49 28.0%	36 20.6%	90 51.4%	4.41	1.65
23. There are established training and development policies and procedures.	Count %	25 14.3%	24 13.7%	126 72.0%	5.21	1.56
24. Training and development policies and procedures are consistently applied.	Count %	38 21.7%	28 16.0%	109 62.3%	4.84	1.68
25. Training and development selection decisions are made in an unbiased manner.	Count %	38 21.7%	24 13.7%	113 64.6%	4.90	1.66
26. Employees are provided full explanations and reasons when their training requests are turned down.	Count %	47 26.9%	22 12.6%	106 60.6%	4.73	1.75
Cronbach's Alpha					0.867	

The item with the highest percentage in the positive categories (72.0%) was question 23, which addressed the existence of established training and development policies and procedures. However, the item with the least positive perception was the mechanisms for employees to appeal against perceived unfair training and development decisions.

The eight scale items had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.867). This means these eight items can generate a latent variable representing the construct.

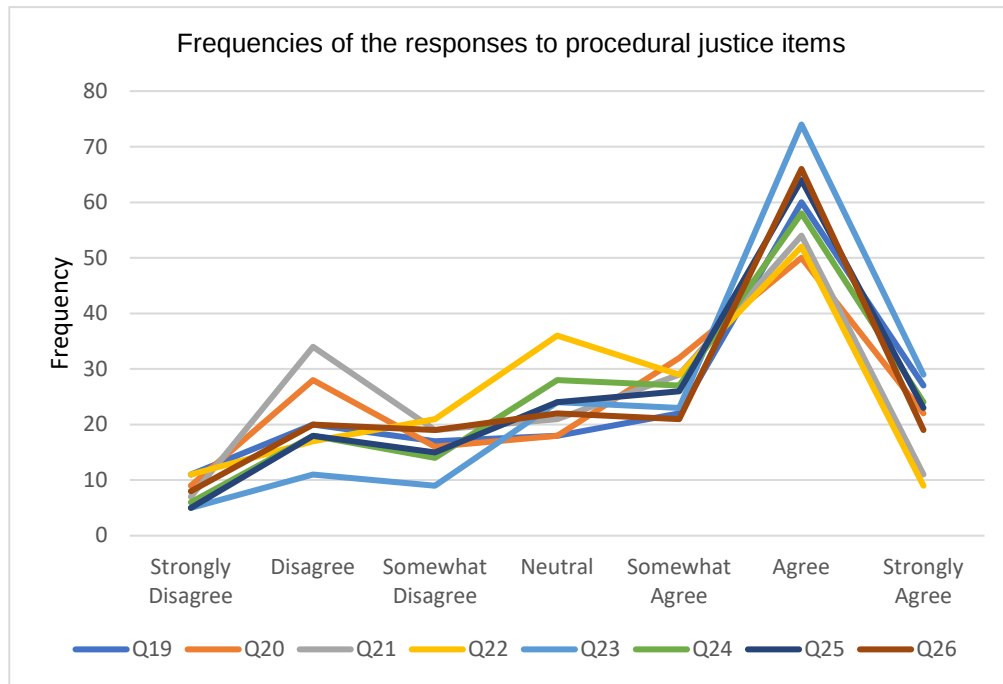


Figure 5.2 Comparative frequency distributions of the procedural justice items

Figure 5.2 shows the frequency distributions of the 8 procedural justice items in T&D practices. The frequencies are higher on the positive responses than negatives, showing general positive Procedural justice in T&D practices.

5.6.3 Interactional justice in T&D practices

The results of the 7 items of interactional justice in T&D practices have more positive responses than negatives, except for question 33 (managers personally convey training and development decisions to their subordinates in a confidential manner.), which is about confidentiality. Only 46.9% of the respondents believe that there is confidentiality in the conveyance of outcomes on decisions about

training and development. It is suggested that matters of confidentiality need to be improved.

Question 27 (employees are always treated with respect during training and development decision-making process.) had the highest positive responses (71.4%), meaning that employees are mostly respected.

Table 5.6: Descriptive statistics of Interactional justice in T&D practices

Interactional justice in T&D practices		Strongly Disagree/Disagree/Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree/Agree/Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev
27. Employees are always treated with respect during the training and development decision-making process.	Count %	24 13.7%	26 14.9%	125 71.4%	5.27	1.54
28. Training and development decisions are based on correct information.	Count %	32 18.3%	19 10.9%	124 70.9%	5.19	1.58
29. I believe that training and development decisions are made in an honest manner in my workplace.	Count %	35 20.0%	19 10.9%	121 69.1%	5.06	1.67
30. I believe that training and development decisions are based on merit in my workplace.	Count %	45 25.7%	24 13.7%	106 60.6%	4.83	1.77
31. Employees' rights are always valued during training and development decision-making courses.	Count %	34 19.4%	34 19.4%	107 61.1%	4.90	1.68
32. Declined training and development decisions are conveyed to employees in a respectful manner.	Count %	51 29.1%	21 12.0%	103 58.9%	4.58	1.80
33. Managers personally convey training and development decisions to their subordinates in a confidential manner.	Count %	74 42.3%	19 10.9%	82 46.9%	4.01	1.96
Cronbach's Alpha					0.853	

The seven scale items had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.853). Therefore, these seven items can generate a latent variable representing the construct.

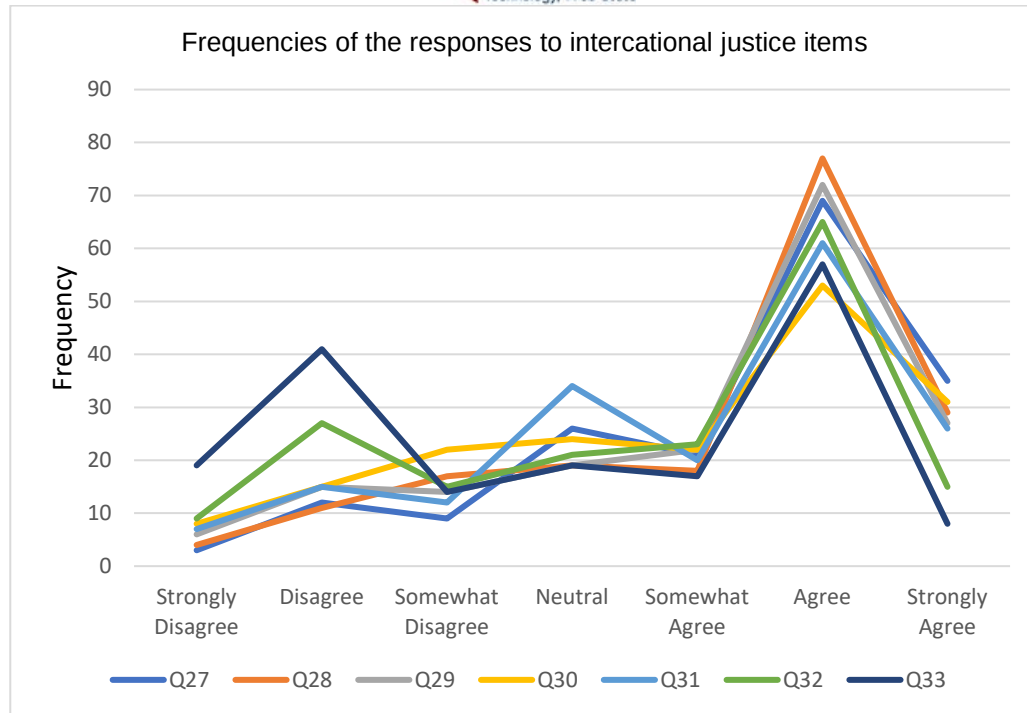


Figure 5.3 Comparative frequency distributions of Interactional justice items

Figure 5.3 shows the frequency distributions of the 7 items of interactional justice in T&D practices. The frequencies are higher on the positive responses than negatives, showing general positive procedural justice in T&D practices.

