

**CRITERIA FOR WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY
OF EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES
IN SOUTH AFRICA**

by

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DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY

I, Kgomoitso William Kasonkola, declare that the dissertation entitled *Criteria for workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities in South Africa* submitted by me for the degree PhD in Organisational Behaviour at the University of Pretoria is my own independent work and has not been submitted to any other Faculty or University prior to or concurrent with this submission.

KGOMOTSO WILLIAM KASONKOLA

September 2011

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ABSTRACT

This study highlighted the implications of the absence of well-delineated criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities in South Africa for their employment, development and organisational mobility. In response to the dearth of research on workplace-effective mobility, and cognizant of the importance of well-delineated workplace criteria to oppose continuing workplace prejudice and discrimination against employees with disabilities, this two-phase sequential triangulation study aimed to identify and confirm criteria and compile a theoretical model for workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. The study has significance for the achievement of greater workplace equity and redress, which will enhance the strategic human resources management and the productive image of employees with disabilities, as well as reduce welfare costs by enabling more people with disabilities to access paid employment opportunities.

To attain the study objectives, the study was done in two phases. The first was a qualitative phase during which focus group interviews with participants with disabilities were conducted. The second phase involved a five-point Likert scale-based Delphi process with industrial and organisational psychologists. Focus group participants were formally employed or self-employed in various organisations and were recruited from four disability categories (people who are blind or deaf, or have a physical or speech impairment) in four provinces in South Africa (the Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape). The industrial and organisational psychologists who participated in the Delphi

phase were used as experts with prior experience in the employee recruitment area.

The study found that workplace-effective mobility is (a) a multi-dimensional concept comprised of a positive self-concept, self-efficacy, workplace accessibility, a sense of coherence and a positive sense of independence, which form the crux of criteria for workplace-effective mobility; (b) a result of self-efficacy beliefs, enabling organisational practices and workplace accessibility; and (c) at the heart of the pursuit for workplace equity to redress prejudice and discrimination against employees with disabilities in the workplace. The participating experts also reached consensus in their understanding of the term workplace-effective mobility. Within-group differences were identified for a number of categories; and therefore it is recommended that future research should be conducted on distinct categories of disabilities. Using the identified dimensions (positive self-concept, self-efficacy, workplace accessibility, sense of coherence and a positive sense of independence) and outcomes (organisational and personal effectiveness), a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility was compiled.

KEYWORDS: workplace-effective mobility, positive self-concept, self-efficacy, workplace equity and accessibility, emancipatory research, self-motivation, employees with disabilities

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

This study focuses on the identification and confirmation of criteria for the workplace-effective mobility (as defined in the last paragraph of Section 1.1, in Section 1.11.2 and in Chapter 3) of employees with disabilities. It uses an emancipatory approach. The identification and confirmation of criteria for workplace-effective mobility add to the workplace equity debate and put it on the workplace agenda to promote the inclusion of people with disabilities in paid employment. Workplace equity is thus central to the study, because it relates to the pursuit of the universal human right to work and associate with others, and constitutes a fundamental human right enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996).

Criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities are essential for ensuring workplace equity. In order to identify and confirm criteria for workplace-effective mobility, however, the concept of workplace-effective mobility itself needs to be clarified for common understanding. Workplace-effective mobility is a multi-dimensional concept that can be inferred from various definitions of the mobility of employees in the workplace; and it includes elements such as self-motivation (Ingledew, Markland & Sheppard, 2004), a sense of independence (Patel *et al.*, 2006), good quality of life (Patla & Shumway-Cook, 1999), personal competence, the ability to work and physical accessibility (Chatterton, 2005). The availability of job opportunities (Anderson, Milkovich & Tsui, 1981) determines the extent to which employees may attain such workplace-effective mobility, based on well-delineated criteria. However, employers may wrongly allocate or even

refuse to allocate available job opportunities to people with disabilities when they apply medical criteria (Kopec, 1995).

Based on research by Anderson *et al.* (1981) aimed at developing a model for intra-organisational mobility, the central argument in this study is that organisations often lack well-delineated criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. This is regrettable, because the lack of such criteria in organisations inhibits the employment, development and promotion (Williams, 2006) of suitably qualified employees with disabilities. The Employment Equity Act, No 55 of 1998, defines 'suitably qualified' people in terms of their formal qualifications, prior learning, relevant experience and capacity to acquire, within a reasonable time, the ability to do a given job (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

Suitably qualified employees with disabilities whose employment, development and promotion opportunities are inhibited do not achieve good quality of life. Therefore the study further contends that the lack of well-delineated criteria in South African organisations for the employment, development and promotion of employees with disabilities results in workplace prejudice against them. According to the Commission for Employment Equity (2007), the under-achievement of the 4% skills development targets by South African employers reflects workplace prejudice against employees with disabilities. Indeed, only 1.4% of employees with disabilities (more half less than the target of 4%) received training in 2007 (Republic of South Africa, 2007).

Similarly, South African employers have not been able to achieve the 2% employment equity targets for employees with disabilities set in terms of to the Employment Equity Act No 55 of 1998: Code of Good Practice on Key Aspects of Disability in the Workplace – Draft for Public Comments (Republic of South Africa, 2001). The 2008/9 employment equity report indicates that employees with disabilities represent only 0.7% of the total

number of employees that is reported by all designated employers (in other words, almost three-quarters less than the target of 2%), with the majority of these employees concentrated in the lower levels of employment, that is, from the skilled level downwards (Commission for Employment Equity, 2009). Designated employers are employers who employ more than 150 employees, as defined by the Employment Equity Act, No 55 of 1998. In senior management occupations, South Africa reflects an even lower (0.3%) representation of employees with disabilities (Commission for Employment Equity, 2009), compared to 6% in Canada (Williams, 2006).

The implementation of well-delineated criteria (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001; Ross, 2004) for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities is essential to address growing shortages of skilled labour – due to the aging population in countries such as Canada (Williams 2006) or the general skills shortages in South Africa (Daniels, 2007), coupled with the growing need to rationalise policies and procedures for enhanced workplace equity. Given this need and interest in the implementation of well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility, it is surprising that so little empirical research has thus far been conducted on the identification and confirmation of criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Regrettably, previous research in the field of criteria identification and confirmation tended to focus mainly on criteria for improving the health conditions of people with disabilities, addressing issues such as the following:

- developing criteria to assess the appropriateness of hip replacement surgery for osteoarthritis patients (Quintana *et al.*, 2000);
- evaluating the quality of research on health promotion, for funding purposes (Lahtinen *et al.*, 2005); and
- setting guidelines for the development of health survey instruments and criteria for the adoption thereof (Tafforeau *et al.*, n.d.).

Furthermore, some of the previous research on criteria identification and confirmation used self-reporting (Van Vianen, Feij, Krausz & Taris, 2003), which does not allow concepts to be transformed into observable competences which make it possible for the achievements of employees in the workplace to be monitored (Altink, Visser & Castelijns, 1997) . A criterion based on self-reporting may thus not assist employers to distinguish between mobile and immobile employees with disabilities in the workplace. Thus employers face a challenge in attempting to distinguish between mobile and immobile employees with disabilities in the workplace; and this problem is compounded by the fact that previous research on criteria identification and confirmation has failed to recognize that disability is not simply a medical or welfare issue (Oliver, 2002), but also has a social dimension. The scarcity of criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities is unfortunate, because it is the sort of knowledge required by human resources practitioners and employers to ensure a constant supply and availability of competent employees (Williams, 2006) and to achieve greater workplace equity for employees with disabilities.

At this stage in the research, workplace-effective mobility is generally defined as the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to find work in the open labour market, make an effective contribution and maintain an economically active lifestyle. Because of the effects of workplace prejudice on the attainment of workplace-effective mobility by employees with disabilities, this study is based on the social theory of disability and adopted an emancipatory research paradigm to argue for a transformation of workplace practices in order to enhance workplace equity.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The main problem that this study attempts to address is that there is an absence of well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility to

assess potential employees with disabilities for available job opportunities (Anderson *et al.*, 1981), and that the absence of such criteria inhibits the appointment of people with disabilities and has a negative impact on the well-being of both the individual and of the organisation.

When employers set criteria that exclude employees with disabilities from employment (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001), believing that employing such employees would pose risks to their workplace safety (Republic of South Africa, 2001), it reflects negatively on the effectiveness of their human resources management function (Community Constituency, 2003). Consequently, the human resources management departments of such employers are not able to sustain a constant supply of suitably qualified people with disabilities (Anderson *et al.*, 1981), particularly to meet the new requirements of a knowledge economy during an economic recession (Muffels & Luijckx, 2004).

Conversely, people with disabilities who are excluded from employment on arbitrary grounds are deprived of opportunities to develop personal attributes (Jette, 2006) which could enhance their sense of independent living (Stephens, Collins & Dodder, 2003). Workplace-effective criteria therefore include goal-setting behaviours such as self-efficacy (Rigby *et al.*, 2003). According to Rigby *et al.* (2003), organisations need to appoint individuals with strong self-efficacy beliefs who tend to set high goals and are committed to achieving them.

Mrug and Wallander (2002) contend that disabled people's self-concept drives their functioning and is formed and changed by their social environment. For instance, employees who feel rejected by others experience greater hostility, low self-esteem, emotional instability, unresponsiveness, and a negative view of the world. Conversely, a positive self-concept results in a positive worldview (Mrug & Wallander, 2002) and in more effective employees.

The lack of suitable criteria for workplace-effective mobility leads to ineffective differentiation between people with disabilities who should receive disability grants and those who should not, especially when disability is treated as a medical issue only, for the purposes of allocating disability grants (Dossa, 2005). When such a medical model is used, the allocation of disability grants does not distinguish between suitably qualified candidates with disabilities who choose not to be employed (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001) on the one hand, and those who choose to work (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001) on the other. Therefore, the career aspirations and self-motivation of those who want to work are thwarted. This system creates a culture of entitlement (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001) and the economy is then burdened with the growing financial costs of maintaining people with a disability (Swartz & Schneider, 2007).

During times of economic distress, employees who become disabled in the workplace are often wrongly dismissed (Kennedy & Olney, 2001) because of the application of the medical model and the absence of more suitable criteria for workplace-effective mobility. Drawing on Pinder's study (1996), I argue that this tendency to dismiss employees with disabilities for alleged operational reasons reflects a disabling environment and not the poor capabilities of employees with disabilities *per se*, as such decisions are not based on any well-defined criteria. Consequently, the dismissed employees experience emotional and psychological distress (Barnes, 1990) and feelings of reduced capacity and confidence (Reiser & Mason, 1990).

From the preceding discussion, it is clear that there is a need to improve the understanding of workplace-effective mobility and to identify its criteria (Ross, 2004). The decision to undertake a study in this field was also informed by the dearth of literature on the topic and the inadequacy of research on the subject (Anderson *et al.*, 1981; Kopec, 1995). Therefore, the purpose of this two-phase sequential mixed-methods study, as described by Creswell (2009), is to identify and confirm criteria

for workplace-effective mobility for employees with disabilities in four of the nine provinces in South Africa (the Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape).

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS

The main aim of this two-phase sequential triangulation study is therefore to identify and confirm criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Other specific aims that are pursued are the following:

- to describe the nature of and identify criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities;
- to apply the Delphi technique in order to confirm the criteria identified; and
- to compile a theoretical model of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

The envisaged overall outcome of the study is criteria that can be applied to determine the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, and which should minimize workplace discrimination against this group.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question for this study is: 'What are the criteria for workplace-effective mobility?' Based on this question, the sub-questions are the following:

- What is the nature of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities?
- Why should criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities be identified?
- What are the criteria for workplace-effective mobility?

- How do experts working in the field of industrial and organisational psychology view the relevance and correctness of the identified criteria?

1.5 RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

This study was conducted to promote workplace equity, for economic and business reasons, as well as in response to a personal interest related to my place of work.

From a workplace equity perspective, the rationale for this study is that the medical model (see Section 2.3.1), which is the predominant model implemented in the selection of suitable people with disabilities, is inadequate. As will become evident in Section 2.4, in the next chapter, the continued use of the medical model presents several challenges to the inclusion of people with disabilities in paid employment. More emphasis should therefore be placed on the social (see Section 2.3.3) and biopsychosocial models (see Section 2.3.4) of disability as a basis for the selection of competent employees with disabilities. These models are best represented by the concept of workplace-effective mobility. Therefore, the criteria for workplace-effective mobility need to be identified and confirmed in the context of the social and biopsychosocial models.

The study is also conducted against the backdrop of the rising burden that disability grants impose on the fiscus and of limited family resources to maintain a dignified lifestyle for disabled family members. According to Emmett (2006), disabled people are often the responsibility of their families and, because of the reduced employment opportunities for people with disabilities, they present a risk of economic hardship due to increased demands on family resources. According to the World Bank (2008) report, disability presents a major challenge for equitable and sustainable economic development and poverty alleviation. Therefore, the economic value of employment for disabled people lies in their inclusion in paid

employment (World Bank, 2008). However, as indicated in Section 1.1, the provision of employment requires well-delineated criteria, which makes this study necessary.

A further economic rationale for this study is the rising cost of disability grants, which implies an increasing burden on the taxpayer and growing dependence on such grants by people with disabilities. The rising cost and the disincentive influence of disability grants are explained in Section 2.4.5, and the implications thereof are indicated in Section 2.5, highlighting the need for greater workplace equity. It is evident in these sections that disability costs have increased by 53% over a ten-year period (from 1997 to 2007) in South Africa and continue to rise (Swartz & Schneider, 2007), and hence return-to-work initiatives are required. The inability to distinguish people with disabilities who can work from those who should receive disability grants (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001) is compounded by a dearth of information on recipients who are able to work and in what type of job, as Mutasa (2010) argues. Therefore, an investigation into well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility is essential because such criteria will enable a distinction between those who should be grant beneficiaries as opposed to those who are potential employees with disabilities.

Regarding the diversity rationale for the study, I posit that the benefits of including people with disabilities in paid employment accrue to both organisations and individuals. For individuals, a diversity approach to managing disability in workplaces deconstructs a view of disabled people as a group of marginalised workers to focus more on individual capabilities and differences. According to Woodhams and Danieli (2000), a diversity management approach to disability deconstructs group identities and promotes individuality; it thus calls for the implementation of workplace practices that appreciate differences and mutual respect. Individuals should therefore be recognized, rather than the group they come from; therefore, criteria for workplace-effective mobility of employees with

disabilities should be investigated that will enable the optimization of diversity in workplaces.

Based on the assertions of Woodhams and Danieli (2000), I argue that the organisational benefits of optimizing diversity in workplaces by including people with disabilities in paid employment can be realised in the increased economic viability of organisations (it ensures a personal touch with regard to disabled customers), the acquisition of desirable skills (it addresses a shortage of skills) and the promotion of proactive human resources management practices (it removes barriers and fosters a culture that celebrates uniqueness). Harrison (1998) found that employers tend to value employees with disabilities for their strong work ethic, which has positive spin-offs for organisational effectiveness. Specific benefits for people with disabilities of being included in paid employment are explained in Section 2.5.2.

As an able-bodied researcher (although I am short-sighted and use spectacles), I became involved in this study for personal development reasons. I am involved in processes of employment equity at the Vaal University of Technology. Because we were not able to attract suitable employees with disabilities, I developed an interest in the subject. The study was thus regarded as a learning ground on matters of disability equity. Also, as an organisational development practitioner, I saw the study as an organisational development activity which could contribute to the identification of equitable workplace practices for more effective diversity management, thereby addressing the barriers to inclusion facing people with disabilities who want to enter paid employment. My personal motivation for undertaking this kind of study and the implications thereof are discussed in more detail in Section 2.5.5.

As a contribution to the workplace equity agenda for people with disabilities, this study therefore seeks to generate empirical information that, firstly, contributes to the body of knowledge on workplace-effective

mobility by describing the concept of workplace-effective mobility; secondly, assists employers in planning their human resources strategy to achieve greater workplace equity for employees with disabilities and workforce diversity; and, thirdly, provides some answers to the questions raised by human resources practitioners and employers about why some employees with disabilities are able to achieve workplace-effective mobility more successfully than others with similar levels of disability, by identifying and confirming suitable criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The identification and confirmation of workplace-effective criteria will assist employers to mitigate workplace prejudice and promote the employment of competent and well-motivated employees with disabilities (Ross, 2004). Such criteria will thus enable the absorption of people with disabilities in the open labour market (Baum, 1995).

Furthermore, employers will be able to plan their human resources strategies for optimal equity, taking into consideration the workplace-effective mobility needs of employees with disabilities. The workplace-effective mobility criteria identified by the study will also provide useful additional information for organisational policy on the fair dismissal of employees with disabilities for incapacity and/or to determine appropriate reasonable accommodation measures with minimal undue hardship to the employer's business. Similarly, the criteria can be administered to normal retirees and those who retire early due to ill-health as part of the career and/or retirement counselling processes.

The gaps identified in the process of assessing employees with disabilities using criteria for workplace-effective mobility can be addressed through appropriate interventions in the form of training and development. This process should assist employers to increase the

targets for employment equity effectively and to develop the skills of employees with disabilities appropriately.

The outcomes of this study will provide a better understanding of the reasons for the low employment rate of employees with disabilities in the mainstream economy and provide a basis for finding solutions that will promote their fair and practical integration into workplaces. Therefore, the use of workplace-effective mobility criteria will also enhance opportunities for employees with disabilities to enjoy the societal goal of ‘a better life for all’, live more independently and reduce their dependence on disability grants.

The fair assessment of employees with disabilities for employment, promotion and development purposes may enable the implementation of a return-to-work programme, thereby reducing welfare costs for the government. Finally, the theoretical model that is developed in this study will assist future research on the concept of workplace-effective mobility to advance workplace equity.

1.7 THE RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

Because it is not always possible to prove the findings of a study conclusively on the basis of empirical data (Mouton, 1996), assumptions were made to guide the process decisions in identifying and confirming criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), assumptions are those ‘things’ that researchers accept as true without concrete proof to guide research process decisions in order to reduce misinterpretation of the findings. Therefore research assumptions that guided the research process in this study were made, and these are clarified below to enhance correct interpretation of the findings.

1.7.1 Ontological assumptions

The study assumes that any 'reality' regarding the concept of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities is imperfect and must be subject to critique (Guba, 1990). Such a philosophical stance enables critical analysis of continuing workplace prejudice and discrimination as socially constructed views (Williams, 1998) on how to manage employees with disabilities. Such critical analysis is necessary because of the negative consequences of workplace prejudice and discrimination, which become evident in the marginalization and stigmatization of employees with disabilities (Lupton & Seymour, 2000), and which subject them to an inferior (Oliver, 2002) and passive role in society.

This study therefore attempts to make a contribution to redress this untenable historical reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) by advocating the use of specific and appropriate criteria for workplace-effective mobility in order to enhance workplace equity. In order to make this contribution, the study adopts an emancipatory and advocacy paradigm which puts the issue of criteria for workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities on a political agenda, thereby influencing the transformation of South African workplaces to ensure optimal workplace equity. According to Creswell (2009), emancipatory research interweaves science with politics and a political agenda for change. Because disability has been politicised (Barnes, 2001), the use of an emancipatory and advocacy paradigm in this study is appropriate.

1.7.2 Epistemological assumptions

The study adopts a sequential mixed methods approach (see Section 1.8), which necessitates that qualitative and quantitative phases are used. In the qualitative phase of the study, a subjectivist epistemology is adopted in order to act collaboratively with the participants to avoid the

possible marginalisation of the participants (Creswell, 2009). The enquiry thus involves a collective production (Oliver, 2002) of knowledge, which in this case requires a united voice raised for changes (Creswell, 2009) in employment policies and practices, thereby arriving at the truth about the abilities of employees with disabilities. According to Plack (2005), truth is arrived at through discourse which is subjectively and inter-subjectively grounded. Subjectivist epistemology is also adopted because the emancipation of employees with disabilities is a value-driven activity, referring particularly to the value of workplace equity. According to Guba (1990), a subjectivist epistemology recognises that values mediate the inquiry.

Therefore, I engaged with participants in the qualitative phase of the study to identify the subjective interpretations and meanings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) that they attached to criteria for workplace-effective mobility. It is assumed that both my values and those of the participants inevitably permeate the findings, thereby constituting a united voice against the marginalisation of employees with disabilities. Fieldwork was thus undertaken to enable the engagement of participants in the inquiry and record their voices on the subject, as suggested by Plack (2005) and Shah (2006). In the process of the information exchange between the participants and me, a mutual change of our perspectives (as suggested by Krauss, 2005) regarding the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities could occur.

The study also necessitated the inclusion of a quantitative phase concerned with confirming criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of people with a disability. In this phase, an objectivist worldview was adopted to select an external and independent panel (as advocated by Williams, 1998) of experts (as suggested by Plack, 2005) for this purpose. The confirmation (Krauss, 2005) of the criteria identified subjectively by participants was crucial in order to provide clarity, relevance and representativeness of workplace-effective mobility using a

five-point Likert scale. Therefore, workplace-effective mobility was dimensionalised or presented in its identified parts (indicators and categories) to a panel of experts for confirmation. This approach was used to study the parts of a phenomenon to understand its wholeness (Williams, 1998).

1.7.3 Axiological assumptions

Because the findings of an emancipatory and advocacy inquiry are value-mediated (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), my interpretations and those of the participants, and presentations thereof, may reflect our various orientations, as Creswell (2007) explains. My orientation in this study emanates from my role as a registered industrial psychologist, an Employment Equity practitioner, and a Human Resources executive. The orientations of the participants emanate from their experiences as people with disabilities working under conditions of workplace prejudice.

As orientations emanating from my theoretical exposure and professional practice have a potential for researcher bias (see Section 4.5.), I have made an attempt to suspend these orientations, as recommended by Williams (1998) in order to understand workplace-effective mobility from the perspectives of employees with disabilities. Furthermore, researcher bias was reduced by implementing measures that ensure trustworthiness, as indicated in Section 4.7.1.5 of this study. According to Creswell (2007), qualitative research uses a qualitative concept of trustworthiness, instead of validity.

1.7.4 Rhetorical assumptions

A personal style of writing (first person) is adopted in this study to confirm the closeness of the researcher to the process, and also to enhance understanding of the findings (Creswell, 2007).

1.7.5 Methodological assumptions

In order to achieve the study objectives of identifying and verifying criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, a dialectical dialogue with the participants is assumed. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), such a dialogue must be dialectical in order to address the historically inappropriate reality pertaining to participants. In this regard, the study brings workplace prejudice against employees with disabilities to the fore so that transformative actions towards workplace equity can be performed in the workplace through the implementation of criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

Therefore, the research process was guided by the evolving data collection and analysis, and the statements from interactions with participants were recorded through thick descriptions (see Plack, 2005). Merriam (1998) defines a thick description as the complete and literal description of the incident or entity that is being investigated. Accordingly, the research setting and responses of participants in the study are described in detail in Chapter 5.

In order to identify the criteria for workplace-effective mobility, the behavioural representations thereof by employees with disabilities were observed as they emerged and were compared with the existing literature in order to attain theoretical generalisations or external validity. The process of observing behavioural representations as they emerge from the field and comparing these representations with the relevant literature is referred to as an inductive (Olsen, 2004) and emergent (Creswell, 2007) logic. Inductive logic assists in the development (Olsen, 2004) of a theoretical model; and emergent logic provides the flexibility necessary for a researcher to develop detailed knowledge of the topic being studied (Creswell, 2007).

1.8 VISUAL PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS AND METHODS

The research design and methodology are discussed comprehensively in Chapter 4. However, in the interests of providing clarity and orienting the reader, the research process is discussed briefly in this introductory chapter.

This study employs a two-phase sequential, confirmatory and dialectical mixed design. It is sequential because a qualitative research paradigm is used first in describing the concept of workplace-effective mobility and identifying related criteria, and then a quantitative research paradigm is used in confirming the criteria that have been identified, by using a Likert-type scale as recommended by Creswell, Fetters and Ivankova (2004). The design is dialectical because it uses a constant comparative method to analyse the multiple subjective realities of participants in the study, as described by Rocco *et al.* (2003).

Table 1.1 (below) provides a summary of the sequential mixed method design adopted in this study.

Table 1.1: Summary of the research process and methods

Research design step	Phases of the sequential mixed methods design	
Phase	Phase 1: Focus group interviews with employees with disabilities	Phase 2: A pilot study followed by two main rounds of the Delphi method with selected industrial and organisational psychologists
Purpose	Identify criteria for workplace-effective mobility	Confirming criteria for workplace-effective mobility

Research design step	Phases of the sequential mixed methods design	
Sampling	Purposive	Purposive
Data collection	Interview schedule Focus group interviews Audio and video tapes Field notes	Online questionnaire Interactive database
Data analysis	Constant comparison method Theoretical sensitivity Content analysis: Atlas.ti	Statistical analysis Content analysis: Atlas.ti
Results/Outcomes	Criteria for workplace-effective mobility and a theoretical model	Confirmed criteria through consensus-building

1.8.1 Phase 1: Focus group interviews

Phase 1 of the study was concerned with the identification of criteria and the compilation of a theoretical model of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. It represents the most prominent activity in this study. Therefore, the dominant research design (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2009) of this study is interpretivist grounded theory, using focus group interviews for data collection. As explained more fully in Section 4.3.1, interpretivist approaches are designed around interpreting trends and patterns observed in data.

An interview schedule was compiled after conducting a literature review on workplace-effective mobility; getting inputs from project coordinators and considering the opinions of 15 participants in a pilot study (see Section 5.4.4.1). It was used to collect data from purposive samples. Conversations were recorded on audio- or videotapes and field notes were taken. After each stage of collection, the data content was analysed, using constant comparison methods on Atlas.ti. Consideration for theoretical sensitivity was included in the data analysis in order to

understand the multiple meaning of the data in the context of applicable theory, as recommended by Brown *et al.* (2002). The envisaged results from this analysis process were criteria for and a theoretical model of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

1.8.2 Phase 2: Delphi technique

Phase 2 involved the confirmation of the criteria for workplace-effective mobility using the Delphi technique and a quantitative Likert-type scale. Therefore, in this phase, a mixed methods design was used to confirm the criteria identified in the qualitative phase of the study, as recommended by Risjord, Moloney and Dunbar (2001).

A purposive sample of industrial and organisational psychologists was drawn for these purposes. An online questionnaire and an interactive database were used to collect the data in two rounds. These two rounds of the actual data-gathering process were preceded by a pilot round aimed at testing the questionnaire for comprehension.

After the first round, data were analysed statistically and in terms of their content. Thereafter, the analysed data were packaged into a second round questionnaire as feedback to enable consensus-building among industrial and organisational psychologists. The envisaged result was confirmed criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

1.8.3 Validity and reliability

The results of a study should be valid and reliable, as recommended by Mouton and Marais (1990). How the current study achieved validity and reliability is explained in detail in Sections 4.7.1.5 and 4.7.2.6, and this is not repeated here, to avoid any duplication of the discussion.

1.8.4 Trustworthiness

As discussed in Section 4.6, a qualitative research methodology was appropriate for performing the prominent activity of this study (also see Section 1.8.1). Measures to ensure the trustworthiness of qualitative results are therefore very important in a qualitative study such as this. Trustworthiness refers to the conceptual soundness from which the value of qualitative research can be judged (Brown *et al.*, 2002). Criteria to judge the conceptual soundness of the findings are credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Bitsch, 2005). This study's compliance with these criteria is therefore explained in detail in Section 4.7.1.5.

1.8.5 Ethical measures

The codes of ethical conduct of the Health Professions Council of South Africa regulating the conduct of psychologists pertaining to human subjects and good practice for disabilities were used as ethical guidelines for this study. Details of the ethical compliance measures undertaken in this study are explained in Sections 4.7.1.6 and 4.7.2.5.

1.9 DEMARCATON OF THE STUDY

Swartz and Watermeyer (2006) show that the literature on disability studies in South Africa has yet to emerge and develop. As a relatively young democracy, South Africa needs to foster a culture of disability equity to support the series of anti-discrimination laws the country has promulgated. Against this background, the study focuses only on a South African perspective and does not seek to draw comparisons with other countries.

The study was thus conducted in four provinces in South Africa, namely the Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape. Participation in the study was limited to Deaf, blind and speech-impaired

employees and employees with physical disabilities who are employed in operational and management positions, as well as self-employed people with such disabilities. The participation criteria were set to include employees with disabilities in the age categories from 25 to 55 years (the prime age for being economically active), and to include diversity of gender and race.

Generalisation of the results of this study to other countries or employees with disabilities in sheltered employment or other types of disabilities is limited, due to the relatively small size of the sample used and the use of qualitative procedures, such as purposive sampling. Thus, the limited possibility of generalising the results to other employees with disabilities or other countries affects the external validity of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Ellis & Levy, 2009). The study's external validity is therefore limited to comparing its results with the relevant literature, without engaging in cross-country comparisons, as indicated in Section 4.7.1.4(i)(c).

Given that all the participants in the study were assured of their right to withdraw from the study at any point if they felt uncomfortable, the participants who completed the questionnaire (Delphi process) and who participated in the data collection processes (focus group interviews) may not be fully representative of the population of people with disabilities.

The members of the expert panel that confirmed the criteria for workplace-effective mobility were drawn from the ranks of professionals believed to specialise in the development of assessment tools and criteria, namely industrial and organisational psychologists, and may thus not fully represent the full range of expert opinion or universal opinion among professionals. Despite the utility of the information generated by the study for the possible compilation of a psychometric assessment tool, the development of such a tool was not the primary intention of the study, because of the limitations imposed on the research in respect of time and

resources. However, the results may be useful for future research regarding the development of such a tool.

These considerations for study demarcation are clarified here because they pose a threat to the internal validity of the study (Ellis & Levy, 2009) and should thus be stated clearly to enable future replication or expansion of the study (Creswell, 2003) in other settings.

1.10 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study was performed within the parameters of a social model of disability, which aims to achieve greater workplace equity and redress for employees with disabilities. According to the social model, disability is socially constructed through prejudicial social practices and policies (Hahn, 1993). Proponents of the social model of disability posit that society should create a sense of acceptance (Finkelstein, 2001) and provide equal membership status (Jayasooria, 1999) to employees with disabilities, thereby eradicating workplace prejudice against them (Republic of South Africa, 1997).

A well-developed sense of acceptance, coupled with a socially supportive environment, optimises the individual effectiveness (Mrug & Wallander, 2002) of employees with disabilities. Therefore, minimizing workplace prejudice through the use of well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility is essential to harness individual capabilities and develop the potential of employees with disabilities. Baldwin and Johnson (2001) argue that it is necessary to access and use such individual abilities, because most people with disabilities are as able to perform productively as non-disabled persons.

Given the need to eradicate workplace prejudice against employees with disabilities in order to harness their individual capabilities, the study therefore fits within an emancipatory and advocacy worldview. The

emancipatory and advocacy framework worldview requires that researchers advance a collective change agenda by means of a participatory research process (Creswell, 2009). The proposed change agenda should therefore empower participants in the inquiry arising out of the discussions with the researcher (Creswell, 2009).

The use of an emancipatory and advocacy worldview in the context of a social model of disability is explained more fully in Section 2.5.5, which deals with the importance of emancipatory research strategies in disability studies.

1.11 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

Two main concepts used in this study are disability and workplace-effective mobility. In order to limit misunderstanding of the concepts, it is necessary for these concepts to be introduced at an early stage of the discussion in the dissertation. These concepts are discussed in detail in Chapters 2 and 3. However, for the sake of clarity, a brief definition of these terms is provided below.

1.11.1 Disability

The definitions of disability are as diverse as the conceptual models designed to clarify the term. From a medical perspective, a disability is a disease, medical condition or resource deficit residing in an individual. Such a deficit affects the person's interactions with the workplace environment negatively, but, in some cases, it may be remedied by some medical treatment or intervention in a medical institution. The successful remedying of an employee's deficit(s) through medical technology, surgery, hospitalization and/or remediation boosts the personal resource capacity of the employee (Drum *et al.*, 2005).

Another definition of disability is based on a functional model of disability. According to this kind of model, disability is a functional gap that is remediable through technological interventions or social support or assistive devices and rehabilitation aimed at enhancing the functional resource capacity of an employee (Lupton & Seymour, 2000). From a social model viewpoint, disability is a social construct created by broader environmental constraints inhibiting productive interactions between employees with disabilities and their environment (Swartz & Schneider, 2007). In terms of the biopsychosocial model, disability is a consequence of interactions between personal, social and biological variables (Jette, 2003, 2006).

Irrespective of the model one adopts, disability as a long-term or recurring physical or mental impairment substantially limits a person's access to employment opportunities, prevents effective performance and/or career advancement (Republic of South Africa, 1998). It is thus evident that employees with disabilities experience workplace prejudice and/or inequity based on the misconception that disability prevents effective performance.

Since disability is defined in behavioural terms, it seems obvious that disability should be influenced by the same variables that influence other behaviours, including physiological, environmental, social, cognitive and emotional factors. Perceptions of control have been found to determine levels of disability, for example, greater perceived control results in less disability (Johnston, 1997). Although the above definitions seem to comply with this requirement, they do not facilitate the inclusion of people who experience disability discrimination in the protected group. In this study, disability is therefore defined as a consequence of disability discrimination that becomes evident in the form of the presence of an aversive attitude (Ngwena, 2007) of the employer against people with disabilities.

1.11.2 Workplace-effective mobility

Because of the importance of the concept of workplace-effective mobility for this research, and because clarity is required to ensure the understanding of the text, the concept is briefly defined here in the introductory chapter, although it is more comprehensively discussed in Chapter 3.

The concept of workplace-effective mobility has not yet been clearly defined in the literature, but is implied in a myriad of perspectives on job mobility, that is, the personal (Chatterton, 2005), physical (Patla & Shumway-Cook, 1999), economic (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968) and social perspectives (Bouret *et al.*, 2002; Mauro, 1999). In this study, these different perspectives are integrated – workplace-effective mobility is thus defined as the identifiable willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to break socio-physical barriers in order to access job opportunities, make an effective contribution and achieve a sense of independence and good quality of life.

Unlike the incapacity conceptualisation of disability, this definition of workplace-effective mobility necessitates an identification of the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities. Therefore, well-delineated criteria to define a range of work-related competences of employees with disabilities need to be identified. This study focuses on the identification of enabling indicators which will be categorised into well-delineated criteria and a checklist for use by employers in identifying suitably qualified employees with disabilities in workplaces.

1.12 OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: Introduction

The main reason for conducting this study is explained in this chapter: it is to identify and confirm criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities in order to optimise workplace equity. The theoretical framework in which the study is undertaken is explained as the social model, with an emphasis on the emancipatory and advocacy paradigm. The research assumptions, research design, methodology and data collection process are also discussed. A brief explanation is given of important concepts used, namely disability and workplace-effective mobility, for the purposes of the study.

Chapter 2: Employees with disability

The chapter begins with a review of conceptual models of disability, and their implications for the management of disability in the workplace. Also, the method used to locate literature for such review is explained. The chapter presents measures employers could implement to attain workplace equity and culminates with a discussion of the importance of emancipatory research in ensuring a balance between academic needs and those of the participants in order to empower them.

Chapter 3: Workplace-effective mobility

The chapter begins by highlighting the nature and origins of workplace-effective mobility and explains its various dimensions in detail. Previous research on workplace-effective mobility could not be found, but the chapter reviews related studies that pertain to the development of criteria for such mobility and argue for their significance to this study. The chapter ends by advocating the use of well-delineated criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

The research design and methodology used to achieve the objectives of the study are discussed. An in-depth discussion is provided of the choice of the sequential mixed methods design and Grounded Theory method, including details on how the data was collected, analysed and used. The chapter also explains the role of the researcher and moderators, and how the trustworthiness, validity and reliability of the results were ensured.

Chapter 5: Presentation of the results from the qualitative phase, involving the focus group interviews

This chapter contextualises the results in terms of the research sites visited and a profile of the participants. Thereafter, the results from the qualitative phase involving the focus group interviews in the pilot phase and in the main phase are presented by citing some of the participants' responses and highlighting the concepts to which these quotations relate. The chapter culminates in a presentation of tentative criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

Chapter 6: Presentation of the results from the quantitative phase, using the Delphi technique

The chapter presents the results of a two-round Delphi process with industrial and organisational psychologists in order to confirm the proposed criteria for workplace-effective mobility. The chapter also maps the process followed towards consensus-building among members of this panel of experts.

Chapter 7: Discussion of results

In preparation for the compilation of a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, this chapter integrates the findings of both the focus group interviews and the Delphi processes. The final criteria are thus presented and the over-arching concepts that emerged from data are then compared with the existing relevant literature. The chapter ends with a discussion of the contributions made by the data to the existing body of knowledge.

Chapter 8: A theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility

The chapter explains the process followed in compiling a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility. It culminates with the graphic illustration of the proposed theoretical model.

Chapter 9: Reflection and recommendations

This chapter reflects on the study, setting out its implications and wider contributions. The chapter ends with recommendations for the theory, policy and practice in relation to the concept of workplace-effective mobility.

1.13 SUMMARY

The management of disability in the workplace does not at present give enough recognition to the abilities of employees with disabilities. As a result, these employees experience workplace prejudice, which manifests in their under-representation in organisational structures. This is mainly because employers lack well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility. This study is therefore an emancipatory and advocacy study aimed at placing workplace equity on the agenda of human resources practice and policy transformation. The basic assumptions

underlying the use of emancipatory research are explained in this chapter.

The main objective of this study has been explained as identifying and confirming criteria for workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities in order to optimise workplace equity. The chapter also explains the theoretical framework into which the study fits. The research design, methodology and data collection process are also discussed, together with a brief explanation of important concepts used in the study, namely disability and workplace-effective mobility.

The chapter ends with an outline of the chapters. In the next chapter, the implications of the various theoretical models for the management and research of disability are explained.

CHAPTER 2

EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the commonly used conceptual frameworks used in managing disability and explains the various implications of these frameworks for employees with a disability in the workplace. The discussion of conceptual frameworks is imperative to the study, because some of the factors that inhibit the attainment of workplace-effective mobility by employees with disabilities emanate from the application of these frameworks.

As disability introduces ambiguity in both the person experiencing it and the community he or she lives in, it is necessary to understand how coping resources are harnessed by both the person and his or her community. The salutogenesis framework is therefore also presented as a conceptual framework that advocates for the identification of the coping resources available to employees with disabilities in order to improve workplace-effective mobility among this set of employees.

The chapter begins with an explanation of how the literature was located and ends with a discussion of the need for workplace equity and a presentation of various strategies that could be used to ensure such equity.

2.2 LOCATING LITERATURE FOR THE STUDY

As already indicated in Section 1.11, there is a conceptual divide between disability and organisational effectiveness – there seems to be a perception that people with disabilities cannot contribute to organisational effectiveness, which limits their inclusion in paid employment. In order to

develop an understanding of the concept of the workplace-effective mobility of people with disabilities for this study, an integrative review of the literature was required. According to Whitemore and Knafl (2005), an integrative review provides a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon in preparation for the development of a theory.

Given the objectives of this study as defined in Section 1.3, an integrative review of the literature enabled the development of a theoretical model by integrating the concepts of disability and workplace-effective mobility. An integrative review can be used to define the research problem, conduct literature searches and analyse data, as proposed by Whitemore and Knafl (2005). Drawing on Whitemore and Knafl (2005), this section therefore focuses on the process followed to conduct literature searches and analyse the literature to define the research problem so as to avoid bias and ensure scientific rigour.

2.2.1 Conducting literature searches for the study

Computerised databases were used for their efficiency and effectiveness. Google Scholar was used as a search engine to identify relevant literature, focusing mainly on scholarly articles in the portable document format (PDF). In addition, with the assistance of the designated subject librarians, the electronic library databases of the Vaal University of Technology were exhaustively searched. The databases used include Emerald, on the management of employees with disabilities, EBSCOHost for health-related literature, and Science Direct and JSTOR for multi-disciplinary literature on people with disabilities and the workplace.

As will become evident in Section 2.4, people with disabilities and the workplace were reviewed in respect of the field of workforce diversity, the extent to which people with disabilities are included or excluded from the workplaces and the implications of such practices. In order to

contextualise the inclusion of people with disabilities in paid employment or their exclusion from it, relevant legislation that prohibits discrimination and promotes employment equity in South Africa was also reviewed. As proposed by Whitemore and Knafl (2005), the terms were purposively sampled for their inclusion in the literature in the reading of the scholarly articles that were found. Any previous literature that did not focus on workforce diversity and the inclusion of people with disabilities in paid employment was excluded from Chapters 2 and 3 of this study.

Because integrative reviews allow for networking as a strategy for literature searches, an electronic discussion with a disability organisation was conducted. It became evident from the discussion that accessibility needed to be considered as an important variable in the process of employees with disabilities' attaining workplace-effective mobility. In my interactions with my promotor, a need was also identified to consider the impact of the differential treatment of different disability groups by employers. Differential treatment of the various disability groups thus became another search term. When the interview schedule was piloted, a project coordinator suggested the use of terminology such as 'successful gainful employment' and 'career advancement'. These terms were therefore also used to conduct the literature search for the study.

To ensure consistency in the search terminology, the terms used for the literature searches were 'people with disabilities and the workplace', 'emancipatory research and people with disabilities', 'theoretical models of disability and the workplace', 'workplace implications for employing people with disabilities', 'employment equity and people with disabilities', 'people with disabilities and quality of life', 'workplace accessibility and employees with disabilities', 'criteria for workplace-effective mobility', 'successful gainful employment and career advancement of employees with disabilities'.

An integration of this diverse literature to determine its relevance for an understanding of the concept of 'workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities' indicated that the study should be located in the field of workplace equity and emancipatory research, focusing on the need to include people with disabilities in paid employment, using scientifically identified and verified criteria.

2.2.2 Analysing the literature searches

In line with the suggestions by Whitemore and Knafl (2005), the aim of analysing the literature searches was to interpret and synthesise the data obtained from the literature pertaining to the study. In order to achieve this, a constant comparison method, as explained in detail in Section 4.7.1.4(i)(c), was used to reduce the information, to cluster it into meaningful presentation for write-up and to identify patterns that were present as themes. For the purposes of Chapters 2 and 3, the themes that emerged were understanding and managing disability, employees with disabilities and the workplace, the need for workplace equity, the origins, nature and dimensions of workplace-effective mobility, previous research on criteria development and the significance of such research for the study. These themes are presented in the sections below and in the next chapter.

After the relevant literature had been located and the information had been analysed, it was possible for me to state categorically the problem that this study seeks to address, as indicated in Section 1.2.

2.3 UNDERSTANDING AND MANAGING DISABILITY

Disability is better understood and managed when it is defined in the context of a conceptual scheme (Jette, 2003). Verbrugge and Jette (1994) define a conceptual scheme as a basic scientific model that guides the understanding, investigation and management of social

phenomena. This implies that various disability models were developed either to enhance the effectiveness of clinical interventions or to influence social policy and public debate towards social change (Johnston, 1997).

The enhancement of clinical interventions regarding disability depends on an understanding and investigation of disability for the effective management thereof, and subsequent social policy development. The implications of various disability models in managing people with disabilities and informing policy development on the phenomenon are explained below.

2.3.1 The medical model of disability

The medical model regards disability as a deviation from the norm (Ngwena, 2004) that requires professional intervention (Jette, 2006) to restore normality. Disability is thus viewed as a deficiency which is linked to a personal tragedy theory (Oliver, 1986) in its argument that disabled people are unproductive (Shakespeare, 1996). Because it explains disability as an intrinsic pathology (Ngwena, 2007), the medical model fails to address the problem of discrimination that holds back many disabled people (Hays, Hahn & Marshall, 2002). The medical model has been widely used to determine the prevalence of disability (Eide & Loeb, 2005) for the purpose of establishing eligibility for governmental services (Drum *et al.*, 2005).

2.3.2 The functional model of disability

The functional model defines disability as a gap between personal ability to perform an activity and the activity's demand (Kempen *et al.*, 1996). Thus it sees disability as an inability to perform functional activities, regardless of etiology (Drum *et al.*, 2005). As a result of treating disability as a form of inability, society has adopted paternalistic or superficially charitable feelings towards disabled people (Hays *et al.*, 2002) which

manifest in social policy pertaining to the reasonable accommodation and rehabilitation of employees with disabilities.

Reasonable accommodation is defined as any conscious modification or adjustment to a job or the work environment which is aimed at affirming the rights and privileges of qualified employees with disabilities to equal employment and effective performance (Winning, 2002). With regard to rehabilitation, Seelman (2004) has observed a trend towards more justification of the (in)effectiveness of assistive technology before benefit payments are made. Hence, this may be more of a trial-and-error intervention than a guaranteed intervention.

Another measure to enhance the effectiveness of employees with disabilities is the provision of assistive devices. However, assistive devices may isolate people with disabilities from the rest of society, given the prohibitive costs associated with the provision of many of these devices (Sheldon, 2003).

2.3.3 The social model of disability

The social model defines disability as a problem created by unaccommodating attitudes (Jette, 2006) and disabling environments (Pinder, 1996), rather than as an intrinsic pathology. Such attitudes and disabling environments create social inequalities and injustices against disabled people (Hall, 2005) and must therefore be redressed in order to optimize their participation (Swartz & Schneider, 2007) in employment.

Disabling environments and unaccommodating attitudes arise from society's tendency to treat disability as an incapacity or inability to contribute to the economic good of the community (Barnes & Mercer, 1997), due to a perceived lack of competence among disabled employees. This approach to disability, seeing it as a kind of incapacity, has resulted in discrimination against and the oppression of disabled

people (Ngwena, 2004). Discrimination against and oppression of this group in South Africa arise from a lack of universal (or at least national) criteria for determining who is to be classified as a person with disability, a question which the courts have failed to resolve in South Africa (Ngwena, 2007).

Unaccommodating attitudes and disabling environments limit disabled people in performing socially defined activities (Fawcett & Hearn, 2001) by restricting their access to enabling resources such as technologies (Lupton & Seymour, 2000). However, some disabled people have penetrated these disabling environments by acquiring new competencies, such as flexibility, social competence and experience in information technology (Backenroth, 2001).

In order to achieve disability equity, the problems of disabled people must be redefined as sociopolitical problems that require changes to public policy (Hays *et al.*, 2002). Furthermore, the needs of disabled people should be assessed in order to determine which aspects of their lives are best addressed by medical interventions, policy development and political action (Oliver, 1986). Scotch and Schriener (1997) argue that employers who adjust to individual needs should optimise their productivity and may be at a competitive advantage in the future.

The social model suggests that to appreciate the different needs of disabled people, disability should be treated as a civil rights issue (Shakespeare, 1996). The barriers that people with disabilities face when interacting with the environment should therefore be examined (Drum *et al.*, 2005) and systematically addressed in order to attain workplace equity (Scotch & Schriener, 1997). In order to address the barriers confronting disabled people effectively, actions must be directed towards emancipating them from oppressively disabling environments and unaccommodating societal attitudes (Finkelstein, 2001).

In order to ensure the emancipation of people with disabilities from unaccommodating societal attitudes, the role of social control on the self needs to be understood. The impact of social control on the self was studied by Mead (1925), who attempted to trace the genesis of the relation of self and social control. He argued that human conduct is more than just a matter of stimulus and response, and that the task of liberating the self requires people to transcend the barriers of the fixed attitudes of a person's status in which the self is embedded. In this context, therefore, a person with a disability would seek to break the negative attitudes of a society that perceives disability as a kind of incapacity (Barnes & Mercer, 1997) and the resultant social limitations in the performance of people's roles (Fawcett & Hearn, 2001).

Drawing on Mead (1925), however, I contend that the barriers that need to be transcended are not only external, in terms of physical access and facilities, and society (negative perceptions held by able-bodied, resulting in limiting behaviour), but may also be internal (negative self-perception). In fulfilling a liberating task, therefore, one needs to be aware that there is a constant interplay between the internal and external perceptual worlds. In this regard, Ngwena (2007) argues that in order to comprehend disability fully, the intrinsic physical or mental impairment of the individual and how it interacts with societal barriers should be analysed for their impact on the self. Because any self is a social self, it never abandons itself until it finds access into the larger society, and maintains itself there.

Therefore, in this constant battle for access and self-maintenance, employees with disabilities would invoke such coping strategies as self-efficacy, a sense of coherence and a positive self-concept. It is in order to understand the use of these strategies among people with disabilities that the biopsychosocial approach and salutogenesis approach (explained in Section 2.3.5) to disability were developed.

2.3.4 The biopsychosocial model of disability

The biopsychosocial model of disability defines disability as a product of the interplay among biological, personal and social forces. According to Ngwenya (2007), medical and social models of disability need to be combined to enable us to comprehend the phenomenon of disability more fully by looking at the intrinsic physical or mental impairment of the individual.

At a biological level, disability results from biological disruptions (Brown, Bonello & Pollard, 2005). Therefore, from a biological perspective, disability is defined as a gap between a person's capabilities and environmental demands, or a decrement in the person's body functions and structures, level of activity performance and participation in his or her life situation (Jette, 2006). Activity limitations and restrictions in social participation are regarded as universal phenomena that are relevant to everyone, regardless of a person's health condition (Eide & Loeb, 2005). Research indicates that activity limitation is associated with increased dependence on others, which reduces life expectancy and quality of life, and increases the prevalence of depression and health care utilization (Wang, Badley & Gignac, 2004) among disabled people.

At a personal level, disability is attributable to maladaptation to environmental stimuli. Florian and Dangoor (1994:736) define such maladaptation as a continued imbalance between demands and resources. Such maladaptation results in perceived low self-efficacy and perceived helplessness, and fear-avoidance beliefs (Brown *et al.*, 2005) among people with disabilities. Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her personal capabilities (Mihalko & Wickley, 2003) to successfully perform intended behaviours. Therefore, it includes perceived control and a personal sense of mastery (Kempen *et al.*, 1999). Although the environment is multi-faceted, in research so far, the focus has been mainly on self-efficacy (a personal factor) at the expense of the

intervening role of policy, and a person's social and physical environments in the performance of an activity (Mihalko & Wickley, 2003).

Because personal forces may include behavioural intentions, the psychological model is also designed to explain limitations in behaviour due to a lack of self-motivation, which accounts for differences in performance (Johnston, 1997). The concept of coping efficacy is related to a broader concept of self-efficacy. Coping efficacy is defined as a person's appraisal of his or her ability to cope or manage the stressful aspects of a particular life experience (Wang *et al.*, 2004).

As I have already indicated in Section 2.3.2, assistive devices may be necessary to alleviate a capacity gap or functional decrement. The provision of assistive devices may address the underlying disability of a person, in other words, the functional disability experienced in the absence of any modifications or adjustments (Agree, 1999). However, assistive devices do not always completely address a person's functional disability, resulting in residual disability (Agree, 1999). Education and income may also alleviate a capacity gap or functional decrement – sadly, a lack of education and income have been observed to affect the health status of the lower socio-economic status group, as this lack reduces their capacity to acquire health care when it is needed (Raina *et al.*, 2000).