5.7 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE EMPLOYEE DEVIANCE BEHAVIOURS

The three constructs of deviant behaviour are the response variables in this study, and their descriptive statistics are presented in the following sections. The questions for these items were negatively worded. When an individual is asked about their negative traits, they are expected not to tell the truth. There will be some inclination to express oneself as doing their best. Therefore, it is not expected to have too many affirmative responses to the items of these constructs.

5.7.1 Time misuse

The low percentages of those somewhat agreeing, agreeing and strongly agreeing attest that the employees do not see themselves as having deviant behaviour regarding time misuse. For all questions, the percentages of those in the three levels of agreement with the items are very low (ranging from 10.3 to 23.4%).

Table 5.7: Descriptive statistics of the time misuse

Time Misuse		Strongly Disagree/Disagree/ Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree/Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev
34. Instead of getting my work done, I spend time talking with colleagues at work.	Count	119	15	41	2.79	1.99
	%	68.0%	8.6%	23.4%		
35. Sometimes, I add time to my time log and timesheet so that it looks like I worked more than I did.	Count	142	4	29	2.30	1.69
	%	81.1%	2.3%	16.6%		
36. I tend to take longer breaks than permitted by the department.	Count	141	11	23	2.23	1.63
	%	80.6%	6.3%	13.1%		
37. I extend my shift deliberately by working slower than required.	Count	150	6	19	2.09	1.46
	%	85.7%	3.4%	10.9%		
38. While at work, I normally spend time checking my personal email or social media accounts.	Count	145	11	19	2.19	1.49
	%	82.9%	6.3%	10.9%		
39. I usually spend time on non-work-related tasks, while I should have been working.	Count	152	5	18	1.98	1.46
	%	86.9%	2.9%	10.3%		
Cronbach's Alpha					0.891	

The percentages of those in disagreement are high (ranging from 68% to 86.9%). In general, if we accept the respondents' perceptions, we can conclude that there are low levels of deviant behaviour.

The six items of the time misuse scale had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.891). Therefore, these six items can be combined to generate a latent variable representing the construct.

Figure 5.4 shows the frequency distributions of the 6 items of time misuse. The frequencies are higher on the negative responses than on the positives, which

shows that, in general, the respondents did not consider themselves as time misusers.

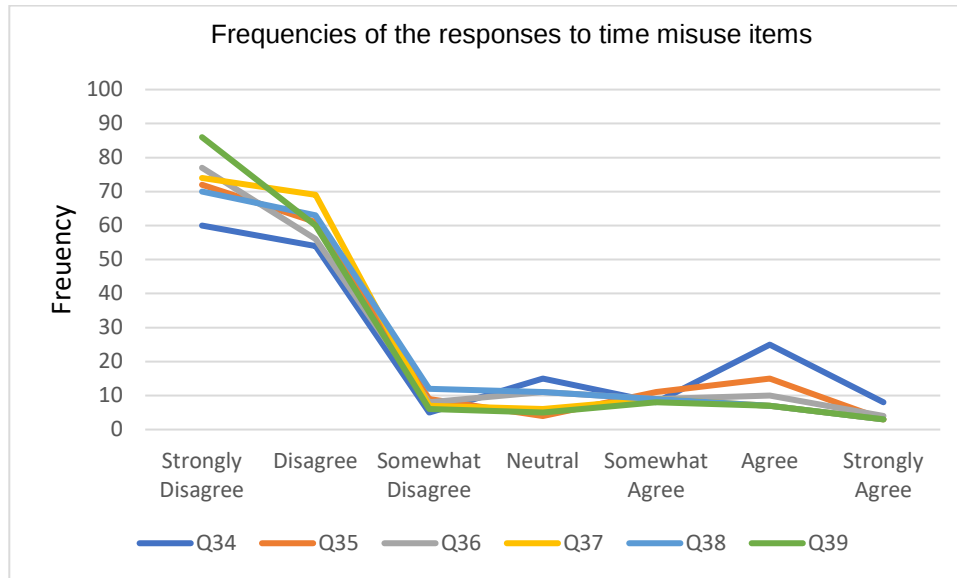


Figure 5.4 Comparative frequency distributions for time misuse items

5.7.2 Poor attendance

Table 5.8 shows that most of the majority of the respondents attend their workstations; hence the levels of deviant behaviour of this kind are low. The percentages of those who indicated that they have any of the four deviant behavioural traits listed are very low (all below 10%).

Table 5.8: Descriptive statistics of the poor attendance

Poor Attendance		Strongly Disagree/Disagree/ Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree/Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev
40. Sometimes, I do not show up at work for no reason.	Count %	152 86.9%	7 4.0%	16 9.1%	1.91	1.39
41. I arrive late for work even when I can make it on time.	Count %	153 87.4%	6 3.4%	16 9.1%	1.91	1.47
	Count	159	3	13	1.77	1.32

42. I sometimes call in sick to avoid going to work.	%	90.9%	1.7%	7.4%	
43. I sometimes fake sickness while at work to go home.	Count	156	4	15	1.79 1.42
	%	89.1%	2.3%	8.6%	
Cronbach's Alpha					0.923

The four items on the poor attendance scale had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.923). Therefore, these four items can be combined to generate a latent variable representing the construct.

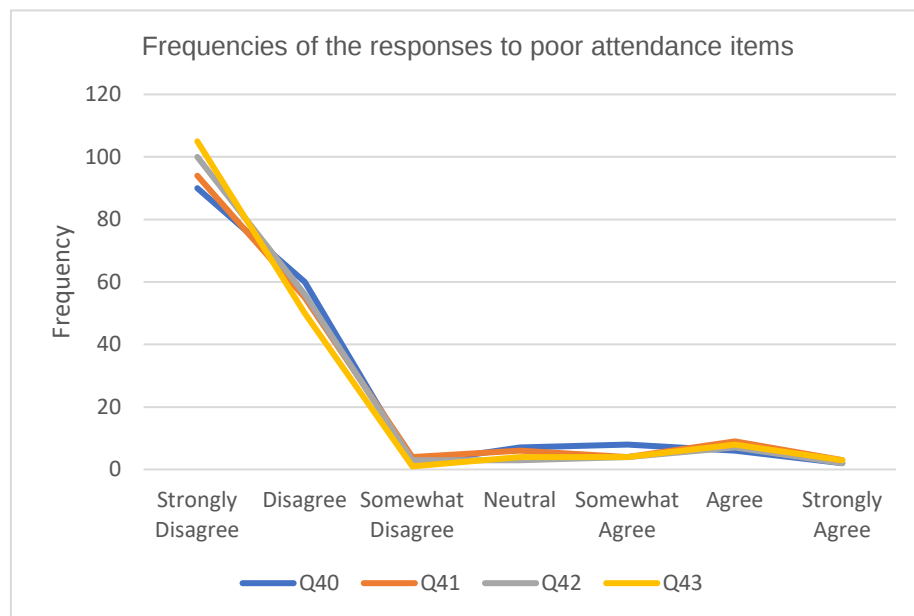


Figure 5.5 Comparative frequency distributions of poor attendance

Figure 5.5 shows the frequency distributions of the 4 items of poor attendance. The frequencies are higher on the negative responses than on the positives, which shows that, in general, the respondents did not consider themselves as not attending to work.

5.7.3 Withholding effort

As with the other two constructs of deviant behaviour discussed above, the Withholding effort construct also had low percentages of those indicating that they

had such traits. Most respondents believed that they do not withhold effort at work, as attested by the low percentages of those indicating that they do (Maximum 12.6%).

The five items of the withholding effort scale had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.951). Therefore, these items can be combined to generate a latent variable representing the construct.