At a social level, disability is aggravated by a lack of support and the break-down of social relations (Brown *et al.*, 2005). It is thus necessary to assist and/or support disabled people to access their environment(s) to minimize the stressful effects of disability. A study on health-seeking behaviour among people with disabilities found that respondents with serious personal or emotional problems sought help more frequently than respondents without work limitations did (Willis, Fabian & Hendershot, 2005). Conversely, strong social support networks and community ties

offer a promise of buffering people with disabilities from stress, helping them to maintain a balance and anchoring them in the daily activities of the community (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999).

When support is provided in response to the notion of disability as a resource deficit (Morgan, Brown & Ziglio, n.d.), it leads to the following negative consequences for the independent living of disabled people (Gignac & Cott, 1998):

- imposed dependency emanating from tendencies by significant others to over-care and over-protect their loved ones with disabilities; and
- learned dependency, which serves as a work disincentive and thus adversely affects the employability of disabled people.

Social support should be provided with due regard for disabled people's need for independence, which includes the management of activities without assistance or relying on assistive devices rather than on other people (Gignac & Cott, 1998). With proper assistance and resources, people with severe disabilities are able to live independently, can secure and maintain employment, and can participate actively in their community (Beatty *et al.*, 1998).

2.3.5 Salutogenesis

Salutogenesis as an approach argues that disability introduces chaos and ambiguity into the social worlds of an individual and the community, but is mediated by a strong sense of coherence (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). Individuals with a strong sense of coherence are characterized by the following:

- because they perceive that the requisite resources are available, they demonstrate an ability to manage life stressors successfully;

- they possess the motivation and desire to cope meaningfully with environmental stimuli, based on a belief that life makes sense emotionally; and
- they perceive life's challenges as comprehensible, in other words, as clear, ordered and structured.

The concept of a sense of coherence is thus a useful indicator when assessing the capacity of vulnerable populations (Wolff & Ratner, 1999), for example, people with disabilities, to deal with their environments. In their study on the psychological adaptation of women with severe physical disabilities, Florian and Dangoor (1994) found that a high sense of individual coherence serves as a protective factor against externally imposed negative views by reducing the psychological distress of people with disabilities and increasing their psychological well-being.

Therefore, salutogenesis focuses on elements of subjective (psychological) well-being or the quality of life of people with disabilities from emotional and cognitive-judgmental perspectives, given their capacity to access the environment (Richards *et al.*, 1999) and manage their environments. Subjective quality of life refers to a person's satisfaction with various domains of life quality, such as health, or social and physical function (Manns & Chad, 1999), to the extent that his or her hopes are matched by his or her experience. Experience defines life and shapes self-esteem; hopes determine a person's ability to perform various activities after the disability recovery process (Stineman *et al.*, 2003).

Negative experiences of rejection lead to low self-esteem and a negative outlook on the world; positive experiences result in high self-esteem and a positive outlook on the world (Mrug & Wallander, 2002). Self-esteem is associated with a person's self-concept, which is a multidimensional concept, comprised of cognitive competence, physical competence, social acceptance and general self-worth. A positive self-concept is associated with emotional stability, positive adjustment, independence

and resiliency to stress, whereas a negative self-concept is associated with anger and depression (Weiss *et al.*, 2003).

Quality of life or subjective well-being is thus an emotional and cognitive-judgmental issue resulting from the capacity of people with disabilities to access and manage their environments. Respondents who report a high quality of life acknowledge their impairment and express a 'can do' approach to life; they demonstrate spirituality, inner strength, resilience and a sense of achievement. Conversely, poor quality of life is associated with experiences of pain, fatigue, lost control and a negative sense of purpose in life (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999).

It should be noted that physical difference does not necessarily result in inferior quality of life. According to Koch (2000), contrary to the widespread belief that physical difference results in inferior quality of life, the quality of life of deaf people, for example, is not necessarily lessened. They simply require a different means of communication to audible speech and hearing (Koch, 2000). There is thus some indication in the literature that some persons with disabilities do experience good quality life against the odds (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). Many notions about poor quality of life are biased and stigmatizing, rendering people with disabilities underprivileged. The quest for good quality of life therefore seeks to achieve a balance between body, mind and spirit. It is thus vital to address disability in terms of positive adaptation and resilience to stress rather than in terms of pathogenesis (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999).

People with a high quality of life feel socially supported but independent. They demonstrate competence and self-determination when dealing with their environments (Sideridis, 2006). Competence or mastery is developed by acquiring new knowledge and skills (Barron *et al.*, 2006). The ability to acquire competence represents an asset model, which emphasises positive ability, resilience or the ability to progress against adversity with less reliance on professional services (Morgan *et al.*, n.d.).

Resilience is associated with problem-solving skills, social competence, a sense of purpose and autonomy (Morgan *et al.*, n.d.).

2.4 EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES AND THE WORKPLACE

The inclusion of people with disabilities in paid employment depends on the availability of job opportunities. Because job opportunities are scarce during an economic recession, only some people with disability are prosperous, while others pay the price of economic transformation (Yelin & Katz, 1994) because of unfair discrimination, social neglect and stigmatization (Ngwena, 2004). Moreover, the playing field is not level, because the disability status of individuals often evokes different levels of discomfort and behavioural expectations (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997) among colleagues. Very few people with disabilities are therefore gainfully employed (Ngwena, 2004).

The concepts of unfair discrimination, social neglect and stigmatization are closely related because of the negative influence thereof on the employment of people with disabilities. For the purposes of this study, however, these concepts are discussed separately, because each one may contribute independently to the identification of criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

2.4.1 Unfair discrimination

An employer's decision to appoint a person or not to do so represents an administrative procedure which implicitly discriminates between candidates with potential and those without potential. If the process is based on well-delineated criteria and uniform procedures, it would be fair discrimination. Otherwise, it is unfair when such a decision is based purely on an employer's whim. Unfair discrimination in employment therefore takes the form of an unwarranted refusal to appoint certain applicants, or job terminations in response to reductions in the demand

for labour or refusals to rehire workers after they have become disabled (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001). Unfair discrimination can sometimes be attributed to employers' continued use of medically defined criteria only, in the absence of other well-delineated criteria.

The continual assessment of disability using subjective criteria of pain or difficulty to perform specific activities is associated with the treatment of disability as a kind of incapacity (Kopec, 1995). The perception of disability as a type of incapacity is compounded by employers' developing and implementing policies based on presumed competence (Philo & Metzel, 2005), leading to the exclusion of people with disabilities from employment. Unfair discrimination also results in inappropriate appointments or a failure to appoint competent and well-motivated staff, thereby impoverishing organisations (Ross, 2004) by a loss of competence.

There is some evidence that a failure to employ people with disabilities is often compounded by race and gender issues. In the American context, Emmett and Alant (2006) found that the majority of African-Americans and women with disabilities are excluded from paid employment. Similarly, in South Africa, African and Coloured people with disabilities have experienced the same challenges, arising from the apartheid past, which segregated education on the basis of race. With regard to women with disabilities, Emmett (2006) argues that, internationally, disabled women have to face the challenge that they are less likely to be employed than disabled men, and they also likely to earn a lower salary. Women with disabilities are thus at a double disadvantage situation (Emmett & Alant, 2006). The extent of disadvantagedness among South African women with disabilities is reflected in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Percentage of the total population of people with disabilities employed by race and gender

Race group	Male	Female	% Employed	
			Male	Female
African	879 680	974 696	1.7	0.8
Coloured	88 583	80 095	2.6	2.0
Indian/Asian	21 550	19 685	7.7	3.7
White	92 230	99 463	7.3	3.8

Source: Adapted from Statistics South Africa (2005:12)

Table 2.1 indicates that the situation of gender disadvantagedness differs by race, with a higher percentage of employed women with disabilities coming from the Indian/Asian and White communities in South Africa.

Table 2.2, below, presents the distribution of employees with disabilities by gender and race in South Africa, as adapted from a document from the Commission of Employment Equity (2010). It is evident from Table 2.2 that Whites with disabilities predominate at levels higher than the skilled level, while the majority of Africans and females with disabilities are mainly represented at the skilled occupational level and lower levels.

Table 2.2: Composition of employees with disabilities by gender and race

Occupational levels	Male				Female				Foreign national		Total
	A	C	I	W	A	C	I	W	M	F	
Top management	25	4	12	168	12	2	4	32	1	0	260
%	9.6	1.5	4.6	64.6	4.6	0.8	1.5	12.3	0.4	0.0	100
Senior management	93	24	57	346	62	12	10	89	10	1	704
%	13.2	3.4	8.1	49.1	8.8	1.7	1.4	12.6	1.4	0.1	100
Professionally qualified, experienced specialists, mid-management	565	128	168	1912	414	80	53	562	19	8	3 909
%	14.5	3.3	4.3	48.9	10.6	2.0	1.4	14.4	0.5	0.2	100
Skilled technical and academically qualified workers, junior management	2235	626	606	2554	1185	344	246	1396	90	18	9 300
%	24.0	6.7	6.5	27.5	12.7	3.7	2.6	15	1.0	0.2	100

Occupational levels	Male				Female				Foreign national		Total
	A	C	I	W	A	C	I	W	M	F	
Semi-skilled and discretionary decision-making	6144	1051	648	1415	3455	902	346	1505	172	10	15 648
%	39.3	6.7	4.1	9.0	22.1	5.8	2.2	9.6	1.1	0.1	100
Unskilled and defined decision-making	4936	388	149	217	2092	222	60	177	714	5	8 960
%	55.1	4.3	1.7	2.4	23.3	2.5	0.7	2.0	8.0	0.1	100
Total permanent	13 998	2 221	1 640	6 612	7 220	1 562	719	3761	1 006	42	38 781
%	36.1	5.7	4.2	17.0	18.6	4.0	1.9	9.7	2.6	0.1	100
Temporary employees	731	97	19	79	971	86	5	53	6	2	2 049
%	35.7	4.7	0.9	3.9	47.4	4.2	0.2	2.6	0.3	0.1	100
Grand Total	14 729	2 318	1 659	6 691	8 191	1 648	724	3 814	112	44	40 830

Source: Adapted from Commission for Employment Equity (2010:18)

In summary, the exclusion of people with disabilities from paid employment is associated with their race and gender profile, with the majority of Africans and females being the most disadvantaged people with disability in South Africa.

As a result of unfair discrimination, people with disabilities may either underestimate their capacities and engage in work avoidance behaviour or inflate their levels of personal efficacy to undertake activities beyond their reach (Kopec, 1995), so as to prove their performance capacities. People with disabilities are often placed in entry-level, unskilled and low-earning positions with limited advancement opportunities, negative performance evaluations and differential rates of discharge (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997). Because of managers' unfounded negative expectations of people with disabilities (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997), these employees may be relegated to an underprivileged status (Meyerson, 1988), even though they may display demonstrable levels of productivity (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001).

Many employers lack programmes to mitigate the effects of disability and/or to enhance the potential of a person with a disability to achieve high levels of performance (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997) and growth in the organisation. Consequently, employees with disabilities often feel that

they have to work hard to demonstrate a level of accomplishment equal to that of their peers, but have a lower probability of getting similar rewards in return (Feldman, 2004).

2.4.2 Social neglect

The social neglect of people with disabilities is associated with negative societal attitudes or stereotypes, an inaccessible built environment and transport systems and a lack of access to education (Ngwena, 2004). In terms of these indicators of social neglect, people with psychological problems or disabilities are the most neglected in society. According to Klimoski and Donahue (1997), organisations tend to be more open to people with physical or sensory disabilities than those with psychological problems. Kennedy and Olney (2001) attribute the social neglect of individuals with mental disabilities to decisions that employers make on the basis of disability stereotypes, rather than on the basis of individuals' actual abilities.

Stereotypes regarding disability represent unfair or inaccurate employer expectations of performance which are imposed on disabled employees (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997). Despite legislative attempts to include disabled people in the mainstream of economic and social life, the biggest obstacle continues to be such stereotypes. Stereotypes or negative attitudes about disability are attributable to cultural perceptions of impairment, which are shaped by deep-rooted fears of the abnormal and the unknown, and the material organisation of disabled people's oppression in the economy (Barnes & Mercer, 1997).

People with disabilities therefore often feel that they are not accepted by their peers, because of stereotypes, which are often at the core of the negative attitudes people hold towards disabled individuals (Ziegler, 2001). Stereotypes may manifest in the dismissal of disabled employees for poor performance or incapacity, or in their resigning unnecessarily

(Republic of South Africa, 1998). To alleviate the exclusionary power of stereotypes, employers should set reasonable criteria for recruiting and selecting people with disabilities (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

The physical work environment is constructed on an implicit assumption that everyone conforms to a certain biological norm (Ngwena, 2007). However, the physical work environment is often inaccessible to employees with disabilities. Therefore, Lupton and Seymour (2000) suggest that technology is a tangible way of facilitating the entry and participation by people with disabilities into previously inaccessible activities and domains. However, these authors warn that technology may be presented as a correction to or normalization of impairment, which may be offensive to people with a disability (Lupton & Seymour, 2000).

Social neglect, coupled with inaccessible transport infrastructure, creates serious barriers for people with a disability, despite the potential of the transport system to fight poverty by enhancing access to education, employment and social services (Kenyon, Lyons & Rafferty, 2002; Ngwena, 2004).

As a result of all the factors discussed above, disability status is regarded as a major impediment to the attainment of equal opportunities by people with disabilities (Ngwena, 2004). Many people with disabilities are disadvantaged in the labour market by inadequate systems of social support (Scotch & Schriener, 1997) or by social neglect.

2.4.3 Stigmatization

The under-representation of employees with disabilities in the workforce is also attributable to stigma, which is regarded as a critical barrier to their employment (Scheid, 2005) for several reasons (Puhl & Brownell, 2001). Firstly, stigma inhibits the attainment of a sense of

accomplishment by people with disabilities in an achievement-oriented society (Scheid, 2005) and erodes their self-concept (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997).

Secondly, stigma leads employees with disabilities to internalize negative workplace attitudes and expect rejection from others. Stigma thus presents a subjective constraint that presumes the intolerance of others, and lowers both the person's self-esteem and self-efficacy through negative feedback (Feldman, 2004). Moreover, these experiences increase feelings of self-depreciation that in turn weaken a sense of mastery (Wright, Gronfein & Owens, 2000) and result in frustration and stress (Ross, 2004) among people with disabilities.

Thirdly, stigma leads to reduced earnings and prolonged unemployment, which demoralizes people with disabilities due to their everyday experiences of intimidation in public spaces (Hall, 2005). The lower earnings capacity of people with disabilities is confirmed by Baldwin and Johnson's (2001) study, which found that employees with disabilities earn less than those without disabilities. Also, stigma results in indignity and social inferiority (Ngwena, 2004) among people with disabilities. Because of stigma, many people have avoided declaring their disabilities (Venter *et al.*, 2002) to minimize the resultant spoiled identity evident in negative employment outcomes (Wright *et al.*, 2000).

Unfair discrimination, social neglect and stigmatization result in negative employment outcomes such as slow progress towards achieving employment equity, growing dependence on disability grants, inequalities and poverty, and over-protective families. These outcomes are explained below.

2.4.4 Slow progress towards achieving employment equity

By 2004, only 1% employment equity for employees with disabilities had been achieved in South Africa, instead of the target of 2% (Dube & Charowa, 2005). This figure dropped to 0.7% in the reporting period from October 2008 to September 2009 (Commission for Employment Equity, 2009). This situation is, sadly, not unique to South Africa – the employment rate among persons with disabilities is the lowest among any group in the United States (Kennedy & Olney, 2001).

Work avoidance behaviour has led to under-representation of employees with disabilities in the workforce and their overrepresentation among the poor and unemployed (Ngwena, 2004). The low employment rates of disabled people are attributed to attitudinal, behavioural and physical barriers created by corporate culture. According to Schur, Kruse and Blanck (2005), corporate culture is organised into the following three levels within an organisation:

- the values and norms that guide the organisation when it encounters new situations and problems;
- the fundamental level, which represents the values espoused by an organisation, including its strategies and goals, and the philosophies that guide organisational policies; and
- artefacts of (organisational) culture, which include the physical and social environment, such as the dress code in a company.

At each of these levels of corporate culture, organisations determine rules for inclusion in the organisation by designing power structures and developing a reward and punishment system to deal with compliance and deviance (Schur *et al.*, 2005).

The slow achievement of employment equity for South African employees with disabilities is compounded by the general scarcity of decent jobs and a high unemployment rate (Swartz & Schneider, 2007),

and by their lack of experience and skills, inaccessible work environments and the disincentives arising from benefit entitlement (Swartz & Schneider, 2007), as discussed below.

2.4.5 Disincentive of disability grants and resultant growing dependence

In South Africa, most people with disabilities benefit from disability grants (Dube & Charowa, 2005), but these grants marginalize them. Disability grants and insurance programmes can serve as work disincentives (Scotch & Schriener, 1997) when suitably qualified people with disabilities choose not to be employed in order to access disability grants (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001). This situation can be attributed to the fact that disability grants are seen as a benevolent income support (Ngwena, 2007) by some people with disabilities.

The negative implications of disability grants are the stigmatization (Ngwena, 2004) of people with disabilities. The payment of these grants increases the burden on the fiscus. With regard to the fiscus, Swartz and Schneider (2007) have observed that paying a disability income to people with disabilities in South Africa has cumulatively led to an increase in the costs of disability grants by 53% in the period from 1997 to 2007.

2.4.6 Inequality and poverty

Because it is associated with social exclusion, marginalization, vulnerability, powerlessness, isolation and deprivation, disability increases the chances that a person with a disability will live in extreme poverty by approximately 10% (Dube & Charowa, 2005). There are several reasons for this situation. Firstly, the high unemployment rate results in a high poverty rate among people with disabilities (Kennedy & Olney, 2001). Secondly, the vast social inequalities in South Africa make the progressive provisioning of disability impossible (Swartz & Schneider,

2007). A historically stigmatized and socially oppressed group, most people with disabilities in South Africa live in conditions of extreme poverty and inequality (Ngwena, 2007). Disability is thus both a cause and consequence of poverty, which among people with disabilities is compounded by a lack of access to education, health care and employment opportunities (Venter *et al.*, 2002).

Many people with disabilities are disadvantaged in the labour market by inadequate education (Scotch & Schriener, 1997). A high quality, adequately resourced, mainstreamed education creates a barrier-free society (Swartz & Schneider, 2007) and promotes the well-being of people with disabilities by increasing access to paid employment and economic resources (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). However, the attainment of a barrier-free society in South Africa is impossible because of an inadequate schooling system (Swartz & Schneider, 2007). The schooling system in the country for many learners is characterized by inadequate facilities, inadequately qualified teachers and large classes that inhibit optimal learning opportunities for many learners, and particularly for disabled learners.

The limited learning opportunities for disabled people result in their being perceived as inadequately skilled for the labour market, which invariably reinforces an erroneous view that all are unable to participate fully in employment (Swartz & Schneider, 2007). The United States resolved this problem by an inclusive education system, which firstly supports acceptance and respect for human differences and secondly ensures the empowerment of disabled people by giving them back power and authority (Ziegler, 2001).

Finally, the socialization of people with disabilities to think of themselves as inferior and to think of disability in a medical way has also exacerbated the problem of social inequalities based on disability by

separating people with disabilities from one another and from sources of collective support and strength (Shakespeare, 1996).

2.4.7 Over-protective families

Although people with disabilities may have talent and potential, which if applied optimally can improve their lives, many families and communities tend to hide people with disabilities away from society to avoid family and social disgrace (Dube & Charowa, 2005) linked to stigmatization. Alternatively, parents may consciously or unconsciously discourage their children with disabilities from taking risks or may over-protect them from perceived inevitable failures (Feldman, 2004).

2.5 NEED FOR WORKPLACE EQUITY

Several initiatives may be implemented to enhance workplace equity, especially for employees with disabilities. These initiatives are explained below.

2.5.1 Progressive corporate culture

In order to mitigate the negative consequences of managing workplace disability, Klimoski and Donahue (1997) advocate a progressive corporate culture that reflects acceptance and inclusiveness, tolerance and cooperation, mutual respect and support for employees with disabilities. Such a culture is characterized by the establishment of disability advisory panels composed of people with disabilities to shape policy and practices.

Also, employers may need to recruit employees with disabilities through the current employees, reassign and (re)train them after the onset of a disability and institutionalize performance management systems (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997).

2.5.2 Welfare-to-work strategies

The reassignment and training of people with disabilities can take the form of welfare-to-work strategies in order to accelerate workplace equity. Welfare-to-work strategies have thus been crafted to focus on raising the levels of education and vocational skills for people with disabilities, providing support and advice in locating and obtaining work, and overcoming financial concerns about the benefits-to-work transition.

However, welfare-to-work strategies are still in their infancy and thus have not yet shown positive results in addressing the lower employment rates among people with disabilities and the rising costs of disability grants (Bambra, Whitehead & Hamilton, 2005). Notwithstanding these limitations, the importance of welfare-to-work strategies derives from the following roles that employment plays in the lives of people with disabilities:

- employment is a key to economic security for persons with disabilities (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001);
- employment helps incorporate people with disabilities fully into mainstream society by increasing their social networks, care skills, independence and sense of efficacy and inclusion because they feel they are fulfilling a valued social role (Schur *et al.*, 2005); and
- employment is important to the self-esteem and quality of life of people with disabilities because it enables them to acquire adaptive skills, develop new skills and enhance existing skills (Stephens *et al.*, 2003). Improving adaptive abilities may lead to increased feelings of competence and consequently a positive self-concept (Weiss *et al.*, 2003) in people with disabilities.

2.5.3 Sensitisation programmes

Sensitisation programmes are also important features of a progressive corporate culture aimed at addressing disability discrimination and

ensuring the retention of employees with disabilities (Kennedy & Olney, 2001). Groce (1999) therefore recommends the education of the non-disabled majority, and the establishment and enforcement of legal guarantees.

Education of the non-disabled majority and legal guarantees have the advantages of minimizing insensitivity towards people with disabilities (Puhl & Brownell, 2001) and ensuring workplace equity, which is enhanced by the ability of sensitisation programmes to tear down stereotypes and prejudice, thereby improving the quality of treatment received by people with disabilities (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997).

2.5.4 Sign language appreciation

In order to assert their rights in society, deaf people encourage the growth of sign language as a means of communication and argue in favour of special schools for the deaf as strongholds of deaf culture (Barnes & Mercer, 1997).

2.5.5 Emancipatory research and strategies

Emancipatory research and related strategies are necessary to address the oppressive social practices of acute unfair discrimination, social neglect and stigmatization levelled against disabled people (Duckett & Pratt, 2001). Because people with disabilities have been relegated to a social subordinate status by a dominant group, strategies for the attainment of social justice are also needed to respond to the resultant structural inequalities (Ngwena, 2007) in society.

Such strategies should ensure that disability studies continue to focus on issues that are important to disabled people and not only on issues that are intellectually challenging or academically rewarding for disability scholars themselves. Therefore, emancipatory research emphasises

these strategies (Oliver & Barton, 2000) by advocating that researchers do not only research emancipation, while preaching discrimination (Oliver & Barnes, 1997). For instance, biomedical knowledge is derived by treating disabled people as passive objects of medical inquiry (Bahrs *et al.*, 2003). To attain the emancipatory goal, therefore, the research process must be collaborative and should be negotiated between the researcher and the researched (Fawcett & Hearn, 2001).

Therefore, an empowering, emancipatory research agenda is lauded for changing research methods (Duckett & Pratt, 2001) by rejecting claims of researcher objectivity and neutrality in favour of a collaborative production of socially and culturally relative knowledge (Barnes & Mercer, 1997). Emancipatory research is thus located in the social model of disability, guided by principles of reciprocity, gain and empowerment (Barnes & Mercer, 1997).

Reciprocity requires researchers to place their skills and knowledge at the disposal of those who are researched (Barnes & Mercer, 1997) and provides an opportunity for participants to comment on and change working drafts (Oliver, 1997). Unless the relationship between the researcher and the researched is reciprocal, research data can be used to manipulate, abuse and control those who are researched. Therefore, reciprocity implies engaging participants in the research planning and design to ensure that they assume control of the naming of their own world – this is a process that takes time, and requires the building of trust and negotiations (Lynch, 1999).

The inclusion of people with disabilities increases the relevance and enhances competence in the research process. It also facilitates an exchange of information and enhances the quality of the data (Eide & Loeb, 2005). The involvement of people with disabilities is also intended to change the social and material relations of research production. Such involvement takes various forms, such as the involvement of local

organisations of disabled people as paid consultants to the project, or canvassing comments on research plans (Zarb, 1997).

Gains from the research process are realized when researchers are critical of their role(s) in the research process (Barnes & Mercer, 1997) and work collaboratively with the participants or subjects to implement the necessary change (Lynch, 1999). Because non-disabled researchers are perceived to lack personal experience of the various disabling barriers, the authenticity of such researchers in disability research is often criticised (Barnes & Mercer, 1997). Therefore, reflexivity or a self-critical stance and research feedback provided by non-disabled researchers to participants ensure that the research practice is appropriate in the context of the often oppressive social and material relations of research production (Oliver, 1997).

Empowerment is evident in research processes that contribute towards empowering disabled people (Oliver, 1997) by confronting social oppression at whatever levels it occurs and placing control back in the hands of those who are researched (Oliver, 1997). Because previous research has failed to improve the conditions under which disabled people live – disabled people have been alienated from the process and product of social research (Oliver, 2002) – to acknowledge their struggles and to recognize that disability is a political act. Therefore, any knowledge that is generated should provide power to disabled people themselves (Barnes, 2001).

2.6 SUMMARY

The chapter explained how literature was located for this study and reviewed four theoretical frameworks of disability. On the basis of the review of the four theoretical frameworks of disability, I concluded that the treatment of disability as incapacity encourages disability discrimination in the workplace. Various manifestations of disability

discrimination and their implications for managing disability as incapacity or ill health have also been discussed.

A need was identified for the removal of these barriers in order to ensure workplace equity, and various strategies to achieve this were presented. An argument was also presented for the use of emancipatory research as a strategy to ensure the empowerment of employees with disabilities by highlighting discrimination and oppression as barriers to their employability.

The next chapter explores various dimensions of workplace-effective mobility and argues for the development of suitable criteria to assist in the attainment of disability equity in the workplace.

CHAPTER 3

WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Despite the various challenges facing employees with disabilities in the workplace explained in Section 2.4, some of them usually yearn to attain workplace-effective mobility to become prosperous and competitive, while the majority remain impoverished (Yelin & Katz, 1994).

The chapter therefore discusses the origin of the concept of workplace-effective mobility and identifies various dimensions thereof. The dimensionalisation of the concept is an important step towards fulfilling the task of identifying criteria for workplace-effective mobility in order to enhance workplace equity. The chapter reviews significant previous studies and their role in determining a relevant process for identifying criteria for workplace-effective mobility in this study.

Finally, the chapter explains the rationale for identifying well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility. Central to the identification of criteria for workplace-effective mobility is the critical role of the value judgments of experts.

3.2 ORIGINS AND NATURE OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

In Section 1.11.2, I indicated that the concept of workplace-effective mobility is not used in literature and could thus not be linked effectively with other literature bases. I coined the term specifically for the study by integrating several concepts that describe the construct. These concepts are workplace mobility, job/occupational mobility and career mobility. The impact of personal, physical, economic and social factors in enabling or

inhibiting employee mobility in general is inherent to all these concepts. Workplace-effective mobility is about these concepts used in concert and not individually, taking into account enabling and/or inhibiting factors.

In order to appreciate the position of workplace-effective mobility in the literature and the use of the term in this study, the concepts of workplace mobility, job/occupational mobility and career mobility are explained in this section. Drawing on Van Ham (2002), I contend that the initial use of the term workplace mobility occurred in discourse relating to unemployment, and aimed at reducing occupational and spatial mismatches and social security costs. A spatial mismatch can result from the competing demands of a person's workplace and residential location (Van Ham, 2002). An occupational mismatch results when an individual's skills and qualifications do not match the job opportunities available to the person (Chapple, 2006).

The inability of job seekers to harmonise the competing demands of their workplace and residential location and to meet occupational requirements can result in unemployment or underemployment, or even in difficulty in maintaining productivity levels in people's current jobs (Van Ham, 2002). These job outcomes are more prevalent in a slow-growing or stagnant economy (Moscarini & Thomsson, 2007). Therefore, to avoid any of these job outcomes, employees should attain workplace mobility, which is a term that Van Ham (2002) uses to describe processes that job seekers undergo to reduce occupational and spatial mismatches in order to achieve occupational success. In order to achieve a spatial match, job seekers either migrate closer to workplaces or commute, thereby harmonising the competing demands of workplace and residential locations (Van Ham, 2002). The need for a spatial match may therefore force job seekers to widen their job search and ultimately to accept jobs at a greater distance from their places of residence (Van Ham, 2002). The decision to migrate or commute, however, is based on cost considerations regarding housing or travel (Hofmeister, 2006).

Several challenges which may create a drag on the economy have, however, been identified with regard to job seekers ability to attain spatial and occupational matches (Chapple, 2006). The first challenge relates to the extent of discrimination between the haves and have nots in society. According to Chapple (2006), where people's residences are segregated from their workplaces, it is costly for minority groups to expand their job searches either through migration or through commuting, and thus they experience poor job outcomes (underemployment or unemployment).

Furthermore, job seekers from low income groups and minorities tend to find it difficult to attain spatial and occupational matches because of racial and ethnic discrimination (Chapple, 2006). Such discrimination is exacerbated by the fact that minorities are usually underrepresented in workplaces, leaving them with limited social networks to combat the adverse effects of discrimination on job access (Chapple, 2006). The job outcomes of under- or unemployment also have an effect on the ability of job seekers to develop self-motivation and healthy lifestyles, and to acquire job-related knowledge and skills.

In order to achieve an occupational match, job seekers need to acquire skills and educational qualifications to qualify for available job opportunities (Hofmeister, 2006). Therefore, job seekers that do not develop these personal attributes remain in a vicious cycle of under- or unemployment, particularly in periods with a high unemployment rate (Van Ham, 2002).

The discussion on workplace mobility in the context of spatial and occupational mobility has thus focused on a discourse of accessibility. An improvement in this discourse related to employee transitions from one job to another or from one employer to another. As in the case of accessibility (job opportunities must be available), viable careers must also be available, thus creating a perceived certainty of finding another job (Moscarini & Thomsson, 2007). In order to ensure career viability, job

seekers have demonstrated a willingness to acquire skills by undertaking horizontal or vertical moves (job mobility) or to improve their qualifications to access suitable job opportunities (Van Ham, 2002). In this context, workplace mobility is associated with job mobility and may include voluntary terminations, layoffs and total separations, as well as individual career choices (Neal, 1999).

Job mobility has also been defined as a change of establishment which manifests in a change of an employee's identification number in the employing organisation or a movement from employment in one organisation to employment in another, or even a movement within groups of organisations (Nas *et al.*, 1998). Because of the implications of job mobility on organisational commitment, other discourses focused on the effects of organisational commitment on workplace mobility. Studies on organisational commitment look at the availability of preferred jobs (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968) and job opportunities (Davia, 2005) to determine employees' commitment to an organisation.

Subsequent to Moscarini and Thomsson's (2007) assertion that job mobility depends on viable careers, a debate began on workplace mobility as career mobility. In this discourse, career mobility is defined as the perceived capacity to make career transitions across organisational boundaries (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Career mobility comprises physical elements (a crossing of boundaries) and psychological elements (achieving perceived capacity). According to Sullivan and Arthur (2006), the perceived capacity to make such transitions depends on a person's motivation and identity (knowing-why), skills and expertise (knowing-how), relationships and reputation (knowing-whom). These factors were noted as personal attributes earlier in this section.

Given these trends in the discourses on workplace mobility, I coined the concept of workplace-effective mobility to reflect and integrate the various effects of accessibility, job mobility, commitment, perceived

capacity on finding work, making an effective contribution and enjoying an economically active lifestyle. Previous research acknowledges the importance of job access, the availability of opportunities and demographic differences in attaining workplace mobility through the acquisition of skills and qualifications. However, such research was either rather general and did not focus on employees with disabilities, or investigated employees with disabilities within the discourse of accessibility.

The focus of previous research relating to employees with disabilities has been on accessibility, and the role of personal, social, economic and physical factors on accessibility (see Section 3.3). Regrettably, these factors do not seem to have been fully integrated into the construct that I call workplace-effective mobility and there is a dearth of information in this regard. Because of this lack of information on workplace-effective mobility, the concept was created for purposes of this study by integrating the various factors identified for workplace mobility as defined in Section 1.11.2. Therefore, it was not possible either to locate this concept within the international literature or to contrast it with other concepts such as work or job readiness, as the construct covers more than the discussion on these concepts could offer to the current study. For instance, job or work readiness research has focused only on the effectiveness of either rehabilitation or the return-to-work programmes offered to people with disabilities; for example, a study by Li *et al.* (2006).

Drawing on the work of Simpson (1990), in this study workplace-effective mobility is described as a fundamental concept associated with the notion of workplace equity; hence, an investigation into the concept can provide further insight into the extent and causes of workplace immobility. The causes of workplace immobility confronting employees with disabilities, as discussed in Section 2.4, necessitate the identification of well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility to regulate these individuals' access to job opportunities equitably, and to

ensure their satisfactory integration in suitable workplaces. The task of identifying criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities therefore begins with a dimensionalisation of the concept, which is explained in the sections below. It is a concept that previous studies have not sufficiently articulated.

3.3 DIMENSIONS OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

The various perspectives on job or career mobility have personal, physical, economic and social implications. The concept of workplace-effective mobility is dimensionalised according to these personal, physical, economic and social perspectives. The dimensionalisation of the concept in this way assists the clarification of indicators, which are subsequently developed into criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

The sections below therefore explain the various dimensions of the concept of workplace-effective mobility and clarify its indicators. It will become evident that workplace-effective mobility depends on some personal capacity, access to the physical environment and social support, and that it may lead to improved quality of life.

3.3.1 Personal dimension

The personal dimension relates to elements of the personal capacity of employees with disabilities that enable them to attain workplace-effective mobility. According to Sullivan and Arthur's (2006) argument on career mobility, the personal dimension is comprised of motivation and identity, skills and expertise, and relationships. These elements are therefore explained in this section.

3.3.1.1 Motivation and identity

Motivation is an important element of a person's sense of coherence. As the sense of coherence has already been explained in Section 2.3.5, it suffices to indicate that people with a strong sense of coherence are motivated to and want to cope with environmental stimuli (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999), which in this context, are the work assignments that employees with disabilities need to perform. Therefore, employees with disabilities need to demonstrate a willingness or self-motivation (Ingledew *et al.*, 2004) to perform work-related tasks (Chatterton, 2005) in order to achieve workplace-effective mobility.

The explanation of self-esteem and a self-concept in Section 2.3.5 relates to identity, which derives from the quality of individual experiences. A positive self-concept or identity is associated with resilience (Weiss *et al.*, 2003) or a sense of purpose and autonomy (Morgan *et al.*, n.d.). Minority groups that have collectively experienced tokenism tend to build a strong group identity, thereby resisting token appointments in favour of a collective identity (Blair & Jost, 2003).

Other identity aspects of workplace-effective mobility emanate from the gender roles, age and identity status and health conditions of employees with disabilities.

One study found that employees with disabilities who have limited or no family responsibilities achieve greater mobility than those with family responsibilities (Clark, Stump & Wollinsky, 1998), because they are able to maintain their focus on their job responsibilities. Similarly, young, divorced and separated employees with disabilities have been shown to achieve greater mobility than their older and married counterparts (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001; Gesthuizen & Dagevos, 2005).

Employees with disabilities who have the capacity to handle their workloads, despite the severity of their disability and bodily or structural limitations also tend to achieve greater mobility. Obesity and frequent pain (Koster *et al.*, 2005) may reduce the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

Self-motivation and the ability of employees with disabilities to resolve identity-related issues are very important personal dimensions in their attaining workplace-effective mobility.

3.3.1.2 Skills and expertise

Skills and expertise or know-how relate to competence (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006), which is developed by acquiring the new knowledge (Barron *et al.*, 2006) needed to deal with one's environment (Sideridis, 2006). Continual enhancement of competence is important for success in a knowledge economy, because employers tend to reduce the number of low-skilled employees (Muffels & Luijkx, 2004) in favour of highly skilled employees during an economic recession. Therefore, the development of competence enhances a person's marketable skills and contributes to the likelihood of a job-related move (Schaeffer, 1985).

Because the development of competence depends on schooling and appropriate on-the-job training (Simpson, 1990), good quality education is very important, as I indicated in Section 2.4.6. A good quality education (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968) is thus an essential anchor for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. However, as I have explained in Section 2.4.6, the South African school system is not yet conducive to people with disabilities' development of the competence they need; and, as a result, they are often excluded from employment (Swartz & Schneider, 2007). Appropriate on-the-job training provides work-related experience, but can only benefit those already employed, and is therefore inhibited by the arbitrary exclusion of people

with disabilities by employers and workplace prejudices. According to Meerman (2001), arbitrary exclusions and prejudice limit opportunities for employees with disabilities to acquire skills and experience, thereby preventing them from entering the occupations that could provide them with the highest possible earnings.

It follows that increased access to good quality education and appropriate on-the-job training is a pre-condition for the acquisition of valuable skills, the knowledge and work habits required in the labour market (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968; Meerman, 2001). A good quality education, particularly a tertiary education, has a significant positive effect on overall economic mobility (Hertz, 2006) in general, and on that of employees with disabilities in particular. However, apart from access to and the availability of good quality education, the acquisition of competence through schooling also depends on an individual's ability and desire to learn (Cogneau, 2005).

The concept of self-efficacy, as explained in Section 2.3.4, is also associated with competence. Self-efficacy relates to a belief that one can successfully perform intended behaviours resulting in perceived control and mastery (Kempen *et al.*, 1999). Such perceived control represents a person's strength (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968) and is manifested in his or her ability to gauge the external forces and opportunities that impinge upon careers (Nicholson, West & Cawsey, 1985), which in turn enables a person to make the necessary job transition(s).

3.3.1.3 Relationships

An ability to forge strategic working relationships (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) is essential for the attainment of workplace-effective mobility. In Section 2.3.4, the role of significant others in mitigating the stress levels of employees with disabilities was highlighted (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). On the basis of Brown *et al.*'s (2005) argument, I contend that

a lack of support and/or a breaking up of social relations has a negative effect on the ability of employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility. Therefore, employees with disabilities may take solace in their individual relationship with God and their faith communities. According to Kaye and Raghavan (2002), spirituality helps a person to cope with stressful situations through a relationship with God and his or her faith community.

Building relationships should, however, not create dependence (Gignac & Cott, 1998), but should allow employees with disabilities to secure and maintain employment (Beatty *et al.*, 1998), thereby enabling their attainment of workplace-effective mobility. A reputation for independent living and employability (Gignac & Cott, 1998) through perceived competence (Weiss *et al.*, 2003) is thus enabled when employees with disability attain workplace-effective mobility. The negative consequences of stereotyping and/or social neglect and stigmatization, as explained in Sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3 respectively, would thus be averted by such a sense of mastery (Wright *et al.*, 2000) or competence.

3.3.2 Physical dimension

The physical dimension of workplace-effective mobility implies an ability to change and maintain certain body postures in an effort to move about effectively (Rossier & Wade, 2001) and independently (Patla & Shumway-Cook, 1999) in one's surroundings. As has been indicated in Section 3.2, the physical dimension of mobility is associated with career transitions across organisational boundaries, which have been related to the concept of a boundaryless career (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) in the literature.

The notion of a boundaryless career relates to mobility as a change of establishment within or between organisations (Nas *et al.*, 1998). Mobility as a change of establishment has often been viewed negatively, as a

cynical perspective sees it as a sign of individuals who are inclined to change, and who arguably tend to be less productive and receive lower wages than stayers (Davia, 2005). However, job changes generally depend on access to information about available job opportunities (Kenyon *et al.*, 2002).

The concept of workplace mobility was first defined by Van Ham (2002) as the tendency by employees to accept a job at a greater distance because suitable job opportunities are not available in the local labour market. Accepting a job at a greater distance is a better option than remaining unemployed. Accepting a job within reasonable commuting distance from their residence, even if the job requires skills that are below their level of education (Van Ham, 2002), is better for people with disabilities than not working at all.

The willingness of employees with disabilities to commute depends on the cost-effectiveness and physical comfort of the various means of transportation. Regrettably, the underdeveloped transport mobility solutions in South Africa (Venter, Rickert & Maunder, 2003) constrain the ability of people with a disability to travel to work and also inhibit their access to educational or training opportunities, limiting their life choices (Kenyon *et al.*, 2002).

Some aspects that are fundamental to the physical dimensions of workplace-effective mobility are the requirements for accessibility, reasonable accommodation and assistive devices to ensure the workplace effectiveness of employees with disabilities. These requirements are explained below.

3.3.2.1 Accessibility

Accessibility relates to the ability to move freely in and out of buildings and comfortably on built surfaces. For instance, intense mobility training

for the partially sighted is aimed at ensuring their safe movement in unfamiliar surroundings (Chatterton, 2005). Accessibility is thus a critical element of maintaining independence and is an essential determinant of quality of life for people with disabilities (Patla & Shumway-Cook, 1999). As a key aspect of accessibility, physical mobility also relates to the possibility of being able to perform a whole array of practical and, more importantly, job-related tasks (Chatterton, 2005).

Regrettably, in many countries, including South Africa, workplace-effective mobility is still restricted by inaccessible workplaces which contravene the legislative provisions aimed at promoting the rights of people with disabilities. In South Africa, for instance, accessibility to many public buildings is severely limited because of the following problems with enforcing building regulations (Makwetu, 2007; South African Human Rights Commission, 2002):

- the guidelines of the South African Bureau of Standards' (SABS) Code of Practice cannot be enforced; and
- the provision of the National Building regulations pertaining to requirements for wheelchair users is not enforced.

Employers are in fact legally obliged to assist employees with disabilities to achieve physical mobility or accessibility by performing the following actions aimed at providing them with greater accessibility (Townsend, Pande & Gorbis, 2007):

- granting them sufficient time to carry out activities without enduring bodily strain;
- ensuring proper lighting conditions to undertake work activities safely;
- providing protective clothing to mitigate adverse weather conditions;
- conducting regular accessibility audits to enhance accessibility and safe movement around buildings and surfaces;
- reducing workloads to ensure comfort with regard to employees' mental and physical resources, thereby enabling comfortable and

safe bodily movements during the performance of an assigned activity or task; and

- eliminating potentially dangerous objects to optimize safety in the workplace.

3.3.2.2 Reasonable accommodation

Reasonable accommodation, which was defined in Section 2.3.2, enables employees with disabilities to enjoy benefits and privileges of employment equal to those enjoyed by others without disabilities (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001). The enabling goal of reasonable accommodation is attained by means of the following employer interventions:

- modifying or adjusting the job-application process to ensure that applicants with a disability are considered for positions they desire (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001) and achieve full participation (Hays *et al.*, 2002) in the workplace; and
- modifying and adjusting the work environment or conditions under which the functions are usually performed (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001) to enable effective performance by employees with disabilities.

If these interventions are implemented, reasonable accommodation can be a useful mechanism for attaining equality for people with disabilities in the workplace (Ngwena, 2004) and ensuring their effective performance (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997). However, reasonable accommodation is a potential ground for unfair discrimination against employees with disabilities for several reasons (Balsler, 2000). When employers treat disability as incapacity, employers tend to neglect the different needs of employees with disabilities (Ngwena, 2004). This ignores the need of people with a disability for different environmental considerations in order to achieve the same things as their able-bodied counterparts.

According to Dossa (2005), for people with disabilities to be the same, they have to be different (Dossa, 2005). Instead of recognizing the different limitations and needs of employees (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001) and accommodating these (Ngwena, 2004), employers have generally adopted a one-size-fits-all approach to the implementation of reasonable accommodation measures. In order to achieve greater workplace equity, the legitimacy of treating people with disabilities unequally should thus be enhanced (Ngwena, 2004) by recognizing their different needs (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997).

Employers' reluctance to implement reasonable accommodation measures is often due to the perceived high costs of implementing reasonable accommodation measures, such as the costs associated with the physical adjustment of workplaces, health care and lower productivity of employees with a disability, as measured in hours and wage rates (Boni-Saenz *et al.*, 2004). The perception of high costs relating to the implementation of reasonable accommodation measures is compounded by a lack of overall rules and standards to ensure compliance in this regard (Kennedy & Olney, 2001).

Employers who implement reasonable accommodation measures often neglect the socio-cultural aspects that are necessary to support employee diversity. These socio-cultural aspects include the caring attitude of supervisors, communication to enhance adjustment to work, a participatory style of management, and support to reduce work-related stress, ensure greater well-being and enhance the self-esteem of employees with disabilities (Gates, 2000). The value of reasonable accommodation measures to enhance workplace equity in South Africa has thus often been ignored by organisations (Ngwena, 2004), with the result that workplace discrimination continues to be experienced by employees with disabilities.

The Integrated National Disability Strategy (INDS) and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) prohibit discrimination on the basis of disability. To give effect to the disability equity ideals set out in the INDS and the Constitution, the Employment Equity Act, No 55 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998) was promulgated. The Act recognizes reasonable accommodation as an accessibility measure that must be applied cost-effectively. Unfortunately, the constitutional value of reasonable accommodation as a mechanism for realizing substantive equality is limited to job applicants only (Ngwena, 2004).

3.3.2.3 Assistive devices

The use of assistive devices has been explained in Section 2.3.2 as having the potential to enhance the effectiveness of employees with performance in the workplace. Therefore, assistive devices are sometimes used to supplement the physical mobility of employees with disabilities by providing them with virtual mobility, which increases their functional resources and exposes them to new ideas and new spheres of influence (Kenyon *et al.*, 2002).

Virtual mobility consists of spatial, temporal and contextual movements (Kakihara & Sørensen, 2002; Kramer, 2007). Spatial movement is the collaborative exchange of objects, symbols and space to achieve and maintain order among these elements. Temporal movement is related to individuals' synchronizing their collaboration in terms of time and the required logistics, such as a venue. Contextual movement is associated with individuals' interacting or collaborating in any context or situation without a face-to-face meeting. These contextual interactions are often enabled by information communication technologies, such as e-mail, digital tools and Internet in a virtual context (Valjus, 2002).

However, technology may also have negative effects on employees with disabilities by perpetuating their marginalization and stigmatization (Eide

& Loeb, 2005; Lupton & Seymour, 2000). Assistive devices are also sensitive to the effects of digital divide, thereby negatively affecting the effectiveness of the desired human interactions. For instance, a person's inability to access information communication technologies may increase his or her social isolation and diminish community interactions. Such devices are thus not neutral. Although assistive devices usually enhance the functional capacities of employees with disabilities, they have the following inhibiting features (Sheldon, 2003; Kenyon *et al.*, 2002):

- they depend on the financial endowment of employees with disabilities (as I indicated in Section 2.3.2, assistive devices may not be affordable to the majority of employees with disabilities in South Africa, thereby inhibiting their employment prospects);
- technology such as computer equipment usually advances at a more rapid pace than employees with disabilities may cope with; as a result, their interactions with other people are limited;
- the majority of employees with disabilities are not computer-connected and find it difficult to access very important information communication technologies as sources of information; and
- some web designs are inaccessible to employees with disabilities, thereby creating barriers to their access to information, which means that the majority of employees with disabilities remain uninformed.

Technology tends to be provided from a deficit rather than from capacity perspectives. The deficit perspective forms an intrinsic part of oppressive discourses that position disabilities as a personal problem and individual incapability for which resources must be mobilized for help and care (Goodley, 2001).

Notwithstanding the limitations discussed above, employers are advised to provide assistive devices (Townsend *et al.*, 2007). However, the provision of these devices depends on the availability of financial resources to support employees with disabilities and the extent of the physical limitations of employees with disabilities that tend to inhibit their

work performance. To overcome these barriers, organisations should also modify and adjust the work environment itself (Steinfeld, 2003; Wang *et al.*, 2004).

The positive effects of providing assistive devices to enhance the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities are the following (Beatty *et al.*, 1998; Hall, 2005; Jayasooria, 1999; Philo & Metzel, 2005):

- they offer these employees accessible and suitably designed work environments, thereby expanding their functional capacities and ensuring their safety and comfort in the workplace;
- they offer employees with disabilities a position of respect and equal partnership in society, thereby allowing them to share in the resources of the majority; and
- they enhance opportunities for employees with disabilities to live independently by providing accessibility.

In summary, the physical dimension of workplace-effective mobility needs to contribute towards safety, efficiency of operations, comfort and affordability for both employees with disabilities and employers. It also provides a framework for a clear definition of the inverse relationship between the dimensionality of workplace-effective mobility and physical limitations. Assistive devices and reasonable accommodation are thus important mediators in the relationship between disability and physical mobility (Mbara & Paradza, n.d.; Patla & Shumway-Cook, 1999) in any effort to enhance the workplace effectiveness of employees with disabilities.

3.3.3 Economic dimension

The economic dimension of workplace-effective mobility emanates from the impact of economic conditions on the ability of employees with disabilities to access job opportunities and enjoy good quality life. The

impact of these conditions on access to job opportunities and quality of life is explained below.

3.3.3.1 Economic conditions

Members of minority groups such as people with disabilities make slow progress into the economic mainstream under adverse economic conditions (Meerman, 2005), because adverse economic conditions lead to job terminations and a reduction in the earning capacity of employees (Barbezat & Hughes, 2001).

Because economic advancement depends primarily on access to preferred jobs (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968), the state of the economy has a strong influence on the work achievement of employees in general, and on that of employees with disabilities in particular. Therefore, economic conditions are positively correlated with the growth of employment and negatively correlated with the unemployment rate (Souza-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). Thus an unfavourable economic climate means fewer vacancies, which makes it difficult for people to find a job in line with their preferences (Gesthuizen & Dagevos, 2005).

3.3.3.2 Good quality of life

Poor economic conditions have a negative influence on the quality of life of people with disabilities. Because people with disabilities are predominantly poor, worldwide (Meerman, 2001), they experience even more diminished material and non-material quality of life, as well as limited chances in life and choices, and reduced citizenship (Kenyon *et al.*, 2002) during economic downturns.

3.3.4 Social dimension

The social dimension of workplace-effective mobility is closely related to equal employment opportunities, socialisation processes and social support. These elements of the social dimension are discussed in more detail below.

3.3.4.1 *Equal employment opportunities*

As was already evident in Section 3.2, the social dimension of workplace-effective mobility is fundamental to the notion of equal employment opportunities. When people with disabilities are on equal terms with other employees socially, their workplace-effectiveness increases. Drawing on the work of Simpson (1990), I argue that a study of the social aspects of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities will provide further insight into the extent and causes of workplace inequality.