Table 5.9: Descriptive statistics of the withholding effort

Withholding effort		Strongly Disagree/Disagree/ Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree/Agree/ Strongly agree	Mean	Std. Dev
44. I put less effort into the work when colleagues are around to do the work.	Count %	158 90.3%	4 2.3%	13 7.4%	1.81	1.34
45. I take more and longer breaks than I should.	Count %	152 86.9%	7 4.0%	16 9.1%	1.91	1.45
46. I deliberately avoid my manager to avoid being assigned extra work.	Count %	156 89.1%	3 1.7%	16 9.1%	1.89	1.46
47. I give less than 100 percent effort on my job.	Count %	151 86.3%	2 1.1%	22 12.6%	1.96	1.53
48. I tend to spend too much time at work on personal issues instead of working.	Count %	155 88.6%	2 1.1%	18 10.3%	1.89	1.50
Cronbach's Alpha					0.951	

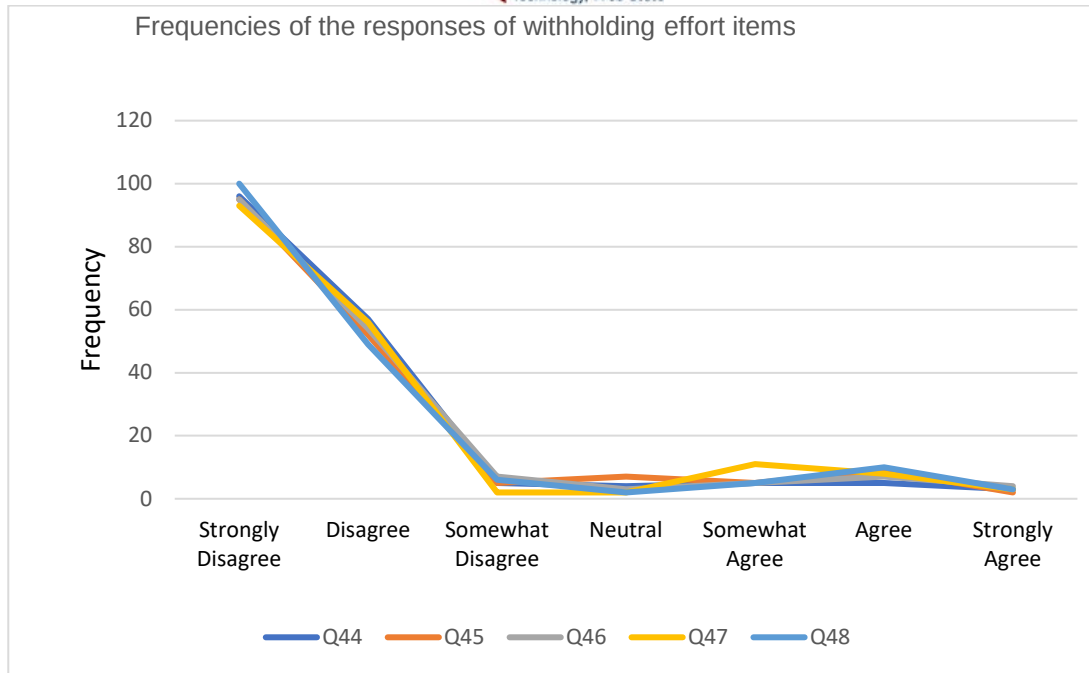


Figure 5.6 Comparative frequency distributions of withholding effort

Figure 5.6 shows the frequency distributions of the 5 items of Withholding effort. The frequencies are higher on the negative responses than on the positives, which shows that, in general, the respondents did not consider themselves as Withholding effort at work.

5.8 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

The correlation analysis was performed to evaluate the correlation between the independent and the dependent variables. This analysis also suggests significant correlations and otherwise. Further, the essence of the correlation analysis is to assess multicollinearity, which describes the state of affairs in which two or more predictor variables tend to be extremely correlated in a regression model ($\alpha \geq 0.80$).

5.8.1 Effects of justice in T&D practices on employee deviant behaviour

Results in Table 5.10 show that the three scales of Justice in T&D practice are significantly correlated at the 1% significance level (all p-values<0.001). However, there is no significant correlation between any of the variables of Justice in T&D practice and deviant behaviours (all p-values>0.05). This result indicates that Justice in T&D practices does not affect deviant behaviour.

Table 5.10: Justice in T&D practices and deviant behaviour

Spearman's correlations		Distributive justice	Procedural justice	Interactional justice	Misuse of Time	Poor Attendance
Procedural justice	Correlation	0.499**				
	p-value	<0.001				
	N	175				
Interactional justice	Correlation	0.545**	0.664**			
	p-value	<0.001	<0.001			
	N	175	175			
Misuse of Time	Correlation	0.007	-0.118	-0.060		
	p-value	0.925	0.120	0.430		
	N	175	175	175		
Poor Attendance	Correlation	-0.044	-0.105	-0.012	0.614**	
	p-value	0.564	0.169	0.880	<0.001	
	N	175	175	175	175	
Withholding Effort	Correlation	-0.036	-0.044	0.036	0.579**	0.812**
	p-value	0.639	0.560	0.633	<0.001	<0.001
	N	175	175	175	175	175

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

The deviance behaviour variables are all significantly correlated with one another (all p-values<0.001).

5.9 REGRESSION ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING

This section provides information on the regression analysis.

5.9.1 Effects of Justice in T&D practices on Time Misuse

The regression results in Table 5.11 confirm the findings in the correlation analysis above. None of the Justice in T&D practices variables is significant in the regression model (all p-values > 0.05). The regression model accounts for only 0.7% of the total variation in the Misuse of the time variable ($R^2=0.007$). This means that there is an insignificant contribution by Justice in T&D practices to the incidence of misuse of time. The three sets of null and alternative hypotheses are given as follows.

- H1o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H1a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H4o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H4a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H7o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time.
- H7a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.

Table 5.11: Regression of misuse of time on justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable: Misuse of Time	Coefficients	Std. Error	t	p-value
(Constant)	2.137	0.475	4.504	0.000
Distributive justice in T&D practices	0.073	0.122	0.601	0.549
Procedural justice in T&D practices	-0.126	0.123	-1.026	0.306
Interactional justice in T&D practices	0.079	0.125	0.637	0.525
R ² =0.007				

This result is unsurprising, considering most respondents do not see themselves misusing time in any of the construct items. Thus, justness in T&D practices has no bearing on the misuse of time. The null hypotheses are therefore, not supported. This result contradicts earlier studies that showed a strong negative link between justness in T&D practices and deviant behaviour (Letsa, Frempong, & Mensah, 2021; Shah, Anwar & Irani, 2017). It is, however, consistent with other emerging studies (Fagbenro, 2019; Oosthuizen, Rabie, & De Beer, 2018) who have found significant positive links between organisational justice and time misuse such as loafing. This means employees who perceive distributive justice towards their organisation are less or more committed to their work. This is in line with the finding of Nethavhani and Maluka (2020) that there is a significant association between distributive justice and misuse of time. Furthermore, this finding was not in line with the finding of Nazim and Shahid (2017) that distributive, procedural and interactional justice significantly contributed to employees' time misuse in the organisation. The public service increasingly faces challenges in T&D practices, as stated by researcher Ajala (2019), who argues that a lack of justness in T&D practices in organisations causes employees to feel demotivated due to the unfair treatment perceived in their workplace.

5.9.2 Effects of justice in T&D practices on attendance

The results presented in Table 5.12 show that none of the justice in T&D practices variables significantly impacts attendance in the regression model (all p-values>0.05). As with misuse of time, the result is not surprising considering that

most respondents do not see themselves as not attending work, as discussed earlier in the frequency distributions. The regression model accounts for only 1% of the total variation in the poor attendance variable ($R^2=0.010$). This means that there is no significant contribution by justice in T&D practices to the incidence of poor attendance. The null hypotheses are therefore not supported. Hence the alternate hypotheses can be accepted.

The three sets of null and alternative hypotheses are given as follows.

H2o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance,

H2a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.

H5o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance,

H5a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.

H8o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance.

H8a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.

Table 5.12 Poor attendance vs justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable: Poor Attendance	Coefficients	Std. Error	t	p-value
(Constant)	2.063	0.457	4.518	0.000
Distributive justice in T&D practices	-0.032	0.118	-0.268	0.789
Procedural justice in T&D practices	-0.140	0.118	-1.187	0.237
Interactional justice in T&D practices	0.122	0.120	1.015	0.311
$R^2=0.010$				

These findings contradict conventional wisdom which argues that when employees feel that they are at an unfair disadvantage relative to others or have not received

their fair share, they may wish to engage in deviant behaviours such as poor attendance or absenteeism (Dixit & Singh, 2019). These findings also contradict empirical evidence by Bagheri and Shahroodi (2014) who found a negative association between organisational justice and underperformance. Opara (2021) found that there is positive and significant relationship between organisational justice and employee work attendance which conversely implies positive and significant relationship between organisational justice and employee poor work attendance. Similarly, the study contradicts the findings of De Boer, Bakker, Syroit, and Schaufeli (2002) who predictably found negative association between organisational justice and absenteeism. However, the findings are consistent a recent study by Ha and Moon (2023) who found that organizational justice is positively associated with employee voluntary absence.

5.9.3 Justice in T&D practices vs withholding effort

The results presented in Table 5.13 show that none of the Justice in T&D practices variables significantly impacts withholding effort in the regression model (all p -values > 0.05). The only variable of justice in T&D practices that can be considered significant when the 10% significance level is used is interactional justice (coefficient=0.232, p -value=0.067). The three sets of null and alternative hypotheses are given as follows.

- H3o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H3a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H6o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H6a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.
- H9o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts.

H9a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.

Table 5.13 Withholding effort vs justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable: Withholding Effort	Coefficients	Std. Error	t	p-value
(Constant)	1.806	0.478	3.775	0.000
Distributive justice in T&D practices	-0.103	0.123	-0.834	0.406
Procedural justice in T&D practices	-0.119	0.124	-0.958	0.339
Interactional justice in T&D practices	0.232	0.126	1.845	0.067
R ² =0.020				

The regression model accounts for only 2% of the total variation in the withholding effort variable ($R^2=0.020$). Justice in T&D practices has no effect on the incidence withholding effort. Thus, the null hypotheses are therefore not supported. The alternate hypotheses can therefore be accepted. This finding contradicts a previous study by Jaakson et al. (2017) found that when employees discern biases or unfairness at the workplace, they become more prone to engage in deviant actions such as withholding effort. It also contradicts Kim (2017) who found that when employees sense organisational prejudices, they exhibit minimal effort at work. The finding also contradicts the social exchange theory which suggests that the fair treatment of employees makes employees develop a sense of obligation toward their organization and they reciprocate this by not engaging in negative work behaviour (Adams, 1995).

5.9.4 Effects of length of service on justice in T&D practices

Results in Table 5.14 show that, using the Kruskal-Wallis test, the scale of procedural justice in T&D practices is significantly associated with length of service ($X^2=11.62$, $df=5$, $p\text{-value}=0.040$). Those in the 1-3 age group seem to have high levels of perceived procedural justice in T&D practices. The other scales of justice in T&D practices are not significantly associated with length of service.

Nonparametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis) were used as the assumptions of ANOVA (normality) were violated.

Table 5.14 Kruskal-Wallis tests for length of service and justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable	Length of Service	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				χ^2	df	p-value
Distributive justice in T&D practices	Less than 1 year	25	110.52	9.15	5	0.103
	1-3 years	23	91.91			
	4-6 years	12	95.88			
	7-10 years	19	83.74			
	11-15 years	28	91.91			
	15+ years	68	76.59			
Procedural justice in T&D practices	Less than 1 year	25	97.86	11.62	5	0.040
	1-3 years	23	111.72			
	4-6 years	12	78.71			
	7-10 years	19	96.97			
	11-15 years	28	89.54			
	15+ years	68	74.85			
Interactional justice in T&D practices	Less than 1 year	25	95.46	5.23	5	0.388
	1-3 years	23	98.80			
	4-6 years	12	87.54			
	7-10 years	19	102.50			
	11-15 years	28	82.63			
	15+ years	68	79.85			

5.9.5 Effects of position in organisation on justice in T&D practices

Results in Table 5.15 show that, using the Kruskal-Wallis test, the scale of procedural justice in T&D practices is significantly associated with a position in the organisation ($\chi^2=11.62$; p-value=0.040). Those inspectors seem to have high perceptions of Procedural justice in T&D practices. The other scales of justice in T&D practices are not significantly associated with the organisational position.

Table 5.15 Kruskal-Wallis tests for position in organisation and justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable	Position in Organisation	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Distributive justice in T&D practices	Administrator	39	81.54	9.15	5	0.103
	Intern	41	104.76			
	Line manager	16	70.13			
	Personnel officer	24	86.79			
	Inspector	13	91.38			
	Assistant directors	42	84.10			
Procedural justice in T&D practices	Administrator	39	82.29	11.62	5	0.040
	Intern	41	89.73			
	Line manager	16	84.59			
	Personnel officer	24	86.79			
	Inspector	13	116.73			
	Assistant directors	42	84.70			
Interactional justice in T&D practices	Administrator	39	85.47	5.23	5	0.388
	Intern	41	93.60			
	Line manager	16	96.19			
	Personnel officer	24	84.73			
	Inspector	13	104.46			
	Assistant directors	42	78.54			

5.9.6 Effects of race on justice in T&D practices

Results in Table 5.16 show that the scale of distributive justice and interactional justice in T&D practices are significantly associated with race (p-value=0.036; p-value=0.018). Africans seem to have high perceived distributive and interactional justice levels in T&D practices. The other scale of justice in T&D practices is not significantly associated with race.

Table 5.16 Kruskal-Wallis tests for race and justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable	Race	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Distributive justice in T&D practices	African	171	89.23	4.391	1	0.036
	White	4	35.63			
Procedural justice in T&D practices	African	171	88.96	2.670	1	0.102
	White	4	47.13			
Interactional justice in T&D practices	African	171	89.39	5.635	1	0.018
	White	4	28.63			

5.9.7 Effects of gender on justice in T&D practices

Results in Table 5.17 show that the scale of distributive justice and procedural justice in T&D practices are significantly associated with gender (p-value=0.006; p-value=0.029). The results indicate that males and females have great perceived distributive and procedural justice levels in T&D practices. The other scale of justice in T&D practices is not significantly associated with gender.

Table 5.17 Kruskal-Wallis tests for gender and justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable	Gender	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Distributive justice in T&D practices	Male	60	73.39	7.620	1	0.006
	Female	115	95.62			
Procedural justice in T&D practices	Male	60	76.41	4.789	1	0.029
	Female	115	94.05			
Interactional justice in T&D practices	Male	60	77.71	3.776	1	0.052
	Female	115	93.37			

5.9.8 Effects of household income on justice in T&D practices

Results in Table 5.18 show that the three scales of Justice in T&D practices have no significant effect on household income.