Workplace inequality is a result of unfair discrimination, as explained in Section 2.4.1, which prevents the movement of minorities such as employees with disabilities into employment that is better remunerated (Meerman, 2001). In order to address equal employment opportunities as a social dimension of workplace-effective mobility, employers should equalize the primary resources, implement the rules of a meritocracy to equalize opportunities, and maintain accountability over outcomes (Cogneau, 2005). This implies that policies regulating fairness in the labour market should be applied consistently to avoid tokenism (Blair & Jost, 2003), thereby enhancing workplace equity for employees with disabilities.

3.3.4.2 Socialisation processes

Socialisation is a process of passing on rules and standards of behaviour from old to new members of an organisation in an attempt to make them effective contributors to the enterprise. Therefore, the socialisation process provides an opportunity for new members to (Feldman, 1981; Muffels & Luijkx, 2004)

- acquire appropriate behaviours;
- develop work skills and abilities; and
- adjust to work groups' norms and values.

From this perspective, the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities is enhanced when a positive passing on of such rules and standards of behaviour occurs. However, when values and beliefs are transferred across generations (intergenerational mobility), such transfers are accompanied by inequalities that are beyond people's control (Swift, 2002). This exacerbates the negative effects of social stratification, which relegates employees with disabilities to the bottom of the societal ladder, while elevating and keeping the able-bodied at the top (Cogneau, 2005; Hertz, 2006). According to Meerman (2005), insufficient intergenerational mobility decreases the employment prospects for employees with disabilities because of possible social stratification.

It is essential for employees with disabilities to show their willingness and ability to deal with intergenerational mobility issues and the regulated implementation of equity norms (Cogneau, 2005; Hertz, 2006). Dealing with intergenerational mobility requires the ability to voluntarily change group membership to improve quality of life (Blair & Jost, 2003). In order to achieve success either in society or in the workplace, employees with disabilities also need to work actively towards changing cultural responses to disability (Anspach, 1979; Feldman, 2004; Hahn, 1993).

3.3.4.3 Social support

Social support, as explained in Section 2.3.4, is important for the enhancement of the ability of employees with disabilities to cope with environmental demands. It is important to optimize their ability to secure and maintain employment (Beatty *et al.*, 1998) to enhance their workplace-effective mobility. Social support is thus a very important requirement for the social dimension of workplace-effective mobility. As has been indicated in Section 3.3.1.3, social support assists in building a reputation for competence and independent living. The social support strategies indicated in Section 2.5 need to be followed to ensure effective social support through changes in social power relations.

In summary, workplace-effective mobility entails more than just moving or driving from one point to another. It is a broad concept which includes people's interactions. The social dimension of such mobility may enhance the career prospects of employees with disabilities through equity and meritocratic interventions, which include the use of well-delineated criteria for employers to make equitable employment decisions (Chatterton, 2005; Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968; Kakihara & Sørensen, 2002; Mbara & Paradza, n.d.).

3. 4 PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON IDENTIFYING CRITERIA FOR MOBILITY

As explained in Section 1.1, despite the need for criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities to achieve disability equity, no previous research could be found focusing specifically on this area. An obvious explanation for this gap is that it is a new operational composite concept that was developed for the purposes of this study.

Empirical studies thus far have focused on labour mobility in general, with the emphasis on job terminations (Neal, 1999). Mobility has thus

often been defined and studied in the context of turnover, in other words, external mobility or job changes (Barbezat & Hughes, 2001), which require people to adapt to new environments (Van Vianen *et al.*, 2003). Previous research on mobility has tended to use self-reporting as a measure (Koster *et al.*, 2005).

Williams (2006) indicates that an interest in the labour market participation of employees with disabilities is growing proportionally to the imperative for employment equity and human rights protection. Also, employers are increasingly realizing the importance of effective human resources planning, focusing on the potential contributions of people with disabilities towards meeting the challenge of labour and/or skills shortages. Despite a growing interest in ensuring workplace equity for employees with disabilities, Williams (2006) found that the only 6% of employees in management positions in the United States of America are people with disabilities. In South Africa, comparatively, only 3% of employees in senior and top management levels combined are people with disabilities (Commission for Employment Equity, 2009).

Because the role of clear criteria as a mediating factor has not been empirically examined and often organisations lack well-delineated criteria (Anderson *et al.*, 1981), inconceivably, only 3% of employees with disabilities are appointed to senior and/or top management levels. This low level of the appointment of people with disabilities to senior levels occurs within an environment that largely equates disability to incapacity (see Section 2.3.1). In South Africa, 0.02% of employees with disabilities (964 out of a total workforce of 4 426 972) are at this level, compared to 1.8 % (78 124 out of a total workforce of 4 4 26 972) of able-bodied employees (Commission for Employment Equity, 2010), because of prejudice (Commission for Employment Equity, 2007). Ross (2004) therefore argues for the development of clearer criteria for promotion and access to career development. This will alleviate workplace

discrimination, unmerited and token appointments and the loss of competent and well-motivated employees with disabilities.

Established workplace-effective mobility criteria are particularly necessary at times of shrinkages in the traditional pool of flexible labour to minimize or prevent people from setting their own arbitrary criteria, informed by negative attitudes, ignorance, fear and stereotypes, which may unfairly exclude employees with disabilities (Baum, 1995).

3.4.1 Significance of previous studies on criteria development

Although they did not focus on criteria for workplace-effective mobility, previous studies on criteria development for other areas could offer significant study design information to guide the current study.

A useful study was conducted by Lahtinen *et al.* (2005) to develop quality criteria for health promotion research in Finland. Their study used the literature to identify a number of criteria and then applied the Delphi method by involving 18 health promotion experts to evaluate and comment on the identified criteria for health promotion in three rounds. The expert-evaluated criteria were then used to assess 16 health promotion research projects that had received funding from the Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs and Health on a four-point scale ('criterion is not fulfilled at all'; 'criterion is fulfilled to some extent'; 'criterion is fulfilled completely'; 'criterion cannot be assessed'). Focused research funding was subsequently achieved using the criteria identified following this approach. Their study is regarded as useful because it provides evidence of the scientific value of using the Delphi method in the process of verifying identified criteria.

Another study developed a quality criteria framework for patient decision aids in order to support patients in arriving at informed, bias-free choices on available medical options. The study also used the literature to define

quality dimensions and used two rounds of the electronic Delphi method to develop background evidence reports, produce quality criteria and rate quality criteria using experts. As patients also participated in the Delphi rounds, there was some disagreement regarding the feasibility and measurability of the criteria that had been produced (Elwyn *et al.*, 2006).

Although these previous studies did not follow the sequential mixed method proposed for this study in Section 4.3, but relied only on the available literature to achieve the intended purposes, they reveal the importance for an empirical study of involving experts in refining and categorizing criteria. The use of experts was therefore adopted in the current study.

3.5 NEED FOR WELL-DELINEATED CRITERIA

Apart from the studies indicated in Section 3.4.1, the development of criteria for employee selection has generally received little attention (Altink *et al.*, 1997). As indicated in Section 3.4, studies focusing on employees with disabilities either used medically defined criteria of pain or difficulty in performing an activity, or unspecified criteria (Anderson *et al.*, 1981; Kopec, 1995). Koster *et al.* (2005) even admitted that they used a subjective measure of physical function in their study on socio-economic differences in mobility decline and relied on self-reports. They therefore recommended that future studies should identify well-delineated criteria.

This study seeks to make a contribution towards filling these apparent gaps in the body of empirical knowledge on the topic. In an attempt to achieve this goal, the Montreal Process Working Group's (2007) distinction between a criterion and an indicator is used as a guide. The group suggests that a criterion is comprised of indicators and is thus a category of conditions or processes by which a concept may be assessed. It is characterized by a set of related indicators, which may be

either qualitative or quantitative measures or descriptors of a criterion. From this distinction, it may be concluded that criteria are groupings of indicators developed into categories that may be used to evaluate phenomena.

The need for criteria for workplace-effective mobility emanates from several organisational realities. Firstly, increased workforce diversity requires organisations to have a better understanding of measures to prevent workplace discrimination than in the past and to accommodate the needs of disabled people (Wooten & James, 2005). Therefore, the provision of well-delineated and empirically identified criteria for promotion and access to career development fosters the basic rights of people with disabilities (Baum, 1995) to work.

Secondly, organisations face increasing demands to systematize and rationalize their policies and procedures to ensure that employee transfers, promotions, and demotions do not result from a random process (Williams, 2006). This policy rationalization and systematization drive requires organisations to specify promotion criteria (Anderson *et al.*, 1981) to enhance workplace equity for employees with disabilities. The implementation of such criteria may ensure equitable income, accessible quality education and employment in senior positions (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968).

Thirdly, the expected substantial increases in the mobility difficulties in the coming decades require that predictors of mobility be identified (Clark *et al.*, 1998). Taylor (1993) claims that criteria may be developed either by selecting them off the top of one's head or by relying on research findings or experience or even systematically analysing the situation to develop criteria based on the best information available. While indicators suggest the kind of evidence needed to judge the success or failure of a programme (or, in this case, workplace-effective mobility), criteria

suggest how much of this evidence is needed to judge a programme (or form of mobility) a success (Taylor, 1993).

The inclusion of judges or experts, as in the studies reported in Section 3.4.1, makes it possible to investigate the face validity of scale items (Hardesty & Bearden, 2004). When criteria are assessed, it should be realized that they exist along many dimensions. Criteria can be classified as behaviour required in the job or as consequences of behaviour following two types of value judgements – firstly, the judgement made by persons who are well informed that a particular form of behaviour or results of behaviour is good or desirable and, secondly, that one behaviour or result is more or less desirable than or equally desirable to another (Guion, 1961).

The resultant process of assessing or projecting performance against pre-set criteria is referred to as a criterion-referenced approach to assessment. It provides a defensible framework for assessing performance (Burton, 2006). This approach is therefore followed in this study.

3.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, four dimensions of workplace-effective mobility have been identified and presented, namely the personal, physical, economic and social dimensions. It is evident that these four dimensions of workplace-effective mobility focus on providing a sense of mastery and independence to employees with disabilities to give employees with disabilities a competitive edge relative to their non-disabled colleagues, thereby enhancing their ability to find employment or to be promoted.

The previous literature found on the development of criteria pointed to the need for involving experts in order to achieve the face validity of scale items. The significance of this process for the current study has

been discussed, together with the need for identifying well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

In the next chapter, the research design and methodology for the identification and confirmation of criteria for workplace-effective mobility are discussed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the design, methodology and methods used in this study. The methodology relates to the approach that was adopted in the study; while the methods refer to the research tools used in the study. Therefore, the methodology and methods are explained separately in this chapter. In order to achieve the study aims of identifying and confirming criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, a sequential mixed method design was adopted. The qualitative and quantitative methods were thus used sequentially to identify and confirm criteria for workplace-effective mobility, respectively.

In order to contextualize the choice of design and methodology, the chapter begins with the knowledge claim made for the study. This knowledge claim emanates from the goal of emancipating employees with disabilities, as explained in Section 1.10, which covers the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The knowledge claim also supports the meta-theoretical assumptions discussed in Section 1.7.

The chapter culminates in a detailed but separate presentation of the two methods followed sequentially in the study as Phase 1 (the qualitative phase) and Phase 2 (the quantitative phase). The strategies used for sampling, data collection and analysis are explained in this chapter, phase by phase. The importance of a literature control for the study is also explained in this chapter.

4.2 THE KNOWLEDGE CLAIM

This study advocates for the emancipation (Creswell, 2009) of employees with disabilities from the injustices of workplace prejudice and discrimination that confront them. Therefore, these injustices are highlighted (Mickhail & Graaf, n.d.) in order to identify aspects of human resources practices and policies that require change to enhance workplace equity. An emancipatory research paradigm is thus adopted in the study. Such a paradigm it is not only applicable to qualitative research methodology, but is also appropriate in mixed method studies (Barnes, 2001) such as this one.

Accordingly, the study rejects the traditional claims of researcher objectivity and neutrality. On the basis of the views of Barnes and Mercer (1997), I claim that the knowledge pertaining to the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities is socially constructed and culturally relevant. Because of this claim, I locate the study within the social model of disability, in order to investigate how employees with disabilities from various disability cultures understand the phenomenon of workplace-effective mobility. In the process of investigating this phenomenon, I observed the principles relating to emancipatory research, namely reciprocity, gain and reflexivity, as explained in Section 2.4.6 (Barnes & Mercer, 1997).

To achieve reciprocity in the study, I involved several disability organisations, as recommended by Zarb (1997), in the design of the study. The involvement of disability organisations allowed me to focus on the perspectives of employees with disabilities, as suggested by Ross (2004), in order to identify key issues pertaining to the phenomenon, as Schur, Kruse and Blanck (2005) recommend. According to Duckett and Pratt (2001), the involvement of disability organisations in the design of the study requires an adaptation of the ontology, epistemology and methodology in order to investigate critical issues. Therefore, bringing

the expertise of the disability organisations into the study enhanced its relevance, which Eide and Loeb (2005) explain to be necessary in a study that attempts to address identified issues.

Furthermore, I placed my knowledge at the disposal of participants by responding to their questions and addressing their concerns during the focus group interviews. According to Northway (2000), to change the social and material relations within the research, researchers should answer direct questions and disclose their personal values and beliefs to participants. In addition to answering direct questions, I therefore shared the beliefs I formed from the literature regarding workplace-effective mobility as a multi-dimensional concept with participants.

Oliver and Barton (2000) argue that the conventional relationship between researchers and participants resulted in gains accruing only to the researchers, thus exploiting people with disabilities. Although I acknowledge that the academic gain of this study accrues to me as the researcher, I believe that the intended publication of the results will also benefit the participants by identifying and placing critical issues on the workplace agenda for consideration by employers. According to Oliver (1996), social research must also focus on transforming the consciousness of people, in this case, disabled people, by advocating change aimed at improving their quality of life. The process and the results of this study will also bring the pertinent issues relating to workplace prejudice to the consciousness of employees with disabilities and their employers so that transformative actions can be taken.

I offer critical reflections on the contributions made by the study and the possible shortcomings of my study approach and process in the final chapter to guide future research, thereby ensuring reflexivity. Reflexivity is necessary because of the inherent political bias associated with investigating and bringing oppressive social relations to the level of consciousness of the oppressed (Oliver, 1997). Conscientizing

participants to the oppressive social relations affecting the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities required rapport-building, especially when participants were cynical about the study.

Rapport-building depends on collaboration and the negotiation of the research process between the research partners, that is, the researcher and the participants. According to Fawcett and Hearn (2001), the research process should be a collaborative activity, negotiated between the researcher and the participants. Therefore, the researcher must be close to the participants, since the inquiry is completely value-determined and requires researcher/participant collaboration to create knowledge (Plack, 2005). Fieldwork was thus conducted to ensure interaction between participants and me, even though it took time, following high levels of trust-building and negotiation, as suggested by Lynch (1999), for entry into the field. The details on how fieldwork was negotiated and conducted for this study are set out in Section 4.7.1.1.

A particular research design and a methodology that suit this knowledge claim was thus required to achieve the aims of the study presented in Section 1.3. In the next section, my specific choice of such a design and methodology is explained.

4.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

As I have already explained in Section 1.8, in this study, I adopted a two-phase, sequential, confirmatory, dialectical mixed method design. The sequence followed in this study was first to use qualitative methods to identify criteria, and subsequently to compile a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility for employees with disabilities. The use of qualitative methods is dialectical, because it involved dialogue, as described by Zarb (1997), between the participants and me on the nature of workplace-effective mobility. Dialogue between participants and the

researcher requires an interpretivist design, as explained in Section 4.3.1.

Thereafter, a quantitative Likert-scale Delphi method was used to confirm the criteria identified in the qualitative phase. This choice is in line with Thurmond's (2001) argument that sequential mixed method designs use participant interviews and Likert-scale surveys. Because this study does not use the methods in combination, but in a sequence, the qualitative and quantitative methods are thus used independently of each other to identify and confirm criteria. According to Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil (2002), a sequential mixed method design used in this manner (independently) enables complementary results to be achieved.

The features of the research design for the qualitative phase are explained in detail in the subsequent sections, followed by a description of the methods used in the quantitative phase of the study to confirm the criteria for workplace-effective mobility identified in the first phase.

4.3.1 Interpretivist design

As indicated in Section 4.3, the qualitative phase involved a dialogue with the participants. Dialogue tends to produce many responses with multiple meanings, and then patterns of meanings need to be identified (Daengbuppha, Hemmington & Wilkes, 2006) and interpreted (Snape & Spencer, 2005) in relation to the phenomenon under review, in this case, of workplace-effective mobility. Therefore, an interpretivist design was adopted to explain the multiple views presented by participants, as recommended by Andrade (2009) and Williams (1998), and to attain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon, in line with Merriam's (1998) argument.

In order to identify patterns of responses and interpret the multiplicity of participants' views, an inductive strategy can be used when, as in the

case of workplace-effective mobility, no previous literature exists to provide a framework for understanding a phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). The use of an inductive strategy is therefore explained in more detail in Section 4.7.1.4(i)(a). In the absence of prior literature on the topic of study, an interpretivist design relies on fieldwork as a means to identify participants' responses and elicit multiple views on the phenomenon. The use of fieldwork is later explained in Section 4.7.1.3(i)(a). Therefore, it suffices to mention at this stage that fieldwork connects a researcher to the social status (Ferguson, Ferguson & Taylor, 1992) of participants to enable a researcher to provide detailed descriptions of participants in their natural settings (Merriam, 1998).

Connecting to the social status of employees with disabilities is thus necessary to understand the labels (Oliver, 2002) of being unproductive (Shakespeare, 1996) that society applies to them (Ferguson *et al.*, 1992). Thus, connecting to the natural settings of employees with disabilities provided an opportunity for me to become an advocate of change (Shar & Corley, 2006) in order to empower the participants, as recommended by Oliver (2002) by responding to their context (Kitthananan, n.d.).

Because of the emphasis on identifying and interpreting patterns of responses for meaning, data were iteratively collected and analysed to compile a theoretical model, in line with Bowen's (2008) suggestion, in this case, of workplace-effective mobility. The iterative collection and analysis of the data necessitated that I use rough tentative designs, rather than plan the entire research design in advance. According to Rubin and Rubin (1995), rough tentative designs guide researchers in the iterative process of learning from the field and of refocusing research.

4.3.2 Grounded Theory design

Grounded Theory is an interpretive qualitative research design that allows researchers to make discoveries (Jones, Kriflik & Zanko, 2005) in

the absence of any existing theory on the phenomenon (Levy, 2003). It is thus used either when theories about the phenomenon do not exist (Ferguson *et al.*, 1992) or when theories currently documented in the literature fail to explain adequately the phenomenon observed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In this study, therefore, Grounded Theory is used because of the absence of *a priori* knowledge (Jones *et al.*, 2005) and the dearth of prior literature on the phenomenon of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

This kind of design requires interaction between the researcher and the participants to create meaning regarding the phenomenon under investigation (Goulding, 1999). In order to understand a phenomenon, the researcher should describe the context in which its meaning is created (Andrade, 2009). Therefore, I immersed myself in the field and in the data to gain insight into the subjective and multiple realities of participants pertaining to workplace-effective mobility, as recommended by Daengbuppha *et al.* (2006). By doing so, I was engaging in a process of discovery, and in an inductive search (Elliott & Lazenbatt, 2005) of relationships among data (Charmaz, 2005) gathered during field work (Bitsch, 2005). The immersion of a researcher in the field and in the data to make inductive discoveries about their relationships is thus a distinguishing characteristic of Grounded Theory design.

Proponents of Grounded Theory argue that inductive discoveries of data relationships should proceed systematically from data collection (Bitsch, 2005) to theoretical analysis (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006), so that data categories are developed (Pandit, 1996). I therefore iteratively collected and analysed data, as Bitsch (2005) suggests, to examine the causal factors and patterns of participants' experience (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006) of workplace-effective mobility. In this process, I collected data and simultaneously analysed it (in line with Charmaz, 2005) to make theoretical generalisations (see Andrade 2009) towards compiling a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility.

The compilation of theoretical models is regarded as a complex activity (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) that requires a researcher to think about the data in theoretical terms and integrate knowledge created into the research context (Bitsch, 2005). As the data analysis progresses in a theoretical manner, a theoretical conceptualisation (Brown *et al.*, 2002) on data emerges from the researcher-participant interactions (Durant-Law, 2005). Hence, theoretical conceptualisation cannot be predetermined, but is a product of concurrent, iterative, systematic and interdependent data collection and analysis (McGhee, Marland & Atkinson, 2007). Theoretical models are thus compiled by identifying key constructs pertaining to the phenomenon and describing their relationships in a particular context (Shar & Corley, 2006). In this study, key constructs pertaining to the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities were identified and their relationship was described, culminating in a theoretical model.

Grounded Theory is useful for the practice, because it relates to daily situations and explains the creation of meaning in theoretical terms (Merriam, 1998). In disability research, a Grounded Theory design allows the researcher to study participants' attitudes and beliefs on a phenomenon, thereby improving the validity of the research findings (Hartley & Muhit, 2003).

4.4 THE FOCUS OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The focus of this research design was identifying and confirming criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Therefore, in order to understand the central concept (Creswell, 2007) of workplace-effective mobility in the study, the conditions, orientations and actions affecting it needed to be explored and described, as Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006) suggest.

For a better understanding of reflexive interactions (Goulding, 1999) between the researcher and participants, the conditions, orientations and actions of participants regarding the phenomenon are explained below.

4.4.1 Conditions

The personal, physical, economic and social conditions facing employees with disabilities can either enable or inhibit their ability to attain workplace-effective mobility. These conditions were explored and described in this study as the various dimensions of workplace-effective mobility set out in Section 3.3.

4.4.2 Orientations

Orientations of employees with disabilities toward workplace-effective mobility and the role of employers in enabling or inhibiting their workplace-effective mobility were explored. The exploration of these employer and employee orientations assisted in identifying criteria and compiling a theoretical model for workplace-effective mobility in this study. The views of industrial and organisational psychologists on the identified criteria were also explored in this study in order to confirm such criteria, based on consensus reached while assessing the phenomenon.

4.4.3 Actions

The actions that employees with disabilities take to attain workplace-effective mobility were explored directly, as Bless *et al.* (2006) suggest, through focus group interviews; and the findings were confirmed through the Delphi process.

Three foci in a study are not necessarily mutually exclusive (Bless *et al.*, 2006), because, in this case, the conditions in which employees with

disabilities pursue workplace-effective mobility may influence their orientations and actions.

4.4.4 The units of analysis

My units of analysis in this study were

- people with disabilities who are either employed or self-employed – these units of analysis were involved in Phase 1 of the study to identify criteria for workplace-effective mobility; and
- industrial and organisational psychologists who participates as individuals in Phase 2 of the study, which is concerned with confirmation of the identified criteria through consensus building.

4.5 POTENTIAL SOURCES OF BIAS

Potential bias in this study related to the use of purposive sampling to selectively identify participants and selectively document the data. Roberts, Priest and Traynor (2006) caution that the selective identification of participants constitutes exclusion bias because some are included, while others are excluded from participating in the study. In order to avoid or reduce exclusion bias in the current study, all the disability organisations identified through the Internet searches were invited to participate in the study via electronic mail without prejudice to their right to voluntary participation (Roberts, Geppert & Brody, 2001).

There is also a potential for bias from the personal perspectives I bring to the study and my familiarity with the field resulting from site visits that I undertook, as Roberts *et al.* (2006) warn. The personal perspectives I hold result from the training and experience I acquired as a registered industrial psychologist, as a PhD candidate and as a Senior Manager responsible for human resources management matters in the university where I work. I therefore acknowledge that these roles may have influenced my interactions, as Finch and Lewis (2005) argue, with

participants, and may ultimately have had some effects on the findings. The ethical measure of self-disclosure is therefore used to address these potential sources of bias.

Potential bias relating to the selective documentation of data was managed through measures intended to ensure the trustworthiness of the study, as explained in Section 4.7.1.5, including an audit trail of the research process, as advocated by Malterud (2001) and reflexivity, as proposed by Roberts *et al.* (2006). Seale and Silverman (1997) indicate that researchers may minimize research bias by suspending their experiences and beliefs or openly reflecting (showing reflexivity) on their abilities or through data triangulation. In this study, I reflect explicitly on my lack of understanding of the various types of disability during data collection and clarify the study limitations in the concluding chapter.

4.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In the study, I adopted a qualitative research methodology to identify criteria for workplace-effective mobility and thereafter a quantitative research methodology to confirm the identified criteria. Qualitative research methodology is an umbrella concept covering several forms of inquiry, including ethnography, phenomenology, Grounded Theory and case studies (Creswell, 2009).

Such varied forms of qualitative research methodology are necessary to explain the meaning of social phenomena in their natural settings (Merriam, 1998). Patton (2002) holds a similar view, pointing out that qualitative research methodology is naturalistic and seeks to understand phenomena in their context-specific settings. In order to understand meanings that participants construct regarding their natural settings, I therefore draw inferences from the data, using an inductive strategy of data analysis, as explained in Section 4.7.1.4(i)(a).

The qualitative research methodology used in this study assisted me in gaining an understanding of and describing workplace-effective mobility in the context-specific setting of the workplace. To achieve this goal, the insider-perspective described by Oliver (2002) was adopted to meet the requirements of emancipatory research, that is, the collective production of knowledge.

4.7 RESEARCH METHODS

The separate use of concepts ‘methodology and methods’ is necessary to differentiate between the research approach and strategies or methods used to collect, analyse and interpret data in the study. As I mentioned in Section 4.1, the term ‘methodology’ relates to the approach, while ‘methods’ relates to strategies adopted in the study. In this context, therefore, the sampling, data collection and analysis methods used in each phase (the qualitative and quantitative phases) of this study are explained separately. Phase 1, pertaining to the qualitative activity of identifying criteria for and compiling a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility, is presented first, followed by the quantitative part of confirming criteria in Phase 2.

4.7.1 Phase 1: Identifying criteria and compiling a theoretical model of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities

Because Phase 1 of the study was concerned with what Seymour (2001) refers to as the subjective, value-laden responses of participants to identify criteria for and compile a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility, qualitative methods were used. Drawing on Shar and Corley (2006), qualitative methods were chosen to discover new variables pertaining to the concept of workplace-effective mobility. The relationship among these variables was determined and the influence of the social context was illustrated with a view to revealing and understanding the complex processes of workplace prejudice and discrimination.

Therefore, the methods for this phase are explained in detail. According to Shar and Corley (2006), researchers are required to describe their data collection and analysis in detail, thereby openly exposing them for peer review and demonstrating that they meet rigorous standards. Not only are the data collection and analysis methods used in this study explained, but so are the sampling techniques, the roles of moderators and the researcher, measures for ethical compliance, the literature control and the measures employed to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings. According to Taylor (1993), the description of these methods constitutes the empirical approach to the study. As indicated in Section 4.3.1, I also undertook fieldwork to identify criteria for workplace-effective mobility and it is also explained in this section.

4.7.1.1 Sampling

In order to make a decision regarding whom to include in the study in line with the suggestions by Ritchie, Lewis and Elam (2005), I used Statistics South Africa's (2005) typology of disability by age, race and gender. The blind, the Deaf, the speech-impaired and participants with physical disabilities in the age group from 25 and 55 were thus included, because they represent the employable population of people with disabilities. With regard to younger people, although citizens at the age of 18 may start working, in line with the arguments of Bowen (2008) and Endacott and Botti (2005), I considered participants in the age category of 18 to 24 less useful in terms of their knowledge and experience on the issue under review. At the upper end of the spectrum, I excluded people above the age of 55, because it is generally accepted that the retirement age for South Africans begins at 55 (Cape Gateway, 2004).

Because people with mental and emotional disabilities are the least employable (Benedict *et al.*, 2005), they were also not included in the sample. The concerns raised regarding growing inappropriate access and unauthorised disclosure of information on patients (Simon, Unützer,

Young & Pincus, 2000) were another major consideration for excluding this group of participants from the study.

These samples were selected for the study based on a need to understand the various manifestations of the phenomenon of workplace-effective mobility in different settings, as recommended by Ritchie *et al.* (2005). In order to understand the various manifestations of workplace-effective mobility, I recruited employed and self-employed participants with a disability from four of the nine provinces of South Africa, namely the Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape. The spread of participants across provinces assists in highlighting the reasons for differences between settings, in line with Kitthananan's (n.d.) suggestion.

Based on Ritchie *et al.*'s (2005) argument, the characteristics of the population and those of the individuals within the sample frame were considered in order to determine the sample design for the study. Because of the need for relevant information, it was envisaged that these categories of employees with disabilities would provide the relevant information pertaining to workplace-effective mobility in South Africa. These participants were thus purposively selected for participation in the study. According to Ritchie *et al.* (2005), purposive sampling is a non-probabilistic sampling procedure adopted to select a sample using a criterion based on unique characteristics. The criterion-based selection of samples enables the saturation of data (Bowen, 2008) required for theoretical representativeness of the settings, individuals or activities (Kitthananan, n.d.).

In this regard, the purposive sample design used in this study focused on the conceptual rather than on numerical representation of participants (see Potter, 1996; Ritchie & Lewis, 2005). Therefore, this sampling strategy focuses less on sample size and more on sampling adequacy, in other words, as indicated earlier the sample should be composed of

participants who have knowledge (Bowen, 2008) or experience on the issue under review (Endacott & Botti, 2005). In order to attain sampling adequacy, I used referrals from participants as a strategy. Furthermore, I negotiated access to knowledgeable participants, as Potter (1996) describes, in order to develop, maintain and beneficially close the research relationships (Devers & Frankel, 2000) with them.

The sampling occurred in a context where I, as an industrial psychologist, had no previous knowledge of the participants except for their willingness to participate (see Smit & Cilliers, 2006) generated through negotiation for access. The participating disability organisations were thus only known to me because of preliminary correspondence and/or site visits.

(i) Negotiating access

In preparing for access negotiations, I conducted Internet searches to identify disability organisations for participation in the study. Disability organisations identified in this way included the Blind Society of South Africa, the Disability Sports of South Africa (DISSA), the National Council for People with Physical Disabilities in South Africa (NCPDPSA), the National Institute for the Deaf (NID), the Quad Para Association of South Africa (QASA) and the Speakeasy (an association for stutterers in South Africa). Through referrals from these disability organisations, the Association for People with Disabilities (APD) and the Deaf Federation of South Africa (DEAFSA) were added to the list.

Comprehensive electronic mails (e-mails) were then sent to these disability organisations, requesting assistance regarding the recruitment of participants. Requests for assistance were communicated as follows: *'To enable the interviews, I am asking that your organisation assists with the following: identification of relevant participants; identification of an accessible venue for the interview sessions; arrangement of the*

interviews; and provision of a sign language interpreter for the deaf participants (at fees to be agreed upon) (P5: FW Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned 8.txt – 5:1, 129:136).

As part of this correspondence, consent forms and memoranda of understanding were e-mailed to selected disability organisations for them to approve access to participants. In the correspondence, I explained the purpose of the study. I received the following feedback from one disability organisation: *'Thank you for this. Can I circulate this to other disability agencies and then they can also respond directly to you, also to my member base. Let me know'* (P18: RE Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned.txt – 18:1, 19:20). The APD and the DEAFSA were identified through disability organisations asking whether the data could be shared with other disability organisations.

When responses were not forthcoming, I sent out reminder e-mails. Despite these reminders, however, no responses were received from DISSA and NCPPDSA. Notwithstanding this experience, the reminder e-mails alerted me to a number of factors which were delaying the responses from some disability organisations (the relevant comments are cited *verbatim*, using italics to highlight the participants' voices, and the file details of the material are cited in brackets):

- **Computer crashes:** *'I am so glad you emailed me, had a hard drive crash last week pls resend the 1st email and I will get onto it sorry'*(P14: Re Just a friendly follow-up – Doctoral Studies Scanned.txt – 14:1, 6:7);
- **Vacation leave of contact people:** *'I am so sorry that Sylvia did not come back to you. Yes I am very busy as we are working with skeleton staff at the moment and we are also busy with feedback reports that we must submit at the end of the month. Sylvia is on leave at this stage. Due to cash flow problems we do not have accessible transport available during after hours and weekends at this stage'*(P20: RE Request to conduct interviews for Doctoral Studies Scanned 9.txt – 20:1, 56:59); and

- **Resignation of a project coordinator:** *'Hi there Sarah is not with us anymore. Can we re-schedule for Oct? Thanks'* (P25: RE Follow-up sessionsSpam score 8%M1ScannedM1.txt – 25:1, 18:21).

Furthermore, I arranged and undertook site visits to the NID and QASA, and attended a Speakeasy meeting. According to Caine, Davidson and Stewart (2009), a visit to research sites as preliminary fieldwork is important to generate interest from potential study participants. During these meetings, I entered into negotiations with coordinators / directors of disability organisations concerning the nature of the field-work to be done. The purpose of the site visits was also to discuss the details of the study and plan the research process. I expressed my appreciation of the value of the site visits in the following words to organisers: *'It was my pleasure to have met you. Our discussions were quite fruitful and provided a clear way forward regarding my research'* (P7: Re Interview scheduleScanned.txt – :3, 22:23).

As a result of these access negotiation processes, mutually beneficial relationships with the participating disability organisations were built. The APD Free State responded as follows: *'[W]e are excited about your research, and we are of opinion that the said research will add value to the lives of people with disabilities'* (P12: Scanned.txt – 12:1, 10:11). The NID burnt a Digital Versatile Disc (DVD) on the focus group interviews with its members: *'[W]e burned 2 new DVDs. I hope that they will work this time'* (P12: RE DVD's Scanned.txt – 12:1, 35:35). Thus, I did not simply gather as much information as I could and then cut ties, but instead maintained sound relations with disability organisations throughout the research process, as proposed by Devers and Frankel (2000).

4.7.1.2 Sample size

I had envisaged larger samples of about 400 for the development of a psychometric tool (P4: Re Doctoral Research in DisabilityScanned.txt – 4:7, 215:222), *'to determine validity and reliability for my study'* (P4: Re Doctoral

Research in DisabilityScanned.txt – 4:5, 120:124), but, because I was using a rough tentative design for the study (see Section 4.3.1), I was able to refocus the research, in line with Rubin and Rubin’s (1995) suggestion, from developing psychometric assessment tools to identifying criteria for workplace-effective mobility.

The refocused purpose of identifying criteria for workplace-effective mobility necessitated the discovery of variables pertaining to the concept (see Section 4.7.1). In order to attain such an objective, participants who are knowledgeable regarding the phenomenon (Bowen, 2008; Potter, 1996) were needed for the study. I therefore used a purposive sampling strategy to recruit a purposive sample of 40 employees and self-employed participants, as defined in Section 4.7.1.1. The samples varied by type of disability and biographical information (gender and race). A variation of samples enables the complexity of social settings to be captured and a comparison of participants’ responses across a variety of settings in order to compile a theoretical model (Kitthananan, n.d.), in this case, of workplace-effective mobility.

As purposive sampling is criterion-based (Ritchie *et al.*, 2005), the sampling criteria were specified as follows in this study: *‘I am looking at ten (10) people [male and female, different age groups, different positions (junior and senior) in the company, different years of experience, language diverse, etc.], who are living with disabilities and are employed. I noticed that you have a Board of Directors; perhaps I can interview the Board? The interviews will be group interviews of at least one hour or two hours maximum’* (P4: Re Doctoral Research in DisabilityScanned.txt – 4:1, 66:71).

Using these criteria, a sample of 66, as indicated in Table 4.1, was achieved. This is attributable to the level of interest generated by the study as a result of the entry negotiations held with disability organisations.

Table 4.1: Profile of participants by province

Province	Race and Gender								
	African		Coloured		Indian		White		Disability
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Free State	8	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	Blind
	2	4	-	-	-	-	-	1	Physical
Gauteng	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Speech
KwaZulu-Natal	-	-	-	-	6	4	4	2	Physical
Western Cape	1	-	-	2	-	-	11	9	Deaf
Total	20	4	0	2	6	4	17	13	66

The number of Deaf participants and participants with physical disabilities was thus 13 higher each than the envisaged ten per category. This negated the scepticism expressed by project coordinators at the start of the study. One coordinator said: *'[B]e forewarned to find candidates that are employed will be a challenge in all categories'* (P6: FW Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned.txt – 6:1, 16:17). Another said that *'organising the deaf is tougher for us but I will forward the number of the organisation where you are able to book for sign language interpretation services. I suggest you try the Free State group'* (P6: FW Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned4.txt – 6:1, 16:17).

The under-representation of the speech-impaired participants (only nine participated) must be ascribed to the problems of a loss of contact with participants referred by the Speakeasy (an association of people with speech-impairments in Gauteng). The apparent overrepresentation of White participants (30 participated) and the under-representation of Coloured participants (only two participated) in the study are attributable to their respective over- and under-subscription in the databases of the various disability organisations. The same applies to the majority of participants' being male (43 participants or 65%), which meant that the desired 50:50 gender balance of participants in the study could not be attained. In the Free State, however, the majority of participants with

physical disabilities were female (4). The speech-impaired participants were all African males drawn from Gauteng.

4.7.1.3 Data collection

Data was collected in participants' natural settings – either their place of work or place of residence (for the sake of convenience and accessibility). Collecting data in natural settings enables the compilation of theoretical models reflecting the social contexts of the participants (Kitthananan, n.d.). Also the costs for participation were minimized by aligning the data collection processes with the usual operations and priorities of the participants (Stiffman *et al.*, 2005). For instance, data collection was conducted during the evenings or weekends.

Because the quality of data depends on the sampling decisions made during the data collection process (Endacott & Botti, 2005), the decision of whom to include in a subsequent focus group interview was based on the information gaps identified in the previous sessions. Therefore, the identification and filling of information gaps as a strategy for data collection was intended to achieve the theoretical saturation of data, as explained by Endacott and Botti (2005).

My sign language limitations necessitated the services of sign language interpreters during data collection from the deaf and speech-impaired participants. These services were generously sponsored for the study by participating organisations, namely the National Institute for the Deaf (NID) and a retail store.

In this context, the methods used for data collection are described below.

(i) Data collection methods

Data were collected predominantly using field work, focus group interviews, and the cognitive interviewing strategy. Because of the need for an interview schedule, the use of recording devices, and the presence of the researcher and moderators during the process, these elements of the data collection process are also explained in this section.

(a) Field work

Fieldwork consists of three basic stages: initiation of entry, physical entry and closure (Caine *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, I prepared for entry as explained in Section 4.7.1.1(i). In the second stage of actual physical entry into the field setting, data collection began. Because I was aware of the danger of researcher bias (Creswell, 2007), as explained in Section 4.5, due to my identity and background, I made an effort to suspend any judgement about the data incidents during the data collection stage (McGhee *et al.*, 2007).

The final stage was to close the research project or post-field stage. In this regard, I mentioned to participants that the next steps would be to transcribe the audiotapes of the interviews or focus group discussions and write up the report. Drawing on Marshall and Rossman (2006), I then closed the data collection process in a mutually beneficial manner by promising the participants copies of the study results.

(b) Focus group interviews

Like other qualitative research strategies, the Grounded Theory approach uses one or more techniques to collect empirical data (Bitsch, 2005). The literature suggests that focus group interviews are a commonly used technique in qualitative studies (Levy, 2003). Focus group interviews serve either an exploratory function, to identify

constructs prior to quantitative study, or a phenomenological function, to access people's common sense conceptions and everyday explanations (McLafferty, 2004) of phenomena.

In this study, focus group interviews were used to explore the constructs associated with the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Focus group interviews are open-ended interviewing techniques intended to explore, understand and explain the nature of a phenomenon (Bing, 2007). The focus group interview technique offers the following advantages: be careful

- Because it is a face-to-face interview technique, a focus group interview enables the researcher to share the place and time with participants to ensure the production of humane, sensitive data that reflect the interest of both parties (Seymour, 2001).
- A focus group interview stimulates people to make their views, perceptions, motives and reasons thereof explicitly known through group interactions (Kitthananan, n.d.). The dialogic nature of focus group interviews, which involves constant communication between self and others, enables the exploration of multiple meanings created by participants as they share their social experiences (Goss, 1996).
- Focus group interviews give participants an opportunity to convey their own meanings and interpretations by reprocessing their behaviours relating to a phenomenon under investigation (Kitthananan, n.d.).
- Focus group interviews generate critical-emancipatory forms of knowledge, developed within the research process by and for its participants (Goss, 1996), thereby empowering the participants (Rabiee, 2004).
- Focus group interviews are flexible and cost-effective methods used for collecting responses of non-random samples of people who fit the selection criteria, such as disabled people (Sofaer, 2002) in a naturalistic setting (Grudens-Schuck, Allen & Larson, 2004).

Focus group interviews complement the interpretivist research design by enabling the production of field texts and co-constructing the meaning of phenomena in a relatively naturalistic environment. However, caution has to be exercised in the handling of the data because purposive sampling and researcher assumptions tend to influence the quality of data analysis in focus group interviews (Smit & Cilliers, 2006). These issues were therefore regarded as contextual issues, as described by Shar and Corley (2006), in this study and were addressed through measures to ensure rigour (trustworthiness), as specified in Section 4.7.1.5.

Theoretical sampling (Kritzing, 1995) is used in focus group interviewing as a guide to determine when to stop the data collection process upon reaching the data saturation point. Corbin and Strauss (2008) indicate that, as a process of generating Grounded Theoretical models, theoretical sampling aims at attaining theoretical saturation by exploring concepts and cumulatively building on previous data collection and analysis to determine the subsequent collection of data. Observing the principles of the interpretivist paradigm indicated in Section 4.3.1, researchers compile theoretical models grounded in data by iteratively collecting data and comparing data sets (Douglas, 2003) using theoretical sampling and constant comparison methods (Bowen, 2008).

Therefore, the sampling of events is continually related to their explanations (Mays & Pope, 1995; Nair *et al.*, 2005). In this study, data were thus collected, analysed and then compared with the emerging concepts so as to make decisions on the subsequent collection of data to attain theoretical saturation. Because it is an iterative process, the sampling procedures for grounded theory are thus not pre-planned (Bitsch, 2005). Consequently, I used theoretical sampling to identify concepts that have some proven theoretical relevance to the emerging theoretical model (see Bowen, 2008) of workplace-effective mobility.

Theoretical sampling first focuses on achieving minimal differences among cases pertaining to the phenomenon being investigated and thereafter focuses on establishing maximum differences (Jones *et al.*, 2005) among them. In order to achieve minimal differences, homogeneous groupings of participants based on the type of disability were interviewed in one session, for example, the blind participants were interviewed as a group, as were the deaf participants. According to Ritchie *et al.* (2005), this approach provides variations of a detailed picture of the phenomenon for comparative purposes. Also, interviewing participants as a homogeneous group assists in a collaborative production of field texts and co-construction of meanings (Smit & Cilliers, 2006), in this case of workplace-effective mobility between the researcher and the participants.

In order to establish maximum differences among them, participants were chosen for variation, based on their biographical data (gender and race) and geography. Such variation created heterogeneity, which maximizes the exploration of different perspectives within a group setting (Kritzinger, 1995). A maximum variation of data sources is also the preferred strategy for interpretivist inquiry (Rambaree, 2008) aimed at ensuring diversity of perspectives (Brown *et al.*, 2002). The variation of data sources fulfils the principle of a multiple case study approach to capture the complexity of the social setting and facilitate comparison of activities across a variety of settings and situations (Alam, 2005). The variation of the data sources also enables the identification of negative cases to test the emerging theoretical model through the data that are collected (Bitsch, 2005).

A maximum of two hours was allocated to each focus group session in order to optimize the use of theoretical sampling principles. According to McLafferty (2004) and Kritzinger (1995), a maximum of two hours is a sufficient duration for focus group interviews, provided that the participants are informed of this beforehand (Rabiee, 2004). In line with

Rabiee's (2004) warning, the electronic correspondence with disability organisations, therefore, the estimated duration for the focus group interviews was mentioned to ensure that the participants would commit such time to the process.

The focus group interviews should ideally be administered in safe, private and accessible venues (Greacen Associates, 2007; Rabiee, 2004). This was especially important for participants with disabilities to optimize their safety and accessibility. The disability organisations were thus asked to assist in identifying accessible venues for the focus group interviews, in order to overcome barriers to accessibility (Harris & Roberts, 2003). At the end of each session, the participants were debriefed by reflecting on their impressions of the sessions, thereby reducing researcher bias.

(c) Cognitive interviewing strategy

Focus group interviews are commonly used in conjunction with cognitive interviews in the health care field (Sofaer, 2002) to enable access to groups such as disabled people, who may not be reached using quantitative techniques (Shah, 2006). Cognitive interviewing focuses on the thoughts, feelings, interpretations and ideas that come to the participant's mind while examining the survey questions. Participants are also asked to suggest alternative wording to increase comprehension, thereby ensuring the appropriateness and comprehensibility of questions (Rosal, Carbone & Goins, 2003). Cognitive interviewing was therefore used in this study as a 'think aloud' technique to gather data pertaining to the interpretations of concepts used by participants, as suggested by Chung and Martin (2005). According to Rosal *et al.* (2003), the 'think aloud' technique enables participants to verbalize all the thoughts they have in response to questions pertaining to the phenomenon, in this case, workplace-effective mobility.

Cognitive interviews are also employed by interviewers using probing techniques to clarify participants' answers as they respond to each item. In addition to clarifying questions and to providing answers to questions by focus group participants, probes are used to optimize responses. Probes are also used to deepen an understanding of and offer an opportunity to gather accurate data (Rosal *et al.*, 2003) from participants. This technique was therefore used to gather deeper and more accurate data on workplace-effective mobility.

According to Sofaer (2002), the cognitive interviewing strategy is used to achieve the following data collection goals:

- to overcome the negative effects of limited participant education on the data collection processes – the fact that 30% of employees with disabilities have limited or no education in South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2005) necessitated the use of cognitive interviewing strategy in this study;
- to enable participants to verbalize their thoughts, feelings, interpretations and ideas as they respond to questions, thereby exploring their personal meanings of mobility phenomenon; and
- to determine whether or not items and response options are understandable and consistently interpreted by focus group participants in the pilot phase. According to Drennan (2003) and Brandt (2004), cognitive interviewing is thus used to pretest questions, thereby identifying problematic questions that may elicit response error among participants with lower literacy levels.

(d) The interview schedule

Preliminary reading of the literature assisted me to identify a tentative list of key issues, which were then used to compile an interview schedule. An interview schedule contains a tentative non-exhaustive list of open-ended questions to be asked (Glaser, 1992) during an interview. It is used to direct the focus group interviews, stimulate dialogue on the

research topic, and to ensure that all the desired information is solicited (McLafferty, 2004).

Therefore, the interview schedule for this study contained open-ended questions (see Annexure C), focusing on the nature of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, enablers of workplace-effective mobility, inhibitors of workplace-effective mobility, the views of participants regarding the differential treatment of the different disabilities by employers in the workplace; and general opinions and experiences regarding the study.

Comments on the interview schedule were requested from QASA project coordinators before the schedule was administered for data collection. A response received indicated that the concept of workplace mobility as originally used in the schedule should be reformulated to '*successful gainful employment and career advancement*' (P1: ANNEXURE A Doctorate research instrument.txt – 1:1, 52:53). After obtaining comments from the disability project coordinators, the interview schedule was piloted on a purposive sample of 15 participants with physical disabilities in two provinces, namely Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. Table 4.2 indicates the number of pilot participants involved by race, gender, type of disability and province.

The purpose of piloting the interview schedule was three-fold – to determine the understanding of the terminology by participants, to ascertain the length of time required to obtain rich and meaningful data, and to refine the questions used in interview guide.

Table 4.2: Number of participants in the pilot phase by race and gender

Province	Race and Gender								
	African		Coloured		Indian		White		Disability
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Gauteng	4	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	Physical

Province	Race and Gender								
	African		Coloured		Indian		White		Disability
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
KwaZulu-Natal	4	2	-	-	-	-	2	-	Physical
Total	8	5	-	-	-	-	2	-	15

(e) The researcher

I envisaged using research assistants for data collection. Research assistants should have '*excellent communications skills, possibly a graduate with psychology and ... [have] conducted interviews before*' (P9: Re PhD studiesScanned.txt – 9:1, 60:65). I also contacted Deloitte (a human capital consulting firm) requesting permission to use the system of targeted selection (P7: RE Permission to use Targeted Selection Training for Research PurposesScanned.txt – 7:2, 30:33) to train the identified research assistants on sound principles of interviewing.

Such permission was granted, but I abandoned the plan in the best interests of what Goulding (1999) refers to as symbolic interactionism, which is explained in Section 4.3.2 as the interactions between the researcher and participants intended to create meaning about the phenomenon. Therefore, I was actively involved in the data collection process, as suggested by Finch & Lewis (2005), by playing the following roles:

- I was an integral part of the research process, as recommended by Brown *et al.* (2002). Thus, in line with Daengbuppha *et al.*'s (2006) strategy, I personally conducted the focus group interviews and generated the field notes. The personal involvement of a researcher enables rigorous data-gathering on the multiple interpretations of participants who experience the phenomenon first-hand in order to construct systematic and informed meaning of the phenomenon (Shar & Corley, 2006).

- I created space for participants with disabilities to make a contribution. Where necessary, I encouraged participants to provide input in the discussions. According to Kitthananan (n.d.), the researcher should create a supportive environment by encouraging discussion and expression of differing opinions.
- I addressed the potential problem of dominant participants by requesting them to be patient and receptive to others' opinions.
- I could draw out silent and reticent participants by maintaining eye contact and encouraging them to speak up. In order to optimize the discussions, I made procedural suggestions, such as 'let us give each other a chance'.
- During the data collection and analysis, I critiqued the data, analysed the multiple meanings and assumptions of participants, as well as compared the responses from different sessions to establish a pattern.
- Because of the emancipatory nature of the study, I also produced knowledge in the form of criteria of workplace-effective mobility in order to influence changes in workplace practices. Furthermore, I provided pertinent information and answered any urgent questions raised by participants.

(f) Role of the moderator

In this study, the moderators were people who were personally known to the participants. They gave neutral responses during the discussions (McLafferty, 2004) based on their experiences of working with employees and people with disabilities. In the focus group interviews with the participants, moderators were therefore involved because of their sensitivity to the issues and to ensure methodological rigour (McLafferty, 2004).

(g) Data-recording instruments

Based on the principles of theoretical sampling, I used multiple methods of audio, video recording and field notes to generate rich data and to pursue data saturation. Therefore, in order to produce credible data, I personally recorded the focus group interview sessions using these multiple instruments with the informed consent of participants. Audiotaping of each interview session generates a considerable amount of data, thereby enabling a specific focus on the particular words used by the respondents or the hermeneutics (Douglas, 2003). For these purposes, a Marantz PMD 670 recorder was used to audiotape the focus group interviews.

The Marantz PMD670 is a solid state recorder designed to record meetings and interviews. It has numerous sophisticated good quality recording features, is built for reliability and allows for rapid digital transfer of recordings to computer via USB or removable CF card (Stockdale, 2003). To enable the rich context analysis of data, non-verbal cues from participants were recorded using a Sony video-recorder and I also took field notes as a back-up, as recommended by McLafferty (2004) and Rabiee (2004).

The transcripts from the audio and video tapes were used to achieve the following data collection goals set out by Arthur and Nazroo (2005) and Glaser (1992):

- identify gaps in the interview process and make further data collection decisions towards reaching a theoretical saturation of the data;
- interpret participants' emotions in the study through an analysis of their voice tones and the emphasis they provided; and
- iteratively identify and address data gaps, thereby ensuring the comprehensiveness of the data collected and the quality required for compiling the theoretical model.

4.7.1.4 **Data analysis**

The qualitative data analysis process depends on three issues (Baptiste, 2001). Firstly, the philosophical assumptions made in the study pertaining to dialogue necessitate that a narrative or discourse analysis of data be performed to attain a deeper or broader understanding by developing theoretical models (Baptiste, 2001) of the phenomenon.

Secondly, qualitative data analysis depends on the resources available to the researcher to manage the data (Baptiste, 2001). In view of this, because of the vast quantity of the data I collected, I used qualitative data analysis software (QDAS) to manage the data and to create an audit trail of the analysis, as recommended by Maclaran and Catterall (2002). According to Brown *et al.* (2002), when there is a lot of qualitative data, the large body of data necessitates the use of computer software for data analysis by coding data and presenting a visual model of data based on emerging categories. I therefore coded and categorized data to develop themes that feature the words and experiences of the participants themselves (see Krauss, 2005), so as to develop a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility.

Because they vary in nature and applicability, I compared the available qualitative data analysis software on the basis of their data analysis utility and ability to build theoretical models. According to Miles and Weitzman (1994), theory-building software offers the following advantages:

- their code-retrieval functionalities allow a researcher to make connections between codes;
- they enable the development of higher-order classifications and categories, thereby enabling the formulation of propositions or assertions that fit the data; and
- they can be used for data coding, memo writing, data linking, data search and retrieval.

I compared the Atlas.ti with Nvivo. On the basis of my comparison, I chose Atlas.ti for its theory-building capacity, flexibility of use and user-friendliness. According to Lewis (2004), Atlas.ti offers the advantage of being more versatile than Nvivo. Lewis (2004) also indicates that, compared to Nvivo, Atlas.ti is a good choice to analyse the interview and other text-based research data by importing, displaying, coding and analysing a wide range of qualitative data types.

Atlas.ti was also chosen as a computer-aided data analysis method for its efficient data management, ability to index and retrieve data through codes, build a picture of the relations between data, identify themes by asking questions of the data, and identify linkages in the data (Maclaran & Catterall, 2002). It is thus a strong tool for network displays and very user-friendly (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

However, I faced a challenge, in that I was not competent to use the software. Because data analysis depends on a researcher's knowledge and skill (Baptiste, 2001), unless such a lack of knowledge and skill is addressed, it can have a negative influence on the trustworthiness of the study findings. Therefore, to ensure the required competence in its application, I attended a course on Atlas.ti, focusing on how to gainfully use the software. This course was arranged through and attended at the Research Unit of the University of Pretoria. In my feedback to the trainer, I indicated that '*attending the course offered me an opportunity to revise my methodology chapter for comprehensiveness*' (P16: RE Re Atlas Ti training Scanned ScannedM2.txt – 16:2, 157:158).

Lastly, qualitative data analysis depends on data analysis strategies and tactics (Baptiste, 2001). The strategies I used to analyse the data collected in this qualitative phase of the study included the interplay of inductive-deductive strategies, the constant comparison method, synthesis and creativity. The interplay of inductive-deductive strategies was used to analyse data (Merriam, 1998) in order to compile a

theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility. According to McGhee *et al.* (2007), Grounded Theory design uses inductive-deductive strategies to derive ideas inductively and test them deductively against the data. However, these strategies are explained separately to illustrate their value in the qualitative data analysis process.

(i) Data analysis strategies

Various techniques were applied, as discussed below.

(a) Inductive analysis

Inductive analysis is a theory-building process (Hyde, 2000) that starts with observations of specific instances and seeks to establish a theoretical generalisation (Andrade, 2009) about the phenomenon under investigation. An inductive analysis strategy was thus used in this study to draw inferences about the units of analysis in order to categorize the data and identify their relationships (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001) as they emerge.

Drawing inferences from the data requires that one is immersed in the data (Rabiee, 2004; Walter & Emery, 2005). Therefore, I chose to transcribe the tapes personally so as to immerse myself into and become familiar with the data, so that accurate inferences could be drawn from them. Because the researcher immerses him- or herself in the data, there is some potential for losing valuable information due to preconceptions. In order to safeguard against the loss of valuable information due to personal biases (McMillan & Schumacher, 2000), I constantly read and re-read the collected data to establish codes or themes.

Because the research context or setting is important, an inductive strategy was used (Gibbs, 2007) to generate and interpret the meanings

that the participants attach to the phenomenon of workplace-effective mobility, as expressed in their responses, in the context of their workplace or residence.

(b) Deductive analysis

Because the study focuses both on the discovery of data patterns pertaining to workplace-effective mobility and on the confirmation of criteria that emerged, both inductive and deductive strategies were adopted, in line with Hyde (2000). In this instance, the deductive reasoning strategy was used to explain and compare the findings of the qualitative phase with the existing literature (Gibbs, 2007) in order to achieve the external validity (Andrade, 2009) of the study findings. The theoretical model developed on workplace-effective mobility and the relationships identified between categories of data were also tested for validity against empirical data, as defined by Olsen (2004), because the use of deductive strategies in qualitative research enhances the acceptability of the research findings (Hyde, 2000).

(c) Constant comparison

The data are analysed using the constant comparison method, which enables the determination of relationships between data categories by subsuming emerging categories into a core category of data, explaining the differences in data and developing hypotheses about them (Bitsch, 2005). As the emerging themes need to be grounded in the data, the constant comparison method requires reflexivity from the researcher (McGhee *et al.*, 2007) to promote the rigour of the findings (Northway, 2000). Reflexivity implies that the researcher should systematically analyse the study assumptions against other researchers' definitions and understandings (Lynch, 1999) of a phenomenon.

The use of constant comparison is an important feature of Grounded Theory research. In this study, the constant comparison method was used to compare data and concepts derived across focus group sessions with one another in order to ground the findings in the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Based on the process suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967), the constant comparison method was used in four stages: open coding, axial coding, selective coding and literature comparisons.

Stage One of the qualitative data analysis involved open coding of the data. Prior to coding the data, I familiarized myself with each conversation by searching for individual perspectives and nuances in the language, as described by Daengbuppha *et al.* (2006). Following the advice of Archer (2008), Walter and Emery (2005) and Rabiee (2004), I then transcribed the focus group interview tapes into Microsoft Word documents and reviewed the field notes. I also edited the data for grammar and spelling, and converted participants' names into pseudonyms where applicable. The participants' biographical information was also included to provide contextual data in the study. Furthermore, I converted the edited Word documents into plain text to be compatible with Atlas.ti before I transferred it.

Thereafter, I developed open codes (Bitsch, 2005) or data labels (Brown, *et al.*, 2002) by breaking the data down into segments or incidents found in the participants' responses. The data segments from one focus group interview session were then compared with those from other sessions (Shannak & Aldhmour, 2009) in order to conceptualize and categorize data (Brown *et al.*, 2002) to achieve data saturation. From the results of the first set of focus group interviews, core categories began to emerge (Jones *et al.*, 2005) highlighting affirmative action measures, workplace accessibility, competence, self-motivation, social support and positive self-concept as enablers of workplace-effective mobility.

In Stage Two, the open codes were analysed for relationships and concepts, as recommended by Shannak and Aldhmour (2009), using axial coding and the paradigm model to explore linkages in the data, in line with Pandit (1996). The paradigm model is a technique of axial coding which proposes linkages and looks to data for validation of the core category, context, action/interaction and consequences (Rabiee, 2004). Once it became obvious that the emerging core categories reflected workplace equity (including social support), self-motivation and workplace accessibility, subsequent focus group interviews were increasingly focused on these core categories.

These subsequent focus group interviews therefore focused on testing these core categories for completeness and on the integration of data categories with their properties to form a unified whole, as proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Theoretical coding was done once the core categories were saturated (see Jones *et al.*, 2005). In accordance with Grounded Theory methodology, using the participants' own language at all levels of coding can further ground the emerging theoretical model in the data, thereby adding to the credibility of the findings (Chiovitti & Piran, 2003). The concepts, theories or models are thus developed from the socially constructed knowledge of the participants (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006).

Stage Three of the selective coding involves delimiting the findings by reducing the number of categories and their properties into smaller sets of concepts (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Therefore, categories and subcategories are integrated with a central concept in order to provide sufficient detail and density (Bitsch, 2005), in this case, in the emerging theoretical model on workplace-effective mobility. Selective codes are then classified into context, conditions, actions, interactions and outcomes (Douglas, 2003). When the data were gathered by more focused collection, categories began to become saturated, at which point, the data collection could stop. Thereafter, the data were

reassembled into a basic social process describing the situation (see Jones *et al.*, 2005) that employees with disabilities experience when they engage in workplace-effective mobility behaviours.

Some constant features of data coding are memoing, data charting and mapping. Therefore, three types of memos were written in this study. I wrote code (commentary) memos to provide conceptual labels for the data; theoretical memos to explain the paradigm features and the research process, thereby providing greater depth of understanding of the properties of the focal core concept, as recommended by Douglas (2003); and operational (method-related) memos to explain the directions of the evolving research design (see Pandit, 1996). The data were charted and mapped on the Atlas.ti software program as networks representing emergent concepts and relationships between quotes, thereby enabling the compilation (Rabiee, 2004) of a Grounded Theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility. I then produced a Compact Disc (CD) on the data analysis process. The CD was submitted with the thesis for examination and was destroyed thereafter to protect the confidentiality of participants,

Finally, the themes I had identified were compared with the existing literature for differences and similarities (see Pandit, 1996) in preparation for the development of a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility, in line with Durant-Law (2005). As indicated above, the comparison of the themes with the existing literature is made after theoretical data saturation has been achieved (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006). Although the place of a literature review in Grounded Theory is controversial, evidence suggests that, in Grounded Theory, the literature may be used to identify gaps in knowledge and to improve the openness of the study to data collection, coding and writing (Giske & Artinian, 2007). Drawing on McGhee *et al.* (2007), an initial review of the literature was therefore conducted prior to the data collection in order to stimulate theoretical sensitivity, determine questions for the interview schedule,

guide theoretical sampling and provide supplementary validity to the findings. A review of the existing literature thus assisted me in developing my knowledge and identifying the boundaries of previous research, thereby focusing the research and justifying the formulation of the research problem, as described by Williams (1998).

The second review of literature was conducted after the data analysis to compare my results with the literature. According to Verma (2003), the comparison of emergent concepts with the existing literature is mandatory for building theory from data. The use of a Grounded Theory design should not be used as an excuse to ignore the literature (Shar & Corley, 2006).

(d) Interpretive and reflexive analysis

In this qualitative phase of the study, the interpretive and reflexive strategies of data analysis were also used. The interpretive strategy was used to interpret the participant's responses and the subjective meanings they attached to workplace-effective mobility. The reflexive strategy (Welsh, 2002) on Atlas.ti was used to analyse the data.

(e) Synthesis

According to Hofnie-//Hoëbes (2005), synthesis refers to putting together elements or parts of the data to construct a new meaning or pattern which was not previously recognised, in an effort to generate theory. Synthesis, interpretive and reflexive analysis were used interchangeably in this study to identify dimensions and indicators of workplace-effective mobility and construct these into a new meaning towards the compilation of a theoretical model. I also synthesised the results of the focus group interviews with those of the Delphi process in this study to compile a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility.

(f) Creativity

Creativity was used in the qualitative phase to name categories and identify relationships among these categories and their properties. The use of creativity in this manner yields insights into the data that has been collected (Douglas, 2003) and thus enables the development of a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility. Analysis of data using the constant comparison method is thus a creative process (Bing, 2007) which progresses until theoretical saturation is reached, that is, when no new insights are obtained, no new themes are identified and no issues arise on a category of data (Bowen, 2008).

4.7.1.5. Measures to ensure trustworthiness

As indicated in Section 1.8.5, there are some criteria available to judge the trustworthiness or conceptual soundness of a study (Bitsch, 2005; Brown *et al.*, 2002). These criteria are credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability. The sections below explain how these criteria were observed in the study.

(i) Credibility

Credibility relates to the internal validity of a study (Merriam, 1998). It is achieved by establishing patterns in the data and their possible relationships in order to develop plausible explanations (Andrade, 2009) of the phenomenon, in this case, of workplace-effective mobility. Before these patterns in the data were established, tapes were transcribed and sent to participants for verification, thereby ensuring the accuracy of data prior to their analysis. This process of sending transcripts to participants for verification is called a member check (Bitsch, 2005).

Furthermore, credibility was achieved by collecting and analysing the data, and comparing them to emerging categories until no new

categories emerged. According to Andrade (2009), the process of collecting data until no new categories emerge is called theoretical saturation or sufficiency. Drawing on Verma (2003), credibility was also achieved by using multiple sources of evidence, for example, four disability groups in four provinces.

The process of exploring data from multiple and different sources or research sites is called data triangulation (Brown *et al.*, 2002). Data triangulation is necessary to enhance the validity of the data (Holliday, 2002). The sequential mixed method design of the study and the use of multiple sites (different provinces) for data collection are examples of triangulation aimed at ensuring credibility. According to Sheldon (2003), site triangulation is necessary to reduce the effect of particular local factors. Sequential mixed methods provide cross-data checks (Schur *et al.*, 2005), thereby ensuring credibility and a diverse construction of realities (Gofalshani, 2003).

Because computers are less concerned with emotional experiences and more with structure (Goulding, 1999), the use of Atlas.ti as a tool for data analysis can further assist in ensuring the credibility of research findings (Welsh, 2002).

(ii) Transferability

Transferability relates to external validity (Rolfe, 2006) or generalizability of the findings to other settings (Bitsch, 2005). It was enhanced in this study through purposive sampling and thick descriptions of the research process, participants, methodology, findings and emerging theory (Brown *et al.*, 2002). Thick description gives the context of an experience, states the intentions and meanings that organised the experience and reveals the experiences as a process of knowledge construction (Holliday, 2002).

According to Hartley and Muhit (2003), because the social aspects of disability have been ignored and under-investigated in a quantitative research regime, the collection of context specific knowledge enhances the transferability of qualitative research. The findings of this study phase were also compared with the existing literature in order to achieve theoretical generalisations, as suggested by Andrade (2009), or the transferability of the findings.

(iii) Dependability

Dependability is similar to reliability and focuses on the stability of findings over time (Bitsch, 2005; Roberts *et al.*, 2006). However, this kind of study does not aim to produce consistent results but to present a chain of evidence, which contributes to the trustworthiness of findings, thereby producing the kind of trusted findings that are meaningful to the reader (Andrade, 2009). The presentation of a chain of evidence ensures that the data collection process is consistent (Endacott, 2004) and the findings are trustworthy (Stiles, 1993).

In order to ensure the dependability of the research process (Bowen, 2008), I provided clear descriptions of the data and theoretical saturation in the findings section of the study. Based on Roberts *et al.*'s (2006) logic, the dependability of the findings was also enhanced by recording the non-verbal cues using a video recorder and engaging with the data intensively (for approximately eleven months) to find links between the interpretations and the data.

Dependability was further optimized in the study through the employment of the services of an inquiry auditor (see Brown *et al.*, 2002). For this purpose, Professor Connie Moloi was involved as a research auditor because of her extensive postgraduate supervision experience and knowledge of qualitative research designs. According to Roberts *et al.*

(2006), dependability is aimed at achieving inter-rater reliability between the findings and the analyses.

(iv) Confirmability

Confirmability parallels objectivity in presenting the findings (Rolfe, 2006) and was achieved in this study by acknowledging the underlying meta-theoretical assumptions and my personal involvement with the participants, as Bitsch (2005) suggests. I also maintained an interactive engagement with the participants and the data, thereby achieving higher levels of accuracy and consensus by continually revisiting facts, feelings, experiences, values and beliefs collected and interpreted (Cho & Trent, 2006). Ultimately, an audit trail of the raw data, the research process and verbatim transcripts should be kept (Brown *et al.*, 2002), and in this study, all this material was written to CD.

4.7.1.6. Ethical measures

It is essential for a study such as this to observe ethical considerations, because it involves vulnerable participants who are often subject to research exploitation (Lutabingwa & Nethonzhe, 2006). Therefore, the ethical measures taken to safeguard the rights of participants with disabilities are presented in this section.

(i) Acknowledgements

The efforts of consenting gatekeepers were acknowledged during the focus group interview sessions with participants as follows: '*I wish to express my heartfelt gratitude to the project coordinator who made the necessary arrangements for this interview. I wish to take this opportunity to also thank you very much for your participation in the study on a Saturday*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:5, 37:41). Acknowledging participants in this manner furthers

the ethical principle of respect for persons and community espoused by McQueen (2008).

(ii) Aligning processes

In order to ensure minimal disruption to the business commitments of participants, the focus group interviews were scheduled to minimize interference with the group members' daily activities. Section 4.7.1.1(b) indicates the need to align research processes and the daily life of participants. Such alignment ensures compatibility between research activities and normal operations, minimizing disruptions in the daily lives of participants (Stiffman *et al.*, 2005).

(iii) Anonymity

Participants' identities were kept anonymous. Where names were disclosed, they were converted into pseudonyms. Therefore, I advised participants as follows: '*[B]ecause participation in the study is anonymous, should you mention your names, they will be changed to pseudonyms in order to protect your identity*' (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:2, 12:14). Ethical conduct in the study thus included protecting the anonymity and privacy rights of the participants by not recording their names during the data collection or by changing these to pseudonyms when the names were in fact provided by participants, as suggested by Huysamen (1994) and Roberts *et al.* (2001).

(iv) Avoiding harm to participants

Although no harm was intended, one blind participant clearly experienced some intense emotion. In relating his story, there was a pause, followed by a rushed emotional statement: '*...that is the story for me [in a rush]. [Interviewer is silent for a while]*' (P1: Free State – Focus Group

with the Blind 12 2008.txt – 1:22, 62:64). I empathized by remaining silent for a while and listening with concern and compassion. This strategy is aligned with the need for empathy (Watts, 2008), and listening with concern and compassion (Ritchie & Lewis, 2005) when participants become emotional.

(v) Confidentiality

The nature of the study implies that a lot of private and confidential information would be collected from participants. Accordingly, they were assured of their right to confidentiality (see Kellett & Nind, 2001), pointing out, however, that my promoters might need to look at the data for verification purposes, but that all records would be destroyed in the end. According to Roberts *et al.* (2001), this conditional assurance of confidentiality is required in circumstances where the confidentiality of research data may not be fully protected. Such a conditional confidentiality assurance was provided as follows: *'[T]he documents that will be generated through the tape transcriptions will be kept confidential until the report has been accepted and passed. At that stage, such documents will be destroyed to protect your rights as participants. However, please note that my promoters may need to verify some facts regarding the study and they may need to access these documents'* (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:5, 22:27).

(vi) Empowerment

During the focus group interviews, I supplied information to participants which stimulated the discussions and provided them with knowledge of the subject matter, thereby empowering them (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:67, 295:301). As participants asked several questions or made certain remarks about matters which needed clarification, I responded to these questions and remarks so as to empower them (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt –

8:117, 511:516), for example, one participant asked: *'Why are deaf people of interest in the working environment?'* (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 8:114, 502:503). The empowerment ethic corroborates the argument by Barnes and Mercer (1997) that researchers should place their skills and knowledge at the disposal of those being researched. As a result of these empowering interventions, a participant expressed thanks for my *'patience and the interesting discussions. First time it happens that someone came to conduct research on the deaf culture or life or business. I have learnt a lot and I hope you will be successful with your research'* (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 8:156, 713:716).

(vii) Ethical clearance for the study

The ethical clearance for the study was granted in November 2006 after a pilot phase had already been conducted. Between the pilot and main study phases, I made enquiries regarding the ethical clearance for the study with the University of Pretoria's officials. I got feedback that *'the title registration was lost by the ethical committee, but they found it'* (P5: RE Fwd Re PhD – progressScannedM1.txt – 5:1, 24:25). When the clearance was granted, I shared this information with the disability organisations: *'Finally, my study's ethical clearance has been provided by the University of Pretoria, where I am registered'* (P13: Re Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned4.txt – 13:3, 59:60).

The importance of ethical clearance for the study lies in ensuring respect for the participants (Rab *et al.*, 2008) and enhancing the public trust of participants and respect for their communities in the research process (McQueen, 2008). Therefore, it was necessary to have ethical clearance for this study.

(viii) Inclusivity

In order to minimize the potential for exclusion bias, all the disability organisations identified on the Internet were invited to participate in the study in writing, and without coercion or prejudice, in line with Roberts *et al.*'s (2001) stance. These organisations were also requested to provide information on other organisations that could be invited to participate in the study. The following response was received from one of them: '*[W]e are situated in the Free State, and will be able to assist in this Province. If you want assistance in other provinces as well, we can help you with the contact details of the relevant people. I will even speak to them before you contact them if you so request*' (P11: Scanned.txt – 11:8, 15:18).

(ix) Reciprocity

In order to reciprocate their efforts and inputs into the research process, I promised the participants copies of the final research report, in line with Huysamen (1994) and Roberts *et al.* (2001), through their disability organisations, as follows: '*At the end, you will receive a copy of the report for your information, via the project coordinator's office*' (P2: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 2:59, 220:221).

(x) Reflexivity

As the discussions on the research topic proceeded, I realized that the delimitation of the research was slightly flawed. I therefore acknowledged these limitations and shared them with the participants as follows: '*I must admit my own limitations; when I chose the topic, of course, I did not know the different manifestations of physical disabilities until I interviewed participants with physical disabilities ...*' (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:128, 670:680). By doing this, I was adhering to reflexivity as an ethical value of objectivity and ideology (Lutabingwa & Nethonzhe, 2006).

(xi) Refreshments

The NID, APD (Chatsworth), the retail store and QASA (Ashley) provided their own refreshments, but I offered refreshments (see Huysamen, 1994; Roberts *et al.*, 2001) to the participants from QASA (Shangri-La), the Blind and APD (Bloemfontein, Free State). For instance, at the end of focus group interviews with the latter participants, I said: *'I invite all of you to a lunch in this coffee shop, on my account. It is not buying your information, but [this] is a token of appreciation for the time sacrifice you have made to be here with me today'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:107,507:509).

(xii) Reimbursement of costs

I acknowledged that participants might have incurred travel costs to the focus group interview sessions and promised to reimburse such costs: *'I realise that you had to travel at your own costs, and I undertake to reimburse your travel costs at a rate that you and I may agree upon'* (P3: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 3:8, 41:44). In fulfilling this promise, I asked participants how much would be reasonable to reimburse them. This statement provoked some controversy until a participant appealed for reason. He said: *'No, please do not try to make money out of our brother. Remember, he is the one paying for this and not the university. I propose that he rewards us according to what he can afford. We are not here to make money but to assist our course as well...'* (P3: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 3:90, 322:331). The reimbursement of participants' costs was thus not used as a coercive measure (McQueen, 2008) but to compensate participants for their time, effort and inconvenience (Roberts *et al.*, 2001).

(xiii) Respect for participants

Drawing on McQueen's (2008) principles of respect for persons and the community, I offered my apologies for coming late to the Ashley participants as follows: *'I have to profusely apologise for being two hours late. I lost my directions getting here and the 2010 road works have also seriously delayed the traffic. I tried calling the number I was given to inform you of my possible lateness, but there was no response. I hope you would still be willing to participate in the research I am conducting'* (P8: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 8:2, 12:17).

(xiv) Voluntarism and informed consent

Because the study involves employees with disabilities, informed consent and voluntary participation were upheld. In upholding these ethical values, I disclosed information pertaining to the research goals and the uses of collected data, as recommended by Roberts *et al.* (2001). Therefore, I mentioned to participants that *'the study is about identifying indicators that will be developed into criteria, which employers can use to select suitably qualified employees with disabilities'* (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 8:4, 34:36).

I also indicated to those that I saw during the pilot phase that it was *'my second visit here with a view to collect information on workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Some of you may recall that I was here in 2006 and the reason I came back is that my topic has been amended based on the inputs I received back then'* (P8: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 8:4, 23:26).

Furthermore, participants were assured of their right to withdraw from the study, thereby adhering to the value of voluntarism (Kitthananan, n.d.). In this regard, I said to participants that *'participation is also voluntary and should you feel uncomfortable in the process of discussing this topic, you*

are most welcome to withdraw your participation without negative consequences to you' (P4: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 4:37, 156:158). Disclosure of information therefore enhanced voluntary participation in the study, as participants were able to provide informed consent thereto. In addition, to provide relevant information about the study, participants were also informed about the use of recording devices during data collection. I therefore mentioned this to participants and sought their views thereon as follows: *'I must just warn you that I am video-recording the meeting and I would like your permission to do that. There is also a tape recorder which I will use to listen to the discussions at a later stage. Is this all right with you?'* Interpreter: [After interpreting] *'It is OK.'* (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 8:3, 26:32).

It was not my intention to reduce informed consent to legal documentation (McQueen, 2008) but to safeguard the human rights of participants in the study. For this purpose, I compiled consent forms and memoranda of understanding and circulated these to disability organisations as part of the access negotiation process. When circulating these documents, I indicated that they were intended *'to protect your rights as participants and ... to enable ... authorization of the interviews'* (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 8:3, 26:32). During the focus group interviews with participants, I also requested their consent verbally (see Greacen Associates, 2007), especially on the use of recording instruments.

The positive effects of observing these ethical measures were evident in the willingness by participants to share their stories. Despite my late arrival, an Ashley participant jokingly responded: *'We were thinking that in Gauteng you do not stick to time; but you are welcome to our village. Anyhow, the number you have called belongs to our neighbour and everyone that tries to reach us defaults there. We got a message of your coming and we are happy to participate in your study if our inputs will*

add any value at all. We read most about your research from your correspondence with our National Director' (P8: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 8:8, 34:39).

4.7.2 Phase 2: Confirmation of the identified criteria using the Delphi technique

The Delphi technique was used in this study to confirm the criteria on workplace-effective mobility which were identified through the focus group interviews in the previous phase. The Delphi technique is defined as an iterative process of collecting and distilling expert judgements (Keeney, Hasson & McKenna, 2001) through a series of questionnaires interspersed with feedback (Skulmoski, Hartman & Krahn, 2007) to achieve consensus. It offers the following advantages in a research process (Skulmoski *et al.*, 2007):

- anonymity, which encourages participants to express opinions freely, without pressure to conform to the views of the group;
- iteration, which allows participants to change their views as the data collection progresses from one round to the next;
- controlled feedback, which provides an opportunity for Delphi participants to clarify or change their views; and
- statistical aggregation, which allows for a quantitative analysis and the interpretation of data.

There is some controversy in the literature regarding the underlying philosophy of the Delphi technique. This disagreement is attributable to its cross-paradigm use. Delphi techniques tend to favour the positivist paradigm of a single reality for consensus-building, and an objective and uninvolved position for the researcher (Hanafin, 2004). These techniques are, however, also amenable to qualitative, interpretivist studies aimed at interpreting and understanding the phenomenon under investigation (Skulmoski *et al.*, 2007) through consensus among experts (Cegielski, Reithel & Rebman, 2004).

In this study, the Delphi technique was used as a mixed method design to interpret the qualitative responses and quantitative Likert scale responses of experts. According to Hanafin (2004), the use of descriptive statistics, in other words, frequency distributions and experts' ranking of research issues, represents a quantitative paradigm. By contrast, making sense of expert qualitative inputs reflects a qualitative paradigm. It is thus a method that supports interpretivist studies by developing an agreed view or shared interpretation of an emerging topic from a group of experts (Day & Bobeva, 2005). Its interpretivist character is evident in the opportunity that it offers participants to process group opinions and change their positions towards consensus in relation to the feedback they receive through the iteration of rounds.

The classic confirmatory Delphi technique was thus used iteratively to distribute a predetermined list of criteria to a panel for their evaluation and consensus. It is classic because it provides a statistical group response (Hanafin, 2004) aimed at consensus-building on identified criteria of workplace-effective mobility. Because experts are required to confirm a pre-determined list of criteria (from focus group interviews), the Delphi process used was confirmatory (Day & Bobeva, 2005). Therefore, I did not use an exploratory Delphi process, which seeks views through open-ended questions (Day *et al.*, 2005). The use of the Delphi technique in this manner is popular and has been effectively used in disability studies aimed at the development of criteria by involving experts (Elwyn *et al.*, 2006).

The term 'expert' is subjective and requires an explanation of what it means in some measurable terms in a given study (Cegielski *et al.*, 2004). According to Cegielski *et al.* (2004), experts in Delphi studies are typically defined by using criteria such as years of professional experience, a job or position title, level of education and professional certifications. Therefore, I defined an 'expert' for this study on the basis of professional certification, namely as industrial and organisational

psychologists, because the well-informed judges in the field of criterion development are work and organisational psychologists (Altink *et al.*, 1997).

Operationally, the application of the Delphi method involves three steps:

- Step 1: the selection of expert panellists;
- Step 2: the collection of topic-relevant issues; and
- Step 3: the ranking of reported issues.

These three steps in the Delphi method are explained in the sections on population and sampling, data collection and analysis, respectively.

4.7.2.1. Sampling

The first step in conducting the Delphi study was to identify a group of informed individuals or experts (Keeney *et al.*, 2001) in the area of selection and placement. Because it uses experts, the Delphi method does not require random samples, but uses a purposive sample. Sampling was thus mainly done through referrals, and was thus purposive. One participant informed me of another possible participant: *'If you are still looking for participants, G... F... indicated his availability to participate in the Delphi group as well'* (P10: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned2.txt – 10:5, 143:144). Another participant wrote: *'OK, I can certainly refer you to several very experienced psychologists, who are intimate with disability; some of them being PWD's [people with disabilities] themselves'* (P21: RE Disability ConsultantScanned.txt – 21:1, 8:10). Yet another thought that he should first participate and see who else to refer me to for participation. He said: *'Once I have started my participation, I will be in a better position to identify/suggest relevant industrial psychologists that could be approached'* (P35: RE Invitation to participate in a Doctoral Study Scanned1.txt – 35:2, 11:13).

To ensure effective purposive sampling, therefore, criteria were set pertaining to participants' backgrounds in and experiences of the target

issue, their capabilities to contribute and their willingness to revise their initial or previous judgements towards attaining consensus (Hsu & Sandford, 2007). The participants thus had to meet the following criteria: *'At least five years of experience/practice focusing on people living with disabilities; At least five or more years of registration with the HPCSA; No disciplinary records against them; Conducting research in the disability area; A mixture of gender, race and area (locality); At least have doctoral degree as a qualification; and Those with an e-mail connection as the contact will be made electronically'* (P46: RE Request for databaseScanned.txt – 46:3, 35:48). According to Day and Bobeva (2005) and Skulmoski *et al.* (2007), the selection of experts should be based on the following criteria:

- knowledge and experience with employee selection processes;
- capacity and motivation to engage with the inquiry process (Hatcher & Colton, 2002) – the Delphi panel of experts was thus selected for their expertise;
- sufficient time to participate in the envisaged rounds of e-mail data collection; and
- the ability to articulate judgments (Guion, 1961) – the panel of industrial and organisational psychologists made value judgements on whether the criteria identified were representative of workplace-effective mobility and which criteria are more important in the study, avoiding the potential errors of a single expert judgement (Pretorius, 1996).

Industrial and organisational psychologists were thus recruited to the study because of their experience in organisational and workplace issues, the assessment of employee behaviour and the valuable inputs they could make in the process of confirming criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Therefore, they are deemed to share a common interpretivist paradigm of the study, namely studying employees with disabilities in their natural setting. Because clinical and counselling psychologists tend to use a clinical or medical perspective in managing disability, they were not used.

However, on the basis of these criteria, one participant indicated that he or she was disqualified because he or she did not have the experience sought for participation (P44: RE PhD StudiesScanned.txt – 44:1, 8:12). Another participant thought that the referral was misunderstood because she is an educational psychologist (P18: Participation in Doctoral study Scanned.txt – 18:1, 8:9). Despite feeling excluded from the study, yet another participant indicated: *‘I would be happy to continue the dialogue if you think it would be useful, but regarding your need for psychologists, perhaps you need to communicate directly with L...’* (P21: RE Disability ConsultantScanned.txt – 21:2, 69:72).

(i) Negotiating access to participants

Negotiating access involved several strategies, such as requests for databases, telephonic discussions, website searches, discussions with consulting firms, personalized invitations, and reminder e-mails.

Request for databases:

Electronic contacts were made with the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) requesting a database of registered industrial psychologists in the country: *‘I understand that you may not be keeping a database of practitioner’s practice. Would it be possible to assist with a database of practising Industrial Psychologists? Would it also be possible for HPCSA to assist with a placement of a call for interest, through which I could be able to solicit participants?’* (P47: RE Request for databaseScanned1.txt – 47:3, 38:43). Regrettably, the HPCSA could not assist for the following reasons: *‘...regretfully the HPCSA is unable to assist with the requested information as we do not have access to information i.r.o the Practitioner’s Practice/employment & Research participation Details’* (P47: RE Request for databaseScanned1.txt – 47:2, 58:61). Referrals were, however, made to other possible sources of information in this regard: *‘...as mentioned before we do not record the Practice Details of*

the Practitioners. For information i.r.o practitioners in Private Practice – contact the Board of Healthcare Funders (BHF), Tel: (011) 537 0200 or email: stats@bhfglobal.com / bhf@bhfglobal.com For Information i.r.o Practitioners in Government institutions – contact The Dept of Health, Tel: (012) 312 0000 or website: www.doh.gov.za (P47: RE Request for databaseScanned1.txt – 47:1, 8:18)

I further solicited information from the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychologists of South Africa (SIOPSA), which yielded no results because the society did not respond.

Website searches:

Failing to obtain access to the databases of registered industrial psychologists, I conducted website searches for the same information. The searches yielded some results; and I corresponded electronically with identified potential candidates: *‘I have found your details on the website and have identified several names in your company of Industrial Psychologists who could levy vital inputs to the study’* (P36: RE Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned 7.txt –36:1, 122:124).

Telephonic conversations:

In other cases, I telephonically extended invitations for participation to those industrial psychologists referred to me: *‘we telephonically discussed (as referred by T... M...) a possibility of involving your company in a doctoral study which I am busy with at the University of Pretoria’* (P13: Invitation to participate in a Doctoral Study.txt – 13:3, 9:11).

Discussions:

Also, I entered into discussions with consulting companies who specialize in recruitment and selection for assistance with participants for the study: *‘I am forwarding the questionnaire as discussed. Please check with your colleagues for their interest in participating’* (P40: RE k Delphi Technique – Revised Edition – Round One1 Scanned 2.txt – 40:2, 52:54).

Personalized invitations:

I sent out electronic invitations to identified organisations and/or individuals requesting them to indicate their willingness to participate in the study: *'Please indicate your willingness or consent to have your colleagues (only Industrial Psychologists) in your company to participate in this kind of a study. Should you so consent, I would like to have their e-mail addresses to facilitate the process, please'* (P8: FW Invitation to participate in a Doctoral Study3.txt – 8:3, 34:38).

Reminders:

Where responses were not forthcoming, I then wrote reminder e-mails to participants: *'I notice that you may be busy, but I needed to find out if you would be available for the request below'* (P7: FW Invitation to Participate in a Doctoral Study.txt – 7:1, 9:10). The reminders were also necessary because some of these electronic invitations bounced: *'I am just following up on a request below. I think there was a problem with the e-mail system because the request bounced back to me'* (P32: RE Invitation to participate in a Doctoral Study Scanned 5.txt – 32:2, 26:28).

Otherwise, participants confirmed their willingness to participate in the study and promised to ask their colleagues to also participate: *'I have sent out a request to some of my colleagues to invite them to participate'* (P9: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned.txt – 9:1, 11:12). Also, one participant indicated that the study *'sounds interesting'* (P21: RE Disability ConsultantScanned.txt – 21:6, 130:130) and particularly expressed an interest in seeing *'how accessibility has influenced your findings'* (P21: RE Disability ConsultantScanned.txt – 21:7, 141:142).

4.7.2.2 Sample size

Because the group was homogeneous, consisting of industrial and organisational psychologists, a purposive sample of 15 experts was recruited to the study, in line with Skulmoski *et al.* (2007), as a

homogeneous panel for the two rounds of Delphi (Beecham *et al.*, 2005). Most studies using Delphi have involved panels of between 15 and 35 people to develop or test theories, gain feedback, evaluate and support the development of criteria (Gordon, 1994).

4.7.2.3 Data collection

A website was constructed with an interactive database using the Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (Moodle) for discussions relating to confirming the content validity of identified criteria for workplace-effective mobility. Moodle is a software package designed for online discussions (Moodle, 2010), which operates on a free open-source license and enables modification of responses and distribution thereof for interaction among participants (Knight *et al.*, 2006). The Moodle discussion forum was thus designed using the expertise of the Vaal University of Technology's webmaster. An online questionnaire was compiled based on information from the focus group interviews and placed on Moodle (see Annexure D). A space for qualitative comments was also provided. Clear instructions on the use of the Moodle system, and rating on a five-point Likert scale, as well as process feedback, were provided to participants.

Use of the Moodle system:

The Moodle system was designed to log answers in batches, otherwise participants would be timed out. Therefore, to overcome this challenge, participants were instructed as follows: '*While there, you will see a number of questionnaires but you only need to access DEPLHI QUESTIONNAIRE ROUND 1. After completing the questionnaire you need to click on SUBMIT QUESTIONNAIRE at the end. Please note that you need to complete the questionnaire to be able to submit it, otherwise the system will prompt you to complete those questions you may have skipped*' (P2: First Round of Delphi.txt – 2:2, 36:42).

Because of the timeout feature on the system to enable coherent and simultaneous analysis of responses, I advised participants as follows: '*A closing date and time has been programmatically determined, i.e. 25 April 2009 at 13:00. Beyond this timeline, you will not be able to make any further inputs to the system*' (P1: Delphi Round Number One.txt – 1:13, 213:224).

Rating scale:

Instructions were also provided on the use of a five-point Likert scale as follows: '*Rate each indicator on a subjective 5-point ordinal scale (where 1 is low and 5 is high)*' (P1: Delphi Round Number One.txt – 1:11, 179:185). I also indicated to participants that the envisaged duration of completing the questionnaire was one hour (P1: Delphi Round Number One.txt – 1:6, 127:134).

Feedback:

Responses gathered in one session were provided to participants in subsequent rounds by way of a revised questionnaire. Here too, I advised participants, as follows: '*After receiving your information and suggestions, I will compile another questionnaire for round two, for verification purposes. Further instructions will be provided at that stage. Should you need to clarify anything please do not hesitate to contact the undersigned*' (P3: First Round of Delphi2.txt – 3:1, 47:51).

Process details were also shared with participants by way of feedback, for example, '*I have gathered data from four provinces and am finalising a database for the envisaged online Delphi rounds*' (P13: Invitation to participate in a Doctoral Study.txt – 13:1, 14:16). Furthermore, mishaps experienced during the data collection process were disclosed to participants, for example: '*It is with a deepest sense of regret to advise you that I have experienced some technical problems with the Delphi round one attempt. Due to a common username and password being provided, I discovered that if one participant completes the questionnaire, the other participants could not participate. My technical colleagues and I*

have since attended to the problem. You are thus humbly requested to try again using the following ...' (P10: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned2.txt – 10:1, 8:13).

A rationale on how the questions were compiled was also provided as background in the questionnaire, as Day and Bobeva (2005) suggest, for example: *'The indicators used in the questionnaire have recently been identified from focus group discussions with participants recruited across four types of disabilities, i.e. blind, deaf, physical and speech-impaired. For purposes of this project, workplace-effective mobility is defined as the willingness and ability of EwDs [employees with disabilities] to gain access to job opportunities, perform effectively and develop the capacity to enjoy a good quality life. The study is in partial fulfilment of a PhD qualification at the University of Pretoria, aimed at identifying criteria for workplace-effectiveness of EwDs. The goal of this process is to clarify, refine and expand the identified indicators in order to ensure their representativeness to the concept of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities (EwDs)'* (P20: RE Delphi Round Number One Scanned.txt – 20:3, 43:59).

In order to allow access to Moodle, the industrial and organisational psychologists were each assigned a username and password to enable their participation in the discussion forum. According to Hatcher and Colton (2002), the experts should be assigned pseudonyms to ensure anonymity. The following quote illustrates how this was done in the study: *'the link to the questionnaire and login requirements is as follows: <http://196.21.64.115/mod/questionnaire/view.php?id=489> 3 Username: Delph21 Password: Delph21'* (P1: Delphi Round Number One.txt – 1:10, 155:168).

Computer-based Delphi rounds overcome the problem of turnaround time experienced in paper-based methods (Miaskiewicz & Kozar, 2006); and data can be gathered where personal contact is not possible due to

time constraints (Day & Bobeva, 2005). The e-mail Delphi has the following advantages (Meho, 2006):

- It reduced costs associated with long-distance travel and document transcriptions by online receipt of responses. In this regard, a central data repository was developed on Moodle with the assistance of the webmaster.
- Industrial and organisational psychologists were recruited via email correspondence. In the event of non-responses, the researcher continued to invite new participants in accordance with the requirements of theoretical sampling.
- Informed consent could be obtained from the participants prior to participation in the study. The anonymity of e-mail interviews is ensured by the absence of face-to-face contact.
- Participants can respond in a familiar environment, such as their home or office, thereby making participants feel more relaxed and comfortable.
- Own experiences are constructed through dialogue and interaction between participants and the researcher.

The Delphi data are collected until consensus among participants has been reached, at which point the data collection process is stopped (Delbecq, Van de Ven &, Gustafson, 1975). Although two Delphi rounds with experts were involved, an initial piloting of the Delphi questionnaire was required. Therefore, a pilot phase preceded these two main Delphi rounds. The first of the two main Delphi rounds focused on confirming criteria for workplace-effective mobility and the second round on building consensus on the criteria. These rounds are explained below.

(i) The pilot round

The focus group interview data were used to develop a Delphi survey questionnaire which was subsequently piloted on a purposive sample of five industrial and organisational psychologists for the following reasons:

- to review its initial readability (Altink *et al.*, 1977);
- to determine the level of participants' understanding of questions, response difficulties and relevance (Beecham *et al.*, 2005);
- to ascertain the clarity, comprehensiveness and acceptability of concepts used (Tafforeau *et al.*, n.d.); and
- to test the functionality of the Moodle platform as a discussion forum.

(ii) Round One: Confirmation of identified criteria for workplace-effective mobility

Traditionally, Round One is used to generate ideas by asking the panel members for their responses to or comments on an issue. In this study, Round One was used to solicit expert opinions on the definition, dimensions and categorisation of identified indicators of workplace-effective mobility on a predetermined questionnaire.

In this round, industrial and organisational psychologists were thus requested to confirm criteria for workplace-effective mobility by ranking them in the order of importance and relevance, using the five-point Likert Scale. According to Cascio (1995), the five-point Likert scale is most commonly used with the Delphi technique because of its reliability in judging the ratings. Industrial and organisational psychologists were therefore asked to rate the definition, dimensions and categories of workplace-effective mobility identified from the focus group interviews on the Likert scale from 1 to 5 to indicate the extent of importance (1 = less important and 5 = most important). They were also requested to provide comments pertaining to their respective ratings for analysis and incorporation into the subsequent round.

To enable a fruitful voicing of opinions, industrial and organisational psychologists were provided with a definition of workplace-effective mobility developed through the focus group interviews, thereby contextualising the Delphi rounds.

(iii) Round Two: Consensus-building

In this round, industrial and organisational psychologists were requested to indicate their agreement or otherwise on the categorised indicators of workplace-effective mobility, with a view to building consensus.

4.7.2.4 Data analysis

After the first round, I aggregated the ratings and summarized the participants' comments, as Elwyn *et al.* (2007) suggest. The responses from the industrial and organisational psychologists were both qualitatively and quantitatively analysed. The quantitative analysis of data involved the use of the central tendency statistics of mean (Ali, 2005; Hsu & Sandford, 2007), while the qualitative analysis was performed through a content analysis of participants' responses on Atlas.ti. The analysed responses were then presented as feedback in the subsequent round for consensus to be reached on them, as Graham, Regehr and Wright (2003) recommend in line with the Delphi tradition (Keeney *et al.*, 2001). According to Hanafin and Brooks (2005), the provision of feedback between rounds and the identification of consensus represents the basic purposes of data analysis using the Delphi technique. The 70% rule using the mean in the five-point Likert-type scale analysis (Hsu & Sandford, 2007) was used to decide whether or not consensus had been reached.

Other measures of consensus used include the stability of participants' votes between rounds and participation rate (Day & Bobeva, 2005). Regarding participant votes between rounds, the threshold is that less than 15% changes in the votes should occur. In respect of the participation rate, a drop of 40% (maximum) between rounds (Day & Bobeva, 2005) is acceptable.

4.7.2.5. Ethical measures

As in the qualitative phase of the study, the ethical measures of confidentiality, anonymity, voluntarism and respect for participants were observed in this phase.

4.7.2.6. Validity and reliability

The piloting of a Delphi questionnaire to verify the clarity, relevance and representativeness of the criteria for workplace-effective mobility through a panel of experts (Roberts *et al.*, 2006) is sufficient to ensure the content validity of the study (Keeney *et al.*, 2001). Iterations in the data collection, as well as the consensus reached by panel members, establish face validity and concurrent validity (Hennessy & Hicks, 2001).

Regarding the reliability or consistency of the data collection instrument (Endacott, 2004), however, the Delphi technique has been criticized for having no proven reliability (Keeney *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, the controlled feedback between rounds in the Delphi is designed to reduce the effect of researcher bias (Hsu & Sandford, 2007) and to ensure reliability. The reliability of the research findings is commonly determined through a replication of the Delphi study (Hennessy & Hicks, 2001), which future research on criteria for workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities may satisfy.

4.7.2.7. Potential research bias

The Delphi process has been criticized for being subject to bias because the investigator limits the scope of the issues to be evaluated by the panellists. The absence of discussions in the Delphi method and any consensus that the group appears to have reached can only derive from the information provided to it by the investigator (Graham *et al.*, 2003), thereby creating researcher bias. Bias in online research relates to self-

selection and dropout (Krautt *et al.*, 2004). These risks were addressed in the study through purposive sampling and electronic follow-ups.

4.7.2.8. Measure to ensure trustworthiness of the findings

Because of the cross-paradigm functionality of the Delphi method as quantitative (Hanafin, 2004) and qualitative methodology (Skulmoski *et al.*, 2007), it is also important to safeguard the trustworthiness of the qualitative findings in the Delphi phase. Therefore, in this study, the trustworthiness of the findings was controlled for by creating a database for responses, indicating the trail followed towards consensus.

The audit trail is available for audit purposes and is incorporated in the CD that I developed. According to Sadleowski (1986), the rigour of Delphi studies can be improved by an electronic audit trail. Such audit trails should indicate decisions on all methodological and analytical processes from the beginning to the end (Koch, 1994).

4.8 SUMMARY

Because an emancipatory paradigm was adopted in this study, this chapter explained a sequential mixed method design as the most appropriate design for the study. The qualitative phase of identifying criteria using focus group interviews and compiling a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility was thus explained first, followed by a discussion on the quantitative phase of confirming the identified criteria using the Delphi technique and a Likert scale.

A distinction between methodology and methods was made, and the Grounded Theory methodology used in the study was explained. The sampling, data collection and data analysis methods and strategies used in the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study were sequentially

presented, together with the measures to control bias and uphold ethical standards in the study.

Having explained the design and methodology of the study, the research results achieved are presented sequentially in the following chapters. Chapter 5 presents the results from the qualitative phase, which used focus group interviews. Chapter 6 presents the results from the quantitative phase, involving the use of the Delphi technique and Likert scale.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS FROM THE QUALITATIVE PHASE (FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the study results from the qualitative phase involving the focus group interviews. The chapter opens with the results from the pilot phase and proceeds to compare these results progressively with those of the main study in order to achieve the theoretical saturation required for the compilation of a theoretical model, prior to comparing the results with the existing literature, as recommended by Daengbuppha *et al.* (2006).

The research sites are briefly described to provide a context for the results that were obtained. Thereafter, the results from both the pilot and the main study phases are presented sequentially, culminating in a presentation of the proposed criteria by dimension, and of the indicators of workplace-effective mobility. The chapter does not reflect any comparison of the qualitative results with the existing literature, as this comparison is deferred to Chapter 7, which presents a model for workplace-effective mobility.

5.2 RESEARCH SITES

Researching employees with disabilities made it essential that the research sites were accessible to people with disabilities. Therefore, the focus group interview sessions with participants with disabilities were conducted in accessible venues, which were identified with the assistance of disability organisations. For the participants with physical disabilities, the focus group interviews were conducted at Shangri-La (Gauteng) and at the Ashley village (KwaZulu-Natal). These villages are

homes for people with physical disabilities. The villages are affiliated to the Quadpara Association of South Africa (QASA).

Both these villages are designed with ramps to enable access for people with physical disabilities, especially those using wheelchairs for mobility. The villages possess vehicles with devices that hold wheelchairs in place while the vehicles are in motion and that have a mobile ramp to ease the boarding and alighting of passengers. The vehicles are clearly marked “disabled people in transit”. These vehicles were used to transport the non-resident participants with physical disabilities to the focus group interview venues. The focus group interviews were conducted in the villages’ noise-free training and conference centres whose door handles and light switches are within reach of people with disabilities. Toilet facilities at these venues are designed to accommodate people using wheelchairs – the rooms are fitted with rails and are spacious. Kitchen sinks are also at a comfortable height for people with disabilities.

Participants with physical disabilities recruited by the Association for People with Disabilities (APD) were interviewed in the APD coffee shop (in the Free State) and in a gym hall (in KwaZulu-Natal). Both these venues were improvised due to logistical problems (renovations and subsequent unavailability of venues) experienced at the time of the focus group interviews. Noise pollution from traffic, walk-in customers and gym machines interfered with the data collection process, but because of the recording quality of the Marantz PMD 670, data transcription was possible. The coffee shop and gym hall were chosen for their accessibility to people with physical disabilities: there are ramps, and door handles and light switches are within reach.

The APD Centre in the Free State is a commercial centre where assistive devices are sold and wheelchairs are repaired. The centre also facilitates sensitivity training and awareness workshops, assists employers with the recruitment of employees with disabilities, performs accessibility audits at

a fee and advises employers on alternative disability management solutions (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:110, 511:515). The APD Centre in Chatsworth (KwaZulu-Natal) manufactures wooden doors and curtain rails, on a tender basis, for retail businesses in the province. It employs both able-bodied people and people with physical disabilities. The centre provides support to employees with disabilities through a wellness programme managed by in-house professional social workers (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:1, 11:16). I undertook a tour of the facilities to appreciate their accessibility features (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:54, 364:365).