Table 5.18 Kruskal-Wallis tests for household income and justice in T&D practices

Dependent Variable	Household income	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Distributive justice in T&D practices	R15000-R25000	70	79.15	4.934	4	0.294
	R26000-R35000	38	89.84			
	R36000-R45000	30	99.38			
	R46000+	21	87.29			
	Other	16	101.94			
Procedural justice in T&D practices	R15000-R25000	70	85.23	2.575	4	0.631
	R26000-R35000	38	82.76			
	R36000-R45000	30	90.40			
	R46000+	21	90.17			
	Other	16	105.22			
Interactional justice in T&D practices	R15000-R25000	70	84.29	2.881	4	0.578
	R26000-R35000	38	86.13			
	R36000-R45000	30	93.52			
	R46000+	21	82.69			
	Other	16	105.28			

5.9.9 Effects of justice in T&D practices on overall EDB

To assess the effects of justice in T&D practices on all deviant behaviour variables, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) model were used. The three deviant behaviour variables were considered one vector; the results were consistent with the above findings.

5.9.10 Effects of length of service on deviant behaviour

The results presented in Table 5.19 depict that none of the justice in T&D practices variables significantly affect the length of service in the Kruskal-Wallis tests. This means that there is no significant contribution by Justice in T&D practices to the frequency of length of service.

Table 5.19 Kruskal-Wallis tests for length of service on EDB

Dependent Variable	Length of Service	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				χ^2	df	p-value
Misuse of Time	Less than 1 year	25	72.22	7.39	5	0.193
	1-3 years	23	97.91			
	4-6 years	12	71.50			
	7-10 years	19	99.68			
	11-15 years	28	79.18			
	15+ years	68	93.73			
Poor Attendance	Less than 1 year	25	69.82	6.82	5	0.234
	1-3 years	23	83.76			
	4-6 years	12	77.83			
	7-10 years	19	102.37			
	11-15 years	28	95.11			
	15+ years	68	90.97			
Withholding Effort	Less than 1 year	25	81.74	1.93	5	0.858
	1-3 years	23	81.65			
	4-6 years	12	87.25			
	7-10 years	19	98.61			
	11-15 years	28	92.14			
	15+ years	68	87.91			

5.9.11 Effects of position in organisation on deviant behaviour

The results presented in Table 5.20 illustrates that deviant behaviour has no impact on position in the organisation. This means that there is no contribution by deviant behaviour to the frequency or length of service.

Table 5.20 Kruskal-Wallis tests for position and EDB

Dependent Variable	Position in organisation	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				χ^2	df	p-value
Misuse of Time	Administrator	39	85.53	0.91	5	0.970
	Intern	41	93.15			
	Line manager	16	80.50			
	Personnel officer	24	89.17			
	Inspector	13	89.00			

	Assistant directors	42	87.15			
Poor Attendance	Administrator	39	98.36	3.14	5	0.678
	Intern	41	81.18			
	Line manager	16	81.44			
	Personnel officer	24	91.58			
	Inspector	13	86.96			
	Assistant directors	42	85.81			
Withholding Effort	Administrator	39	96.36	3.14	5	0.679
	Intern	41	83.50			
	Line manager	16	84.69			
	Personnel officer	24	95.48			
	Inspector	13	90.69			
	Assistant directors	42	80.79			

5.9.12 Effects of race on EDB

The results presented in Table 5.21 indicates that deviant behaviour has no impact on race.

Table 5.21 Kruskal-Wallis tests for race and EDB

Dependent Variable	Race	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Misuse of Time	African	171	88.06	0.012	1	0.912
	White	4	85.25			
Poor Attendance	African	171	88.65	1.356	1	0.244
	White	4	60.25			
Withholding Effort	African	171	88.29	0.267	1	0.605
	White	4	75.63			

5.9.13 Effects of gender on deviance behaviour

The results presented in Table 5.22 indicate that deviant behaviour does not influence gender-based issues.

Table 5.22 Kruskal-Wallis tests for gender and EDB

Dependent Variable	Race	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Misuse of Time	Male	60	92.33	0.676	1	0.411
	Female	115	85.74			
Poor Attendance	Male	60	95.24	2.060	1	0.151
	Female	115	84.22			
Withholding Effort	Male	60	95.38	2.119	1	0.145
	Female	115	84.15			

5.9.14 Effects of household income on EDB

The results presented in Table 5.23 indicate that deviant behaviour does not influence employees' household income within the departments.

Table 5.23 Kruskal-Wallis tests for household income and EDB

Dependent Variable	Household income	N	Mean Rank	Kruskal Wallis tests		
				X ²	df	p-value
Misuse of Time	R15000-R25000	70	84.04	1.887	4	0.757
	R26000-R35000	38	91.53			
	R36000-R45000	30	91.33			
	R46000+	21	96.81			
	Other	16	79.16			
Poor Attendance	R15000-R25000	70	86.98	1.718	4	0.787
	R26000-R35000	38	88.05			
	R36000-R45000	30	92.62			
	R46000+	21	94.19			
	Other	16	75.56			
Withholding Effort	R15000-R25000	70	87.96	0.729	4	0.948
	R26000-R35000	38	84.84			
	R36000-R45000	30	88.32			
	R46000+	21	95.55			
	Other	16	85.16			

Table 5.24: MANCOVA for justice in T&D practices and all ODBs together

Response vector = $\begin{bmatrix} \text{Time Misuse} \\ \text{Poor Attendance} \\ \text{Withholding effort} \end{bmatrix}$		Value	F	df1, df2	p-value
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.125	8.025	3, 169	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.875	8.025	3, 169	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	0.142	8.025	3, 169	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	0.142	8.025	3, 169	0.000
Distributive Justice	Pillai's Trace	0.016	0.891	3, 169	0.447
	Wilks' Lambda	0.984	0.891	3, 169	0.447
	Hotelling's Trace	0.016	0.891	3, 169	0.447
	Roy's Largest Root	0.016	0.891	3, 169	0.447
Procedural Justice	Pillai's Trace	0.009	0.499	3, 169	0.683
	Wilks' Lambda	0.991	0.499	3, 169	0.683
	Hotelling's Trace	0.009	0.499	3, 169	0.683
	Roy's Largest Root	0.009	0.499	3, 169	0.683
Interactional Justice	Pillai's Trace	0.026	1.497	3, 169	0.217
	Wilks' Lambda	0.974	1.497	3, 169	0.217
	Hotelling's Trace	0.027	1.497	3, 169	0.217
	Roy's Largest Root	0.027	1.497	3, 169	0.217

All the test statistics for the Justice in T&D practices, the Pillai's Trace, Wilks' Lambda, Hotelling's Trace, and Roy's Largest Root, had p-values greater than 5%. This means that when all three deviant behaviour variables are considered together, they are still not significantly impacted by any of the Justice in T&D practices. The evidence of insignificant effects of T&D practices on deviant employee behaviour provided by the study is unsurprising. First, the independent variables of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice affected employee deviant behaviours statistically.

Higher distributive, procedural and interactional justice levels in the public service would decrease deviant employee behaviour. This is consistent with the results found by Kim (2018). In the case of private establishments, distributive justice has a greater impact on EDB. In other studies, Rathore and Sen (2017) reported that interactional justice motivates workers to be punctual at work and increases productivity. It is evident that organisational justice positively and significantly

influences employee work attendance in government departments in Limpopo province, South Africa (Howlader, Rahman & Uddin, 2018).

5.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Focusing on the effect of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice on EDB in government departments, chapter 5 discussed the study's findings. The chapter began with a demographic analysis of the respondents in various departments. This provided some understanding of the nature and characteristics of the departments in South Africa. The chapter also presented a descriptive analysis of the dependent variables of the departments. The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations for this study.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The study explored the impact of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice in T&D practices on certain job-related deviant behaviours among employees in government departments in Limpopo Province, South Africa. The study, underpinned by the assumptions of organizational justice theory, social exchange theory, and equity theory, adopted a deductive approach and surveyed 400 employees in October 2022, achieving a 44% response rate. Despite the low response rate, the study found little bias in the results, suggesting that even data from surveys with low response rates can be scientifically valuable. This chapter summarizes the findings, and provides conclusions and implications (recommendations) for policy, practice, and theory as well as the limitations, and directions for future research.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The study's primary goal was to investigate the impact of perceptions in T&D practices on job-related employee deviance behaviour in government departments in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. To this end, nine (9) hypotheses, [null (H_0) and their alternative (H_a)] that matched the specific objectives, were developed, and tested.