With the permission of the Human Resources Director, the training room of a large retail store was used for the interviews with speech-impaired participants (P13: RE Hello Scanned.txt – 13:2, 30:30). These participants were employed as temporary shelf-packers by the store in Gauteng, but they were being considered for permanent appointment. Therefore, they were scheduled to attend psychometric assessments and job interviews on the same day as the focus group interviews. Because of the operational requirements of the store, the participants were divided into two groups. The retail store was used because the initial efforts by an association for speech-impaired people (Speakeasy) to recruit its members to the study had to be aborted after the loss of the contact details of willing participants due to technological problems. The decision to conduct the focus group interviews on the same day as the administration of selection procedures on participants was made to optimize the services of a sign language interpreter whose participation in the study was sponsored by the retail store.

The focus group interviews with the blind participants were conducted at a primary school in the Free State Province. The Blind Society of South Africa (BSSA) arranged the focus group interviews at this venue because they usually hold meetings with the blind there. The primary school was thus familiar and accessible to the blind participants. Furthermore, the

venue was used because the BSSA does not have meeting facilities at its offices, which are located in the City Centre in Bloemfontein, in the Free State province.

The Deaf participants recruited through the National Institute for the Deaf (NID) were interviewed in the Institute's boardroom, which is sound-proof and is fitted with high quality audio and video-recording facilities. It is also accessible to the deaf, who rely mainly on visual material and lip reading for communication purposes. The interview schedule was thus projected onto the screen to ease the discussions and a flip chart was also used to record some of the concepts under discussion (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:1, 10:14). To demonstrate some of the accessibility features of the venue, a participant pointed to a light bulb in the boardroom and said: *'[D]o you see that light bulb by that door? When people knock on the door, deaf people may not hear them. So, they press the door bell and that light goes on and off to warn you that there is someone at the door'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:116, 589:592). The NID is an educational centre for Deaf students based in Worcester (in the Western Cape province), employing both Deaf and hearing employees.

5.3 PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS

As indicated in Table 4.1, the profile of the participants consisted of four disability groupings (the blind, the Deaf, and people with a physical or a speech impairment) to include variety in terms of gender and race in the four provinces (Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape) of South Africa. In addition to the gender and race profile of participants, some disclosed their age categories, qualification ranges, and typical occupations, as set out in Table 5.1, below.

Table 5.1: Participants by disability group, age category, qualification range and typical occupation

Disability group	Age category	Qualification range	Typical occupation
Blind	40 – 55	0 – Grade 12 plus certificate courses (Cal centre course)	Switchboard operator Self-employed Messenger DVD compiler Project co-ordinator
Deaf	25 – 55	Grade 8 – Diploma (building, leadership, biblical counselling) and Bachelors degree in Arts	Carpenter Food preparer Sports officer Houseparent Spiritual counsellor Bookkeeper Graphic designer Production assistant Messenger Minister of religion Instructor
Physical	30 – 50	Grade 8 – Diploma (business administration, project management and systems development)	Switchboard operator Project co-ordinator Cashier Customer relations
Speech-impaired	25 – 35	Grade 8 – 12	Shelf-packer

It is evident from the table is that blind participants' ages ranged from age 40 to 55, and their qualifications ranged from no qualifications at all to some certificate courses after Grade 12. Typically, the participants without qualifications were self-employed in the shoe-mending trade. As will become evident in Section 5.4.2.5, these participants mentioned how important it is for employees with disabilities to possess a willingness and ability to operate and care for assistive devices. In addition to providing information on their age, qualifications and typical qualifications, 33% of these participants (four of the 11) reported that they became blind later in life due to accidents; the same percentage reported that they were born blind and 25% (three out of 11) reported that they are partially sighted.

The Deaf participants' ages ranged from 25 to 55. They possessed qualifications ranging from Grade 8 to a Bachelors degree. Several had diplomas in building, leadership and biblical counselling. As is evident from Table 5.1, their typical occupations were more diverse than those of the rest of the participants from other disability groups. Their occupations ranged from messenger to minister of religion. The Deaf participants also

reported that they were either hard of hearing, born deaf or became deaf later in their lives. As providing information on their stage of Deafness was optional, the exact percentages per stage could not be ascertained. They also reported that they had been in their occupations for periods ranging from three months to seven years. While none of the other participants alluded to their marital status, it was found that the majority 47% of the Deaf participants indicated that they were married.

Participants with physical disabilities' ages ranged from 30 to 50 years, with qualifications ranging from Grade 8 to Diplomas in Business Administration, Project Management and Systems Development. Their typical occupations ranged from switchboard operator to project co-ordinator.

All the participants with speech-impairments were shelf-packers appointed in a major retail store on a temporary basis. They possessed qualifications ranging from Grade 8 to Grade 12.

5.4 RESULTS FROM THE PILOT PHASE

As indicated in Section 4.7.1.3(i)(d), the pilot phase involved 15 participants with physical disabilities at the Ashley and Shangri-la villages of the QASA. In the section below, a detailed description of the results from the pilot phase is presented.

5.4.1 Definition of workplace mobility

Participants in the pilot phase of this study defined workplace mobility as a process which depends on workplace accessibility. One participant defined '*workplace mobility as a process of finding opportunities to enter, make a contribution in the organisation and grow in the workplace as an individual*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:10, 57:60). When defining it as workplace accessibility, a participant

said: *'[F]or me, workplace mobility refers to accessibility of the workplace and my ability to move around freely'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:10, 54:55). This definition of workplace mobility as accessibility was expanded by another participant to acknowledge the necessity of support from colleagues. In this context, the participant said: *'[T]o support my colleague, I would say that workplace mobility refers to the ability to safely move around the working environment and where necessary with the support of colleagues'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:14, 61:63). The accessibility aspect of the definition is important to start the process of workplace mobility by ensuring that people with disabilities are able to enter workplaces (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:65, 58:59).

5.4.2 Enablers of workplace mobility

In the participants' responses to a question regarding enablers of workplace mobility, a number of main themes emerged. The themes were a positive self-concept, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, a positive sense of independence, workplace accessibility and workplace equity. In the sections below, the manifestations of these themes as enablers of workplace mobility are explained.

5.4.2.1 Positive self-concept

A positive self-concept was a theme that emerged from the data as a function of the various sub-themes that were identified in numerous responses by participants. The sub-themes that emerged from the data were willingness and the ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience, assert one's human rights, communicate one's needs, determine one's own career path, maintain a positive self-concept, maintain self-confidence and work in a team environment.

Willingness and ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience

Participants indicated that employees with disabilities must be willing to acquire the necessary knowledge and experience to attain workplace mobility. According to one participant, *'it is also important to realise that one must study so that [one] can be promoted'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:48, 171:172). Another participant mentioned a belief that with *'the experience and knowledge [he has] to be appointed in senior positions'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:51, 163:165).

Willingness and ability to assert one's human rights

Because some employers pursue employment equity mainly for the sake of compliance, one participant mentioned that *'employers tend to take disability for granted'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:23, 91:92). In the context of this experience, a participant concluded that *'asserting our rights as employees with disabilities always makes things better'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:22, 88:90). Therefore, employees with disabilities must develop a willingness and ability to assert their human rights in order to attain workplace mobility. Otherwise, employees with disabilities would only have themselves to blame. According to a participant, *'when it comes to ...[employees with disabilities], it is often [their] own fault if [they] do not ask questions and if [they] do not verbalise [their] needs so that [they] can go up'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:56, 182:184).

Willingness and ability to communicate one's needs

The need to communicate one's needs as an enabler of workplace mobility was observed in one participant's response that *'employees with*

disabilities must engage their line managers rather than sit in their little corners waiting for mercy (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:20, 84:85). The willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to communicate their needs in the workplace is a precondition for the effective implementation of reasonable accommodation measures (as explained in Section 5.4.2.5).

Willingness and ability to maintain self-confidence

Participants identified the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to maintain self-confidence as an iterative process of showing one's capabilities and developing confidence. Therefore, workplace mobility was regarded as a launch pad for unleashing the potential of people with disabilities, because *'once capabilities and initiative are unleashed, employees with disabilities will develop confidence'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:61, 108:109).

5.4.2.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy relates to the achievement orientation and self-motivation of employees with disabilities to perform tasks in the workplace. However, self-efficacy begins with a candidate with disability's finding work in a competitive open labour market.

Willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market

A targeted recruitment approach (explained in Section 5.4.2.6) enhances the willingness and ability of people with disabilities to find work in the open labour market and enables them to improve their image in society (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:40, 134:135).

Willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success

The tendency among people with disabilities to resist token appointments (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:36, 132:135) and to want to make a positive contribution to society and organisations (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:17, 76:79) indicates a willingness and the ability required to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success.

Willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace

One participant indicated that the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to achieve upward mobility emanate from realistic goal-setting and from taking the initiative. In this context, a participant said that *‘being realistic and initiating actions that will lead to promotions are factors that employees with disabilities must always keep in mind’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:59, 190:191). In order to attain upward mobility in the workplace, another participant advised that employees with disabilities must therefore *‘have a lot of initiative to always make the first move’* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:13, 66:67).

Willingness and ability to assume a productive role

A ‘can do’ attitude represents the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to assume a productive role. According to one participant, for employees with disabilities to attain workplace mobility, it is *‘critical for one to show that “I want to do this and I can do it” and keep on doing it’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:33, 118:122). Therefore, a ‘can do’ attitude enhances the social image of employees with disabilities. In defining workplace mobility, a participant mentioned that for him *‘it is about self-image... it is*

about showing people you can do it' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:38, 129:130).

Willingness and ability to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace

The willingness and ability to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation depends on three personal attributes of employees with disabilities. These attributes are self-motivation, determination and goal-setting behaviour. Self-motivation was signified by willpower (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:14, 67:68) and a need for people with disabilities to get rid of an entitlement mentality (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:15, 68:69).

Having shown self-motivation in this manner, employees with disabilities must be determined to work hard. Determination emerged from the need by participants to *'resist the temptation of being complacent under these token appointments ... [by exceeding the] required standards of performance'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:36, 132:135). In demonstrating the extent to which the standards of performance can be exceeded, another participant said that *'employees with disabilities should be prepared to work at 110%'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:32, 119:120).

In order to maintain an achievement orientation, participants highlighted that an employee with disabilities should be able to set goals. Therefore, goal-setting behaviour was observed in comments by participants such as *'it is through goal-setting that employees with disabilities would be able to succeed'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:34, 125:128) and *'employees with disabilities should also be setting their own life goals and work hard to achieve them, rather than feel entitled in life'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:46, 166:168).

Their goal-setting behaviour also indicates a willingness and ability among employees with disabilities to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace. However, such willingness and ability must be exercised with an understanding that employees with disabilities must '*be realistic in the goals they set*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:53, 174:174).

Willingness and ability to make an effective contribution

Participants expressed their willingness and the ability make an effective contribution by arguing that they do not '*need special attention or treatment ... [but an opportunity] ...to prove [their] abilities out there*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:42, 137:138).

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community

Therefore, determination is associated with the willingness and ability to maintain a positive self-concept. A positive spin-off of these indicators (willpower and getting rid of an entitlement mentality) of determination is a '*positive contribution to society and organisations in which [employees with disabilities] are employed*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:17, 76:79).

5.4.2.3 Sense of coherence

A sense of coherence is associated with the coping resources that an employee with disabilities is able to draw on in order to attain workplace mobility. It includes external resources such as support, and internal resources such as a positive mindset aimed at maintaining a productive job fit.

Willingness and ability to cope with work demands

In order to achieve goals through hard work, employees with disabilities must be willing and able to cope with work demands. According to one participant, employees with disabilities must '*have the ability to handle work pressure*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:52, 173:174). Participants identified several resources that would enable them to cope with work demands by mitigating the negative effects of workplace prejudice and allow employees with disabilities to attain workplace mobility. These resources include family, disability organisations, placement agencies and colleagues.

One participant demonstrated the value of family support in a question: '*[I]f these people were all to die and I am left alone, who is going to help me?*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:28, 103:106). Participants also emphasised the role of disability organisations in eradicating prejudice through advocacy and sensitisation programmes. One participant characterized the importance of advocacy programmes as lying in the role played by '*organisations such as Disabled People South Africa (DPSA)... [in] ... rolling out television programmes to educate the nation about disabilities so that prejudice may be eradicated*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:45, 147:150). However, to ensure effectiveness, disability organisations should play an advocacy role, in consultation with employers. Therefore, one participant argued that '*it is also important for the Disabled People South Africa, in their advocacy role, to invite employers to their workshops for more sensitisation*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:56, 176:179).

With their experience of stigmatisation from colleagues and the community, participants indicated that '*respect from colleagues is also important in the workplace*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:63, 199:200) in order for people with

disabilities to attain workplace mobility. Such respect is to be earned through the goal-setting tendencies indicated in Section 5.4.2.2. Another participant also expressed the wish that *'that communities should stop stigmatizing and start finding solutions to an apparent lack of accessible transportation'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:20, 92:94).

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life

Under difficult circumstances in the workplace, employees with disabilities must develop a willingness and the ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:50, 173:173). Such a willingness and ability manifest in employees with disabilities' always having *'a positive mindset'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:12, 66:66).

Willingness and ability to maintain a productive job fit

Productive allocation of tasks is another important consideration in the implementation of reasonable accommodation measures and should focus on what a person can achieve (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:31, 117:119). A focus on what a person with disabilities can achieve was contextualized by a participant in the statement that *'employers must focus on the ability side of disability rather than on defining roles along disabled and able-bodied lines; they must also stop chasing equity targets only but look at the qualitative aspects of the workplace, e.g. accessibility of the work environment'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:55, 173:176).

Productive task allocation necessitates that employers *'allocate tasks [in such a manner that employees with disabilities can] prove [themselves] rather than focusing on people's disability'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:31, 117:119). In the event that

employees with disabilities do not cope with the speed of production, however, a participant suggested that employers should accommodate this limitation by providing *'easy jobs to enable [them] to cope with the required speed of production'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:16, 67:68). With the assistance of these measures, employees with disabilities would be able to show greater willingness and their ability to maintain a productive job fit.

5.4.2.4 Positive sense of independence

Participants mentioned that employees with disabilities attain workplace mobility when they are able to exercise life choices and maintain an economically active lifestyle. These two abilities represent a positive sense of independence. With regard to exercising life choices, a participant indicated that *'we also have choices to make in life and therefore we have to be involved in decision-making processes in the workplace'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:45,164:166). With regard to the maintenance of an economically active lifestyle, another participant emphasised the value of income in the life of a person with disabilities. He said: *'[I]ncome is important because we need money to maintain our disability; we need money to pay a helper and transportation; we need money to maintain our wheelchairs and make our homes accessible for us; we live more expensive lives than able-bodied people'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:57, 183:187).

5.4.2.5 Workplace accessibility

Workplace accessibility relates to the work environment and the measures required to make it accessible to employees with disabilities. Measures that employers may implement to ensure workplace accessibility are explained from the data below.

Willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas

Reasonable accommodation measures were regarded as a welfare issue for employees with disabilities. Therefore, a participant said: '*[I]nstead of disregarding the welfare of their disabled employees, employers must focus more and more on providing reasonable accommodation to their employees*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:22, 98:100). The implementation of reasonable accommodation measures may take the form of office redesign to ensure physical accessibility.

In respect of office redesign, a participant indicated that workplace mobility '*is made easy by employers providing ramps or rails on the staircases to aid access into the buildings*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:72, 55:57). The provision of ramps or rails on staircases (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:11, 55:57) and ensuring that facilities are accessible (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:13, 59:60) would thus enhance the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to '*safely move around the working environment*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:14, 61:63). Therefore, safe movement is a result of employers' '*ensuring safe office allocation*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:29, 115:116) and making employees with disabilities '*feel accommodated so that [they] can make [their] contributions*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:32, 112:114).

Willingness and ability to operate and care for assistive devices

Regarding assistive devices, a participant indicated that '*the employer must provide specialised computers*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:76, 57:59). This sentiment illustrates the

willingness and ability by employees with disabilities to operate assistive devices.

Willingness and ability to travel from home to work

Because transportation is regarded as the worst constraint on the physical mobility of people with disabilities (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:66, 169:171), employers should either provide ‘*transport... from home to work*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:31, 111:112) or ‘*transport grants to enable mobility of employees with disabilities*’ (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:66, 169:171). The expressed need for accessible transportation reflects the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to travel from home to work.

5.4.2.6 Workplace equity

Workplace equity places an obligation on employers to ensure that their employees with disabilities are able to attain workplace mobility on an equal footing. To level the playing field, participants identified actions that employers could take. The relevant actions that emerged from the data were targeted recruitment, sensitivity training and awareness, job readiness training, fairness and equity, participatory management practice, and performance management and development.

Targeted recruitment

Access to job opportunities depends on how information regarding the opportunities is made known to candidates with disabilities. Participants suggested that targeted recruitment approaches would ensure that suitably qualified candidates with disabilities access information regarding job openings. Using the targeted recruitment approach to ‘*advertising will assist [in ensuring that] not only ... the lucky people get*

access to vacant positions, but [candidates with disabilities] will all be aware of these positions' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:30, 109:111). In this regard, *'employers should make sure that employees with disabilities have access to information on available work opportunities. They must therefore advertise through word of mouth because newspapers do not always reach a population of people with disabilities'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:26, 110:113).

Participants said that, in addition to word-of-mouth advertising, placement agencies could play a role in ensuring *'that advertisements are made accessible ... as these advertisements assist with the knowledge of available positions'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:29, 106:109). Furthermore, *'placement agencies should also do their part in facilitating increased employment of employees with disabilities'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:46, 150:152) by canvassing the credentials of and introducing candidates with disabilities to potential employers.

Sensitivity training and awareness

Sensitivity training and awareness was regarded by participants as an essential intervention by employers to eradicate workplace prejudice (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:44, 140:142). A participant expressed the opinion that *'only if they are educated about disabilities will this situation of prejudice improve'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:44, 140:142). Therefore, *'there must be sensitivity and awareness workshops on disability in various workplaces. These could take the form of team-building initiatives, practical workshops and camps where able-bodied and disabled employees interact with one another to prepare the ground for more gainful employment of employees with disabilities'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:54, 167:172).

By means of team-building, which includes sensitivity training, awareness can be raised to enhance team performance and engender ‘*respect from colleagues... in the workplace*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:63, 199:200). However, employees with disabilities should be willing and able to work in a team environment.

Job readiness training

Participants acknowledged that individual capabilities must match the job requirements. Job readiness training enhances the matching of individual capabilities and job requirements. Therefore, ‘*employers must focus on training and development; provide challenging positions to employees with disabilities to show their competence; and job descriptions must be revised to ensure proper fit between job requirements and individual capabilities*’ (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:58, 193:197). Training and development may be offered through learnership programmes. One participant expressed her appreciation for the fact that at her ‘*company, there are learnerships on Information Technology, which [she] will be enrolling for*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:47, 155:156).

However, another participant expressed a wish that the provision of learnerships as job readiness training interventions should be offered in consultation with employees with disabilities to ensure the effectiveness thereof. In his experience, ‘*these learnerships are prescribed and not always consulted upon with employees with disabilities themselves. Supervisors and line managers must consult with [people with disabilities] more rather than just prescribing interventions for [them]*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:48, 156:160).

The matching of individual capabilities to job requirements would optimise the willingness and ability of people with disabilities to maintain

a productive job fit. Without job readiness training, therefore, employees with disabilities may not be able to show their competence (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:58, 193:197).

Fairness and equity principles

When employers make decisions regarding the employment conditions of employees with disabilities, participants proposed that fairness and equity principles should be applied (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:49, 161:161). Such principles of fairness and equity were suggested for the allocation of vacancies and administration of salaries. For instance, in the allocation of vacancies, a participant felt that employers should reserve jobs for people with disabilities. He said that: *‘...they (employers) must consider job reservation for us; like in the olden apartheid days when job reservation was done for White employees to ensure their improved living conditions’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:75, 70:73).

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Other participants argued for equal salaries for comparable value of jobs performed by able-bodied and employees with disabilities (P4: Pilot Focus

Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:30, 116:117). In most cases, a participant observed that employees with disabilities are paid less than their able-bodied colleagues in similar jobs (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:58, 187:189). Decent salaries enable employees with disabilities to enjoy an economically active lifestyle. Enjoying an economically active lifestyle depends on income. Because people with disabilities need to maintain their lifestyles through adequate income (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:57, 183:187), employers should ensure that salaries are equitably administered to create a sense of fairness..

Participatory management practices

The participants regard participatory management practices as enabling employees with disabilities to attain workplace mobility. An analogy relating to the importance of participatory management was made with the sporting environment. In this analogy, a participant said: *‘I think workplace mobility depends on the employer’s outlook towards employees with disabilities. In the sports environment, the sporting fraternity believes in integration and involvement of sportsmen with disabilities to ensure success and competitiveness. In the same way that the sporting fraternity values its disabled sportsmen, employers must value their employees with disabilities’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:71, 74:79). The notion of involvement is thus essential for employees with disabilities because they *‘also have choices to make in life ...’* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:45, 164:166).. This need for involvement in decision-making creates a willingness and ability among employees with disabilities to exercise life choices.

Performance management and development

In order to monitor the attainment of workplace mobility by employees with disabilities, employers '*must ... set punitive and corrective measures to rectify any deviation from performance standards and enable access to education and training opportunities*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:38, 137:140). To recognize high performing employees with disabilities, employers should ensure the availability of career paths. Career paths are important for employees with disabilities because they '*anticipate that through hard work [on contracted standards of performance, they] will achieve upward mobility in organisations*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:37, 135:137). The availability of career paths energizes these workers to work hard and creates a willingness and ability among employees with disabilities to achieve upward mobility in the workplace. This sense of energy stems from the fact that employees with disabilities tend to believe that '*the higher, the better for [them]*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:62, 163:164).

5.4.3 Inhibitors of workplace mobility

From the participants' responses to the question relating to the inhibitors of workplace mobility, three themes emerged, namely adverse economic conditions, a negative self-concept and workplace prejudice.

5.4.3.1 Adverse economic conditions

Adverse economic conditions emanate from the negative impact of a high unemployment rate among people with disabilities and dependence on disability grants among people with disabilities.

Unemployment rate

One participant argued that unemployment has a negative impact on people with disabilities, pointing out '*that high unemployment rates in the country contribute negatively towards employees with disabilities gaining access to job opportunities, their competitive contributions and related outputs*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:57, 190:193).

Impact of disability grants

In respect of the impact of disability grants, participants indicated that such grants can act as disincentives for working, with negative social implications, on people with disabilities. With regard to work disincentives, one participant argued that the disability grants create a culture of entitlement among people with disabilities resulting in '*some claims of disability grants [being] made fraudulently*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:16, 75:76). This culture of entitlement also engenders '*a problem of complacency*' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:37, 128:129), and '*a lot of apathy*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:63, 123:125).

Apart from apathy and complacency as personal consequences in people with disabilities, disability grants can also have some social implications evident in '*people with disabilities ... often [being] subjected to a lot of abuse by able-bodied people; some are also subjected to a lot of pressure from their families to submit claims for disability grants. You see, for some families disability grants are a means for survival*' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:18, 83:87).

5.4.3.2 **Negative self-concept**

The negative self-concept among people with disabilities emanates from apathy and complacency (as explained in Section 5.4.3.1 under disability grants), the absence of career paths for employees with disabilities, a lack of positive self-image, overprotective families and a poor educational and experience base.

Lack of career paths

The lack of career paths creates a ‘sticky floor phenomenon’ for employees with disabilities. According to a participant, ‘*the sticky floor phenomenon [is a result of a] lack of proper career pathing for [employees with disabilities, leaving them] ...stuck at the bottom of an organisational ladder*’ (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:44, 160:164). The sticky floor phenomenon happens either ‘*because employers do not provide opportunities for career advancement to us*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:17, 68:70) or because employers ‘*put big obstacles in our way*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:26, 96:98).

Lack of positive self-image

A lack of a positive self-image results from the fact that ‘*a lot of employees with disabilities are scared to go out*’ (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:35, 125:126). This fear of the unknown is compounded by families being overprotective and overly supportive of their members with disabilities. According to a participant, ‘*family sometimes hinders workplace mobility of employees with disabilities by being overprotective and overly supportive to them. Because of inaccessible transport, stereotypes in the community regarding disability, the family would rather have their member at home*

than in the public arena' (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:39, 143:147).

Overly supportive families create a culture among people with disabilities in which they *'get used to everything being done for [them] that when our job applications are unsuccessful [they] give up hope'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:41, 135:137). In summarising the inhibitory nature of the lack of a positive self-image, a participant said that *'a lack of positive self-image and not knowing your rights [to confront the social implications of being overly supported] also inhibit mobility'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:39, 130:131).

Poor educational and experience base

Other participants attributed the inability by employees to attain workplace mobility to a poor knowledge and educational base. For instance, a participant said that a *'lack of knowledge or education is also an inhibiting factor for employees with disabilities'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:36, 126:128). Moreover, poor knowledge and education backgrounds often emanate from generally inaccessible facilities. For instance, a participant commented on the *'lack of accessible education and knowledge that we are often confronted with'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:21, 94:95). The absence of career pathing, compounded by a poor educational background, seems to create conditions that promote employee turnover (exits). Confirming this exit tendency, a participant said that a *'lack of career pathing and poor educational background limit opportunities for workplace mobility. As a result, people leave their employers in hope of better conditions elsewhere'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:61, 192:194).

5.4.3.3 Workplace prejudice

Workplace prejudice is a function of tokenism, employer ignorance, stereotyping and stigmatisation and unfair discrimination.

Tokenism

In the interests of achieving employment equity targets, employers tend to appoint people with disabilities as tokens. A participant observed that *'in most cases, employers treat disability as a Black and White issue and they often use us as tokens; window-dressers because we do not always have the necessary skills and qualifications; it becomes an issue of meeting the 2% equity targets'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:35, 129:132). Therefore, employers *'only think about us when there are equity targets to be met'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:78, 92:93).

Employer ignorance

Employer ignorance is another component of workplace prejudice evident in the inability of employers to find alternative solutions to enable employees with disabilities to contribute their capabilities because of a fear of related costs. A participant has *'found that employers are often scared of the financial obligation to provide reasonable accommodation ...mainly due to their lack of knowledge and exposure to disability issues'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:24, 102:105). This fear and the lack *'of knowledge and exposure to disability issues ... [prevent employers from] finding alternative solutions to enable capabilities and initiative of employees with disabilities to be unleashed. [Employers also fail to realise that] once capabilities and initiative are unleashed, employees with disabilities will develop confidence'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:25, 104:109). Therefore, employer ignorance has negative consequences for both

individuals (poor self-confidence) and organisational effectiveness (decreased productivity).

Stereotyping and stigmatisation

As indicated in the discussion of a negative self-concept in Section 5.3.3.2, stereotyping is the reason for families overprotecting and over-supporting their members with disabilities (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:39, 143:147). Stereotyping creates a workplace climate of ‘us and them’ as indicated by a participant who mentioned that *‘the “us and them” attitude ... make[s the] able-bodied ... prejudiced against us’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:80, 139:140). Because of the ‘us and them’ attitude, employees with disabilities are often stigmatised. A participant observed that *‘stigmatisation is always the first thing that we are confronted with in the community’* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:67, 91:92).

Unfair discrimination

The experience of participants with employment decision-making processes has been one of unfair discrimination. This manifests either in employers’ invoking covert or in overt discriminatory practices in the workplace. Employers may invite candidates with disabilities to interviews while the employers already have *‘a particular person in mind’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:77, 86:88), thereby covertly discriminating against others (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:52, 165:166).

Overtly, employers discriminate against people with disabilities by using criteria unrelated to the inherent job requirements. For instance, employers *‘would always put a need for special vehicles as a reason for not employing us, without due regard to the fact that there are no driving schools for disabled people which makes it difficult to obtain drivers’*

licenses' (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:79, 93:96). Also, according to another participant, *'employers tend to look at age and think that we are not good enough to apply for senior positions; they do not trust our abilities'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:68, 180:182).

5.4.4 Achieving the goals of the pilot phase

As indicated in Section 4.7.1.3(i)(d), the goals of the pilot phase were three-fold, namely to determine the understanding of the terminology by participants, to ascertain the length of time required to obtain rich and meaningful data and to refine the questions used in the interview guide.

5.4.4.1 Determining the understanding of the terminology by participants

I circulated the interview schedule to project coordinators at QASA (P7: Re Interview scheduleScanned.txt – 7:1, 23:26) to determine their understanding of the concepts. I subsequently received proposals to amend the concept workplace mobility to *'successful gainful employment and career advancement'* (P1: ANNEXURE A Doctorate research instrument.txt – 1:1, 52:53). Because of the suggestion to amend the concept from workplace mobility to successful gainful employment and career advancement, the proposed concept was tested in a pilot phase. The results indicated that successful gainful employment and career advancement were associated with *'self-belief; knowledge of what one can and cannot do and family support'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:62, 198:199). Because of this limited focus, the proposed concept was discarded and in its place workplace-effective mobility was introduced for the main study sessions. The fact that participants were able to define the concept implies that concept clarity was thus achieved.

5.4.4.2 Interview schedule – duration

The duration of the focus group interviews was confirmed as one and a half hours: *'I note that our discussions lasted for one and a half hours, from 10:00 until 11:30, and I will use this to determine the duration of the main study focus group interviews sessions'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:64, 207:209).

5.4.4.3 Refinement of the interview schedule

With regard to refining the interview schedule, I found that some questions were duplicated and had to be amended. For example: *'How do factors such as income, occupational status, career advancement, turnover, education, physical mobility, severity of disease, coping styles, social support, personality characteristics, technology, culture, training, social integration, assistive devices and self-concept contribute to workplace mobility? Interviewee: We have already mentioned some of these factors'* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:43, 155:160).

The goals of the pilot phase of the study (determining concept clarity, ascertaining the duration of focus group interviews, and the refinement of the interview schedule) were achieved (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:6, 29:32).

5.4.5 Conclusion

Although the goals of the pilot phase set out in Section 5.4.4 were achieved, more information was obtained pertaining to definition of the concept, enablers and inhibitors thereof. Because this study also sought to compile a theoretical framework of the phenomenon, I decided to use themes (positive self-concept, positive sense of independence, self-efficacy, sense of coherence and workplace accessibility) that emerged from the pilot phase in the main study to establish theoretical saturation

on the concepts. The identification of criteria from these themes was deferred until the main study interviews had been concluded.

5.5 RESULTS FROM THE MAIN STUDY PARTICIPANTS

As indicated in Section 5.4.5, the pilot phase themes were retained to establish theoretical saturation in preparation for the compilation of a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility. This section therefore discusses the results obtained in the process of establishing theoretical saturation of the data.

5.5.1 Definition of workplace-effective mobility

Participants in the main study defined workplace-effective mobility as the willingness and ability to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace. Achievement orientation begins with goal-setting behaviour. In this context, a participant defined workplace-effective mobility as *'the ability to achieve one's goals in a motivated, eager way and never giving up hope'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:6, 73:75). However, employees with disabilities need to be granted opportunities to achieve set goals in the workplace. As one participant indicated: *'[W]orkplace-effective mobility depends on employees with disabilities and ...being given a chance ... to prove themselves that they also can do it in the workplace. Also, they should be able to set goals and achieve them in the workplace...'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:10, 96:99).

Apart from being granted opportunities, employees with disabilities should also demonstrate self-motivation to achieve goals. Hence, a participant defined workplace-effective mobility as *'being able to have enough motivation in what you are doing, for instance. If you are doing work with passion, I think, other people will benefit from it as well'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:143, 55:60). The definition of workplace-

effective mobility as an achievement orientation through self-motivation was regarded as essential by one participant *'because we have got a point to prove; I mean we have to fight to compete with able-bodied people so that you are not looked down upon. You have got to ... hey it is fight'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:37, 204:206).

The speech-impaired participants defined workplace-effective mobility as the willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace. For instance, as shelf-packers, participants expressed the willingness to *'work in other positions'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:10, 57:60) or *'to do other jobs in the store'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:35, 190:190). Doing or working in other jobs signifies workplace-effective mobility as doing a job with a view to attaining a promotion. In this regard, a participant shared his belief *'in doing a good job to earn a promotion'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:30, 173:173).

Other participants defined workplace-effective mobility on the basis of workplace accessibility, for example, saying: *'[F]or me workplace-effective mobility means access, but access should not only be defined around the provision of ramps'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:36, 131:133). Another participant agreed with this definition of workplace-effective mobility as workplace accessibility (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:23, 95:95). Because of the importance of workplace accessibility in giving employees with disabilities a positive sense of independence, a partially sighted participant defined workplace-effective mobility as the ability to *'walk around each and every corner of that place where I stay, without any assistance'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:136, 35:41).

While they agreed with the notion of workplace-effective mobility as the willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market, make an effective contribution in the workplace and enjoy the benefits of an economically active lifestyle, Deaf participants added that such mobility depends on reliable communication (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:3, 41:41; P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:37, 215:216). The importance of communication is thus highlighted as an issue to ensure a positive self-concept for Deaf employees.

These diverse definitions of workplace-effective mobility have a number of points in common. Workplace-effective mobility is about the willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market (access to opportunities), make an effective contribution (achievement orientation) and enjoy the benefits of an economically active lifestyle (promotion and a sense of independence). For these reasons, the definition provided in the pilot phase of the study was retained for the study.

5.5.2 Enablers of workplace-effective mobility

Similar to participants in the pilot phase of the study, participants in the main focus group interviews identified a positive self-concept, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, a positive sense of independence, workplace accessibility and workplace equity as enablers of workplace-effective mobility. Because the results of the pilot study were retained to establish theoretical saturation of the concepts in preparation for the development of a theoretical model, the pilot phase results are compared and contrasted with those in the main study phase to establish similarities and differences.

5.5.2.1 Positive self-concept

A positive self-concept relates to the personal attributes an employee with disabilities needs to attain workplace-effective mobility. These

attributes range from knowledge and experience to willingness and an ability to work in a team environment.

Willingness and ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience

Whereas participants in the pilot phase only reflected on the importance of acquiring job-related knowledge and experience, participants in the main focus group sessions presented the context within which it happens. The willingness and ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience was thus observed in the regrets that participants expressed about inaccessible training institutions and their comments about multi-skilling. With regard to inaccessible institutions, a participant commented that *'because training is so inaccessible, experience is very important'* for employees with disabilities to achieve workplace-effective mobility (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:101, 532:533).

Regarding experience, a participant mentioned that *'today employers are not looking for educated people. Very few of them are looking for people with higher education, but the rest of them look for skills and what employees with disabilities can do with their hands, you know'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:14, 127:130). It is thus necessary for employees with disabilities to get as much experience as they can (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:64, 289:289) in order to be multi-skilled (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:78, 332:335). A participant said that *'whilst I am regarded as disabled, I can do many things'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:149, 453:453). As an employee with disabilities, a participant mentioned that to be multi-skilled, *'you must not depend on other people, but you must learn some skills to be able to take yourself around every corner of your house even to do some things like tea. You should also be able to fetch water by yourself'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:101, 342:345).

To support the notion of being multi-skilled as an enabler of workplace-effective mobility, a participant said: *'I worked at a nursery school with little children and I have also taken care of two elderly people. I then made a Compact Disc (CD) from singing and yeah, that is about the story'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:35, 70:73). Being multi-skilled may be enhanced through employees with physical disabilities learning sign language for optimal service delivery to clients. For instance, a participant mentioned that *'we must not forget about the sign language to avoid chasing customers with disabilities away. In my workplace, if I am not there and a deaf person comes to apply for an Identity Document, they will just return ... until I am back because all of them [the other employees] cannot communicate in sign language. I am not so good, but I always try my best to help'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:111, 347:351).

Because of these positive experiences, a participant refuted the negative impact of inaccessible institutions on people with disabilities' acquisition of knowledge by saying that *'in some places it is easy [to study]. But you can cope if you want to; it will take you more time to acquire a relevant qualification, all you need is an opportunity to learn'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:87, 263:265). To embrace opportunities, however, an employee with disabilities must have a willingness to learn. In this regard, a participant mentioned that as a person with disabilities, *'nothing stops you from learning; it is a personal thing, it does not stop. It also depends on a person's willingness and how fast one is able to learn; for instance, being a disabled person with a BCom degree, you will obviously find work'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:16, 140:143). A participant concluded that attaining workplace-effective mobility *'is ... about the knowledge, the knowledge that you [an employee with disabilities] have. Knowledge is important; knowledge of everything that an employee with disability needs to achieve workplace-effective mobility'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:15, 136:138).

Willingness and ability to assert one's human rights

Employees with disabilities must demonstrate their willingness and ability to assert their human rights in order to attain workplace-effective mobility. According to a participant, employees with disabilities may attain workplace-effective mobility when they '*have a thicker skin ... [and] articulate [their] problems [because] if [they] keep quiet and do not do anything; nothing happens*' (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:26, 130:134). Therefore, '*you [as an employee with disabilities] have to push for everything to happen your way*' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:55, 247:247). Furthermore, employees with disabilities '*should be willing to confront the situation as it arises*' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:51, 225:226). According to a participant, as an employee with disabilities '*you need to be a fighter to go out there to reality and, yeah, no matter what challenges there are, you wake up to them every morning*' (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:39, 214:215).

Willingness and ability to communicate one's needs

The ability to articulate workplace problems (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:26, 130:134) implies that employees with disabilities must be willing and able to communicate their needs in the workplace. Because communication is very important (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:95, 490:491), employees with disabilities '*must be able to convey [their] idea[s]*' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:19, 110:113).

Willingness and ability to determine own career path

Unlike his pilot phase counterparts, a participant demonstrated a willingness and ability to determine his own career path by saying that he wants '*to learn other jobs*' in order to attain workplace-effective mobility (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:47, 65:65).

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive self-concept

Because in terms of workplace-effective mobility '*it depends on you as a person how you are treated*' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:109, 588:590), employees with disabilities must be willing and able to maintain a positive self-concept in the company of colleagues by being assertive in the workplace.

Willingness and ability to maintain self-confidence

A positive self-concept depends on employees with disabilities' accepting their disability status, which indicates a willingness and ability to maintain self-confidence. In this context, a participant said that, as a person with disabilities, it is important that you '*accept yourself the way you are; you should not be someone else*' (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:104, 359:360). Another participant mentioned that for employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility, they must realise that '*it is always important that it must start with you accepting your disability; not for others to accept it on your behalf. First start with you*' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:42, 189:190).

After accepting their disability status, employees with disabilities become '*confident and show that "I can do this". Tell what you can do*' (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:92, 459:460). This show of confidence requires that employees with disabilities must be honest and open about their limitations (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:45, 208:209) and about their abilities, what they can and cannot do to and for themselves and other people (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:25, 136:138). Having weighed personal abilities and limitations, an employee with disabilities should find alternative ways of behaving in the workplace (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:40, 190:192).

Willingness and ability to work in a team

With regard to team work, participants shared some of their negative experiences and concluded that there are various benefits for employees with disabilities in working in a team. For instance, a participant mentioned that *'the other thing is that I am working in the call centre; I will also say that people must be happy. The people working there must understand each other. There is currently no teamwork in the call centre. There are six of us working there and we do not understand each other. So, I think teamwork is very, very important for effectiveness in the workplace'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:24, 96:101).

The benefit of workplace effectiveness derives from employees with disabilities' getting and sharing different ideas (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:85, 380:382), whether in smaller or bigger teams (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:17, 100:104). The sharing of information by employees with disabilities in teams enables them to obtain clarity about their role and to *'change the way people relate to each other'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:17, 100:104), thereby building effective teams (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:64, 339:343). Building effective teams may enable organisations to *'push ... productivity up so that [organisations] can make more money'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:62, 316:319).

In order to work in a team environment, participants mentioned that it is important for employees with disabilities to develop *'social competence'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:15, 95:96), including *'emotional intelligence'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:16, 98:98). Such social competence necessitates that employees with disabilities should take colleagues into their confidence (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:76, 231:231). According to a participant, social competence *'is important ... to build interpersonal*

relationships with ... non-disabled work colleagues' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:13, 85:86). Emotional intelligence requires that employees with disabilities transcend anger in their service to clients. According to a participant, *'when [he] works with customers, [he] does not get angry; [he] gives them good service. [He] always smiles at them. Whenever [he] meets a problem, [he] consults with [his] supervisor'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:22, 106:108).

5.5.2.2 Self-efficacy

As indicated in Section 5.4.2.2, self-efficacy relates to the achievement orientation and self-motivation required by employees with disabilities to find work in the open labour market and achieve success.

Willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market

Experience makes it easy for employees with disabilities to find work, as one participant indicated: *'[T]he practical experiences of that work on offer [is important]; because when you do not have the qualifications you learn while working'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:102, 533:535). Experience may also include multi-tasking.

Willingness and ability to adjust to changing working environment

Because institutions of learning are often inaccessible to employees with disabilities, a participant indicated that *'for one to obtain an education, you must be extra adaptable'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:68, 268:269). Being extra adaptable indicates a willingness and ability to adjust to changing environments. In the Deaf community, such willingness and ability requires that *'the deaf person would ... show that the culture of the deaf person is different. The deaf person [should thus] be willing to adapt to the new culture, because there are*

differences' (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:93, 476:478).

Willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success

It is underscored by hard work and perseverance that employees with disabilities need to prove their worth in organisations. According to a participant, hard work *'always starts with you. You should not be afraid of challenges and you need to be strong inside. A sense of "I will do it"'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:44, 171:173). Perseverance was alluded to by a participant in his response that *'when at work, you cannot be angry with customers; you have to persevere'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:18, 88:89). Also, employees with disabilities *'must not give up, meaning that they must always try and work harder'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:7, 78:79). Perseverance also includes *'showing that you can also do it, when people think that you cannot do it'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:24, 128:131).

In team environments, employees with disabilities are always keen to *'create an image for [them]selves'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:70, 74:76) and hope that *'colleagues [will]...spread the word about what [they] are able to do'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:14, 86:89). In this way, employees with disabilities develop a willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success. This willingness and ability is also demonstrated *'when a person demonstrates his own creativity [so that] people realise that [he] does not wait to be given work but ... provides work for himself'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:30, 152:154).

Willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace

A precondition for employees with disabilities to demonstrate a willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace seems to be productive jobs and self-determination. According to a participant, *'the job provided must be productive and allow for an opportunity to climb up the corporate ladder'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:39, 147:149). Regarding self-determination, a participant mentioned that *'it is an individual's self-determination to know where your things always are so that you can be productive at work and ultimately and hopefully get a promotion'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:44, 95:97).

Willingness and ability to assume a productive role

Similar to the pilot phase participants, participants in this phase associated the willingness and ability to assume a productive role with self-motivation. A participant therefore defined the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities as related to their *'eagerness; willingness and motivation, including self-motivation'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:49, 335:335). In these concepts, a 'can do' attitude is evident. A 'can do' attitude enables employees with disabilities to take initiatives as observed in a participant's remark that *'usually, when a person demonstrates his own creativity, people realise that this person does not wait to be given work but he provides work for himself'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:30, 152:154). As the responses of some pilot participants also suggested, workplace-effective mobility for employees with disabilities is about enhancing their self-image.

Orientation and induction programmes may also enhance the willingness and ability among employees with disabilities to assume a productive role. According to a participant, assuming a productive role begins with an understanding of *'the company's vision and mission in order to*

assume more responsibility at work (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:50, 185:187). The value of orientation and induction should thus not be under-estimated in ensuring that employees with disabilities understand a company’s vision and mission.

Willingness and ability to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace

An achievement orientation was summarised by a participant who said that *‘without determination, ambition, hard work ... I do not think one will be able to achieve workplace-effective mobility’* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:48, 179:182). In this statement, several components of achievement orientation are observable: a determination would include hard work and goal-setting behaviour (including ambition). Determination represents the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace. Tracking her journey to upward occupational mobility a participant mentioned that *‘what helped me to grow is that from the start I always did my best; I really tried to be a hard worker and whenever I had to hand something in, it must be to the best of my abilities’* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:62, 284:286). This anecdote implies hard work. Employees with disabilities should not only work hard but should demonstrate diligence as well. According to a participant, *‘doing his job diligently is the only thing that will earn him workplace-effective mobility’* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:33, 186:188).

Goal-setting behaviour was evident in a participant’s response that *‘being able to plan is very important because if you meet various obstacles, it is important not to wait for other people to get those obstacles out of the way for you, but to make a plan yourself’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:21, 121:123). Such goal-setting behaviour

may be enabled when employers involve their employees with disabilities in the organisational planning activities. To demonstrate the importance of involving employees with disabilities in the various planning stages, a participant said that he *'had a manager who worked with him. He was a hearing person and the two of [them] constantly worked together doing the planning for the layout of the mine. So, it is very important because it makes you feel that you are really contributing a lot'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:74, 393:396).

Willingness and ability to make an effective contribution

As in the case of assuming a productive role in the workplace, the willingness and ability to make an effective contribution starts with self-motivation and culminates in the purposeful employment of employees with disabilities. With regard to self-motivation, a participant mentioned that *'self-motivation is important for workplace-effective mobility'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:45, 173:174). It ranges from employees with disabilities who show commitment towards their work (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:46, 175:177) to sheer hard work (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:94, 309:309) and self-confidence (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:102, 472:480). Further manifestations of self-motivation are visible when employees with disabilities show an eagerness and a willingness to do their job (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:26, 210:211) and signs of being purpose-driven (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:20, 120:120), as well as being able to take initiative (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:34, 169:169).

In demonstrating commitment, participants mentioned that *'with regards to other disabilities; deaf people are very much focused whereas physically disabled and blind people are not'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:125, 649:650). Such commitment manifests in *'deaf people work[ing] pretty faster [because] ... there is no*

one you can chat with and so, you just work faster, undistracted amidst all that happens around you' (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:130, 702:705). It is interesting to note that the willingness and ability to make an effective contribution depends on the quality of the rehabilitation programme (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:43, 232:233) and job readiness training (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:8, 63:63).

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community

In teams, employees with disabilities also tend to develop willingness and the abilities required to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community. Such abilities manifest when employees with disabilities are able to achieve a sense of independence and use their income to *'buy things like a house, a car and also be able to pay accounts, as well as have a family'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:38, 142:147). Another manifestation of the willingness and an ability to maintain a sense of purpose in the community was evident in a participant's statement relating to whether Deafness is a disability. He said: *'[M]y father is deaf and owns a business but, because of the government tendering requirements, e.g. the Black Economic Empowerment percentage – 20% African, 30% blind, etc and that my father needs the business, he has said he is disabled. Otherwise he would be stranded for business opportunities. He is using the word "disabled" to get tenders from government'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:125, 439:444).

Lastly, it would be pointless to possess talents that an employee with disabilities may not use. One participant emphasised this: *'[I]t does not help to have abilities and talents but you do not know what to do with them. You have to look and identify what you can do with your talents in*

the community' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:126, 476:478).

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive work ethic

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive work ethic was observed in responses alluding to time-keeping behaviour, proper conduct and dress code. For instance, a participant mentioned that '*as first impressions last for employers, one needs to arrive on time for work and must always have a presentable dress code*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:49, 183:185). Proper conduct was evident in a participant's remark that '*how you conduct yourself in the workplace or at home or anywhere else where you live; that is also very important*' (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:17, 147:149).

Willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class

Perseverance represents the willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class. It was evident in the fact that employees with disabilities face up to challenges every day. According to a participant, '*no matter what challenges there are, you wake up to them every morning*' (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:69, 214:215). The notion of waking up to challenges reflects workplace adaptability which employees with disabilities require to achieve workplace performance. According to a Deaf participant, '*it is vitally important to memorise everything because when you memorise where things are, you will not forget it; you will be able to adapt very quickly to the workplace*' (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:55, 154:156).

Goal-setting behaviour also helps employees with disabilities to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:21, 121:123).

5.5.2.3 Sense of coherence

As mentioned in Section 5.4.2.3, a sense of coherence is associated with the coping resources an employee with disabilities needs to attain workplace-effective mobility.

Willingness and ability to cope with work demands

For employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility, it is important for them to develop '*the ability to cope with the job*' (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:30, 212:213). Participants argued that if an employee with disabilities cannot cope with his or her work demands, he or she must not be employed. According to a participant '*we must be able to cope with the workload. If you cannot cope, then yeah you should not be employed*' (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:11, 70:73).

In this context, participants identified the importance of social support in team work (including support groups), management support, family support and support from trade unions as coping resources for employees with disabilities. In the context of rehabilitation, participants shared the importance of support groups in enabling people with disabilities to carry on with their lives. A participant mentioned that '*support groups are terribly important for disabled people*' (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:46, 244:245). Another participant emphasised the enabling value of support groups by saying that '*you see if there are people out there to support the disabled people to do the training and teaching them, I think disabled people will also be*

able to learn and to carry on living' (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:12, 112:114).

In the same vein, a participant highlighted that *'family support is also very important'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:8, 83:83). However, in reciprocating this support, *'employees with disabilities ... feel responsible for their families and always need to prove themselves in order to achieve a sense of mobility in the workplace'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:90, 222:224). Feeling responsible for their families, employees with disabilities show the willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success.

Regarding management support, participants indicated that such support enables employees with disabilities to resolve work-related problems (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:48, 215:217). Also, management can support employees with disabilities by institutionalising a buddy system in the workplace, particularly as a safety mechanism. Illustrating the importance of a buddy system, a Deaf participant said: *'[Y]ou know there can be a fire in the workplace and we as deaf people will not even know about it. We will see people running around but not knowing why. So, they must be sensitive when employing us; maybe they can help us to have a buddy who can look after us during these times'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:77, 404:408).

With regard to trade union support, a participant shared her 'uninformed' experience and equally emphasised the value of trade union affiliation by saying: *'I have always heard that there is something called a union but it is not here for us. The hearing people subscribe to these; but we as deaf people or disabled people also have rights, which may need to be protected by the unions if we were allowed to affiliate to them; where we can go for protection if we have work-related problems or cases'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:111, 563:567).

Willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life

Coping with work demands requires that employees with disabilities develop a willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life. To maintain a positive attitude towards life also requires that employees with disabilities adopt a militant attitude in life to mitigate the negative attitudes of society towards them. A participant explained the importance of this militant attitude as follows: *'I look at the life of a partially sighted person from a militaristic point of view, to be honest with you. Now, one of the principles of warfare is "never let the enemy pick the battle site"; that is a principle of warfare. So, now we cannot shoot guns or fly jet fighters, but what is our battlefield? The battlefield is our mindset. Now, what does this mean in the context of the warfare principle? Never allow negative attitudes against the blind to destroy you. They will always call you names, derogatory names; they will try everything possible to wear you down; that attacks your mind, which is the battle site'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:118, 346:354).

Participants mentioned that the maintenance of a positive attitude towards life can be attained through spirituality (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:46, 205:210) and willingness and ability to adapt to a different culture. With regard to spirituality, a participant felt that *'it really helps to be spiritual; I now belong to a cell group and whenever I go through a difficult time we pray together and afterwards I just feel lighter; it feels that I am not carrying the baggage on my own'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:45, 201:203). Pertaining to a willingness and ability to adapt to a different culture, a participant said that *'the deaf person would need to show that the culture of the deaf person is different. The deaf person needs to be willing to adapt to the new culture, because there are differences'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:93, 476:478).

In the workplace, spirituality and being able to adapt to a different culture enhances the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to cope with work demands. However, a willingness and ability to cope with work demands requires that employees with disabilities acknowledge their limitations (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:102, 547:549) and devise plans to overcome them. The need to devise plans is articulated in a participant’s response that *‘buggering your head against a barrier will not help; you have to find a way to get around it. ... you keep going against an obstacle; but then you get someone else being appointed who can get around it’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:103, 550:552).

Achievement orientation also implies that employees with disabilities should be able to solve problems. Regarding problem-solving skills, a participant mentioned that such skills are important for employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:22, 124:124). Therefore, in order to attain workplace-effective mobility, an employee with disabilities must *‘always show a positive attitude towards life; believe in himself and have a personal dream’* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:51, 187:189). Maintaining a positive attitude towards life is more important for employees with disabilities, *‘instead of shaming themselves. Thanks to goodness you can also get somewhere in life’* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:56, 282:284).

Willingness and ability to maintain a productive job fit

Maintaining a productive job fit makes it necessary for employers to implement orientation and induction programmes for their employees with disabilities. Such programmes are important for employees with disabilities to achieve a sense of place in the workplace. As a participant indicated, *‘the first thing is that the blind person must know the structure of the factory or the workplace. He must also know where everything is*

situated and he must know the type of work a particular machine or equipment does. And that machine must always be there; they must not change or shift it. The blind person and the partially sighted do not have the same eye condition, you see. So, there must be structure or order in the workplace' (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:45, 98:104). Therefore, information to do the job is essential (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:71, 315:317).

Orientation and induction also enhance the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to maintain a productive job fit. As a blind participant said: *'[E]ven before you start work, you must be shown around the office and you should study where all things are situated so that you should not go around searching for things you need to do work'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:53, 142:145). Orientation and induction therefore help employees with disabilities *'to see what is happening in the store'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:36, 192:193). In addition to orientation and induction, employees with disabilities must receive training into the position from the start *'in order to [make them] productive'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:70, 313:315).

Initial on-the-job training is also necessary to ensure that employees with disabilities maintain a productive job fit (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:70,313:315). Such training, however, must *'not [be] watered down training'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:8, 63:63). Employers must also realise that *'when they first get into a job, deaf people start slow; they first need to understand and learn the environment; what does the employer expect of me? So, it starts slow and this could be very frustrating for the employer. But, as we learn to understand this new world of work; learn to be accommodated into the league of non-disabled people; two to three months will be enough for us to start rocketing'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:85, 427:432).

Also, employers should ensure that employees with disabilities understand their role in the workplace. According to a participant, *'it is not easy for us to come into the workplace and operate as normal people. Because we need to understand what to do and we need to fit in where we work. So, it is very important for an employer to see that we are in the right place, in the workplace'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:70, 383:387).

5.5.2.4 Workplace accessibility

Workplace accessibility relates to the measures that an employer needs to implement for employees with disabilities to be able to move freely and safely in the workplace and make an effective contribution.

Willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas

Participants regarded workplace accessibility as a mechanism through which workplace effectiveness could be achieved. For instance, a participant thought that *'for the workplace to be effective, the employer must make sure that it is fully accessible to employees with disabilities, not only for wheelchair users but also for the deaf and blind employees who might be there'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:14, 61:64). This response reveals a willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas with minimal accidents (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:114, 120:123).

The value of workplace accessibility as an enabler for workplace effectiveness stems from the view expressed aptly by one participant that *'if a person with disabilities is provided with a comfortable work environment, space, freedom to work independently and accessible toilet facilities, they will perform to the best of their abilities'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:105, 154:157). Therefore, workplace accessibility implies that *'employers must also*

minimise environmental risks for the disabled employees' (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:62, 291:292).

In order to ensure workplace accessibility, employers may implement reasonable accommodation measures. Therefore, a participant defined workplace-effective mobility to *'include other things such as reasonable accommodation, e.g. equipment, access to information, better facilities, positioning of working tools like fax machines, chairs, tables, notice boards and white boards for presentations at an appropriate level to ensure productivity, comfort and freedom of movement in the working space'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:104, 133:139).

According to a participant, prior to implementing reasonable accommodation measures, *'the employer must look at specific needs of employees with disabilities in the workplace, e.g. if a person is using a wheelchair the tables must be high enough for the wheelchair to fit underneath'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:15, 64:67). Looking at the specific needs of employees with disabilities will ensure that employers *'understand [their] special needs and accommodate them'* in the workplace (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:59, 288:289) to enable effective performance.

Also, employers may redesign office space, facilitate rehabilitation, and implement alternative time arrangements to allow comfortable movement and performance of employees with disabilities. With regard to redesigning office spaces, participants emphasised sufficient lighting for the Deaf to enable lip reading (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:92, 295:300), and the provision of ramps or rails to enable access into building (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:106, 368:375). For Deaf employees, office redesign also includes the provision of visual materials to enable lip reading (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:103, 541:542).

Reasonable accommodation measures may also involve employee assistance programmes to ensure employee health and wellness (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:130, 218:222), and consideration of alternative work arrangements such as flexi-time to minimise the impact of inaccessible transportation on the work etiquette of employees with disabilities (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:128, 167:169) and the provision of light work to enable the self-growth of employees with disabilities (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:11, 102:104). Instead of dismissing employees with disabilities, employers should focus on rehabilitation as a measure to ensure the best possible fit between individual skills and the job’s requirements. According to a participant, employers must *‘re-employ [employees with disabilities] and see to it that we fit in the workplace because we have very, very good skills’* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:144, 390:393).

Willingness and ability to change places of residence to achieve success

Other participants appreciated the fact that employees with disabilities may need to be willing and able to change places of residence to achieve physical accessibility and workplace success (improved work ethic). However, the decision to change places of residence depends on reasonability of income (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:55, 267:273) and perceived social support in the new place (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:69, 357:361).

Willingness and ability to operate and care for assistive devices

With regard to assistive devices, participants highlighted the importance of equipment that enables and enhances the performance of employees with disabilities (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:127, 131:134; P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:96, 437:438) and workplace accessibility (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:52,

270:272). According to a participant, *'if a person with disabilities is working on higher floors, a kind of access facility should be provided; and if equipments exist, it is just a matter of having it on hand and learning how to use it. A person should be able to go in and out of buildings without a hassle. In other words, if one wants to go out of the building quickly, you do not have to phone security and it takes them ten minutes to get there through a security door'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:8, 53:59). In this context, another participant commended his employer, and gave an example of a time he worked for a cellular phone company (Cell C) and felt that he *'was a little lucky that in a matter of a week a ramp was thrown up. [He] was given a remote control to access the buildings'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:23, 118:120). Also, *'for people with sight problems moving around should be easy; places that are dangerous must be clearly marked out'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:78, 414:415).

Assistive devices therefore range from access devices to JAWS (a kind of computer software), Braille and a diary (to aid memory) for the blind (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:93, 300:306), to *'e-mails for [the] Deaf as [it is] very effective and [an] easier tool to use to avoid misunderstandings'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:12, 82:84). Also, the Deaf employees need sign language interpreters (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:41, 197:201) and hearing aids (for the hard of hearing) (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:89, 469:469). Visual presentation of material is also very useful for Deaf employees. For instance, *'if someone is making a presentation, ask them to have a PowerPoint presentation because we cannot hear people that come up to speak'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:74, 399:400). Another example of a visual presentation of material was articulated by a participant as follows: *'[T]echnology in our Church [is designed in such a way that] the Reverend has a platform in front of him and a piece of*

paper behind him. This is very visual, strongly visual (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:142, 415:417).

While assistive devices (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:9, 27:28; P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:16, 67:69; P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:12, 82:84; P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:74, 399:400) would enable workplace accessibility and effective job performance (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:75, 326:327), participants said that employees with disabilities must develop a willingness and the ability to operate and care for such devices. For instance, a blind participant said: *'I have learnt that the ability to operate and use work equipments, helps'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:77, 240:240). Another blind participant mentioned that *'taking good care of working equipment and working hard are of paramount importance for effective workplace mobility'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:79, 243:245).

Willingness and ability to travel from home to work

As an alternative to changing their places of residence, participants may develop a willingness and ability to travel from home to work in order to achieve workplace accessibility, if the transport facilities are suitable and do not cause excessive fatigue (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:43, 293:295).

Willingness and ability to adhere to workplace safety and health standards

Participants also indicated that employees with disabilities should develop the willingness and ability to adhere to workplace safety and health standards in order to achieve physical accessibility. In this regard, the blind participants emphasised the importance of knowing the structure of the workplace and of positioning work tools to avoid accidents (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:45, 98:104;

P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:114, 120:123). Also, blind participants mentioned that they must *‘ensure [a] hygienic work environment ... to maintain a good state of health’* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:80, 245:246).

5.5.2.5 Positive sense of independence

According to participants, a positive sense of independence is comprised of two sub-themes, namely a willingness and the ability to exercise life choices and a willingness and the ability to enjoy an economically active lifestyle. For participants with physical and sensory disabilities, exercising life choices depends on their accepting their disability status (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:104, 359:360; P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:42, 189:190) in order to achieve a sense of independent functioning (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:54, 145:150). For blind participants, *‘independence is the first thing’* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:99, 340:341). Similarly, Deaf employees like to *‘work independently’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:38, 186:186).

The remunerative value of work assists employees with disabilities to maintain a reasonable lifestyle with disability. Therefore, income *‘creates a sense of independence because one would use the salary to buy things like a house, a car and also be able to pay accounts, as well as have a family’* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:92, 144:147). The Deaf participants use income as an indicator of a better quality of life. Because their salaries are generally lower than those of their able-bodied counterparts, they are often not able to afford basic things such as housing. In this regard, a participant mentioned: *‘[I]t is a striking difference that you do not have a house but some people have houses’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:50, 240:242). Specifically, she mentioned that she does not have a house.

5.5.2.6 *Workplace equity*

Workplace equity relates to measures that an employer should implement to affirm employees with disabilities in the workplace, thereby making them effective contributors. These measures range from suitable performance management systems to participatory management practices.

Performance management and development

As was found in the pilot phase, the participants in the main study highlighted the importance of performance management and development systems for organisational and employee effectiveness. Performance management systems clarify roles, enable recognition for performance and promote the possible career advancement of employees with disabilities. With regard to clarifying roles, a participant said: *'[A]nd when we have got something to do, make sure we understand your instructions; bring some performance guidelines for employees to know their assignments'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:79, 409:412). In their experience, participants observed that a failure to clarify roles results in misunderstanding and unfair disciplinary procedures. In this regard, a participant mentioned the following: *'[I]f the manager is also hearing and he perhaps gives instructions and I cannot get to it because there are too many clients to handle, some clients go and complain to the manageress and she thinks you are a poor performer or angry with clients; yep, yep, yep...'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:142, 261:264). In summary, therefore, a participant advised that *'clear instructions from both customers and supervisors help me to make a positive contribution in my work situation'* (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:51, 113:114).

In relation to recognition for their performance, a participant expressed the following need: '*[T]he employer must recognise the contributions that employees with disabilities make to the organisation*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:41, 152:154). This process of recognising performance requires that '*employers focus on the end product and not solely on qualifications. Yeah, qualifications are one of those necessary factors, but look at what is the output; what is the outcome of a person's work. It can be that a person without a qualification would provide a better quality of work than a person who has qualifications*' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:63, 330:334).

In the event that employees with disabilities are not able to meet the set performance targets '*employers should also understand that it takes time for us to perform our allocated tasks. So, it is always helpful for employers to communicate and assess our performance regularly and provide us with feedback so that we can always improve on our shortcomings*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:67, 242:246). Feedback was regarded by participants as an opportunity to acknowledge and fix any mistakes (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:86, 432:435). Having provided performance feedback, an employer '*must send you on training so that you can be promoted; so that you can immediately do other functions*' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:20, 79:81) or provide '*career guidance for employees*' with disabilities (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:83, 422:422).

Career pathing was identified as an avenue through which the performance of employees with disabilities could be recognised. Therefore, '*another thing employers need to think about is that there must be a career path for an employee with disabilities*' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:18, 71:73).

Job readiness training

Because participants believed that workplace-effective mobility can be learnt over time (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:139, 470:471), employers were urged to provide opportunities for job readiness training to their employees with disabilities. The job readiness training may take the form of learnerships (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:70, 251:253) or study loans (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:72, 256:258) or even rehabilitation (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:44, 234:240). Participants indicated the value of job readiness training or rehabilitation in providing information relating to the job (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:44, 234:240) ‘*for more effectiveness*’ (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:55, 276:279), commenting that they could ‘*better the quality of life because [it prepares people with disabilities] for life challenges*’ (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:47, 246:249).

Job readiness training may also enable employees with disabilities to learn other jobs in order to achieve their career goals (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:47, 65:65). However, job readiness training or rehabilitation should be provided in the relevant fields of expertise (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:49, 258:261) and should preferably be ‘*provided on an equitable basis*’ (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:54, 274:276). A conflict of views occurred between a participant and moderator relating to whether to integrate or segregate the job readiness training of employees with disabilities and that of other employees. The participant said that if such ‘*training [is] along hearing people, one learns more [and therefore it must] not be isolated type of training*’ (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:136, 65:66). The moderator cautioned that integrated schooling is a European phenomenon which South Africa needs to steer away from and that we should rather maintain segregated

schooling for the Deaf (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:143, 526:531).

Job readiness training may also include orientation and induction to ensure organisational effectiveness. While participants with physical disabilities mentioned this as initial training that will fast-track performance (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:55, 276:279), Deaf participants saw it as ensuring role clarity (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:79, 409:412). The speech-impaired saw orientation and induction as enabling them to attain job mobility (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:10, 57:60), while blind participants saw orientation and induction as creating opportunities for workplace awareness for safety reasons (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:49, 119:126).

Sensitivity training and awareness

From what the participants in the main study said, it became evident that sensitivity training and awareness is the employer's responsibility aimed at '*improving [able-bodied employees'] understanding of the needs and challenges of their colleagues with disabilities*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:75, 264:267). Therefore, sensitivity training and awareness enable '*the building of good relationships between the disabled and able-bodied employees, thereby improving productivity in the workplace*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:76, 267:271). A positive spin-off of sensitivity training pertaining to productivity is that '*there can be something about status and [a] reputation boost for the company out of this investment*' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:98, 439:443).

Targeted recruitment

The role of media and disability organisations pertaining to the targeted recruitment of candidates with disabilities for employment in the workplace was also highlighted by the participants in the main study. Participants indicated that employers could use *'such media as radio to advertise their vacant positions'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:103, 262:264) or *'they could go to organisations for blind people and place their advertisements there'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:91 294:295).

A targeted recruitment approach enables candidates with disabilities to attain *'workplace-effective mobility and equal access to job opportunities [which] provide a better quality of life than relying on disability grants'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:91, 142:144). A targeted recruitment approach would thus enhance the willingness and ability of people with disabilities to find work in the open labour market.

Fairness and equity

Participants expressed a strong need to be treated fairly and equitably in the workplace. Such fair and equitable treatment could include support and assistance from colleagues (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:130, 177:182). Of particular importance to employees with disabilities is salary parity – an equitable salary for jobs with a comparable worth (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:68, 309:312) and equal treatment (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:46, 321:323). However, salary parity and equal treatment depend on the ability of an employee with disabilities to cope with the job. Therefore, a participant highlighted the notion that *'we should be treated the same because at the end of the day we receive the same salary and we must be able to cope with the workload. If you cannot cope, then, yeah, you should not be employed'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:11,

70:73). Also, fair and equitable treatment relates to the fact that *'for a deaf person to be in a hearing environment, it has to be accepted that their first language is sign language'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:38, 216:217).

Participatory management practices

Participants indicated that participatory management practices in the workplace enable employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility. Such practices include involving employees with disabilities in the planning stages of the organisation and in decision-making processes. Participants highlighted the value of involving employees with disabilities in organisational planning by saying that they *'will learn from the experience and will know where the company is headed'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:73, 389:392). Involving employees with disabilities in decision-making processes will enable organisations *'to achieve effectiveness'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:54, 200:204) because of the opportunities it creates for them to *'gain access to information'* that is necessary for effective job performance (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:94, 435:436).

5.5.3 Inhibitors of workplace-effective mobility

Inhibitors of workplace-effective mobility that emerged from the data were accessibility issues, a negative self-concept, the high unemployment rate and workplace prejudice. These inhibitors are discussed below.

5.5.3.1 Accessibility issues

As in the pilot phase, participants in the main study indicated that inaccessible transportation inhibits the attainment of workplace-effective mobility by employees with disabilities (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt

– 4:133, 162:164). Thus, a lack of *‘transport to and from work negatively affects the ability of employees with disabilities to perform and employers need to recognise it as such’* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:60, 225:227). Also, inaccessible transportation has a negative effect on the attendance schedule of employees with disabilities. For instance, *‘it can happen that a person comes late for work because he uses inaccessible transport and then the person gets stressed because employers do not understand that it is not the person’s fault that he or she is late for work’* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:134, 164:167). Furthermore, inaccessible transportation may have negative consequences on the mental and physical health of employees with disabilities. According to a participant, when *‘travelling from home to work, [an employee with disabilities must] always think about who is going to pick [them] up, whether ... a taxi or a bus. The bus may not be suitable and the travelling may be tiring’* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:43, 293:295).

The acquisition of knowledge for the job has been found to be an important enabler of workplace-effective mobility by participants. However, the institutions of learning have often denied people with disabilities *‘developmental opportunities ... because of accessibility issues and not because of the capability of employees with disabilities’* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:71, 253:256). The inaccessibility of institutions stems from the fact that *‘there are schools for disabled but not universities, so it is very difficult to pursue educational qualifications that employers often look for as a criterion of suitability for employment and getting higher salaries. For one to obtain an education, you must be extra adaptable’* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:51, 265:269). Because of the problem of segregated educational facilities, there is an argument in South Africa for integrated training and education. However, a participant commented that he did not think *‘that in practice it would work because the spoken language of deaf people is not comparable to that of hearing people. So, practically, I do not know if it would be feasible’* (P23: Western

Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:66, 350:354). Another participant tried to study graphic design in a college, but did not succeed in his studies because *‘it is very inaccessible ... [so now, he does] not have a qualification in graphic design’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:144, 324:328).

Also, workplaces are generally not accessible to employees with disabilities, with far-reaching consequences for organisational effectiveness and employee health. For instance, an *‘inaccessible workplace also has a big influence; if you have to struggle to get to the toilet you get a lot of pressure and it can influence your productivity’* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:135, 169:171). Productivity is negatively affected because facilities are inaccessible and employees with disabilities have to go home for assistance (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:80, 96:101). An example of inaccessible workplaces was provided by the experiences of one participant, who said that the *‘access mechanisms ... are impractical for quad-paraplegics to use for access into front doors, because there is a little step there. Even getting into a building is difficult; from our vehicles you have to be offloaded onto the stoep because if you are offloaded onto the parking lot, you cannot access your workplace because there is a big step’* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:21, 107:113).

5.5.3.2 Negative self-concept

Communication problems, a lack of self-motivation and negative attitudes are issues that participants indicated could have a negative impact on the self-concept of employees with disabilities to a point that they are inhibited from attaining workplace-effective mobility.

Communication problems

With regard to communication, a participant said that communication problems make it difficult for employees with disabilities to learn new jobs (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:12, 65:67) or employers to give work-related instructions. For instance, a participant mentioned that employees with disabilities *‘are much more productive if everyone speaks the same language. As a manager, you will be frustrated because you cannot give assignments; you cannot assign work because you have communication problems’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:5, 45:48).

Communication problems do not only manifest in frustration for managers but also for employees with disabilities. A participant therefore indicated that communication problems are causing frustration for her (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:148, 293:297). Furthermore, communication problems tend to deprive employees with disabilities of opportunities to attain higher level positions. In this regard, a participant reported that for four years he *‘worked at the South African Railways and obtained technical qualifications there’*. He *‘told them that as a foreman, a deaf person would be able to do a lot of work; but they were afraid to put a deaf person in a lightsman position because of communication problems’* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:152, 71:75).

Lack of self-motivation

An employee with disabilities could show a lack of self-motivation by *‘not ...trying hard enough to prove that he can do it; he may be too slack in his job’* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:64, 93:94). Alternatively, employees without self-motivation may start *‘feeling sorry for themselves and have absolutely no ambition of going anywhere in the world’* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:87, 210:214). In this

context, therefore, employees with disabilities may experience a negative self-concept.

Negative attitudes

When employers doubt the abilities of employees with disabilities, these employees' self-confidence is adversely affected. In this regard, a participant said: *'...but one thing that always irritates me is people telling me you cannot do this or that. It just breaks down my self-confidence because then I believe I cannot do something and then I do it their way'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:39, 186:189). Not only does prejudice affect the self-confidence of employees with disabilities adversely, but it also *'means they are very much discriminated against; they are not given opportunities'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:145, 169:172). Furthermore, negative attitudes tend to relegate employees with disabilities to a worthless position (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:146, 273:275) in which they feel marginalised (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:43, 236:242).

5.5.3.3 Unemployment rate

The new democratic South Africa does not seem to address the exclusion of people with disabilities from paid employment effectively; they remain mostly unemployed. For instance, a participant lamented the fact that *'when the new South Africa opened up [people with disabilities] could not get jobs. Everybody is talking about things over there; but most people started getting out of jobs and [they] did not know what was going on. It made [them] feel bad; it made [them] feel unwelcomed'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:13, 110:113). Another participant mentioned that *'between 2003 – 2007 or thereabouts [he] found a job but [the] employers went bankrupt and thereafter [he] struggled to find another job'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees –

Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:21, 133:135). The high unemployment rate, therefore, serves as an inhibitor of workplace-effective mobility for people with disabilities.

5.5.3.4 Workplace prejudice

Workplace prejudice manifests in unfair discrimination, unfulfilled promises, and stereotyping and the stigmatisation of employees with disabilities.

Unfair discrimination

Some employers reportedly discriminate against people with disabilities by putting up signs stating: *'I do not hire disabled people'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:69, 205:208). Also, employers tend to use disability and age (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:147, 290:291) to discriminate against candidates with disabilities. An example was provided when a participant got a call for interviews, but because he *'was blind, [the potential employers] said sorry, we cannot help you'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:119, 187:189). Job advertisements are also often not accessible to candidates with disabilities. In this regard a participant explained why blind people cannot find work: *'First of all, employers advertise jobs in newspapers and blind people cannot see the advertisements'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:90, 292:294).

When they are granted an opportunity to be included in paid employment, however, participants mentioned that employees with disabilities often do not receive equitable workloads. When allocating work, a participant has *'found that employers do not always distribute work 100% equitably. Because of perceived safety risks to employees with disabilities and in the interest of productivity, employers always give*

work to non-disabled employees, thereby preventing us from achieving workplace-effective mobility (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:109, 160:166). Also, employees with disabilities are not provided with resources to enable their effective performance. A participant observed that the *'lack of resources, e.g. equipment, finances, serves as an impediment to workplace-effective mobility* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:110, 199:200). A participant recollected a workplace experience *'when [she] was a switchboard operator [and she] was not allowed to have a speech computer or Braille machine to do typing work* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:134, 169:171). In the case of Deaf employees, a participant shared an experience that *'where hearing and deaf people work together, more attention tends to be given to hearing people; they receive more attention, more work, while deaf people are sidelined'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:145, 221:223).

The administration of salaries often does not adhere to parity principles. Also, salary administration does not take into account that employees with disabilities have acquired the necessary qualifications and skills for the job (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:53, 282:285). According to a participant, *'now if someone else has a qualification in graphic design, that person would be paid more than me even though my designs could be better'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:62, 328:330). As a result of these unfair salary differentials, the quality of life of employees with disabilities is adversely affected (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:49, 235:240). In the allocation of benefits, employers also tend to discriminate against employees with disabilities. For instance, a participant *'applied for a bursary last year, and [the employers] approved it. But they have not yet paid her tuition fees to the University of South Africa [UNISA]'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:54, 237:241).

Furthermore, employees with disabilities experience a glass ceiling due to a lack of career development. For instance, a participant indicated that *'in the building industry; specifically, it is not easy to change the environment where you work [because]... in the building industry, building is what you do for a long time'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:39, 218:220). Such a lack of career progression is often contrary to employees' demonstrating excellence and commitment to their work. A participant explained that *'in an office environment, my friend, hearing people always abuse deaf people because deaf people work fast. They are not able to talk; they are not distracted by noise. So, it is important for employers to make sure that other people do not throw their work onto the deaf employees'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:128, 694:698). Because of a lack of career pathing for employees with disabilities, able-bodied employees tend to move up the organisational ladder more frequently and faster than their colleagues with disabilities (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:52, 276:281).

Additionally, employers do not always allow employees with disabilities freedom of association. As an example, a participant said: *'I wanted to go to the Department of Labour and I always wanted to belong to a union but I was warned that I will lose my job if I did that'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:113, 572:574).

Unfulfilled promises

Often, employers promise employees with disabilities that the employers will implement reasonable accommodation measures but then do not always deliver on those promises. One participant indicated that *'there were lots of promises made with regards to, you know, sorting out our disability needs in the workplace, but none has been met thus far'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:85, 115:117). For instance, a participant remembered that her employers *'promised to buy*

[her] *a computerized switchboard; until today [she is] still struggling. [She has been] working for three years in the department now but ... still do[es] not have an e-mail address'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:139, 252:254).

This situation where employers do not fulfil promises is aggravated by the 'blind-folded' compliance with employment equity legislation. With the advent of employment equity legislation, employers are '*just happy that they could employ disabled people to meet their equity targets. [As a result and as an employee with disabilities] you feel that you are not treated like an equal; you are like locked away. You see people at tea time conversing with one another as colleagues and yet as people with disabilities you are kept away and we feel that what we say is of no importance'* (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:89, 80:84). Even the disabilities are treated as the same by employers despite the fact that employees '*differ in [their] disabilities* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:138, 135:137).

Stereotyping and stigmatisation

Participants mentioned that the private sector tends to have stereotyped views about employees with disabilities. These stereotyped views are compounded by inaccessible workplaces that inhibit the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. For instance, a Deaf participant said that '*working in the private sector is difficult because it is inaccessible. There are perceptions among private sector people that for me to communicate at one hundred percent efficiency, I would need an interpreter all the time. The one definite barrier is that my language differs'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:53, 262:265). Because of the language differences, it becomes '*difficult for ... a deaf person to get employment'* in the open labour market (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:154, 359:362). Also, employers tend to have '*some misconceptions about deafness*

[suggesting] *that you cannot do many things. It makes it very hard to find work outside deaf environments*' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:10, 69:70).

In the workplace, stereotypical views manifest in a negative attitude among colleagues against employees with disabilities. According to a participant, *'sometimes, [colleagues] say bad things about you and it will affect you for the whole day or a week. We are human beings, and we are able to do everything as able-bodied colleagues'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:137, 122:125). As a result of these stereotypical responses, employees with disabilities are often faced with prejudice. A participant shared an experience of prejudice by stating that employers *'think that it is always difficult to communicate with deaf people and they expect that we must just accept their world and culture, or whatever. For example, when there is a meeting, only the hearing people are invited and the deaf do not attend meetings. They are not provided with feedback regarding the meetings. Everything is kept secretive'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:41, 223:232).

In demonstrating how people with disabilities are generally stigmatised, a participant said: *'[I]n most cases, when a person passes you in the streets, maybe you are waiting for transport or something; they will start making comfort speeches. They would ask, 'why do you not go to such a Church and they can pray for you and then you will be healed', I am just making an example. It is not a bad thing; but in most cases you will find that you will be given such high hopes and in the end something like that does not happen'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:41, 183:189). Stereotyping and stigmatisation thus affect the self-concept of employees with disabilities, and inhibit them from attaining workplace-effective mobility.

Workplace prejudice further manifests in perceived cost implications relating to the implementation of reasonable accommodation measures.

According to a participant, *'the employer might think that appointing a deaf person might be very expensive because he would need more of this and that. It is also perceived that changing the layout of the building or things like that is expensive. So, misconceptions like these may cause them to think they need to pay them less'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:146, 277:281). As a result of prejudice, Deaf employees try always to keep a record of instructions provided to them in the workplace.

This defensive behaviour of keeping a record of instructions stems from the fact that *'hearing people might think that a deaf person cannot remember what they said; you can argue "you said this; you said that" and they might think you cannot remember. Sometimes the hearing person will not admit their errors'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:90, 447:451). In this regard, a participant mentioned the following: *'[I]n the current work that I do, if someone asks me to help them with something and I help, they would say "no it is wrong". And then I would show them a piece of paper on which they wrote what I had to do. I always keep this piece of paper where they wrote down what I should do so that if they say I did it wrong then I can say "you told me to do this"'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:149, 443:447).

5.5.4 Differential treatment

Because of cost of reasonable accommodation measures (see Section 5.4.3.3), I needed to investigate if there were any differentiation based on disability category.

There seemed to be agreement among all groups that employers prefer appointing employees with physical disabilities. In her experience recruiting candidates with disabilities to workplaces in various positions, a participant confirmed that the APD Centre in the Free State has placed

'more people with physical disabilities than of the other types of disability' (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:87, 396:397). Several reasons were provided by participants for the employer bias towards candidates with physical disabilities over those with sensory disabilities. In providing these reasons, a Deaf participant said: *'[F]or people with physical disabilities it is much easier because they can understand the language. Communication is therefore easier. It is easier for them to break down a barrier and make it wider. It is also easier for the employer to put up a ramp than it is to teach staff sign language'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:107, 572:575). Employees with physical disabilities also tend to offer a better fit to the job after they become disabled than employees with sensory disabilities whose services are often terminated (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:96, 328:334).

The hope for a new democratic dispensation addressing disability discrimination has seemingly been thwarted because *'even in this so-called new South Africa, we do not find work easily like the people who are registered at the Association for People with Disabilities, e.g. people using wheelchairs and/or crutches even though their IQ is less than ours. They get work; simple work and they get paid for it'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:72, 217:221). However, the preferential employment of people with physical disabilities is often done with consideration of the costs of reasonable accommodation. For instance, as a participant observed: *'[A]lso between physical disabilities; [employers] would rather appoint someone who is not using a wheelchair than a person using a wheelchair because they think it is too expensive to make the workplace accessible'* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:90, 414:417). Therefore, a participant observed that *'the employer wants to make money; if you are disabled and cannot make it in the job you must find another job or leave; this is not fair'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:44, 306:313).

The reasons for employers not considering people with sensory disabilities for a position vary. Some participants attribute the differential treatment of employees with disabilities to employer ignorance, workplace prejudice and general resistance. According to a participant, *'this [differential treatment of disability groups] stems from the problem of defining disabilities and a lack of appreciation of differences among types of disabilities'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:79, 278:280). The differential treatment of various disability types by employers is also attributable to *'a general lack of understanding and appreciation of the sign language'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:81, 286:288). It may also be that employers *'do not ... know what tasks they could give to blind people. Actually, I think, they are generally ignorant about the disabled people'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:64, 193:194).

Workplace prejudice is aggravated by the failure of legislation to address the differential treatment of people with different disabilities more effectively. According to a participant, the differential treatment of disability groupings could be addressed *'through legislation; it would be easy to understand legislation but I think that with the Disability Act as it is currently, people can still find loopholes and find ways around it'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:60, 290:292). Because of these legislative short-comings, a participant indicated *'some people have negative attitudes against us even though we may be more educated than they are, they still call us names. But there is nothing wrong in calling a blind person, blind; as long as you acknowledge that we are also human beings. In Germanic cultures, this is very much respected, but not in a Black culture. In the Black culture, they call us names and that is why they are unlucky'* (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:107, 378:384).

With regard to differential treatment arising from resistance, a participant highlighted that *'people always choose the pathway of [least] resistance*

and nine out of ten [people who are employed are] people who are physically disabled. So, I think deaf and blind are almost similar because they will always need people to help them around. For the deaf people however, it will be the other way around. Unlike their blind counterparts, they will be able to walk around but not able to communicate. So, employers always follow the pathway of [least] resistance' (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:108, 577:582). Evident in this response is the fact that the blind people may have a better opportunity than their Deaf counterparts to find employment. According to a participant, *'blind people might be distinguished as they know the language; everywhere they go'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:124, 647:648). Therefore, because *'the deaf people cannot communicate in the spoken language very easily, ...they are [more] marginalised than blind and physically disabled people'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:122, 633:638).

In dealing with the differential treatment of various disability groupings in the workplace, however, caution should be exercised because *'physically disabled people and visually disabled people have experienced completely different discrimination in completely different situations. I am always very careful about this because it is something that divides the disability community. It has caused serious enmity in the past. From my experience in working across disability groupings, I know that it is something I had to treat very carefully'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:114, 618:626).

5.5.5 General opinions

Participants indicated that *'the study will be an eye opener to employers and it will definitely assist in finding mechanisms to improve our career prospects. We also wish that government considers the issues we have discussed in order to ensure effectiveness in the employment equity*

processes in this country (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:82, 292:297).

When distinguishing between the Deaf and people with a speech impairment, Deaf participants mentioned that there are significant differences between the two disability types because *'it is all about how you learn language'* (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:118, 600:602). Participants suggested that future research should focus more on creating a balance of experiences relating to workplace-effective mobility for *'those coming from oral and hearing culture or [who] associate themselves with that and also those who have been deafened later in their lives'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:117, 648:654).

Lastly, a participant distinguished between willingness and ability as follows: *'[W]illingness means you are purpose-driven and ability means that you are just following the process'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:87, 459:460). Therefore, these two concepts were adopted in the dimensionalisation of workplace-effective mobility and the identification of indicators of workplace-effective mobility.

Neither DEAFSA nor Deaf participants regarded Deafness as disability. For instance, a participant regarded Deafness as language differences (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:106,486:489), and DEAFSA indicated that it is a misconception on my part to treat Deafness as a disability (P21: RE Request to conduct interviews for Doctoral Studies Scanned2.txt – 21:1, 28:34)

5.5.6 Comparing and contrasting the results from the pilot and the main study

The data from pilot phase suggested that workplace-efficient mobility could be defined as a willingness and the ability to find work in the open

labour market, make an effective contribution and maintain an economically active life-style. This information was retained for the main study. In the main study, the participants agreed with this definition and added being goal-oriented, self-efficacy (self-motivation) and communication.

In respect of enablers and inhibitors of workplace-efficient mobility, participants in both phases identified similar enablers and inhibitors, which suggests that theoretical saturation was achieved in this regard.

Both data sets were then used to compile a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility, as explained in Chapter 8.

5.6 TENTATIVE CRITERIA FOR WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

With the exception of workplace equity, which indicates the role an employer should play to enable the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, the first five themes that emerged from the data as enablers are considered dimensions of workplace-effective mobility. These themes are a positive self-concept, a positive sense of independence, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence and workplace accessibility. The themes resonated in both the pilot and main focus group sessions as dimensions for workplace-effective mobility. Table 5.2 presents the various dimensions by segments of the definition.

Table 5.2: Tentative criteria for workplace-effective mobility

Definition	Dimension
Willingness and ability to:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> find work in the open labour market 	Positive self-concept Self-efficacy
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> make an effective contribution 	Self-efficacy Workplace accessibility Sense of coherence

Definition	Dimension
Willingness and ability to:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> enjoy economically active lifestyle 	Positive sense of independence

From this table, it is evident that for a person with disabilities to find work in the open labour market, he or she would need to have a positive self-concept (knowledge and experience requirements) and self-efficacy (self-motivation and achievement orientation). In order to make an effective contribution, self-efficacy (self-motivation and an achievement orientation), workplace accessibility (assistive devices and reasonable accommodation measures) and sense of coherence (coping resources) would be essential. To enjoy an economically active lifestyle, an employee with disabilities would need to achieve a positive sense of independence (income and self-determination).

Table 5.3 indicates the various indicators (by dimension) of workplace-effective mobility.

Table 5.3: Dimensions of workplace-effective mobility by indicator

Dimension	Indicators
Positive self-concept	<u>Willingness and ability to</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acquire knowledge and experience Assert one's human rights Communicate one's needs Determine one's own career path Maintain a positive self-concept Maintain self-confidence Work in a team environment
Positive sense of independence	<u>Willingness and ability to</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Maintain an economically active lifestyle Exercise life choices
Self-efficacy	<u>Willingness and ability to</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Find work in the open labour market Adjust to a changing working environment Change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success

Dimension	Indicators
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieve upward mobility in the workplace • Assume a productive role • Work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace • Make an effective contribution • Maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community • Maintain a positive work ethic • Transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class
Sense of Coherence	<u>Willingness and ability to</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cope with work demands • Maintain a positive attitude towards life • Maintain a productive job fit
Workplace accessibility	<u>Willingness and ability to</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Move freely and safely in built areas • Change places of residence to achieve success • Operate and care for assistive devices • Travel from home to work • Adhere to workplace safety and health procedures

Together, the dimensions and their indicators constitute criteria for workplace-effective mobility that would be verified and confirmed in the quantitative phase of the study. Because these dimensions and indicators were explained in detail in Sections 5.4.2 and 5.5.2, a tabular presentation was chosen to avoid duplication.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented results from both the pilot and the main focus group sessions with participants. Despite the original assumption that the various disability categories would display large differences in their results, the findings indicate the opposite. A similar response pattern was found among participants from the different categories of disabilities. Such similarity of responses indicates theoretical saturation of the concepts found in the pilot study results (a positive self-concept, a

positive sense of independence, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, workplace accessibility and workplace equity as enablers).

Although the participants defined the concept from various perspectives, namely workplace accessibility, or communication, or sense of independence, there seems to be some agreement among them that workplace-effective mobility relates to the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to find work in the open labour market, make an effective contribution and grow in the workplace. The concept is thus characterized by the dimensions of a positive self-concept, workplace accessibility, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence and a positive sense of independence.

The results indicate that caution should be exercised in debating the differential employer treatment of employees from various disability categories to avoid dividing people along disability lines. Also, in researching disability, researchers should define their samples clearly, because there are differences within groups and between groups of disabilities that may influence the research process and results in different ways.

In this chapter, the comparison of the results with the literature is not yet presented, as this comparison is presented in Chapter 7 in preparation of the compilation of a theoretical model on workplace-effective mobility in Chapter 8. In the next chapter, the results from the quantitative phase involving the use of the Delphi technique are presented.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS FROM THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE (CONFIRMATORY DELPHI PHASE)

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the quantitative results from the quantitative phase of the study, which used a two-round Delphi process with expert participants. The chapter begins with the dynamics experienced in the Delphi pilot phase and the lessons learnt from this phase. It proceeds to the results from the first Delphi round, which was intended to clarify, refine and expand on the criteria for workplace-effective mobility identified in the focus group interviews with the participants, as discussed in Chapter 5. The chapter culminates in a presentation of the consensus reached by the expert participants in the second Delphi round.

6.2 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The purpose of the Delphi process was to *'clarify, refine and expand the identified indicators in order to ensure their representativeness to the concept of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities (EwDs). Representativeness means the extent to which an indicator approximates or represents the concept of workplace-effective mobility'* (P1: Delphi Round Number One.txt – 1:5, 85:109). The results of the two Delphi rounds with expert participants – industrial and organisational psychologists – in relation to the process purpose indicated above are therefore presented in this section, by round. Originally, three rounds were envisaged for the Delphi process, with a duration of one hour per round: *'It is envisaged that three rounds to Delphi will be undertaken, with a minimum of a week each round on an electronic basis (by e- mail)'*

(P9: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned.txt – 9:4, 91:94). However, because of the technical problems experienced, it was decided to regard Round One as a pilot round for the purposes of the quantitative Delphi phase.

6.2.1 Pilot round of the Delphi process

The pilot round was fraught with a number of problems, ranging from problematic access to the Moodle webpage by the expert participants to their queries regarding the content and structure of the questionnaire. These problems are explained below.

6.2.1.1 Problems with access to the Moodle webpage

When participants accessed the Moodle webpage, it indicated that the site was not available, which necessitated that the expert participants click on the URL further down the system window (P2: First Round of Delphi.txt – 2:1, 32:33). Also, once one expert participant had responded to the questionnaire, the others could not access it at all. I became aware of this problem through the e-mail that I received from a participant: *‘Kgomotso – It says I have already completed the survey. Is there another username or password?’* (P10: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned2.txt – 10:4, 57:58). Another participant indicated that despite typing in the correct details, system access was still unavailable: *‘Hi, I typed in the username and password but cannot access your questions, pls let me know’* (P28: RE FW First Round of Delphi Scanned.txt – 28:1, 22:25).

In some cases, participants missed access deadlines, as is evident in the following response: *‘I have unfortunately seemed to miss the deadline for your questionnaire. Is there any way I can still participate? I hope I have not created difficulty for you in this regard’* (P25: RE First Round of Delphi Scanned 7.txt – 25:1, 8:10).

These problems persisted regardless of my personal interventions: *'Please make sure that you do not type in delphi7 but delph7. I have just gone through it, and I could access the questionnaire'* (P28: RE FW First Round of Delphi Scanned.txt – 28:2, 8:10). As a result of the failed log-in attempts, I eventually reported this problem to the Information Technology Division of the Vaal University of Technology (my employer). The division advised *'that you [participants] may need to use a different PC, with the same login details. Please try that and advise if it is working'* (P10: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned2.txt – 10:3, 43:45). I also apologized to participants and provided feedback on the status of the problem to them as follows: *'It is with a deepest sense of regret to advise you that I have experienced some technical problems with the Delphi Round One attempt. Due to a common username and password being provided, I discovered that if one participant completes the questionnaire, the other participants could not participate. My technical colleagues and I have since attended to the problem. You are thus humbly requested to try again using the following:...'* (P10: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned2.txt – 10:1, 8:13).

Otherwise, other participants could not participate due to technical problems or work related commitments. One participant said, *'I have had terrible problems with my computer over the last week, so my apologies for not sending this to you sooner'* (P10: FW Invitation to Participate in Delphi rounds Scanned2.txt – 10:6, 144:146). Other invitation e-mails bounced with the following message: *'This message was created automatically by mail delivery software. A message that you sent has not yet been delivered to one or more of its recipients after more than 24 hours on the queue on mailsvr.vut.ac.za'* (P11: FW Warning message 1Ka6BS-000599-UN delayed 24 hours Scanned.txt – 11:1, 17:20). In other cases, participants were away from their offices, for example: *'I am out of office from 23 – 27 February 2008, for urgent matters please contact me on my cellphone'* (P14: Out of Office AutoReply First Round of Delphi Scanned.txt – 14:1, 6:7).

6.2.1.2 Content and structural problems regarding the questionnaire

Participants indicated problems in understanding concepts used in the questionnaire, and complained about the actual duration they spent responding to the Delphi questionnaire. Regarding understanding the concept, one participant mentioned that *'there is not always a clear understanding as to what qualifies as an EwDs [employees with disabilities]* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:13, 679:680).

Another participant was concerned about the comprehensiveness and complexity of the questionnaire. Regarding the comprehensiveness, the participant indicated that *'the definitions do not always do justice to the concept. You are repeating one question twice. Each one of these concepts should be seen in context. Competence has a context and it means many things to different people. What do you mean by humility? Etc. I think the first part of your process needs significantly more work and clarity'* (P23: Re First Round of Delphi Scanned2.txt – 23:2, 16:21). The person thus proposed the following: *'[M]y suggestion would be that you ask people working in disability to review this: e.g.: S... W... from [the] Cape Town Society for the Blind and Dr C... D... from S...D... in Cape Town to name only two people'* (P23: Re First Round of Delphi Scanned2.txt – 23:3, 23:27). For fear of any influence of a different paradigm on the results, I did not heed this proposal, because the suggested participants were not in the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

Regarding the structure of the questionnaire, a participant indicated having *'looked at ... [the] questionnaire and found it rather difficult and time consuming as I would have to comment extensively on each concept. I do not have the time to do this at this stage'* (P23: Re First Round of Delphi Scanned2.txt – 23:1, 9:12). In the same vein, a participant indicated the following pertaining to the structure of the questionnaire and proposed a solution: *'You are measuring several variables – access to job opportunities, Perform effectively and developing the capacity to enjoy a good quality life. When answering the questionnaire and the*

indicators, some of the indicators apply to all and some of the indicators apply to one or two of the variables, would it not be more effective to split the questionnaire into three one measuring: – access to job opportunities – Perform effectively – develop capacity to enjoy good quality life. Perhaps looking at the indicators that pertain to most of them’ (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:9, 661:669).

One participant was comfortable with the dimensions proposed, but indicated the following: *‘[A]ll of the above things should be in place. However we should guard against over-analysis and overprotection of EwD [employee with disability] lest we communicate that they are helpless’* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:4, 640:642). Another participant also felt comfortable with the dimensions identified, but indicated: *‘[Y]ou seem to have covered all the areas, I just some of the indicators apply more to some of the variables you want to measure and because you are looking at three variables it may cloud the issue’* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:7, 651:653).

These problems necessitated a review of the questionnaire *‘to make it a bit simpler and time convenient’* (P20: RE Delphi Round Number One Scanned.txt – 20:2, 34:38). Otherwise, there seemed to be a general willingness by expert participants to participate in the study; for example, one replied: *‘I just need to confirm that I did not receive your first email, so this is the first time I am receiving anything from you, I will try and answer the survey asap’* (P27: Re FW First Round of Delphi Scanned 3.txt – 27:1, 8:10). In order to address the concerns of the participants, I changed the electronic platform from Moodle to Excel, and refined the questionnaire for greater understandability.

Some responses from participants corroborated the information already obtained from the focus group interview participants in the previous phase. The following indicates how the participants’ responses

corroborated the results from the focus group interview phase of the study:

Communication problems

Communication problems were specified as a major inhibitor of workplace-effective mobility for the Deaf employees. In the pilot Delphi phase, an expert supported this finding by citing an example: *‘One particular case that comes to mind is a hearing impaired employee – Most managers find it difficult to interact with her. She is then inclined to respond aggressively’* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:5, 646:648).

Orientation and induction

Orientation and induction was identified by participants in the focus group interviews as an enabler of workplace-effective mobility. This finding was confirmed as follows: *‘[T]here must be [an] effective induction programme for disabled people’* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:10, 671:671).

Positive self-concept

A remark from an expert confirmed a positive self-concept as an enabler of workplace-effective mobility, namely that employees with disabilities must have *‘insight into [their] own limitations’* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:2, 636:636).

Reasonable accommodation

One participant responded: *‘Workplace-effective mobility could be enhanced by employers determining specific needs (depending on disability). Clarify expectations, taking disabilities into consideration. Concentrating on individual strengths (instead of limitations)’* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:11, 672:674). I associated this response with the reasonable accommodation measures identified by participants in the focus group interviews.

Sensitization and awareness education

Issues of able-bodied people's training surfaced in expert participants' comments as an enabler of workplace-effective mobility for employees with disabilities too (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:6, 648:649; P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:12, 675:677). In particular, a participant mentioned that employers must provide *'training/preparing other team members to work with disabled people. Organisation (example HR) to facilitate clarification of expectations between disabled person and manager'* (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:12, 675:677).

Willingness and ability to communicate one's needs

A response by a participant regarding the willingness by employees with disabilities to ask for help (P49: Research Questionnaire Report.txt – 49:1, 631:635) was related to the willingness and ability to communicate one's needs, as indicated by participants in the focus group interview phase of the study.

I also received encouragement from participants regarding the work I was doing, although the timeline given seemed short to the participant: *'You are doing very well. I am proud of you I will complete the stuff before Friday.... Short notice though...'* (P22: RE First Round of Delphi Scanned.txt – 22:1, 6:7).

6.2.1.3 Conclusion

Because of the technical and conceptual challenges experienced in the pilot phase of the Delphi process, I decided to change the platform from Moodle to Excel and refined the questionnaire for understandability. Therefore, although the results of the pilot phase could not be directly used in the subsequent Delphi rounds, it was necessary to address the problems experienced for the smooth engagement of expert participants in subsequent rounds.

6.2.2 Results from Round One of Delphi

The revised questionnaire was processed on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet, which allowed frequency analysis of the responses. Also, the Microsoft Excel package proved to be more user-friendly than Moodle, because it required neither a password nor a username. In order to ensure confidentiality of responses, an Information Technology colleague was assigned the responsibility of handling responses and providing a pivot table analysis thereof. As in the pilot phase, instructions were provided regarding the completion and submission of the questionnaire. Unlike in the pilot round, the participants were also requested to rate the definition of workplace-effective mobility for clarity, relevance and representativeness on a five-point Likert scale.

Questionnaires were sent to 18 participants by e-mail. Ten responses were received in this round, a response rate of 55%. The results from this round are discussed below.

6.2.2.1 *Consensus regarding the definition of workplace-effective mobility*

Table 6.1 presents the extent of consensus reached by the expert participants on the clarity, relevance and representativeness of the concept of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. As indicated in Section 4.7.2.4, a 70% rule was adopted to decide whether or not consensus had been reached. According to Table 6.1, therefore, consensus was evidently reached on the clarity (3.9/5 or 78%) and relevance (3.7/5 or 74%) of the definition of workplace-effective mobility.

Table 6.1: Definition of workplace-effective mobility

Expert participant	Five-point Likert-scale score		
	Clarity	Relevance	Representativeness
1	4	4	3
2	4	4	4
3	4	3	3
4	4	3	3
5	4	4	3
6	4	2	2
7	4	4	4
8	5	5	4
9	4	4	3
10	2	4	3
Total	39	37	32
Mean	3.9 (78%)	3.7 (74%)	3.2 (64%)

Table 6.1 indicates that consensus could not be reached on the representativeness of the concept (3.2/5 or 64%). The reasons for the non-attainment of consensus on representativeness were provided by Participants 6 and 3. Participant 6 indicated that an alternative concept of workplace resilience is more relevant than workplace-effective mobility, which the participant would not have understood as centred on the ability of an employee with disabilities.

Participant 3 commented that mobility refers to movement and the ability to move about, which may be patronizing. According to this participant, the definition of workplace-effective mobility that I provided does not make any reference to movement in the marketplace/between jobs, etc. Consequently, the participant proposed that workplace hardiness or workplace capability or capacity be used, because the latter refers more to skill and ability than the person. These comments were incorporated into the next round as comments for further review by participants, and were thus not dropped.

6.2.2.2 Dimensions of workplace-effective mobility

In Chapter 5, the focus group results per disability category culminated in an analysis of the data for the dimensions and indicators of workplace-effective mobility. It became evident from the analysis (see Section 5.4.2, for example) that positive self-concept, self-efficacy, workplace accessibility, sense of coherence and positive sense of independence could be identified as dimensions of workplace-effective mobility. The second question used in Delphi Round One was thus aimed at establishing consensus among expert participants as to whether these are indeed dimensions of workplace-effective mobility. Table 6.2 presents these dimensions together, and shows the level of consensus reached by expert participants on them.