The results of the data analysis presented in the previous chapter revealed that all the hypotheses tested were insignificant at the 5% significance level. Based on this finding, the Table 6.6 below summarises the objectives, findings, and conclusions drawn followed by detailed narratives for each conclusion.

Table 6.6: Summary of conclusions

Objective:	Hypotheses	Findings (sig @ 5%)	Decision	Conclusion
To assess employee perceptions of the justness of T&D practices.	N/A	N/A	N/A	High levels of perceived distributive, procedural and interactional justice in T&D practices. T 5.4, 5.5, 6.6
To assess employee levels of selected job-related deviant behaviours: misuse of time, poor work attendance, and withholding efforts	N/A	N/A	N/A	Reported low levels of time misuse, poor attendance, and withholding of effort T 5.7, 5.8 and 5.9
To determine the effect of perceived distributive justice in T&D practices on employee deviance behaviours namely misuse of time, poor work attendance, and withholding efforts on Job performance.	H1o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time. H1a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.	H1o: not sig	Reject H1o; Accept H1a	Distributive justice in T&D practices does not decrease employee misuse of time.
	H2o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance, H2a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.	H2o: not sig	Reject H2o; Accept H2a	Distributive justice in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance,
	H3o: Distributive justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts. H3a: Distributive justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.	H3o: not sig	Reject H3a; Accept H3o	Distributive justice in T&D practices does not decrease employee withholding efforts.
To determine the effect of perceived procedural justice in T&D practices on selected employee Job performance-related deviance behaviours namely misuse of time, poor work attendance, and withholding efforts on Job performance.	H4o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time. H4a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.	H4o: not sig	Reject H4o; Accept H4a	Procedural justice in T&D practices does not decrease employee misuse of time.
	H5o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance H5a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.	H5o: not sig	Reject H5o; Accept H5a	Procedural justice in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance,
	H6o: Procedural justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts. H6a: Procedural justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.	H6o: not sig	Reject H6o; Accept H6a	Procedural justice in T&D practices does not decrease employee withholding efforts.

To determine the effect of perceived interactional justice in T&D practices on selected employee Job performance-related deviant behaviours, namely misuse of time, poor work attendance, and withholding efforts on Job performance.	H7o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with misuse of time. H7a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with misuse of time.	H7o: not sig	Reject H7o; Accept H7a	Interactional justice in T&D practices does not decrease employee misuse of time.
	H8o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with poor attendance. H8a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with poor attendance.	H8o: not sig	Reject H8o; Accept H8a	Interactional justice in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance,
	H9o: Interactional justice in T&D practices is negatively associated with withholding efforts. H9a: Interactional justice in T&D practices is not negatively associated with withholding efforts.	H9o: not sig	Reject H9o; Accept H9a	Interactional justice in T&D practices does not decrease employee withholding efforts.

6.2.1 Employee perceptions of the justness of T&D practices

High levels of perceived distributive, procedural and interactional justice in T&D practices were reported in Tables 5.4, 5.5, and 6.6. It is therefore concluded that there is justness in the T&D practices of government departments in Limpopo province. In other words, government departments in Limpopo province ensure distributive, procedural and interactional justice in their T&D practices.

6.2.2 Levels of deviant behaviours

Low levels of time misuse, poor attendance, and withholding of effort reported in Tables 5.7, 5.8 and 5.9. it is therefore concluded that employee deviant behaviour is low in government departments in Limpopo province. Put differently, employees of government departments in Limpopo province display (are characterised by) low levels of deviant behaviour (time misuse, poor attendance, and withholding of effort).

6.2.3 Justice in T&D practices and EDB

Based on the sample data in Table 6.6, it is concluded that justice in T&D practices does not decrease the deviant behaviour (time misuse, poor work attendance, and withholding effort) of employees of government departments in Limpopo province. Specifically, the following conclusions are drawn.

- **Organisational justice** in T&D practices does not decrease misuse of time by employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Organisational justice** in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance of employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Organisational justice** in T&D practices does not decrease withholding efforts of employees of government departments in Limpopo province.

6.2.3 Distributive justice in T&D practices and EDB

The regression results in Table 5.11 and Table 6.6 show that distributive justice in T&D practices variables is not significantly related to all time misuse, poor work attendance, and withholding effort (all deviant behaviour p -values > 0.05). Therefore, it is concluded that procedural justice in T&D practices does not lead to reduced distributive behaviour in employees of government departments in Limpopo province. Specifically, the following conclusions are drawn.

- **Distributive justice** in T&D practices does not decrease misuse of time by employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Distributive justice** in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance by employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Distributive justice** in T&D practices does not decrease withholding efforts of employees of government departments in Limpopo province

6.2.4 Procedural justice in T&D practices and EDB

The regression results in Table 5.12 and Table 6.6 show that procedural Justice in T&D practices variables is not significant in the regression model (all deviant

behaviour p -values > 0.05). Therefore, it is concluded that procedural justice in T&D practices does not lead to reduced deviant behaviour in employees of government departments in Limpopo province. Specifically, the following conclusions are drawn.

- **Procedural justice** in T&D practices does not decrease misuse of time by employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Procedural justice** in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance of employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Procedural justice** in T&D practices does not decrease withholding efforts by employees of government departments in Limpopo province.

6.2.5 Interactional justice in T&D practices and EDB

The regression results in Table 5.13 and Table 6.6 show that interactional justice in T&D practices variables is not significant in the regression model (all deviant behaviour p -values > 0.05). Therefore, it is concluded that interactional justice in T&D practices does not lead to reduced deviant behaviour in employees of government departments in Limpopo province. Specifically, the following conclusions are drawn.

- **Interactional justice** in T&D practices does not decrease misuse of time by employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Interactional justice** in T&D practices does not decrease poor work attendance of employees of government departments in Limpopo province.
- **Interactional justice** in T&D practices does not decrease withholding efforts of employees of government departments in Limpopo province.

6.3 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The study made major and incremental contributions to knowledge. These contributions can be categorised from the perspectives of the extension of HR literature, theory, and methodological contributions. These are presented below.

By synthesising HR literature and focusing on perceived justice in T&D practices which has received little research attention, this study has made a specific contribution to the extension of HR literature. T&D practices, as a concept, have been widely investigated. However, there is limited literature and insight into the perception of justness in T&D practices and selected job-related EDBs. This is notwithstanding available statistical and empirical evidence and expert views that the problem for many organisations is the T&D practices and not the impact of fairness and justice of T&D practices in workplaces (Shpak et al., 2014). Therefore, this study enriches the HR literature on matters that relate to fairness and justice in T&D practices in government departments in South Africa.

Primarily, the study made a theoretical contribution to the HR literature by developing and empirically testing a conceptual framework (Figure 5.1) that established distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice as the main drivers of workplace deviant behaviours. The developed model grounded and tested the key drivers as the main predictors of deviant employee behaviour at the department level regarding time misuse, poor attendance, and withholding efforts. This model can be applied in any national system of T&D practices, particularly in a developing country context, by policymakers, organisations and other actors. The model provides an understanding of fairness and justice in T&D practices drivers in public service; where there are challenges in the perceived justness of T&D practices, employees resort to various deviant behaviours. The selected drivers on the justness of T&D practices are key and substantially affect workplace deviant behaviour.

6.4 IMPLICATION FOR PRACTICE

Given the significance of the justness of T&D practices on selected job-related deviant behaviours, the study's main aim is to investigate the impact of fairness of T&D practices and job-related employee deviance behaviour. Considering the

importance of the study to employees and the researcher, the following recommendations for theory and practice are suggested.