Table 6.2: Dimensions of workplace-effective mobility

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score				
	Positive self-concept	Self-efficacy	Workplace accessibility	Sense of coherence	Positive sense of independence
1	3	3	4	4	3
2	4	4	5	4	5
3	4	4	5	4	5
4	4	4	4	4	4
5	4	4	4	4	4
6	4	4	4	4	3
7	4	4	5	4	5
8	2	4	4	3	2
9	4	4	4	3	4
10	4	4	4	4	4
Totals	37	39	43	39	39
Mean	3.7 (74%)	3.9 (78%)	4.3 (86%)	3.9 (78%)	3.9 (78%)

From Table 6.2, it was evident that more than the required 70% consensus threshold was achieved in response to the question on the dimensionalization of workplace-effective mobility. This threshold consensus implies that the concept of workplace-effective mobility can be dimensionalized into positive self-concept, self-efficacy, workplace

accessibility, sense of coherence and positive sense of independence. However, Expert Participants 1, 8 and 10 made some additional remarks on these dimensions. Participant 1 agreed with the dimensionalization of the concept, but argued for a causal relationship between motivation and drive as elements of a person's willingness and ability to find work in an open labour market. Therefore, this participant did not regard a willingness and ability to find work in an open labour market as a result of only a positive self-concept. The participant also indicated that in the participant's view, there was a lack of clarity on the concepts of positive sense of independence.

Expert Participant 8 scored positive self-concept and positive sense of independence below the acceptable score (a score of 2 was given to each) because the participant believed that a positive self-concept is only a small part of willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market. The person made the same comment for a positive sense of independence, as indicated by the willingness and ability to enjoy the benefits of an economically active lifestyle.

Expert Participant 10 scored all dimensions as a 4, but suggested that positive self-concept and self-efficacy should be regarded as a form of resilience, that sense of coherence should be seen as learnt coping skills, and that a positive sense of independence should resort under life experiences.

These comments were reflected as feedback to the expert participants in the second round Delphi questionnaire to enable the voting process on these issues to proceed.

6.2.2.3 *Categorising indicators into criteria for workplace-effective mobility*

As indicated in Section 3.5, because criteria are comprised of indicators, a categorization of various indicators of the workplace-effective mobility dimensions was necessary. Therefore, a question was posed to the expert participants on their views regarding the categorization of the various indicators of workplace-effective mobility dimensions into criteria. The sections below present the results.

(i) **Indicators of positive self-concept**

Table 6.3 below presents the results from the expert participants pertaining to the categorization of the indicators of a positive self-concept into criteria.

Table 6.3: Indicators of a positive self-concept

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score						
	Willingness and ability to –						
	work in a team	assert own human rights	acquire knowledge & experience	communicate one's needs	determine own career path	maintain a positive self-concept	maintain self-confidence
1	4	3	3	4	4	4	4
2	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	2	4	4	4	4	4	4
4	4	5	3	5	5	5	5
5	3	4	4	3	5	5	5
6	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
7	4	4	4	4	4	4	1
8	4	5	3	5	5	5	5
9	4	4	3	3	4	5	4
10	2	4	3	3	3	4	4
Total	37	41	35	39	42	44	40
Mean	3.7 (74%)	4.1 (82%)	3.5 (70%)	3.9 (78%)	4.2 (84%)	4.4 (88%)	4 (80%)

It is clear from Table 6.3 that the expert participants reached consensus (evident in scores of 70% and above) that willingness and the ability to work in a team environment, assert one's human rights, acquire job-related knowledge and experience, communicate one's needs, determine one's own career path, maintain a positive self-concept, and maintain self-confidence can be categorised as indicators a positive self-concept.

However, participants added several comments on some of these indicators. Although Participant 1 scored indicators of a positive self-concept as 3s and 4s, the participant proposed that interpersonal/social skills should be included as a category representing the willingness and ability to work in a team environment, and the willingness and ability to communicate one's needs. Drive and motivation were also added to willingness and the ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience, as well as to willingness and the ability to determine one's own career path. Participant 7 gave a lower score to willingness and ability to maintain self-confidence because the participant thought that this item could be moved to self-efficacy. The person's reason for this was that someone may have high self-confidence, but may still have a low self-image.

Participant 10 agreed with almost all the indicators except willingness and the ability to work in a team environment. This participant regarded willingness and the ability to work in a team environment as a requirement for performance, but not necessarily as a self-concept indicator. A willingness and the ability to assert one's own rights indicate confidence. This participant also indicated that a willingness and the ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience is an indicator of one's own belief in workplace-effective mobility and ability to acquire experience. Willingness and the ability to communicate personal needs was also regarded as an essential requirement for performance. Expert Participant 10 also regarded willingness and the ability to develop one's career as an indication of personal maturity. Willingness and the ability to

maintain self-confidence is an indication of personal energy levels. Willingness and the ability to maintain self-confidence indicates a personal ability to cope.

These comments were also reflected in the subsequent questionnaire as feedback to the expert participants, requesting them to evaluate the comments for consensus building. The results are indicated in Round Two, see Section 6.2.3.3 (i).

(ii) Indicators of self-efficacy

Table 6.4 presents the indicators of self-efficacy. Because the descriptors of the various indicators could not fit into the table, they were reflected as acronyms. The acronyms are explained in detail in the legend below the table.

Table 6.4: Indicators of self-efficacy

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score									
	OLM	CWE	CCR	AUM	APR	AO	AEC	PSOP	WE	GM
1	1	1	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3
2	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3
3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	2	3
5	5	3	1	5	5	4	4	4	4	5
6	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4
7	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	4
8	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
9	5	3	1	5	5	4	4	4	4	5
10	3	3	4	4	5	3	5	4	4	3
Totals	37	33	32	39	42	38	41	38	36	38
Mean	3.7	3.3	3.2	3.9	4.2	3.8	4.1	3.8	3.6	3.8
Percentage	74	60	64	78	84	76	82	76	72	76

Legend:

OLM = willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market

CWE = willingness and ability to adjust to changing working environment

CCR = willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability
in order to achieve success

AUM = willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace

APR = willingness and ability to assume a productive role

AO = willingness and ability to work hard and maintain achievement orientation
in the workplace

AEC = willingness and ability to make an effective contribution

PSOP= willingness and ability to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community

WE = willingness and ability to maintain a positive work ethic

GM = willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an
occupational class.

From Table 6.4, it can be observed that, with the exception of the willingness and ability to adjust to a changing working environment (60%) and to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success (64%), which are below the threshold of 70%, the rest of indicators were scored above the threshold by the expert participants. Such above-threshold scoring reflected that the expert participants had reached consensus that the indicators related to the dimension of self-efficacy and are thus appropriate as criteria thereof.

However, Participant 1 did not agree that willingness and the ability to find work in the open labour market and to adjust to a changing working environment are comprehensive indicators of self-efficacy. This participant therefore proposed that drive be added to willingness and an ability to find work in the open labour market, and that flexibility or change orientation be added to willingness and ability to adjust to a changing working environment. Although the participant agreed with the rest of the indicators, the person also proposed further additions to them.

For instance, Participant 1 indicated that social responsibility should be added to willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success. Because willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace depend on drive, commitment, motivation, confidence and competence, these concepts should be added to willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the

workplace and also to willingness and ability to work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace. Participant 1 indicated that in maintaining a positive work ethic, an employee with a disability demonstrates social responsibility, which should be added to willingness and ability to maintain a positive work ethic. Finally, the participant suggested that the willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class depend on individual tenacity, perseverance, drive and confidence, and that these concepts should be added to this indicator.

Participant 10 agreed with the indicators as specified, but proposed several additions. The participant mentioned that willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market does not only indicate self-efficacy, but also that an individual is showing persistence. Also, the willingness and ability to adjust to a changing work environment shows levels of personal flexibility, while willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success is an indication of self-confidence. The participant alluded to the fact that a willingness and the ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace, work hard and maintain an achievement orientation in the workplace and maintain a positive work ethic indicate high levels of organisational commitment. This participant saw willingness and an ability to assume a productive role as reflecting resilience, and thought that willingness and an ability to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community relates to self-worth. Finally, Participant 10 expressed the view that the willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class indicates not only self-efficacy, but also self-confidence.

Because of the relevance of the above comments to the study, the items were not omitted, but were tested further in Round Two.

(iii) Indicators of sense of coherence

From the focus group interviews, it seems that a sense of coherence was associated with the willingness and ability to cope with work demands, maintain a positive attitude towards life and maintain a productive job fit. These indicators were thus presented to the expert participants for consensus-building. Table 6.5 present the results (again, because the indicators could not fit into the table they are presented as acronyms and explained in a legend).

From Table 6.5, it can be observed that consensus was achieved among almost all the expert participants as reflected in higher scores than the threshold of 70%. However, Participant 10 did not agree with willingness and ability to cope with work demands as an indicator of a sense of coherence because for this participant, it indicates coping skills. The participant also argued that willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life relates to temperament, and that willingness and ability to maintain a productive job fit indicates levels of energy, to which this participant suggested that technical skills and competence should be added.

Again, these comments were not omitted but were presented as feedback to the expert participants for their assessment and consensus-building.

Table 6.5: Indicators of sense of coherence

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score		
	CWD	MPATL	MPJF
1	3	4	3
2	5	4	4
3	4	4	4
4	4	4	4
5	4	4	3
6	5	4	4
7	4	3	4

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score		
	CWD	MPATL	MPJF
8	4	4	4
9	4	5	3
10	1	4	3
Totals	38	40	36
Mean	3.8 (76%)	4.0 (80%)	3.6 (72%)

Legend:

CWD = Willingness and ability to cope with work demands

MPATL = Willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life

MPJF = Willingness and ability to maintain a productive job fit

(iv) Indicators of workplace accessibility

Based on the focus group interviews, workplace accessibility was found to be related to issues of safety and freedom of movement, either in the workplace or between home and the workplace. Because of its centrality to workplace-effective mobility, its indicators were presented to the expert participants for evaluation. Table 6.6 present the results of this evaluation and the extent of consensus reached by the expert participants in categorizing these indicators into criteria for workplace-effective mobility. Again, the indicators are presented in the table as acronyms and explained in the legend after the table.

Table 6.6: Indicators of workplace accessibility

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score				
	MFBA	CPR	OCAD	THW	AWSHS
1	3	3	4	4	4
2	5	3	3	4	4
3	4	4	4	4	4
4	5	3	5	5	5
5	5	2	3	5	5
6	4	3	3	3	4
7	4	4	4	4	4
8	4	4	4	4	4
9	5	2	3	5	5
10	5	3	3	5	3
Totals	44	31	36	43	42
Mean	4.4 (88%)	3.1 (62%)	3.6 (72%)	4.3 (86%)	4.2 (84%)

Legend:

MFBA = Willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas

CPR = Willingness and ability to change places of residence to achieve success

OCAD = Willingness and ability to operate and care for assistive devices

THW = Willingness and ability to travel from home to work

AWSHS = Willingness and ability to adhere to workplace safety and health standards.

It is evident from Table 6.6 that, with the exception of the willingness and ability to change place of residence to achieve success (where the mean is below the threshold, at 62%), consensus was achieved. However, because of the comment from Participant 10 on this indicator, it was retained and was tested further in the second round. Participants 1 and 10 made several comments regarding this dimension. Participant 1 commented that employees may not always have control over access to buildings. Therefore, more dimensions relating to willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas were suggested, such as flexibility, drive, perseverance/tenacity or motivation in order to have a complete picture of a suitable and resilient employee. Participant 1 also argued that workplace accessibility is often affected by employers' compliance with regulatory frameworks and that it may therefore be an unfair measure for employees with disabilities. Overall, Participant 1 thinks that upon completion, the study will be a valuable tool and will create more awareness and opportunities for people with disabilities in the workplace.

Participant 10 commented that the willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas indicates independence. Participant 10 further contended that willingness and ability to change places of residence to achieve success indicates an ability to cope with work demands and that training is required to enhance the willingness and ability to operate and take care of assistive devices. This participant also mentioned that the willingness and ability to travel from home to work indicates independence and willingness and ability to adhere to workplace safety and health standards indicates knowledge.

The comments made by Participants 1 and 10 were also provided as feedback to the expert participants in the subsequent round.

(v) Indicators of a positive sense of independence

The focus group interview finding that a positive sense of independence was indicated by the willingness and ability to maintain an economically active lifestyle and exercise life choices was tested with expert participants in Delphi Round One. Table 6.7 presents the results and reflects the indicators as acronyms, which are further explained in the legend after the table.

Table 6.7: Indicators of a positive sense of independence

Expert participant	Five-point Likert scale score	
	MEAL	ELC
1	3	4
2	4	5
3	4	4
4	5	5
5	5	5
6	4	4
7	4	4
8	4	4
9	5	5
10	5	4
Total	43	44
Mean	4.3 (86%)	4.4 (88%)

Legend:

MEAL= Willingness and ability to maintain an economically active lifestyle

ELC = Willingness and ability to exercise life choices

From Table 6.7, it is clear that consensus was reached on the indicators of a positive sense of independence. Percentages of 86% and 88% respectively were obtained on both indicators of positive sense of independence, which is above the cut-off percentage (70%). Therefore,

the dimension was unconditionally retained for the second round of Delphi.

6.2.3 Results from Round Two

In this round, a rating of 1 was given to YES and 2 to NO. Therefore the five-point scale was not followed, because forced choice responses were required for the round. The following sections report on the levels of consensus reached by the expert participants by question. Only six expert participants continued to this round. As participation was anonymous and voluntary, it was impossible to identify who of the ten expert participants dropped out in this round.

6.2.3.1 Definition of workplace-effective mobility

Table 6.8 below presents the results on the expert participants' agreement on the clarity, relevance and representativeness of the definition of workplace-effective mobility.

Table 6.8: Consensus reached on the definition of workplace-effective mobility

Expert participant	Consensus score		
	Clarity	Relevance	Representativeness
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	1	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
Total	6	6	6
Mean	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)

From Table 6.8, it was observed that consensus was reached with regard to the clarity, relevance and representativeness of the definition of

workplace-effective mobility. Therefore, all six participants indicated complete (100%) confirmation of the definition.

6.2.3.2 Dimensions of workplace-effective mobility

Agreement relating to the expert participants' dimensionalization of workplace-effective mobility into a positive self-concept, self-efficacy, workplace accessibility, sense of coherence and a positive sense of independence is reflected in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Consensus reached on the dimensionalization of workplace-effective mobility

Expert participant	Consensus score				
	Positive self-concept	Self-efficacy	Workplace accessibility	Sense of Coherence	Positive sense of independence
1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	1	1	1	1
4	1	1	1	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	1
6	1	1	1	1	1
Totals	6	6	6	6	6
Mean	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)

In Table 6.9, it can be observed that the expert participants were unanimous (100% consensus) about the dimensionalization of the indicators of workplace-effective mobility. However, Participants 2 and 3 made some qualitative comments. Participant 2 indicated that life experience is a culmination of a positive sense of independence. However, this participant indicated that a positive sense of independence may be left as is because '*one can never achieve 100% on the meaning of concepts and their combinations*'. However, the frame of reference created by concepts on the questionnaire was satisfactory to him/her.

Participant 3 suggested that resilience should be incorporated into positive self-concept, as this person thought that the comment made by other participants regarding the use of coping to define sense of coherence was reactive and negative. Also, Participant 3 regarded the other participants' suggested use of life experience for a positive sense of independence as unscientific.

Given an overwhelming (100%) consensus on the dimensions, there was no need to test these comments in subsequent rounds to determine the views of expert participants on these dimensions.

6.2.3.3 *Categorising indicators into criteria for workplace-effective mobility*

As already indicated in Section 6.2.2.3, almost all the indicators of workplace-effective mobility attracted comments from the expert participants. The only exception to this observation was a positive sense of independence. As indicated in that section, comments from expert participants were deemed worthy of being presented as feedback in the subsequent round (Delphi Round Two). In this section, the results of this exercise are presented by dimension, indicating whether or not consensus was reached on the identified dimensions and their indicators.

(i) Consensus reached on the indicators of positive self-concept

Table 6.10 illustrates the extent to which consensus was reached by the expert participants on this dimension.

Table 6.10: Consensus reached on the indicators of positive self-concept

Expert participant	Consensus score						
	Willingness and ability to:						
	Work in a team environment	Assert human rights	Acquire job-related knowledge & experience	Communicate one's needs	Determine own career path	Maintain positive self-concept	Maintain self-confidence
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
4	1	1	2	2	2	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total	6	6	7	7	7	6	6
Mean	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	0.85 (85%)	0.85 (85%)	0.85 (85%)	1 (100%)	1 (100%)

From Table 6.10, it was observed that, using the cut-off of 70% for consensus, consensus was reached on this dimension because all the indicators received a score of 85% and higher from the participants. However, some comments were recorded from Participant 4, who did not agree with the indicators of willingness and ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience, to communicate personal needs and to determine one's own career path. On willingness and ability to communicate personal needs, Participant 4 suggested the use of self-confidence or assertiveness, related the willingness and ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience to a learning approach or inquisitiveness, and also associated the willingness and ability to determine own career path with self-actualisation. This participant also regarded the willingness and ability to maintain self-confidence as an internal locus of control. These comments should be read in the context of the fact that consensus had been reached and therefore no further need existed to test them in subsequent rounds, as the cut-off percentage had been exceeded.

(ii) Consensus reached on the indicators of self-efficacy

Again, the indicators are presented in Table 6.11 as acronyms, followed by a detailed explanation in the legend. From Table 6.11, it can be observed that consensus was reached on all indicators. However, Participant 3 rejected the previous round's comments by experts that the willingness and ability to adjust to a changing working environment as an indicator should be replaced with change orientation. Instead, Participant 3 proposed that the concept of flexibility should be added to this indicator.

Regarding the willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace, Participant 3 observed that the indicator involves a combination of variables, of which self-efficacy is one. The participant agrees with drive being added to the willingness and ability to work hard and maintain achievement orientation in the workplace. To willingness and ability to make an effective contribution, Participant 3 added the concept of commitment, and proposed that willingness and ability to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community should be considered a form of social responsibility. The participant agreed that a positive self-concept and tenacity should be considered additions to the willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class.

Table 6.11: Consensus reached on the indicators of self-efficacy

Expert participant	Consensus score									
	OLM	CWE	CCR	AUM	APR	AO	AEC	PSOP	WE	GM
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	2
4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
6	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7
Totals	6	7	6	6	6	7	7	6	6	7
Mean %	1 100	0.85 85	1 100	1 100	1 100	0.85 85	0.85 85	1 100	1 100	1 100

Legend:

OLM = willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market

CWE = willingness and ability to adjust to changing working environment

CCR = willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success

AUM = willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace

APR = willingness and ability to assume a productive role

AO = willingness and ability to work hard and maintain achievement orientation in the workplace

AEC = willingness and ability to make an effective contribution

PSOP= willingness and ability to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community

WE = willingness and ability to maintain a positive work ethic

GM = willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class.

(iii) Consensus reached on the indicators of a sense of coherence

As indicated in Section 6.2.2.3, Participant 10 suggested that coping skills, temperament, technical skills and competence should be considered for this dimension. Table 6.12 represents the results obtained from expert participants after these suggestions were provided to them as feedback. The various indicators are presented as acronyms and are then explained in the legend after Table 6.12.

From Table 6.12, it was observed that consensus was achieved among the participants, who scored the indicators higher than the cut-off score of 70%. In response to Participant 10's suggestion in the previous round that coping skills should be added to the willingness and ability to cope with work demands, in the second round, Participant 4 rejected the suggestion in favour of resilience, accepting that willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude towards life should be replaced with resilience, as previously suggested, but thought that the willingness and ability to maintain a productive job fit must be replaced with a sense of coherence. Because of the consensus that had already been achieved, these comments were not reviewed further, but were regarded as constituting avenues for future research on the subject.

Table 6.12: Consensus reached on the indicators of sense of coherence

Expert participant	Consensus score		
	CWD	MPATL	MPJF
1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	2	1
5	1	1	1
6	1	1	1
Totals	6	7	6
Mean	1 (100%)	0.85 (85%)	1 (100%)

Legend:

CWD = Willingness and ability to cope with work demands

MPATL = Willingness and ability to positive attitude towards life

MPJF = Willingness and ability to maintain a productive job fit

(iv) Consensus reached on the indicators of workplace accessibility

Table 6.13 illustrates consensus reached by participants on whether or not the various indicators identified by the participants in the focus group interviews can be categorised as workplace accessibility. Having reflected on the previous round's comments, the participants achieved complete (100%) consensus on this dimension, as indicated in Table 6.13 below. The various acronyms used for identified indicators are explained in the legend after the table.

Table 6.13: Consensus reached on the indicators of workplace accessibility

Expert participant	Consensus score				
	MFBA	CPR	OCAD	THW	AWSHS
1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	1	1	1	1
4	1	1	1	1	1
5	1	1	1	1	1
6	1	1	1	1	1
Totals	6	6	6	6	6
Mean	1 (100%)	1 (100%)	1(100%)	1(100%)	1 (100%)

Legend:

MFBA = Willingness and ability to move freely and safely in built areas

CPR = Willingness and ability to change places of residence to achieve success

OCAD = Willingness and ability to operate and take care of assistive devices

THW = Willingness and ability to travel from home to work

AWSHS = Willingness and ability to adhere to workplace safety and health standards.

(v) Consensus reached on the indicators of a positive sense of independence

Table 6.14 presents the consensus scores achieved by expert participants on the indicators of a positive sense of independence. As is evident from Table 6.14, complete (100%) consensus was reached by the participants on this dimension. The indicators are again reflected as acronyms in Table 6.14 and are explained in the legend.

Table 6.14: Consensus reached on the indicators of positive sense of independence

Expert participant	Consensus score	
	MEAL	ELC
1	1	1
2	1	1
3	1	1
4	1	1
5	1	1
6	1	1
Total	6	6
Mean	1 (100%)	1 (100%)

Legend:

MEAL = Willingness and ability to maintain an economically active lifestyle

ELC = Willingness and ability to exercise life choices

Overall, not only did participants achieve consensus by scoring dimensions above 70% in Round Two, but the Delphi process attained the cut-off regarding stability on both votes between rounds and the dropout rate (Day & Bobeva, 2005), as explained in Section 4.7.2.4. The

change between votes was acceptable at 15% in some dimensions, in other words, where a score of 0.85 consensus was reached. The dropout rate between rounds was 40% (four out of ten judges dropped out), which was also acceptable.

6.3 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the results of the process followed to refine, categorise and confirm criteria for workplace-effective mobility. It pointed to consensus being reached on the definition, dimensions, and categorization of indicators into criteria. A reduction in the response rate of expert participants was also noted, which is attributable to their busy work schedules. However, the reduction in the response rate was still within the minimum required participation rate of 40%.

In the next chapter, both the qualitative results from the focus group interviews and the quantitative results from the Delphi processes are compared with the existing literature; and a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities is presented.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the results of both the qualitative (focus group interviews) and quantitative (Delphi) phases of the study are compared and discussed in relation to previous findings and the views of other authors. Where the authors' views support the findings of this study, they strengthen the trustworthiness of the research. Such support would also emphasise the relevance of the criteria and enablers of workplace-effective mobility of workplace-effective mobility with regard to the application of the findings in organisations. The chapter also highlights some of the contributions the data made to the broader field of knowledge on workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

7.2 NATURE OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

As mentioned in Section 5.4.5, the pilot phase of the qualitative study involving focus group interviews generated a useful definition of workplace-effective mobility and several dimensions, and the themes that emerged in that phase were retained in the main study phase. Therefore, the definition of workplace-effective mobility as the willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market, to make an effective contribution and to maintain an economically active lifestyle was used. It was found that participants in the main study emphasised all these elements.

The willingness and ability to find work in the open labour market relates to workplace mobility, which Van Ham (2002) defines as the process by which an employee accepts a job at a greater distance from home. In Sections 5.4.2.1 and 5.5.2.1, the data confirmed the importance of job-related knowledge and experience as indicated by Hofmeister (2006) in

determining the ability of people with disabilities to find work in the open labour market. Such job-related knowledge and experience emerged from the data as a positive self-concept and is further explained in Section 7.6.1. It is evident from Sections 5.4.3.1 and 5.5.3.3 that an inability to find work in the open labour market is partly attributable to the adverse economic conditions (a high unemployment rate) in the country and to a negative self-concept (see Sections 5.4.3.2 and 5.5.3.2). According to Moscarini and Thomsson (2007), unemployment is prevalent in a stagnant economy. Under these conditions, therefore, growth in employment slows down, as also observed by Souza-Poza and Henneberger (2004), and job seekers find it difficult to access jobs that meet their preferences, as Gesthuizen and Dagevos (2005) show.

Making an effective contribution is associated with the ability to deal with one's environment (Sideridis, 2006) and achieve competence (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006). Willingness and an ability to make an effective contribution came across in the data as self-efficacy, which is comprised of an achievement orientation and goal-setting behaviour. Willingness and the ability to make an effective contribution is thus related to willingness and the ability to perform work-related tasks (Chatterton, 2005) and self-motivation, as Chapple (2006) suggests. The details regarding self-efficacy are explained in Section 7.6.2. In the context of career mobility, a willingness to make an effective contribution relates to perceived capacity, as explained by Sullivan and Arthur (2006).

Maintaining an economically active lifestyle emerged from the data as an outcome of workplace-effective mobility. Such outcomes relate to the unleashing of the potential of employees with disabilities (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:61, 108:109) and a sense of independence (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:38, 142:147). Their unleashed potential and sense of independence have been argued by Beatty *et al.* (1998) to

enable active participation of people with disabilities in their communities and live independently.

Access to job opportunities is central to this definition (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968), which is indeed a precondition for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. Therefore, targeted recruitment was proposed as a mechanism through which job seekers with disabilities could gain access to information regarding job opportunities (see Sections 5.4.2.6 and 5.5.2.6).

7.3 ENABLERS OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

Six main enablers of workplace-effective mobility emerged from the focus group interview data, namely a positive self-concept, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, a positive sense of independence, workplace accessibility and workplace equity. Section 7.6 explains almost all these factors as dimensions of workplace-effective mobility.

Workplace equity emerged from the data as part of the employer's obligation toward ensuring the success of employees with disabilities (see Sections 5.4.2.6 and 5.5.2.6). Workplace equity is thus evident in the measures for ensuring the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities identified in the study. Two of these measures (job readiness training, and sensitivity training and awareness) were confirmed by experts in the Delphi pilot phase. The measures to ensure workplace equity support the argument that employers should equalize the primary resources, implement meritocracy rules in order to equalize opportunities and maintain accountability for employment outcomes (Cogneau, 2005).

7.4 INHIBITORS OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

The major inhibitors of workplace-effective mobility have been identified as a negative self-concept (see Section 7.2), workplace prejudice (employer ignorance, a lack of social support and unfair discrimination), adverse economic conditions (a high unemployment rate and overuse of disability grants) and accessibility issues.

A key feature of a negative self-concept seems to be communication problems, which the experts in the pilot round of the Delphi process confirmed to be an inhibitor of workplace-effective mobility. From the information provided by the participants with physical disabilities, a negative self-concept manifests in negativity towards able-bodied colleagues, thereby confirming that a negative self-concept is associated with anger (Weiss *et al.*, 2003). In the data gleaned from the focus group interviews, a negative self-concept was associated with overprotective families and disability grants as a disincentive (see Sections 5.4.3.1 and 5.4.3.2). The inhibitory nature of overprotective families was evident in families hiding their members with disabilities from society to avoid social disgrace (Dube & Charowa, 2005) and/or protecting them from the potential for what families perceived as leading to inevitable failure (Feldman, 2004).

Ngwena (2004) cites workplace prejudice and discrimination as the main reason for the low number of people with disabilities who are gainfully employed. The high unemployment rate has been associated with the declining economic mobility of employees with disabilities (Souza-Poza & Henneberger, 2004). The high unemployment rate thus makes it difficult for employees with disabilities to make progress in the economic mainstream (Meerman, 2005). This leads to job terminations and reduced earning capacity (Barbezat & Hughes, 2001). It also makes it difficult for them to find a job that meets their preferences (Gesthuizen & Dagevos, 2005).

7.5 DIFFERENTIAL TREATMENT OF EMPLOYEES WITH DISABILITIES

Despite the cautionary response from a Deaf participant to this question, most participants across the focus group interviews indicated that employers favour employees with sensory or physical disabilities over those in other disability categories. This is consistent with the finding by Klimoski and Donahue (1997) that firms tend to be more open to people with physical or sensory disabilities than those with psychological problems.

7.6 DIMENSIONS AND INDICATORS OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

The definition of workplace-effective mobility presented by participants reflects the dimensions of the concept in this study as finding work, making a contribution and growing in an organisation. These dimensions of workplace-effective mobility relate to the personal, physical, social and economic dimensions of the job mobility of employees with disabilities as identified in the literature.

The willingness and ability to find work in an open labour market depends on economic conditions (the economic dimension), a positive self-concept, a sense of coherence, self-efficacy and a positive sense of independence (the personal dimension), and employment practices (the social dimension). As was mentioned in Section 7.4, high unemployment inhibits the economic mobility of people with disabilities (Meerman, 2005), reduces their earning capacity (Barbezat & Hughes, 2001) and limits their career choices (Gesthuizen & Dagevos, 2005). These experiences explain the economic dimension of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities, which mediates their ability to find work.

The personal dimension of self-efficacy was confirmed, in line with the findings of Sullivan and Arthur (2006), in their definition of career mobility in terms of motivation and identity, skills and expertise, and relationships. Motivation relates these factors that define career mobility to an individual's sense of coherence (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). Identity is associated with positive self-concept (Weiss *et al.*, 2003). Skills and expertise are associated with self-efficacy or a belief that one can successfully perform intended behaviours (Kempen *et al.*, 1999). The ability to build relationships is viewed from the perspective of independent living (Gignac & Cott, 1998) and is thus associated with a positive sense of independence. These personal factors increase the chances that people with disabilities will find work in the open labour market, make a contribution and achieve career growth in organisations.

The physical dimension is represented by the ability to move safely and freely in built areas or accessibility (Patla & Shumway-Cook, 1999), reasonable accommodation (Kreismann & Palmer, 2001) and assistive devices (Townsend *et al.*, 2007). These factors enable an individual with disabilities to make an effective contribution in the workplace, in spite of the person's disability status. Inherent in these factors is the employment practices applicable in the workplace, which constitute the social dimension of workplace-effective mobility. As indicated in Section 7.3, the employment opportunities and outcomes need to be equalized (Cogneau, 2005) in order to enable people with disabilities to find work in the open labour market, make a contribution and grow in organisations as employees.

Although this was not directly observed, the dimensions of workplace-effective mobility as identified in the literature (in Section 3.3), namely the personal, physical, social and economic dimensions, have thus been confirmed by the study. More specifically, the three aspects of the definition of workplace-effective mobility were dimensionalized into positive self-concept (finding work), self-efficacy, sense of coherence and

workplace accessibility (making an effective contribution) and a positive sense of independence (growing in an organisation). In the following section, indicators for each of these dimensions of workplace-effective mobility are compared with the existing literature.

7.6.1 Positive self-concept

According to Mrug and Wallander (2002), a positive self-concept leads to a positive display of personal resources and thus enables people with disabilities to find work in an open labour market. It is evident from Chapter 5 (on the results from the focus group participants) that a positive self-concept is indicated by several factors. The willingness and ability to acquire a job-related knowledge and experience as indicators of positive self-concept is confirmed by studies that found that good quality education and appropriate on-the-job training to be preconditions for entry into the labour market (Ginzberg & Hiestand, 1968; Meerman, 2001).

The willingness and ability to determine one's own career path relates to the ability of an employee with a disability to assess threats and opportunities that might impinge on his/her career (Nicholson *et al.*, 1985) and make the necessary job transition. The ability to make the necessary job transitions is associated with Sullivan and Arthur's (2006) notion of career mobility and the concept of a boundaryless career as proposed by Nas *et al.* (1998). The notion of teamwork is necessary, as an opportunity for employees with disabilities both to garner support and to show their competence. Therefore, the willingness and ability to work in a team environment as an indicator of a positive self-concept confirms the ability of a person with a disability to forge strategic working relationships (Sullivan & Arthur, 2006) in order to attain workplace-effective mobility.

Willingness and an ability to communicate one's needs and to assert one's human rights were found to be indicators of a positive self-concept. With regard to the willingness and ability to communicate one's needs, Anspach's (1979) view that employees with disabilities should play a political activist role in rejecting conventional negative perceptions of disability and changing them is supported. Without communicating their needs, therefore, employees with disabilities may not be able to change the negative perceptions of disability that inhibit their workplace-effective mobility. The need to display such a willingness and ability to assert one's human rights is supported by Albert *et al.*'s (2005:29) view that people with disabilities must 'stand up for their ideals' because their human rights are often neglected in society.

Not only should employees with disabilities have a positive self-concept, but they should also be willing and able to maintain it. This willingness and ability to maintain a positive self-concept has been found to enable the full participation of people with disabilities in the workplace (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997). Therefore, it is confirmed to be an important indicator of the positive self-concept required by employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility.

Finally, the willingness and ability to maintain positive self-confidence was also identified as an indicator of a positive self-concept. According to Kennedy and Olney (2001), the self-confidence of people with disabilities tends to be lost in situations where they are unemployed. Therefore, when they achieve workplace-effective mobility, employees with disabilities should maintain their positive self-confidence, which will in turn help them to maintain their positive self-concept of themselves as productive human beings.

7.6.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy as an individual's belief in his/her personal capabilities (Mihalko & Wickley, 2003) to perform the intended behaviours successfully was found to be an important dimension of workplace-effective mobility. It was found to be indicated by the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to work hard. The previous research findings showed that employees with disabilities are able to demonstrable high levels of productivity (Baldwin & Johnson, 2001), which indicates a willingness and the ability to hard work (Mbara & Paradza, n.d.). Therefore, employees with disabilities should be assessed by the extent to which they possess a willingness and ability to assume a productive role.

Employees with disabilities are also required to demonstrate the willingness and ability to make an effective contribution. Wang *et al.* (2004) associate this with coping efficacy, which they define as an individual's appraisal of his/her ability to cope or manage the stressful aspects of a particular life experience. Such aspects of a particular life experience include finding work in the open labour market. Therefore, the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to find work in the open labour market was identified as an indicator of self-efficacy. This confirms the argument that people with disabilities should optimise their ability to secure and maintain employment (Beatty *et al.*, 1998) in order to attain workplace-effective mobility.

While in the workplace, employees with disabilities need to show a willingness and ability to change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success. This indicator of self-efficacy confirms arguments that employees with disabilities should work actively towards changing cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success (Anspach, 1979; Feldman, 2004; Hahn, 1993). Success may take the form of upward mobility. Therefore, employees with disabilities must also

demonstrate a willingness and ability to achieve upward mobility in the workplace. Keeness for upward mobility is associated with career development, which requires clearer assessment criteria (Ross, 2004) for readiness. Self-efficacy has also been confirmed by Ingledew *et al.* (2004) to be important for employees with disabilities in attaining job mobility.

In some cases, employees with disabilities meet with challenges in the workplace. In order for them to be self-efficacious, they would need to have the willingness and ability to adjust to a changing working environment. Employees with disabilities are required to adapt to new work environments (Van Vianen *et al.*, 2003), and thus this willingness and ability to adjust is critical for their workplace-effective mobility. Such an ability to adjust to a changing working environment engenders a willingness and ability among employees with disabilities to maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community. The literature indicates the value of employees with disabilities' actively participating in their community (Beatty *et al.*, 1998) through strong social support networks and community ties (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). Without these preconditions for community living, employees with disabilities may not develop a positive sense of purpose.

Blair and Jost (2003) indicate that employees with disabilities should be able to deal with intergenerational mobility by voluntarily changing their group membership to improve their quality of life. Such an ability is reflected in people's willingness and ability to transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class as an indicator of self-efficacy. The willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to maintain positive work etiquette represents individual values and preferences (Kopec, 1995) relating to work. Therefore, the higher the value that employees place on their work by displaying and maintaining positive work etiquette, the better the chances that they will attain workplace-effective mobility.

7.6.3 Sense of coherence

A sense of coherence, as defined in Section 2.3.5, implies a willingness and the ability to make an effective contribution in the workplace. It is indicated by the willingness and ability to cope with work demands, maintain a positive attitude towards life and maintain a productive job fit. Regarding the willingness and ability to cope with work demands, Koster *et al.* (2005) indicate that employees with disabilities who have the capacity to handle their workloads despite the severity of their disability and bodily structure tend to achieve greater mobility. Therefore, the willingness and ability to cope with work demands is confirmed as an indicator of workplace-effective mobility. Mrug and Wallander (2002) confirm the importance of a willingness and ability to maintain a positive attitude toward life in their argument that positive experiences result in high self-esteem and a positive outlook on the world. Finally, previous research confirms that a productive job fit is evident in a 'can do' approach to life, a demonstration of spirituality, a sense of inner strength, resilience and a sense of achievement (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999) among people with disabilities.

7.6.4 Positive sense of independence

A positive sense of independence among employees with disabilities was found to be indicated by their willingness and ability to enjoy the benefits of an economically active lifestyle and exercise their life choices. A positive sense of independence measured through this willingness and ability depends on flourishing economic conditions to yield good quality of life for employees with disabilities (Meerman, 2001) and enhance their sense of citizenship (Kenyon *et al.*, 2002) in society. The exercise of life choices is associated with the value of employment in incorporating people with disabilities into mainstream society by increasing their sense of independence (Schur *et al.*, 2005). A positive sense of independence

thus means independent living and freedom of choice for employees with disabilities (Bouret *et al.*, 2002; Mauro, 1999).

7.6.5 Workplace accessibility

Workplace accessibility relates to the willingness and ability to change place of residence to achieve success, to move freely and safely in built areas, to observe safety and health procedures, to operate assistive devices and to travel from home to work. The willingness and ability to change one's place of residence to achieve success is associated with a tolerance for migration, as mentioned by Townsend *et al.* (2007) and Van Ham (2002). The willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to move freely and safely in built areas is also indicative of workplace accessibility. Chatterton (2005) comments in this regard on the need for intense mobility training as identified by the partially sighted to ensure that they can move safely in unfamiliar surroundings.

Assistive devices are regarded as essential for employees with disabilities to achieve workplace accessibility and to perform effectively. However, I found that they themselves need to demonstrate the willingness and ability to operate assistive devices. This indicator of workplace accessibility is confirmed in arguments that, when it comes to technology use, the majority of employees with disabilities remain uninformed (Kenyon *et al.*, 2002; Sheldon, 2003) because of the digital divide they experience in workplaces. Therefore, employers should not only provide assistive devices, but also training on how to use them.

Willingness and an ability to observe safety and health procedures is yet another indicator of workplace accessibility. However, this willingness and ability requires employers to design workplace accessibility for reliability, safety, efficiency, comfort and affordability (Mbara & Paradza, n.d.) for employees with disabilities. In most cases, as Van Ham (2002) observes, employees should develop the ability to harmonise the

conflicting demands of their residential and workplace locations to achieve a spatial match. Such an ability includes a willingness and the ability to travel from home to work. The literature refers to this willingness and ability as tolerance for commuting, and it is evident in employees with disabilities' accepting jobs some distance from their residences in order to advance their careers (Van Ham, 2002).

The participants regarded the implementation of reasonable accommodation measures by employers as another factor enabling workplace accessibility, and this was confirmed by the experts in the Delphi pilot phase. Therefore, workplace accessibility (assistive devices, reasonable accommodation and physical accessibility) was confirmed by the arguments for physical mobility in Section 3.3.2, in line with the findings of Chatterton (2005) and Patla and Shumway-Cook (1999).

7.7 GENERAL COMMENTS MADE BY PARTICIPANTS

In this section, the general comments by the participants are compared with the relevant literature.

7.7.1 Deafness and disability

In the correspondence with DEAFSA, I was told that deafness is not a disability. I then used this response as a negative case; and during a focus group interview with the Deaf participants, I therefore asked whether or not deafness constitutes a disability. All the Deaf participants expressed the view that deafness is not a disability, but a matter of communication difference; for example, one participant said: *'[S]omeone who comes here from China, that person uses a different language. Is he disabled? That person cannot speak a local language; he cannot be understood; he cannot communicate effectively. Is that person disabled? No, he just uses a different language'* (P7: Western Cape – Managerial

Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:106,486:489). This is consistent with the view that the Deaf employees simply require a different means of communication to audible speech and hearing (Koch, 2000).

7.7.2 Deafness and speech-impairment

In preparation for a focus group interview with speech-impaired people, I asked the following question to determine whether there are differences between them and the Deaf people:

Interviewer: *'Can we have two last questions; the first is, help me understand, I normally hear about the deaf and people with speech impairment. Is there a difference?'*

Interpreter: *'If you are Deaf, sometimes you have speech problems sometimes you don't. If you have [a] speech impairment but you can hear; it is a huge, gigantic difference.'*

Interviewer: *'Does it add anything to the employment?'*

Interpreter: *'It is like OP4; she is deaf but speaks well; OP5 is deaf but does not speak well. It is all about how you learn language. So, there are significant differences'* (P8: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 8:136, 593:602).

Hawkrige, Vincent and Hales (1985) indicate that although both speech-impairment and deafness relate to an inability to communicate effectively, they are different conditions. Deafness is associated with receiving messages, which is passive, whereas a speech-impairment is related to expressing oneself, which is an active mode of communication (Hawkrige *et al.*, 1985). Given this distinction, I therefore decided also to conduct focus group interviews with participants with speech impairments to compare and contrast the views on workplace-effective mobility between the two groups.

7.7.3 Disability and quality of life

Contrary to the commonly held belief that physical difference results in inferior quality of life for people with disabilities, studies by Koch (2000) and Albrecht and Devlieger (1999) have yielded more positive findings. According to Koch (2000), the quality of life of Deaf people is not necessarily lessened. Therefore, some people with disabilities tend to experience good quality life against all odds (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999). The literature therefore contradicts a participant's view that '*in the disability sector, quality of life is a very big problem*' (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:52, 219:224).

7.7.4 Disabilities are different in nature and extent

Participants argued that disabilities are different in nature and extent, thereby necessitating differential treatment. This claim confirms Ngwena's (2004) view of the need for employers to recognize the legitimacy of treating employees with disabilities differentially when employers want to implement reasonable accommodation measures in order to address the unique needs of employees with disabilities.

7.7.5 Effect of changing regimes

Some participants with a physical disability lamented the reduction in rehabilitation centres since the new democratic government in South Africa took power. Such lamentations confirm the fact that a change in regime may affect the effective mobility of employees with disabilities (Blair & Jost, 2003). Consequently, the ability of people with disabilities to secure and maintain employment (Beatty *et al.*, 1998) is adversely affected, as they may be ill-prepared to assume productive work if they have not been rehabilitated.

7.7.6 Contributions of the data to the broader field of knowledge

The various contributions that the data made to the broader field of knowledge are explained in this section. Various assumptions were made to create a framework for understanding the results; hence, reflections on ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological contributions are included.

7.7.6.1 Ontology

The data indicate that the view that employees with disabilities are unable to attain workplace-effective mobility is inaccurate and should be critiqued (Guba, 1990). In this regard, one participant mentioned the following: *'It just feels that there is a preconceived notion of what it means to be disabled. Whilst I am regarded as disabled, I can do many things. Maybe we should divide disabilities between what can and cannot be done'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:148, 452:454). This also contextualises the need for criteria to distinguish between the dispositions of 'can do' and 'cannot do'. For these reasons, therefore, the data made a contribution by developing criteria and verifying them with expert participants to redress the untenable historical position (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) that employees with disabilities may not attain workplace-effective mobility. Documenting the criteria in this manner – using specific criteria – would enable the validation thereof in future studies with a view to furthering the promotion of optimal workplace equity, thereby emancipating employees with disabilities.

In order to improve an understanding of workplace-effective mobility, a further contribution to the body of knowledge was a theoretical model explaining the concept (see Chapter 8). Therefore, the proposed theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility provides a framework for further research and fills a knowledge gap experienced in the field of disability research. The introduction of the concept of workplace-effective

mobility as a multi-dimensional concept also serves as a further theoretical contribution. As indicated in Section 3.2, the concept has previously always only been inferred from other concepts, including job and career mobility.

7.7.6.2 Epistemology

What Guba and Lincoln (1994) refer to as subjective interpretations and meanings, in this case, of workplace-effective mobility, were identified in the various definitions of workplace-effective mobility. Indeed, the data show that a subjectivist epistemology results in an exchange of values that ultimately mediates the inquiry (Guba, 1990). Initially, I thought that within various disability groupings, there would be homogeneity, and only focused on samples relating to employees with a physical disability, the Deaf, people with a speech-impairment and the blind. In the process of data collection, I was informed that there are differences even within these groups of disabilities. A participant mentioned that, for instance ‘*among physically disabled people, there are those who have [a] muscular disorder as a result of polio. Furthermore, there are those who are paralysed from [the] waist down and are commonly known as paraplegics, whereas those who are paralysed from [the] neck down are referred to as quad paraplegics*’ (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled, 122008.txt – 2:80, 280:286).

In the Deaf community, also, there are differences. Therefore, a participant suggested that ‘*it would be interesting for your research to get hold of people who, as the previous speaker said if I heard correctly, are hard of hearing, i.e. those coming from oral and hearing culture or associate themselves with that and also those who have been deafened later in their lives like MP2. I think just to create a balance or get the balance in how people with hearing loss actually experience this type of thing in the workplace*’ (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:117, 648:654).

These data contributed to sampling processes by suggesting that when researching disabilities as a non-disabled researcher, one should carefully select the samples for specificity.

7.7.6.3 Axiology

The data confirmed that various orientations came to light as the study progressed, as Creswell (2007) suggests. Because of the exchange of values indicated in the epistemological experiences in this study, my orientations regarding people with disabilities have changed. The data therefore made a personal contribution to me as a non-disabled researcher.

As I indicated in Section 5.5.5, some differences of opinion were recorded, including the point that Deafness is not regarded as a disability by the Deaf. A participant indicated that *‘there must have been a misunderstanding when Ms Goosen referred you to me. Yes, I am Deaf (with capital ‘D’ meaning I am culturally Deaf) and I have been the chairperson of DeafSA Free State (my term just ended). As your title for your research suggests (workplace-effective mobility among employees living with disabilities), we, Deaf people are not “disabled” and therefore have no “mobility” problems at all. That is why you must have misunderstood Ms Goosen or you don’t understand what Deafness is all about’* (P21: RE Request to conduct interviews for Doctoral Studies Scanned2.txt – 21:1, 28:34). As a result of this experience, the interview questions were amended to allow a detailed discussion on this issue with the Deaf participants in the Western Cape Province.

7.7.6.4 Methodology

As I indicated in Section 4.3, the data emerged from a dialectical dialogue with the participants (Zarb, 1997), guided by the evolving data collection and analysis, and the statements from interactions with

participants were recorded through thick descriptions (see Plack, 2005). Such a dialectical dialogue was experienced in the manner in which the data was collected – participants referred me to further sources for data collection, as is evident in the following statement: *'I suggest that you link up with places like MODE to access further information on your research topic. Their numbers are (011) 467 9444'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:83, 298:300).

In order to ensure effective collection of data, cognitive interviews were used, as indicated in Section 4.7.1.3 (i)(c). Participants were encouraged to respond as follows: *'[T]hink aloud about your understanding of the concept and using your experiences please indicate how you would define workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. As there is no right or wrong answers, I would request that you verbalise any thoughts and opinions you may have on the subject. Anything you may say during these discussions will not be held against you'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:34, 117:124).

7.7.6.5 Emancipatory research principles

To attain the emancipatory goal, a research process must be collaborative and should be negotiated between the researcher and the researched (Fawcett & Hearn, 2001). As a result of adopting such an approach, the data indicate that disability organisations were involved at various stages of the research process, as suggested by Zarb (1997). They were involved in the shaping of the research topic (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:4, 26:28), in the identification of research assistants (P12: Scanned.txt – 12:2, 15:18) and the sampling and data collection (P5: FW Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned 8.txt – 5:1, 129:136).

Although I am a non-disabled researcher whom the participants perceived as lacking personal experience of the various disabling

barriers (Barnes & Mercer, 1997), rather than being criticised, I was educated on issues of disability. I admitted my limitations by way of showing reflexivity (Oliver, 1997). By this admission, I provided research feedback that would ensure that the research practice is appropriate by saying: *'I must admit my own limitations; when I chose the topic, of course, I did not know the different manifestations of physical disabilities until I interviewed participants with physical disabilities. They were saying that some are disabled from neck to waist; others are disabled from waist downwards. So, that is the one distinction I have picked up and some are multiply disabled. Also, within the deaf community I noted that there are differentiations in terms of being born deaf and hearing loss or late life deafness'* (P23: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 23:121, 670:677).

The data also suggest that I placed my skills and knowledge at the disposal of the participants (Barnes & Mercer, 1997) and provided them with an opportunity to comment on and change working drafts (Oliver, 1997). My skills and knowledge contribution were acknowledged in participants' remarks, for example: *'We are excited about your research, and we are of [the] opinion that the said research will add value to the lives of people with disabilities'* (P12: Scanned.txt – 12:1, 10:11) and *'We also see this as a development opportunity for the people involved...'* (P12: Scanned.txt – 12:4, 27:28). These participants' experiences are in line with what Barnes (2001) says, namely that any knowledge that is generated should provide power to disabled people themselves. While the research experience was empowering to participants in this manner, they also shared their appreciation for the study. Comments include expressions of gratitude for involving them in the study (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:34, 188:189), for sensitising them to their right to litigate in terms of the consent agreements (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:53, 351:356), for showing an interest in them (P22: RE Research Project – people with disabilities in the workplace Scanned.txt – 22:1, 10:10), and for informing them of their right to association (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:129, 700:701).

7.7.6.6 Theoretical models of disability

The data suggest that the social model is valuable in understanding the problems of unaccommodating attitudes (Jette, 2006) and disabling environments (Pinder, 1996) for employees with disabilities. The participants mentioned unaccommodating attitudes such as non-acceptance and negative attitudes from managers and colleagues. With regard to non-acceptance, a participant commented: *'As employees with disabilities, colleagues do not always accept us. We also tend to show negativity towards able-bodied colleagues. They perceive us as being proud, self-centred individuals and as closed books'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:58, 216:219). Regarding negative attitudes, they said that this is the latest problem they are experiencing in the workplace (P10: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 10:83, 93:95).

7.7.6.7 The biopsychosocial model

From the data, the concepts of self-efficacy, a positive self-concept and social support emerged as enablers of workplace-effective mobility, among others. These concepts are related to the biopsychosocial model of disability. The model has been mainly used in the area of enhancing the performance of people with disabilities in society. Therefore, a particular contribution of the data was to highlight the importance of the biopsychosocial model in the area of criteria development for Human Resources purposes. The data further confirm the importance of introducing a psychological model to understand the performance (Johnston, 1997) or self-efficacy behaviour of employees with disabilities. Regarding social support as a resource deficit (Gignac & Cott, 1998), the inhibiting nature of over-protective and overly supportive families is emphasised by the data. Therefore, the data show that employees with disabilities must be allowed to develop a positive sense of independence.