In addition to theory inference, there are a number of implications of the findings of this study for employees and organisations involved in the perceived justness of T&D practices. Some of these findings are particularly important because, regardless of the policy conditions, thriving T&D practices involve internal strategic decisions for departments. Given the findings, the conceptual framework tested the effects of distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice in T&D practices as the main drivers of time misuse, poor attendance and the tendency of withholding efforts.

To advance the success of justice in T&D practices, industry stakeholders such as the National School of Government (NSG), employees and policymakers must play a more significant role. Greater comprehensive discoveries on trends in the sector and more open cooperation amongst departments and NSG partnerships need to be reinforced. Furthermore, there is a need for Government and private collaboration to ensure that the necessary T&D interventions are maintained. This approach ensures that the employees are provided with just and relevant T&D practices, with sufficient and accurate details always conveyed respectfully.

Additionally, the Government must pave the way for a monitored database system and approve funds for training and development courses within the district and municipalities in the local areas where most departments are established. This service enables employees to track available information on seminars and learning programmes with the products, performance, and employee feedback to enhance their work phase (via, for example, newsletters and business emails) and to make the employees aware of new developments in their workplace.

Finally, employees in the public services play an essential role as well. As evidenced by the results, some of them have formal education above diplomas and experience, which give them an advantage in a competitive market. As a result,

departments are advised to set mechanisms for employees to appeal against perceived unjust training and development decisions within the organisation. As these factors were observed to control procedural and interactional justice, they should also contain clear, usual procedures that reduce the impact of implicit bias in the organisation. As a result, management creates environment managers who effectively exercise interactional justice and are open, consistent, and just to their employees.

6.5 RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research could be directed to assist government departments in combating workplace deviant behaviour in South Africa. An extension of this study is to identify areas for improvement to enhance fairness and justice in T&D practices. It is recommended that the various NSG partnerships be involved in all the districts and municipalities as moderating variables.

6.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As with many research endeavours, the current study also has some theoretical and methodological limitations that may limit a wide-scale application of some of the findings. The absence of a qualitative design to strengthen the results of the quantitative strategy creates some level of shortfall. The study suggests that future studies could combine quantitative and qualitative procedures to improve the understanding obtained from this study.

One main limitation of the research is the subjective aspects of the study. The objective data used in the study were self-reported, where respondents in government departments assessed their justness in the T&D practices view. This might be subjected to measurement errors and anonymisation challenges. This approach was necessary because of the low record keeping in the public service. It is also believed that some participants may be reluctant to disclose information

for fear of being victimised. As a result, this might lead to biased responses, making it difficult to pick up the true reflection.

Another limitation of the study is that the scope of the study is the departments. Attention is necessary when drawing inferences to the industry level as T&D practice is complex, and some variables could have an entirely different impact at the department levels. Additionally, the study only concentrated on the six government departments in Limpopo province, South Africa. The focus on a single province still puts a limitation on the study. Future multiple provincial studies will provide a better insight into the selected drivers of deviant behaviour and the justness of T&D practices in South Africa.

6.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This final chapter has provided conclusions and recommendations based on the findings described and discussed in Chapter 5. It has also outlined areas of further research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethics Clearance Form for Student Research



Central University of
Technology, Free State

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES



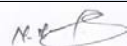
ETHICS CLEARANCE FORM FOR STUDENT RESEARCH

Research projects in which human beings are the subject of research requires completion of this form and submission, for approval, together with your protocol to the DEPARTMENTAL AND FACULTY RESEARCH COMMITTEES.

1.

GENERAL PARTICULARS		
1.1	Name of the student	Fhatuwani Raliphaswa
1.2	Student number	216008742
1.3	Department where study is located	Business Management
1.4	Qualification linked to the study	Human Resource Management
1.5	Title of the research	Impact of training and development practices on selected job-related employee deviance behaviours in government departments in Limpopo Province, South Africa: A justice perspective
1.6	Source of funding	DHET University Capacity Development Grant (UCDG)
INFORMATION TO SUBJECT		
2.1	What information will you provide to participants before they consent to participate?	All participants will be told in a form a letter the purpose of the study and that the information they will provide will be used strictly for academic motive only. Participants will also be informed that their anonymity and discretion will be secure.
2.2	Who will provide this information?	The researcher
2.3	State how complete and accurate the information provided will be	The researcher will reveal all the information applicable to the study to participants before conducting the study. To uphold anonymity the questionnaire will not include the names of participants, though deception and secrecy will be assured.
2.4	If not 100% accurate/ complete, justify the necessity for this "deception".	N/A
PARTICIPANT GROUP (SAMPLE) State YES or NO otherwise N/A		
3.1	Are particular characteristics of any kind required in the participant group (e.g. age, cultural derivation, background, physical characteristics, disease states, etc)?	YES If necessary, explain They should be employees within the government departments only in Limpopo province.
3.2	Are Participants drawn from CUT students at large?	NO If necessary, explain
3.3	Are Participants drawn from specific groups of CUT students?	NO Identify the group
3.4	Are participants drawn from a school population?	NO Identify School (s): Tertiary, Pre-primary, Primary, High school etc.
3.5	Are participants drawn from an institutional population? (e.g. Hospital, Prison, Mental Institution, organisation, etc)	YES Identify the institution Government departments in Vhembe District.
3.6	Will any records be consulted for information	NO Specify source of records
3.7	Will individual participants know their records are being consulted?	NO State how these records will be obtained and whose permission is required: no individual reports will be accessed
3.8	Are all participants over 18 years of age?	YES If No, state justification for inclusion of minors in study. All participants are over 18 years.

3.9	State the minimum number of participants needed	100	Justify the numbers in terms of the methodology chosen and proposed data analysis requirements: Quantitative and simple random sampling method will be used.
3.10	State the maximum number of participants needed	400	Justify the numbers in terms of the methodology chosen and proposed data analysis requirements Inferential statistics requires a sample of at least 100 to ensure accurate outcomes.
4.	RISKS AND BENEFITS OF PROJECT		
4.1	Is there any risk of harm, embarrassment or offence, however slight or temporary, to the participant, to third parties, or to the community at large?	NO	If yes, explain
4.2	Are all risks reversible?	N/A	If No, specify
4.3	Are remedial measures available, if risks are not reversible?	N/A	Explain
4.4	Are alternative procedures available?	N/A	
4.5	Has the person administering the project previous experience with the particular risk factors involved?	N/A	
4.6	Are any benefits expected to accrue to the participant personally? (e.g. improved health, mental state, financial, social life, skills, knowledge, etc)	N/A	
4.7	Will you be using equipment of any sort?	NO	
4.8	Will any article of property, personal or cultural, be collected in the course of this project?	NO	If Yes, specify
5.	CONSENT OF PARTICIPANTS		
5.1	Is consent to be given in writing?	YES	If Yes, <i>append consent form</i>
5.2	Do any participants suffer from a legal disability preventing them from giving effective informed consent (e.g. under 18 years, declared insane by a court of law, unconscious, etc)	NO	If Yes, specify and indicate what measures will be taken to obtain informed consent:
5.3	Do any participants operate in an institutional environment which may cast doubt on the voluntary aspect of consent?	NO	If Yes, specify and state what special precautions will be taken to obtain informed consent:
5.4	Will participants receive remuneration for their participation?	NO	If Yes, state the basis on which remuneration is calculated, and indicate what measures have been taken to ensure that it cannot be considered a perverse incentive.
5.5	Do you require consent of an institutional authority for this project?	YES	If Yes, specify; and <i>append letter of consent.</i>
6.	PRIVACY, ANONYMITY AND CONFIDENTIALITY OF DATA		
6.1	Are provisions made to protect participant's rights to privacy and anonymity and to preserve confidentiality with respect to data?	YES	Specify: Questionnaire will not reveal personal details of the participants.
6.2	Will mechanical methods of observation be used? (e.g. one-way mirrors, recordings, videos, etc)	NO	Specify
6.3	Will participants' consent to such mechanical methods of observation be obtained?	N/A	If no, give reasons
6.4	Will data collected be stored in any way?	YES	If Yes (a) By whom: The researcher (b) How many copies: One (c) For how long: 5 years (d) For what reasons: It will be stored for future references and used by other researchers. (e) How will subject's anonymity be protected: Personal information will not be disclosed.

6.4	Will data collected be stored in any way?	YES	If Yes (a) By whom: The researcher (b) How many copies: One (c) For how long: 5 years (d) For what reasons: It will be stored for future references and used by other researchers. (e) How will subject's anonymity be protected: Personal information will not be disclosed.
6.5	Will stored data be made available for re-use?	N/A	If Yes, how will participants consent be obtained for such re-use:
6.6	Will any part of the project be conducted on private property (includes shopping centres)?	N/A	If Yes, specify and state how consent of property owner is to be obtained, or <i>attach letter of consent</i> :
7	FEEDBACK		
7.1	Will feedback be given to participants?	YES	If Yes, indicate whether this is to be given to each individual immediately after participation; to each participant after the entire project is complete; to all participants in a group setting; or other manner and specify whether feedback will be written, oral or by other means. Feedback will be given to participants upon request.
7.2	If you are working in a school or other institutional setting will you be providing teachers, parents, school authorities or equivalent a copy of your results and/or report?	N/A	
8.	DECLARATION		
8.1	Any changes made to the above arrangements or procedures will be brought to the attention of the Chairperson of the Faculty Research Committee.		
8.2	We/I hold accountable to the Research Ethics Committee for conducting this research project in the manner herein described and in accordance with the spirit of the ethical guidelines of the Central University of Technology, Free State. We/I undertake to assume responsibility to advise the Faculty Research Committee promptly of any deviations, waivers, irregularities or harm occurring during the conduct of this research project.		
8.3	Signature of Student		
8.4	Signature(s) of Project Supervisor(s):		
8.5	Signature of HOD		
8.6	Date approved by FRIC		
8.7	Signature of FRIC Chairperson		
8.8	Ethical Clearance Number Allocated by FRIC		FMSEC



Appendix 2: Questionnaire

25 May 2022

Dear Respondent

I am a Master of Human Resources Management student at the Central University of Technology, Free State (CUT, FS), under the supervision of Doctor LW Dzansi and Professor DY Dzansi. I am conducting research on the Impact of training and development practices on selected job-related employee deviance behaviours in government departments in Limpopo Province, South Africa: A justice perspective. I would be very grateful for your assistance in completing the attached questionnaire.

This questionnaire is divided into three sections. The first section is on the biographical information, the second part is focused on fairness of training and development practices and, the third section measures job related deviant behaviour.

It will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please note that there is no correct or wrong answer for each question. Your veracity is what I am in quest of.

Participation in this project is completely voluntary and be assured that all feedbacks will be held in the firmest confidentiality and that your identity will remain anonymous. Only clustered data will be presented.

Thank you for your time and active participation to complete this questionnaire.

Yours,

A small, stylized handwritten signature in black ink.

Ms. F RALIPHASWA

A small, stylized handwritten signature in black ink.

Dr LW DZANSI
(Supervisor)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please read the statements carefully and tick the number corresponding to your choice. All information provided remains confidential.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS						
1.	Name of government department where you are working					
2.	Gender	[1] Male		[2] Female		[3] Other
3.	Age (years)	[1] (18-30)		[2] (31-40)		[3] (41-50) [4] (Above 50 years)
4.	Highest education	[1] (PhD)	[2] (Master's)	[3] Honours/ PGDip	[4] Bachelor's/ Adv Dip	[5] (Diploma) [6] (Below Diploma)
5.	Religion	[1] Christian	[2] Muslim	[3] Traditional African	[4] Hinduism	[5] Other [6] Atheist (none)
6.	Marital Status	[1] Single		[2] Married		[3] Divorced [4] Separated [5] Widowed
7.	Household income	[1] Up to		[2]		[3] [4] [5]
8.	Employment Status	[1] Employed	[2] Unemployed	[3] Retired	[4] Self Employed	[5] Student [6] Others
9.	Race	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5] [6] [7]
10.	Family size	[1] 1- 2		[2] 3-5		[3] 6-10 [4] 11 and more
11.	Length of service	[1] less than 1 year	[2] 1-3 years	[3] 4-6 years	[4] 7-10 years	[5] 10-15 years [6] More than 15 years
12.	Position in the organisation	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5] [6]

SECTION B: JUSTNESS/ FAIRNESS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES									
Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statements regarding employee training and development in the organisation where you work by ticking (X) against one of the scale alternatives									
SECTION	Q/N	Statements	Responses						
			Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
B1: DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE IN T&D PRACTICES	13.	Training and development is done based on each employee's requirements.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	14.	Training and development decisions are made in a unprejudiced manner. That is, regardless of race, gender etc.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	15.	Training and development opportunities are available to all employees.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	16.	Equal training and development opportunities exists for all employees in the same job categories.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	17.	The number of training days available to employees is calculated based on length of service	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	18.	Individuals with higher status, authority, or control receive more training and development opportunities	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
B2: PROCEDURAL JUSTICE IN T&D PRACTICES	19.	Employees are free to request for any information on training and development procedures.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	20.	Employees are always provided with up-to-date information on how training and development decisions are concluded.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	21.	Employees have a say in decisions affecting their training and development	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	22.	There are mechanisms in place for employees to appeal against perceived unfair training and development decisions.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	23.	There are established training and development policies and procedures	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	24.	Training and development policies and procedures are consistently applied	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

B3: INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE IN T&D PRACTICES	25.	Training and development selection decisions are made in unbiased manner	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	26.	Employees are provided full explanation and reasons when training requests they make are turned down	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	27.	Employees are always treated with respect during training and development decision making process.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	28.	Training and development decisions are based on correct information.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	29.	I believe that training and development decisions are made in an honest manner in my workplace	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	30.	I believe that training and development decisions are based on merit in my workplace	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	31.	Employees' rights are always valued during training and development decision making courses.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	32.	Declined training and development decisions are conveyed to employees in respectful manner	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	33.	Managers personally convey training and development decisions to their subordinates in a confidential manner	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

SECTION C: JOB RELATED DEVIANT BEHAVIOURS

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statements concerning your behaviour in relation to work in your organisation by ticking (X) against one of the scale alternatives

C1: MISUSE OF TIME		Statement	Strongly Disagree [1]	Disagree [2]	Somewhat Disagree [3]	Neutral [4]	Somewhat Agree [5]	Agree [6]	Strongly Agree [7]
	34.	Instead of getting my work done, I spend time talking with colleagues at work.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	35.	Sometimes, I add time to my time log and time sheet so that it looked like I worked more than I did.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	36.	I tend to take longer breaks than permitted by the department.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	37.	I extend my shift deliberately by working slower than required.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

C2: POOR ATTENDANCE	38.	While at work, I normally spend time checking my personal email or social media accounts.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	39.	I usually spend time on non-work related tasks, while I should have been working.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	40.	Sometimes I do not show up at work for no reason	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	41.	I show up late for work even when I could make it in on time	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	42.	I sometimes call in sick to avoid going to work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
C3: WITHHOLDING EFFORT	43.	I sometimes fake sickness while at work in order to go home	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	44.	I put less effort on the work when colleagues are around to do the work.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	45.	I take more and longer breaks than I should.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	46.	I deliberately avoid my manager to avoid being assigned extra work	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	47.	I give less than 100 percent effort on my job.	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
	48.	I tend to spend too much time at work on personal issues instead of working	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]