7.7.6.8 Salutogenesis

Although salutogenesis has primarily been used in the areas of stress management, the data indicate that it is also a valuable model that can be used to enhance the self-efficacy of employees with disabilities in the workplace. In this regard, the participants highlighted the notion of a sense of coherence (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999) as an enabler of workplace-effective mobility. Another contribution of the data in support of a salutogenesis approach was the identification of a positive self-concept as an enabler of workplace-effective mobility. These concepts account for a deep sense of achievement (Albrecht & Devlieger, 1999) felt by participants in the study. It is thus no wonder that an expert participant suggested the concept of resilience for the study because it is associated with problem-solving skills, social competence, a sense of purpose and autonomy (Morgan *et al.*, n.d.).

7.7.6.9 Welfare-to-work strategies

The data support the argument that welfare-to-work strategies are of value to people with disabilities (Bambra *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, the effectiveness of these strategies has been confirmed by data from this study. Although South Africa does not have an active welfare-to-work programme, the underlying philosophy is implied in various pieces of legislation aimed at prohibiting discrimination on the basis of disability. In this regard, participants mentioned that *'workplace-effective mobility and equal access to job opportunities provide a better quality of life than relying on disability grants. It creates a sense of independence because one would use the salary to buy things like a house, a car and also be able to pay accounts, as well as have a family'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:38, 142:147). Furthermore, they mentioned that workplace-effective mobility supports the relationship-building process (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:67, 351:353).

7.7.6.10 Sensitivity training and awareness programmes

Sensitivity training and awareness programmes address disability discrimination and ensure the retention of employees with disabilities (Kennedy & Olney, 2001). The data confirm the value of sensitivity training and awareness programmes for employees with disabilities. Participants regarded sensitivity training and awareness programmes as important for creating a greater understanding of the specific needs of employees with disabilities (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:129, 405:407).

7.7.6.11 Sign language appreciation

Sign language as a means of communication (Barnes & Mercer, 1997) has been supported by the data to a point that participants felt that it must be recognised as the first language of the Deaf (P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 122008.txt – 24:38, 216:217). In South Africa, this has far-reaching consequences with our eleven official languages – sign language should thus be the twelfth official language.

7.7.6.12 Contribution to practice

From a policy viewpoint, one participant mentioned the following as a potential value addition by the study: *'I think the study will be an eye-opener to employers and it will definitely assist in finding mechanisms to improve our career prospects. We also wish that government considers the issues we have discussed in order to ensure effectiveness in the employment equity processes in this country'* (P3: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 3:82, 289:297).

7.7.6.13 Contributions of the data to the international literature

Section 3.2 reflected on the origins of the concept of workplace-effective mobility and indicated that it relates to other concepts such as to

workplace and job mobility, which focus on accessibility or the job search behaviour of candidates in general, and to career mobility, which focuses on the internal and external factors enhancing such mobility. However, in that section it became evident that the study makes a unique contribution by advocating for an integration of workplace, job and career mobility into what may be called the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

The study thus makes a contribution to the field of career psychology and organisational commitment from the perspective of a disabled employee. It may be that the concept of workplace-effective mobility applies to able-bodied employees as well, but because of the dearth of literature on how workplace-effective mobility applies to employees with disabilities, the emphasis in this study was placed on employees with disabilities. The model presented in Figure 8.1 also makes a contribution to knowledge on how workplace-effective mobility manifests among employees with disabilities. However, the model would need to be validated by future studies to make it possible to apply it practically in the workplace and to make its implementation effective.

The discussion of the model also suggests that the concept of workplace-effective mobility contributes to the Human Resources field by implying the importance of workplace equity for the productivity and quality of work life for employees with disabilities.

7.8 SUMMARY

The chapter indicated that the evidence on the nature of workplace-effective mobility, together with its enablers, inhibitors, dimensions and indicators found in this study have some support in the literature. Such support thus strengthens the trustworthiness of the study and demonstrates the relevance of the concepts of disability management in organisations. The various comments that participants made on the

phenomenon in general are also in line with findings reported in the literature, thereby paving the way for integrated future research efforts aimed at emancipating people with disabilities. However, some unique contributions of the data to the broader field of knowledge were presented.

The alignment of the findings in the current study with the findings reported in the prior literature implies that theoretical saturation has been achieved, making possible the compilation of a theoretical framework. In the next chapter, the process followed in compiling such a theoretical framework on workplace-effective mobility and its various dimensions is presented.

CHAPTER 8

A THEORETICAL MODEL OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The final aim of the study, as explained in Section 1.3, was to compile a theoretical model of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. This chapter thus presents the process involved in attaining that aim and the results thereof. In presenting the model, the chapter illustrates how the paradigm model dimensions of building a theoretical model proposed by Corbin and Strauss (2008) were used. The chapter ends with an illustration of a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility.

8.2 CAUSAL CONDITIONS

The data suggest that workplace-effective mobility emanates from self-efficacy beliefs and a positive self-concept held by employees with disabilities, enabling organisational practices and workplace accessibility. These factors are thus regarded as the causal conditions required for employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility. With regard to self-efficacy beliefs, participants mentioned that self-motivation – determination, ambition, hard work (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:48, 179:182) – and perseverance (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:52, 336:337) are essential for employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility.

The phenomenon of workplace-effective mobility thus emanates from the self-efficacy of employees with disabilities. Self-efficacy relates to the achievement goal theory, which is based on mastery and performance goals (Barron *et al.*, 2006). Participants indicated that to achieve

performance goals and attain workplace-effective mobility, employees with disabilities must show '*determination, ambition, hard work, intelligence, qualifications and job-related experience [as without them] I do not think one will be able to achieve workplace-effective mobility*' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:48, 179:182).

A person pursues a mastery goal by developing competence through acquiring new knowledge and skills. In the findings on a positive self-concept, the importance of a willingness and ability to acquire job-related knowledge and experience was also highlighted (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:48, 179:182). Some of the identified competences include 'a course on 'living practice' (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:47, 111:114), job knowledge (P8: Gauteng – Speech Impaired experiences.txt – 8:48, 197:197) to produce positive outcomes of perseverance (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:52, 336:337) and job satisfaction (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:42, 288:291).

Developing competence is thus a self-determined activity which results in intrinsic self-motivation (Verbrugge & Jette, 1994). In its turn, intrinsic self-motivation implies that the desire for goal attainment should be internalized (Sideridis, 2006), in other words, in this case, that a person with a disability seeks to demonstrate a sense of competence. Similarly, the attainment of workplace-effective mobility is an internalized goal for employees with disabilities, as they seek to demonstrate their ability to manage their work environment (Verbrugge & Jette, 1994).

Performance goals are related to the ought-self motivation in the self-determination theory, because a person needs to demonstrate competence in relation to colleagues when pursuing these goals (Barron *et al.*, 2006). The ought-self motivation is, however, an external form of motivation that cannot be internalized, because it depends on significant

others in the person's environment. In this study, therefore, the identified type of self-motivation is both internalized and other-directed.

Indications of the internalization of self-motivation can be found in the following response from a participant: *'I want to understand for myself that yes I am a Deaf person, but then in your working environment you have to find a way to overcome the limitations that you are experiencing because of your deafness. Bugging your head against a barrier will not help; you have to find a way to get around it. ...you keep going against an obstacle; but then you get someone else being appointed who can get around it'* (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:113, 547:552).

The other-directed form of self-motivation was observed in the comment by a participant that people with a disability need *'a lot of determination because we have got a point to prove. I mean we have to fight to compete with able-bodied people so that you are not looked down upon. You have got to ... hey it is fight'* (P8: KZN – QuadParaAssociation – Physically Disabled.txt – 8:54, 204:206). In this fight, however, participants also acknowledged the need for employers to implement workplace equity measures such as targeted recruitment (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:73, 259:262), career paths (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:39, 147:149), and many others indicated in Section 5.3.2.6.

Be it in the form of inner motivation, or other-directed, self-efficacy is thus a critical condition for employees with disabilities to achieve workplace-effective mobility. The attainment of workplace-effective mobility is thus a function of employees with disabilities *'work with; the surroundings of the workplace and the job that (they) do'* (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:57, 71:73).

Enabling organisational practices would also assist in enhancing the other-directed motivation of employees with disabilities. Enabling organisational practices were highlighted under workplace equity, as discussed in Section 5.5.2.6, were also regarded as a causal condition for the attainment of workplace-effective mobility by employees with disabilities. The issue of employers providing productive types of job was highlighted as critical by a participant who said that *'the job provided must be productive'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:39, 147:149).

Participants underscored the issue of targeted recruitment as an important consideration to ensure access to job information by people with disabilities (P3: Free State – Focus Group with the Blind 122008.txt – 3:90, 292:294). For instance, a participant indicated that *'the other aspect of that is the advertising of vacant positions, which does not always reach suitably qualified candidates with disabilities'* (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:73, 259:262).

Generally, a positive employer attitude towards employees with disabilities is required for such employees to attain workplace-effective mobility. In this regard, a participant indicated that *'workplace mobility depends on the employer's outlook towards employees with disabilities. In the sports environment, the sporting fraternity believes in integration and involvement of sportsmen with disabilities to ensure success and competitiveness. In the same way that the sporting fraternity values its disabled sportsmen, employers must value their employees with disabilities'* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:71, 74:79).

Workplace accessibility has also been discussed in Section 5.5.2.4, but was found by participants to be a causal condition for workplace-effective mobility. This relates to their ability to move safely and freely in the workplace, and being able (with the help of assistive devices and

reasonable accommodation measures) to perform their jobs effectively. These causal conditions of workplace-effective mobility were summed up by a participant's comment that '*it is people I work with; the surroundings of the workplace and the job that we do that determine our mobility*' (P9: KZN – APD – Physically Disabled.txt – 9:57, 71:73). Obviously, these are all external factors to which personal factors (a positive self-concept and self-efficacy beliefs) should be added.

8.3 CONTEXT-INTERVENING CONDITIONS

The context-intervening conditions for workplace-effective mobility are evident from the discussion on enablers and inhibitors (see Sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3) and are not repeated in this section. However, as it is indicated in the literature that workplace mobility depends on the availability of job opportunities (Anderson *et al.*, 1981; Hofmeister, 2006; Moscarini & Thomsson, 2007), the contribution of economic conditions to the opportunities for employees with disabilities to find and maintain jobs needs some discussion.

Participants mentioned that because of the ignorance of employers regarding tax concessions for implementing reasonable accommodation measures, people with disabilities are not always considered for jobs (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:101, 300:306). The high unemployment rate in South Africa also makes it more difficult for people with disabilities to gain employment (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:57, 190:193; P24: Western Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:21, 133:135).

8.4 ACTIONS AND INTERACTION STRATEGIES

Participants mentioned several actions that may be taken by individuals, employers and disability organisations to enable the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities.

At an individual level, the willingness to acquire job-related knowledge and experience and to assert themselves has been identified as critical actions by participants. The participants' opinions on these actions support arguments by Van Ham (2002) on the acquisition of skills and by Sullivan and Arthur (2006) pertaining to the possession of know-how to gain employment. Participants also emphasised the importance of assertiveness as an important attribute of maintaining a positive self-concept.

At the level of employers, participants mentioned the importance of ensuring workplace accessibility and enhancing workplace equity for employees with disabilities to attain workplace-effective mobility. These measures were explained in Section 5.5.2, which deals with enablers. However, the most important actions seemed to be targeted recruitment, performance assessments in order to recognise contributions made by employees with disabilities, sensitivity training and awareness for able-bodied colleagues.

Disability organisations were regarded as essential for disability activism. Participants indicated that disability organisations could play a role in motivating people (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:44, 193:197), in negotiating with employers for job opportunities for their members (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:66, 299:300), providing advice regarding workplace accessibility (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:91, 417:419), assisting with job interviews to enhance the self-confidence of applicants with disabilities (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:101, 464:468), and acting as placement agencies for candidates with disabilities (P24: Western

Cape – Operational Employees – Deaf 12 2008.txt – 24:110, 558:562). A further role that disability organisations could play was articulated by a participant as follows: *‘organisations such as Disabled People South Africa (DPSA) should play an advocacy role as they should; they should be thinking of rolling out television programmes to educate the nation about disabilities so that prejudice may be eradicated’* (P3: Pilot Focus Group Session – Gauteng – Physically Disabled 09092006.txt – 3:45, 147:150). The disability activism is thus intended to negate the prejudicial outlook of society towards people with disabilities (Anspach, 1979).

8.5 CONSEQUENCES OF WORKPLACE-EFFECTIVE MOBILITY

Several positive consequences have been identified by participants as stemming from a situation in which employees with disabilities attain workplace-effective mobility. These consequences relate to organisational and personal effectiveness (a positive self-concept and quality of life) among employees with disabilities. Improved productivity was mentioned by a participant in a remark that workplace-effective mobility is about doing work with a sense of motivation and that *‘if you are doing work with passion, I think, other people will benefit from it as well. Maybe in making sure that the organisation becomes the best organisation there is; gets recognised for appreciating the employees that it employs’* (P4: Free State – Physically Disabled.txt – 4:13, 56:60).

Regarding personal effectiveness through an enhanced self-concept, a participant indicated that workplace-effective mobility relates to the unleashing of the potential of employees with disabilities and suggested that *‘once capabilities and initiative are unleashed, employees with disabilities will develop confidence’* (P4: Pilot Focus Group Session – KZN – Physically Disabled 12072006.txt – 4:61, 108:109).

Finally, workplace-effective mobility has the potential to improve the quality of life of employees with disabilities because *‘it creates a sense of*

independence because one would use the salary to buy things like a house, a car and also be able to pay accounts, as well as have a family' (P2: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 2:38, 142:147). Workplace-effective mobility is thus not only about job mobility but has a potential to improve organisational commitment (Nas *et al.*, 1998) of employees with disabilities for the mutual benefit of both organisations and individuals.

Figure 8.1 below illustrates the causal effects of these conditions and actions to produce the positive consequences of workplace-effective mobility among employees with disabilities.

Figure 8.1: Theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility

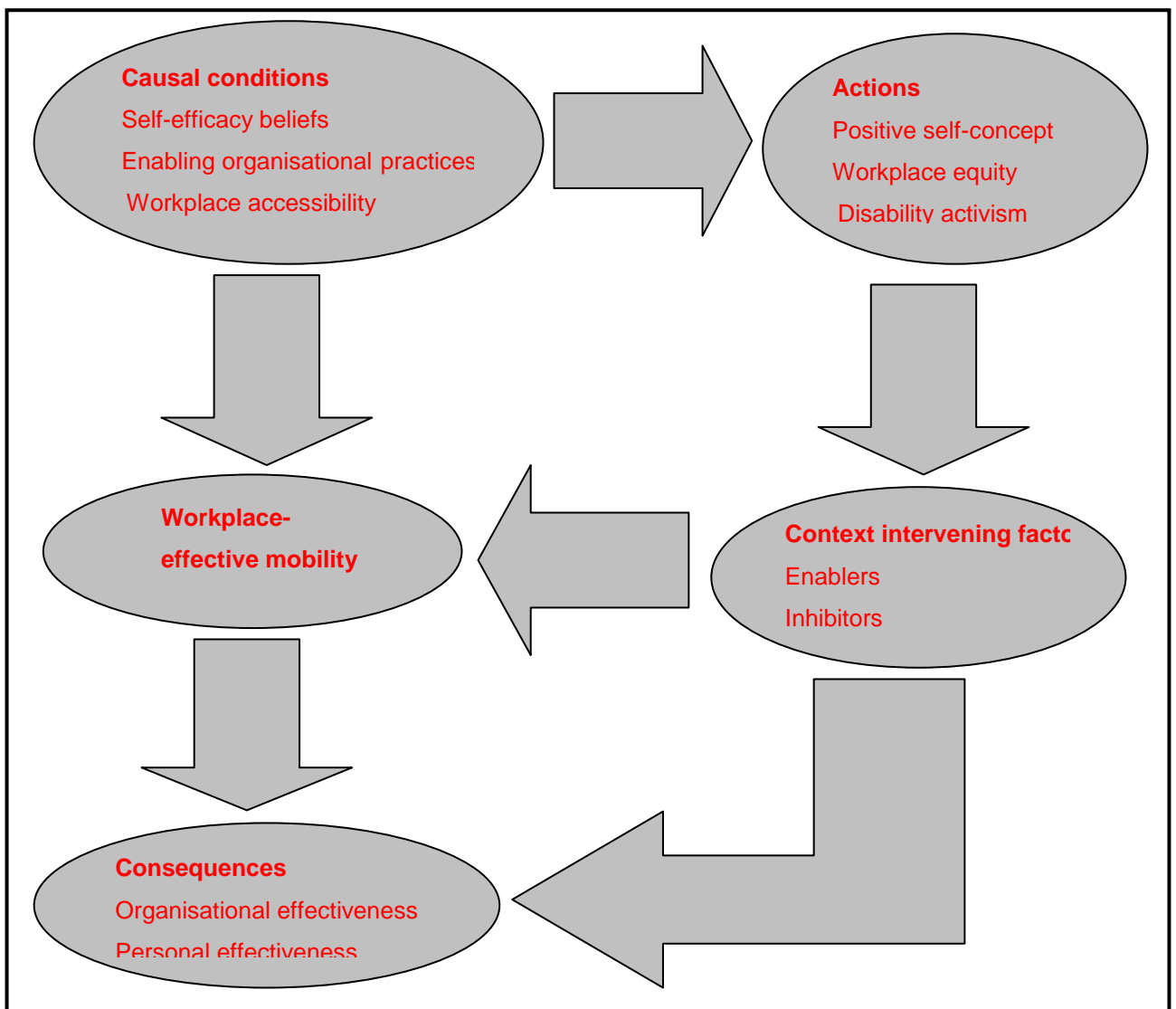


Figure 8.1 indicated that particular causal conditions (self-efficacy – indicated by self-motivation, enabling organisational practices – expressed in workplace equity and workplace accessibility) evoke actions among individuals to maintain a positive self-concept, and galvanise organisations to ensure workplace equity and disability organisations to engage in disability activism. As a result of such actions, or their absence, the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities are either enabled, or inhibited. For instance, when organisational practices are unfair and inequitable, the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities would be inhibited. However, with a positive self-concept, workplace equity and disability activism, the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities would be enabled.

Depending on the nature of the context-intervening factors (whether they be enablers or inhibitors), the workplace-effective mobility may be realised as a central concept in the figure. The various consequences are indicated as organisational and personal effectiveness. These consequences emanate from the extent to which the intervening variables are enabling or inhibiting. Only when the intervening variables are enabling can these consequences be realised. Otherwise, neither the organisation nor the individual will attain effectiveness. As Klimoski and Donahue (1997) indicate, organisations which do not implement enabling measures to mitigate the effects of disability will fail to achieve high levels of performance from these employees. Also, without enabling organisational practices, employees with disabilities would continue to be stigmatized, resulting in a reduced sense of mastery (Wright, Gronfein & Owens, 2000) and reduced quality of life due to activity limitation (Wang, Badley & Gignac, 2004).

8.6 SUMMARY

The chapter presented the various elements of a proposed theoretical model on workplace-effective mobility, emphasising self-efficacy, enabling organisational practices and workplace accessibility as causal conditions, as well as the mutual benefits accruing to both the organisation and employees with disabilities. The chapter culminated in a graphic representation and description of a proposed theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility.

The final chapter presents a reflection on the study and its contributions, as well as the recommendations of the study for policy, research and human resources management practice.

CHAPTER 9

REFLECTION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This final chapter reflects on the research process followed, and also on my personal experience of the research journey. The implications of the study to the field of organisational behaviour, particularly Human Resources Management, are also discussed. In order to avoid duplication in the discussion, the major contributions made by the data as explained in Section 7.7.6 are acknowledged, but not repeated in this final chapter. Finally, recommendations are presented for the practical application of the findings in organisations. Directions for future research are also suggested.

9.2 REFLECTION ON THE RESEARCH PROCESS

In this section, I reflect on the achievement of the objectives, controlling the trustworthiness of the study findings, the contributions made, any problems experienced, the weaknesses of the study and the personal experiences gained.

9.2.1 Objectives of the study

The study focused on identifying and confirming criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. It began with a discussion of the nature of workplace-effective mobility and proceeded to identify the criteria of such mobility. Focus group interviews were the main instruments for data collection; and the data were content analysed using Atlas.ti. Criteria identified in this manner were presented to experts in the fields of industrial and organisational psychology for confirmation, which they did through a pilot and two consensus Delphi rounds. Finally, a theoretical model for workplace-effective mobility was compiled using

the paradigm model proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1998). Therefore, the study objectives were achieved following a sequential mixed method approach, which started off with a qualitative phase followed by a quantitative Delphi procedure.

9.2.2 The trustworthiness of the study

As already mentioned in Section 9.2.1, the study used a sequential mixed method approach in which a qualitative methodology was predominant in the identification of the criteria and the compilation of a theoretical framework for workplace-effective mobility. The qualitative phase was thus followed by a quantitative Delphi process to confirm the criteria identified. Although it is not easy (Schurink, 2004), this qualitative part of the study was evaluated using criteria suggested by Guba and Lincoln (1994), and as mentioned in Section 4.7.1.5.

9.2.2.1 Reflexivity

According to Pretorius (2006:212), reflexivity means sensitivity to the way in which a researcher's presence has contributed to the data collected and how his/her assumptions have shaped the data analysis. It includes the mistakes and/or misunderstandings experienced in the use of methods, procedures and analysis (Pretorius, 2006) for future research planning (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). This section, therefore, evaluates reflexivity in terms of methods used, procedures followed and analysis issues experienced in the study.

(i) Methods

This section reflects on the sampling, data collection and data analysis methods used in the study.

(a) Sampling

I was initially doubtful about whether I would be able to recruit participants to my study, given the comments by disability co-ordinators: *'Be forewarned, to find candidates that are employed will be a challenge in all categories'* (P6: FW Request to conduct interviews for a Doctoral Study Scanned.txt – 6:1, 16:17). Once this hurdle was overcome, it became evident that disability has diverse categories which were not envisaged in the sample design. Therefore, I acknowledged this oversight to participants (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:128, 670:680).

As indicated in Section 4.7.1.2, I initially envisaged developing a psychometric selection tool which necessitated larger samples of 400 respondents. The refocusing of the study towards the identification of criteria using qualitative methods resulted in smaller purposive samples being drawn for the study.

(b) Data collection procedures

I had initially planned to engage the services of research assistants who would be trained in the targeted selection methodology. Because this methodology is copyrighted to Deloitte, I successfully negotiated permission to use it during the envisaged training of research assistants. With a refocus of the study, I became the main instrument of data collection myself and was immersed in data in order to rigorously gather data and systematically construct informed meaning (Shar & Corley, 2006).

Conditions for the use of a cognitive interviewing strategy were not always conducive. For instance, the focus group interview with speech-impaired participants was characterised by differences between the sign languages used by participants and the interpreter. As a result, the

duration of interviews was shortened. Notwithstanding this challenge, some valuable information was collected from this group of participants.

Because of the particular participants involved in the study, accessible venues had to be used for focus group interviews. Despite the challenges experienced with the noise in some of the venues used (a gym hall in Chatsworth, a coffee shop in Bloemfontein and a primary school in Bloemfontein), venues were accessible and data collection was possible.

At the time when the focus group data for the pilot phase were collected, I was still awaiting ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria. Upon follow-up, I discovered that the title registration had been '*lost in the process*', causing a delay in the research process (P5: RE Fwd Re PhD – progressScannedM1.txt – 5:1, 24:25). However, the ethical measures explained in Sections 4.7.1.6 and 4.7.2.5 were observed throughout.

(c) Data analysis issues

As a first-time user of Atlas.ti, I had to undergo introductory training prior to applying the software for data analysis in this study. Such training was, however, arranged at very short notice, as reflected in the following comment by the facilitator: '*I hope you are well. It is very short notice, but I might be able to help you on an individual basis in the next two weeks. I will only be presenting a course again in the New Year. I can fit you in on either this Saturday or next Saturday morning*' (P7: RE Re Atlas Ti training Scanned ScannedM2.txt – 7:3, 276:279).

Although it offered me an '*opportunity to revise my methodology chapter for comprehensiveness*' (P7: RE Re Atlas Ti training Scanned ScannedM2.txt – 7:2, 157:158), I found it a positive challenge to use Atlas.ti as a data analysis tool. The manual I received during the training session and the

technical support I received from the facilitator assisted me a great deal in the data analysis process. The prolonged period of data analysis (from 2008 to 2010) offered me an opportunity to be immersed in the data to a point where I understood participants' perspectives and nuances of their language (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006). Using an older version of Atlas.ti, Version 4.2, was an added challenge, because it works slower and does not have some of the more intelligent options that the latest version is endowed with.

9.2.2.2 Peer debriefing

Peer debriefing was used in the study as a process to review the process (Creswell, 2009) and discuss concerns (Daymon & Holloway, 2002) with research auditor Professor Connie Moloi, as well as my study leader Professor de Beer, and other colleagues. At times, I felt a bit overwhelmed by the data and these colleagues assisted me to maintain my focus in the study.

9.2.2.3 Auditability

In order to ensure that the research process is auditable, I stored the data (from the correspondence with disability organisations to analysis) on a CD, which is attached to the report for use by future researchers in a possible replication of the study. Therefore, the CD represents an audit trail for the analysis of the themes derived from different focus group responses. It is also represented in a webpage format, which is easy to navigate using the navigation bar. In order to access the data, the reader should have the Atlas.ti software to be able to view the codes and is advised to click on the folders and follow links.

9.2.2.4 Credibility and dependability

I achieved credibility of the study findings through member checking (Bitsch, 2005), ensuring theoretical saturation (Andrade, 2009), triangulating data sources (Verna, 2003) during data collection and using Atlas.ti (Goulding, 1999), as indicated in Section 4.7.1.5(i). Dependability was achieved through the engagement of a research auditor (Professor Connie Moloji) and ensuring that a CD indicating the research process would be available until after the thesis was examined, whereupon it would be destroyed to fulfil the promise made to the participants.

9.2.2.5 Authenticity

Using the five criteria (fairness, ontological authenticity, educative authenticity, catalytical authenticity and tactical authenticity) suggested by Pretorius (2006), I reflect on the trustworthiness of the study. I contend that the study represents the views of various participants fairly through the quotations used in the data analysis process. According to Chiovitti and Piran (2003), the use of participants' own language at all levels of coding contributes to the credibility of findings.

I further conclude that participants understand their world better (ontological authenticity), given the dialogue that I conducted with them and my responses to questions they posed during the data collection process. The detailed reporting of the various focus group responses will ensure that the participants understand the perspectives of other participants better (educative authenticity).

The identified and confirmed criteria for workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities will encourage participants to take action to change their circumstances (catalytical authenticity) and the suggested workplace equity and accessibility will empower them to take steps required for engaging in action (tactical authenticity).

9.2.2.6 Transferability

As a theoretical model of workplace-effective mobility was compiled with information from select target participants, it may need to be refined before it is generalized to populations other than the blind, the Deaf, people with physical disabilities and speech-impairments. Criteria for workplace-effective mobility identified through the focus group interviews with these samples and confirmed in consensus-building using Delphi with experts would require standardization before it is also generalized.

9.2.3 Weaknesses of the study

Claassen (2004) suggests a list of criteria to evaluate qualitative studies, including truth value, applicability, consistency and neutrality. Truth value of the study was achieved by assuring participants of their rights to voluntary participation, privacy, anonymity and also conducting member checks to verify the accuracy of transcripts. However, the assurance of the option of withdrawal at any stage by the research presents a potential source of research bias (Ellis & Levy, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005) and thus may affect the truth value of a study. However, in this study, no withdrawals were registered during data collection.

As indicated in Section 9.2.2.6, the study involved participants with four types of disabilities and thus cannot be generalized to populations that were excluded from participation. Section 4.7.1.1 explained that people with mental and emotional disabilities were excluded from the study, as they are the least employable (Benedict *et al.*, 2004). Because the study is not applicable to them, the results generated in this study cannot be generalized to these groups.

The data collection process followed in the study also depended on the type of data available from participants. In order to ensure consistency, an interview schedule containing a preliminary non-exhaustive list of

open-ended questions to be asked (Glaser, 1992) was used. However, this was adapted from one focus group to another depending on the types of topics covered (Glaser, 1992). Therefore, the use of Deaf participants for negative case testing did not have to replicate the process followed with other participants (Schurink, 2004). Also, due to communication problems with speech-impaired participants, the focus group interview did not last for the specified duration (one and a half hours).

The use of quotations in reporting the findings allows the reader to assess the interpretation of the themes that emerged from the data for neutrality and credibility. These quotations were member-checked with participants for accuracy prior to analysis.

9.3 PERSONAL REFLECTIONS

Personal reflections explained in this section relate to my experiences in researching people with disabilities, doing qualitative research and my relationship with the study leader.

9.3.1 Researching people with disabilities

As a first time disability researcher, I found the study challenging in many ways. I initially lacked confidence in conducting this type of research, but with the assistance of QASA, through the technical guidelines, I gained the confidence to proceed with the study. Also, as indicated in Section 9.2.2.1(i)(a), the sampling design met with wonderful surprises of diversity of disability within the 'same' categories that were sampled.

The blind participants were initially apprehensive of me as the researcher. According to Barnes and Mercer (1997), this kind of apprehension is attributable to the lack of personal experience in the researcher of disabling barriers perceived by those with a disability.

In the end, I learnt so much from this study that I did not know before. For example, I learnt about the different subcategories of the population with disabilities, the politics involved across the various disability groups and the protocol of conducting research in the disability community. I also came to appreciate the need for sign language interpretation as a critical communication tool for human resources practitioners.

9.3.2 Doing qualitative research

I used qualitative research methodology in my Master's research, but I have come to appreciate that using qualitative methods is an exciting challenge for a researcher. When colleagues around you are familiar with and are experts in quantitative research methods, qualitative research can be a lonely journey. In the process, I neglected a lot of social partners who will be difficult to reconnect with after this process. I also got divorced, and was bereaved after the passing on of my two sisters. On a positive note, I got a new partner and am blessed with a very busy little daughter who keeps me on my toes.

The choice of a topic was another challenge for me. The topic changed from the original intention to develop a psychometric assessment tool to the identification and confirmation of criteria for workplace-effective mobility. The study thus emerged from various interactions with disability organisations and my promotor, thereby justifying the methodology followed, namely Grounded Theory, in the first phase.

Yet another challenge was the dearth of literature on the concept of workplace-effective mobility in particular, because of the emphasis in previous research on medical solutions to disability, which resulted in workplace prejudice and discrimination against people with disabilities. Therefore, the emancipatory/advocacy paradigm was viewed as appropriate for the study and yielded positive feedback from some of the participants regarding the gains achieved from it.

I felt particularly 'stuck' (Claassen, 2004) when coding the data and had to do it over and over again. After seeing themes emerge from the data, I felt comfortable that I was on the right track. Because of the continual peer debriefing with Professor Connie Moloi, I became so confident with the data analysis that she proposed my name for the list of facilitators for the Master's and doctoral students at the Vaal University of Technology, on the use of Atlas.ti.

9.3.3 My study leader

The doctoral course work on organisational behaviour at the University of Pretoria was intended to stimulate the ability of candidates to identify a topic that they could research. I therefore met Professor Hannes de Beer when he presented a module on workforce diversity to our group. He stimulated my thinking when he argued for a need to study the relationship between the mobility of people with disability and their effectiveness in a workforce context.

The thought remained with me, until one day I approached him to be my study leader and shared my reading on the field with him. Excited, he agreed to be my study leader. Because of my work commitments, as an executive, I made slow progress towards finalising the proposal. When I was about to submit, Professor de Beer was admitted into hospital for a period of two weeks. When I was about to submit my final draft, he also had to undergo an emergency eye operation for a detached retina. Through thick and thin, he encouraged me to push on because he thought that I had the potential to become an excellent academic who would do well in researching and teaching employee diversity. Visits to his office and often to his home were not in vain, as each visit created another opportunity for me to see the study from a different, exciting perspective. He also assisted in providing support networks for data collection and research topic finalisation.

9.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The human resources management, policy and research implications of this study are presented in this section.

9.4.1 Human Resources Management implications

The obligation on employers to meet the employment equity targets requires new strategies to address the challenges they face in balancing the operational requirements and defining suitability of employees. It is common cause that workplace equity is beneficial to the generation of ideas that may enhance productivity. Therefore, the historical and socially constructed notion (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) of workplace prejudice and discrimination to manage employees with disabilities cannot continue to remain unquestioned, because of political and social pressures. The identification and confirmation of criteria for workplace-effective mobility, which did not exist previously, will assist in fostering a culture of disability equity in workplaces. Workplace equity therefore relates to a progressive corporate culture that advocates for acceptance and inclusiveness (Klimoski & Donahue, 1997), and suggests that diversity management is a critical component of managing employees with disabilities for greater organisational effectiveness.

9.4.2 Implications for national policy

Workplace equity through the implementation of well-delineated criteria for workplace-effective mobility inculcates a return-to-work culture, which supports the government's need to have more people with disabilities in paid employment. The sensitivity training and awareness programmes suggested by participants in this study also indicate a need for policy reform, both in the workplace and in society at large, to reduce workplace prejudice and discrimination against employees with disabilities.

The current system of medical boarding continues because of the insurability factor. This situation may need to be addressed as employers tend not to consider alternatives that accommodate employees with disabilities because of the financial incentives of insurance.

Also, as one participant indicated, this study may be used by government to strengthen the national disability equity drive. In this regard, the participant remarked: *'We also wish that government would consider these aspects to ensure effectiveness in the employment equity processes in this country'* (P3: EXPERIENCES OF GAUTENG PARTICIPANTS – Physically Disabled 122008.txt – 3:82, 289:297).

9.4.3 Implications for research

The main limitations of this study were the declining participation of experts in the Delphi process, as well as a lack of a clear determination of the sample frame. The latter problem is evident in the suggestions by participants that the study needed to dissect the disability sector into smaller chunks so that a balance is maintained in both the data collection and analysis phase. The following remarks were made by participants in this regard: *'Of course, what you must remember is that the group here consists mostly of culturally Deaf participants, i.e. people who are experiencing the same circumstances of the Deaf culture. It would be interesting for your research to get hold of people who, as the previous speaker said if I heard correctly, are hard of hearing, i.e. those coming from oral and hearing culture or [who] associate themselves with that and also those who have been deafened later in their lives like MP2. I think just to create a balance or get the balance in how people with hearing loss actually experience this type of thing in the workplace'* (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:125, 646:654).

9.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

A number of recommendations for human resources policy, practice and research are made below in order to optimise debates on the subject of the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities and to ensure optimal workplace equity.

9.5.1 Policy recommendations

Return-to-work programmes for employees with disabilities need to be regulated. Participants who have been on rehabilitation programmes have derived benefits out of such programmes in terms of enhanced self-esteem and positive attitude towards life. Also, in the workplace, these programmes should be considered to minimise dependence on life insurance. Most participants have indicated a need for adaptability training, which also has policy implications.

The incentives that employers receive for implementing reasonable accommodation measures should be made known to all employers as part of the economic development strategy – the more suitably qualified employees with disabilities in employment, the better for their well-being and the economy in terms of productivity.

9.5.2 Practice recommendations

The participants' suggestions regarding workplace sensitivity training and awareness programmes should be taken seriously. These programmes are offered in partnership with disability organisations and will ensure relevance of material and a resolution of workplace conflict that arises because of mutual misunderstanding. Suitable workplace ergonomics, such as lighting, and accessible facilities must also be provided for employees with disabilities. The advertising of positions should be

considerate of the needs of candidates with disabilities for information. Workplace democracy must also be enhanced so that employees with disabilities are involved in organisational planning and decision-making to serve their needs better.

9.5.3 Recommendations for research

Further studies on the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities are required to fill the gaps in the literature. Therefore, efforts regarding emancipatory/advocacy research on employees with disabilities should be increased. The debate on whether deafness is disability or not, and disability mainstreaming, should be continued in the best interest of all parties. In pursuit of these goals, the recommendation made by a Deaf participant needs to be seriously considered (P7: Western Cape – Managerial Candidates – Deaf 122008.txt – 7:125, 646:654). For instance, an all-embracing category of ‘people with hearing losses’ was proposed, if one conducts research in the Deaf area. The topic of resilient employees suggested by one expert in the Delphi rounds also needs to be further investigated.

Furthermore, the theoretical model compiled in this study and the criteria identified for workplace-effective mobility should be validated for their applicability and rigour. Therefore, future research is strongly recommended in these areas.

9.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The focus of this study was the identification and confirmation of criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities from an emancipatory/advocacy perspective. The study sought to understand the concept of workplace-effective mobility, its enablers and inhibitors, so that workplace equity could be enhanced by the eradication of inhibitors and the institutionalisation of enablers into policy frameworks.

Criteria were identified, namely a positive self-concept, self-efficacy, a sense of coherence, workplace accessibility and a positive sense of independence in the focus group interviews with participants with disabilities. A confirmation of these criteria and related indicators resulted in consensus among industrial and organisational psychologists.

The study was intended to place disability issues on the transformation agenda of society. The agenda proposed is the one for the optimisation of workplace equity through the implementation of well-delineated criteria for the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. These criteria, once implemented, are deemed to be potentially empowering for both employers and employees.

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ANNEXURE A

INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT

I voluntarily participate in this study, which is intended to identify workplace-effective mobility criteria for people with disabilities for use by employers.

I therefore confirm that

- the researcher was fully introduced to me, and I am aware of his academic credentials and experience;
- I have been fully briefed on the nature of the methods, the uses of the data collected and the participation risks involved in the study;
- I am aware that I have the right to withdraw my participation in the study at any time if I feel uncomfortable;
- I have been informed that the study is conducted in partial fulfilment of the PhD requirements of the researcher at the University of Pretoria, and that the information collected will be used solely for this purpose;
- I am aware that the information may need to be disclosed to the research promoter(s) for purposes of verifying the process and results, which disclosure I have been informed will require my written consent. By signing this agreement, I am granting such consent;
- I am aware that participation in this study is a sacrifice I am making to the academic process and that any answers will be provided anonymously;
- in exchange for my participation, I am informed that a copy of the results will be made available via the disability organisation of which I am a member;
- I am aware that in the event of any queries pertaining to this study or information on my participation rights, I may contact the researcher at his e-mail address, kgomotso@vut.ac.za or his promoter, Professor Hannes de Beer, at jjdebeer@hakuna.up.ac.za.

Signed:.....**Date:**.....

ANNEXURE B

MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING

Adapted from www.theta.org.za/etqa/index.asp?thepage=mou.htm – 44k

MEMORANDUM OF UNDERSTANDING

between

**KGOMOTSO WILLIAM KASONKOLA
PHD CANDIDATE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
STUDENT NUMBER 9930007**

and

Disability Organisation

1. PARTIES TO THE MEMORANDUM

- 1.1 The parties to this Memorandum of Understanding are Kgomotso William Kasonkola (hereinafter referred to as the student) and (hereinafter referred to as a Disability Organisation)
- 1.2 This document is an agreement in respect of data to be collected by the student in partial fulfilment of a PhD qualification at the University of Pretoria;
- 1.3 The data will be collected on members of the organisation outlined herein.

2. DURATION

This agreement shall commence on signature by both parties, for an initial period of four (4) consecutive weeks.

3. PURPOSE OF MEMORANDUM

- 3.1 The purpose of this Memorandum is to:
 - 3.1.1 establish a relationship to enable the conduct of a PhD research with the members of disability organisations;
 - 3.1.2 clarify the conditions under which such research will be conducted; and
 - 3.1.3 mutually identify and agree on mechanisms to protect the human rights of members in the course of this research.
- 3.2 This memorandum provides exclusive mutual partnership status in the conduct of the afore-mentioned research.

4. PRINCIPLES OF CO-OPERATION

In order to achieve the purpose of this Memorandum, the parties have adopted and will comply with the principles of co-operation set out below:

- 4.1. The parties agree that, for the duration of the research project, the researcher will:
 - 4.1.1. promote the rights of members to privacy, anonymity, voluntary participation and to voluntarily withdraw at any stage of the research process should they feel uncomfortable;
 - 4.1.2. provide detailed information regarding the objectives of the research project, uses and disposal of data collected;
 - 4.1.3. obtain written and informed consent to any disclosure of information that may be required by a competent person, i.e. the research promoter, research auditor or the University of Pretoria's Ethics Committee, for the purposes of verifying the results;
 - 4.1.4. carry the costs of transporting participants to and from the venue, and of supplying refreshments during breaks, where applicable;
 - 4.1.5. provide a copy of the findings upon completion and approval of the research report; and
 - 4.1.6. the disability organisation will encourage members to participate and assist in the process of identifying accessible and noise-free venues for the conduct of intended focus group interview sessions.

5. DATA COLLECTION, RECORD KEEPING, DOCUMENTS AND REPORTING

The parties undertake:

- 5.1. to ensure the confidentiality of the records, that all records generated during data collection, interpretation and reporting shall be destroyed upon acceptance of the final research report by the University of Pretoria; and

- 5.2. that the information shall be used solely for purposes of the intended qualification by the student.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

- 6.1. The parties acknowledge that any information supplied in accordance with this agreement, transferred to or come into the possession or knowledge of the research promoter, research auditor or the university ('the receiving party'), may consist of confidential or proprietary data, which is not available in the public domain;
- 6.2. The receiving party therefore agrees to hold such material and information in the strictest confidence and not to make use thereof other than for the purposes of this agreement and to release it only to such properly authorized persons requiring it for the purposes explained in this agreement and agree not to release or disclose it to any other party who has not signed an agreement expressly binding himself not to use or disclose it other than for the purposes of this agreement. The undertaking and obligations contained in this clause do not apply to information that is publicly available at the date of disclosure or thereafter becomes publicly available from sources other than the parties;
- 6.3. The parties shall take such precautions as may be necessary to maintain the secrecy and confidentiality of such material and will maintain the confidentiality of all personal information lodged by the organisations' members and any other person to whom any such confidential or proprietary data may have been or will be disclosed;
- 6.4. Should this agreement be cancelled for whatsoever reason, each party shall return to the other forthwith and upon demand all documents, written instructions, notes, memoranda, disks or records and other documentation of whatsoever nature or description relating to the confidential information which it acquired or may acquire or came into its possession and any such confidential information stored by electronic means shall forthwith be destroyed.

7. ADDITIONAL / OTHER CO-OPERATION AGREEMENTS BETWEEN PARTIES

The parties may conclude additional agreements as required in order to clarify their responsibilities and to establish further mechanisms and procedures for partnership to pursue the objectives of this agreement.

8. AMENDMENTS TO THIS MEMORANDUM

This agreement and the annexures hereto constitute the sole record of the agreement between the parties in relation to the subject matter hereof. Neither party shall be bound by any express, tacit or implied term, representation, warranty, promise or the like not recorded herein. This agreement supersedes and replaces all prior commitments, undertakings or representations, whether oral or written, between the parties in respect of the subject matter hereof.

No addition to, variation, notation or agreed cancellation of any provision of this agreement shall be binding upon the parties unless reduced to writing and signed by or on behalf of the parties.

9. NEW PARTIES TO THE MEMORANDUM

The parties may agree to introduce a new party to this Memorandum. Following agreement in writing to this effect, the Memorandum shall become binding on the new party on signature.

10. DISPUTE RESOLUTION

Should any dispute or difference arise between the parties with regard to interpretation and/or implementation of any one or more of the provisions of this agreement, either party shall be entitled to submit such dispute or difference to the attention of Professor J. J. de Beer (jjdebeer@hakuna.up.ac.za), Human

Resources Department of the University of Pretoria, for resolution.

11. TERMINATION OR SUSPENSION OF AGREEMENT

The agreement is terminable by either party giving the other fourteen days notice. Neither party shall have any claim against the other for cancellation of the Agreement in terms of this clause.

12. ADDRESSES OF PARTIES FOR CORRESPONDENCE

Kgomotso William Kasonkola

Telephone: 083 626 8997

Facsimile: ((016) 950 9782

E-Mail: kgomotso@vut.ac.za

Postal: Private Bag X 021

Vanderbijlpark

1911

Disability Organisation



SIGNATORIES OF THIS AGREEMENT

Signed on this.....day of2008
at.....

Kgomotso William Kasonkola

Student

Signed as witness to this agreement

Signed as witness to this agreement

Name:.....Name:.....

Address:.....Address:.....

ANNEXURE C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

Topic: Identification of criteria for workplace-effective mobility among employees with disabilities

INTRODUCTION

Greeting	Greet the participants, introduce the researcher and research assistants
Thanks	Thank the participants for their time
Confidentiality	Explain that the interviews are anonymous and assure participants of confidentiality. Introduce the Informed Consent Agreement.

Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain that the purpose of this interview is to identify indicators of workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities. • Explain that the research is in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the researcher's doctoral programme at the University of Pretoria. • Explain the procedure to be followed, the rules of participation and the intended uses of the results
Value of the interview	Explain that the participant's information will be used to compile a checklist to be used by employers to select suitably qualified employees with disabilities in the workplace.

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE	
A. Nature of workplace-effective mobility	
1.	In your opinion, and based on your experience, how do you define the workplace-effective mobility of employees with disabilities?
B. Enablers of workplace-effective mobility	
2.	What factors are attributable to the attainment of workplace-effective mobility by employees with disabilities?
C: Inhibitors of workplace-effective mobility	
3.	What factors are attributable to the lack of workplace-effective mobility among employees with disabilities?
D. Differential treatment of disabilities	
4.	What are your views regarding the role of employers treating the different types of disabilities when making employment decisions?
E. General opinions and experiences	
5.	What are your impressions of this focus group interview session?
CLOSURE	
Thank the interviewees for their valuable time and their contributions. Ask if you can speak to them again in the event that you need more clarity on any one of the above questions. Indicate that you will transcribe the tapes and compile a report, which you will present to them for additions, corrections of comments at a later stage.	

DELPHI ROUND ONE
VERIFICATION AND CONFIRMATION OF INDICATORS

1. BACKGROUND

The pilot rounds focused on the expansion and refinement of the indicators of workplace-effective mobility as identified from the focus group interviews with participants with disabilities. This round presents a consolidated version of indicators identified based on your comments and inputs received in the previous rounds.

The goal of this round is therefore to verify and confirm the identified indicators and categorise them into workplace-effective criteria that employers may use to select suitably qualified Employees with Disabilities to their workplaces.

2. THE TASK

You are requested to read through the identified indicators per criterion and perform the following actions:

- 2.1. Indicate the extent to which you regard the definition of workplace-effective mobility proved to be clear, relevant and representative of the phenomenon and use the **1 – 5 point Likert Scale** to indicate your response. In the scale **1 = Low and 5 = High**;
- 2.2. Indicate your agreement or otherwise with the dimensionalisation of the definition on a **1 – 5 point Likert Scale**. In the scale **1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree**.
- 2.3. Indicate your agreement or otherwise with the dimensionalisation of the definition on a **1 – 5 point Likert Scale**. In the scale **1 = Strongly Disagree**

and 5 = Strongly Agree. In the event of you having a different view, you are most welcome to reflect it in the **comment**_space provided;

2.4. Please make sure that you complete **ALL** questions on the questionnaire; and

2.5. Please note that the return date for this round is close of business on **Friday, 11 September 2009.** In the interest of maintaining the anonymity of your responses, you are to submit your inputs to keshald@vut.ac.za

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Section A: Definition

A1. Workplace-effective mobility is defined as the willingness and ability of employees with disabilities to find work in the open labour market; make an effective contribution; and maintain an economically active lifestyle. Please rate this definition for clarity, relevance and representativeness using a **5-point ordinal scale (1 = low and 5 = high).**

Clarity: the extent to which the definition is understandable	1	2	3	4	5
Relevance: the extent to which the definition is appropriate to the understanding of the concept of workplace-effective mobility	1	2	3	4	5
Representativeness: the extent to which the definition represents the concept of workplace-effective mobility	1	2	3	4	5

Suggested amendments to the definition:

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Section B: Dimensions

- B1.** Aspects of the definition are dimensionalised in the following table. Please look at the dimensions and on a **5-point ordinal scale** indicate the extent to which you are in agreement with these dimensions (**1 = strongly disagree** and **5 = strongly agree**).

Segment	Dimension	Rating					Comment
		1	2	3	4	5	
Willingness and ability to find work in an open labour market	It requires a <u>positive self-concept</u> , which is a perceived competence to achieve general self-worth.						
Willingness and ability to make an effective contribution	It requires <u>self-efficacy</u> , which is the perceived ability to perform in order to meet socially acceptable levels.						
	It also requires <u>physical mobility</u> , which is a physical dimension.						
	It also requires a <u>sense of coherence</u> , which is a personal feeling of confidence that the required personal resources are available to cope with challenges.						

Segment	Dimension	Rating					Comment
Willingness and ability to enjoy the benefits of an economically active lifestyle	It is associated with <u>a positive sense of independence</u> , which is an economic dimension.	1	2	3	4	5	

- B2.** The following are the categorisation of the definition of workplace-effective mobility indicated in B above into indicators and dimensions, which are listed below. Please choose by placing a tick in the space provided your proposed categorisation of indicators and the reason for your choice in the comments column.

Indicators	Category	Rating					Comments
<u>Willingness and ability to</u>							
Work in a team environment	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
Assert one's human rights	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
Acquire job-related knowledge and experience	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
Communicate	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
Determine own career path	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
Maintain a positive self-concept	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
maintain self-confidence	Positive self-concept	1	2	3	4	5	
Find work in the open labour market	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	

Indicators <u>Willingness and ability to</u>	Category	Rating					Comments
		1	2	3	4	5	
Adjust to changing working environment	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Change cultural responses to disability in order to achieve success	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Achieve upward mobility in the workplace	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Assume a productive role	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Work hard	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Make an effective contribution	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Maintain a positive sense of purpose in the community	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Positive work etiquette	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Transcend constraints and gain membership of an occupational class	Self-efficacy	1	2	3	4	5	
Cope with work demands	Sense of coherence	1	2	3	4	5	
Maintain a positive attitude towards life	Sense of coherence	1	2	3	4	5	
Maintain a productive job fit	Sense of coherence	1	2	3	4	5	
Move freely and safely in built areas	Workplace accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	
Change places of residence to achieve success	Workplace accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	
Operate and care for assistive devices	Workplace accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	
Travel from home to work	Workplace accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	



Indicators <u>Willingness and ability to</u>	Category	Rating					Comments
		1	2	3	4	5	
Observe workplace safety and health procedures	Workplace accessibility	1	2	3	4	5	
Maintain an economically active lifestyle	Positive sense of independence	1	2	3	4	5	
Exercise life choices	Positive sense of independence	1	2	3	4	5	

C. General comments.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION