

Towards an organisational team sport intervention model for managing a diverse workforce

by

YVONNE TRIJNTJE JOUBERT

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SUPERVISOR: PROF. J. J. DE BEER

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DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY

I, Yvonne Trijntje Joubert, declare that the thesis entitled *Towards an organisational team sport intervention model for managing a diverse workforce* submitted by me for the degree Doctor of Commerce in Industrial and Organisational Psychology at the University of South Africa is my own independent work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

YVONNE TRIJNTJE JOUBERT

DATE

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Even though I fell pregnant at the beginning of my studies, I have come to the end of this journey because of God's guiding hand and grace. The verse in the Bible that encouraged me most is Philippians 4:13: *"I can do all things through Christ which strengtheneth me"*.

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study was to develop a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport intervention and to compile a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation in nine financial organisations in Gauteng, South Africa. The diversity constraints relevant in this study were age, gender, race, religious beliefs, physical abilities, ethnicity, generation gaps, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, physical abilities, education, income, political beliefs and income. The study was conducted among 63 sport participants and nine sport coordinators employed at nine financial organisations in Gauteng, South Africa.

The data were collected by means of focus group interviews with sport participants and individual interviews with sport coordinators. The results indicate that organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative do have benefits for the employees (i.e. the employees learn more about and from one another, communicate openly, become friends, trust and respect one another, are able to work together in a team, have equal opportunities and there is less stereotyping/discrimination) and for the organisation (i.e. productivity, the company is able to achieve its goals, employees are more cohesive and able to work together, there is creativity, new ideas are generated and client service improves). The findings of this study contribute valuable new knowledge to the literature on the diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions because no studies have been conducted on an organisational team sport intervention model that can be utilised as a diversity model in organisations.

KEY TERMS

Client service, cohesion, commitment, communication, creativity, diversity, diversity management, friends, goals, new ideas, organisational team sport, productivity, relationships, respect

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In a research study for the Social Issues Research Centre (SIRC) conducted by Hudson (Chandler, 2006) to assess the impact of the benefits and failure of organisational team sport interventions in the workplace, it was found that sport in the world of work has a positive influence on the employees' work behaviour. Based on this research as well as other research studies discussed in chapter 6, a need exists in organisations and the literature to develop a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport interventions and a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation.

In this chapter, the background to the study, the problem statement, the objectives of the study, the research progress model, assumptions, the rationale for the study, definitions of key terms and theory building are discussed. The layout of the chapters is also provided.

1.2 BACKGROUND

1.2.1 Benefits of an effectively managed diverse workforce

In the past few years, the emphasis on the benefits of effective diversity management in the workplace has increased dramatically. Organisations are therefore becoming more involved in diversity management (Gilbert, Stead & Ivancevich, 1999). Diversity management is a comprehensive, systematic and planned managerial process in which an organisational environment is developing all employees, with their differences and similarities, contribute to the organisation's competitive and strategic advantage (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2002).

Improved individual and organisational performance is gained from effective diversity management. Performance in an organisation is enhanced because effective diversity management encourages employee innovation and creativity and improves decision making and problem solving (Canham, 2008; Usowicz, 2008).

1.2.2 The disadvantages of a poorly managed diverse workforce

The disadvantages of poorly managed diverse organisations may include reverse discrimination. This means that competent applicants from minority groups such as a person of a minority ethnic group, gender, age or sexual orientation will not be selected for the position. People with significantly different backgrounds may also have cultural or other barriers preventing them from co-working efficiently (Jimena, 2006; Stephen & Mickey, 1999).

1.2.3 Organisational team sport to minimise diversity barriers in an organisation

Sport participation creates a diversity culture by means of the following: It increases self-esteem through affiliation and identification with other team members, because the participants all wear the same team colours. Because they all know the other players' positions and names, they feel an integral part of the team. Accordingly, when a team succeeds, a spectator's self-esteem improves because it is aligned with the team's triumph (Posten, 1998).

The culture of high self-esteem that is developed through team sport interventions also has a positive impact on the world of work for the following reasons (Chandler, 2006):

- Employees are more motivated because they feel more appreciated by their team members.
- Employees are more effective in their tasks because their participation in organisation team sport has taught them how to work together as a team.
- Positive work relationships develop between co-workers because employees become friends through sport.
- The discussions on sport break down the barriers between customers, suppliers and colleagues.
- Organisation team sport participation promotes the sharing of ideas and enhances creativity.

Team sport interventions change employees' behaviour in organisations. The contributions of such interventions are as follows:

- Sports teams have a specific shared main goal, namely winning. Sometimes they set long-term goals that can be broken down into less important short-term goals, ensuring that the hierarchy of goals is attained (Cashmore, 2003).
- Organisational team sport participation improves individual commitment because it requires the participant to remain focused on specific goals. A certain level of commitment is required, for example, improving certain skills, which may involve being present for training or abstaining from other nonrelated activities (Cashmore, 2003).
- Cohesion is formed through the tendency for a team to bond and stay united in search of the team's goals and purposes. If the participants bond together outside sport (say, in their workplace) because they have the same interests, there is total social cohesion or harmony between the participants. Cohesion transforms a combination of individuals into a unified unit, which will be more effective in pursuing common goals (Cashmore, 2003).
- Participation in team sport contributes to the effective management of diversity because it increases employees' mutual respect. When team members participate in a sports team, they learn more about one another. When a sports team works together towards common goals and these are achieved, the stereotyping and prejudices that participants had about their diverse team members will change to trust, because the participants perform according to the expectations their team members have of them. A team is effective when there is trust between the team members (Kortex, 2006). According to Muleskinner (2003), if diverse employees participate as a team, they soon recognise the unimportance of their obsession with differences.
- Team sport participation improves mutual respect between employees because participants learn to work together as a team which, in turn, teaches them to depend on and help one another. Team sport teaches employees that each participant has his or her own role and the participants need to trust one another in order to fulfil the role assigned to them (e.g. trusting the goal shooter in soccer to score goals for the team) (Downs, 2009).

- Team sport participation improves communication because it is a worldwide language that everybody understands, and in a sports team, people have to communicate. This brings people together, despite differences in their culture, economic status, religious beliefs or background. It breaks down barriers which is essential to incorporate different cultures and norms (Carrigg, 2007).
- Team sport participation enhances employees' knowledge of others because they share the same physical space and transfer information. According to Muleskinner (2003), sport participation can strengthen friendships and generate harmony between diverse groups – and that is what sport is all about.

Diversity needs to be managed in order for organisations to be competitive. Organisations need to commit to effective diversity management to ensure that the perspectives, unique skills and knowledge of their workforce are channelled into creating a diversity dividend.

1.2.4 **Motivation for the study**

Although diversity management is viewed as a necessary programme for organisations to remain competitive, the concept of diversity management remains vague for many organisations.

When sport is used in the workplace, it enables employees to focus on their similarities instead of their differences (Joubert & De Beer, 2010). Once the diversity barriers have been overcome, this can provide access to knowledge, skills and abilities in the organisation because the group works together towards mutual goals. When the goals and efforts of the teams and individuals in the organisation are in alignment, the organisation can move forward through strong leadership and supportive systems.

Existing diversity management interventions are costly and often less effective. They are also often forced upon employees (Parker, 2008). There is thus a need to develop an organisational team sport intervention model that can be utilised as a diversity model in organisations. This new intervention will not be forced upon employees. An employee can choose whether or not to participate in sport.

Many employees benefit from diversity management when their employers become more inclusive. Those employees who have been stigmatised or discriminated against, such as employees of colour, poor and lower-class employees, employees with a different sexual

orientation, women and disabled employees, benefit in the short and long term when working in an inclusive environment. Improved opportunities and salaries are obvious gains, while gains in physical and mental health are less obvious. The potential benefits extend to the entire workplace. The work environment for heterosexual employees improves when sexual orientation is no longer a frightening issue. When older employees are treated well, this provides reassurance for young employees because they realise that one day they will also be old (Apfelbaum, Norton & Sommers, 2012; Bullock, 1999; Stevens, Plaut & Sanchez-Burks, 2008; Stroh, Varma & Valy-Durbin, 2000).

Although it is easy to focus on employees, the organisation also gains from well-managed diversity. For instance, when an organisation develops leadership potential from minority groups, the process that allows an organisation to utilise talent serves as a blueprint for the type of competencies that are needed in the new millennium. All employees benefit from an increased awareness of the operation of bias, especially from enhanced insight into their own prejudices, attitudes and biases towards diverse employees. Every employee benefits from awareness of his or her own cultural heritage and succeeds because of the development of interpersonal communication skills, conflict management skills, role-modelling skills and feedback-seeking skills (Chrobot-Mason & Thomas, 2002; Stroh *et al.*, 2000; Zanoni & Janssens, 2007).

Organisations that fail to develop multicultural competencies are faced with many challenges. A white-dominated organisation is exposed to legal difficulties, whereas an organisation that is able to manage its diversity properly is an effective prophylactic against costly discrimination suits. A noninclusive organisation creates health problems for its employees. A well-managed diversity intervention helps to reduce the organisational costs related to low productivity, high turnover and withdrawal, as well as the costs towards health insurance resulting from stress-related illnesses caused by unfair treatment (Apfelbaum *et al.*, 2012; Sagrestano, Heavey & Christensen, 1998).

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

An increasing number of organisations in South Africa are introducing formal organisational team sport activities, without any scientific knowledge on whether participation in these activities has benefits for diversity management in the organisation (Bennett, 2009; Joubert & De Beer, 2011).

Also, no theoretical information or models (content and process) are available in the literature for the implementation of organisational team sport interventions that can help organisations manage their diversity.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Objective 1: To identify the indicators of an organisational team sport intervention that contribute to the effective management of a diverse workforce and to develop a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport intervention.

Objective 2: To compile a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation. The experiences that the sport coordinators and employees have with regard to the implementation process of organisational sport activities will be explored. On the basis of the positive and negative experiences, a process model will emerge on how to implement an organisational team sport project in organisations for maximum diversity management effectiveness.

Question 1: Is there a relationship between organisational team sport activities and outcomes and the management of diversity activities and outcomes in organisations? If so, what is this relationship?

Question 2: Is there sufficient agreement between the participants on the meaning and outcomes of diversity and diversity management in the organisation?

Question 3: What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) that manifest from participants in the organisational team sport intervention?

Question 4: What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) regarding the content of the team sport intervention model identified using the Atlas.ti?

Question 5: What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational team sport intervention model?

Question 6: What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model identified using Atlas.ti?

1.5 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

STEPS	RESEARCH QUESTION	AIM	RELEVANT DATA	RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED
Step 1	Is there a relationship between organisational team sport activities and outcomes and the management of diversity activities and outcomes in organisations? If so, what is this relationship?	To determine whether organisational team sport activities and outcomes support and advance diversity management activities in organisations	MCom study, Joubert (2010) (Organisational team sport interventions to minimise diversity constraints in the workplace) Secondary literature (chapters 3 and 6)	Confirmation by comparison of the findings of research process – step 2 and research process step 3
Step 2	Is there sufficient agreement between the participants on the meaning and outcomes of diversity and diversity management in the organisation?	To determine whether there is common ground/consensus between the participants on the perceived meaning and outcomes of the concepts of diversity and diversity management	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Content analysis of the qualitative data gathered from focus group interviews and individual interviews
Step 3	What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) that manifest from participants in the organisational team sport intervention?	To determine the main and subthemes of the content of diversity management in an organisational team sport intervention	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis using Tesch's method
Step 4	What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) regarding the content of the team sport intervention model identified using the Atlas.ti?	To determine the main and subthemes in the content of the diversity management team sport intervention model	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Atlas.ti
Step 5	What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational team sport intervention model?	To determine the main and subthemes in the implementation of an organisational team sport intervention	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Tesch's method

STEPS	RESEARCH QUESTION	AIM	RELEVANT DATA	RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED
Step 6	What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model identified using Atlas.ti?	To determine the main subthemes (steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model using Atlas.ti	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Atlas.ti

1.6 ASSUMPTIONS

Assumptions are statements that have not yet been tested, but are considered to be the truth for the research study. Mouton (1996) and Babbie (2008) designed a classification of these assumptions. The epistemological, ontological and methodological assumptions relating to this study will be discussed in detail below.

1.6.1 Epistemological assumptions

Epistemological assumptions are statements about the nature of knowledge and science (Babbie, 2008; Mouton, 1996). Regarding the epistemological assumptions in this study, the following is assumed:

- “Truth” is subjective and depends on the situation. During qualitative research, there is more than one way to know something, and knowledge is bound to the context.
- Traditions and cultural knowledge are ideas about the truth.
- The worldview of the individual conceptualises and adjusts perceptions of people.

Epistemology relates to questions on what people regard as evidence or knowledge of things in the social world. These questions are designed to help the researcher explore what kind of epistemological position the research implements or expresses. Epistemology is the theory of knowledge and should be concerned with the principles and rules that will help the researcher to decide whether and how social phenomena can be known or how this knowledge can be demonstrated (Babbie, 2008; Mason, 1996; Mouton, 1996).

The researcher believes that she will only be able to understand organisational team sport interventions if she appreciates how participants experience these interventions and comprehends these experiences (Babbie, 2008; Baptiste, 2001). The researcher therefore engaged with and interviewed participants and sport coordinators to identify their views and perspectives (Babbie, 2008; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

1.6.2 **Ontological assumptions**

Ontological assumptions are statements about the nature of the research (Babbie, 2008; Mouton, 1996). Regarding the ontological assumptions in this study, the following is assumed:

- Individuals are complex and experience life in their own ways.
- A person's culture influences his or her expectations and behaviour.

Researchers always study something that can be recorded as truth or reality (Baptiste, 2001; Höijer, 2008). People have different perspectives of reality and this tends to vary on a continuum ranging from a notion of multiple subjective realities that are socially constructed to an objective reality that exists independently of human conception (Baptiste, 2001; Höijer, 2008). The researcher is responsible for the continuous construction of reality, but also believes that the reality exists independently of employees' understanding of it.

The researcher in the current study believes that organisational team sport interventions can be used to manage diversity in a workplace. However, she maintains that organisational team sport interventions are not only subjectively experienced, but that they are also manifested in socially and contextually defined and accepted conventions which facilitate the way employees in the workplace construct organisational team sport interventions in the organisation.

1.6.3 **Methodological assumptions**

Methodological assumptions refer to the most suitable methods to be used and the nature of the research (Babbie, 2008; Mouton, 1996). Regarding the methodological assumptions in this study, the following is assumed:

- This topic has not been previously studied and is therefore an exploratory design suitable for this study.
- Participants' perceptions and life experiences can be studied by means of communication with and observation of the participants.
- Interviews (a communication tool) can be used to gather information on the participants' viewpoints.

In this study, a valid sample can be achieved by the researcher, by selecting participants and sport coordinators who live the experience that is being studied.

In order to develop a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport interventions and a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation, the participants and sport coordinators participating in organisational team sport were interviewed and their experiences were compared with situations in the existing literature in order to generalise external validity theoretically (Babbie, 2008; Mouton, 1996).

1.6.4 **Axiological assumptions**

As a result of the findings of a value-mediated advocacy inquiry, (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Mertens, 2010), the researcher's interpretation and those of the participants and sport coordinators and presentation thereof may reflect an individual's various orientations, as explained by Creswell (2007). The researcher's orientation in the current research study emanated from the perspective of a human resources executive and registered industrial psychologist. The orientations of the participants and sport coordinators emanated from their views and perspectives as employees participating in organisational team sport interventions.

Because of the researcher's professional practice and theoretical exposure, the study had the potential for researcher bias – hence the researcher's attempt to remove these orientations as recommended by Williams (1998) in order to understand organisational team sport interventions from the perspectives and views of the participants and sport coordinators. Researcher bias was also reduced by implementing measures such as trustworthiness (as discussed in chapter 7 in this study). Instead of validity, qualitative research uses a qualitative concept (Creswell, 2007; Mertens, 2010).

1.7 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

When an organisation uses formally organised organisation team sport to improve relationships in a diverse workforce, it compels employees to focus on their similarities instead of their differences (Joubert & De Beer, 2011). Overcoming diversity constraints should enhance diversity competence in the organisation because the diverse sports teams are unified to work towards mutual goals. Once the goals and efforts of the diverse teams are in alignment, the organisation can move forward through strong leadership and supportive systems.

Before the first objective could be achieved, the researcher had to ascertain what the participants' perceptions were about diversity management (theme 1) because the researcher and the participants had to find common ground on the meaning of the phenomena (see step 1 of theory building, section 1.10). Secondly, the participants divulged their personal experience regarding the advantages (and disadvantages) of diversity management for the organisation and for the employee (theme 2). In theme 3, the participants' experiences relating to their participation in organisational team sport were also used to successfully realise the first objective in this study.

To achieve the second objective, theme 2 (the advantages of diversity management for the organisation and the employee) was used in this model as well as the participants' perceptions of the organisation's contribution towards organisational team sport (theme 4).

1.8 THESIS STATEMENT

A formal organisational team sport intervention should be used as a diversity management model to moderate management of the diverse workforce.

1.9 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Sport. It is defined as a physical activity or skill used for a recreational purpose – for recreation, self-enjoyment, to attain excellence, for the development of a skill or for some combination of these. Sport usually includes physical activity, side by side competition and a scoring system. It can also be defined as a basic human skill developed for the sake of people and their society as a useful way for people to increase mastery over nature and the environment. Sport is therefore deemed to be as old as the existence of man (Petett, 2005).

Morality is one of the requirements of sport because reasonable challenges, competition and rules and fair play are essential. Sport is physical, although some sports are more physical than others, and fitness and exercise are related to sport (Guttman, 1988). Chalmers (2002) defines *sport* as an individual activity capable of achieving results that will require exertion and/or physical skill, which is competitive and accepted as being a sport.

For the purposes of this research, the emphasis on organisational team sport is as follows: the combined influence of attaining common goals through close collaboration between participants, mutual gaining of knowledge and sharing responsibility with employees from other backgrounds and cultures in a relaxed environment.

McNamara (1997) defines an *organisation* as a group of workers who are purposefully organised to attain a common goal or numerous goals.

Organisation. It can be defined as a social arrangement of employees, systematically organised and managed to achieve common goals on an ongoing basis. Organisations have a management structure that subdivides and delegates roles and determines the relationship between functions and positions and functions, responsibilities and authorities in order to perform chores. Organisations are affected by outside environments which means that they are open systems (BusinessDictionary.com, s.a.).

From the definitions of sport and organisations one can conclude that organisational team sport is a specific encouraged activity of workers designed for them to work together in a certain organisation to achieve various goals and participate together in organisational team sport.

Intervention. To intervene means “to get involved, so as to alter an action” or to “come between two events” (Hawkins, 1994, p. 271). A sport intervention is therefore an intervention which includes sport as a means and which will result in an alteration of behaviour.

Diversity. The concept of diversity encompasses differences between employees. It means that each employee has to understand that another employee is unique, and that all employees need to recognise, accept and respect employee differences in the group. These individual differences can be caused by differences in race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, age, physical abilities, religious beliefs, political beliefs or

other characteristics (Claussen, Ko & Rinehart, 2008; Cunningham, 2007; Grobler *et al.*, 2002).

Diversity management. It is a comprehensive, systematic and planned managerial process in which an organisational environment is developed where all employees, with their differences and similarities, contribute to the organisation's competitive and strategic advantage (Grobler *et al.*, 2002; Swanepoel, Erasmus & Schenk, 2008). The aim of diversity management is to manage diversity and create a work environment that allows every employee to work to his or her potential (Hoover 2002; McNerny, 1994; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008). Diversity management can also be defined as the process whereby differences are recognised through performances. It requires a huge effort and hard work from managers to create an organisational culture and systems in which diverse employees can express themselves and develop and grow. These efforts lead to increased profit and productivity (Human & Bowmaker-Falconer, 1992; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008).

Managing diversity is a planned, comprehensive and systematic process by management in which an organisation's environment is developed to enable all employees, with their similarities and differences, to add to the organisation's strategic advantage and competitive edge (Gilbert *et al.*, 1999; Grobler *et al.*, 2002; Newell, 2002; Roosevelt, 1996; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008; Thomas, 1996a).

From the above definitions, and for the purposes of this study, one can assume that managing diversity entails the development of planned processes and strategies to enable diverse organisations to contribute to the organisations' productivity and success.

Group. It can be defined as two or more employees who have a relationship or interdependence and whose actions influence one another (Levi, 2011; Paulus, 2000).

Team. It can be defined as a collection of employees gathered together to attain the same goal (Armstrong, 2007). Clutterbuck (2007) and Katzenbach and Smith (2003) define a team as a small group of individuals with complementary abilities who are committed to a specific purpose, performing objectives and an approach for which they hold themselves equally accountable. Hackman (1987) defines a team as groups that work together in an organisation towards a common goal.

Team dynamics. It can be defined as a group of employees who are dedicated and work together to realise corporate goals and are responsible for creating a beneficial environment.

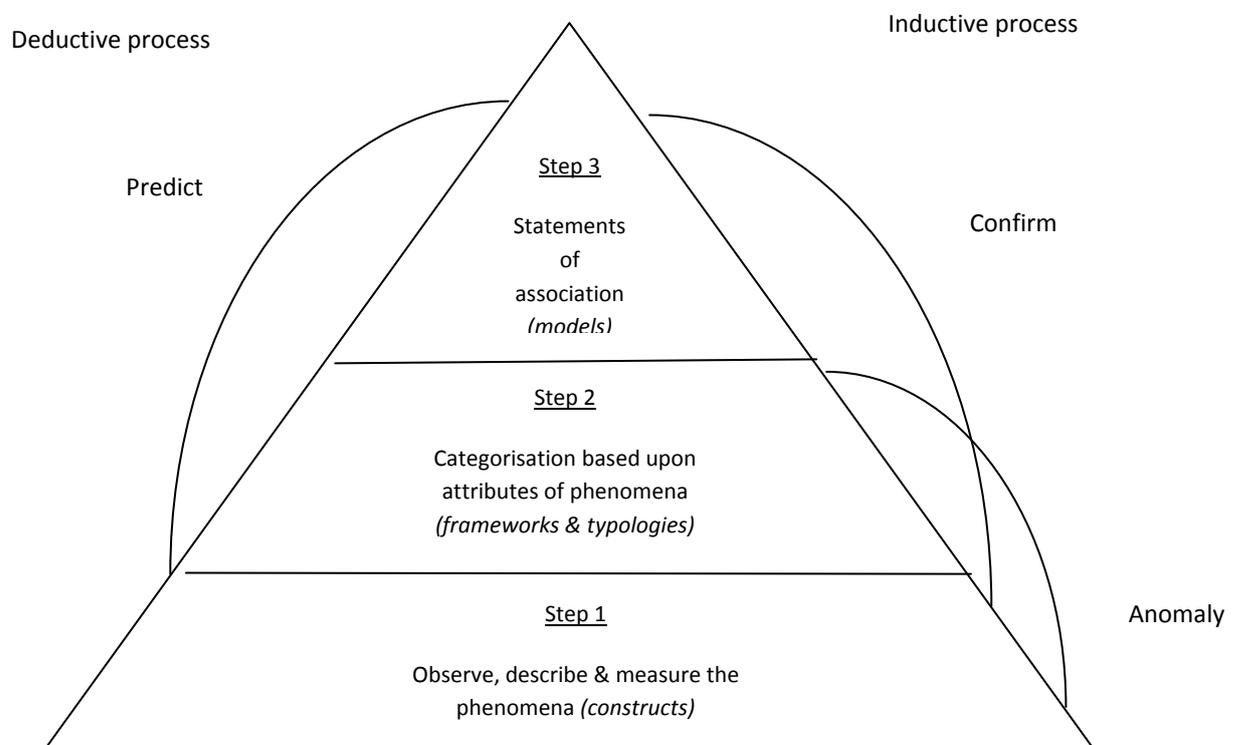
These employees collaborate in order to enhance the value and output of an organisation (Shah, 2010).

Teamwork. It can be defined as the ability to work together towards a common goal and to direct individual achievement towards organisational goals. It is the fuel that allows common employees to attain uncommon results. Teamwork involves two or more employees who frequently interact face to face, are interdependent in performing a set of tasks, make differential inputs and strive to attain a common objective in respect of a core assignment (Koontz & Wehrich, 1988; Lafond, Jobidon, Aubé & Tremblay, 2011).

1.10 THEORY BUILDING

During the development of a model, the researcher followed Carlile and Christensen (2004) three steps. Step 1 includes observation; step 2 is classification and step 3 is to define the relationships. There is also an inductive and deductive side to the building theory pyramid and the cycle of theory building is only complete when both these sides are included.

Figure 1.1: The process of building theory



Source: Carlile and Christensen (2004, p.5)

The theory building process is explained in more detail in chapter 7 (section 7.7.4.3).

1.11 SUMMARY

The goal, purpose, objectives and outline of the research report were explained in this chapter. A qualitative research design will be adopted in this study in order to achieve the research objectives. A literature review will follow in chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6.

This research should contribute to the development of a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport intervention. It should also contribute to the development of a diversity management process model on how to implement an organisational team sport project in organisations in order to achieve maximum diversity management effectiveness. The findings and recommendations will serve as an information base for future decisions on diversity management and research projects.

1.12 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The research study comprises ten chapters.

CHAPTER	CHAPTER TITLE	CONTENT OVERVIEW
Chapter 1	General introduction	A discussion of the background to the problem, the research question, the aim of the study, the objectives of the research, the research methodology, terminology and the layout of the thesis
Chapter 2	Literature review: diversity in the workplace	A review of books, research reports and journals on the topic
Chapter 3	Literature review: diversity management	A review of books, research reports and journals on the topic
Chapter 4	Literature review: group work	A review of books, research reports and journals on the topic

CHAPTER	CHAPTER TITLE	CONTENT OVERVIEW
Chapter 5	Literature review: work teams	A review of books, research reports and journals on the topic
Chapter 6	Literature review: sport interventions in organisations	A review of books, research reports and journals on the topic
Chapter 7	Research design and methods	A description of the research design, population, sampling, data collection and data analysis of the research and a discussion of ethical considerations and measures to provide trustworthiness
Chapter 8	Characteristics of the sample	The characteristics of the sample are discussed.
Chapter 9	Findings and discussion	Presentation of the data, responses and comments of the participants are represented, followed by a discussion
Chapter 10	Conclusions and recommendations	Answers to the research questions and a discussion of only the statistically significant findings and their practical implications; an outline of the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

CHAPTER 2

DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisations in South Africa have a diverse workforce. Employees differ in terms of race, age, gender, physical abilities, socioeconomic status, culture, ethnicity, sexual orientation, political beliefs and religious beliefs. According to Loden (1996), employees can be viewed as diverse trees (difference in shapes, colours and sizes) in an enormous forest.

To enable the researcher to develop a diversity management content model and diversity management process model based on the organisational team sport intervention, it is of utmost importance to discuss and clarify the various diversity dimensions and differences in teams.

In this chapter, diversity is defined and explained in context, the different types of diversity dimensions (primary and secondary dimensions), diversity in South African context, and typologies of diversity are discussed and the new diversity message is compared with the old one. Potential problems and the potential of diversity are also highlighted.

2.2 EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY

Employee diversity is known worldwide as the study of all traits that make employees similar to and different from one another. Most employees are under the impression that diversity and inclusion refer only to gender and race, but everyone has different diversity traits (Miller, 2008).

Different dimensions do not only refer to language and race but may also include norms and values (Trenka, 2006). Employees are unique, which is why there is immeasurable diversity worldwide.

Employees differ both environmentally and biologically. Diversity is the difference in employees' dimensions which varies from the employees' own teams and other outside teams (Hayles & Russell, 1997; Loden & Rosener, 1991; Zaidi, Saif & Zaheer, 2010).

For purposes of this study, diversity dimensions include race, generation, age, gender, religious beliefs, educational levels, ethnicity, sexual orientation and marital status.

2.3 SHIFTS IN THE WAY DIVERSITY IS DEFINED

Diversity was previously defined as variety or the existence of numerous descriptions of the object in question (Roosevelt, 1996). This historical view of diversity changed during the 1990s. Organisations' strategies such as employment equity, affirmative action and equal opportunities created the impression that diversity referred only to a specific group that is different from the dominant group or in some way disadvantaged (Arriola & Cole, 2001). During this period, diversity referred to specific minorities such as females, gays and blacks (Roosevelt, 1996).

Towards the end of 1990, organisations began to realise the advantages of diversity. This realisation quickly shifted to an inclusive and broader view of diversity whereby every employee's differences are valued (Fisher, 2010; Lorbiecki, 2001; Thomas & Ely, 1996). In an effort to include instead of exclude employees, diversity was defined as all the ways in which we differ (Hayles & Russel, 1997; Holvino & Kamp, 2009).

2.4 CONTEXTUAL NATURE OF DIVERSITY

According to Sonn (1996), diversity is contextually bound to time and space – time, because it refers to the historical context and space because it refers to the physical place. Contextual factors impact strongly on diversity and the way in which it is perceived, understood and performed (Bond & Pyle, 1998; Stolle, Soroka & Johnston, 2008).

Previous experiences of a society inform and frame the way in which that society relates to certain issues. The impact of certain similarities and differences in a society largely depends on the historical context of the country in question (Curry, 2000, Handelman, 2000). In South Africa, for instance, race has played a significant role (Sonn, 1996; Thompson, 2001). In North Ireland, religion is the source of most of the conflict (Strauss, 2001).

Hence the belief is that in order to truly understand the concept of diversity, it has to be studied in the context of time and space.

2.5 EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF THE WORKPLACE

If employees from a diverse organisation work together towards a common goal, despite their differences, that organisation will have a competitive advantage over other organisations whose diverse employees are incapable of working together because of stereotyping and prejudices (Iles & Moores, 1995; Trenka, 2006).

Many employees adopt an overly defensive attitude towards employees who are different from them, especially in cases relating to cultural and race differences. These issues then result in distrust, conflict, resentment and misunderstanding between the team members (Day, 2008). According to Floyd (Sheridan, 1994), homogeneous teams often perform well compared with diverse teams, because the diverse team members are unable to appreciate the other team members (Cunningham & Sagas, 2005; Kearney, Gerbert & Voelpel, 2009).

It is therefore apparent that the increasing diversity in South African organisations needs to be effectively managed in order to give these organisations a competitive advantage and increase the strengths of all employees. In chapter 3, diversity management will be discussed in more detail to indicate how organisations can contribute towards the success of diversity.

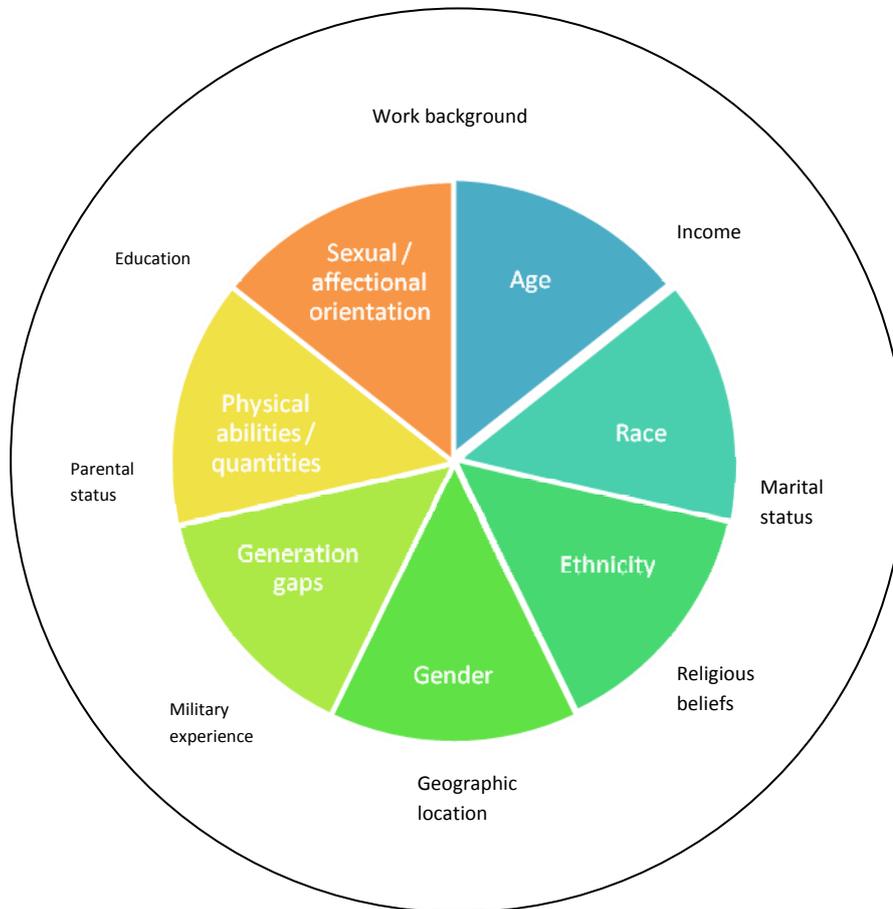
The South African workforce is often characterised by its apparent lack of employee commitment and motivation towards common goals, adversarial relationships, absence of trust and respect between employees and teams and low levels of customer service, quality, profitability and productivity, all because of diversity (Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008; Thomas & Robertshaw, 1999).

Through diversity management (which will be discussed in chapter 3) organisations in South Africa are able to manage diversity in the workplace and this enhances relationships, commitment and motivation towards organisational goals, trust and respect between diverse employees that improve quality and customer service, profitability and productivity.

2.6 DIMENSIONS OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY

Diversity has two dimensions, namely primary and secondary (Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2006; Wellner, 2000), as indicated in the figure below.

Figure 2.1: The primary and secondary dimensions of diversity



Source: Grobler *et al.* (2006, p. 77); Loden (1996, p. 14); Kreitner and Kinicki (1995, p. 55)

Although employees do share important dimensions, there are biological and environmental differences that distinguish them. These dimensions are therefore categorised as the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity (Clayton, 2010; Wellner, 2000).

2.6.1 Primary dimensions

Primary dimensions are often dominant and unchangeable in their differences (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995; Sacht, 2001). Individuals are known by their primary dimensions of diversity which are visible (Carrel, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & Van der Schyf, 1998; Grobler, Wörnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield, 2011).

The primary dimensions of diversity are as follows (Clayton, 2010; Grobler *et al.*, 2011):

- race
- gender
- age
- ethnicity
- generation gaps
- sexual/affectional orientation
- physical abilities/qualities (e.g. muscle strength)

According to Pomeroy (2006), the primary dimensions of diversity or visible dimensions can negatively affect a team in the workplace. Employees develop stereotyping and prejudices towards one another because of the primary dimensions of diversity (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995). This, in turn, will lead to a work team that is unable to achieve its goals because there is distrust, lack of respect and misunderstandings between the employees.

When work teams are able to reduce these stereotyping and prejudices through training, the primary dimensions of diversity will cue a team because they know how to understand different opinions. For example, cueing will increase the team member's ability to handle conflict because he or she will expect different conflict or views in a diverse employee setting (Pomeroy, 2006).

2.6.2 Secondary dimensions

The secondary dimensions of diversity are normally perceptions and attitudes caused by previous diversity-related incidents (Clayton, 2010; Grobler *et al.*, 2006; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1995; Sacht, 2001).

Secondary dimensions help to shape experiences, values and expectations (Ruderman, Hughes-James & Jackson, 1996) and are changeable (Grobler *et al.*, 2011; Loden & Rosener, 1991). The influence of the secondary dimensions of diversity on employees' behaviour in the workplace is more unpredictable than that of primary dimensions, because secondary dimensions can be acquired, modified or discarded (Carrel *et al.*, 1998; Clayton, 2010).

Secondary dimensions of diversity include but are not limited to the following (Clayton, 2010; Grobler *et al.*, 2011; Leach, George, Jackson & Labella, 1995; Wellner, 2000):

- religious beliefs
- work experience
- marital status
- income
- geographic location
- military experience
- education
- parental status

Not only are the secondary dimension less visible and more variable and mutable in the amount of influence they have on an individual's life (Loden, 1996), but they also impact on the individual's self-esteem and self-definition.

Primary and secondary dimensions interact in order to shape the unique person – the synergistic and integrated whole (Loden, 1996). Both dimensions shape an individual's identity.

2.7 DIVERSITY IN THE BROADER SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT OR SOCIETY

With reference to section 2.4 above (diversity in the context of time and space), this part of the research explores diversity in the South African context. A historical overview of diversity in the South African diversity will be provided below.

2.7.1 Diversity in the South African context before independence in 1994

South Africa was inhabited by ancestors of the Bantu- and Khoisan-speaking people, long before South Africa was discovered by Europeans (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012; Thompson, 2001). They were a hunting population who remained isolated from the world until 1487, the year when Bartholomew Dias's expedition anchored for the first time on the coasts of South Africa (Beck, 2000). Vasco de Gama sailed around the tip of Africa on his way to India, one decade later. The profitable and strategic nature of this attempt ensured that an increased number of Dutch, French, Portuguese, Scandinavian and French mariners started to use this route to Asia (Beck, 2000; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

In 1652, a supply station in the Cape of Good Hope was founded by the Dutch East India Company (Eades, 1999; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The purpose of the colony was to establish a halfway house between South Africa and Europe. The number of Dutch settlers, and later the French Huguenots, increased significantly in the Cape (Beck, 2000; Bornman, 2010). Slaves were also imported from Indonesia, Madagascar, Ceylon and India (Thompson, 2001). The entry of the white people was the starting point of domination, intolerance and exploitation in South Africa (Beck, 2000). The relationship between the indigenous people and white settlers was initially fairly amiable, but tension soon developed as conflict over cattle, rights and land intensified (Thompson, 2001; Bornman 2010).

From 1652 up to 1795, the Dutch used their power to affirm their language and culture in the Cape Colony. After 1795, the British expedition forced the Dutch officials into capitulation (Thompson, 2001). The Dutch regained the Cape through the Treaty of Amiens in 1803, but they were ousted again early in 1806. From the colonisation by the British until 1994 it was the white population who dominated in South Africa (Beck, 2000; Bornman, 2010).

After World War II, the control moved from white English-speaking people to the more traditional Afrikaans-speaking people who were primarily from the Dutch settlers (Thompson, 2001). The National Party put various policies and strategies in place to ensure the survival of the Afrikaners (Worden, 1995). Apartheid, the legal centrepiece of racial policy in South Africa, was implemented in 1948 (Eades, 1999; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Apartheid separated different races and linked the allocation of power, distribution of resources and rights to certain racial groups (Beck 2000; Bendix, 2010; Finnemore, 2009). During the apartheid era, discrimination was practised against certain people of colour in that they were denied fundamental and economic rights (Bendix, 2010; Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994; Greenstein, 1998). The country was divided into separate political, housing and educational systems.

Pre-1994, South Africa was dominated by white Afrikaner males (Greenstein, 1998). An individual's gender and race determined whether that person was "good enough". In the late 1980s, apartheid and the dominant white Afrikaner people were subjected to forceful national and international pressure (Worden, 1995). Frequent unrest in black townships together with international isolation forced them to change (Handelman, 2000; Swanpoel & Slabbert 2012). The then president of South Africa (F.W. de Klerk) realised that apartheid was no longer a feasible option and that the government would have to negotiate and reconcile (Worden, 1995). During the 1990s, a variety of segregation laws were rescinded.

At that time, the African National Congress (ANC) was legalised after decades of exclusion (Beck, 2000; Bendix, 2010; Finnemore, 2009; Swanpoel & Slabbert 2012). Nelson Mandela, the ANC's leader, and other political prisoners were released from prison (Eades, 1999). These changes opened the doors for negotiation. The task of the Convention for a Democratic South Africa's (CODESA) was to negotiate a new political order (Handelman, 2000; Bornman, 2010).

2.7.2 Diversity in the South African context after independence in 1994

The new democratic government was established relatively peacefully with low-intensity warfare, despite the widespread expectations that South Africa would fall into unavoidable full-scale black-white civil war (Hunt & Lascaris, 1998; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). The first president, President Mandela, was seen as a symbol of forgiveness and reconciliation because he united the divided country and healed the wounds left by apartheid (Bekker & Carlton, 1996; Eades, 1999).

President Mandela's speech was proof of his dream of forgiveness and reconciliation:: *"We have triumphed in the effort to implant hope in the breasts of millions of our people. We enter into the covenant that we shall build the society in which all South Africans, both black and white, will be able to walk, talk, without any fear in their inalienable right to human dignity. A rainbow nation at peace with itself and the world"* (Mbigi, 1998: p.37).

Although the government dealt with diversity-related issues and overcame the remnants of the apartheid era, the journey was far from smooth sailing (Bekker & Carlton, 1996; Seekings, 2008). The government dealt with South Africa's resistance to change and the people's emotional baggage. Prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination would not easily disappear (Thomas, 1996a; Seekings, 2008).

After the apartheid era, the government initiated reforms to ensure equal opportunity for all individuals (Thomas, 1996). Emphasis was placed on previously disadvantaged groups such as black, coloured and Indian people as well as disabled people and women. The South African Constitution (Bill of Rights) embodied universally accepted civil liberty and fundamental rights. The Employment Equity Act created a more discrimination-free and equal workplace (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

There was also a need to deal with the emotional legacy of the people in South Africa, since the unspoken stipulation seemed to be that there would be no forgiveness and no

repentance (Naudé, 2001). The Truth and Reconciliation Committee (TRC) was established in an effort to bring the violence of the past into the open (Eades, 1999). People could talk about their sorrow and pain and also create a space in which South Africans could reach out to one another in forgiveness.

Up until today, the road to a multiracial democracy still remains difficult. The black people discovered that, although the majority rules, it does not guarantee enhanced living conditions (Handelman, 2000; Seekings, 2008). Organisations are also experiencing major difficulties in celebrating diversity, with cultural conflict as the key focus (Oakley-Smith & Winter, 2001; Seekings, 2008).

2.7.3 The South African dream

The South African dream today is a society in which every citizen, regardless of his or her social position, disability, gender or race has equal rights (Hunt & Lascaris, 1998). This implies that the organisation must be levelled through equal access to resources, training and removal of prejudice, stereotyping and ignorance (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994). This dream also includes the broader dimensions of extended economic empowerment, education, employee participation and the welfare of previous disadvantaged people (Bond & Dugard, 2008; Richards, 2001).

The dream of South Africa is to restore and develop of confidence and dignity of people (Charlton & Van Niekerk, 1994). *Ubuntu*, which means "I am because we are", is closely intertwined with this dream (Mbigi, 1998). It promulgates the collective solidarity and interdependence of humanity and embraces caring for others, willingness to go the extra mile and hospitality (Ramose, 2002).

To reach the South African dream, people must deal with the prejudices, stereotypes and baggage of the past that directly and indirectly hamper the way in which people relate to and interact with one another (Naudé, 2001). At individual level, this necessitates valuing, embracing and valuing their own as well as one another's uniqueness. At organisational level, this means finding creative ways of including the diverse workforce and finding ways to balance social responsibility with economics (Mbigi, 1998).

The dream of being a rainbow nation is still far from being realised. Only time will tell what the outcome of this country's crucible will be (Beck & Linscott, 1996; Bond & Dugard, 2008).

Although there are many prophets of doom, the dream directs and spurs the nation's efforts towards healing and reconciliation.

2.8 COMPARISON OF THE NEW WITH THE OLD DIVERSITY MESSAGE

Markets and organisations are in the middle of dramatic change. They have to keep abreast of the game and new developments. The message of diversity has also changed over the years. Table 2.1 provides a comparison of the new and old diversity message:

Table 2.1: Comparison of the new and the old diversity message

The old diversity message	The new diversity message
Refers to a diverse group of outsiders who are unable to work together to make an organisation productive.	Diversity is a productive resource when working with diverse groups.
Appears to involve looking after the special interests of some groups at the expense of others.	Managing diversity is for everybody – it is a matter of professionalism and top job performance in today's business environment. This is a message that appeals to everyone's self-interest.
Diversity refers to women, migrants, Aboriginal people and the disabled – sorted into relatively neat interest groups.	Diversity refers to relationships between all staff and clients, in which the groups are not so clearly defined.
Involves a compliance approach: EEO, affirmative action and antidiscrimination measures that often produce a culture of resistance.	Managing diversity is a matter of core business planning: for example, audits and staff profiles of cultural breadth of the organisation, benchmarked over time against the profile of market potentials.
Working with differences is a matter of cloning to the one corporate culture, getting "equity groups" through the door by giving them a chance to "become like us".	The best corporate cultures are dynamic, open and welcome the productive dynamics produced by diversity.
Teams are based on shared values, an identical vision – a simplification of the potentially great variety of cultures in a team, forced to the lowest common denominator in	Organisations at the competitive edge are as culturally complex as the markets they serve. Core team competencies include responsiveness, flexibility, adaptability and

the work context.	ability to change.
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Source: Adapted from Centre for Workplace Communication and Culture (2004, p.3)

2.9 POTENTIAL PROBLEMS OF A DIVERSE WORKFORCE

Most experts maintain that diversity will lead to less destructive conflict, more satisfied employees, more effective communication and better work relationships. However, the converse is also true because mismanagement of diversity may result in less effective teams, destructive conflict, more dissatisfaction and lower morale (Chmiel, 2000; Holtzhausen & Fourie, 2008; Newell, 2002). The manner in which organisations deal with their diverse workforce largely determines whether the impact will be constructive or destructive.

Although a diverse workforce has possible performance advantages, it is clear that diversity in an organisation is not without problems. Diversity may reduce group cohesiveness because workers are more comfortable around and attracted to similar group members (Cox, 1994; Seymen, 2006). Ziller (Cox, 1994) mentions three possible reasons for this statement:

- Diversity may lead to less cohesiveness because of status similarity. For example, when the manager is a woman this may present status inappropriateness for some employees who are used to male managers.
- Perceived resemblance increases attraction, which increases cohesiveness. This is imitated in the familiarity of the workforce.
- Individuals tend to seek homogeneity in teams in order to facilitate social associations. Individuals rely on social associations for self-evaluation. Conducting social associations is more reliable when teams are similar because they avoid cultural diversity.

According to Steiner (Cox, 1994), another potential constraint that has an effect on a diverse team is communication or language. High costs, dysfunctional problem solving and increased uncertainty can also be possible constraints. By ensuring diverse competence through diversity management and training, many of the possible constraints can be

overcome (White, 1999). Diversity can also lead to lower morale, destructive conflict, more dissatisfaction and less effective teams (Chmiel, 2000; Newell, 2002; Seymen, 2006).

The potential of individuals cannot be optimised if diversity remains unmanaged and ignored. An ability to manage diversity in the workplace will lead to reduced productivity. When interpersonal work relationships and skills are not taken care of, a domino effect is possible in the following areas: professional communication, productivity and teamwork, which are essential if organisations wish to remain competitive. The effects of not considering and understanding diversity will be seen in weak performance indicators, adverse decision making and misunderstandings (Goessl, s.a.; Holtzhausen & Fourie, 2008).

2.10 POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF A DIVERSE WORKFORCE

The connotation of multiculturalism is evident when teams develop multicultural abilities. The focus is on establishing a cohesive value system where individuals respect the differences in other. Multiculturalism therefore means appreciating and accepting different cultures in the workforce and working together to create an inclusive, positive work environment and promote sound employee relationships (Rosado, 2006; Stevens *et al.*, 2008).

Diversity in the workforce means that teams have the awareness, knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to interact successfully and respectfully with other team members who have different views, values and backgrounds (Connerly & Pedersen, 2005).

The benefits of diversity in a workplace are as follows (Loden, 1996; Ofori-Dankwa & Julian, 2002; Richards, 2001; Seymen, 2006):

- Ease the burden of recruiting limited labour.
- Reduce the costs generated by high absenteeism and turnover.
- Enable the diverse organisation to have a range of skills it never had. Minorities and women bring specialised knowledge and different perspectives on useful new ways of dealing with different situations.
- Enhance the problem-solving and creative ability of the team members.
- Reduce conflict between diverse team members.
- Brings fresh perspectives on market incursion.

When cultural/diversity awareness expands the mind, people start to communicate and employees' sensitivity and cultural empathy are promoted (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004; Rosado, 2006). Diversity can improve the leaders' decision-making skills by accounting for the various ways in which culture has an impact on different perceptions of the same solution (Connerly & Pedersen, 2005).

2.11 ORGANISATIONAL EVOLUTION

Holvino, Ferdman and Merrill-Sands (2004) developed a framework known as the model of multicultural organisational development. According to this model, an organisation goes through six stages as it moves from being monocultural/exclusionary (where the values of one specific group, style or culture are dominant) to multicultural/inclusive (where the styles and perspectives of diverse employees contribute to organisational excellence and goals). During the first stage, the exclusionary stage (table 2.2), the organisation actively and explicitly bases itself on the values and norms of one cultural group and advocates openly in terms of the dominance and privileges of that group.

Table 2.2: The multicultural organisational development model

Monocultural		Transitional		Multicultural	
Exclusionary	Passive	Compliance	Positive	Redefining	Multicultural
Actively excludes in its practices and mission those who are not associated with the dominant group.	Actively or passively excludes those who are not associated with the dominant group. Includes other employees only if they fit.	Passively committed to including other employees without making major changes. Includes only a few employees of diverse groups.	Committed to making a special effort to include other employees, especially those in designated target groups. Tolerates the differences that those other employees bring.	Actively works to expand its definition of diversity and inclusion. Tries to change and examine practices that may act as constraints to employees of nondominant groups.	Actively includes a diversity of perspectives, styles and groups. Continuously learns and acts to effect the systematic change required to include and value all kinds of employees.

Values the dominant perspective of one group, style or culture.	Seeks to integrate other employees into systems created under the dominant norms.	Integrates and values the perspectives of diverse styles, cultures, groups and identities into the organisation's systems and work.
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Source: Adapted from Holvino, Ferdman and Merrill-Sands (2004, p. 247)

During the second stage, exclusion, the organisation is based on one cultural group's informal systems or ways of doing things and rules, and admits those employees who are similar or closely fit into the dominant group. The organisation operates much like a private social club in which the norms include ignoring and passive exclusion of differences (Holvino *et al.*, 2004).

During the third stage, namely compliance, the organisation is passively committed to include employees of nondominant groups, but does not make any substantive changes in its management approaches to include those employees who are diverse. During this stage, the differences are more symbolic than real. During the fourth stage, namely positive action, the organisation becomes actively committed to include employees of nondominant groups. The organisation makes special efforts to attract employees from nondominant groups and tolerates the differences they bring to the organisation. However, the subtle ways in which the structures, methods and norms of working still favour those employees in the dominant group and make it difficult for the diverse employees to feel that they are advancing and contributing to the organisation. Even though there are targets and tolerance towards differences, there is not enough structural and cultural change to provide equal opportunities (Holvino *et al.*, 2004).

In the fifth stage, which involves redefining, the organisation actively tries to include diverse employees and remove the subtle barriers to inclusion in practices, structures, relationships, norms and systems. During this stage there may be acceptance of the diverse employees, but no full utilisation because the employees of both the dominant and nondominant groups are still learning to deal with diversity and differences. In the final, multicultural, stage, – the ideal stage – the organisation values and seeks diverse employees and develops its work practices and systems to support employees of every group to enable them to contribute fully and succeed. The inclusion in multicultural organisations means that there is justice, full participation and equality on the part of both groups to enable the employees of diverse

groups to have equal access to decision making, opportunities and positions of power, and they are also actively selected because of their differences (Holvino *et al.*, 2004).

2.12 MOTIVES FOR DIVERSITY

Other factors that have an impact on the way an organisation deals with diversity relate to the driving force that motivates or propels an organisation to deal with diversity. The following three motives that deal with diversity can be identified:

- *Legal requirement.* This refers to the fact that, when dealing with diversity, certain features are strongly enforced or advised through organisational policies or by law. This may include legislation to prevent further discrimination, programmes to redress past imbalances and legislation to guide nondiscriminatory practices in an organisation (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Newell, 2002; Sadri & Tran, 2002).
- *Moral imperative.* Organisations that use this motive view diversity programmes as ethically and morally the right thing to do. Moral imperatives link up with a high level of social responsibility in organisations, and the organisation acknowledges the fact that something should be done to redress the discrimination of the past. Organisations that use this imperative willingly incorporate diversity into their corporate culture, strategy and structure (Newell, 2002).
- *Economic necessity.* Organisations that are motivated by this necessity believe that diversity can be used as a major competitive weapon to help the organisation survive in difficult economic circumstances. The economic necessity is about how an organisation can make more profit and become more efficient if it manages its diversity effectively (Loden, 1996; Roosevelt, 1996).

2.13 SUMMARY

It is clear from the discussion in this chapter that employees are different from one another. It is therefore of utmost importance for organisations to know which dimension of diversity will have a negative impact on the organisation and how to manage and inspire the diverse workforce (Bär, Niessen & Ruenzi, 2007; Hodson, 1993; Miller, 1994; Seymen, 2006). Diversity is the business catchword, and it is not because organisations are more caring towards minority groups, but because organisations need to prosper and survive.

For the purpose of this study, workforce diversity refers to the similarities and differences between employees and the way in which these similarities and differences are interpreted, perceived and acted upon. Workforce diversity is based on the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity that define each group, subgroup and person as a unique entity. Diversity is an active phenomenon that is contextually based in time and space and changes continuously as society changes.

In the past, the racial and cultural differences between employees in South Africa had the most negative impact on the organisation and the productivity of the workforce.

The current implementation of employment equity legislation and affirmative action by South African organisations is enhancing workforce diversity, especially with regard to gender, disability and race. This is also the case in the organisations in which the research was conducted.

In conclusion, organisations will suffer severe financial loss if the consequence of diversity is that employees are unable to work together in harmony and the organisation is unable to manage diversity. Chapter 3 deals with diversity management.

CHAPTER 3

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 2, the potential challenges and benefits of a diverse workforce were discussed. The South African workforce is constantly increasing in employee diversity, and if diversity is not managed effectively it may have a negative influence on cooperation and productivity in organisations – hence the need for organisations to manage their diversity effectively (Bergh & Theron, 1999; Cavaleros, Van Vuuren & Visser, 2002; Winter, Waner & Neal-Mansfield, 2008).

While valuing diversity is more focused on addressing the attitudes, perceptions and feelings of individuals towards others, managing diversity is more concerned with implementing various organisational structures, practices, policies and initiatives in order to include all employees. This improves the organisation's effectiveness and efficiency (Ashkanasy, Härtel & Daus, 2002; Roosevelt, 1996; Piercy, 2009; Shen, Chanda, D'Netto & Monga, 2009).

This chapter defines diversity management and discusses its main requirements for effective diversity management in organisations. The various diversity management models are also highlighted and explained.

3.2 RELEVANT DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT CONTENT MODELS

3.2.1 Early diversity management models

Many models and theories have been developed and acknowledged by a number of chief executive officers, training specialists, diversity consultants and academics (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000). The emphasis in this study is on the development of a diversity content and intervention model based on the organisational team sport intervention. It is therefore necessary to explain and discuss the different organisational models of diversity management. Different diversity management models were developed over the years. The researcher will explain the various diversity models from the earliest diversity management models to the most recent one.

The reason for the researcher including the proactive-reactive diversity management model, the three-level-typology diversity management model, the three-stage diversity management model and the changing demographics diversity management model, is that the authors of these models all confirm the importance of diversity and diversity management in an organisation and emphasise the fact that different employee views improve the identification of viable solutions for organisation challenges (Grobler *et al.*, 2011; Joubert & De Beer, 2010; Page, 2007; Zhang, Austin & Glass, 2008).

3.2.1.1 *The proactive-reactive diversity management model (Gary Powell)*

The Powell (1993) model is one of the earliest diversity management models that characterises the management of diversity in terms of the way in which organisations act in response to employment equity opportunity issues.

According to this model, organisations can be one of the following (Powell, 1993; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004):

- *Proactive.* This type of organisation functions on its own without the implementation of antidiscriminatory laws to recruit minorities and women to the workplace. Such organisations recognise the value of a cultural workforce.
- *Reactive.* This type of organisation accepts the responsibility of recruiting and selecting minorities and women because it wishes to comply with existing law.
- *Benignly neglected.* This type of organisation decides to do nothing. However, such organisations risk the loss of public goodwill, boycotts of their services and products and lawsuits.

In the Powell diversity management model, the organisation sets goals that are consistent with the organisation's purpose and mission, ensures that top management are enlisted, diagnoses the organisational climate and develops a coherent management system. Ideally, organisations should follow the proactive approach in managing diversity.

3.2.1.2 *The three-level-typology diversity management model (Taylor Cox)*

Cox (1991) identified three levels of typology, namely monolithic, pluralistic and multicultural. These typologies will be explained below (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004):

- *The monolithic organisation.* This type of organisation consists of a large majority group (normally white males). Minority groups are also present in these organisations, but this group needs to conform to the norms and values of the majority group.
- *The pluralistic organisation.* This type of organisation is more diverse than a monolithic organisation, because it makes a special effort to promote and select the minority employees. Sometimes the organisation develops affirmative action programmes or minority mentoring programmes to advance a pluralistic organisation. Unfortunately, the acceptance and integration of the minority groups in the workgroup is often still unsatisfactory.
- *The multicultural organisation.* This type of organisation values diversity and is representative through many cultures. It is willing to incorporate the values and norms of the minority group. Different views are created, which encourage a unique multicultural culture in the organisation that improves teamwork. Multicultural organisations can effectively manage fast-changing markets and multicultural teams. They use multiculturalism as a benefit and utilise it to gain a competitive edge.

The development of a multicultural organisation (as explained) is the main thrust of Cox's model for diversity management.

3.2.1.3 *The three-stage diversity management model (Roosevelt Thomas)*

The Roosevelt Thomas model categorises organisations into the following three different types of workforce (Konrad, Prasad & Pringle, 2006; Thomas, 1991; Thomas, 1996b):

- *Affirmative action.* These types of organisation seek ways to increase the representation of women and minorities through the implementation of affirmative action. However, according to Thomas (1991) affirmative action has limitations for organisations and for women and minorities.

- *Valuing differences.* These types of organisation strive to improve the relationships between employees by encouraging understanding and acceptance of diversity. According to Thomas (1991), organisations must change their core systems and cultures to keep up with the efforts of a diverse workforce in order to take advantage of potential diverse workforces.
- *Diversity interventions.* Thomas (1996b) identified the following eight possible actions that organisations can take to successfully implement diversity management:
 - to include a greater number and variety of women and minorities
 - to deny the existence of diversity
 - to assimilate women and minorities into the dominant culture
 - to suppress diversity to achieve the organisation's goals
 - to isolate employees who are different into special projects, geographical operations or functional units
 - to tolerate the coexistence of diverse employees
 - to build strong relationships between employees in order to overcome diversity
 - to foster mutual adaptation, which requires change to the organisational policies and structures

The first five actions are attempts to reserve the voices of the diverse majority and are evident in organisations that respond within the affirmative action concept. The next two actions are seen as accommodations and are responses by an organisation that follow the valuing difference approach. Idealistically, the last option represents management and real acceptance of diversity and should be prioritised in the application of Thomas's (1996b) model.

Both the Taylor Cox early diversity management model and the Roosevelt Thomas diversity management model emphasise the importance of diagnosing the current organisational climate before undertaking any initiative.

3.2.1.4 *The changing demographics diversity management model (Golembiewski)*

According to Golembiewski (1995), an organisation reacts to change. He proposes the following five approaches to diversity:

- equal opportunity – this a reaction to legislative requirements

- diversity under duress – this is driven by a need to unravel a problem
- managing diversity – the organisation changes its policies, reward systems and structures to attain the organisational goal and employees are encouraged to develop their differences in the organisational setting
- increased affirmative mechanisms – this is in reaction to legislative requirements
- valuing diversity – an organisation acknowledges that an understanding of diversity may reduce conflict in the organisation.

The Golembiewski diversity management model argues that there is a need to renovate the organisational structure from the top to bottom to ensure effective diversity management (Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

The above models (the proactive-reactive diversity management model; the three-level-typology diversity management model; the three-stage diversity management model; and the changing demographics diversity management model) have certain elements in common. In each of the models, an organisation progresses from a less to a more desired condition. During the early phases, an organisation reacts to the environmental conditions, whereas during the later phase, the organisation is more proactive and attempts to manage the environment. In all the models, the authors' change the organisations' strategies acknowledging the important characteristics of the organisation by creating the desired end state.

The possible disadvantage of all the models discussed above is that a little is said about the actual change processes. These models are clear about the desired state, but there is uncertainty about how to reach it.

3.2.2 Current diversity management models

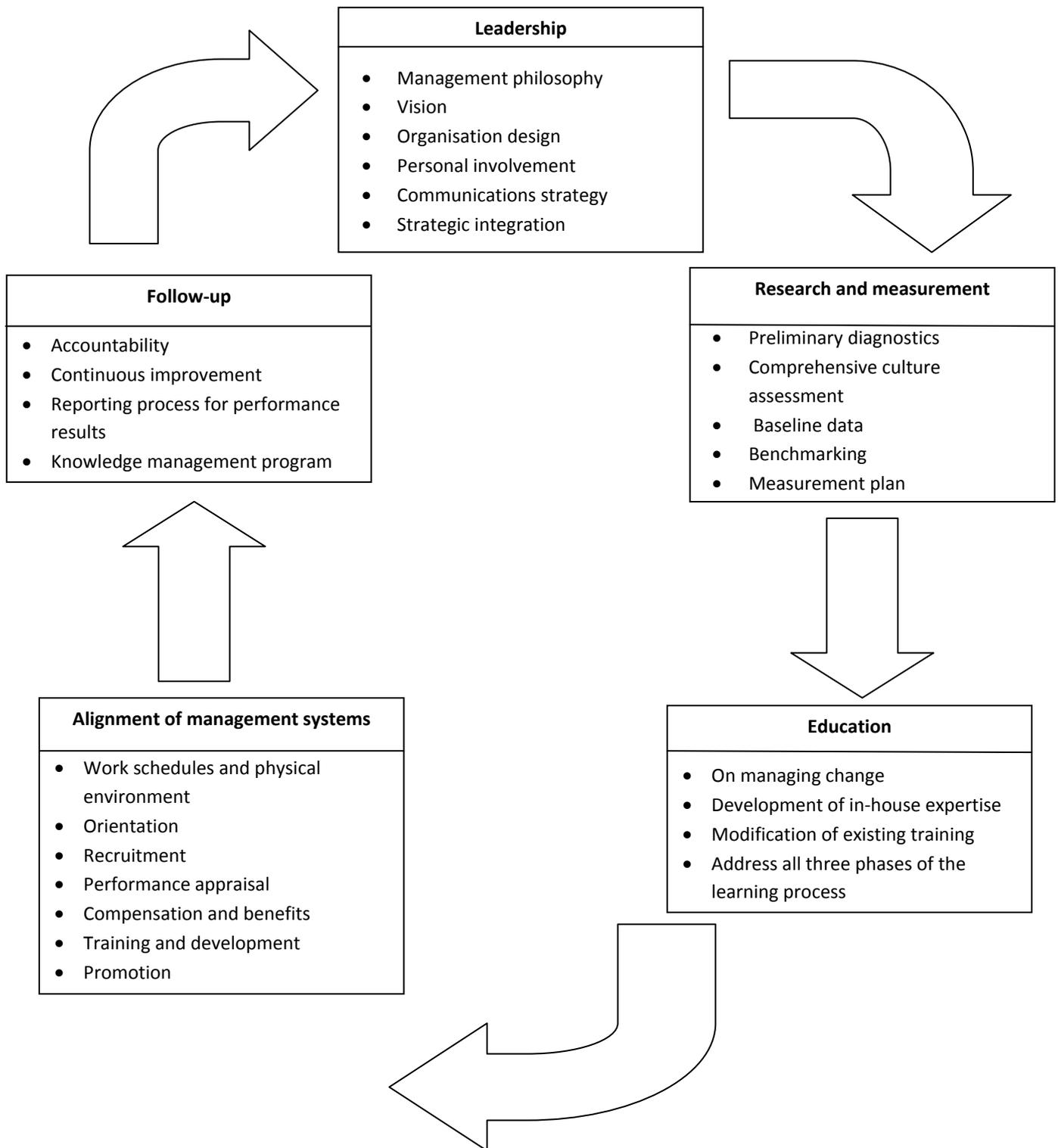
The more contemporary models acknowledge the relevance of the environment, but tend to emphasise organisational development and change more as a prerequisite for diversity management interventions.

3.2.2.1 The change model for work on diversity model (Cox)

Cox (2001) changed his earlier diversity management model to a so-called "change model for work on diversity". According to Cox, in order to become a multicultural organisation, an

organisation needs to implement activities relating to diversity management leadership, education, research and measurement, alignment of management systems and follow-up. The model is graphically represented in figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: The change model for work on diversity model (Cox)



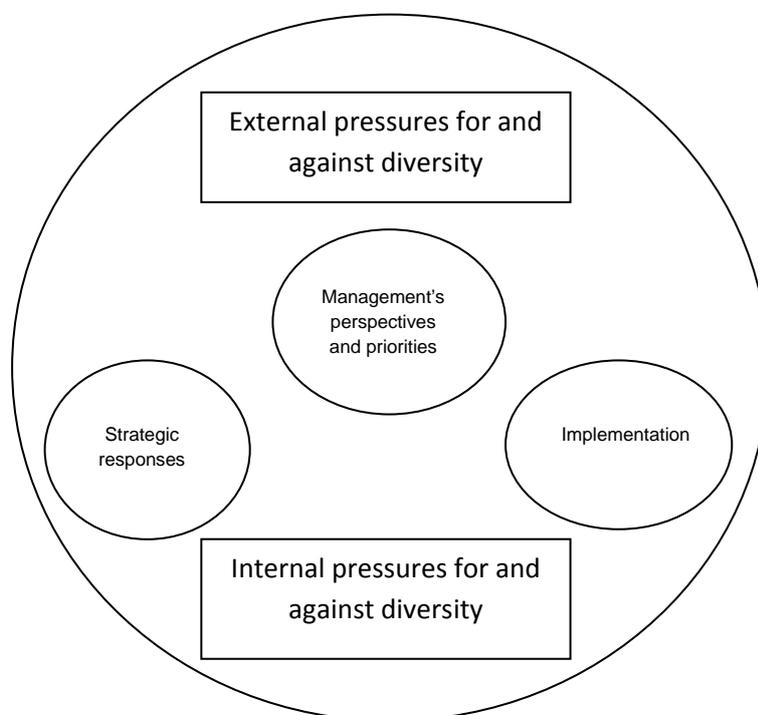
Source: Cox (2001, p. 19)

In figure 3.1, multiple activities represent each component. According to this model, diversity management success is assessed by examining an organisation's progress in each component, namely leadership, research and measurement, education, alignment of management systems and follow-up components. It is suggested that progress in the diversity management process is expected to be uneven to enable the organisation to progress from the leadership component, but only at the beginning of the educational processes. For an organisation to become multicultural requires a systematic approach to diversity management, which necessitates progress in each of the components (Cox, 2001; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

3.2.2.2 The internal-external pressure diversity management model (Cummings & Worley)

This general model to manage diversity in an organisation was developed by Cummings and Worley (2005) in order to emphasise internal and external pressure regarding diversity management.

Figure 3.2: The internal-external pressure diversity management model (Cummings & Worley)



Source: Cummings and Worley (2001, p. 430)

According to this model, the key functions of management and the organisation should determine how to manage diversity in an organisation. The model is graphically represented in figure 3.2 above.

The model further indicates that diversity management in an organisation is also a function of internal and external pressures, for and against (figure 3.2). The performance in an organisation is improved when the diversity between employees is used as an opportunity. Unfortunately, diversity among employees is often discouraged because managers fear that too many different attitudes, values, beliefs and perspectives will weaken cooperation in the organisation (Cummings & Worley, 2005; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

Management's priorities and perspectives on organisational diversity may range from strategic to marginal resistance to and perspectives on active learning. For example, when a manager only emphasises the legal elements such as affirmative action opportunities and neglects mutual adjustment and cooperation interventions, employees may resist diversity. For organisations that follow a strategic and learning approach, diversity in the organisation can improve its competitive advantage (Cummings & Worley, 2001; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

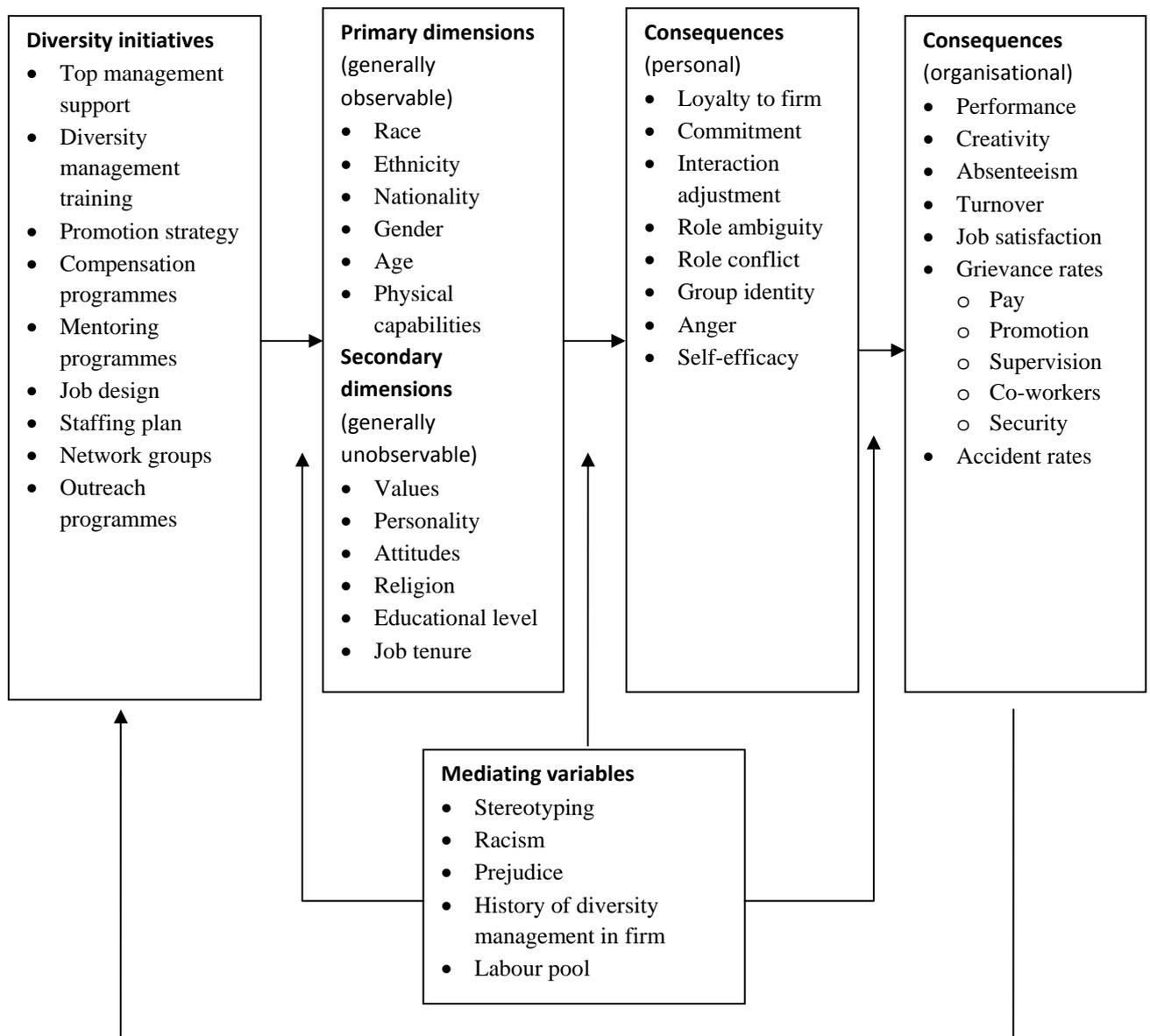
The strategic response to diversity in an organisation may range from reactive to proactive, while the implementation style may range from methodical (implementation occurs consistently) and periodic (implementation occurs in sections). The management of a diverse workforce will be more effective when diversity management is regarded as a strategic requirement and where implementation is systematic. For maximum effectiveness of this model, the organisation should react positively to external pressure to employee diversity (affirmative action legislation) without neglecting the internal pressures (the need for cooperation) in the organisation (Cummings & Worley, 2001; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

3.2.2.3 The input-output systems model (Ivancevich & Gilbert)

According to the input-output system approach developed by Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000), an effective diversity initiative influences the personal and organisational outcomes. The researcher decided to include this model in the current research because it underscores the relevance of input-output dynamics for the management of diversity. This diversity management model acknowledges the concept of an organisational team sport intervention as a management intervention (input) which minimises diversity constraints (output). This model is represented in figure 3.3 below.

Figure 3.3 indicates that management initiatives (inputs) such as top management support, diversity management training, implementation of promotion strategies, compensation, mentoring and outreach programmes influence personal consequences (outcomes), which include the employees' loyalty towards the organisation, an increase in commitment, less anger and group identity.

Figure 3.3: The input-output systems model (Ivancevich & Gilbert)



Source: Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000, p. 78)

The inputs will also lead to organisational consequences such as higher creativity, lower absenteeism and turnover, increased levels of job satisfaction and better performance (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

The model further indicates that the surface-level, namely primary dimensions (differences in employees' ethnicity, gender, physical capabilities, age, race and nationality) and deep-level/secondary dimensions (differences in the employees' religion, personality, values, attitudes, job tenure and educational level) contribute as inputs to the systems model. The mediating input variables may include the organisation's history, stereotyping, prejudices, diversity management and racism (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

The main contributions of the input-output systems model to diversity management theory are as follows (Ivancevich & Gilbert, 2000):

- It identifies and simplifies the actions (input) required to effect change.
- It postulates that what the organisation puts into diversity management interventions will be visible as results or outcomes. What does not go in cannot effect change and provide results.

The relevance of the model for this research is that a team sport intervention is regarded as an input into the diversity management strategy. If correctly applied, it should have consequences at a personal and an organisational level.

3.2.2.4 The change dynamics model (Allen & Montgomery)

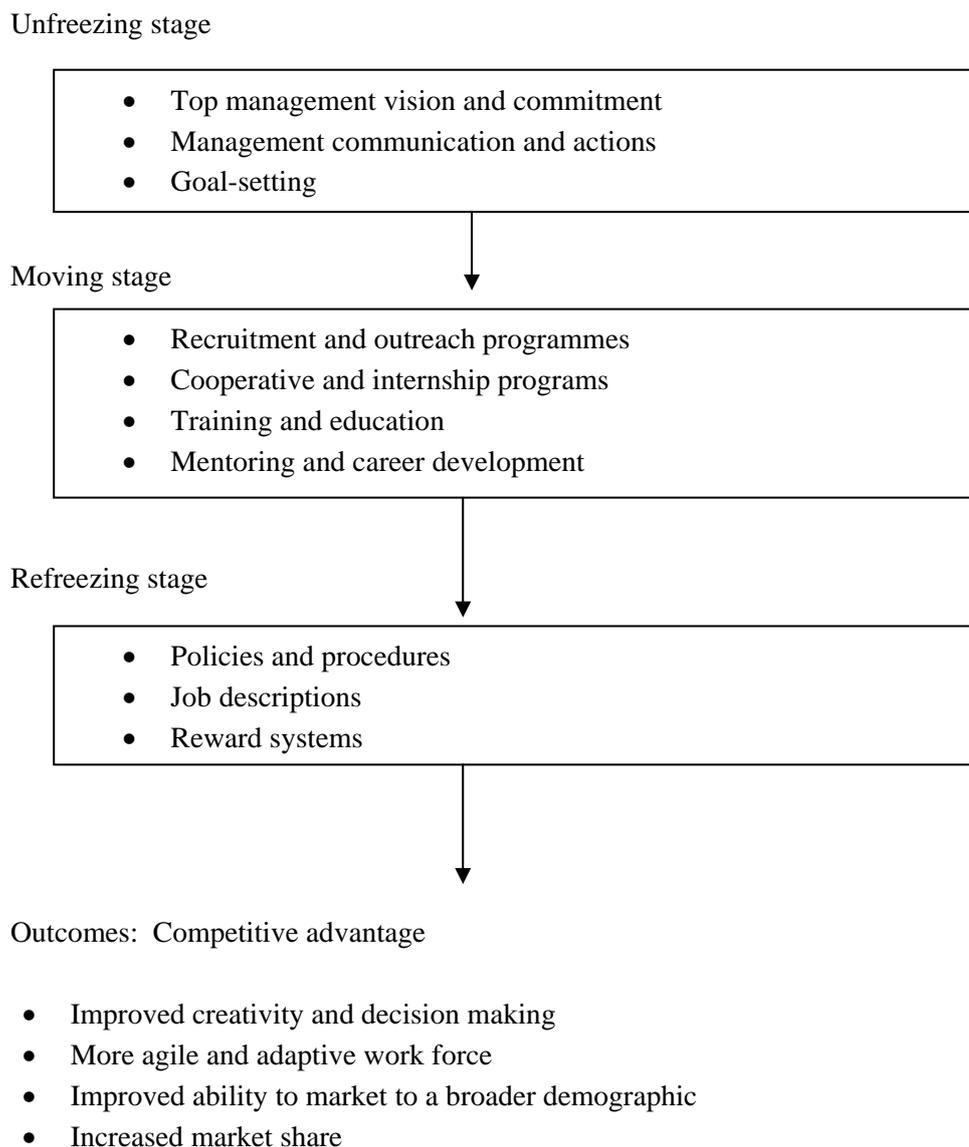
Allen and Montgomery's (2001) change dynamics model is discussed in this study because it emphasises the stages or dimensions of the change during diversity management. The rationale for the model is that diversity management interventions are actually change processes. If an organisation adopts a diversity initiative, a change process should be put in motion.

The model consists of three stages, namely unfreezing, moving and refreezing (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Konrad *et al.*, 2006).

During the unfreezing stage, the environment, say, the diversity organisational environment, should be unfreezed. Resistance to change will occur and needs to be overcome. A reason for an organisation to unfreeze could be things such as noncompliance with the employment

equity requirements and possible penalties for this. The company may also realise that an increase in diversity is necessary to give it a competitive edge. Management intervention is important during the unfreezing stage and managers start with the process by unfreezing the current culture in the organisation. This will be achieved by contributing to changing the systems and sufficient resources in which the organisational culture operates.

Figure 3.4: The change dynamics model for diversity management (Allen & Montgomery)



Source: Allen and Montgomery (2001, p. 155)

Once the first step towards change, that is, cultural change, has been taken, the organisation goes through different follow-up stages in order to implement a complete the

cultural change. During the moving stage, programmes such as internship, training and education, mentoring, recruitment, career development and outreach are implemented. This stage emphasises the fact that the underrepresented minority group are included in the organisation in greater numbers by recruiting from the schools or advertising in newspapers that the minority groups read (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Konrad *et al.*, 2006).

The moving stage is usually attained by diversity training during which employees become aware of differences. Diversity training is often unsuccessful because the managers expect immediate changes in the behaviour of the employees after the training. This could be because of resistance on the part of employees because the training makes them feel uncomfortable or there could be tension between employees. It is therefore necessary for the organisation to go through the unfreezing stage first, during which the diverse employees become psychologically ready for change. If a safety zone during the first stage is created, the subsequent training and education initiatives will be more effective. During the moving stage, employees start to understand the importance of diversity and potential payoffs. New minority groups are recruited, selected and supported. The organisation and employees begin to value diversity and find creative ways for problem solving (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

During the refreezing stage, which is the crucial final stage, the organisation aims to gain the most benefits from diversity. It is essential for the organisation to ensure that the changes are institutionalised during the refreezing stage. The organisation's procedures, policies, strategies and reward system must be aligned with the new culture to be established in the organisation. If this final stage is not effectively applied, the organisation will regress back to the previous culture. This stage begins by reviewing existing strategies, policies and procedures and ensuring that it supports the new culture of diversity in the organisation.

According to Allen and Montgomery (2001), the main outcome of the successful implementation of the change dynamics model is that it gives the organisation a competitive edge. This occurs through increased creativity, greater adaptability and an improved ability to market to a broader demographic community.

The change dynamics model thus explains the implementation of a behavioural change in an organisation to ensure effective diversity management.

3.3 DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PROCESS IMPLEMENTATION MODEL

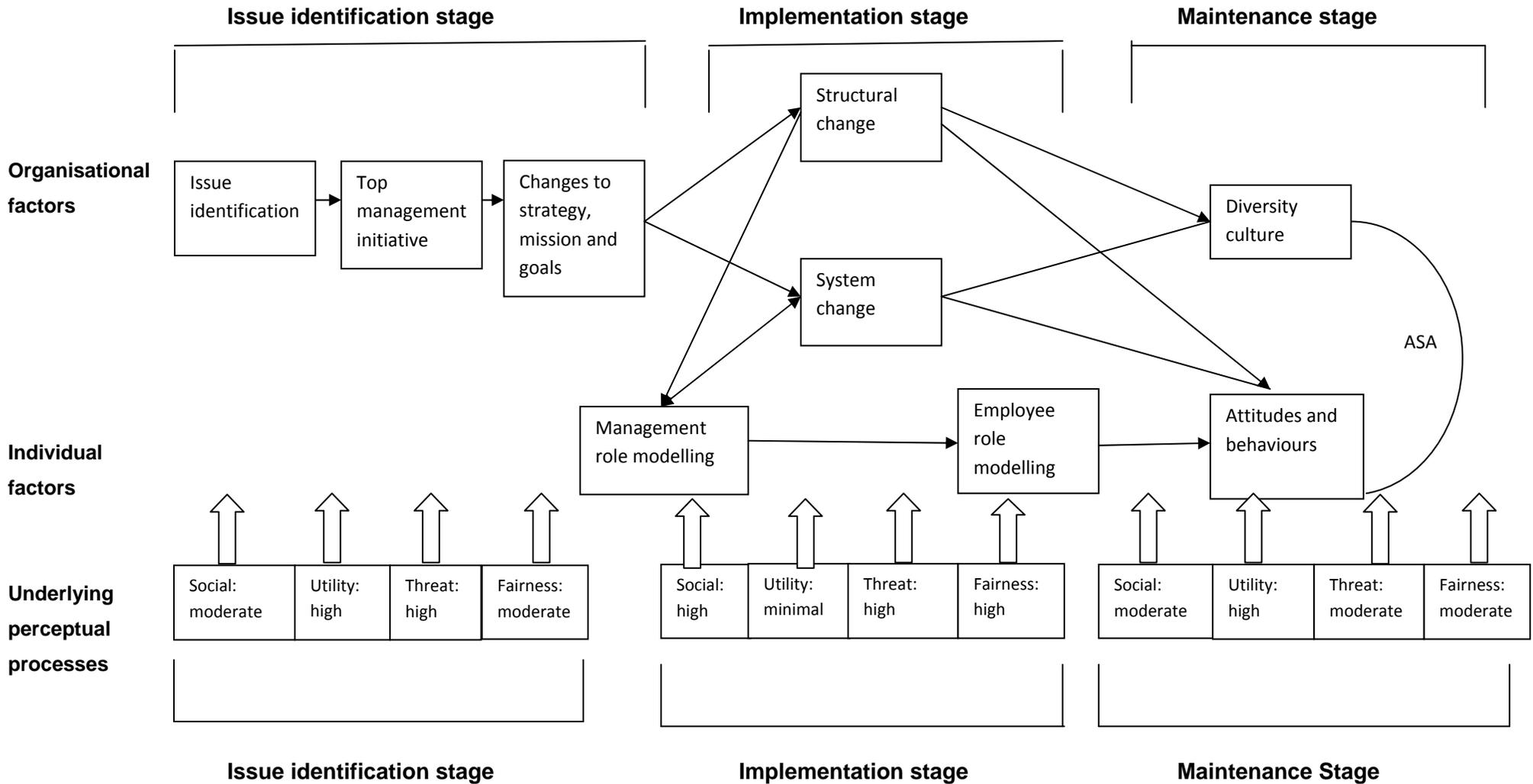
3.3.1 The three-stage diversity management process implementation model (Adgars & Kottke)

Adgars and Kottke (2002) identified the main requirements for an organisation to effectively manage its diversity. In figure 3.5 the diversity change management model is depicted as a systems-based, multilevel and three-stage process. Organisations move through a three-stage process in their diversity management efforts, namely (1) issue identification (diversity management becomes a priority in the organisation); (2) implementation (the organisation adapts and the existing practices and new policies are implemented in the diversity management intervention); and (3) maintenance (formal and informal processes that encourage and facilitate an organisational culture are established to support the diversity management intervention). During the three-stage process, this model emphasises four fundamental perceptual processes necessary for diversity management and implementation namely (1) social perceptions (i.e. social identities or gender stereotypes that would influence the attitudes, actions and thoughts of the diverse workforce); (2) perceptions of threat (this leads to firmness of action that will result in narrowed performance of dominant responses, narrowed views and limited risk taking); (3) perceptions of justice (employees view diversity management as fair or unfair); and (4) perceptions of utility (the financial benefits flowing from the diversity management initiative).

3.3.1.1 Issue identification stage

Organisations become aware of the need for the management of diversity during the issue identification stage. The momentum for this awareness is different for each organisation and the progress towards the integration of diversity management should be individualised for each organisation. Individualisation is evidenced in the pace with which organisations address the diversity. Once an organisation is aware of the need for diversity management, it is imperative for top management to support the diversity efforts through initiation of formal action (i.e. changes to mission, goals and structure). The perceived threat is another key issue during this stage. If the threat of a lawsuit at organisational level has been raised in the diversity management agenda, less innovative solutions and rigid responses are likely to be created, which will lead to the failure of the diversity management initiative. The fairness issue is less critical during this stage. It is also important during this stage for awareness to be created and for top management to be convinced that the organisation will in fact benefit from the diversity management initiative. The key process during this stage is utility.

Figure 3.5: The complete diversity management implementation model (Adgars & Kottke)



Source: Adapted from Adgars and Kottke (2002, p. 3)

3.3.1.2 The implementation stage

The implementation stage is characterised by structural and social practices, procedures and policies to support the integration of diversity management. It includes the implementation of the reward systems and development systems as well as formal changes to the organisation's structure.

During this stage, a behavioural change and role modelling are required that will illustrate new intentions. During the implementation stage, the relative importance of all four underlying processes shifts. The utility process has minimal significance because cost-benefit concerns remain significant for the organisation, but little emphasis is placed on financial outcomes. Formal and informal policies and practices in organisations that support gender diversity are implemented. The formal activities include (1) the implementation of a reward system; (2) recruitment and selection programmes to target more underrepresented populations; (3) harassment policies; and (4) broader diversity in management/leadership positions. The informal activities may include role modelling of support for diversity management that will start with top management and flow down to ensure that employees' behaviours are changed in the organisation (Adgars & Kottke, 2002; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

The implementation stage is not easy to accomplish because changes in the recruitment and selection policies, reward policies and demographics may easily lead to perceptions of threat and unfairness by team members. Successful transition during the implementation stage requires formal and informal changes in the organisation, and will result in an alignment of organisational systems and structures with the behaviours of management and ultimately the employees in support of integration. These events are the focus of the maintenance (final) stage.

3.3.1.3 The maintenance stage

The maintenance stage is characterised by increased stability. Once the organisation has established the diversity management practices and policies, the primary goal is for these to represent the organisational culture. Once it has been implemented, natural processes such as the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) theory strengthen the culture of diversity management. Underlying processes of utility and fairness become critical during this stage (Adgars & Kottke, 2002; Stockdale & Crosby, 2004).

Adgars and Kottke's (2002) model recognises diversity management interactions in three stages with distinct diversity management activities during each. The presentation of the implementation of the diversity management process within a systems framework also simplifies it for the managers who have to implement it.

3.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS

Diversity management is of utmost importance in South African organisations because South Africa is rich in employee diversity – hence the drastic need for effective cooperation in the workplace.

The major populations groups are blacks (76%), whites (13%), coloureds (9%) and Indians (2%). The white population is mostly of Afrikaans (originated from the Dutch) and British origin. Other smaller groups are Jewish, French, Italian, German and Portuguese. There is diversity among the black population as well. The nine ethnic groups are Zulu (the largest black population), South Sotho, Xhosa, Tswana, Ndebele, North Sotho, Swazi, Tsonga and Venda. South Africa has 11 official languages which include English, Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, Sesotho, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, Sepedi and isiSwati. English and Afrikaans are used in most work environments and documents (Ocholla, 2002). Even the South African anthem, which includes five languages, is an example of language diversity in the nation (Stander, 2011).

The diversity in the nation is also reflected by a number of religions. The largest religion is Christianity (80%) which includes most whites, blacks and coloureds. The Hindu and Muslim religion are widespread among the Indian and Hindu communities (Ocholla, 2002; Joubert & Grobler, 2013).

3.5 REQUIREMENTS FOR ATTAINING EFFECTIVE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Organisations need to meet certain requirements in order to achieve effective diversity management. This section is linked to chapter 6 (section 6.3) which explains the contributions of organisational team sport to effective diversity management in the workplace. Some of the requirements are listed below.

3.5.1 Organisations should view their employees as important human beings

When organisations value all their employees as important human beings and not as just another production resource, employees from different backgrounds feel safe and secure. This security motivates the different groups to cooperate better as a workforce in spite of differences that usually inhibit cooperation in the workplace. In order to successfully manage employee diversity, managers must perceive employees as vital human beings. The primary asset in an organisation is not its financial capital or its buildings, but its employees, because the profit that organisations make starts with the employee (Blanchard, 2009; Kaplan-Williams, 2009; Molyneaux, 2007).

Negative stereotyping by managers that employees are not valuable may limit the employees' potential. Employees normally perform according to the organisations' expectations of them. If a colleague is of the opinion that an employee is incapable, that employee will be unable to perform. This stereotyping of employees will result in prejudice. When an effective diversity management initiative is implemented, this will change the employees' stereotyping towards other employees who are different. Their knowledge about the employees who are different will change their stereotyping and prejudice into trust and respect. When teams are in a trusting relationship, the team members value the contribution of the other team members and allow them to give their inputs (Akehurst, Comeche & Galindo, 2009; Katcher & Snyder, 2007; Wilkinson, 2009).

In summary, valuing employees as important human beings is a critical issue in managing diversity because employees who feel valued and who are included by the heterogeneous groups, tend to be more inclined to cooperate in pursuing the team's goals (Columbine, 2011).

3.5.2 Team members should share organisational visions

The organisation's shared vision binds diverse employees around the common vision, despite differences in participating and cooperating to attain the vision. Hence to enable managers to manage the diverse workforce effectively, diverse team members must share and believe in the organisation's vision. A shared vision is a reality that is not yet in existence – in other words, it gives the organisation a reason to exist and the employees in organisation have an idea of what to expect in future. It is not a dream (Cashmore, 2003). Employees need to know what the organisation's vision is so that the dedication towards and confidence in the organisation's vision are so strong, that they are willing to work longer hours over a long period in order to

accomplish the vision. A shared vision should motivate employees towards action (Kantabutra, 2009; Shipley & Michela, 2006).

Shared visions are essential for organisations. When these visions are constantly present, it inspires the employees, despite them facing difficulties. This can help the stereotyped employees create a harmonious environment in which everyone works together towards a mutual goal (Maciariello & Linkletter, 2001; Shipley & Michela, 2006; Snyder & Graves, 1994).

A shared organisational vision improves communication in the organisation because it emphasises the aspirations for the organisation. Managers often discuss this vision with employees who give their inputs on how to attain the vision (Covey, 2006; Leopoldo, Lloréns-Montes & Bustinza Sánchez; 2009).

The organisational vision is sometimes a problem in South Africa because the different groups in an organisation are culturally far apart and therefore find it difficult to share the same vision. Among the whites in the country, for instance, the Afrikaners are usually more conservative, whereas people of the British origin tend to be more liberal in the way they envision the future. Some blacks believe that visions should be more communal oriented and less task related (Müller, 2007; Ocholla, 2002).

3.5.3 Team members should share organisational goals

A team should share the same goals to which they agree on and can discuss before a diverse team is successful (Biech, 2008; Solomon, 1998). A vital requirement for successful diversity management in organisations is to ensure that common or shared attainable goals are set. These shared goals again motivate diverse employees to attain them because the participants feel that they are an integral part of the group.

It is not possible to minimise diversity constraints if the common and shared goals are unrealistic, which happens in two ways: (1) setting goals that are inappropriate or less important to the organisation; and (2) setting goals that are not attainable in terms of the scope or timeframe. Another mistake that an organisation can make in setting goals is that it endeavours to move too far too fast. When a team cannot achieve the goals, the employees will criticise the programme and the team will become discouraged (Parker, 2008; Thiederman, 2003).

According to Gwynne (2009), each member in the team needs to decrease his or her own cultural uniqueness to that of the entire team by accepting shared goals based on common interests.

It is clear that achievable and reachable goals must be set in an organisation. Employees need to decrease their own personal needs to enable them to work together towards a common goal. South Africa is known as the Rainbow Nation, and there are differences between the white, black, Indian and coloured population groups. It is therefore imperative for the different populations in South African organisations to be committed to working towards the same goal (Stander, 2011). According to Thomas (2011), only 5% of employees in the South African workforce understand the goals they are supposed to pursue and this result in a team not pulling in the same direction. The conflict in an organisation occurs when the team debate the goal. It is therefore imperative for the team to be absolutely sure that they understand the goal completely and to be 100% committed to achieving the goals.

3.5.4 Employees should have high levels of personal commitment to collaborate with employees who are different

All employees need to be committed to cooperating with other employees who are different to enable the diversity management to succeed (Bassett-Jones, 2005; De Beer & De Beer, 2009), because if employees have no personal commitment, diversity may create misunderstandings, suspicion and conflict in the workplace which will result in loss of production, low morale and absenteeism. Organisations that are able to facilitate personal commitment among their diverse employees through the management of diversity initiatives will have a competitive advantage (Bassett-Jones, 2005; Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Meyer, Hecht, Gill & Toplonysky, 2010).

According to Cashmore (2003), diverse employees are committed to diversity goals when they strive to attain these goals and act to the contrary by limiting their personal requirements.

An employee will be committed to a team when

- his or her fundamental rights (i.e. the right to freedom of speech, dignity and privacy) are fulfilled
- he or she perceives no conflict between the organisation's needs and his or her own needs
- he or she is unable to fulfil his or her needs somewhere else (Cooper, 1974)

Diverse groups tend to be less cohesive than homogenous groups because a lack of similarity in background, culture and language among group members contributes to lower group cohesiveness. Homogeneous groups can therefore negatively influence work performance and teamwork (Brodbeck, Guillaume & Lee, 2010; Nieman & Bennett, 2002). It is not an easy task to manage a diverse group because the members have different behaviours, needs and values. Because differences in organisations can result in conflict, it is necessary to change a diverse group into a cohesive group to ensure that differences in culture, sex, race, race and age give an organisation the competitive advantage (Burt, 2007; Hodson, 1993).

It is essential for South African organisations that employees are committed to the organisation because a committed employee is the one who will stay with the company through thick and thin, will attend work regularly, put in a full day or even more, protect the company's assets and share the company goals with other employees. The bottom line is that South African organisations need a committed workforce (Haque, Chowdhury & Ali, 2010; Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari, 2003; Salleh, Ahmad & Kumar, 2009).

3.5.5 Employees should have increased mutual employee trust

Developing trust between employees is vital for the effective management of diversity because conflict, suspicion and misunderstandings between group members are often caused by mistrust and the organisation will not be able to achieve its goals. Employees need to trust one another before they are willing to do their best during diversity management.

Trust between employees is generally low in today's organisations and this has serious implications for the effective management of diversity and consequently workers' financial vitality, turnover, engagement and productivity in organisations. Mistrust has a negative effect on diversity management because the employees' morale is weakened, which will in turn lower the integrity of the employee who is working in a team towards a common goal. Employees withhold their enthusiasm and commitment when they mistrust one another. When employees feel that their needs are not being considered, they tend not to extend their trust (Meyer *et al.*, 2010; Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Wilson, 2009).

Organisations cannot simply put different types of employees together in one team and presume that the organisation will succeed. Before the team can be regarded as effective, all the members need to trust one another. When members of a team trust one another, they will treat each member of the team as valuable. For instance, older employees are assumed to be

old-fashioned and uncreative, employees with a foreign accent tend to be regarded as less qualified and workers with disabilities are regarded as less capable. Stereotyping is a form of mistrust and should be avoided in a diverse team. Examples of stereotyping are as follows: *“Women are not supposed to work in mines”*; *“Indians are perfect for sales”*; and *“Coloureds cannot be trusted, so they must never enter into any security position”*. The whole team could deteriorate into a group of finger-pointing, typecasting, name-calling and mistrusting employees (Caudron, 1994; Sackmann & Friesl, 2007).

For a team to be successful, the team members need to increase their trust. When team members are in a trusting relationship, they will allow co-workers to do their work and value one another's input (Meyer *et al.*, 2010; Tallia, Lanham, McDaniel & Crabtree, 2006).

Trust becomes more relevant and prominent when it is not present in relationships. It is the glue that binds employees and an organisation together and is seen as a crucial foundation for success during their diversity management initiatives (Meyer *et al.*, 2010; Wilson, 2009).

It is clear that trust between employees is of utmost importance in an organisation to help it move forward during its diversity management initiative. The members of a South African workforce do not automatically trust one another because of the diversity between the employees. According to Thomas (2011) people in the South African workforce must challenge one another to make sure that they trust the other team members to pursue the goal together. If the team members do not challenge one another, it might appear as if the team are working well together, but in reality, if a team loses confidence, performance will ultimately suffer and this will breed mistrust.

3.5.6 Employees should have mutual increased employee respect

Respect between colleagues is a vital requirement for diversity management because diverse employees find it hard to respect employees who are different for numerous reasons, such as lack of knowledge of different cultures (Bellou, 2009; Mor Barak, 2011; Tehrani, 2005). Hence if employees do not trust one another and diversity is not managed, the organisation will not realise its goals.

Respect is vital for building and maintaining solid relationships during diversity management. Employees respect one another if they work and live according to an acceptable set of morals and values, fulfil their obligations, keep their promises and are competent in their work. However, employees will lose their respect for co-workers if they do not abide by any of the

above-mentioned factors – the larger the violation, the larger the loss of respect (Doty, 2009; Mor Barak, 2011; Ratliff & Brackner, 1998).

Respectful interactions are honest, tactful and sympathetic. When diverse employees respect one another, they will value one another's views and differences and will change their own views to what others say. Respect in challenging situations in particular, is essential because employees are able to work together to solve problems (Tallia *et al.*, 2006; Zadel, 2008).

When employees feel that they are not being treated with respect by co-workers, they will not work to their full potential because these unrespected employees feel that they are not part of the group. During diversity management, every employee is innovative and creative and this will increase the organisation's competitiveness.

Much of one's sense of worth, identity and self-respect is determined by the way in which an employee's managers and colleagues perceive him or her and how effective he or she is in the workplace. In today's world of work, the work environment is a lot less worker friendly towards employees. Downsizing, competition, deunionisation, changes in technology and outsourcing have made the workplace insecure for employees' lives. Tension is increased when employees feel that their co-workers do not treat them with respect (Berger, 2008-2009; Zadel, 2008).

In conclusion, it is clear that respect is the foundation of the relationships between diverse employees. It is therefore imperative that, during the first interaction, employees treat their co-workers with respect so that they feel valued (MacLaughlin Frandsen, 2009; Zadel, 2008).

In most societies and cultures, respect is considered to be an important value. In the African culture, it is regarded as the building block because it is an unbiased, objective consideration and regard for values, rights, property and beliefs. It is believed that if one shows respect towards someone else, he or she will gain the respect of others. If team members respect their team unconditionally, it will form the basis of increased performance and relationships that are essential for effective performance (Carson, Tesluk & Marrone, 2007; Engelbrecht, 2005).

3.5.7 Employees should have effective communication

Effective communication is vital, especially when employees are diverse, because in order to avoid miscommunication, misinterpretations and misunderstandings, diverse employees in an organisation need to ensure that their perceptions and views are effectively communicated during diversity management. Different cultures have different assumptions and tendencies

during verbal interactions, and it is complex for cross-cultural employees to communicate their perceptions and views effectively. Because of language barriers, the management of cross-cultural communication during diversity management poses a challenge (Faull, 2008; Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Thiederman, 1996).

South Africa has 11 official languages and various different religions. Although English is the fifth largest home language spoken in South African households, it is the most commonly language spoken in South Africa. Effective and open communication is one of the most pertinent diversity constraints in South African organisations (Faull, 2008; Thiederman, 1996).

Ineffective communication is increasing because of the escalation in employee diversity among employees. The situation is characterised by confusion and conflict in the workplace. Most communication difficulties have their origin in different points of view and cultural languages. The team members need time to become accustomed to one another. Diverse teams should be aware of language difficulties and the different ways in which diverse team members speak (Thiederman, 1996; Trenka, 2006).

Slowness, inefficiencies, misunderstandings, misinterpretations and inaccuracies are the usual communication problems experienced in a diverse team. Members of the team often assume that their co-team members understand their message, but this lack of understanding, results in a breakdown of communication (Faull, 2008; Nieman & Bennett, 2002).

If team members are unable to communicate and listen with synergy and empathy, they will be unable to build mutual values, missions and visions (Covey, 2006; Shachaf, 2008). According to Covey (2006), listening with empathy and synergistic communication, where employees have respect for their co-workers' differences, views and perceptions, are outside the employees' competency and comfort zone. If team members in the organisation are able to communicate, listen with synergy and empathy to their diverse co-team members and leave their comfort zone to other diverse team members, they will make a positive impact on diversity management.

Employees need to listen to their co-workers with an open mind, value their input and find ways to implement their views and values in practice in order to welcome the different views and contributions of all employees in the organisation. These skills will move the organisation towards successful management of diversity (Jayne, 2008).

Effective communication increases an employee's knowledge of diverse cultures. It helps an employee to realise that diverse cultures have dissimilar behaviours. If employees know that

differences exist and understand them, any mistrust between employees will disappear and they will be more aware of the different cultures' innovation and creativity (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008; Day, 2008; Shachaf, 2008).

From the above it is clear that open and effective communication should be encouraged and promoted during diversity management in order to create an inclusive culture in a diverse organisation. All the departments in the organisation should be aware that they can express their views and have their say about any diversity concerns without any negative results, and managers should be aware of the issues relating to diversity to enable them to attend to any areas of concern.

3.5.8 Employees should be familiar with other (diverse) groups

Another vital requirement for effective diversity management is acquiring information on other groups. Diverse groups need to understand and familiarise themselves with one another before they are able to work successfully together, because when employees do not understand their diverse co-workers and have no knowledge of one another, miscommunication, mistrust and misunderstanding are inevitable.

3.5.8.1 Accepting cultural differences

Looking someone in the eye, bowing or not bowing, kissing a person on the cheek, shaking hands or smiling seem to be small gestures, but the success of diversity management may depend on them. Most employees in an organisation come from different backgrounds and this has a huge impact on diversity management. When an employee is unfamiliar with the culture of group, this could lead to frustration, misunderstanding and embarrassment that will negatively affect the success of the organisation (Daiana, s.a.; Prince & Hoppe, 2004; Wang & Mattila, 2010).

It is therefore vital for employees to understand and accept cultural differences in the organisation. South African organisations have diverse workforces, and it is common for them to do business daily with African, English, Indian or Asian clients (Faull, 2008; Klarsfeld, 2010). What may seem unimportant to an English-speaking person may be seem highly offensive to an African person, for example, making eye contact with one's superior (Smith, s.a.).

Learning to understand and accept diverse people is extremely time consuming. Not only is the contact period important, but also the kind of association with each person. For instance,

diverse employees may work together for several years, but only have a few conversations and interactions with one another on a small number of occasions (Belbin, 2010; Tan, 2006). Diversity management teaches employees that difference needs to be valued, accepted and understood. Diverse team members need to remember that differences in culture are unique and are best served when they learn from other cultures (Thiederman, 2003; Woods, Barker & Hibbins, 2011).

If diverse teams are unwilling to understand one another, the team will probably be unsuccessful. Diverse team members need to realise and understand that other members of the team are diverse and unique. This understanding can be used to foster a work environment that increases the vision for productivity and personal growth (Solomon, 1998; Sheridan, 1994; Trivedi, 2008). Avoiding or ignoring the reality of cultural influences will not build esteem or a sense of belonging and merely create conflict (Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Trivedi, 2008).

An example illustrating the importance of knowing one's team members was Exxon Chemical in Baytown. The company appointed an intellectual Asian female engineer, but she felt trapped in her cultural beliefs and norms. The belief in the Asian culture is that women should keep quiet until everybody has finished speaking, and to ensure that they are not offensive, they roll their words seven times on the tongue before speaking.

Exxon Chemical's communication culture in meetings was different, and the Asian woman at Exxon Chemical had seldom had an opportunity to make any contribution in meetings. She felt like a failure in her professional responsibilities, because of her culture. She realised that if she participated like her co-workers, she would be in conflict with her own culture.

The communication method in the company was changed once her co-workers became aware of her dilemma. They now attempt to give her ample time to talk. The Asian woman is now a high-performing engineer in the company and feels part of the company because of the communication changes the company made.

This is but one example of how differences in culture have an effect on the employees' behaviour and how the employees relate to one another. The way in which employees interact with team members has an impact on the success of diversity management (Avery & McKay, 2010; Sheridan, 1994).

3.5.8.2 Accepting age generation differences

Accepting age generation differences is another key requirement of effective diversity management because there is a great deal of age bias in modern society (Aker, 2009; Parry & Urwin, 2009). The age generation gaps in organisations can lead to conflict, loss of productivity, misunderstanding and miscommunication. When employees are able to bridge the generation gap, this improves mutual communication and understanding and makes an organisation competitive.

A report released by Randstad USA World of Work (Casison, 2008) indicates that there is limited communication between different generations. In a survey, nearly 3 500 adults revealed that 51% of baby boomers were between the ages of 44 and 62 years and 66% of older workers confirmed that they had almost never communicated with younger colleagues. A lack of communication has a negative impact of diversity management. Clarity instead of confusion can be provided between employees when open communication channels are established between different communications (Casison, 2008).

According to table 3.1 the characteristics of the different generations (Bernstein, Alexander & Alexander, 2008) are summarised. There are five types of generations, namely traditionalists – people born between 1925 and 1942; baby boomers – people born between 1943 and 1960; generation X – people born between 1961 and 1981; generation Y – people born between 1982 and 2002; and generation C – people born after 1990. There are also so-called “cuspers” who are born at the end of one generation or at the beginning of the next (Bernstein, Alexander & Alexander, 2008).

Table 3.1: Generation differences at a glance

Generation	Born between	Personalities	Stereotyped as
Traditionalists	1925–1942	Dedicated, hardworking, prefer rules and authority, traditional and conservative	Behind the time, old fashioned, autocratic and inflexible, change and risk reluctant
Baby boomers	1943–1960	Optimistic, team players, youthful, competitive	Unrealistic, self-centered, power-driven, political and workaholic
Generation X	1961–1981	Balance work/family life;	Self-centered, loafers,

		realistic, self-reliant	impatient, pessimistic
Generation Y	1982–2002	Multitasking, seeking fun, fast pace, technological ability	Spoiled, technology dependent, disrespectful, short concentration span

Source: Bernstein *et al.* (2008, p. 18)

The differences between the generations regarding work behaviour are summarised and depicted in table 3.2. Generation diversity exists between clients, customers, employees and suppliers. Differences in age generations have an influence on approaches to work, working relationships, success and values.

Table 3.2: Generation differences in the workplace

	Traditionalists	Baby boomers	Generation X	Generation Y
Work style	By the book; rigid	Work needs to be done; it does not matter if it takes nights and weekends	Find short cuts towards results	Work until deadlines – it is unnecessary to make schedules
Authority	Command/control; does not question authority	Respect for achievement and power	Flexible rules and teamwork are important	Value autonomy. Not inclined to pursue formal leadership positions
Communication	Through proper and formal channels	Semiformal and through structured channels	Direct and casual. Sometimes cynical	Direct and casual. Eager to do favours
Recognition	Compensation for good work and personal acknowledgement	Career advancement and public acknowledgment	Fair benefits; needs time off as reward	Public and individual praise; opportunity to develop new abilities
Work/family	Work and family are kept separate	Work is more important than family	Balance between work and life	Combine personal life into work
Loyalty	To an organisation	To the importance and meaning of work	To their own career goals	To team members involved in the project
Technology	“If it is not broken, it	It is necessary for	Practical tools to	There is nothing

	does not need to be fixed”	growth	complete tasks	more important than technology
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Source: Adapted from Aker (2009, p. 47)

Generation C as the future employee

Special mention is made here of Generation C because they will be the employees of the next decade. Generation Cs is materialists and realists. They are upwardly mobile and live longer with their parents. They are content-centric, connective, computerised, communicative, always clicking. They socialise most of the time via the internet, because they are free to express their own attitudes and opinions. Generation Cs are born after 1990 and their adolescent years are after 2000. They will make up 40% of the population in Europe, the BRIC countries and the United States and 10% in the rest of the world by 2020. They will comprise the largest group of customers worldwide. Because they have owned digital devices for most of their lives, they are familiar with and use them for almost six hours a day. They all possess mobile phones and are constantly busy sending text messages. More than 95% of Generation Cs has computers and more than 50% of them watch videos on YouTube, have facebook pages and use instant messaging to communicate (Friedrich, Peterson, Koster & Blum, 2010; Friedrich, Peterson & Koster, 2011; Pankraz, 2009).

To effectively manage a diverse generational workplace it is necessary for employees and organisations to be willing to explore differences, encourage respect and take responsibility for working towards a common goal and finding common ground (Bernstein *et al.*, 2008; Delcampo, Haggerty, Haney & Knippel, 2011). This could increase worker productivity, morale and collaboration. An organisation can gain a competitive edge if a multigenerational workforce is not underestimated (Aker 2009; Delcampo *et al.*, 2011).

In conclusion, it is necessary to highlight the fact that organisations need to understand, respond to and manage a multigenerational workforce and use it as the organisation’s foundation of success. This promotes different ways of working, learning and communicating in organisations. Dissatisfied customers, loss of productivity and ineffective team works are the end results of a multigenerational organisation not being able to understand, respond to and manage differences in generations.

3.6 SUMMARY

Effective diversity management requires the implementation in a diverse workforce of the revised diversity management model developed by Taylor Cox (2001), the model for managing diversity developed by Cummings and Worley (2001), the input-output model for managing diversity developed by Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000) and the change dynamics model developed by Allen and Montgomery (2001). The implementation model for managing diversity developed by Adgars and Kottke (2002) is important for a diverse workforce wishing to implement diversity management interventions.

The following requirements need to be facilitated to manage diversity effectively:

- Organisations should view their employees as important human beings.
- Teams should share organisational visions.
- Teams should share organisational goals.
- Employees need high levels of personal commitment in order to collaborate with employees who are different.
- Increased employee trust is essential.
- Increased employee is vital.
- Effective and open communication is necessary.
- There is a need for familiarity with other (diverse) groups, where employees understand and learn about differences such as age, race, language, generation gaps, gender and religious beliefs among their co-workers.

Satisfying these requirements appears to be a simple process, but the converse is true. When these requirements are satisfied and implemented through effective diversity management, the organisation's chances of success will increase.

When organisations are able to effectively manage diversity, the diverse workforce can contribute towards a more tolerant organisational culture. This will then lead to business success and productivity because employees are able to work together as a team (Trenka, 2006).

Organisations generally want to appoint the best team. However, some managers tend to appoint employees only from a certain background because they are too afraid of diverse teams. According to Smith, highly successful organisations experience many changes and therefore need work teams that are determined, flexible and resilient. Different perspectives,

minds and cultural influences in an organisation may lead to a more universal and effective product. Better ideas emerge from different employees' ideas during brainstorming (Purohit, 2008).

Chapter 4 will deal with group work and explain the differences between a group and a team.

CHAPTER 4

GROUP WORK

4.1 INTRODUCTION

All major outcomes in organisations happen in groups and teams. Henry Ford once said that coming together as a group is a start, keeping together is progress, but working together is success. It is therefore easy for organisations to bring groups of employees from diverse backgrounds together, but the challenge is to keep them together and lead them towards success.

Although we can infer that all teams are groups, we cannot refer to all groups as teams. It is therefore necessary to first discuss groups as diverse work units before dealing with teams (chapter 5).

A group is defined as two or more employees who have some kind of relationship or are interdependent and whose actions influence one another (Forsythe, 1999; Levi, 2011; Paulus, 2000).

A discussion of group formation and the characteristics of groups are included in this chapter because employees from diverse backgrounds initially join a group that may later develop into a team. In the context of diversity management through organisational team sport interventions, there is a distinction between a group and a team, although in practice, the two cannot be separated.

This chapter explains the different group types, different stages of group development, group awareness, comparing effective groups with ineffective groups, accelerating the transition from a group to a team and the difference in characteristics and respective environments of groups and teams.

4.2 TYPOLOGY OF GROUPS

Groups are often categorised according to the purpose or the expected outcome of the group action. There are four main group types based on the purpose of the group, namely skill-

building groups, decision-making groups, information presentation groups and participant-driven groups. Each category will now be discussed.

4.2.1 Skill-building groups

According to Letendre (2005), skill-building groups provide group members with skills, that is, performance evaluation. Each individual group member, particularly in sport, usually brings unique skills to the group (say, the goal shooter (in basketball) will earn acceptance from other group members through his or her skills). When all the group members are willing to bring their unique skills to the group, it becomes more effective in skill building for diversity management purposes (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006).

4.2.2 Decision-making groups

According to Parker (1998), decision-making groups are formed for decision making on different issues. Examples of these groups in the workplace are management groups, committees such as the board of directors and community planning groups. Effective decision making between the members of a diverse group will improve the teamwork in a diverse work group (Kerr & Tindale, 2004; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006).

4.2.3 Informational groups

The purpose of these groups is to provide individuals with new information on matters that concern them. Examples of these would be groups that provide information on safety counts, health insurance, new immigration policies or HIV/AIDS (Couture, 2009). Effective diversity management requires knowledgeable groups and these are often used to provide information on diversity issues and to sensitise employees to diversity issues.

4.2.4 Support groups

Support groups provide individuals with emotional support to achieve goals or overcome obstacles. Examples of these would be groups that provide support to sexual assault survivors or grief and loss survivors (Helquist, Kruse & Adkins, 2010). Support groups are also crucial in providing support to employees when they experience problems in adjusting in diverse organisations.

The different objectives of groups give purpose and meaning to the existence of the group. This gives the group members the potential to join ranks and work together.

4.3 STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

When group members are assigned to a new group, the dynamics and emphasis of the group change as it experiences the different stages of development.

4.3.1 Initial stage: resistance

During the initial stage, the members may be resistant to change. The members could be highly suspicious of the leader or fear manipulation. Some resistance is expected during the early stage, even if members are willing to join the group. The resistance may be manifest, say, objections to the meeting place. The whole group will benefit if the fearful expectations that arise from resistance can be overcome. The members should express their anxiety and concerns openly. If they are unable to do so, the group process will be blocked because of hidden agendas. Unspoken agendas have devastating effects on a group. If the members are unable to express their reactions in the group, it is unlikely that the group will be to reveal their personal issues pertaining to out-of-group conflict (Corey, Corey & Corey, 2010; Ford, Ford & D'Amelio, 2008).

In culturally and racially diverse groups, it is imperative for the initial mutual resistance between different members to be broken down quickly by applicable interventions in order to enhance cooperation (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Smith, Miller, Archer & Hague, s.a.).

4.3.2 Early stage: concerns in the group

During the early stages of group development, the members lack certainty about their position in the group and express their personal uncertainty as concerns. Group members learn how the groups function, become acquainted, develop spoken and unspoken norms, explore their hopes and fears, clarify their expectations, identify their personal goals and determine whether or not the group is a safe place (Corey *et al.*, 2010; Levi, 2011; McRae, 1994).

During this stage, the members express more negative than positive feelings. The way in which the leader deals with the different feelings will determine the degree of trust that will be established in the group. During this stage it is common to see a lack and tentativeness of

clarity on what the individuals hope to gain from the group experience. Because the group members are uncertain about the expected behaviour and norms of the group, there will be moments of awkwardness and silence. Some members may be impatient to tackle things. The group often view their diverse members negatively because it is easy to identify inherent barriers and obstacles that are associated with differences in age, religion, disability, sexual orientation and educational levels (Horwitz & Horwitz, 2007; Smith *et al.*, s.a.).

When implementing diversity management interventions, the early stage concerns should be addressed as soon as possible in order to provide members with security to enable them to contribute to unity in the group (Corey *et al.*, 2010; Levi, 2011; McRae, 1994).

4.3.3 Other-focus to self-focus stage

Once the early concerns have been addressed, the group members change their focus from others to themselves. Group members in the early formation stages emphasise others and will focus mainly on situations and people outside the group setting. This limits introspection and solving personal issues which is a prerequisite for group members to develop sound relationships. At times the participants may believe that they are working hard, but in fact they resist dealing with and speaking about their own personal feelings. Although the participants talk about life situations they may focus on what other members are doing to make things difficult for them. The group leader must attempt to help the group members who focus on others to shift their focus towards willingness to examine their own reactions towards others. Trust is a prerequisite when members open up about themselves (Corey *et al.*, 2010; Garrison, Wakefield, Xu & Kim, 2010; Burlingame & McClendon, 2008).

When members shift their focus to their own behaviour and feelings they become aware of their own mistakes and this tends to improve relationships in the diverse group.

Negi, Bender, Furman, Fowler and Prickett (2010) express the importance of self-focus in a diverse group. They contend that diverse group members must gain sufficient self-focus to eliminate the influence of personal values and biases when working in a diverse group.

It is not enough for diverse group members to only understand and learn about the diverse cultures because this tends to release diverse group members from understanding and learning about the impact of their own ethnocentric and sociopolitical biases when working with diverse group members who are culturally or ethnically different from themselves. Diverse

management and training should be encouraged to learn about diverse cultures and to foster self-focus (Green, Kitson, Kiernan-Stern, Leak, Bailey & Leisey, 2005; Lum, 2007).

4.3.4 Trusting stage

During the development of the group, members initially do not trust other members and then gradually start trusting them as they learn to get to know one another better. The development of mutual trust is one of the most basic requirements in the group process. If basic trust between group members is not established at the outset, serious cooperation problems are foreseen (Garrison *et al.*, 2010).

Group members can develop trust in other members when they are able to express their own feelings, without fear of being judged. A lack of trust develops when there is a suggestion of suspicion and hostility and members are unwilling to talk about their personal feelings. Other signs of lack of trust are when the group members take refuge in endlessly talking about others or being overly intellectual, but they refuse to focus on themselves, and are vague about what is expected of the group. Before trust is created, group members tend to wait on the leader to make decisions for them. Any disclosures that are made tend to be rehearsed and superficial and risk taking is at a low level (Corey *et al.*, 2010; Erford, 2011).

Developing mutual trust in a group during diversity management is essential if the group wishes to perform effectively in achieving its goals (Kourdi & Bibb, 2004). Trust in a diverse group leads to more effective collaboration and cooperation; higher levels of organisational morale and commitment; better and quicker knowledge transfer between group members; improved communication and participation in decision making; and higher levels of innovation. If mistrust prevails in a diverse team, it will have a negative effect on the productivity of the team members, sensitive and valuable information will be withheld and the cultural differences in experience, skills, values and education will become a source of divisiveness, miscommunication and stress instead of an opportunity to value diversity (Garrison *et al.*, 2010, Kourdi & Bibb, 2004; Winter *et al.*, 2008).

4.4 THE CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE GROUPS

Effective groups have distinct characteristics that enhance the cooperation in the group during diversity management interventions.

In effective groups, group members cooperate to attain a common purpose. Ineffective groups lack alignment, which means that the members in the group do not cooperate. A lack of cooperation and attainment of goals usually results in wasted energy. Effective groups are able to achieve their goals (Bragg, 1999; Corey *et al.*, 2010).

The characteristics of effective groups required for diversity management are summarised in table 4.1. In order to emphasise and contrast the characteristics of effective groups, the characteristics of ineffective groups are also presented (Corey *et al.*, 2010).

Table 4.1: The characteristics of effective groups that enhance cooperation between employees from diverse backgrounds

Effective group	Ineffective group
Group members trust one another, or openly communicate any lack of trust. Because they trust one another, members are willing to take risks and they share meaningful “here-and-now” reactions.	Mistrust is evidenced in the group because of unexpressed aggression. Because of the lack of trust, members refuse to express their thoughts and feelings.
Goals are specific and clear and the group are determined to achieve the goals. The group members are willing to direct in-group behaviour to attain the goals.	Goals are abstract, general and fuzzy. Group members have no goals or unclear personal goals.
The excluded group members are invited to join the group and most group members experience a sense of inclusion and identify with the group.	Many group members are excluded from the group. Cliques are formed that lead to division.
Communication between members is open and there is an accurate expression of the members’ feelings.	Group members do not express their feelings because they are afraid of being left out.
The group members focus on the “here-and-now”, and members talk directly to other group members about their experiences.	The group members focus on the “there-and-then”. Story-telling is typical and group members focus on others but not on themselves. The members resist dealing

	with their reactions to other group members.
The functions of the leaders are shared by the group members; the members feel free to suggest exploring certain areas and initiating activities.	The leader's function is the responsibility of one group member and he or she guides the members in all directions. There is power conflict between group member and between group members and the group leader.
Members are willing to take the risk of disclosing threatening material. Interactions are spontaneous and honest. Group members take the risk of disclosing their reactions to other group members.	Disclosure is minimal and members hold back. Many group members are unknown. Spontaneous interactions are less evident than game playing.
Cohesion is high among group members and there is a strong emotional bond between members and they feel close to one another. Members identify with other group members. There is a willingness among members to risk experimental behaviour because of the support and closeness in new ways of being.	Cohesion is low among group members and division exists because group members feel distant from others in the group. There is a lack of empathy and caring. Because members of the group do not encourage other group members to engage in risky and new behaviour, the familiar ways of doing things are strictly maintained.
Conflict between group members is discussed, recognised and resolved.	Conflict is denied, ignored and avoided.
Members of the group accept the responsibility of deciding what action is needed to solve their problems.	Members are unwilling to make decisions and take action towards change and blame other group members for their personal difficulties.
Feedback is accepted without defensiveness and is freely given. Members are willing to reflect on the feedback.	The little feedback that is given is defensively rejected. Members are not willing to reflect on the feedback.
Members are hopeful and they know that positive change is possible and that group members are able to become what they wish to become.	Members feel helpless, trapped, despair, and victimised and they are unable to become what they wish to become.

When confrontation occurs, the confronter shares his or her reactions with the member being confronted. Confrontation is not used as an uncaring attack, but instead as a challenge to examine a member's behaviour.	Confrontation is attacking and aggressive and the member being confronted feels rejected and judged. Some members may gang up on another member, using him or her as a scapegoat.
Group norms are clear and cooperatively developed by group members. The norms are designed to help group members achieve their goals.	Norms are not clear and merely imposed by the group leader. Because the norms are unclear, the group members are unable to achieve their goals.
The emphasis is on combining the thinking and feeling functions. Expressions and catharsis of feeling occur.	The group members have separate thinking and feeling functions. The group members rely on cathartic experiences and no or little effort is made to understand them.
Members use "out-of-group" time to solve problems that are raised in the group.	When members are outside the group they do not think much about group activities.

Source: Adapted from Corey *et al.* (2010, p. 18)

From figure 4.1 one can infer that the main characteristics of a successfully sport and/or work group are effective communication, setting clear and specific goals and cohesion and cooperation between participants which contributes to effective diversity management in an organisation (chapter 6).

The characteristics discussed suggest that groups focus on accomplishing imposed tasks under the strong leadership of a supervisor or manager. Evaluation and individual performance are the basis for determining success. Groups are vital to and useful for organisations because they are the work units, together with teams in which critical work assignments are completed (Garrison *et al.*, 2010; Katz, 1997; Lawrence & Mary, 2002; Majchrzak & Wang, 1996; Mulvey, Veiga & Elsass, 1996; Zenger & Associates, 1994).

On the surface it seems easier to work with group members who have similar thinking, background and styles, but differences bring debate, depth and richness to a group. When diversity management interventions are introduced in a diverse group, the group members will

share their own diverse skills, knowledge and abilities with other group members, which will usually make the group more effective (Manning, 2008).

4.5 **TRANSFORMING FROM A GROUP TO A TEAM**

A number of people use a work group and team interchangeably (Bushe & Coetzer, 2007; Xyrichis & Ream, 2008), but there are distinct differences between a group and a team in applications in the workplace. Various leadership courses designed for the corporate world, emphasise the importance of teambuilding, not group building. The strengths of a team depend on the interconnectivity between employees and cohesion of the purpose, whereas the strengths of a group may stem from willingness to carry out a leader's instructions (Mackin, s.a.).

Groups change into teams after going through the following four stages (Wheelan, 2010):

- The development of the group is characterised by the group members' dependency on the leader. When the group changes to a team, the leadership in the team is shared by the members of the team.
- The group members free themselves from their dependency on the leader and conflict exists about procedures and goals. In a team, however, there is less conflict because the team's objectives are clear.
- The members of the group are able to work through conflicts but no real structure exists in the team. In a team, the members are in a trusting relationship and the team's structure is clear.
- The group focuses on individual performance, whereas in a team, the team members focus on team productivity.

Even though an organisation's workforce setting is mostly in a group context, few groups are able to function as a team and work performed in a group context can only be partially characterised as teamwork (Ginnett, 2010; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012). Although we can conclude that all teams are groups, we cannot conclude that all groups are teams. Teams and groups can be distinguished from one another on the basis of the following characteristics (Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012):

- Groups rely less than teams on their members' capabilities.

- Groups rely less than teams on their members to work together and to be more cooperative because of the principle of collaborative interdependence between the members.
- There is less identity in the group than there is in teams, and groups operate in many units.
- Groups generally do not focus on the longer term, whereas teams typically have long-term goals that require resource and time commitments of substantial magnitude.

It is more difficult to form a team than a group. If there is a room filled with professional lawyers, they could be grouped according to experience, age, gender and fields of expertise. A group that is formed on the basis of a certain commonality is not difficult, but the effectiveness of the group may vary. The interpersonal dynamics of a group may range from completely intolerant to completely compatible (Ginnett, 2010; Swanepoel & Slabbert, 2012).

A group uses equal parts arguments, peer pressure and discussions to guide the group members towards consensus. Group building may take a few minutes, while team building may take years. The members of a group have the ability to leave the group when their input or services become unnecessary.

4.6 ACCELERATING THE TRANSITION FROM A GROUP TO A TEAM

The challenge for organisations is not only to bring a group of employees together, but also mainly to accelerate the crossing from being a group to being a successful team. Although different talents and resources are available in a group which, in turn, stimulate productivity and higher-quality decisions, changing from a group to a team enhances purposefulness and accountability for actions. Teamwork is therefore of utmost importance during diversity management because team members are mutually accountable, and the manager in a team cooperates with subordinates as peers and jointly plans and establishes the work.

To enable organisations to accelerate the transition from groups to teams, the following basic recruitment and selection principles need to be practised (Roach, 2011):

4.6.1 Target potential employees who are willing to work together

During recruitment and selection, target the potential group members who are willing to work together. When diverse employees do not want to work together and opinions differ, tension will develop between them. This does not mean that the employees are unable to work

together, but it is more difficult to integrate diverse employees with different ideas and skills to work more productively. However, two employees with different views and opinions do not mean that they are always unable to work together. They sometimes present complementary personalities where the one employee's strength will help the other employee's weakness in the context of a team (Ready, Hill & Conger, 2008; Roach, 2011).

4.6.2 Develop a distinct team identity

A team identity needs to be developed when team members identify with the team's purpose and vision. Team members therefore need a clear understanding of the purpose and focus of the team. To enable a team to be successful and strong, clear identities must be developed from the conception of the team (Eckel & Grossman, 2005; Roach, 2011).

4.6.3 Define the roles of team members

The team members' different roles need to be defined because, according to Roach (2011), an effective team can be compared to an orchestra in which each individual plays his or her own unique role and makes his or her own unique contribution. When every employee is willing to play (work) in harmony and they are all willing to be one with the group and not interested in dominating the group, teamwork will evolve. Unfortunately this will not happen without a coach or a conductor who helps to clarify each participant's role and contribution (Roach, 2011).

4.6.4 Clarify the purpose of the team

The purpose of the team needs to be clarified because it will be better understood if the team members are able to formulate it themselves and understand their own unique roles. It is not easy to grasp a purpose and goal if various opinions, confused direction and conflict are on the team members' minds – hence the need to have a clear purpose for the team (Roach, 2011).

When management are able to accelerate the transition of the group to a team, the members will be more unified and able to work together towards a mutual goal and create new ideas (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993).

4.7 SUMMARY

Each member in a group is responsible for his or her own individual contributions. The achieved outcomes or contributions are made in isolation. Those individuals are not concerned about what other group members achieve.

Although many authors do not distinguish between a group and a team, these two concepts have different meanings. Even though an organisation's workforce initially finds its origin in a group context, few groups are able to develop and function as a team and therefore only some work performed in a group context can be characterised as teamwork.

The contributions of groups in a workplace are that there is a pool of group member resources and talents available; the members are aware of other members' errors and help them to correct the errors; group work can stimulate productivity; higher-quality decisions can be made in a group; and the members feel more committed during the decision-making process. However, it is also true that a group is less clear about its accountability, and members may find that they conform less to attain organisational goals.

A sense of stronger mutual interdependence or interaction to attain a common goal distinguishes a collection of individuals from a group. A group of rugby players who train together every Wednesday evening share a common goal, namely training, and hence there is stronger interaction between them. Others may decide to get together on a Wednesday evening to support the rugby team, and this is considered to be a collection of individuals because they do not interact as strongly as the rugby players with one another in a structured way. But a group of rugby players will taste success if they are able to become a team, because teamwork blends the strengths and talents of the participants into a stronger power that becomes greater than the sum of its parts (Weinberg & Gould, 2011).

The same applies to work groups that become teams. In chapter 5, work teams will be discussed and the importance of work teams in an organisation emphasised.

CHAPTER 5

WORK TEAMS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

It is imperative for employees from diverse backgrounds to be able to work effectively in teams because most organisational objectives are realised through teamwork (Fripp, 2011). Effective management of a diverse work team equates with the effective management of diversity in the organisation because the team is the unit within which diversity issues are addressed.

Hackman (1987) and Salas (2007) define a team as a group of employees who work together in the same organisation towards a common goal (Hackman, 1987; Salas, 2007). The ability to work together and perform as a team becomes more difficult when the team comprises employees from different backgrounds and with different attributes, that is, different race, culture, gender, education, abilities and so forth.

Conversely, homogeneous teams in which members are markedly similar (i.e. same gender, race, culture, language, etc.) usually find it easier to communicate and cooperate. Managers find it less difficult to manage the team effectively because of the homogeneous qualities of the team members.

To enable a heterogeneous team to make effective decisions, they need to integrate different perspectives gained on the basis of different backgrounds and experience (Figuroa, 1992; Homan, Hollenbeck, Humphrey, Van Knippenberg, Ilgen & Van Kleef, 2008; Makower, 1995, Sunoo, 1996).

From the discussion thus far, it is clear why working effectively in a team equates with effective diversity management interventions in the organisation and why work teams are so essential for effective diversity management.

This chapter explains the different types of team, the skills required in a team, team success and failures, different types of team, the dynamics of work teams, teamwork philosophy and theoretical constructs that affect teamwork development.

5.2 TYPOLOGY OF TEAMS

An organisation can benefit from the advantages provided by teams by using more than one structure or type of team in a variety of ways. Management regularly commissions and forms cross-functional teams to manage designs or projects, improve processes or products, resolve problems or conduct research on new technologies and equipment (Armstrong, 2007).

The main function of a team determines the name or label given to the team. Some of the team names identified in this manner are the following: self-managed, virtual and high performance teams.

5.2.1 Self-managed teams

Self-management means that the team members perform the activities of the manager themselves and have to make strategic decisions to direct and control their own team outputs. Self-managing teams continue to grow and develop in the context of the current concept of a workforce where decision making is entrusted to lower levels and structures are becoming flatter (Aldag & Riggs Fuller, 1993; Blanchard, 2005; Bryant, Farhy & Griffiths, 1994; Hollenbeck, Meyer & Ilgen, 2007).

According to Kirkman, Jones, and Shapiro (2000), self-managed teams normally consist of 10 to 15 employees who have the responsibility of their previous supervisors but retain their previous responsibilities. These teams are not managed by a formal manager and direct activities themselves.

This type of team is a radical substitute for the *status quo*, which allows employees to grow beyond their expectations and simultaneously allows extraordinary levels of quality improvement and output (Wilson, 1996). A self-managed team comprises highly skilled organisational members who assume joint and wide-ranging responsibility for a whole product or process through the performance of a wide selection of assignments within clearly defined limits (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2004).

Diverse self-managed teams are better equipped to assume responsibility for the management of their own differences than manager-directed teams because each member takes responsibility for the diversely-related team outcomes. They are more concerned and motivated than other teams to work together.

5.2.2 Virtual teams

Virtual teams involve the performance of activities and tasks, which is made possible by today's vast network of telecommunications, information technology and electronics (Katzenbach & Smith, 2003). The computer and technology continue to redefine how and where work is done. A virtual team is not bound by traditional team time, practices or locality and does not follow the traditional models of a team approach. Solomon (2001), Horwitz, Bravington & Silvis (2006) and Bergiel, Bergiel and Balsmeier (2008) define virtual teams as those that rely on technology to work together, even though the team is physically separated and employs emails, bulletin boards, instant messages, teleconferencing, meeting managers, web casts and videoconferencing.

Culturally diverse virtual teams have distinct benefits for diversity management, because members of virtual teams do not make physical contact and physical differences are less pronounced. This decreases resistance, which often develops during interaction between diverse members.

Traditionally, teams only operated in a face-to-face environment, with regular meetings and postponing interventions if one team member was unable to attend. In the modern high-tech and time-pressured business environment, the challenges of a team are growing and organisations have to adapt. Technology, globalisation, time constraints and growing competition create an environment in which teams are logistically spread and do not even operate in the same time zones (Ale Ebrahim, Ahmed & Taha, 2009; Horwitz *et al.*, 2006; Robbins *et al.*, 2004).

From a diversity management perspective, this may sometimes have a detrimental effect on cohesion and effective communication (Bergiel *et al.*, 2008; McShane & Von Glinow, 2003; Verghese, 2006).

5.2.3 High performance teams

The main characteristic of a high performance team is that a group of employees work in harmony and accomplish more than what they would have accomplished if they had worked on their own (Dalton, 1996; Greenberg & Baron, 2003). When synergy occurs in a diverse team, the team is more effective because of the variety of skills, strengths and talents that are integrated and available in the team.

The unique attributes of a high performance team are sharing responsibility, participative leadership, aligned purposes, the assurance of high communication levels, a future focus, a focus on tasks, the development creative talents and rapid responses (Greenberg & Baron, 2003; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001).

As in managing diversity, managers need to focus on the following five key success factors when establishing and managing diverse high performance teams (Rosenthal, 2007):

- Ensure a meaningful and shared purpose.
- Set challenging and specific goals.
- Determine a collaborative and common approach.
- Clarify roles.
- Ensure matching skills.

Because the harmony increases in a team when the diversity challenges such as cooperation are effectively managed, the diverse team takes on the characteristics of a high performance team, and actually performs better.

5.3 TEAM MODELS

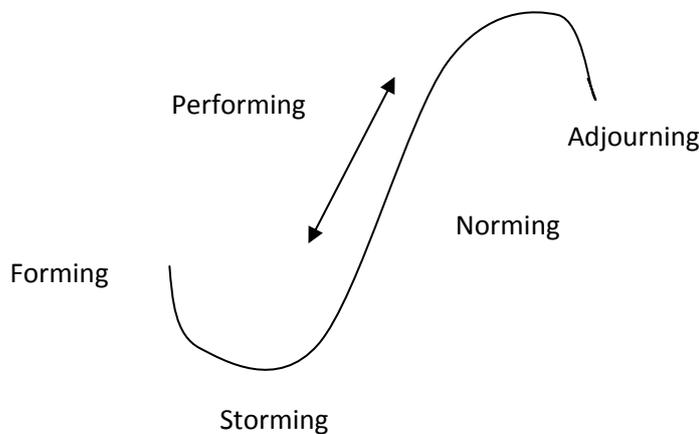
The team models discussed in this section focus on the way in which teams are developed as well as the different stages of team development. Different models for team development are discussed in this chapter, namely the stages of team development model, the changing patterns of team development model, the punctuated equilibrium model and the script-enacting model for team development. The stages of team development model, changing patterns of team development model, the punctuated equilibrium model, the integrated model of team development, the orientation-and-reinforcement model, the integrated theoretical model for teambuilding and the theoretical constructs that affect teamwork development will be discussed below.

5.3.1 Stages of team development model (Tuckman & Jenson)

Tuckman and Jenson (1977) conducted prominent research on the stages of team development. The researcher decided to include this model in the discussion, because it emulates the development of a diverse workforce team and the development of a sports team as applied in this research.

According to Tuckman and Jenson (1977), there are five stages of team development, which include forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning. According to the authors, all these stages are inevitable and necessary to enable the team to develop and grow, confront challenges, resolve problems and implement and identify solutions in order to achieve a desired result. Figure 5.1 depicts the stages of team development model with its five stages, which will then be discussed.

Figure 5.1: Stages of team development model



Source: Adapted from Tuckman & Jenson (1977, pp. 419 - 427)

5.3.1.1 Forming

During this stage, the team is formed. It is characterised by high uncertainty about the team's goals and purpose, feelings of anxiety, tentativeness and awkwardness, but the members are motivated and enthusiastic to achieve the goals (Tuckman & Jenson, 1977; Weaver & Farrell, 1997; Whichard & Kees, 2006). If the members' motivation and enthusiasm overcome their feelings of anxiety, tentativeness and awkwardness, the team is able to move to the next stage. However, if the members' feelings of anxiety and awkwardness are higher than their motivation and enthusiasm, the team could dissolve.

5.3.1.2 Storming

As the team starts to work and the dynamic focus of teamwork becomes more apparent, the members enter the stage in which different agendas, ideas, work styles and approaches

compete for consideration (Bilder, 1989; Spiegel & Torres, 1994; Tuckman & Jenson, 1977). This stage is characterised by conflict both inside and outside the team, frustration because of role vagueness, competitiveness between employees for influence and strong resistance to the development of the team (Harris & Sherblom, 2011; Whichard & Kees, 2006). This stage is crucial for the team because the members feel that they are unable to work together. Many teams break up during this phase. Some teams become so concerned with the conflict during this stage, that they attempt to avoid it, but in avoiding conflict, they also suppress or avoid key aspects of the team's issues.

5.3.1.3 Norming

Once the conflict decreases, the team begins their process of establishing protocols and procedures and resolving differences in order to accomplish their goals (Tuckman & Jenson, 1977; Weaver & Farrell, 1997). This stage is characterised by clarifying responsibilities and roles, shifting from interpersonal relationships to decision-making activities relating to the team's resolving differences, task accomplishment, rededication and negotiation between team members to accomplish their specific goals (Jones & George, 2009). Respect, trust and harmony become commonplace during the norming stage (Harris & Sherblom, 2011; Whichard & Kees, 2006). The team members feel as if they are trusted and appreciated and they are determined to work towards the team's goals.

5.3.1.4 Performing

This stage is characterised by the achievement of consistency, interdependence of team members, excellent results and performance and high levels of team satisfaction (Tuckman & Jenson, 1977; Whichard & Kees, 2006). The team members are knowledgeable, autonomous, competent, capable and motivated to handle the decision-making process without supervision (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly & Konopaske, 2009). Respectful disagreement and dissent are allowed and expected as long as the members are channelled through the means that are acceptable to the team (Gilley, 2005). The team produces the expected outputs, conflicts are addressed and role clarity is continuous without experiencing negative consequences that were common during the earlier stages (Jones & George, 2009). During this stage the team experiences both team effectiveness and a high performance impact (Katzenbach & Smith, 2003).

During this stage the team is likely to have periods of silence, because of tension as the members withdraw from the team or they try to think what to say next. The performing stage

describes the team's willingness to work together to settle specific norms and rules on how decisions will be made and discussions should take place (Harris & Sherblom, 2011).

5.3.1.5 Adjourning

Adjourning is the final stage of team development. The emphasis is on wrapping up the job, and task performance is no longer the priority of the team members (Draft & Marcic, 2009; Tuckman & Jenson, 1977). The members of the team may feel happy about accomplishing the mission, but they also feel sad about the loss of association and friendship, as well as heightened emotionality, regret and depression and strong cohesiveness over the team disbandment (Draft & Marcic, 2009). As a way of achieving completeness and closure, the team leader may celebrate the team's disbanding by honouring the members of the team by providing awards and/or plaques for a project well done (Jones & George, 2009; Tuckman & Jenson, 1977). Harris and Sherblom (2011) argue that this stage is crucial in the team's development. The way in which the group members terminate their activities affects the way they will interpret what they have experienced and accomplished as a team and what they expect of the team in future. The team's disclosure, feelings of accomplishments in their tasks and the positive relational expression are all key aspects of team development.

Weaver and Farrell (1997) identified four constructs that affect teamwork development namely (1) charge and charter theory, (2) change curve (elaboration on Tuckman & Jenson's [1977] stages of team development model), (3) performance curve theory, and (4) synergistic relationship theory.

a The charge and charter theory applied to the stages development model

The charge and charter theory is a theoretical construct that affects teamwork development (Weaver & Farrell, 1997; Whichard & Kees, 2006). When a team's charge and charter are defined early in the team development process, team clarity will be improved.

Team charge involves the overall tasks or assignments that must be achieved, and this is a fairly straightforward process (Whichard & Kees, 2006). The charge must be stated as concisely and specifically as possible to give the team members a clear focus throughout the team's assignments.

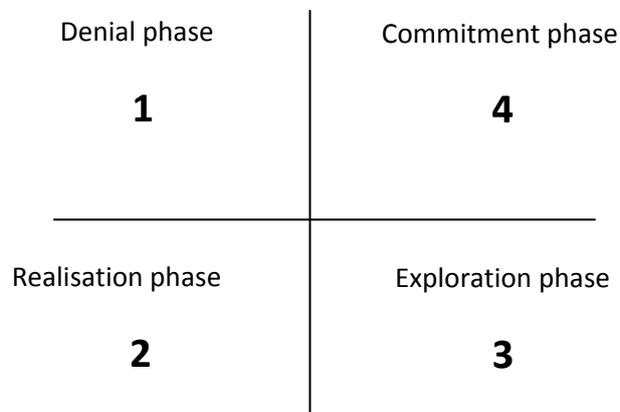
The charter is the explanation on how the team functions (Whichard & Kees, 2006). Charters have the following four components: the purpose of the team's existence, how the team relates

to the organisational strategy, to whom the team is responsible to and how it will benefit an organisation (Whichard & Kees, 2006).

b The change curve theory applied to the stages development model

Another theoretical construct that has an effect on team development is the change curve. It encompasses four quadrants (figure 5.2) which represent the phases employees experience when they start a new project or when they experience a major change (Bilder, 1989). These characteristics of the change curve will be discussed below.

Figure 5.2: Change curve as a theoretical construct that affects the team stages development model



Source: Adapted from Gilley, Morris, Waite, Coates and Veliquete (2010, p. 22)

Quadrant 1 is the denial phase, which is recognised as a period of uninformed enthusiasm because the team members lack knowledge about the complexity of the project. During this period, when the team members feel enthusiastic about joining the team, they believe that the assignments they will work on will positively influence the organisation. This period is also equated with Tuckman and Jenson’s (1977) forming stage during team development.

In quadrant 2, the team members realise the complexity of their assignment and start to realise how difficult it may be to achieve the goals. A state of uncertainty leads to a state of informed scepticism (Bilder, 1989; Gilley, 2005). Some of the team members start to resist change. This stage is also known as the resistance phase which is also equated with Tuckman and Jenson’s (1977) storming stage during the development of a team.

In quadrant 3, progress (exploration) is made in the team which reflects the storming stage during the development of the team (Bilder, 1989). During this stage, the realities of the team are perceived more positively (Whichard & Kees, 2006). The team members agree and accept the values, shared methods, working styles and professional behaviour of the team.

The last quadrant represents the commitment stage during which members of the team accept their charge and charter and perform results that increase team effectiveness and performance impact (Katzenbach & Smith, 2003). The team members are committed to the new way in which things are done and are totally focused on achieving the goals (Bilder, 1989). The team members can utilise collective energies and realise the positive full impact of generating the goals required. This commitment stage is equated with Tuckman and Jenson's (1977) performance stage of team development. Unfortunately not all teams reach this stage of team development because they are sometimes unable to effectively manage their team members through the previous three stages (Bilder, 1989; Gibson *et al.*, 2009; Klein, DiazGranados, Salas, Le, Burke, Lyons & Goodwin, 2009).

c The performance curve theory applied to the stages development model

The performance curve demonstrates the relationship between team effectiveness and performance impact. As teams develop and mature they start to produce improved performance results which positively increase team effectiveness. According to Katzenbach and Smith (2003), high performance teams are the only teams that maximise team effectiveness and performance impact.

d The synergistic relationship theory applied to the stages development model

Gilley and Boughton (1996) introduced the synergistic relationship theory. The relationship skills in a team allow the members to improve their relationship with others to enable them to build a comfortable, nonthreatening, positive communication climate which encourages others to discuss organisational problems, issues and ideas honestly and openly without any fear of reprisal. Synergistic relationships reflect the interdependence of employees working towards a specific goal, which simultaneously provides for development and growth opportunities for employees and the organisation.

These relationships have the following five benefits: they build and enhance the managers' and employees' self-esteem; they enhance productivity; they build and enhance organisational communication; they build and enhance organisational understanding; and they build and

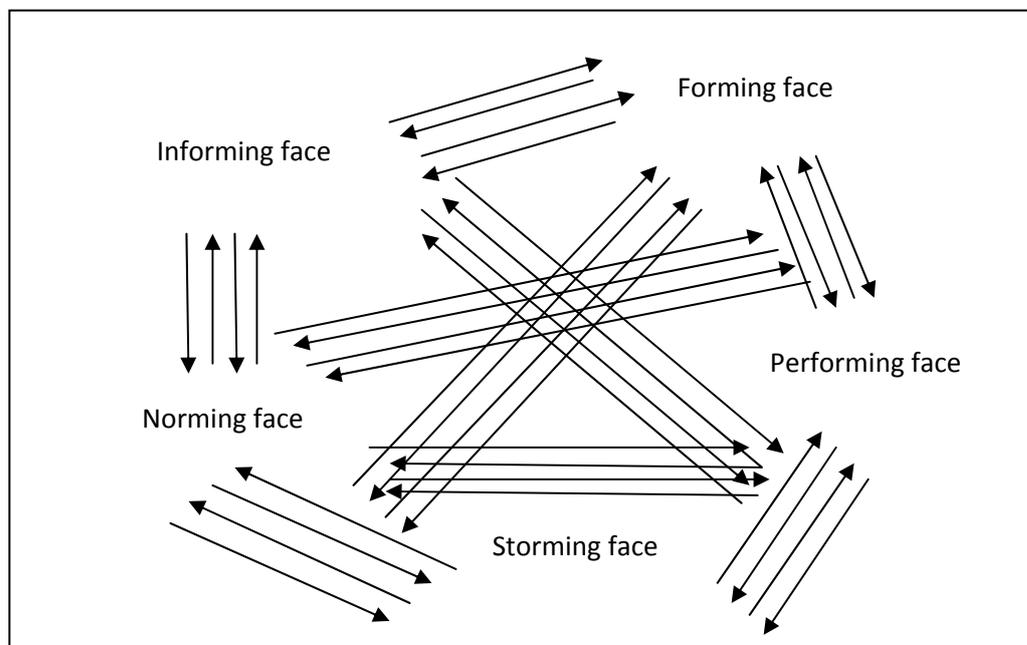
enhance organisational commitment (Gilley & Boughton, 1996). When the members of the team demonstrate synergistic relationships through caring, cooperation and mutual respect, they can unlock world-class results (Whichard & Kees, 2006).

Tuckman and Jenson's (1977) model is probably the most utilised model for discussing the dynamics of teamwork (Langan-Fox, Anglim & Wilson, 2004). It is also suitable for planning and conducting diversity management interventions. Diversity managers are able to determine in which stage of team development the team is and then choose and implement an intervention that suits the needs of the specific stage.

5.3.2 The changing patterns of team development model (Kur)

The researcher decided to include the changing patterns of team development model in the current research because Kur (1996) emphasises the changing patterns during the team development process – hence the so-called “changing patterns model”. According to Kur (1996), work teams go through five changing patterns of team development stages (as depicted in figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3: The five changing patterns model



Source: Kur (1996, p. 33)

This model assumes that a team “wears one face and then another face” in no specific order, unless the members of the team are forced to engage in a specific pattern of behaviour or wear a specific face. According to Kur (1996), his model is more powerful, encompassing and forgiving than sequential development models. It therefore has an enhanced utility value for implementing diversity management interventions than the stages model.

5.3.3 The punctuated equilibrium model (Gersick)

The punctuated equilibrium model proposed by Gersick (1989a) does not follow the stages of team development and can therefore be regarded as a new model that explains Gersick’s observations. The researcher decided to postulate the punctuated equilibrium model because some diverse teams and sports teams do not follow the same stages as the stages of the team development model owing to the fact that the teams are influenced by the circumstances at a specific point in time.

Teams can conduct a task until a midpoint transition (work break) when the members of the team re-evaluate their work and must decide whether to take a new direction (Gersick, 1988) or decide to progress to more distinct and advanced stages (e.g. Tuckman and Jenson’s team development stages – forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning).

According to Gersick (1988), teams form rapidly, influenced by the stage in which they would continue within the first few minutes of their meeting. There are quick agreements on the project objectives and on how the team should work together to achieve the objectives. The project objectives and the reasons for the team members working together remain unchanged until a temporal midpoint (work break) is reached. Initial work, however, is often unproductive and unfocused.

Table 5.1: Characteristics of the punctuated equilibrium model

Characteristics of the punctuated equilibrium model	
First meeting to midpoint (first stage)	Quick adoption of task goals
	Quick adoption of work processes and team roles
	Long period of interaction matching original pattern
	Task performance unfocused prior to midpoint
	Focus on time at the midpoint
	Questioning/shift of work processes at the midpoint

Midpoint transition to the end of the project (second stage)	Questioning/shift of task goals at the midpoint
	Increased task performance after the midpoint
	Increased task activity
	Increased attention to role in team

Source: Dennis *et al.* (2008, p. 28)

During the temporal midpoint, all the teams undergo a series of essential changes (midpoint transition). The members of the team become aware of the time that has passed, and this triggers them to rethink the tasks. The teams begin to question the objectives and the way in which they function, which leads to a shift in the objectives and/or work methods.

The second stage is characterised by an increased focus on the project and improved task performance. Research has shown that although some teams evaluate their processes and progress, not all teams implement change. The midpoint recess affords an opportunity for transition but does not guarantee that a transition will take place (Okhuysen & Eisenhardt, 2002; Okhuysen & Waller, 2002).

The punctuated equilibrium model and the stages of team development model coexist because they function at two different levels of analysis. The focus of the punctuated equilibrium model is on how the team functions on specific projects, while the focus of the stages of team development model is on the overall development of the team (Chang, Bordia & Duck, 2003).

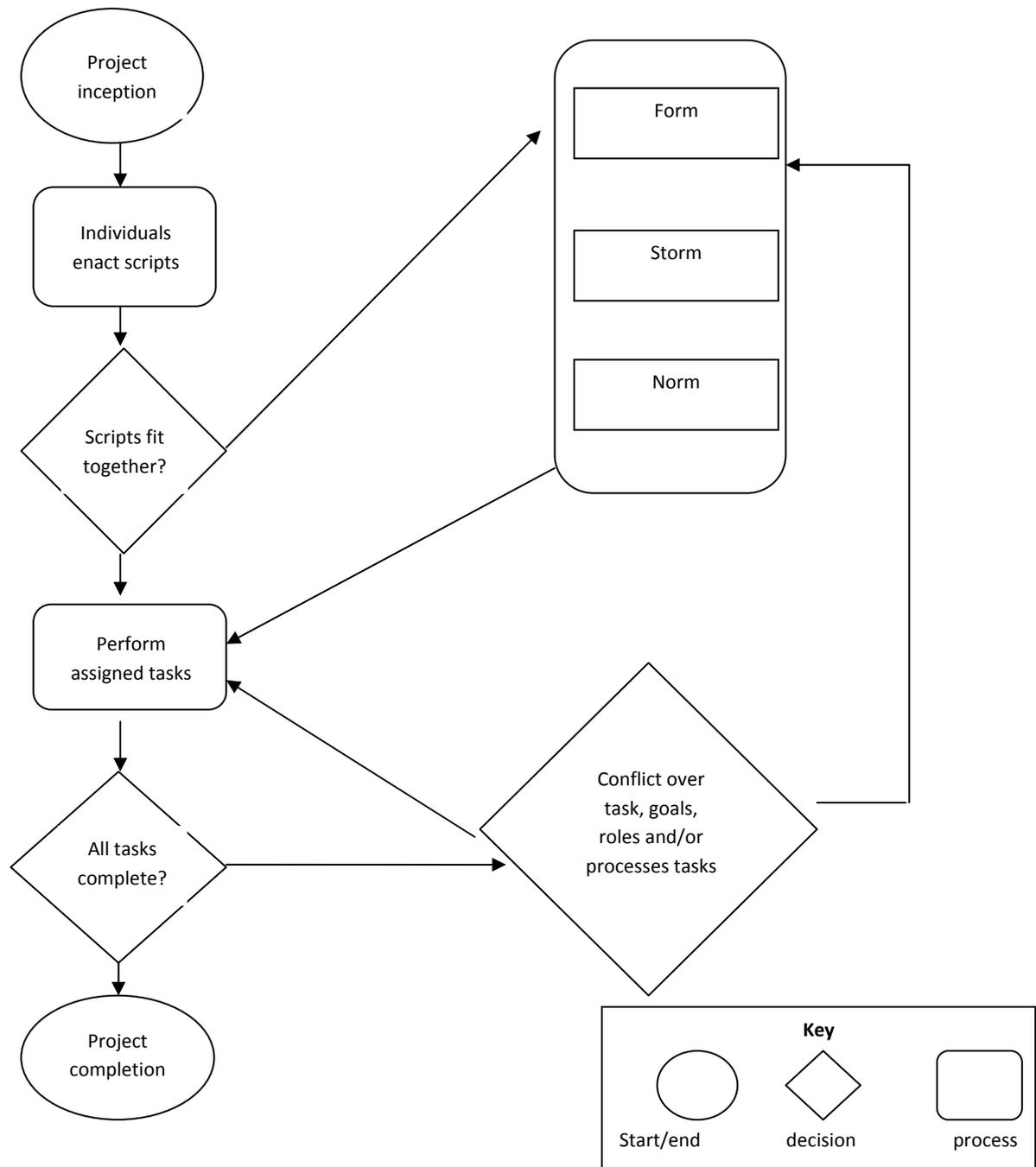
The punctuated equilibrium model includes specific task-related actions, while the stage model includes components of the team's social and emotional interaction patterns. Both these models describe different aspects of the team's process of development. Studies have shown that the performing stage of the stage model matches the post-midpoint transition actions in the punctuated equilibrium model (Chang *et al.*, 2003).

The potential value of the punctuated equilibrium model for diversity management lies mainly in the greater flexibility it provides. Different teams do not necessarily develop through all the stages, and some of the stages can be omitted because of their unique circumstances. Diversity managers can design the diversity intervention to focus on the specific needs at that point in the development of the team.

5.3.4 The script-enacting model (Dennis, Garfield & Reinicke)

Figure 5.4 depicts the script-enacting model.

Figure 5.4: The script-enacting model



Source: Dennis *et al.* (2008, p. 27)

This model indicates that when team members come together, they enact scripts which they believe fit into the situation. If these scripts fit in with the scripts of the other team members, the

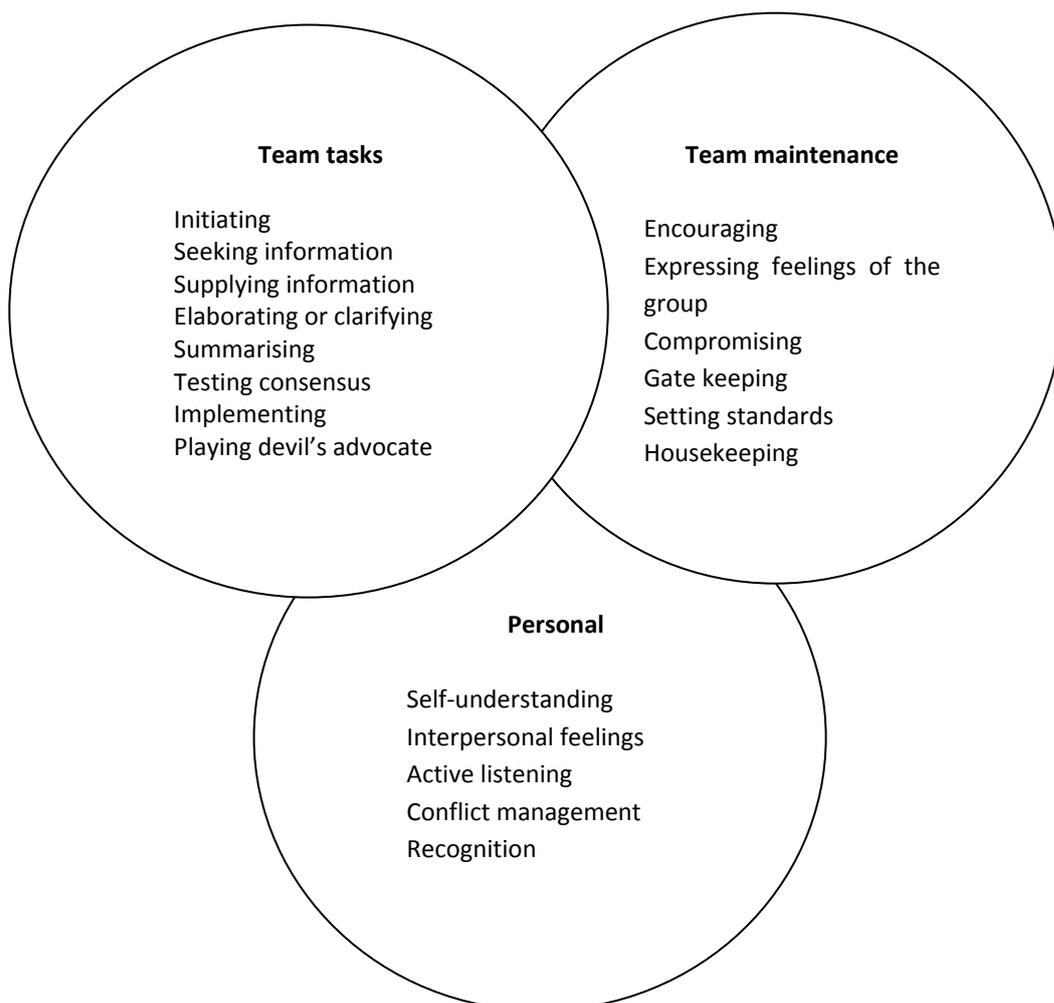
members of the team will endorse those shared scripts and start to perform their task activities. However, should a team member lack a script to fit into the situation or when there is disagreement about the task objectives, the team members will first have to form, storm and norm effectively before they can complete the task (Dennis *et al.*, 2008).

The potential contribution of the script-enacting model to diversity management is mainly the fact that it emphasises the importance of sharing a vision and the flexibility it allows in the adjustment of the areas and visions of individual members.

5.4 GENERIC COMPETENCIES AND ACTIONS REQUIRED FOR TEAMWORK

A number of generic competencies and actions are required for the team to work effectively. These are indicated in figure 5.5 and then discussed.

Figure 5.5: Competencies and actions required for effective teamwork



Source: Adapted from Scholtes (1988, p. 2)

The team's success depends on three categories of competencies, that is, task, maintenance and personal competencies (McConnell, 2000; Scholtes, 1988). The generic competencies required for teamwork are also relevant for managing diversity interventions. Without the effective implementation of the task, maintenance and personal competencies represented in figure 5.5 and discussed below, it is not possible to enhance mutual respect and trust which are intrinsic in managing diversity.

5.4.1 Task competencies

Task competencies help the team to stay directed and focused in achieving their goals. Further characteristics of task functions are discussed below (McConnell, 2000; Scholtes, 1988).

- *Initiating actions to conduct the task.* Initiation is any action taken to help the members of the diverse team to start working together towards a specific purpose. Possible initiating actions may be to advise on a process to advance the team's task towards the next stage, for example, brainstorming a problem flowchart or evaluating gathered data and measure options. The initiating stage can also be a recap the progress to date and to ask for suggestions on the next step that needs to be taken (Chrusciel, 2005; Taveira, 2008).
- *Seeking information.* This activity is concerned with relevant questions to be asked, that is, questions about executing the team's tasks. This can be done through interaction in the team such as a brainstorming session (Huang & Hwang, 2009; Lizzio & Wilson, 2006).
- *Providing information.* Information about the task is provided to the team in the form of beliefs, ideas, opinions or facts. This is often also seen as a leadership function when direction is given. Members of the team usually participate with enthusiasm, but care has to be taken that one or two members do not dominate the scene or the contributions of other team members may be inhibited. Providing information is usually relevant when progress is slow and new ideas are needed (Huang & Hwang, 2009; Lizzio & Wilson, 2006).
- *Elaborating or clearing up confusion.* Clearing up confusion about the task, raising related issues, interpreting ideas and identifying alternatives are all various ways of elaborating on and clarifying the activities the team need to do. Clarification is needed to, say, focus the direction towards the team. Team members often have the skills to listen carefully to others, and it is therefore necessary to repeat certain information, often in a different form,

before the members in the team become aware of what the goal is. Clarification is required or else the team members may think they have agreed on certain issues, but this agreement is in fact based on a misunderstanding of the views of the other team members.

Elaborating and clarifying are actions that ensure that every team member knows what his or her role is in the task. Flowcharts are often used in this process. When a flowchart is drawn, a common understanding is reflected in the team, and all the members can usually see the complex concepts and logical connections in the form of a holistic view (Huang & Hwang, 2009; Lizzio & Wilson, 2006).

- *Regularly summarising progress.* Summarising happens when progress in attaining the task is assessed, related issues are integrated and goals are restated after they have been discussed. It actually involves taking stock of where the team currently is, which will help them to move closer to the goal (Law, 2007; Lizzio & Wilson, 2006).
- *Consensus seeking regarding the task.* Consensus seeking is done to determine whether the team is nearing a decision or conclusion in relation to the task to be accomplished. The aim is to determine the degree to which the team is in agreement. A team often reaches the point where evaluation and further discussion are unnecessary, but there is unwillingness to bring the project to finality because they are unable to reach consensus (Chrusciel, 2005; Taveira, 2008).
- *Implementing team planning.* Implementation towards achieving the goal (task) occurs when the team's decision is put into action, and this requires assigning responsibility, delegating authority and accepting personal commitments (Chrusciel, 2005; Taveira, 2008).
- *Playing devil's advocate.* This action to question the goals or the process used to achieve them is essentially for leaders, and it is performed if there is a suspicion that the team has reached consensus or agreement on an issue too quickly. Members of the team often agree too easily on an issue because they have preconceived views that need to be challenged by some of the team members (Stone & Redmer, 2006; Taveira, 2008).

5.4.2 Team maintenance competencies

The team maintenance competencies relate to managing the relationships between team members effectively and keeping the team spirits high. The guidelines during the maintenance functions are discussed below (McConnell, 2000; Scholtes, 1988).

- *Encouraging the team.* This simply means being responsive to others, giving them due recognition and consciously helping them to feel they are valuable members of the team. Those members who make the most valuable contributions in a team are often also those who support and encourage other team members (Stone & Redmer, 2006; Taveira, 2008).
- *Expressing the feelings of the team.* To maintain a high level of motivation in the team, the subconscious feelings of team members need to be identified, discussed and then resolved. Express the team's feelings also mean picking up or sensing the mood of the team at appropriate times, identifying the underlying issues to be discussed and resolving them (Chrusciel, 2006; Law, 2007).
- *Compromising ideas.* To ensure effective cooperation, team members sometimes have to compromise on their ideas and positions. Deliberately reversing their attitudes at appropriate times leads to the effective use of compromise. By conceding on minor issues, the reputation of team members is enhanced and mutual respect is developed (Taveira, 2008).
- *Gatekeeping the communication channels.* To maintain effective team member cooperation, the communication channels need to be kept open at all times in the team. This involves restraining those team members who block communication by talking constantly and encouraging those who withdraw or find it difficult to enter a discussion (Chrusciel, 2006; Law, 2007).
- *Setting and maintaining high standards in the team.* To maintain a high level of cohesion in the team, standards should be clearly set and maintained. Maintaining standards implies imbedding self-discipline in the team. Teams with poor self-discipline will find it difficult to cooperate and perform (Stone & Redmer, 2006).
- *Housekeeping in the team.* Housekeeping is necessary for effective team maintenance because it provides feedback to each team member and makes him or her aware of the team's progress. This function is normally fulfilled by means of minute keeping, team discussions and internal notifications (Chrusciel, 2006; Law, 2007).

5.4.3 Personal competencies

A number of generic personal competencies also contribute to a team's effectiveness (McConnell, 2000; Scholtes, 1988), as highlighted below.

- *Team members' self-understanding.* Self-understanding refers to the ability of the members of the team to see their own actions, reactions and behaviours in context and objectively. This will make a difference on how well they communicate with other members in the team and how well they are able to identify and avoid potentially destructive conflict (Taveira, 2008).
- *Interpersonal understanding of other team members.* Interpersonal understanding means comprehending the other team members' points of view. Achieving this will lead to increased tolerance. When team members feel that they are understood better, they feel more accepted in the team and participate more actively (Chrusciel, 2006).
- *The ability to listen actively.* The ability to listen actively improves the team members' interpersonal communication. Active listening involves continuously focusing on what the other team members have to say. One team member has to wait until another team member has finished making a point and persuade the other team members to confirm their understanding of what is being said by reflecting their message back to them, before putting down their own ideas. Active listening also implies making a conscious attempt to understand the other team members' views (Huang & Hwang, 2009; Law, 2007; Taveira, 2008).
- *Conflict management ability.* The competency of managing conflict effectively is imperative for effective team work. The leader of the team needs to pursue an agenda with each member's different views but which also prevents argumentation about promoting effective decision making and progress. Limited conflict may stimulate team activity. However, too much interpersonal conflict wastes too much energy that could have been used to achieve the team's goals. Excessive conflict leads to disruptive behaviours and poor team member cooperation (Chrusciel, 2006; Stone & Redmer, 2006).
- *Ability to give recognition to team members.* Recognition of a team member's contribution to the achievement of the goal usually improves team performance. The team member receives positive feedback, which enhances his or her confidence and security.

Recognition will also improve participation and motivation. A team can only be effective as a team when all the task, maintenance and personal competencies are present (Chrusciel, 2006; Stone & Redmer, 2006).

5.5 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO TEAM SUCCESS

According to Hackman (2002), an effective team has five characteristics. Firstly, every team needs a clear goal and direction to evaluate performance and focus on its efforts. Secondly, the team needs an effective leader to manage the external and internal relations of the team and familiarise them with the team goals. Thirdly, the team needs tasks that are suitable for teamwork. Teams need clear directions towards their tasks and goals. Fourthly, the team needs appropriate resources (human resources, material and finances) to enable them to perform the tasks. Finally, they also need a supportive organisational environment that assigns adequate authority and power to allow the members to implement and make decisions.

Levi (2007) mentions additional characteristics for effective team functioning. He contends that a team needs to develop skills in social relations to enable them to function smoothly and resolve internal conflicts. A team also requires objectives and fair criteria to evaluate the outputs they produce, as well as specific and clear criteria to evaluate the performance of the team members specifically in relation to the team's contributions (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). The team members should also be rewarded when the team is successful (Clutterbuck, 2007).

According to Johnson, Heimann and O'Neill (2000), a well-structured team has the following five essential elements:

- *Positive interdependence.* A team is unable to succeed if the other members of the group are unsuccessful.
- *Face-to-face interaction.* The members in a team interact with one another to help the team to attain the goals set and to promote each member's success.
- *Personal responsibility.* Each team member is accountable for doing his or her part of the work.
- *Teamwork skills.* Team members use trust building, conflict management, communication and decision-making skills.

- *Group processing.* Team members describe what actions are helpful or unhelpful and make decisions about change.

According to Flynn (1997) and Johnson *et al.* (2000), teams are successful when the following conditions prevail:

- The members feel empowered because they feel that their work is meaningful and their contribution will make a difference.
- The members act on what they feel is right because they are active participants and arrive at meetings prepared.
- The members are not afraid to take risks because they understand the benefits of implementing unusual ideas.
- The members search for answers because they want to contribute to the team's success.
- The members are part of a solution and ask for help because there is trust between the team members and they all feel an integral part of the team. The team members are able to effectively communicate with one another without any fear.

Team members need to work together in a team because successful participation in a team improves the leadership skills and morale of members in a team and improves processes, procedures and productivity in an organisation (Gibson *et al.*, 2009, Klein *et al.*, 2009; Spiegel & Torres, 1994).

Successful teams need to fit into the organisation because teams are never completely independent or self-directed. The progress of the team should be monitored by junior managers. If not, the team members may lose direction if they are not kept informed and reminded of the organisation's overall goals (Frohman, 1995, Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012).

5.6 FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO TEAM FAILURES

Although a team may have various advantages for an organisation, teams often yield unsatisfactory results. Teams are normally composed of smart, hardworking and successful members who are effective in their own area of expertise, but they often fail to realise their potential and to perform because of distinct factors (Hart, 1996; Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012).

There are many studies on why teams fail and the results show that the managers are mostly to blame. Managers often do not budget sufficient money and spend enough time with the team. They also do not provide sufficient training and coaching. The lack of a long-term vision and planning sometimes also results in the failure of the team (Beyerlein, McGee, Klein, Nemiro & Broedling, 2003; Holpp & Phillips, 1995; Lick, 2006).

Although it is easy to blame a manager for poor team performance, it is often the team members themselves who are to blame (Baiden, Price & Dainty, 2006; Richardson, 1995). A team's failure is a two-way street. Managers need to be more committed and team members need to take responsibility for their own shortcomings and problems.

Johnson *et al.* (2000), Richardson (1995) and Lick (2006) state the following reasons for team failure:

- Members do not listen to one another because they think they already know what is expected of them.
- The goals and the tasks are unclear because the team members are unable to communicate effectively with one another.
- A few team members dominate meetings because they think their own ideas are the best.
- Members have other personal agendas and seek the manager's approval because they want to enhance their personal goals.
- Original ideas from some team members are ignored because they are not approved as members in the team.
- The team members have not been briefed and are unable to work effectively together.
- Team members do not buy into the goals and therefore have no or little enthusiasm or passion to succeed.

According to Hart (1996), a team may fail because the members do not know themselves as a team. They are unaware of how other team members think and are unable to recognise and avoid the barriers to team learning. All members have a responsibility to encourage members

to discuss and listen to new ideas. Glacel (1997) maintains that when the hierarchy in a team is too strong, it will not perform as required.

Teams sometimes also fail to perform when the context is inadequate, for example insufficient time for meetings, a lack of decision-making authority, inadequate resources and a lack of coordinated work schedules (Wageman, 1997). Self-managed teams are sometimes introduced because they are more adaptable and can overcome the limitations caused by the organisation's circumstances.

5.7 A DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE OF THE GENERIC ADVANTAGES OF EFFECTIVE WORK TEAMS

Many of the characteristics of effective work teams also contribute to the attainment of the goals of diversity management in the organisation (Jackson, Joshi & Erhardt, 2003; Van Knippenberg, De Dreu & Homan, 2004).

The benefits of effective work teams for generic diversity management are discussed below (Scarnati, 2001):

5.7.1 Work teams create win-win situations

The win-win situations that are often present in effective teams usually also enhance diversity management objectives such as participation and cooperation. The employee's view of "I" and "me" is transformed to "we" and "us". When members of a team benefit and learn from one another, a win-win situation is created. A win-win situation can only be accomplished through working on the talents and strengths of each employee as well as supporting one another in order to reduce weaknesses (Scarnati, 2001; Shah, 2010).

5.7.2 Work teams ensure unity

When unity has been achieved in a work team, a vital diversity management objective has also been achieved. To help a team accelerate its performance, the team members must be of diverse age groups, disciplines or backgrounds. When team members are sensitive to, respect and see the other members' points of view as important, the trust level and unity in the team will increase (Scarnati, 2001; Shah, 2010).

5.7.3 Work teams enhance synergy

The synergy that is created in work teams is also beneficial to attaining diversity management objectives. When work synergy has been attained, a major step has been taken towards managing diversity in the organisation effectively (Scarnati, 2001; Shah, 2010).

5.7.4 Work teams enhance cohesiveness

The cohesiveness that develops between work team members helps to achieve diversity management goals such as mutual support for one another across cultural, racial, gender and other diversity borders (Scarnati, 2001; Shah, 2010).

5.7.5 Work teams increase innovation and problem-solving skills

The innovation and problem-solving skills that are usually developed in effective work teams also enable diverse work teams to solve intergroup and interpersonal problems with greater competence.

Employees' strengths and skills vary immensely, and when they are combined, new ideas and knowledge emerge. The team members can combine these common interests and ideas and create a knowledgeable and interesting project (Scarnati, 2001). When the specific skill basis and personality types are recognised, a random group of employees can be structured to change into a highly effective team because the team as a whole can deliver more than each individual member.

5.7.6 Effective work teams develop a positive attitude towards other employee groups

The intrinsic dynamics of work teams often develop positive mutual attitudes between diverse team members. It is relatively easier to manage relationships in diverse work groups when mutual positive attitudes already exist in the organisation (Collins, 1996; Lin, 2007).

5.7.7 Effective work teams increase feelings of uniqueness among employees

When employees feel unique and special about their contribution in the work team, they are more inclined to cooperate with employees from different backgrounds when performing their diversity management tasks (Banki, 2010; Carley, 1996; Janssen, 2008).

5.7.8 Effective teams increase two-way communication between diverse employees

Effective two-way communication, which is a requirement for effective team functioning, is also a prerequisite of diversity management. The team must recognise that they exist in an organisational context and their goals should be aligned with the other units in the organisation. This success in teams depends on sharing knowledge and effective communication between team members (Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi & Mohammed, 2007; Bergiel *et al*, 2008; McDermott, Waite & Brawly, 1999; Townsend & DeMarie, 1998).

5.7.9 Effective teams increase creativity among diversity employees

The increase in creativity that is often achieved in work teams is also beneficial for diversity management. Creative teams are better equipped to solve interpersonal and intergroup diversity issues (Bergiel *et al.*, 2008; Johnson *et al.*, 2000; Helfgott, 1994).

5.7.10 Effective teams create a supportive environment in a diverse organisation

Effective teamwork breaks down the barriers of resistance between diverse employees and lays the foundation for participation to mutually support each employee. Cooperation between team members results in greater productivity and higher achievements, greater self-esteem and psychological health and more committed and caring relationships (Carson *et al*, 2007; Johnson *et al.*, 2000).

5.8 A DIVERSITY PERSPECTIVE OF THE SPECIFIC ADVANTAGES OF PARTICIPATION IN A TEAM FOR THE INDIVIDUAL TEAM MEMBERS

From a diversity management perspective, the membership of a work team has specific advantages for the individual team member. Participation in an effective team therefore supports diversity management initiatives to improve cooperation and the relationship between individual team members.

5.8.1 Belonging

The individual team members are accepted in the team because of the contribution they make towards attaining the team's goals. This feeling of belonging that is created addresses a basic requirement for managing diversity effectively. Employees who feel that they belong in a team are integrated in the team (Hoover, 2002; Rink & Ellemers, 2007).

5.8.2 **Self-worth**

A team member who applies his skills and contributes meaningfully to attaining the team's objectives develops a feeling of self-worth. This feeling of self-worth is conducive to developing personal security and engaging in sound interpersonal relationships in the workplace (Hoover, 2002; Johnson, Selenta & Lord, 2006).

5.9 **A DIVERSITY PERSPECTIVE OF THE DISTINCT ADVANTAGES OF EFFECTIVE TEAM FUNCTIONING FOR THE ORGANISATION**

Effective team functioning often advances the organisation's diversity management objectives. These advantages for diversity management will be discussed below (Hoover, 2002).

5.9.1 **Flatter and shorter structures of command in the organisation**

Effective teams usually have flatter and shorter structures of command. Authority is shared by all the members and this usually enhances diversity management principles such as cooperation (Hoover, 2002; Song, 1994).

5.9.2 **Improved organisational communication**

Effective work teams rely on effective communication in the organisation. This effective communication is also a requirement for managing diverse employees (Baiden *et al.*, 2006, Hoover, 2002; Pearson, 1991).

5.9.3 **Effective teams enhance organisational development**

Effective work teams support organisational development in organisations because of the competence of individual team members is constantly improved. This also supports the attainment of diversity management objectives where an important outcome is to develop the competencies of employees from different backgrounds (Edmondson & Nembhard, 2009; Hoover, 2002; Webb, 1988).

5.9.4 **Effective teams improve the adaptability of the organisation**

Effective teams adapt fairly easily and this is transferred to developing more adaptability of the organisations. This enhances diversity management because one of the primary diversity management outcomes are to develop adaptable organisations in which organisational change can take place and employees from diverse backgrounds can be accommodated (Calarco & Gurvis, 2006; Hoover, 2002).

5.10 **SUMMARY**

According to Sundstorm, De Meuse and Futrell (1990) and Armstrong (2007), a team in a workplace is a small group of individuals who are interdependent and share responsibility for the outcomes of the organisation.

It is more difficult to form a team than a group, because a group that is formed on the basis of a certain commonality is not difficult, but the effectiveness of the group may vary. The interpersonal dynamics of a group may range from complete intolerance to complete compatibility, whereas the members of a team may be selected for their skills and not because of a single commonality. For example, in a sports team, each member has a function and purpose in the team, and the functional interpersonal dynamics will therefore determine the team's success (Carron & Hausenblas, 1998; Parkhouse, 2005).

When a team is effective, the diversity creates synergy. The close relationship between members in a team turns diversity into a source of strength. Diversity management is the place to begin to embrace the differences that a team can bring (Furr, Bonem & Herrington, 2000; Swanepoel *et al.*, 2008). Effective teamwork principles have much in common with the principles and methods of diversity management, and teams therefore make a major contribution to diversity management.

Chapter 6 will deal with diversity management through organisational team sport interventions, where organisational team sport is used as a medium to maximise the advantages of diversity in an organisation.

CHAPTER 6

SPORT INTERVENTIONS IN ORGANISATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

A number of organisations in South Africa introduce formal organisational team sport activities without any scientific knowledge on whether participation in team sport activities actually has any advantages for diversity management in the organisation (Bennett, 2009).

What constitutes a sports team? It is participants who are not equal in education, experience or talent, but have a desire to achieve the same goal, namely winning in sport. However, it is not always an easy task to persuade a group of participants, with varying skill and fitness levels, to perform as a team. Having a group of extremely talented participants does not guarantee success, but success is more often the result of a group of participants of lesser talent who want to work together to achieve a shared outcome (Cohn, 2008; Patrick, Ryan, Alfeld-Iiro, Fredricks, Hruda & Eccles, 1999).

Sports teams and work teams are similar in respect of important dynamics and characteristics. Both types of team aspire to achieve a purpose, that is, sports teams aspire to win and work teams aspire to attain their work targets. To achieve their purposes, the members of both types of team have to communicate, cooperate, solve problems, work according to a schedule and plan and execute effectively. Because of the intrinsic similarities in the dynamics and characteristics of sport and work teams, learning that occurs in one type of team (i.e. sports teams) can be transferred to work teams. If members learn to communicate, cooperate, plan and execute in a sports team, these competencies can be transferred to work teams as well. This is why exposure and training in sports teams competencies are largely also applicable to work teams (Henttonen, Janhonen, Johanson & Puumalainen, 2010; Katz, 2001).

Formal organisational team sport interventions also contribute to the integration of employees from diverse backgrounds into organisational sport teams because the common goal of winning unites the employees. Also, typical requirements for effective team functioning such as effective communication, cooperation, mutual respect, mutual trust and so forth, are also

requirements for effective diversity management interventions (Chandler, 2006; Joubert & De Beer, 2011).

In this chapter, team sport is discussed in the context of diversity. The contributions of organisational team sport interventions to effectively manage diversity are indicated. For instance, it will be argued that sport teams enhance diversity management because they afford individuals the opportunity to share common visions and goals, create individual commitment, promote cohesion in a team, advance mutual trust between employees, develop mutual respect between employees, stimulate communication between employees, improve employees' familiarity with other employees and develop a harmonious diversity culture.

In this chapter, the discourse on the transferability of learning from a sports team to a work team will be presented by discussing the similarities between sports teams and organisational teams.

6.2 THE CONTRIBUTION OF SPORT IN SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY

Participants and spectators who are involved in sport are afforded the opportunity through sport participation to learn about various cultures (Johnson, 2008). A basketball fanatic, McLeod, is of the opinion that sport cuts through all differences, be it culture, gender, religion, ethnicity or age. Sport can thus be used to overcome diversity constraints (Andrews, 2007).

According to Stander (2011), sport plays a key role in uniting people in South Africa. Sports teams are given creative new names and accepted and supported by the majority of the South African people. Examples of such teams are Bafana Bafana (soccer), Amma Bokke Bokke (rugby) and Ama Crokke Crokke (the Para Olympic teams). Sport also unifies people from different worlds in one country. Suddenly, blacks, whites, coloureds, Indians and apartheid and political enemies are supporting the same teams. The well-known slogan "one nation, one team" is an example of the unity among South African people.

Although the governing party triumphed during the first free election in April 1994, President Nelson Mandela realised that the country still had a "diversity bridge" to overcome. In the World Cup campaign of 1995, rugby became the first diverse communities of sport to contribute to uniting the people of South Africa. Historically, rugby was seen as a white South African sport. In 1995, Nelson Mandela agreed to host the Rugby World Cup in South Africa. The Springboks defeated the All Blacks and President Mandela, wearing a number six springbok jersey, congratulated the South African Rugby team on their victory. In so doing, he motivated both

black and white South Africans to share the common aspiration of winning the World Cup and united a culturally different nation. In Mandela's words, the humanity in health that our young democracy has come to symbolise and the unity in diversity are confirmed by your presence in South Africa today. I welcome you all in our rainbow nation (Carlin, 2008; Moller, Dickow & Harris, 1999; Steenberg & Strelitz, 1998).

The 1995 Rugby World Cup championship was a profoundly formative moment in the new South Africa's move away from emphasising only differences. Sport brought the different cultures together. For the first time, many South Africans felt that they were one nation and they were prepared to accept and adapt to enormous differences (Carlin, 2008; Moller *et al.*, 1999; Steenberg & Strelitz, 1998).

The fact that sport has its own section in every newspaper is indicative of the significance of sport in communities. In many organisations in South Africa, sport is used as an icebreaker, especially when there is no other common ground between diverse employees. Although women may not know every player's name or watch every game, they know who won the World Cup Cricket in 2011 (Johnson, 2008).

In a study conducted by Joubert and De Beer (2010), data were gathered with one-on-one interviews and focus group interviews. A sample of 26 participants working in financial organisations participated in this study. It was found that conversations about sport break down social barriers between employees because when employees, customers and shareholders talk about sport, the initial resistance towards one another seems to disappear. It was also found that conversations about sport are a common ground to build relationships because talking about sport is to share a common ground from where relationships may start developing. People also connect emotionally because sport connects people as it is pleasant to talk about sport. Conversations about sport are an icebreaker in situations where people do not know one another.

Sport has significant health and social advantages. Studies indicate that participants in sport enhance the participant's self-confidence. Equality, social interaction and social integration are encouraged when participants are part of a group or team. Sport can help overcome ignorance and discrimination (Maruhn, 2004).

If employees are happier and healthier, their employers will see the results in better quality of work and increased productivity. Sport can filter violent and aggressive behaviours because participants can "let off steam" (Maruhn, 2004). The Social Issues Research Centre (SIRC)

conducted research to assess the impact of the benefits and failures of organisational team sport interventions in the workplace. One-on-one interviews and focus group interviews were conducted with a sample of 2 000 employees whose ages ranged between 18 and 70 years. The results revealed that a total of 47% of the women and 40% of the men reported that they were more productive at work when they achieved success in sport, and 20% of the men and 12% of the women stated that their success in sport helped them to be more motivated in their workplace. The study further indicates that the participants held the perception that success in the Soccer World Cup in 2010 would have positively influenced their attitude to work. A total of 70% of the English men and 62% of the English women indicated that should England win, it would boost their work productivity and morale (Chandler, 2006).

Joubert and De Beer's (2010) study indicated that when participants take part in organisational team sport, it has advantages for the organisation because employees who play in sport are less sick and absent from work. This is because they are fitter. They calculated that if an organisation were able to bring absenteeism down by 5%, it would save millions a year.

Sport has different meaning and utility value to people (Plunkett Research Ltd., 2005), as indicated in the following examples:

- The sport of horse racing is also used for gambling when bets are placed on the horses.
- Sport is used for recreation and personal fitness when someone plays hockey.
- Professional sport teams such as Manchester United are owned and managed as companies for gain.
- Sportsmen and -women often participate in sport for personal achievement.
- For professional sportsmen and -women sport is a career that provides them with a livelihood.
- Governments and businesspeople use sport events to attract tourists (e.g. the 2011 World Cup Cricket in India).

Another study conducted at the Sports Medicine Department at the University of New South Wales included a group of 253 non-netball players and 200 netball players aged between 18

and 39. The findings indicated that the participants who participated in the sport, slept better, because their stress levels were lower, compared with the other participants who did not play the sport.

A sports team goes through the same stages as Tuckman and Jenson's (1977) stages of team development and therefore what happens with the dynamics of sports teams are transferable to work teams, and vice versa. When a sports team comes together for the first time, they usually feel anxious and awkward (forming stage). When the team moves to the storming phase, their approaches and agendas will change. Conflict or disagreement in the team often exists and some of the participants will feel frustrated because their roles have not yet been clarified. However, once the sports team starts working together to accomplish their goals, they enter the norming stage which is characterised by clear roles and responsibilities. There is also more mutual respect as well as harmony in the team. During the performing stage, the members are interdependent and feel satisfied in the team. This is when the team is performing at its best. The adjourning phase involves a personal decision, say, when a member moves to another city or a woman becomes pregnant. During this stage, the participants feel sad about the loss of friendship and association.

6.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT TO EFFECTIVE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

The benefits that organisational team sport has for diversity management in organisations will now be discussed.

6.3.1 Organisational team sport affords diverse employees the opportunity to share common visions and goals

When participating in organisational team sport, participants have a specific shared main goal (i.e. of winning). They set long-term goals which are broken down into short-term goals to ensure that the team's goals are achieved.

During the process of working towards the same goals, players from diverse backgrounds start respecting one another and relationships improve (Cashmore, 2003; Joubert & De Beer 2011).

Hewett's (2001) study concluded that employees, especially women, who still played netball during adulthood were able to set goals because the participants were used to setting goals during a netball game. These employees tend to be more effective leaders because during a

game, the participants have the knowledge to lead others to achieve their goals and are able to work in a group because a netball team is only successful when all the team players work together as a team and they learn perseverance because they do not give up after their first, second or even third attempts, until their goals have been reached.

6.3.2 Organisational team sport facilitates the development of individual commitment

Participation in organisational team sport develops individual commitment because the participants are required to remain focused on the shared goals. Commitment is required to improve playing by honing one's skills, training diligently, following a prescribed diet, being present for training and to doing the prescribed exercises (Cashmore, 2003; Joubert & De Beer, 2011). In order to succeed, employees from diverse groups need to commit not only to the task but also to the process of diversity management.

Joubert and De Beer (2010) found that organisational team sport enhances the participants' commitment because they practise after work and during the week, and although they participate in sport for fun, there is still personal commitment towards the goals and process required for the diverse team to be successful.

6.3.3 Organisational team sport enhances cohesion in the team

Team cohesion is a basic prerequisite if diverse groups are to be managed effectively.

Team cohesiveness is a vibrant process that reflects the propensity of a group of individuals to stay together and unite in aspiring towards specific objectives and goals. A team's togetherness is seen as cohesiveness, be it on or off the sports field. According to Jowell (2004), sport and culture can both be utilised to build a team's cohesiveness. Team activities such as team sport (rugby, football or cricket) afford individuals opportunities to work closely together. This cooperation in sport activities breaks down the barriers that cause division among people from different cultures.

Cohesion needs to be actively developed and maintained. Cohesiveness in organisational team sport is gained through the following factors or activities (Cashmore, 2003):

- *Situational factors such as uniqueness.* The team has a unique ritual (e.g. the New Zealand's rugby team does the *haka* before every rugby game) or the team dresses in a

particular uniform (e.g. players in the South African cricket team (the Proteas) wear the same uniform).

- *Personal factors such as strong and natural identification with the team and its objectives.* For instance, the participants are on time before every training session or game and they attend all the training sessions
- *Application of a democratic leadership style.* To improve cohesion, it is more efficient to apply a democratic as opposed to an autocratic leadership style (Carron, 1982). This is because the team members who have the opportunity to participate develop close bonds.
- *Allocation of specific team member roles.* The team members know what the other team members expect from them and they cooperate to achieve the common goals set. Team members who are allocated specific roles are usually closer to one another because they are formally bound by their roles to one another.

The cohesiveness that develops during participation in organisational team sport is transferred to the workplace when sport team members also work together in the work team. The outcome of strong cohesion between employees is that they are more effective in pursuing specific goals. Becoming a team member does not mean suppressing or losing one's individuality, but having "one-ness" in the team (Cashmore, 2003).

According to Jowell (2004), cohesiveness among employees is enhanced by a common vision and a sense of belonging in the organisation.

Joubert and De Beer (2010) also found that mutual support of employees during participation in team activities sport improves cohesiveness between employees.

6.3.4 Organisational team sport advances mutual trust between employees

Mutual trust between employees is a key outcome of diversity management. Participation in organisational team sport advances employees' mutual trust and therefore contributes to effective diversity management in the workplace.

Employees who participate in organisational team sport learn more about their coparticipants. When sports teams work together towards a specific goal and it is achieved, the prejudices and stereotyping among the participants about their diverse team players are replaced by trust. This happens because the team players perform according to the expectations of their team

members (e.g. the team believes in the ability of other team members or trusts the goal shooter to score goals).

According to Kortex (2006), a team is more effective when there is mutual trust between the team players. This happens because the team members lose their obsession with differences and emphasise cooperation (Muleskinner, 2003).

Joubert and De Beer (2010) found that sport also develops trust between participants because they learn that they can rely on one another. For instance, when the participants are on time for exercises and matches, the other participants begin to trust them because of their consistent behaviour.

6.3.5 Organisational team sport enhances the development of mutual respect between employees

A primary outcome of diversity management is that mutual respect develops between the employees. In a climate of mutual respect, relationships tend to improve.

Participation in organisational team sport improves the employees' mutual respect between one another. Because they are able to work together as a team, they become aware of others' competencies and their value and this increases the respect between employees. The mutual respect also increases when the participants realise that each member has his or her own role to play and that the members are dependent on one another to fulfil the role assigned to them (Downs, 2009).

6.3.6 Organisational team sport improves open communication between employees

To be able to manage diversity properly, effective two-way communication has to be established to discuss differences and solve interpersonal problems.

Participation in organisational team sport improves open communication because sport connects everybody, and participants in a sports team have to communicate in order to be successful (Carrigg, 2007).

Joubert and De Beer's (2010) study indicated that organisational team sport interventions enhance two-way communication between employees because the participants got to know one

another at an interpersonal level. Employees who are familiar with one another are more inclined to discuss issues and share information.

According to Chandler (2006), participants start discussing the sport they share and this tends to break down the social barriers between colleagues from different cultures. In Chandler's (2006) study, of the respondents, 16% of the women and 53% of the men indicated that sport participation improved two-way communication, because they spoke about sport with their co-workers almost every day. Sport participation also increases their acceptance in the work groups, because in this study, 24% of the women stated that conversations about sport made them more acceptable and thus increased their participation in work-related conversations. It was further found that 30% of the respondents reported that sport conversations helped them to communicate more effectively with their co-workers. Because they were interested in the subject, they listened more attentively when others spoke and were also more sensitive about themselves. Of the women, 8%, and 18% of the men were of the opinion that hierarchical barriers between their CEOs and managers were broken down through conversations about sport.

6.3.7 Participation in organisational team sport improves relationships with other employees

One of the ultimate objectives of managing diversity is to improve interemployee relationships because it enhances cooperation between employees. The discussion thus far confirms that participation in organisational team sport improves mutual trust, respect and two-way communication between team members. The logical outcome is that participation in sport strengthens relationships and enhances harmony between diverse employees (Muleskinner, 2003).

Regarding the fact that participation in organisational team sport improves relationships, Sawyer (2007) found in his study that 48% of the participants agreed that the relationship between management and the original workers had improved because of their joint participation in team sport.

Hewett's (2001) study indicated that new friends are made because the participants share a common goal and their personal failures and successes with their team members.

Joubert and De Beer's (2010) study revealed that participation in sport enhances the relationship between participants because when participants play in the same team, they are all

on the same level, and the hierarchical barriers that normally inhibit participants from becoming friends do not exist.

Participation in organisational team sport affords different employees the opportunity to become familiar with and learn about one another. It is an affordable means of bringing together disparate gender, language, socioeconomic, ethnic and religious groups, on the basis of mutual respect and shared rules (Prescott & Phelan, 2008).

As a leader and expert in racial equality, Lapchick (2005) maintains that organisational team sport should be applied as a tool to bring about effective social change.

In a more universal arena, the social value of participation in a team sport such as cricket was summarised as follows by Mahendra Dhoni, the Indian cricket captain: because of cricket, he met people across the world and made friends all over the globe. According to Daniel Vettori, the New Zealand cricket captain, participation in cricket competitions enabled him to make friends with various players from different cultural backgrounds and cricket has improved his understanding of diverse cultures. The ICC Chief Executive, Haroon Lorgat, stated that whether one is an administrator or spectator of sport, sport affords one the opportunity to meet people from different cultures and backgrounds and to make diverse friends (Anon, 2008).

Joe More, a media relations coordinator for central athletics, agrees with the social value added by team sport. He contends that he is always around different people, especially when he plays football. When he had to spend five months at Norfolk State University for the first time in his life he became part of the minority. He then began to understand the importance of gaining knowledge of different norms and cultures of diverse individuals (Muleskinner, 2003).

A study conducted by Standard Chartered Bank (Sawer, 2007) found that employees who participate in organisational team sport, such as netball or soccer, are more successful in their work than nonparticipants. It was further found that employees who participate in organisational team sport generally work in fast-growing organisations, which could indicate that these employees have a positive influence on the organisation's rapid growth. Another possibility is that participants in sport are more motivated to enhance the organisation's performance and productivity.

6.3.8 Organisational team sport increases self-esteem

People with a high level of self-esteem adjust better in diverse work groups because they have more basic security (Chandler, 2006).

According to Posten (1998), team sport participation enhances the attainment of high self-esteem. It can objectively manage diversity because participants wear similar sport wear which increases team affiliation and identification. Participants learn their team players' names and positions, which gives each player a specific identity and an integral place in the team. The team's triumphs enhance each participant's and spectator's self-esteem.

Chandler (2006) states that participation in team sport interventions increases self-esteem because:

- employees are more motivated and appreciated by their team members;
- employees cooperate better and learn how to work together as a team;
- it is easier for employees to make friends, and positive work relationships are thus developed between employees;
- conversations about sport are enhanced and this breaks down the barriers between managers, colleagues, suppliers and customers; and
- creativity is enhanced as a result of shared ideas (Singapore Sports Council, 2008)

6.3.9 Organisational team sport participation develops a climate for harmonious diversity culture

When a harmonious culture is developed in an organisation, there is better cooperation between people from diverse races and cultures (Chandler, 2006).

Participation in organisational team sport develops a harmonious diversity culture. According to Wakeling (s.a.) participation in sport increases the employees' spirit and morale and they are more agreeable (harmonious). Stronger relationships are forged between the participants, which also increases their morale.

According to Chandler (2006), the harmonious diversity culture through participation in organisational team sport interventions can further be increased in the following situations:

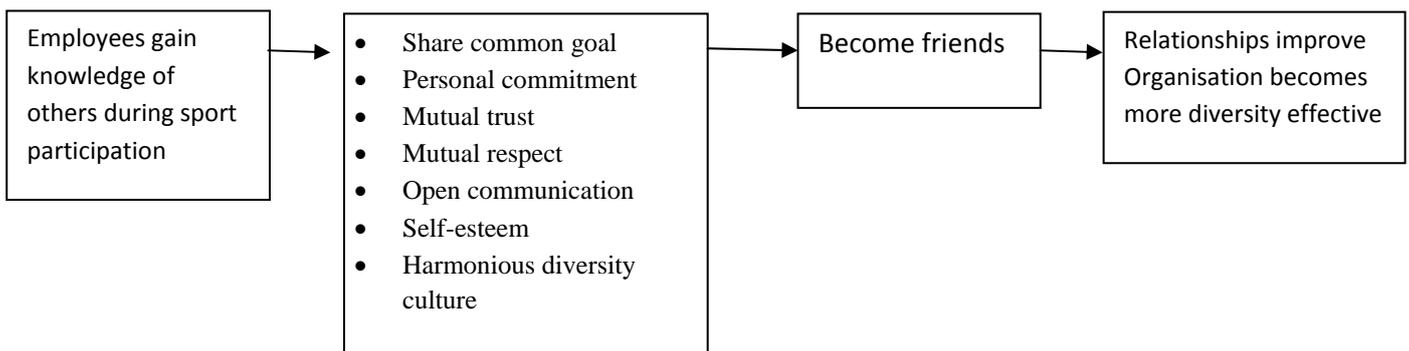
- Nonparticipating employees are part of organisational team sport, that is, they are spectators. The goodwill and energy generated by joint support and interaction ensure that employees feel more valued and are more willing to be engaged in work tasks after a sport event.
- Employees network with customers during organisational team sport events. Customers buy from companies and do business with the companies they like and trust most. Employees bond with customers during organisational team sport events, which enables them to communicate about something that is more interesting than only organisational products.
- Employees are encouraged to participate in organisational team sport interventions. When netball, cricket, volleyball, tennis or football events are organised at lunch time or after work, this will help employees to meet colleagues who they do not have contact with or share interests, and the workers will return to their workplace feeling recharged and more productive.
- Organisational team sport interventions are utilised as a focus point during team-building events. Competition between employees will help them to bond with subordinates and superiors, which will also create team spirit between colleagues.
- The organisation sponsors employees who participate in organisational team sport interventions or are spectators. The organisation can arrange trips for employees to support their colleagues when they perform and participate in organisational team sport interventions. After the sport intervention, the participants can arrange a presentation on what skills they acquired because they were part of an organisational team sport intervention, how to enhance performance, how to stay motivated and what qualities effective managers should have. When a suitable opportunity occurs, management can transfer this knowledge to the workplace.

The findings of Chandler's (2006) study revealed that a total of 63% of the men and 52% of the women stated that being part of a winning team (success in sport) would have a positive influence on their world of work, which would increase the harmonious diversity culture.

6.3.10 Summary of the organisational team sport process to improve organisation diversity effectiveness

To conclude this section, a summary of the process to improve organisation diversity effectively is presented in figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Summary of the organisational team sport process to improve organisational diversity effectiveness



Source: Adapted from Joubert and De Beer (2011, p. 61)

Figure 6.1 depicts and summarise the effect that organisational team sport has on employees and how employee relationships improve. Employees who participate in organisational team sport interventions are encouraged to work together and understand one another. The employees who share space, time and knowledge usually also become friends. Friends who are able to communicate well and are in harmony with one another, are able to work more effectively as a team. They are more productive in their work, because they are able to share common goals, have mutual trust, respect one another and communicate effectively. In a nutshell, when organisations encourage their employees to participate in organisational team sport interventions and afford them time to be part of a team, the organisation also benefits through increased effectiveness (Business-Building Information, s.a.; Joubert & De Beer, 2011). Participation in organisational team sport is not a quick fix for ineffective diversity management, but if properly planned and implemented, will make a positive difference.

It is clear that organisational team sport interventions make a positive contribution towards diversity management in the workplace.

6.4 SIMILARITIES BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT AND ORGANISATIONAL WORK TEAMS

Katz (2001) and Cannon-Bowers and Bowers (2006) conducted a study on how organisations can rely on sports teams to successfully manage diversity. The focus of her study is on team sport where participants are interdependent on other team members and each participant plays different positions. The participants are required to play together as a team in order to beat another team (e.g. netball, baseball, football, hockey, cricket or soccer). She further explains that a workplace team comprises a number of clearly defined members who are interdependent in managing diversity in the organisation.

According to Katz (2001), there are lessons that organisational work teams can learn from successful organisational sports teams. These lessons are as follows:

6.4.1 Both types of teams integrate competition and cooperation in the team

One of the primary goals in organisational sports teams is that participants help one another and invest in one another's success, which increases competition and cooperation, both of which are key requirements for managing diversity. Figure 6.2 summarises the positive impact on high levels of both competition and cooperation in a team and the negative effects when the team fails.

Figure 6.2 indicates the impact of competition and cooperation in a diverse organisational sports team. When the cooperation in a team is high, but the competition is low, the team is highly cohesive but the employees will not reach their full potential. When the organisational team sport has high cooperation and high competition, employees work together and are highly motivated, which is a prerequisite for diversity management. If the cooperation and competition in a team are low, the employees are unmotivated and uncoordinated. If the cooperation is low but the competition is high in a team, the employees are motivated, but do not work together as a diverse team.

Figure 6.2: Impact of competition and cooperation in an organisational sports team

High cooperation	Highly cohesive team, but employees not driven to peak performance	Highly energised employees who work together effectively
Low cooperation	Uncoordinated and unmotivated employees	Highly driven employees, but working at cross-purposes
	Low competition	High competition

Source: Katz (2001, p. 57)

It is not healthy or realistic for a team to attempt to eliminate competition between participants because

- some potential benefits for internal competition (drive, spark and energy to keep improving) are missed
- the willpower to compete with peers is covertly expressed

When the competitive drive is treated openly and positively and acknowledged, the diverse team is able to work together because the team wants to outperform team members without their performance being undermined.

6.4.2 Both types of teams provide opportunities to orchestrate early wins in the team

The path that the sports team will follow is shaped through early events. A study by Gayton, Very and Hearn (1993) indicated that a diverse sports team that scores the first goal is more likely to win the game. There was a significant effect where two-thirds of the time the sports team that scores first wins the game.

Early success is equally applicable to workplace teams. Hackman (1990) confirms that diverse work groups who are on a good track tend to manage their diversity more effectively as time passes, but those diverse work teams that have difficulty will experience problems over time. It is crucial that early experiences are positive in a work team because the team starts out with success and will aspire to more and expect more success than a team that started with a failure.

When a diverse team experiences success, the members of the team will build faith in one another, which is essential for managing diversity. If a team believes that they can succeed, they are more likely to succeed. They will elicit a different response from their environment. The members will attract more information, greater resources, higher, better assignments and quality feedback. The individuals outside the team will also expect more from the members and afford them more opportunities to succeed (Hein, 1980).

The organisation's challenge to manage diversity is to ensure early successes by the team. Although an organisation cannot guarantee success, there are certain things that it can do to effectively manage diversity, as highlighted below.

- The larger tasks can be divided into smaller tasks. The tasks that need to be completed first should be simple and straightforward to enable the team to succeed in their attempts to complete the first task.
- The smaller tasks should be short-term goals to enable the team to experience success repeatedly and quickly.
- The success in these tasks should be unambiguous and concrete to enable the team to get clear task feedback.
- The manager should call attention to the team's early success.

6.4.3 Both types of teams present opportunities for the team to break away from losing streaks

At certain points in time, sports teams must make important decisions about whether they should continue as a team or break up.

This lesson relates to a sports team experiencing a pattern of failure and their prediction that failure is most likely to recur. Even if the sports team enjoys a few successes and receives positive feedback, there will be a good chance that the sports team will misinterpret or ignore the feedback because it is inconsistent with the sports team's view of themselves. The best path is to avoid failure, but even though a team has plenty of talents as a diverse team, it may still occasionally fail (Katz, 2001; Lindsley, Brass & Thomas, 1995).

But how does a team break away from this failure mode? This is an area in which the organisation can learn from sports teams, especially those organisations that frequently fail. Attribution is a key underlying mechanism to sustain failure. Lindsley *et al.* (1995) argue that there are two features that characterise the attributions of a team that fails – it is likely for a team that fails to attribute its problems to actions that are uncontrollable and stable. Uncontrollable means that the failing sports team identifies itself with something beyond its ability to influence. Stable means that the sports team identifies itself as something that is unlikely to change. These types of attribution will lead to helplessness and demoralisation. If the sports team believes that its fate could change (unstable) and it team can make that change happen (controllable), it will create a new mindset with new options for the diverse team (Katz, 2001; Lindsley *et al.*, 1995).

The implication for the workplace is that the manager needs to shape the attributions that workplace teams make, should they encounter setbacks. The manager needs to provide an explanation that is built on healthy attributions that will increase the possibilities that the diverse workplace teams will feel capable of turning things around. A manager can assemble a meeting to encourage workplace teams to make a list of all the issues that affect the diversity. He or she can then push the team to dissect each factor in turn. If the factor is determined by the whole team, the team can break it down into supplementary causes. The manager can then guide the workplace team through an assessment of every supplementary cause (Katz, 2001; Lindsley *et al.*, 1995).

This process in which the contributory factor is broken down into its constituent elements will help diverse teams to feel less overwhelmed and make them focus their energy and attention on how to effectively work as a diverse work team (Katz, 2001; Lindsley *et al.*, 1995).

6.4.4 Both types of teams allocate time for team practice

The diverse sports team should practise regularly. A competitive sports team's basic structural feature is that the games rotate with practices. Practices and games represent two diverse

modes of sports team functioning. During practice, the team is in a learning mode. Practice provides an opportunity for innovation and experimentation where the team can test new plays and make mistakes. In a game, a team is in performance mode, which is a do-or-die setting – the sports team must faultlessly perform well-trained plays. Although supporters come together to see games, the practice is equally important to a sports team's success (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2006; Katz, 2001; Lindsley *et al.*, 1995).

It is the organisation's responsibility to deliberately make space and time for a learning mode. Diverse work teams are often under such extreme pressure to manage their diversity effectively that they are in performance mode most of the time. The need to balance the performance mode with the learning mode is normally neglected. A significant characteristic of the practice mode is that it is indeed desirable to try new things (to experiment) and to fail. Experimentations and failures are an essential part of diversity management. An organisation needs to promote intelligent failure. Intelligent failure does not occur accidentally – it results from conducting thoughtfully planned, small experiments.

A wise manager will make space and time for a diverse working team to experiment with its daily procedures. He or she can create an environment that is well known to the team, characterised by low risk and low arousal (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2006; Katz, 2001; Lindsley *et al.*, 1995).

6.4.5 Both types of teams schedule specific temporal midpoint intervals in the team

During half-time, nothing happens on the field. Although people assume that half-time is an unessential part of the game, it is actually a crucial part of the game. A basic factor for a diverse sports team that plays against the clock (e.g. a basketball, football or netball team), is break at half-time.

It is wise for a diverse workforce that works against the clock to emulate half-time. Half-time happens at the temporal midpoint of a game. This temporal midpoint affords the team a special opportunity (not only in the world of work but also in also in the sporting world). Midpoint is a kind of pacing mechanism or alarm clock that allows teams to manage their diversity. This temporal halfway point provides a milestone where diverse team members can estimate how the diversity is managed in the organisation. At this point, the team looks back and estimates how much it has accomplished thus far and projects how much it can accomplish in the diverse team (Gersick, 1989).

A work team manager has the following four concrete practices that he or she needs to take into account during half-time (Gersick, 1989):

- The interventions should be timed at fortunate moments. The team manager should wait until temporal half-time before trying to influence the workplace team's process.
- A half-time assessment in the diverse workplace team should be structured. Encourage the team to address questions such as the following: How much have we accomplished to manage the diversity in the team? If we continue to allocate our abilities, resources and time in this way, will we meet our goals? How can we better allocate our abilities, resources and time?
- More opportunities should be created for half-time interventions (create more deadlines). Break the tasks up into smaller tasks with interim deadlines.
- If the diverse workplace team's tasks are ongoing instead of finite, an artificial endpoint needs to be introduced.

6.4.6 **Both types of teams enhance cohesion between team members**

It is important for a team to have cohesion between sport members which is a prerequisite for diversity management. A sports team needs time to "gel", especially when they require a high level of teamwork among participants to work effectively as a diverse team. Team composition needs to be kept stable for long enough to enable participants to learn how to combine their efforts in a consistent whole and how to work together. A diverse sports team that is successful is likely to be kept intact and the participants therefore have a high level of shared knowledge. An unsuccessful team is likely to be broken up.

The need to give sport teams time to develop cohesion is also true in the workplace where the tasks require a high level of cooperation between diverse employees. According to Katz (1982), team effectiveness is significantly influenced by group longevity. It will take approximately two years for team members to develop working practices, comfortable routines and the knowledge among diverse employees to translate into improved team performance (Cannon-Bowers & Bowers, 2006; Katz, 2001).

6.4.7 Both types of teams create opportunities to analyse progress in team performance

Diverse sports teams need to analyse their successes and failures. It is standard operation for professional sports teams to follow a game on video after the game and then watch it again for several times. Each time the participants watch the dvd/video they are split into different groups. Different groups are more likely to notice different intricacies.

Managers should also institutionalise a similar approach by analysing and debriefing the diversity in the workplace. Team members who are not part of the reflection on how they work together miss out on an opportunity to learn new ideas and to consolidate old lessons. Diverse team members learn much from both their successes and failures, and it is highly unlikely that they will reflect on their process when they succeed (Katz, 2001).

Staw (1975) maintains that if a diverse team succeeds in its goals, the team members are likely to infer that they have succeeded because they all worked together effectively. The team might in fact have succeeded despite the way the team members worked together. The team could be highly dysfunctional, but its success is the result of one team member's brave efforts. Even if team members effectively work together but do not analyse and try to understand what made them effective, the success will be unproductive because it is unable to reliably replicate since no one in the team knows how or why things went well.

6.5 SUMMARY

The primary reason why employees do not join diverse groups is not because they are unwilling to mix, but because there is often no reason for them to mix with other diverse groups. Organisational team sport affords employees a unique opportunity to join diverse groups because relationships are developed across different cultures and backgrounds, in a space of commitment and mutual trust.

An organisational sports team intervention is efficient and effective when the participants have common goals and a common identity. Also, there is communication and interaction between the participants (Joubert & De Beer 2011; Schienberg, 2004).

The benefits of sport for the effective management of diversity in an organisation are as follows: participation in organisational team sport affords an employee the opportunity to share common visions and goals; it creates individual commitment; it enhances cohesion in a team; there is

mutual trust and respect between employees; it creates open communication between the employees; the employees are more familiar with other employees and relationships thus develops; the participants and spectators' self-esteem is enhanced; and it creates a harmonious diversity culture.

Participation in organisational team sport generally contributes to effective diversity management. Participants who participate in organisational team sport interventions are able to work in a diverse group, are at ease in leadership roles and are able to set goals. To confirm this, numerous case studies in which organisational team sport interventions were implemented for effective diversity management in an organisation were discussed in this chapter.

Organisational team sport interventions are a valuable initiative when an organisation wishes to implement an initiative for diversity management.

Chapter 7 deals with the research design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The selection of a particular research design is mainly determined by the purpose of the research and the research question. The methodology of this study relates to the approach that was followed in the study, while the methods refer to the research tools that were used – hence the importance of explaining the methodology and methods in this chapter.

This research was conducted in nine comparable financial organisations where the perceptions and views of focus groups with participants and individual interviews with sport coordinators were explored. Qualitative research was used in this study because listening to and understanding the participants' and sport coordinators' views and perceptions were the source for developing a diversity management team sport model. Guiding and probing questions were asked to gain depth and insight into the participants' and sport coordinators' perceptions.

In this chapter, the research design and research methods that were used to achieve the research objectives (section 1.4), will be explained. The methods used for the collection of the data and sample selection and data analysis will also be explained.

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

STEPS	RESEARCH QUESTION	AIM	RELEVANT DATA	RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED
Step 1	Is there a relationship between organisational team sport activities and outcomes and the management of diversity activities and outcomes in organisations? If so, what is this relationship?	To determine whether organisational team sport activities and outcomes support and advance diversity management activities in organisations	MCom study, Joubert (2010) (Organisational team sport interventions to minimise diversity constraints in the workplace) Secondary literature (chapters 3 and 6)	Confirmation by comparison of the findings of research process – step 2 and research process step 3

STEPS	RESEARCH QUESTION	AIM	RELEVANT DATA	RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED
Step 2	Is there sufficient agreement between the participants on the meaning and outcomes of diversity and diversity management in the organisation?	To determine whether there is common ground/consensus between the participants on the perceived meaning and outcomes of the concepts of diversity and diversity management	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Content analysis of the qualitative data gathered from focus group interviews and individual interviews
Step 3	What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) that manifest from participants in the organisational team sport intervention?	To determine the main and subthemes of the content of diversity management in an organisational team sport intervention	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis using Tesch's method
Step 4	What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) regarding the content of the team sport intervention model identified using the Atlas.ti?	To determine the main and subthemes in the content of the diversity management team sport intervention model	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Atlas.ti
Step 5	What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational team sport intervention model?	To determine the main and subthemes in the implementation of an organisational team sport intervention	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Tesch's method
Step 6	What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model identified using Atlas.ti?	To determine the main subthemes (steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model using Atlas.ti	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Atlas.ti

* It was decided arbitrarily but on logical grounds that if two or more participants share the same perception or experience that this was sufficient consensus for acceptance of a code.

7.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The main purpose of this study was to develop a diversity management content model and diversity management process model based on the experiences and views of employees who participate in organisational team sport interventions.

7.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Zarb (1997), the use of qualitative methods is dialectical, because this type of research involves dialogue. The dialogue between the researcher and the participants requires interpretivist and grounded theory design.

7.4.1 Qualitative research features

Polit and Beck (2008, p.763) define qualitative research as the “investigation of phenomena, typically in an in-depth and holistic fashion, through the collection of rich narrative materials using a flexible research design”.

The methods in this type of research focus on interpretations and meanings. The research method is extremely complex because the way people act in certain situations needs to be understood. Qualitative research describes a wide variety of practices and theories. The practices may include ethnography, narrative analysis, focus groups and interviews, while the theories may include interaction between people, symbols, cultural studies and phenomenology (Babbie, 2008; Flick, 2009; Rice & Ezzy, 2002).

A grounded theory paradigm was used in this study because of its organised approach towards listening and to gain an understanding of the participants' and sport coordinators' views and perceptions of their own beliefs, context and history. Qualitative research also endeavours to give participants a voice and to study human action. Qualitative research adopts a holistic approach towards the participants' and sport coordinators' views and interactions with various aspects of their environment and participants and sport coordinators as human beings (Babbie & Mouton, 2003; Babbie, 2008; Flick, 2009).

7.4.2 Qualitative research assumptions

The qualitative research paradigm assumptions used in this research were grounded on the following:

- Every human being experiences life differently.
- The researcher communicates with and observes the participants and sport coordinators in order to investigate their life experiences and perceptions.
- The researcher is an instrument of the research and it is therefore impossible to be entirely objective. Hence some bias in this research is acknowledged.
- A valid sample can be obtained if the researcher selects participants and sport coordinators who are living the experience. The researcher will continue to collect data until data saturation has occurred.
- The participants' and sport coordinators' experiences are derived from the data analysis (Babbie, 2008; Lobiondo-Wood & Haber, 1994; Merriam, 2009).

7.4.3 Rationale for conducting qualitative research

When individuals' experiences are given meaning to and interpreted, qualitative research methods are used, which would be almost impossible to do if other research methods were used (Babbie, 2008; Rice & Ezzy, 2002).

Qualitative research was preferred for this study, because the research focused on the views and perceptions of the participants and sport coordinators and the data obtained were reliable as long as the researcher's own perceived views and ideas did not influence the study (Babbie, 2008; Merriam, 2009; Rice & Ezzy, 2002).

A qualitative research approach enables the researcher to collect and analyse data, using preconceived ideas on what data should be collected. This research required exploration because no previous studies had been conducted that would enable the researcher to follow a quantitative research approach – hence the adoption of a qualitative research approach.

7.4.4 Interpretivist design as a qualitative research approach

Qualitative research involves dialogue between the researcher and the participants. Many responses are produced from dialogue with multiple meanings, and the patterns of meanings need to be identified (Daengbuppha, Hemmington & Wilkes, 2006) and interpreted (Snape & Spencer, 2005) in relation to the phenomenon of the research, in this instance, to develop a diversity management content model and diversity management process model based on the experiences and views of employees who participate in organisational team sport interventions. It was therefore deemed appropriate to adopt an interpretivist design to explain the multiple perceptions of the participants (Andrade, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Merriam 2009, Williams, 1998).

An inductive strategy is used to identify patterns of responses and to interpret the multiplicity of the participants' perceptions, when, as in the case of organisational team sport as a diversity management intervention, limited literature exists to provide a framework for understanding the topic of the study (Merriam, 1998). Inductive strategy (section 7.7.4.3 (a)) will be explained in more detail. If no previous literature exists on the phenomenon of the study, the interpretivist design relies on fieldwork that identifies the participants' responses and perceptions of the phenomenon. The use of fieldwork will be explained in section 7.7.3.2. It is therefore necessary to mention at this stage that fieldwork connects the researcher to the social status of the participants to enable the researcher to provide a detailed description of the participants in their natural environment (Ferguson, Ferguson & Taylor, 1992; Merriam, 1998; Merriam 2009).

Connecting to the sport participants who participate in organisational team sport interventions in financial organisations is thus necessary to understand the labels (Flick, 2009; Oliver, 2002) in order to overcome diversity constraints (Shakespeare, 1996) in a financial organisation (Ferguson *et al.*, 1992). Hence connecting to the natural environment of employees who participate in organisational team sport interventions afforded the researcher the opportunity to become an advocate of change (Shar & Corley, 2006).

The emphasis was on identifying and interpreting the patterns of responses for meaning, and data were therefore iteratively collected and analysed to enable the researcher to compile a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model (Bowen, 2008). The iterative collection and analysis of the data compelled the researcher to use rough tentative designs, instead of planning the entire research design in advance. Rough tentative designs guided the researcher in the iterative process of learning from the field and of refocusing the research (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

7.4.5 Grounded theory design as a qualitative research approach

Grounded theory is an interpretive qualitative research design that enables researchers to make discoveries in the absence of sufficient literature on the phenomenon (Charmaz, 2006; Jones, Kriflik & Zanko, 2005; Levy, 2003). Grounded theory is therefore used either when theories about the research topic do not exist (Ferguson *et al.*, 1992) or when the theories that are currently documented in the literature fail to adequately explain the research topic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In this research study, grounded theory was used because of the limitation in prior knowledge (Charmaz, 2006; Jones *et al.*, 2005).

Grounded theory design requires interaction between the participants and the researcher in order to create meaning of the phenomenon being studied (Charmaz, 2006; Goulding, 1999). To understand the phenomenon, the researcher should therefore describe the context in which meaning is created (Andrade, 2009).

In this study, grounded theory was also used because it suited the specific research conditions. The goals of grounded theory are to collect and analyse data. Thereafter an assumption of the data is made which is “grounded” on the data (Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg, 2006). In this study, data were collected from the views and perceptions of participants and sport coordinators working at different financial institutions. The employees participated in organisational team sport interventions (Dempsey & Dempsey, 2000; Norwood, 2000).

The data collection and analysis process in this study occur simultaneously when the qualitative method is used. Constant associations take place because events are compared with other events, constructs with constructs and categories with categories. Significant events were highlighted and codes assigned (Brink *et al.*, 2006).

Promoters of grounded theory argue that inductive discoveries of data relationships and data collection should proceed systematically (Bitsch, 2005) to theoretical analysis (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006) in order to develop data categories (Pandit, 1996). The researcher iteratively collected and analysed the data as suggested by Bitsch (2005) in order to examine the causal factors and patterns of the participants’ perceptions towards organisational team sport interventions (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006). The researcher simultaneously collected and analysed the data to make theoretical generalisations (Andrade, 2009) towards developing a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model.

According to Corbin and Strauss (2008), the compilation of a theoretical model is regarded as a complex activity that requires the researcher to think about the data in theoretical terms and integrate the knowledge that was created into the research context (Bitsch, 2005). While the process of data compilation progresses theoretically a theoretical conceptualisation of the data emerges from the interaction between the researcher and the participants (Durant-Law, 2005). Hence theoretical conceptualisation cannot be predetermined, but is a product of iterative, system, concurrent and interdependent data collection and analysis (McGhee, Marland & Atkinson, 2007). Theoretical models are therefore compiled by identifying key constructs pertaining to the phenomenon of the research and describing their relationships in a particular context (Shar & Corley, 2006). In this research study, the key constructs pertaining to organisational team sport interventions to overcome diversity constraints were identified, and their relationship was described, culminating in a theoretical model.

Because grounded theory relates to daily situations and explains the creation of meaning in theoretical terms, it is therefore useful in practice (Merriam, 1998; Merriam, 2009). In this study, the grounded theory design allowed the researcher to study the participants' perceptions and views on the phenomenon, and this improved the validity of the research findings (Hartley & Muhit, 2003; Merriam, 2009).

7.4.6 Content analysis

Content analysis is a method that studies communication messages that normally occur in written form (Babbie, 2007; Brink *et al.*, 2006). Content analysis has an interest in text and a number of approaches to analyse the data. Through personal thinking and deep reading of the data, the researcher develops valid understandings and conceptualisations. Structured techniques such as the following can be used to ensure a more valid content analysis (Neill, 2006)

- sorting
- categorising
- naming themes
- counting
- in the current study, developing a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model based on the experiences and views of employees who participated in organisational team sport interventions

The researcher's experience, personality and nature of the circumstances will determine the exact method.

The data in this research were categorised and coded to achieve more rigorous and valid content analysis.

7.4.7 Advantages and disadvantages of a qualitative research approach

An advantage of qualitative research is that rich and valuable data can be gathered using the qualitative research approach. New areas of study can be explored through the data that are gathered, and these new areas are invaluable to researchers, students and practitioners (Flick, 2009; Opdenakker, 2006).

The main disadvantage of qualitative research is that it is laborious and time consuming. The primary risk that can be associated with qualitative research approaches is that the researcher may lose objectivity. It is imperative for the researcher to be aware of the influence the research may have on him or her, and vice versa (McNeill, 1990; Opdenakker, 2006).

Although questionnaires are less time consuming and more cost effective, interviews as a data gathering tool are deemed to be more trustworthy because data are collected from participants directly and the researcher can clarify and expand on any specific situation. The researcher is in the position to build a relationship with the participants, and interviews enable him or her to observe both verbal and nonverbal communication (Kothari, 2001; Opdenakker, 2006).

Although it is possible to gather useful information from questionnaires, informal discussions and observations, it was decided in this research to use focus group interviews with the participants and individual interviews with the sport coordinators as the data collection method. These interviews enabled the researcher to probe the participants and sport coordinators for more information and to clarify the responses. Diversity in an organisation can be a sensitive issue. Rice and Ezzy (2002) and Stewart, Shamdasani, and Rook (2007) suggest that focus groups should be used when a sensitive population is involved in the research or during the exploration of a sensitive issue. Focus group interviews can be used in the following ways:

- as a independent method (the main source during data gathering is focus group interviews)
- as an additional source of data (the information obtained from the focus group interviews can be used as initial data during quantitative research)

- in multimethod phenomena, also known as the triangulation method (data collection by means of several different approaches).

The third approach was used during this study because the researcher used focus group interviews and individual interviews that were semistructured, and she observed the participants' responses.

Conducting, transcribing and analysing interviews is time consuming. When interviews are used to gather data, the sample size is much smaller. The success of an interview depends on the interviewer's ability (Guion, 2006; Kothari, 2001).

7.4.8 Study context

An increasing number of organisations in South Africa are introducing formal organisational team sport activities without any scientific knowledge of whether participation in these activities actually has benefits for the management of diversity in the organisation (Bennett, 2009).

Although diversity management is regarded as a necessary programme for organisations to remain competitive, the concept of diversity management remains vague for many organisations. When sport is used in the workplace, it enables employees to focus on their similarities instead of their differences (Joubert & De Beer, 2010). If the diversity barriers are overcome, this could provide access to knowledge, skills and abilities in the organisation because the group works together towards the achievement of mutual goals. When the goals and efforts of the teams and individuals in the organisation are in alignment, the organisation can move forward through strong leadership and supportive systems.

No theoretical information or models (content and process) are available in the literature for the implementation of organisational team sport interventions that can help organisations manage their diversity.

The context is of utmost importance in a qualitative research approach, more specifically when content analysis and grounded theory are utilised (Morrow, 2007; Tesch, 1990) to obtain the data. Context refers to the space and location in which the research is conducted. Factors such as time and a change in the location and people characterise context. The researcher therefore needs to understand the participants and sport coordinators' context regarding time, space and their culture. The researcher's understandings are an interpretation of data

collection that is not incomplete, but has meaning. The underlying theory of qualitative research is that there are numerous ways of understanding situations and people, which is context bound (Babbie, 2008; Streubert & Carpenter, 1995).

The context of this study was that formal diversity management interventions are available to companies to enable them to manage their diverse workforce, but these programmes are expensive and companies need a more cost-effective informal intervention, such as organisational team sport interventions, to effectively enhance diversity management in an organisation.

7.4.9 Descriptive design features

Descriptive design features were used in this study. The aim of this design is to first describe and observe the phenomenon and then classify the findings (Polit & Hungler, 1995). It is essential that there is no interference with the situation, but the natural situation as it occurs must be studied so that the picture of individuals, groups or situations is given precisely and that the information that is provided in the study is complete and meaningful (Myers, 2009; Morse, 2007; Neuman, 2000).

This study involved information on the development of a content and implementation diversity model based on organisational team sport intervention by identifying the indicators of an organisational team sport interventions and exploring the experiences that participants and sport coordinators with the implementation process of organisational sport activities. The data obtained in this research from the focus group and individual interviews were used to create an explanatory account. There was no interference from the researcher.

7.4.10 Exploratory design features

In this study, an exploratory design was used because an increasing number of organisations in South Africa introduce formal organisational team sport activities without any scientific knowledge of whether participation in these activities has benefits for diversity management in the organisation (Bennett, 2009). As mentioned previously, limited literature was available on the topic. The exploratory design involves the discovery of new ideas and insights, and a flexible approach is necessary. The direction of this study is guided through the data that are gathered (Kothari, 2001). This research had never before been conducted. Open-ended and probing questions were put to the participants and sport coordinators, and their answers allowed the researcher to complete the research and possibly permit further studies of the topic.

7.5 THE FOCUS OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The aim of the research design was identified in chapter 1, namely to develop a diversity management content and implementation model based on the organisational team sport intervention and to confirm the criteria for the organisational team sport interventions in order to minimise diversity constraints in the workplace. Hence, to understand the central concept of this study, the orientations, conditions and actions that affect the phenomenon and the study units need to be explored and described (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee, 2006).

To better understand the reflexive interaction between the participants and the researcher, the advantages and disadvantages of participating in organisational team sport, the actions that organisations take to support organisational team sport and the implementation of organisational team sport in an organisation with regard to the phenomenon are explained below (Goulding, 1999).

7.5.1 Advantages and disadvantages of participating in organisational team sport

The participants' personal experience of the advantages of participating in organisational team sport can either be positive or negative. The exploration of the participants' experience helped the researcher to identify criteria and compile a diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions. These conditions were explored and described in chapter 6 of this study.

7.5.2 The actions of organisations to support organisational team sport

The participants' personal views on and perceptions of the actions of organisations to support organisational team sport interventions in an organisation were explored. The views and perceptions of sport coordinators on the identified criteria were also explored in this study in order to confirm the criteria.

7.5.3 Implementation of organisational team sport in an organisation

The participants and sport coordinators' views on and perceptions of the actions that organisations can take to implement organisational team sport interventions in the organisation were explored. The exploration of the participants' orientations helped the researcher to identify the organisational team sport implementation model.

7.5.4 The units of analysis

The researcher's units of analysis in this study were the participants and sport coordinators employed in financial organisations in Gauteng, who were participating in organisational team sport interventions at the time.

7.6 POTENTIAL SOURCES OF BIAS

Potential bias in this research study relates to the use of purposive sampling to selectively identify participants and sport coordinators and selectively document the data. The selective identification of participants and sport coordinators constitutes exclusion bias because some are included and others are excluded from participating in the study (Roberts, Priest & Traynor, 2006). In order to reduce or avoid exclusion bias in this study, the researcher telephonically contacted the sport facilities in Pretoria and Midrand, and all the financial institutions who participate in organisational team sport interventions were invited to participate in the study via electronic mail and telephonically without prejudice to their right to voluntarily participate in the study (Roberts, Geppert & Brody, 2001).

According to Roberts *et al.* (2006), another potential for bias is the personal perspective that the researcher brings to the study and his or her familiarity with the field. In the current study, the researcher's personal perspective was based on the fact that she had participated in team sport during the preceding nine years. She therefore acknowledges that these roles may have influenced her interactions with the participants (Finch & Lewis, 2005) and may ultimately have had some effect on the research findings. The ethical measures of self-disclosure were therefore used to address this potential bias.

The potential bias relating to the selective documentation of data is managed through measures intended to ensure the trustworthiness of the study and reflexivity (Roberts *et al.*, 2006). Researchers may minimise research bias by suspending their beliefs and experiences or openly showing reflexivity in their abilities or through data triangulation (Guion, Diehl &

McDonald, 2011; Miller, 2008; Seale & Silverman, 1997). In this research study, the researcher reflected explicitly on her possible lack of understanding of some aspects of organisational team sport interventions during data gathering. The study limitations will be explained in the concluding chapter.

7.7 RESEARCH METHODS

It is necessary to separate the use of concepts "methodology" and "methods" in order to differentiate between the research approach and research strategies that were used to collect, analyse and interpret the data in this study. The sampling, data gathering and analysis methods that were used in each phase of the study will be explained individually.

7.7.1 Sampling

Sample means selecting a number of participants and sport coordinators from the population who represent the entire population (Babbie, 2008; Flick, 2009; Polit & Hungler, 1993). The sampling designs can be probability or nonprobability samples. When quantitative research is conducted, it is preferable to use probability sampling because generalisation and predictions are required, whereas in qualitative research nonprobability sampling is generally used because a relatively small sample size is needed on account of the fact that statistical analysis, control and generalisation are unnecessary (Babbie & Mouton, 2003; Streubert & Carpenter, 1995).

Because of the qualitative nature of this study, a nonprobability sample was used because it was impossible to follow a convenience sampling approach at the place where the entire population was located which involves the selection of the most willing available participants for the research (Brink *et al.*, 2006). In a nonprobability sample, the researcher selects individuals who have the most knowledge about the study and who are able to explain nuances to the researcher (Brink *et al.*, 2006). Repeated focus group interviews with participants and individual interviews with sport coordinators were conducted until data saturation occurred.

The refocused purpose of identifying criteria for the development of a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model necessitated the discovery of variables pertaining to the concept. In order to achieve this objective, it was necessary to include participants and sport coordinators who had knowledge of the phenomenon (Bowen, 2008; Potter, 1996). The researcher therefore used a purposive sampling strategy to recruit a purposive sample. The sample varied in terms of race, age, religion, marital status and hierarchical levels. A variation of samples makes it possible to capture the complexity of social

settings and compare the participants' responses across a variety of settings in order to compile a theoretical model (Kitthananan, s.a.), in this case the development of a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model.

7.7.1.1 Criteria for selecting participants and sport coordinators

The specified criteria to select participants and sport coordinators in this study were that they all had to

- be from diverse groups with regard to the difference in culture, religion, marital status, age, job levels, hierarchical levels and gender
- be employed at an insurance company in the Gauteng area
- have been participating in team sport for more than a month
- be willing to be interviewed both in a focus group and individually

7.7.1.2 Population

A population is the larger group and in this study included all the employees who participate in team sports and who work for financial institutions in the Gauteng Province. The various financial institutions at which the focus group interviews with participants and individual interviews with the sport coordinators were held consisted of diverse employees, and some of the employees working in these financial institutions were participating in team sport. The various financial institutions consisted of employees from different backgrounds, ethnic groups, age groups (ranging from 22 to 65 years), gender groups, different nationalities, hierarchical levels, religious groups and language groups.

7.7.1.3 Sample design and size of participants

Since the aim of qualitative research is not statistical analysis, control or generalisation (Flick, 2009; Streubert & Carpenter, 1995), it was not necessary for the researcher to determine beforehand the exact number of participants and sport coordinators to be interviewed. A broad target of nine focus groups and nine interviews was envisaged. The sample size required for this research depended on the data gathering process. When data saturation was reached, the sample size was adequate (Brink *et al.*, 2006). In this study, the researcher experienced data saturation after the participants from six different financial organisations had been interviewed. The researcher interviewed three more financial organisations in an attempt to make the study

more valid. No new information was obtained in the last three focus group interviews and individual interviews with the sport coordinators.

7.7.2 Negotiation access

In preparing for access negotiations, the researcher telephoned sport facilities in Midrand and Pretoria and requested the names and contact details of sport coordinators in financial organisations who participate in organisational team sport. Several contact details were provided and the researcher contacted the sport coordinators telephonically or via electronic mail (email).

The emails that were sent to these financial organisations requested assistance in the recruitment of participants. In these emails, the researcher disclosed the purpose of the study. When responses were not forthcoming, the researcher sent out a reminder email.

The researcher scheduled focus group interviews with the participants and individual interviews with those sport coordinators who were interested in participating in the research. The researcher then applied the snowball effect: the sport coordinators provided the contact details of other sport coordinators in financial organisations who participated in organisational team sport.

7.7.3 Data gathering

A prearranged time and place was organised with the participants and sport coordinators for conducting the interviews. The interviews were held in a boardroom at the participants' or sport coordinators' workplace or at the sport facilities where the participants play their games, which were undisturbed area. All the interviews took approximately an hour. Data collection in a natural setting enables the compilation of theoretical models reflecting the social context of the participants (Kitthananan, s.a.). The participation costs were also minimised by aligning the data collection processes to the usual operations and priorities of the participants (Stiffman, Freedenthal, Brown, Ostmann & Hibbeler, 2005), that is, the data collection was conducted during lunch time or in the evenings.

7.7.3.1 Data gathering methods

Data were gathered predominantly using field notes, focus group interviews and individual interviews. There was a need for a recording device and the presence of the researcher during

the process because of the interview schedule that was used. These elements of the data gathering process are also explained in this section.

7.7.3.2 *Fieldwork*

Three basic stages are present during fieldwork, namely (1) initiation of entry, (2) physical entry, and (3) closure (Caine, Davidson & Stewart 2009). The researcher therefore prepared for entry. The data gathering started during the second stage (physical entry). Since the researcher was aware of researcher bias (Creswell, 2007) because of her participation in team sport, she made an effort to suspend any judgement about the data incidents during the data gathering stage (McGhee *et al.*, 2007).

During the last stage (closure), the researcher mentioned to the participants that the next steps would be to transcribe the audiotapes of the focus group interviews or individual interviews and finalise the report. The researcher then closed the data gathering process in a mutually beneficial manner by promising the participants copies of the final results (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

7.7.3.3 *Focus group interviews*

An interview can be described as a medium of vocal exchange between persons. It is an interaction between two or more individuals during which required information is shared (Hein, 1980; Stewart *et al.*, 2007).

The main aim of focus group interviews is to comprehend and describe the views and perceptions of a sample in order to gain an understanding of a certain phenomenon from the participants' point of view. The researcher held that focus group interviews with participants would be a useful research tool in this study, because the participants were unknown to her and they would put forward their own views and perceptions. According to Rice and Ezzy (2002) and Stewart *et al.* (2007), a focus group interview is a useful tool in a study when the researcher wishes to describe and explore the participants' knowledge and experience.

The grounded theory approach in qualitative research strategies uses one or more techniques to gather empirical data (Bitsch, 2005). The literature suggests that a focus group interview is a technique that is commonly used during qualitative studies (Levy, 2003). Focus group interviews can either serve an exploratory purpose (to identify constructs prior to quantitative

study) or a phenomenological purpose (to access participants' everyday explanations or common sense conceptions of the phenomenon) (McLafferty, 2004).

In this research study, focus group interviews were used to explore the constructs associated with organisational team sport interventions in financial organisations. The interviewing technique of focus group interviews are open ended with the intention of exploring, understanding and explaining the nature of a phenomenon (Bing, 2007). The advantages of a focus group interview and why this data gathering technique was selected for the research are as follows:

- Because interviews are face to face, the focus group interview enables the researcher to share time and place with participants to ensure the production of sensitive and humane data that reflect the interest of both parties (Meho, 2006; Seymour, 2001).
- Focus group interviews stimulate participants to make their perceptions, reasons, views and motives known through group interaction (Kitthananan, s.a.). The dialogic nature of focus group interviews makes it possible to explore multiple meanings that are created by the participants as they share their social experiences (Breen, 2006; Goss, 1996).
- During focus group interviews, participants are afforded the opportunity to convey their own interpretations and meanings by reprocessing their behaviours relating to the research topic investigation (Breen, 2006; Kitthananan, s.a.).
- Critical-emancipatory forms of knowledge are generated from focus group interviews, which are developed during the research process for and by its participants (Goss, 1996), whereby the participants are empowered (Rabiee, 2004).
- Focus group interviews are cost effective and flexible methods for gathering the responses of nonrandom samples of participants who fit the selection criteria, such as employees participating in organisational team sport interventions (Sofaer, 2002; Stewart *et al.*, 2007) in their natural setting (Grudens-Schuck, Allen & Larson, 2004).

Because focus group interviews make possible the production of co-constructing the meaning of the phenomena and field texts in a naturalistic environment, this type of interview complements the interpretivist research design. However, it is essential to handle the data cautiously because researcher assumptions and purposive sampling tend to influence the quality of data analysis during focus group interviews (Smith & Cilliers, 2006). In this study,

these issues were regarded as contextual (Shar & Corley, 2006) and were addressed through measures of trustworthiness (see section 7.7.5).

To establish the maximum differences between the participants, they were chosen for variation, based on their biographical data (age, race, gender, etc.). This variation creates heterogeneity, which optimises the exploration of different perspectives in a group setting (Kritzinger, 1995). The preferred strategy for an interpretivist inquiry is the maximum variation of data sources aimed at ensuring the diversity of perspectives (Rambaree, 2008).

A maximum of one hour was allocated for each focus group interview to optimise the use of theoretical sampling principles to ensure that the participants did not become irritated and to keep them focused. Focus group interviews should be administered in private, safe and accessible venues (Greacen Associates, 2007; Rabiee, 2004). The researcher therefore asked the participants to help identify accessible venues where the focus group interviews could take place. At the end of every focus group interview, the participants were debriefed by reflecting on their impressions of the session, which reduced researcher bias.

7.7.3.4 *Individual interviews*

It was impossible to conduct focus group interviews with sport coordinators because the sample group represented only a few coordinators from several financial organisations. Hence there were not enough sport coordinators from the same financial organisation to conduct focus group interviews, which is why the researcher elected to conduct individual interviews. The individual interviews were conducted on the same basis and principles as the focus group interviews. The researcher will therefore not explain and discuss the focus group interviews and individual interviews individually.

According to Kaplowitz and Hoehn (2001) and Leidy & Vernon (2008), an individual interview is a one-on-one formal conversation conducted between the researcher and the sport coordinator. An individual interview is the technique that is most frequently used to collect qualitative data and occurs in a goal-oriented conversation and not in the form of a survey/questionnaire. Individual interviews and focus group interviews are not substitutes because each interview yields different perspectives on the range of values, issues and perspectives of the participants (Flick, 2009; Kaplowitz & Hoehn, 2001). Individuals feel more comfortable divulging controversial information that is unknown to the researcher during an individual interview session instead of sharing the information in a focus group interview among other participants from their locale. Kaplowitz and Hoehn (2001) and Flick (2009) add that neither the individual

interviews nor the focus group interviews are a better data collection method than the other. These two methods should be combined when collecting qualitative data (Lambert & Loiselle, 2008).

A suitable environment in which the individual interviews could be conducted was arranged to accommodate the sport coordinators and to ensure that they were comfortable and there was privacy. Most of the interviews were conducted at the institution in a private boardroom with limited or no disturbances. The same questions that were asked during the focus group interviews were asked at the individual interviews.

Each sport coordinator signed the informed consent. Before starting the interview, the researcher explained the reason for the interview and why tape recordings were being used. An approximate duration for the interviews was discussed to ensure that the sport coordinators did not feel pressured for time. The length of the interviews was limited to one hour to ensure that the sport coordinators did not become irritated and could stay focused if the interviews took too long.

During the data collection process, the researcher fulfilled the role of listener and observer, with limited participation. This means that the researcher only asked questions and probing questions, until the questions were properly answered. At the end of the interview, the researcher reconfirmed and reflected the findings obtained during the interview. The data that had been collected were reflected and the sport coordinators confirmed these interpretations.

The researcher was sensitive to the tone of voice, rhythm of speech, speed of speech. It was necessary to identify important, unusual or new themes, differentiating between relevant and irrelevant data (Hein, 1980; Smith, 2012).

The researcher had to be an active listener. She had to avoid prejudice and limit the number of interruptions. It was necessary to constantly reassess the information and the researcher was aware of her own preconceived views and ideas (Kvale, 1996, Smith, 2012).

7.7.3.5 *The researcher*

The researcher acted as a primary “research tool” in this study (Streubert & Carpenter, 1995). To enable the researcher to gather the necessary data, she asked guiding and probing questions during the interviews. The researcher was actively involved in the data gathering process because she fulfilled the following roles (Finch & Lewis, 2005):

- The researcher was an integral part of the research process. She personally conducted the interviews and generated the field notes. When a researcher is personally involved, thorough data gathering is possible on the various interpretations of the participants who experience the phenomenon first-hand in order to construct an informed and systematic meaning of the phenomenon (Shar & Corley, 2006).
- The researcher created an opportunity for the sport participants to make contributions. Where necessary, she encouraged the sport participants to provide input in the discussions. According to Kitthananan (s.a.), the researcher should create a supportive environment by encouraging the expression and discussion of different views and perceptions.
- The researcher addressed the possible problem of dominant sport participants by requesting them to be receptive and patient towards other participants' opinions.
- The researcher could draw out reticent and silent participants by maintaining eye contact and encouraging them to speak up. To optimise the discussion, the researcher made procedural suggestions such as *"Let us hear the other participants' views"*.
- During the data gathering and analysis process, the researcher critiqued the data, analysed the various perceptions and meanings of the participants and compared the responses from the different focus group interviews and individual interviews in order to establish a pattern.
- The researcher provided pertinent information and answered serious questions that were raised by the participants.

7.7.3.6 *The focus group and interview schedule*

According to Grbich (1999), an interview can be informal, structured or guided. An informal interview allows the interviewer to give structure to the interview and he or she can choose the specific topic. During a structured interview, the interviewer is bound to questions that are predefined, which normally limits the objectives (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Both guided and open-ended questions were asked during the interviews.

In a guided interview, guiding questions are used because the phenomena consist of broad objectives. Participants are encouraged to explain their views and experiences in a specific situation and the interviewer can explore any issue that may arise.

Prior to the interviews, the researcher read the literature that helped her to identify a tentative list of key issues which were then used to create an interview schedule. The interview schedule contained a tentative nonexhaustive list of open-ended questions that would be asked during the interviews (Glaser, 1992). According to McLafferty (2004), these questions are used to direct the interviews, to ensure that all the desired information is obtained and to stimulate the dialogue on the phenomenon.

The interview schedule also contained open-ended questions and focused on the development of a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model based on the experiences and views of employees who participated in organisational team sport interventions.

Annexure B is an example of the interview schedule used during focus group interviews and Annexure C is an example of the interview schedule used during the individual interviews. These two schedules differ slightly because the sport coordinators had to provide information regarding the sport participants' positive and negative experiences when playing in a diverse team as some of the sport coordinators did not participate in organisational team sport. The sport participants had to explain their own experiences about playing sport in a diverse group and how their experiences of being part of a diverse sports team helped them to minimise the diversity constraints in their workplace.

7.7.3.7 Schedule of guiding questions during the focus group and individual interviews

During the focus group interviews and individual interviews, guiding questions were not rigorously followed in the same order or sequence in which the researcher had prepared them. There were some instances where the participants or sport coordinators talked about a topic that the researcher had planned to discuss later during the focus group interviews or individual interviews. The research formulated the guiding questions on the basis of information gathered from the participants' and sport coordinators' views and perceptions.

Although guiding questions give structure to interviews, the researcher had to remember that these questions could not be used as a strict formula but were only used as a tool to gather

information (Polit & Hungler, 1995). A copy of the scheduled guiding questions is contained in annexures B and C at the end of this thesis.

7.7.3.8 *Format of questions during the focus group and individual interviews*

Interview questions can be open or closed ended. Open-ended questions, for example, *“What is your definition or explanation of the word diversity management?”* allowed the participants and sport coordinators to give any answer they wanted. When a limited response was required, closed-ended questions were used. In this research study, the researcher felt the need to ask open-ended questions as guiding questions. If open-ended questions were asked, the participants and sport coordinators were able to express their views and perceptions without any constraints (Grbich, 1999; Silverman, 2009).

During this study, leading or closed-ended questions were only asked to clarify a specific point. A closed-ended question only requires a limited response such as *“yes”* or *“no”*. An example of a closed-ended question that was used during this research study was: *“You are therefore of the opinion that participation in sport can be used as an intervention for diversity management in an organisation?”* This question was only asked after the participant or sport coordinator had already provided information on the phenomenon and the researcher felt the need to clarify this viewpoint.

During the focus group interviews with the participants and individual interviews with the sport coordinators, different types of questions were asked. Introductory questions were asked that were based on the planned guide. Follow-up questions were used to encourage the participants or sport coordinators to elaborate further on a certain topic. Probing questions were asked when the researcher needed to understand better or was interested in a specific topic. Specific questions were asked when more precise information was required. Direct questions were used when more personal information was needed. Indirect questions, for example, *“Based on your experience, what are the actions that organisations can take to support team sport in an organisation?”*, were asked to the participants or sport coordinators when they had to provide information on other organisations’ or participants’ views. Interpreting questions were asked to clarify the participants’ responses.

7.7.3.9 *Data recording instruments*

In accordance with the principles of theoretical sampling, the researcher used various methods of audio recordings and field notes to generate rich data and pursue data saturation. Hence to

produce credible data, the researcher personally recorded the focus group interviews and individual interviews using the various instruments and the informed consent of the participants. According to Douglas (2003), when each interview is audio taped, it generates a considerable amount of data that enables a specific focus on the particular words used by the participants or the hermeneutics (Rapley, 2007).

To promote a rich context analysis of data, the researcher used field notes to note the nonverbal cues of the participants, as suggested by McLafferty (2004) and Flick (2009).

The transcripts of the audio tapes were used to achieve the following data gathering goals (Arthur & Nazroo. 2005):

- to identify the gaps in the focus group interviews and individual interviews and make further data gathering decisions about reaching theoretical data saturation
- to interpret the participants' emotions during the interviews through the analysis of their voice tones as well as their emphasis on certain words
- to identify and address the data gaps by ensuring the comprehensiveness of the data gathering and the quality required for compiling the theoretical model

7.7.3.10 *Transcription of the tape recordings*

The tape recordings of the focus group interviews and individual interviews were transcribed verbatim. During the focus group interviews the researcher gave each participant a number, and he or she had to first say his or her number and then answer the question. This procedure made transcription of the focus group interviews much easier, because the researcher was aware of which participant had said what during the focus group interviews. This procedure was not necessary during the individual interviews because only one sport coordinator was interviewed at a time.

The focus group interviews and individual interviews were typed up as follows:

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW	
ORGANISATION 1 (Netball team)	
A1	Researcher: What is your definition or explanation of the word "diversity

A2	management”?
A3	Participant 1: It is basically when you manage people with things that are different.
A4	Participant 2: It is to manage diversity in an organisation.
A5	Participant 6: Diversity management is managing cultural, religious, race, gender etc.
A6	differences and educating people about our difference in order for us to work better
A7	together.

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW	
ORGANISATION 2 (Cricket team)	
B1	Researcher: What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity
B2	management”?
B3	Participant 8: All people are different or diverse and diversity management means to
B4	manage the differences between people.
B5	Participant 9: Yes, it is exactly what participant 8 said – it is to learn more about the
B6	differences of other people and help them to understand each other.
B7	Researcher: Can you give me examples of those “differences between people”?
B8	Participant 8: Like only in this group, we are different with regard to race,
B9	backgrounds, religion, gender.
B10	Researcher: Give me some examples of different religious groups.
B11	Participant 9: It could be Hindu, Christian, Moslem.

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW	
ORGANISATION 3 (Cricket team)	
C1	Researcher: What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity
C2	management”?
C3	Participant 23: Diversity management means to put all the different flavours together
C4	and help them to work together and understand one another.
C5	Researcher: Different flavours such as?
C6	Participant 23: Different religions, cultures, languages, educational levels.
C7	Researcher: Give me examples of differences in language.
C8	Participant 9: English, Afrikaans, Sotho, Tswana, just to name a few.
C9	Researcher: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the
C10	employees in an organisation?
C11	Participant 22: People understand more about the different cultures.

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW WITH SPORT COORDINATOR ORGANISATION 1	
SA1	Researcher: What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity management”?
SA2	
SA3	Sport coordinator 1: Diversity management is to understand that we are in a diverse nation where we have different cultures, religion and beliefs and I think that it is the understanding that goes into on a daily basis. It is the management of these differences.
SA4	
SA5	
SA6	
SA7	Researcher: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?
SA8	
SA9	Sport coordinator 1: Employees work together and they understand each other. Employees learn different cultures and gain different mileage from each other’s different backgrounds. We can learn from each other when people come from different backgrounds. We build each other as a nation and build each other in the organisation.
SA10	
SA11	
SA12	
SA13	

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW WITH SPORT COORDINATOR ORGANISATION 2	
SB1	Researcher: What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity management”?
SB2	
SB3	Sport coordinator 2: Diversity management is in my opinion when you manage every type of race, age, culture, background.
SB4	
SB5	Researcher: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?
SB6	
SB7	Sport coordinator 2: It gives everybody an equal change/chance???. It is not something like “because I am black I don’t get the same opportunities as someone else”. It is also sometimes to put up your hand and say “I am here, I want to participate”.
SB8	
SB9	

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW WITH SPORT COORDINATOR ORGANISATION 3	
SC1	Researcher: What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity management”?
SC2	
SC3	Sport coordinator 3: Diversity management for me is to establish an environment inclusive of everyone’s differences and similarities, to work towards the same goal.
SC4	
SC5	Researcher: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the

SC6	employees in an organisation?
SC7	Sport coordinator 3: If we acknowledge our differences, this will enable us to work
SC8	better together, and by knowing this, enrich our lives.

Each typed line was numbered. For instance, during the first focus group interview with the sport participants, the first typed line started with A1 and the second with A2, etc. During the second focus group interview with the sport participants, the first typed line started with B1 and the second typed line with B2, etc. The individual interviews with the sport coordinators were typed as follows: The first line started with SA1 and the second with SA2, etc. During the individual interview with the second sport coordinator, the first typed line started with SB1 and the second with SB2, etc. This technique made data analysis much easier because when the researcher had to return to the typed interviews, the specific statement could easily be found (Tesch, 1990).

7.7.4 Data analysis

The data analysis process in qualitative research depends on three issues. **Firstly**, the philosophical assumptions made in the research study pertain to the dialogue that necessitates a discourse or narrative analysis of the data to obtain a broader or deeper understanding by developing theoretical models of the phenomenon (Baptiste, 2001; McLoad, 2011). **Secondly**, the data analysis during qualitative research depends on the resources available to the researcher to manage the data (Baptiste, 2001; Silverman, 2009).

7.7.4.1 Steps 1 – 4 of the research process: the content analysis method of Tesch

Because of the large quantity of the data that were collected in this study, the researcher initially applied Tesch's (1990) method to identify the main themes (and code names) for the study. The data was analysed using Tesch's method before any computer software programmes i.e. Atlas.ti can be used because these programmes do not analyse the data itself – it is dependent on the researcher to insert the code names which have been identified by applying Tesch's steps of analysis.

Tesch (1990) used the following eight steps (Creswell, 1994):

- **Step 1:** The tape-recorded focus group interviews with the sport participants and individual interviews with the sport coordinators were typed. Notes were made as they came to mind.

- Step 2: The interview that was most interesting was selected and the researcher wrote the ideas in the margin. As a starting point in identifying the main codes, the researcher selected the data from the most comprehensive that had potential to become main codes.
- Step 3: A list was compiled of all the different topics. Topics that were similar were grouped together. These topics were then grouped into “main topics”, “exclusive topics” and “leftovers”.
- Step 4: The different topics were abbreviated as codes.
- Step 5: The descriptive wording that occurred the most for the different topics was analysed and themes were created.
- Step 6: After a final decision was made on the abbreviation for the different themes the codes were alphabetised.
- Step 7: Each theme's data material was assembled and grouped with the theme.
- Step 8: If necessary, the data were recorded and reported. If unnecessary, the findings were reported.

7.7.4.2 Steps 5 and 6 of the research process: Atlas.ti content analysis method

After the researcher had analysed the data, she used qualitative data analysis software (Atlas.ti) to manage the data (Konopásek, 2008; Maclaran & Catterall, 2002). When there is a vast quantity of qualitative data, the body of data necessitates the use of a computer software program for data analysis by coding data and to present a visual model of data that is based on emerging categories (Brown, Stevens, Troiano & Schneider, 2002). The researcher therefore coded and categorised the data and themes were developed that featured the participants' experiences and words in order to develop a theoretical model of a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model.

Because the available qualitative analysis software programs vary in applicability and nature, the researcher compared them on the basis of their data analysis ability and utility to build theoretical models. Theory building software programs have the following advantages (Miles & Weitzman, 1994):

- A researcher is allowed to make the connections between the codes because of the software's code retrieval functionalities.
- The software promotes the development of higher-order categories and classification and therefore makes it possible to formulate assertions or propositions that fit the data.
- The software can be used for data linking, data coding, data search, retrieval and memo writing.

The qualitative data (interviews) were analysed by making use of Atlas.ti which is a code-based theory builder designed to become an extension of the researcher herself (Babbie, 2008). Because Atlas.ti supports content analysis and grounded theory, the researcher decided to use a combination of these two methods. According to Muhr (1994) and Candy (2006), Atlas.ti allows for the analysis of textual, graphical and audio data, and it is a powerful qualitative analysis software available on the market. It offers a great variety of tools to accomplish all the tasks associated with a systematic approach to unstructured data, that is, data that are not meaningfully analysed by formal statistical approaches. Atlas.ti is able to explore the complex phenomena hidden in the data Atlas.ti (Anon, 2002; Konopásek, 2008).

The researcher decided to use Atlas.ti because of its flexibility of use, user friendliness and theory-building capacity. Atlas.ti can be used to analyse the interviews and other text-based research data by importing, coding, displaying and analysing a wide range of qualitative data types (Candy, 2006; Lewis, 2004). Another reason for choosing Atlas.ti, was that it is a computer-aided data analysis method and known for its ability to retrieve and index data through codes, efficient data management, identify themes and linkages in the data and to build a picture of the relations between data (Maclaran & Catterall, 2002). Atlas.ti is extremely user friendly and also a strong tool for network displays (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Hwang, 2008).

At the outset, the researcher was not familiar with the use of the Atlas.ti software and this could have had a negative influence on the trustworthiness of the research, because data analysis depends solely on the researcher's skills and knowledge (Baptiste, 2001; Silverman, 2009). To ensure the necessary competence, the researcher attended a course on Atlas.ti that focused on the gainful use of the software. An Atlas.ti course was arranged and attended at the University of South Africa.

Finally, the analysis of qualitative data depends on data analysis tactics and strategies (Baptiste, 2001). The strategies the researcher used during the analysis of data that were gathered included interplay of inductive-deductive strategies, the constant comparison of creativity, synthesis and methods in order to develop a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model (Merriam, 2009). Grounded theory uses inductive-deductive strategies to derive ideas inductively and test these ideas deductively against the data (McGhee *et al.*, 2007).

Arbitrarily but on logical grounds it is decided that if two or more participants have the same perception there is a confirmation that there is an agreement.

7.7.4.3 *The grounded theory structure of Carlile and Christensen (2004) used for the model development*

During the development of a model, a researcher can pursue the following three steps (Carlile & Christensen, 2004):

- *Step 1: observation.* The phenomena are observed by the researcher and he describes and measures what is being presented by the participants. Thorough observation, documentation and assessment of the phenomena in numbers and words are of utmost importance during this step because if the participants are unable to agree upon the description of the phenomena, it will not be possible to develop trustworthy theory, if it is based on different descriptions and interpretations of the phenomena.
- *Step 2: classification.* After the phenomena have been observed and described, the researcher classifies them into categories. The researcher used the first four steps of Tesch's (1990) method (see section 7.7.4.1). Researchers normally refer to these categories as *frameworks* or *typologies*.
- *Step 3: defining relationships.* In the last step, the researcher explores the relationship between the category-defined features and the observed outcomes. In the stage of descriptive theory building, researchers recognise and make clear what differences in attributes and differences in the size of those attributes, concur with the outcomes. The output of studies obtained during this step is referred to as *models*. (Constructing the model and visual presentation in chapter 10).

Figure 7.1 illustrates the two sides to the building theory pyramid, namely the inductive and deductive sides. The cycle of theory building is complete when both deductive and inductive approaches are included.

Techniques such as Tesch and Atlas.ti are used to hypothesise with regard to the data and to relationships between outcomes. However, no model is the best model and each model explains deficiencies of other models and suffers from their own deficiencies.

If a researcher moves from the base to the peak of the pyramid in all three steps (observation, categorisation and association), the inductive portion of the theory-building process is followed. The theory will only begin to improve when the researcher moves from the peak to the base of the pyramid in a deductive portion of the cycle – the researcher seeks to test the theory that had been formulated inductively. This is mostly done by exploring whether the same relationships exist between the outcomes and the attributes in a changed set of data than the data from which the theory were induced.

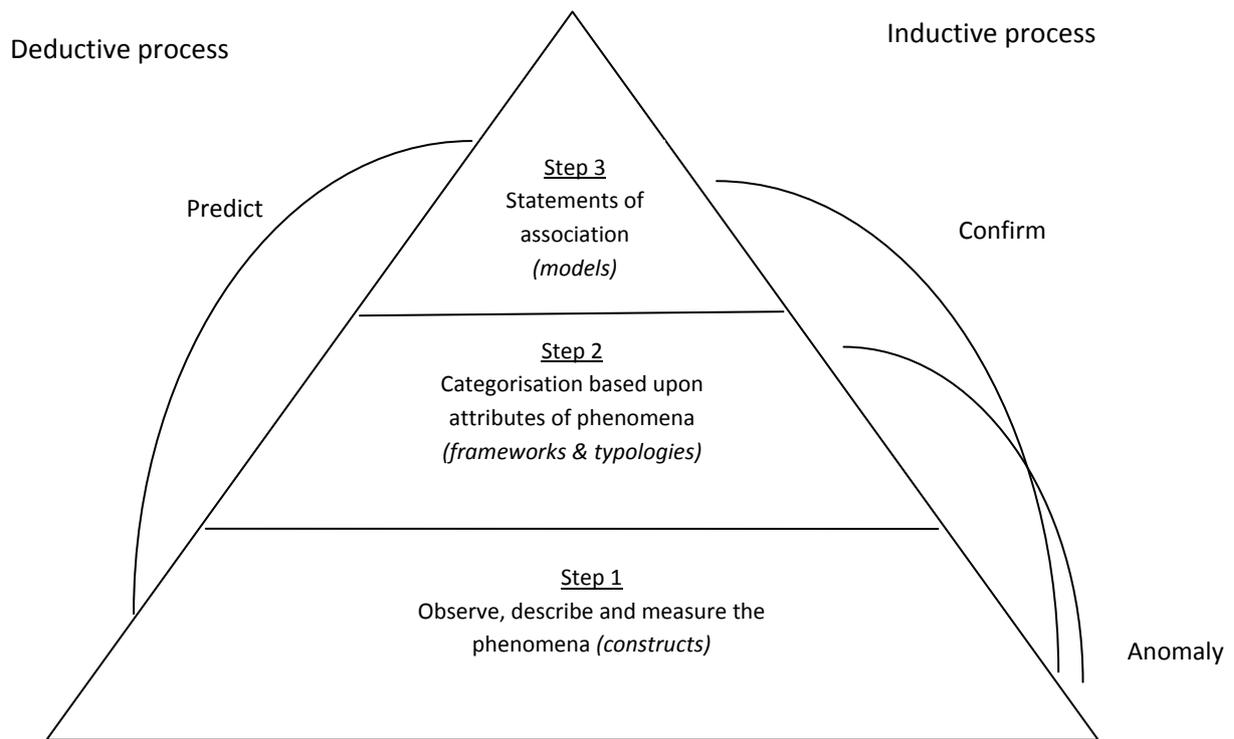
When research is conducted to test a theory on new data, the researcher may find that the characteristics of the study in the new set of data does relate to the outcomes as predicted. When this happens, the research confirms the existence of the new theory and that it can be used under the circumstances or conditions observed. Should an anomaly be identified, an opportunity to improve the theory occurs (Carlile & Christensen 2004).

When an academic tests a theory on new data he or she may find that the attributes of the study in the new set of data do compare with the outcomes as predicted. When this happens, the test confirms that the new theory can be used under the circumstances or conditions observed. Should an anomaly be identified, an opportunity to improve the theory occurs.

When an anomaly is discovered, the researcher has the opportunity to revisit the categorisation scheme (cut data in different ways) to enable the anomaly and the previous association of outcomes and attributes to be explained.

The inductive analysis, deductive analysis, constant comparison, interpretive and reflexive analysis, synthesis and creativity that form part of the grounded structure for model development will be discussed below.

Figure 7.1: The process of building theory



Source: Carlile and Christensen (2004, p.5)

a Inductive analysis

Inductive analysis is a theory-building process that starts with the observations of various specific instances and seeks to establish a theoretical generalisation about the phenomenon (Andrade, 2009). This type of strategy was therefore used in this research study to draw the inferences about the units of the analysis in order to categorise the data and identify their relationships as and when they emerged (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

When inferences from the data are drawn, one has to be engrossed in the data (Rabiee, 2004; Walter & Emery, 2005). The researcher therefore chose to transcribe the tapes personally to engross herself in and familiarise herself with the data so that accurate inferences could be drawn from the data. However, because the researcher was so engrossed in the data, valuable information could have been lost owing to the preconceptions. In order to safeguard against the loss of valuable information, the researcher constantly read and reread the data gathered to establish codes and themes (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

The researcher used an inductive strategy, because the research setting is vital to interpret and generate the meanings of the participants' views and perceptions to the phenomenon of organisational team sport interventions (Gibbs, 2007).

b Deductive analysis

Both inductive and deductive strategies were adopted in this study because this research study focused both on the discovery of data patterns pertaining to organisational team sport interventions and on the confirmation of the criteria that emerged (Hyde, 2000). The deductive reasoning strategy in this study was used to compare the findings with the literature and explain them (Gibbs, 2007) in order to achieve the external validity of the study findings (Andrade, 2009). The theoretical model developed on organisational team sport interventions and the relationships that were identified between the categories of data were inferred from the empirical data (Olsen, 2004). When deductive strategies are thus used in qualitative research, it enhances the acceptability of the research findings (Hyde, 2000).

c Constant comparison

Constant comparison was used during the data analysis. Constant comparison enables the researcher to determine relationships between categories of data by including emerging categories into one core category, explaining the differences in data and formulating hypotheses about them (Bitsch, 2005). Since the emerging themes need to be grounded in the data, the constant comparison method requires reflexivity on the part of the researcher in order to promote the severity of the findings (McGhee *et al.*, 2007, Northway, 2000). Reflexivity means that the researcher needs to systematically analyse the study assumptions against other researchers' understandings and definitions (Lynch, 1999).

An important feature of grounded theory research is the use of constant comparison. In this research study, the constant comparison method was used to compare concepts and data derived from the focus group sessions with one another in order to ground the findings of the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Four stages were used during the constant comparison method, namely (1) open coding, (2) axial coding, (3) selective coding; and (4) literature comparison.

- *Stage 1: open coding.* Before the data were coded, the researcher familiarised herself with each conversation by searching for individual nuances and perspectives in the language (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2008). The researcher then transcribed the interviews into a Microsoft Word document and also reviewed the field notes. The data were also edited for

spelling and grammar. The edited Microsoft Word document was converted into "plain text" to make it compatible with Atlas.ti.

The researcher then developed open codes by breaking the data into incidents or segments found in the responses of the respondents. The data segments from one focus group were compared with the data segments from other focus group sessions in order to categorise and conceptualise data and to achieve data saturation (Brown *et al.*, 2002; Shannak & Aldhmour, 2009). Core categories began to emerge from the results of the first set of focus group interviews and individual interviews (Jones *et al.*, 2005).

- *Stage 2: axial coding.* The open codes (stage 1) were analysed for concepts and relationships (Shannak & Aldhmour, 2009) using the paradigm model and axial coding to explore linkages in the data. The paradigm model is a technique of axial coding which proposes linkages to data for validation of the core context, category, interaction/action and consequences (Rabiee, 2004). Once it became obvious that the emerging core categories reflected organisational team sport interventions, the subsequent focus group interviews and individual interviews were increasingly focused on these core categories.

The subsequent focus group interviews and individual interviews focused on testing the core categories for completeness and on the integration of data categories with the properties in order to form a unified whole (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Once the core categories were saturated, theoretical coding was done. The theoretical model in the data can further be grounded by the participants' own language at all levels of coding, thereby adding to the credibility of the findings, which is in accordance with grounded theory methodology (Chiovitti & Piran, 2003). The theories, models and concepts are thus developed from the participants' social constructed knowledge (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2006).

- *Stage 3: selective coding.* This stage involves restricting the findings by reducing the number of categories and their properties into smaller sets of concepts (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Categories and subcategories are therefore integrated with a central concept in order to provide density and sufficient detail – in this study, in the emerging theoretical model on organisational team sport interventions (Bitsch, 2005). Selective codes were then classified into conditions, context, interactions, outcomes and actions (Douglas, 2003). When the data were collected by more focused collection, categories began to become saturated, at which point the data collection could stop. The data were then reassembled into a basic social process describing the experiences of employees participating in organisational team sport interventions.

- *Stage 4: literature comparison.* The themes that were identified were compared to the existing literature for similarities and differences in preparation for the development of a theoretical model of a diversity management content model and diversity management implementation model (Durant-Law, 2005; Pandit, 1996). Only after theoretical data saturation has occurred, can the themes be compared with the literature (Daengbuppha *et al.*, 2008). In grounded theory, the existing literature may be used to identify gaps in knowledge as well as to improve the openness of the study to data collection, coding and writing (Giske & Artinian, 2007). An initial review of the literature was conducted prior to the data gathering process in order to stimulate theoretical sensitivity, guide theoretical sampling, determine questions for the focus group interviews and individual interviews and provide supplementary validity for the findings. A review of the literature helped the researcher to improve her knowledge and identify the boundaries of previous research. This enabled her to focus on the research and justify the formulation of the research problem (Williams, 1998).

The researcher conducted a second review of the literature after the data had been analysed in order to compare her results with the literature. The comparison of emergent concepts with the existing literature is compulsory during theory building (Verma, 2003).

d Interpretive and reflexive analysis

In this study, the interpretive and reflexive strategies to analyse data were also used. The interpretive strategies were used to interpret the participants' perceptions and responses and the subjective meanings they attached to organisational team sport interventions. The reflexive strategy on the Atlas.ti software program was used to analyse the data (Welsh, 2002).

e Synthesis

Synthesis means putting parts or elements of the data together to construct a new pattern or meaning which was not recognised previously to generate a theory or model (Hofnie-Hoëbes, 2005). In this study, reflexive, interpretive and synthesis analysis was used interchangeably to identify indicators and dimensions of organisational team sport interventions and these were forged into a new meaning in the construction of a theoretical model. The researcher also synthesised the focus group interview results with those of the Delphi process in this research study in order to construct a theoretical model of organisational team sport interventions.

Creativity was used to name categories and identify relationships between these categories and their properties. When creativity is used it yields insights into the data that have been collected and makes it possible to develop a theoretical model of organisational team sport intervention (Douglas, 2003). The creative process involves analysing the data in which the constant comparison method is used, and this progresses until theoretical saturation has reached (Bing, 2007).

7.7.5 Methods to ensure trustworthiness

Reliability and validity evaluate the quality of quantitative research. Although reliability and validity measures that are used in quantitative studies are not appropriate in qualitative studies, the concept of trustworthiness is applied to determine the quality and value of a study. A qualitative study can be regarded as trustworthy when the research can be accepted as true (Cho & Trent, 2006; McNeill, 1990; Silverman, 2009).

Four criteria are used to ensure trustworthiness in a qualitative study, namely credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Cho & Trent, 2006; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher compiled a schematic representation of the methodology to ensure trustworthiness in this study.

7.7.5.1 Credibility

Credibility means that the findings of the study are credible from the participants' and sport coordinators' views and perspectives. The main purpose of qualitative studies is to describe and understand the interest or experience from the participants' and sport coordinators' views and perspectives. Only the participants and sport coordinators can reasonably judge this study's credibility (Krefting, 1991; Rossmann & Rallis, 2011).

Credibility was achieved by gathering and analysing the data and comparing them with emerging categories until no new categories emerged. This process is known as theoretical sufficiency or saturation (Andrade, 2009). Credibility in this study was also achieved by using multiple sources of evidence such as different teams (netball, volleyball, cricket and soccer teams) (Rossmann & Rallis, 2011; Verma, 2003).

Triangulation is achieved when data are explored from different and multiple sources or research sites (Brown *et al.*, 2002). Data triangulation is necessary in research studies because it enhances the validity of the data (Holliday, 2002). The use of multiple sites (different sports teams) is an example of triangulation aimed at ensuring credibility.

Computers are more concerned with structure than with emotional experiences (Goulding, 1999). Atlas.ti was therefore used to analyse the data to ensure the credibility of this research (Welsh, 2002).

7.7.5.2 Transferability

Transferability of the results increases trustworthiness. It occurs when one research finding can be generalised to other situations (Krefting, 1991; Polit & Hungler, 1995; Rossman & Rallis, 2011). It is inappropriate to generalise data from one cultural group to another (Holt, 2001). Transferability in qualitative research may or may not be a problem. If the assumption is made at the beginning of the study that the findings represent only one life perspective or are explorative and descriptive, the criterion for transferability is not relevant. When the researcher wishes to make generalisations about the phenomenon, it is vital to have strategies to increase transferability (Krefting, 1991).

To enable the readers of this study to determine whether the findings of the study are relevant to their personal circumstances, the information of the population is presented in section 7.7.1.2 and the personal information of the participants and sport coordinators provided in tables 8.1 to 8.10 (Krefting, 1991). It was not necessary to provide an index of applicability for this research, but it was the researcher's responsibility to provide sufficient information that would enable other individuals to make transferability judgements.

7.7.5.3 Dependability

Dependability occurs when the researcher accounts for the ongoing change context in which the research takes place. The researcher needs to describe the changes during data gathering and how these affect the research (Rossman & Rallis, 2011).

In quantitative research, repeatability is expected to happen, while in qualitative research, variability is expected to occur. Almost all qualitative studies are adapted to the research situation, and no methodological descriptions, such as interrater reliability (used in quantitative research) exist. The data gathering, analysis and interpretation of the data methods must be

described in qualitative methods. The explanation of various methods provides information on how repeatable or unique the study is (Krefting, 1991). The researcher enhanced the dependability of this research study by intensively engaging with the data to find links between the interpretations and the data.

7.7.5.4 Confirmability

When the results of the research study are confirmed by other individuals, confirmability occurs. Various strategies are available to enhance confirmability. The process can be documented by checking and rechecking the gathering of the data (Rossman & Rallis, 2011).

Quantitative research requires objectivity, whereas the researcher must be involved in the phenomenon in qualitative research. Objectivity of data is an appropriate concern and can be achieved when truth value and applicability are ensured (Krefting, 1991).

In all qualitative studies, detailed records, field notes, the instruments used and summaries must be kept to enable moderators to examine these records and which will enable them to arrive at similar conclusions. Complete and detailed records of this study are kept, should outside audits be required (Krefting, 1991).

7.7.6 Truth value

The truth value in qualitative research involves the representation of the realities that are revealed by the participants and sport coordinators. This will enable the population who are experiencing the research study to familiarise themselves with the information gathered from the sample group (Krefting, 1991; Rossman & Rallis, 2011).

7.7.6.1 Prolonged experience

When adequate time is spent with the participants and sport coordinators, credibility can be enhanced (Krefting, 1991; Rossman & Rallis, 2011). The credibility in this study was improved because, at the time, the researcher had been participating in team sport for more than nine years. She therefore had spent adequate time with some of the participants and sport coordinators and was familiar with the context of the research.

7.7.6.2 *Reducing the risk of preferred social response*

There may be a risk that the participants and sport coordinators present favourite social responses, especially when they see the researcher as an authority figure. In this research, special care was taken to reduce responses that were biased, for instance, when the following question was asked: *“In your experience, what are the advantages of a diverse environment?”*, the participants and sport coordinators could give their own views and perceptions of this question (Krefting, 1991; Rossman & Rallis, 2011).

7.7.6.3 *Avoiding overinvolvement*

The researcher is also involved in a team sport and was aware of the risk of overinvolvement with some of the participants and sport coordinators and of the fact that this bias could also lead to an incorrect interpretation of the findings (Krefting, 1991). The duration of the interviews was approximately an hour, and the researcher obtained confirmation from the participants and sport coordinators to revisit them if further information was needed. However, it was not necessary to conduct any further interviews with the participants and sport coordinators.

7.7.6.4 *Reflexivity*

Credibility is also promoted through reflexivity. Reflexivity occurs when the researcher constantly assesses the influence of her own views, perceptions, background and interests in the study (Krefting, 1991; Rossman & Rallis, 2011). During this study, the researcher was aware of her own views and perceptions of diversity management which are based on organisational team sport interventions.

7.7.6.5 *Bracketing*

All personal preconceived views and opinions of the researcher were bracketed out so that every view and perception could be considered objectively (Brink *et al.*, 2006).

7.7.6.6 *Intuiting*

An intuitive awareness of the participants' and the sport coordinators' views and perceptions was developed by the researcher, and she became totally engrossed in this study through their views and perceptions. The researcher continually reassessed the data until there was a common understanding. Themes and patterns emerged during the analysis of the data.

7.7.6.7 *Authority of the research*

The researcher's authority enhanced the credibility of this research. Her authority was established by means of the following in-depth personal experience with team sport (Krefting, 1991):

- her expanded knowledge of the subject
- her outstanding judgemental skills
- her capability to explore
- her valid postgraduate qualifications

7.7.7 **Ethical measures**

Ethical considerations are more complex in qualitative research than in quantitative research, because of the involvement in the participants' and sport coordinators' experiences in life and the direction that qualitative research may take (Holloway & Wheeler, 2000; Silverman, 2009). All the trustworthiness factors were discussed in section 7.7.5 and form part of the ethical considerations. The principles of justice, beneficence and of respect for human dignity are discussed below.

7.7.7.1 *Principle of justice*

The principle of justice includes the right to privacy and fair treatment.

a Right to privacy

The right to privacy involves a participant or sport coordinator choosing what personal information he or she wishes to share and under what conditions (Burns & Grove, 2001; Rossman & Rallis, 2011).

Focus group interviews with participants and individual interviews with sport coordinators were conducted in private, and the data were only available to the researcher, which means that confidentiality was ensured. None of the employees at the various financial institutions had access to the data. The data were stored at the researcher's office. The participants and sport coordinators remained anonymous.

b Right to fair treatment

The participants and sport coordinators had a right to fair treatment, which involved the researcher's commitment that all the participants and sport coordinators would be honoured and treated with respect and courtesy (Polit & Hungler, 1993). A comprehensible agreement must exist with regard to the researcher's role and the phenomenon's participation. To ensure the participants' and the sport coordinators' right to fair treatment, they were protected by informed consent. The researcher also had to respect cultural differences and different types of individual diversity (Polit & Beck, 2004). During each interview, the researcher was dressed appropriately and each participant/sport coordinator was greeted with respect.

7.7.7.2 Principle of beneficence

The principle of beneficence includes freedom from harm, exploitation and the benefit/risk ratio.

a Freedom from harm

When freedom from harm is ensured by the researcher, it basically means that he or she has to take all necessary steps to reduce the dangers to the subjects involved in the study, including physical harm (loss of self-esteem, fatigue or injury, stress or economic harm) and harm to the growth of the participants (Bryman, 2001; Polit & Beck, 2004). Although it was unlikely that physical harm would occur, there was a possibility of the participants or sport coordinators disliking some of the questions asked and thus avoiding answering them (Polit & Hungler, 1993).

In this research study, the interview schedule was prepared and the researcher realised that some information would be required – hence the need to respect the participants' and sport coordinators' time. The researcher was cautious about asking certain political questions. Because cultural differences and diversity may have been a sensitive issue and caused discomfort, it was therefore necessary to explain the purpose of the research study. The participants and sport coordinators were more than willing to voice their personal views and

perceptions on certain issues. When the researcher obtained the informed consent from the participants and the sport coordinators, the usage of time was explained and therefore the researcher dealt with the risk of economic harm. The researcher ensured that she adhered to the time limits that were set.

b Freedom from exploitation

When necessary precautions are made to prevent any abusive or disrespectful treatment of the subject in the study, freedom from exploitation is ensured. The time usage involved the risk of exploitation in this study (Polit & Hungler 1993). The amount of time that would be required was explained by the researcher after she had obtained the participants and sport coordinators' informed consents. The researcher was at all times aware of the fact that she could misuse her position as a person who also participates in team sport and therefore no participants in her own team was included as informants.

c The benefit/risk ratio

This ratio refers to the results of careful analysis of the possible benefits and risks in the study. Should any risks be identified, they should be outweighed and justified by the supposed benefits. The researcher must attempt to limit risks and increase benefits (Burns & Grove, 2001; Polit & Hungler, 1993; Rossman & Rallis, 2011).

The participants and sport coordinators in this study were informed of the possible risks and benefits. The benefits were not obvious or immediate to the participants and sport coordinators, but they enabled the researcher to complete the research study. In the long run, the benefits of this research study were that organisational team sport interventions can be used as an intervention for diversity management and the possibility of conducting further studies. The possible risks in this research study were that the participants and sport coordinators were uncomfortable about talking about diversity and time loss.

7.7.7.3 Principle of respect for human dignity

The principle of respect for human dignity includes the right to full disclosure, informed consent and self-determination.

a The right to full disclosure

The right to full disclosure implies that the participants and sport coordinators have the right to be fully informed about the purpose of this research study (Polit & Hungler, 1993; Rossman & Rallis, 2011). The participants and the sport coordinators who participated in this research study were fully informed about every aspect and nature of the research study before the researcher interviewed them.

b Informed consent

Informed consent ensures that the participants and sport coordinators participate voluntarily (Silverman, 2009).

The participants and sport coordinators in this research study were informed that this study would be conducted to enable the researcher to develop a content and process diversity management model based on an organisational team sport intervention. The participants and sport coordinators were requested to supply answers to the questions put to them as accurately and precisely as possible. They were informed that duration the interviews would be at least an hour. In instances where the participants and sport coordinators agreed, the interviews were recorded, but if they did not approve, written notes were made of their responses. Where any of the participants and sport coordinators requested a summary of the research study, the researcher said that she would be more than willing to provide a summary on completion of the study.

The researcher expressed her appreciation for the participants' and sport coordinators' cooperation and they were informed that they had the right, at any stage, to terminate the interview. The researcher explained the methods of maintaining confidentiality, privacy and anonymity to the participants and sport coordinators (Brink & Wood, 1998; Polit & Hungler, 1993).

c The right to self-determination

The right to self-determination means that the participants and sport coordinators could choose whether or not they wish to be involved in this research study, without coercion. The participants and sport coordinators were informed that they had the right (Polit & Hungler, 1993; Silverman, 2009)

- not to reveal information on specific questions
- to stop participating at any time
- at any time ask for clarification

7.8 SUMMARY

In this study a qualitative research approach was adopted. A literature review was conducted and discussed in chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6. It was conducted prior to the gathering of data. The researcher also monitored the trustworthiness of the study and the ethical considerations. The researcher made use of a purposive sample group, and guided focus group interviews and individual interviews were conducted in which open-ended and probing questions were asked. Before the recommendations are made for this study, the interview questions will be analysed and themes identified and discussed.

Chapter 8 focuses on the interpretation, reporting and integration of the research results.

CHAPTER 8

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The biographical data and characteristics of the participants will be presented and discussed separately from the research findings as dealt with in chapter 9, for the following reasons:

- Because the biographical data were extremely bulky, this information merits a separate discussion from the themes that were identified in the data to be included in the diversity management model.
- It was imperative to include an extremely diverse sample of participants in a study in which a diversity management model was developed – hence the need for a comprehensive discussion of the characteristics of this highly diverse group. This will enable the researcher to emphasise the diversity management model.

However, even though the characteristics of the participants are discussed in a separate chapter, the characteristics that may have impacted on the findings will be taken into consideration and discussed where applicable.

The characteristics of the 72 participants are presented in tables 8.1 to 8.9 below, and the characteristics of the sport coordinators outlined presented in table 8.10.

Table 8.1: Biographical characteristics of participants in focus group 1 (netball team)

ORGANISATION 1: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NETBALL TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
1	Black	24	Female	Ndebele	Christian	Married	Marketing assistant	3 years
2	White	24	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Client care advisor	1 years

3	Black	24	Female	Zulu	Christian	Single	Sales advisor	1 years
4	Black	21	Female	Ndebele	Christian	Single	Client care advisor	3 years
5	White	25	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Senior advisor	2 years
6	Black	31	Female	South Sotho	Christian	Single	Advisor	6 years

The reason why only females were part of focus group 1, could be that netball was historically regarded as a game for women only (Drummond, 2009). The fact that this group consisted of participants from different races, ages, language groups, marital status and job designations made the sample sufficiently diverse for the study to be conducted.

Table 8.2: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 2 (cricket team)

ORGANISATION 2: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CRICKET TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
7	Indian	34	Male	English	Hindu	Single	Sales	5 years
8	White	37	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Divorced	Analyst	1 year
9	White	37	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Divorced	Sales	2 years
10	White	42	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Personal Assistant	8 years
11	Indian	28	Male	English	Tamil	Single	Administrator	4 years
12	Black	27	Male	Xhosa	Christian	Single	Administrator	3 years
13	White	34	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Divorced	IT developer	10 years

The second focus group consisted of different races, ages, genders, languages, religions, marital status and job designations, which made the sample sufficiently diverse to be included in the study.

Table 8.3: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 3 (cricket team)

ORGANISATION 3: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CRICKET TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years

								participating in organisational team sport
14	White	40	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Divorced	Business analyst	4 years
15	Black	24	Male	Tswana	Christian	Single	Actuarial analyst	1 year
16	Coloured	29	Male	English	Christian	Married	Operational manager	6 years
17	White	25	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Actuarial analyst	2 years
18	White	25	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Actuarial analyst	5 years
19	White	34	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Sales	4 years
20	Black	28	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Marketing	1 year

The third focus group consisted of different races, ages, genders, languages, religions, marital status and job designations to make the sample applicable for inclusion in the study.

Table 8.4: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 4 (soccer team)

ORGANISATION 4: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SOCCER TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
21	White	24	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Marketing	5 years
22	White	34	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Administrator	2 years
23	Black	28	Female	Zulu	Christian	Single	Service consultant	1 year
24	White	42	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Personal assistant	8 years
25	Black	31	Female	Setswana	Catholic	Single	Tele-underwriter	1 year
26	Indian	21	Male	English	Christian	Single	Service consultant	1½ years

As with the other groups, the fourth focus group was sufficiently diverse to meet *all* the requirements to be included in the study.

Table 8.5: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 5 (soccer team)

ORGANISATION 5: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SOCCER TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
27	White	28	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Client care	1 year
28	White	32	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Actuary	2 years
29	Black	27	Male	Sepedi	Christian	Single	IT developer	4 years
30	Coloured	26	Male	English	Christian	Single	Service consultant	5 years
31	White	32	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Call centre agent	7 years
32	Black	36	Female	Xhosa	None	Married	Head business intelligence	3 years

The fifth focus group met *all* the diversity requirements to qualify as a focus group.

Table 8.6: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 6 (volleyball team)

ORGANISATION 6: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE VOLLEYBALL TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
33	Indian	33	Male	English	Christian	Married	Relationship manager	6 years
34	Indian	34	Male	English	Hindu	Married	Marketing assistant	8 years
35	White	28	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Service consultant	1 year
36	Indian	36	Male	English	Hindu	Single	Fund consultant	5 years
37	Indian	43	Male	English	Christian	Married	Financial controller	3 years
38	White	37	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Divorced	Service	1 year

							consultant	
39	Indian	28	Male	English	Tamil	Married	Database analyst	1 year
40	White	42	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Personal assistant	8 years

The sixth focus group met the diversity requirements to qualify as a separate focus group.

Table 8.7: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 7 (cricket team)

ORGANISATION 7: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CRICKET TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
41	Indian	27	Male	English	Hindu	Single	Actuary	1 year
42	White	31	Male	English	Christian	Married	Underwriting consultant	1 year
43	Coloured	26	Male	English	Huron	Single	IT developer	3 years
44	White	39	Male	English	Catholic	Married	Sales	4 years
45	Indian	28	Male	English	Tamil	Single	Finance	3 years
46	White	31	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	Claims	9 years
47	Black	29	Male	English	Christian	Married	Claims	3 years

Although the seventh focus group consisted of males only, they differed with regard to race, age, language, religion, marital status and job designation, and thus qualified to be included as a separate focus group. The inclusion of only men in this focus group was also justified by the fact that cricket is played predominantly by men at national level.

Table 8.8: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 8 (cricket team)

ORGANISATION 8: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CRICKET TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
48	White	27	Male	English	Catholic	Engaged	Team leader	4 years

49	Indian	23	Male	English	Hindu	Single	Credit controller	1 year
50	Black	20	Male	English	None	Single	Credit controller	1 year
51	White	35	Male	English	Evolutionist	Single	Consultant	2 years
52	White	29	Male	English	Baptist	Engaged	Service specialist	1 year
53	White	25	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	Client relationship manager	1 year
54	Indian	29	Male	English	Hindu	Married	Team leader	6 years
55	Indian	25	Male	English	Christian	Single	Consultant	1 year

The eighth focus group met *all* the requirements for inclusion as a separate focus group in the study.

Table 8.9: Biographical characteristics of participants in group 9 (soccer team)

ORGANISATION 9: BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SOCCER TEAM PARTICIPANTS								
Participant	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Job designation	Number of years participating in organisational team sport
56	Black	37	Male	Tswana	Christian	Married	Reinsurance clerk	14 years
57	Black	24	Male	Tswana	Christian	Single	Sales consultant	1 year
58	Black	25	Male	Zulu	Christian	Single	Claims specialist	1 year
59	White	31	Male	English	Catholic	Married	Assistant manager	10 years
60	White	32	Male	English	Catholic	Married	System analyst	12 years
61	Indian	35	Male	English	Muslim	Married	Motor liability	8 years
62	Black	28	Male	Zulu	Christian	Single	Sales consultant	5 years
63	Black	20	Male	Zulu	Christian	Single	Admin clerk	3 years

The ninth focus group qualified for inclusion as a separate focus group in the research.

The characteristics of the nine sport coordinators are provided in table 8.10. Interviews were conducted with the coordinators until data saturation was reached. The interviewees represented different genders, languages, religions, marital status and experience (years) as sport coordinators and thus qualified for inclusion as participants in the study.

Table 8.10: Biographical characteristics of sport coordinators

BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SPORT COORDINATORS							
Sport coordinator	Race	Age	Gender	Language	Religion	Marital status	Number of years being a sport coordinator in the organisation
1	Black	27	Male	Sepedi	Christian	Single	3 years
2	Black	25	Male	Zulu	Christian	Single	3 years
3	White	42	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Married	8 years
4	White	40	Male	Afrikaans	Christian	Divorced	4 years
5	Coloured	26	Male	English	Christian	Single	5 years
6	White	42	Female	Afrikaans	Christian	Single	8 years
7	Indian	33	Male	English	Christian	Married	6 years
8	Indian	28	Male	English	Hindu	Single	3 years
9	White	27	Male	English	Catholic	Single	3 years

8.2 GRAPHIC ILLUSTRATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE FOCUS GROUPS AND INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

In order to facilitate perceptions of indicators that contribute to effective diversity management, it was necessary to use a diverse sample of employees for the research. Before discussing the actual data analysis, the diversity in the total sample, in all nine focus groups and the individual interviews, will therefore be confirmed by depicting it in the figures and tables that follow.

8.2.1 Overall diversity of participants

The diversity of the total sample (nine focus groups with nine individual participants) is indicated in tables 8.11 to 8.17, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.11: Frequency distribution: race profile of the total sample of participants

Race		Frequency	Percentage
	White	28	44.45
Black	18	28.57	
Indian	14	22.22	
Coloured	3	4.76	
Total	63	100	

According to table 8.11 and figure 8.1, the sample comprised 44.45% white participants, 28.57% black participants, 22.22% Indian participants and 4.76% coloured participants. Hence more than 73% of the participants were white and black. Most of the participants were from the black and white communities of the population because the major population groups in South Africa are blacks (76%), whites (13%), coloureds (9%) and Indians (2%) (Stander, 2011). Also, at this point in time, whites are still the majority group participating in organisational team sports (28 or 44.45%), with blacks constituting the second largest group (18 or 28.57%). Coloureds and Indians are therefore the smallest population groups in South Africa.

Figure 8.1: The overall sample: distribution by race

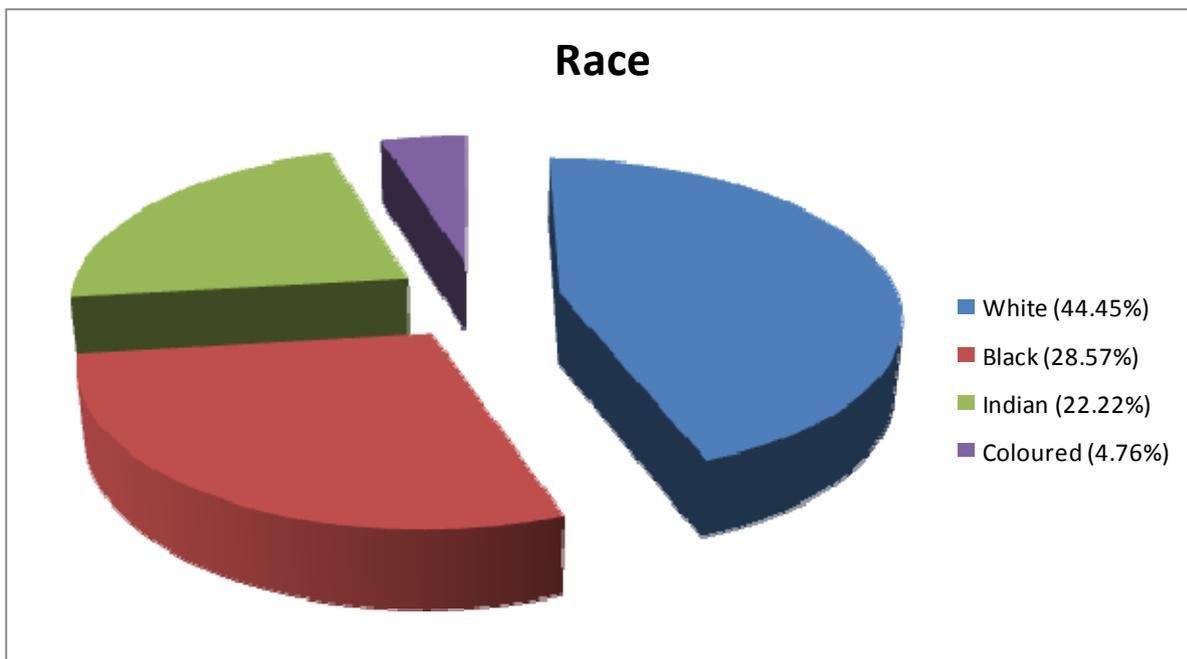


Table 8.12: Frequency distribution: age profile of the total sample of participants

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	20–25	17	26.98
26–30	18	28.57	
31–35	16	25.40	
36–40	8	12.70	
41–45	4	6.35	
Total	63	100	

According to table 8.12 and figure 8.2, 26.98% of the participants were between the ages of 20 and 25, 28.57% between the ages of 26 and 30, 25.40% between the ages of 31 and 35, 12.70% between the ages of 36 and 40 and 6.35% between the ages of 41 and 45. It is thus evident that most (51 or 79%) of the participants were young, between the ages of 20 and 35. Age was not expected to influence the expectations and experiences relating to diversity management perceptions much because the older participants were also relatively young (only 12 participants between 36 and 45).

Figure 8.2: The overall sample: distribution by age

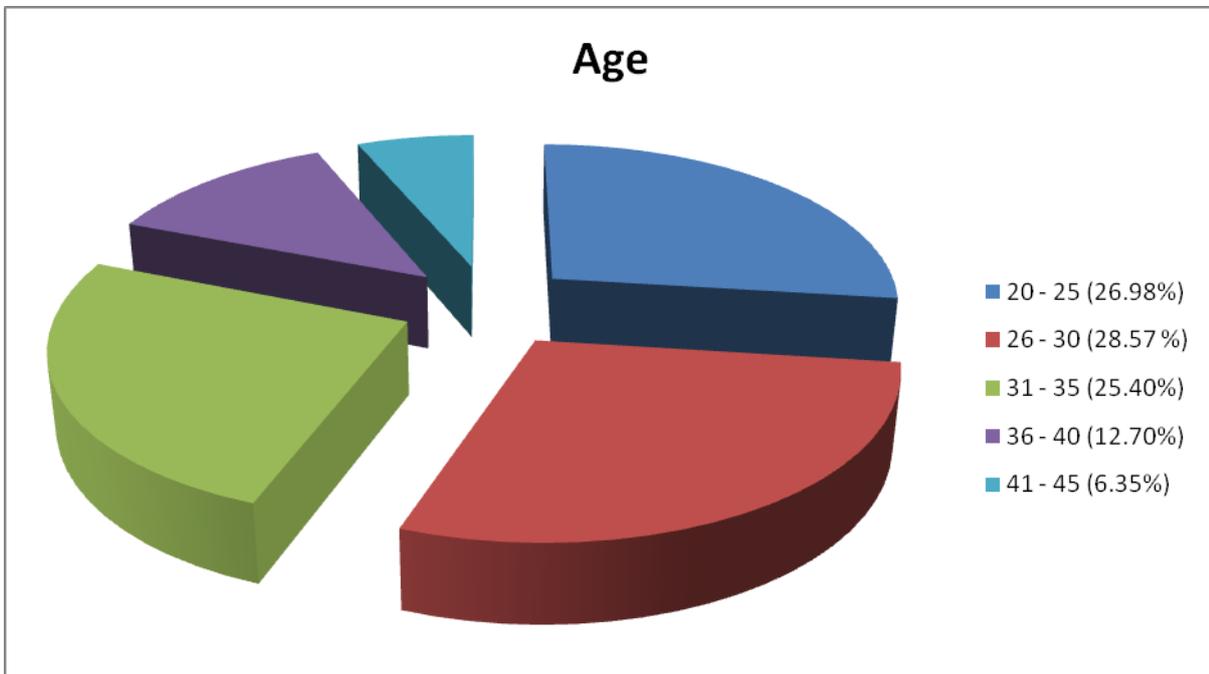


Table 8.13: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the total sample of participants

Gender		Frequency	Percentage
	Female	21	33.33
	Male	42	66.67
	Total	63	100

According to the data in table 8.13 and figure 8.3, 33.33% female participants and 66.67% male participants were included in the sample. There were more male participants in the total sample because more men usually play cricket and soccer than women. Almost 67% of the participants were male. The majority of the teams that were interviewed were cricket and soccer teams.

Figure 8.3: The overall sample: distribution by gender

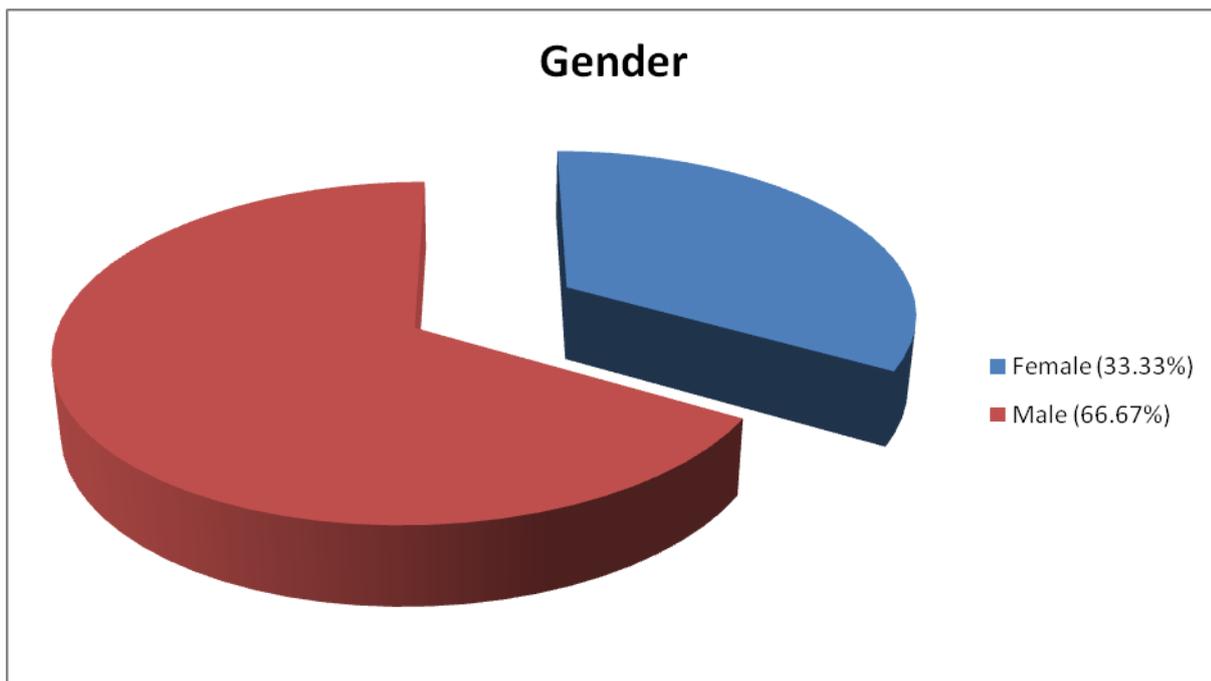


Table 8.14: Frequency distribution: language profile of the total sample of participants

Language		Frequency	Percentage
	English	26	41.27
	Afrikaans	22	34.92
	Ndebele	2	3.17
	Tswana	3	4.76

Zulu	5	7.94
South Sotho	1	1.59
Xhosa	2	3.17
Sepedi	1	1.59
Setswana	1	1.59
Total	63	100

According to the figures in table 8.14 and figure 8.4, the sample comprised the following: 41.27% English-speaking participants; 34.92% Afrikaans-speaking participants; 3.17% Ndebele-speaking participants; 4.76% Tswana-speaking participants; 7.94% Zulu-speaking participants; 1.59% South Sotho-speaking participants; 3.17% Xhosa-speaking participants; 1.59% Sepedi-speaking participants; and 1.59% Setswana-speaking participants. Most of the participants were therefore English and Afrikaans speaking. The languages mostly understood and spoken in South Africa are English and Afrikaans (Census, 2011). The participants who speak an African language constituted 23.81% of the sample. Although there were more English- and Afrikaans-speaking participants in the sample than other language groups, there were still enough African-speaking participants represented as a whole to ensure that the perceptions and experiences of the African language group would come across strongly.

Figure 8.4: The overall sample: distribution by language

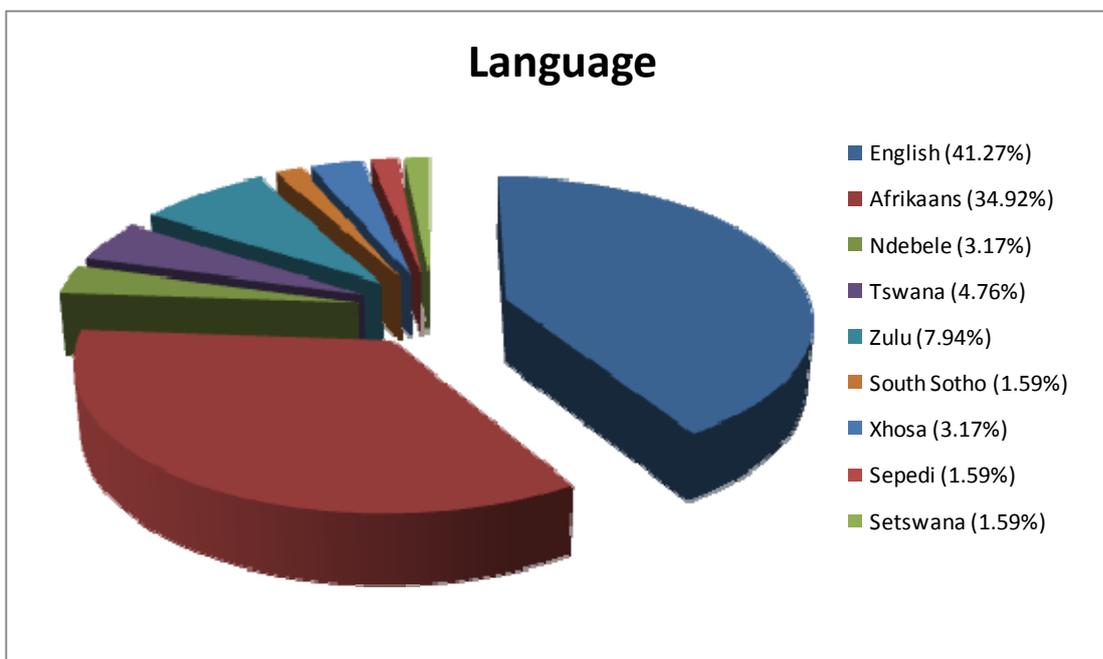


Table 8.15: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the total sample of participants

Religion		Frequency	Percentage
	Christian	43	68.25
Hindu	6	9.52	
Catholic	5	7.94	
Tamil	3	4.76	
Muslim	1	1.59	
Huron	1	1.59	
Baptist	1	1.59	
Evolutionist	1	1.59	
None	2	3.17	
Total	63	100	

According to table 8.15 and figure 8.5, the sample comprised the following: 68.25% Christian participants; 9.52% Hindu participants; 7.94% Catholic participants; 4.76% Tamil participants; 1.59% Muslim participants; 1.59% Huron participants; 1.59% Baptist participants; 1.59% Evolutionist participants; and 3.17% participants who had no religion. Christianity is the most common religion in South Africa among the white and coloured population groups (86.8%), and 79.9% of the black population and 24.4% of the population are Christian (Prozesky & de Gruchy, 1995).

Figure 8.5: The overall sample: distribution by religion

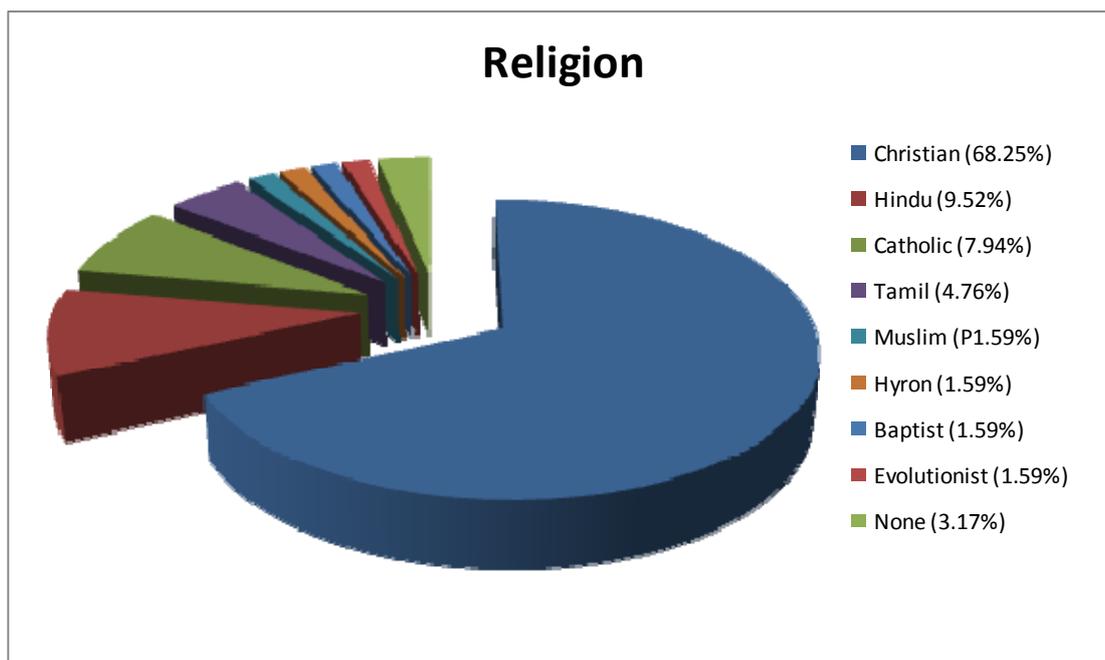


Table 8.16: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the total sample of participants

Marital status		Frequency	Percentage
	Single	34	53.97
	Married	22	34.92
	Engaged	2	3.17
	Divorced	5	7.94
	Total	63	100

Table 8.16 and figure 8.6 indicate that the sample was made up of 53.97% single, 34.92% married, 3.17% engaged and 7.94% divorced participants. Only two participants were engaged to be married and five were divorced. The married participants were thus fairly represented, with the highest representation of almost 54%. The fact that 53.97% of the sample were single and 34.92% married made the sample sufficiently diverse for the study to be conducted.

Figure 8.6: The overall sample: distribution by marital status

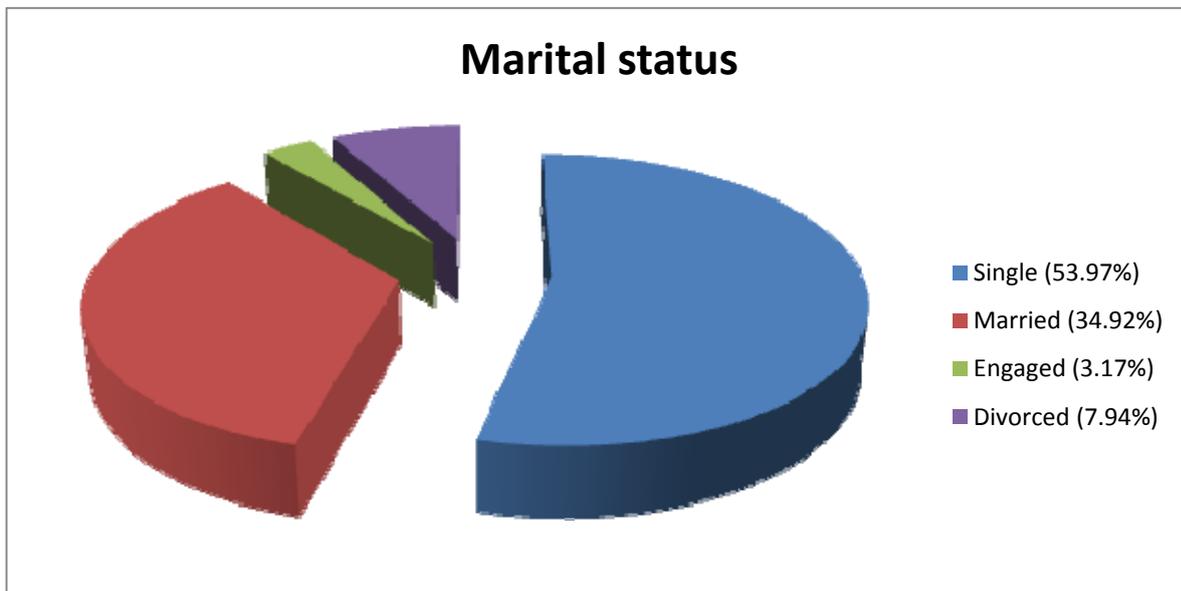


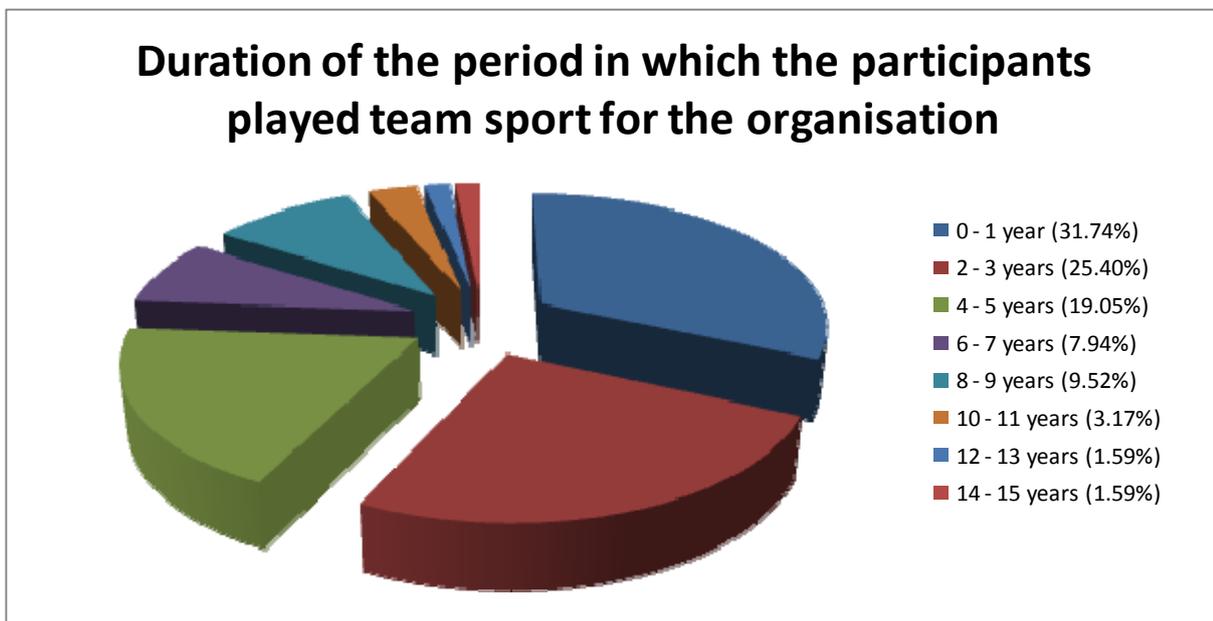
Table 8.17: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which the participants played team sport for the organisation for the total sample of participants

Duration of the period in which the participants played		Frequency	Percentage
	0–1 year	20	31.74
	2–3 years	16	25.40
	4–5 years	12	19.05

netball for the organisation	6–7 years	5	7.94
	8–9 years	6	9.52
	10–11 years	2	3.17
	12–13 years	1	1.59
	14–15 years	1	1.59
	Total	63	100

According to table 8.17 and figure 8.7, the sample was made up in such a way that the majority of the participants (31.74% and 25.40%) had only played netball for a short period of time (less than three years). Most of them were between the ages of 20 and 35 (table 8.2). When the age component is compared to the period during which the participants played organisational team sport for the organisation, one can assume that most of the participants had been employed by the financial organisation for only a short period. Organisational team sport is a new concept in many organisations, which could also explain why most of the participants in the sample group had participated in organisational team sport for between zero and three years only.

Figure 8.7: The overall sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation



8.2.2 Diversity variables of the sport coordinators

The different dimensions of diversity of the total sample of sport coordinators (9 individual interviews with sport coordinators) are provided in tables 8.18 to 8.24, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.18: Frequency distribution: race profile of the sport coordinators

Race		Frequency	Percentage
	White	4	44.45
Black	2	22.22	
Indian	2	22.22	
Coloured	1	11.11	
Total	9	100	

As indicated in table 8.18 and figure 8.8, the sample comprised four (44.45%) white sport coordinators, two (22.22%) black sport coordinators, two (22.22%) Indian sport coordinators and one (11.11%) coloured sport coordinators.

Figure 8.8: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by race

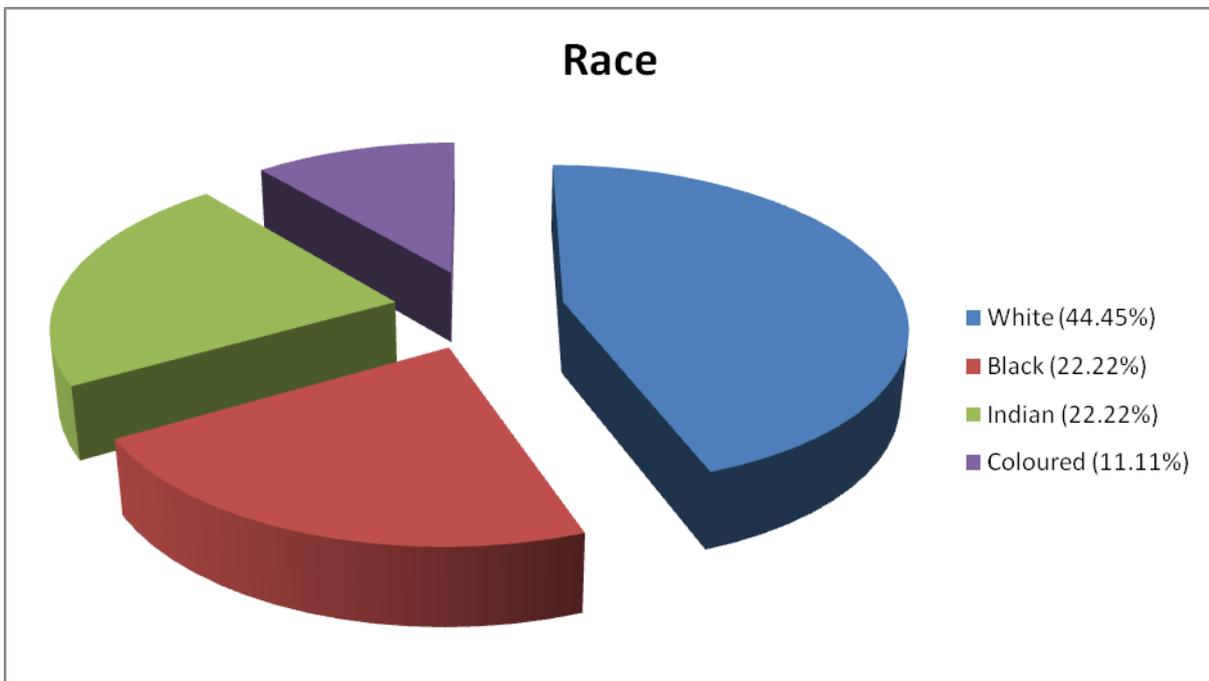


Table 8.19: Frequency distribution: age profile of the sport coordinators

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20–25	1	11.11
26–30	4	44.45
31–35	1	11.11
36–40	0	0
41–45	3	33.33
Total	9	100

According to table 8.19 and figure 8.9, the sample comprised one (11.11%) sport coordinator between the ages of 20 and 25, four (44.45%) between the ages of 26 and 30, one (11.11%) between the ages of 31 and 35 and three (33.33%) between the ages of 41 and 45. The majority of sport coordinators, namely six of the nine participants were younger than 35. This was to be expected because the sport codes they participated in, namely soccer, cricket and netball, are fairly physical

Figure 8.9: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by age

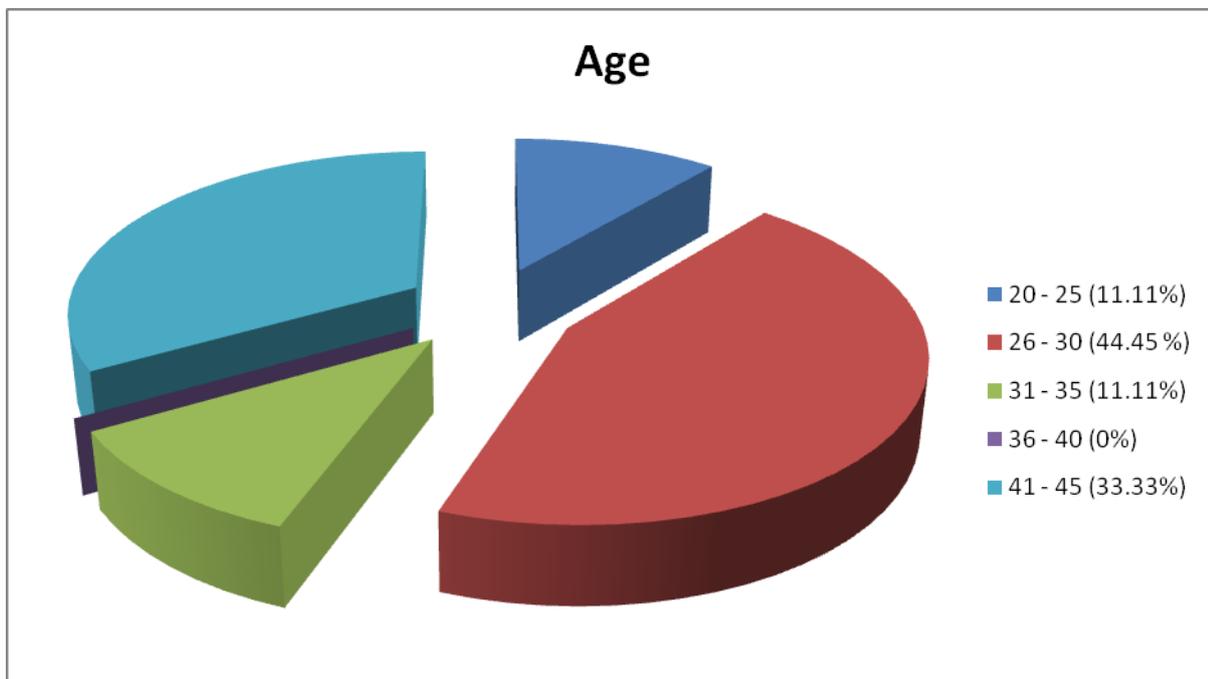


Table 8.20: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the sport coordinators

Gender		Frequency	Percentage
	Female	2	22.22
	Male	7	77.78
	Total	9	100

The figures in table 8.20 and figure 8.10 indicate that two (22.22%) were female sport coordinators and seven (77.78%) male sport coordinators. Hence the majority, seven of the nine participants, were male sport coordinators. This can be explained by the fact that cricket and soccer in organisations are mainly played by men. Four cricket team focus groups and three soccer team focus groups were interviewed in this study.

Figure 8.10: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by gender

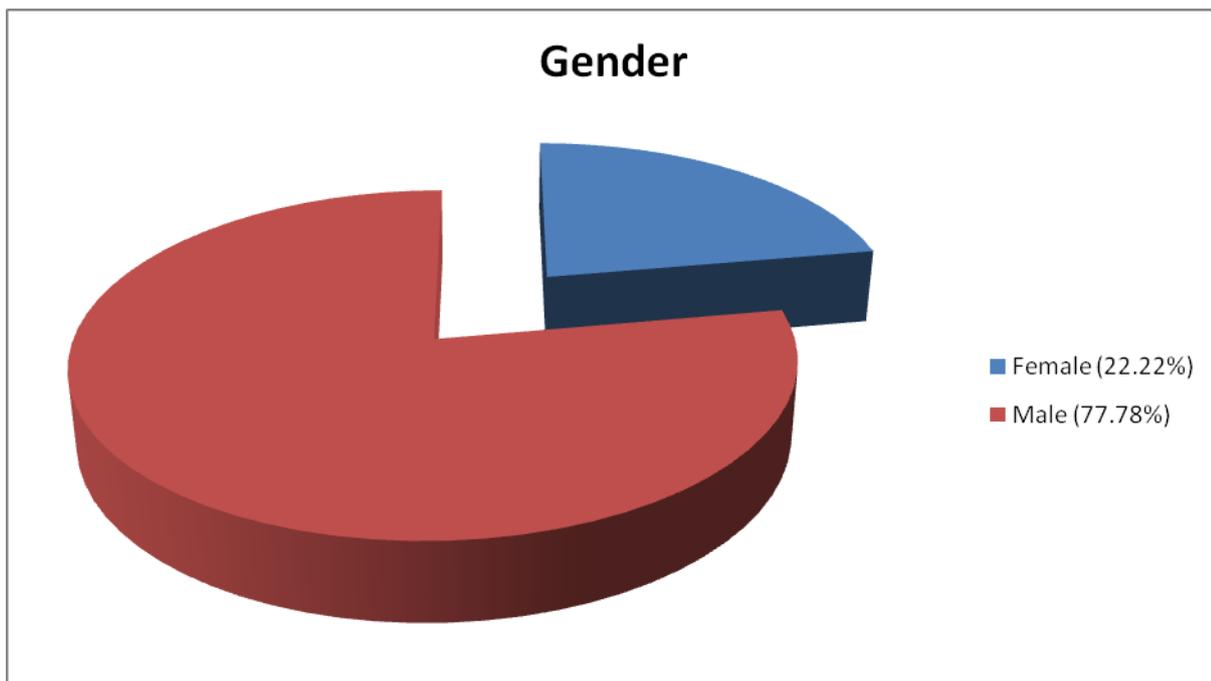


Table 8.21: Frequency distribution: language profile of the sport coordinators

Language		Frequency	Percentage
	English	4	44.45
	Afrikaans	3	33.33
	Sepedi	1	11.11
	Zulu	1	11.11
	Total	9	100

According to table 8.21 and figure 8.11, the sample comprised four (44.44%) English-speaking sport coordinators, three (33.33%) Afrikaans-speaking sport coordinators, one (11.11%) Sepedi-speaking sport coordinator and one (11.11%) Zulu-speaking sport coordinator. The majority, namely seven of the nine participants were in the English and Afrikaans language groups. This can be explained by the fact that cricket and netball in organisations are mainly played by those language groups. These sport codes are not as popular with the black employees as with their white counterparts.

Figure 8.11: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by language

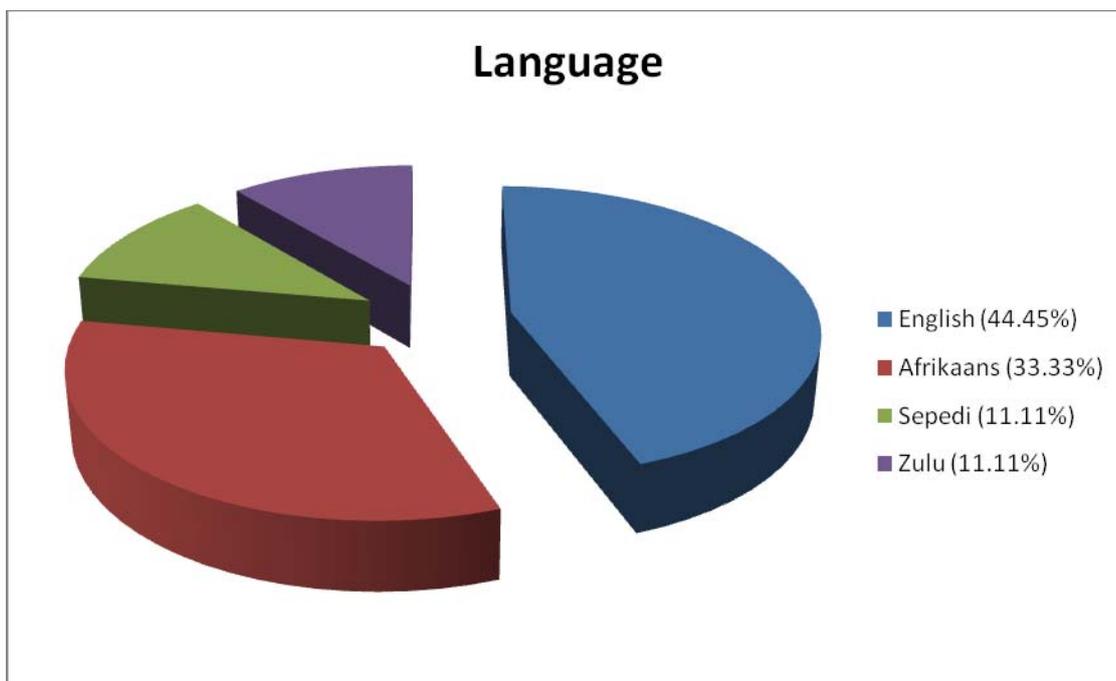


Table 8.22: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the sport coordinators

Religion		Frequency	Percentage
	Christian	7	77.78
Hindu	1	11.11	
Catholic	1	11.11	
Total	9	100	

According to table 8.22 and figure 8.12, of the sample, seven (77.78%) of the sport coordinators were Christians, one (11.11%) was Hindu and one (11.11%) was Catholic. The majority of the participants were thus Christians. This is in accordance with the distribution of different religions in the total South African population.

Figure 8.12: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by religion

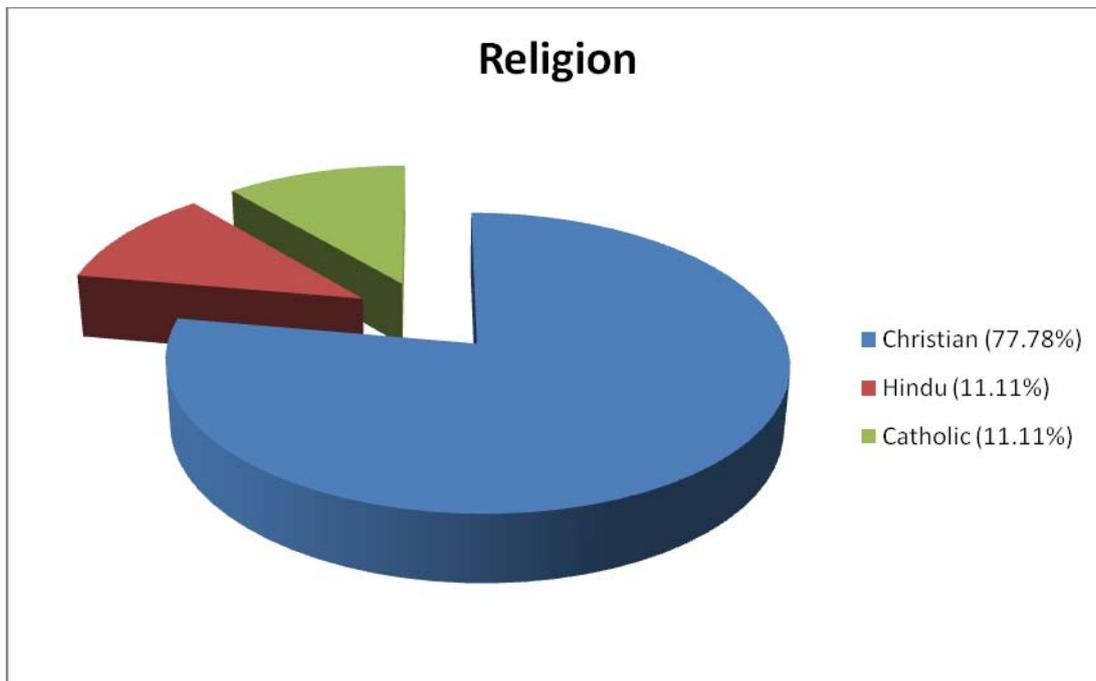


Table 8.23: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the sport coordinators

Marital status		Frequency	Percentage
	Single	6	66.67
Married	2	22.22	
Divorced	1	11.11	
Total	9	100	

According to table 8.23 and figure 8.13, of the sample, six (66.67%) of the sport coordinators were single, two (22.22%) were married and one (11.11%) was divorced. The majority of the participants, namely six of the nine, were single. This can be explained by the fact that single employees have fewer family commitments than married employees, and therefore have more time to act as coordinators than married employees.

Figure 8.13: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by marital status

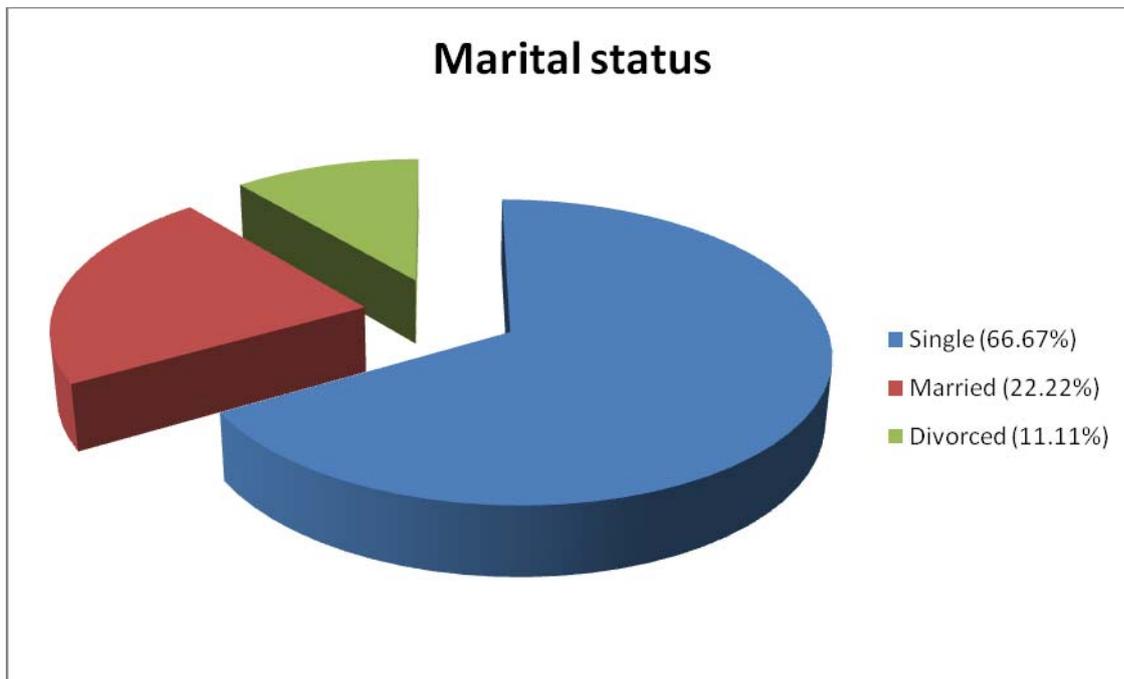
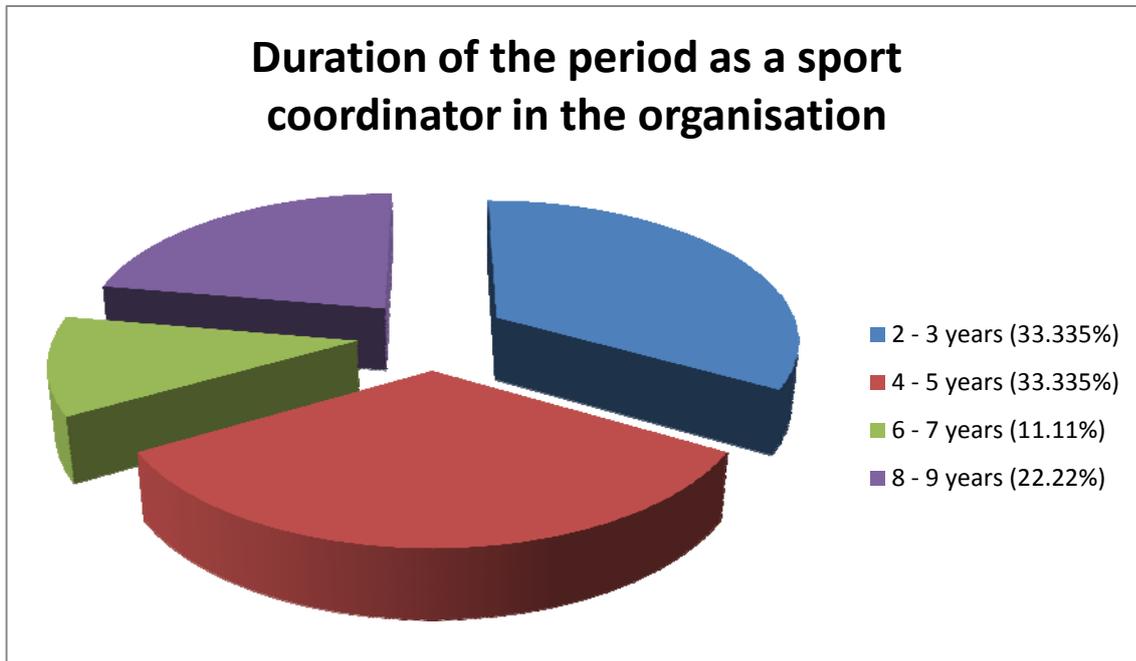


Table 8.24: Frequency distribution: duration of the period as a sport coordinator in the organisation

Duration of the period as a sport coordinator in the organisation	Frequency		Percentage	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
2–3 years	3	33.335	3	33.335
4–5 years	3	33.335	3	33.335
6–7 years	1	11.11	1	11.11
8–9 years	2	22.22	2	22.22
Total	9	100	9	100

According to table 8.24 and figure 8.14, of the sample, three (33.335%) had been sport coordinators in the organisation for two to three years; three (33.335%) had been sport coordinators in the organisation for four to five years; one (11.11%) had been a sport coordinator for the organisation for six to seven years; and two (22.22%) had been sport coordinators for two to three years in the organisation. The experience in years of the sport coordinators working with sport teams was fairly evenly distributed. Generally, most of them had been working for two or three years as coordinators. Only one coordinator had less than two years' experience.

Figure 8.14: The sample sport coordinators: distribution by the duration of the period as a sport coordinator in the organisation



It was necessary to indicate the distribution of the diversity variables of each focus group because this would enable the researcher to clarify some of the findings and explain possible differences in results between the focus groups.

8.2.3 Diversity variables of the netball team (focus group 1)

The diversity of focus group 1 is depicted in tables 8.25 to 8.30, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.25: Frequency distribution: race profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)

		Frequency	Percentage
Race	White	2	33.33
	Black	4	66.67
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.25 and figure 8.15, the sample comprised two (33.33%) white participants and four (66.67%) black participants. The majority of netball players in this focus group, namely

four of the six participants, were from the black community. This can be explained by the fact that the sport code of netball is a growing sport among black employees.

Figure 8.15: The netball team sample: distribution by race (focus group 1)

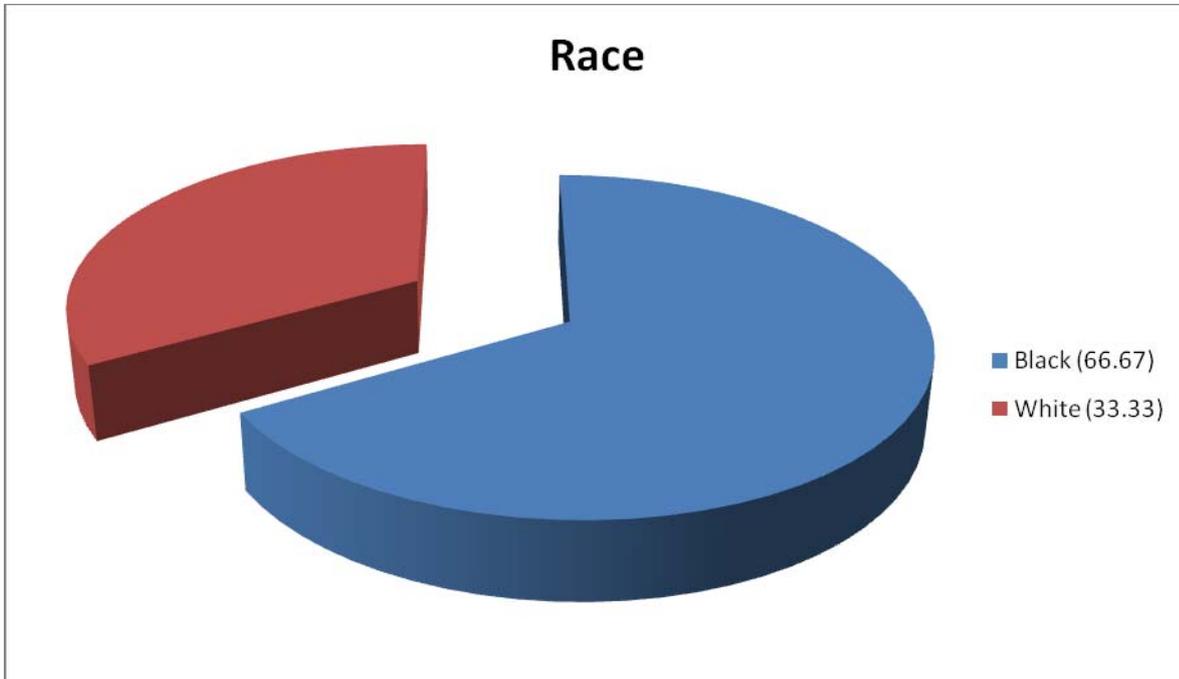


Table 8.26: Frequency distribution: age profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20–25	5	83.33
26–30	0	0
31–35	1	16.67
Total	6	100

According to table 8.26 and figure 8.16, the sample comprised five (83.33%) participants between the ages of 20 and 25 and one (16.67%) between the ages of 31 and 35. Hence the majority of the focus group (5 out of 6) were extremely young employees between the ages of 20 and 25.

Figure 8.16: The netball team sample: distribution by age (focus group 1)

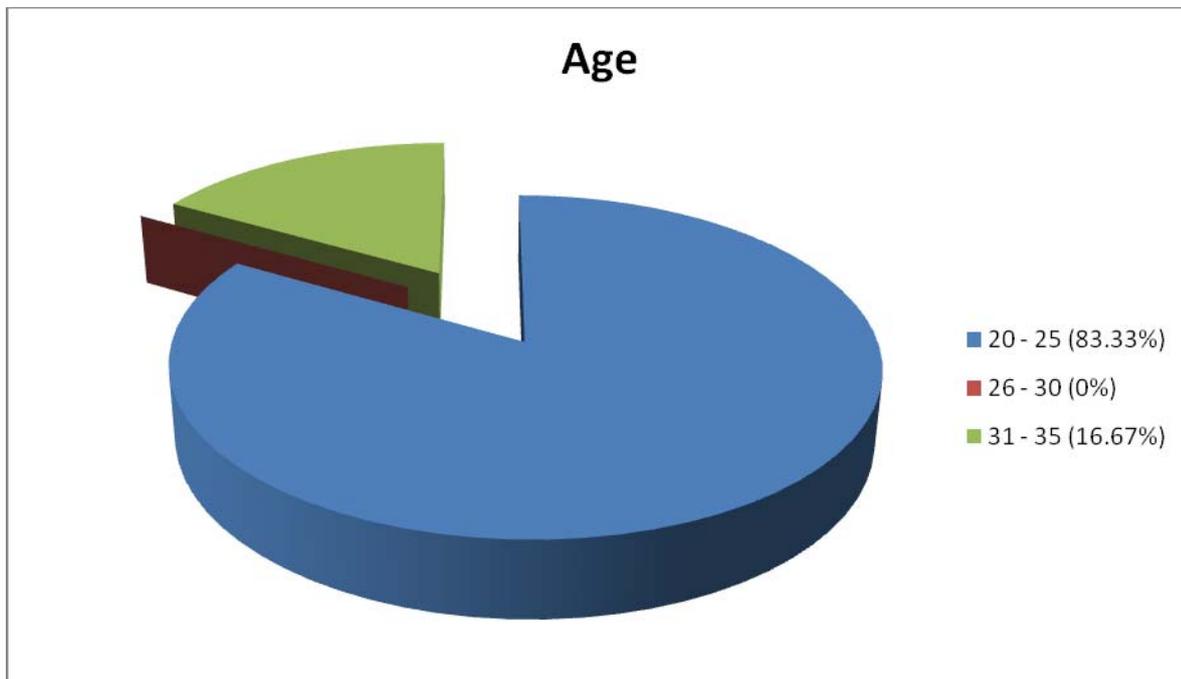


Table 8.27: Frequency distribution: language profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	Afrikaans	2	33.33
	South Sotho	1	16.67
	Ndebele	2	33.33
	Zulu	1	16.67
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.27 and figure 8.17, the sample consisted of two (33.33%) Afrikaans-speaking participants, one (16.67%) South Sotho-speaking participant, two (33.33%) Ndebele-speaking participants and one (16.67%) Zulu-speaking participant. The different language groups were fairly evenly distributed in the group. There were no English-speaking players in the first netball team focus group.

Figure 8.17: The netball team sample: distribution by language (focus group 1)

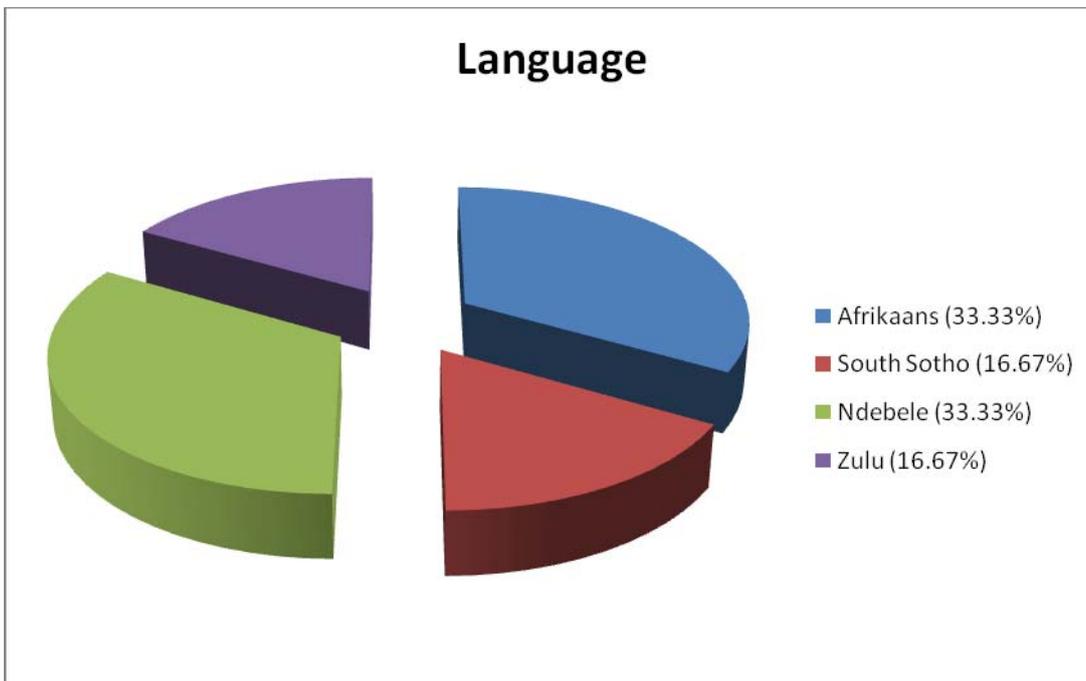


Table 8.28: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)

		Frequency	Percentage
Age	Single	4	66.67
	Married	2	33.33
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.28 and figure 8.18, the sample comprised four (66.67%) single participants and two (33.33%) married participants. Most of the participants (4 out of 6) were therefore single.

Figure 8.18: The netball team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 1)

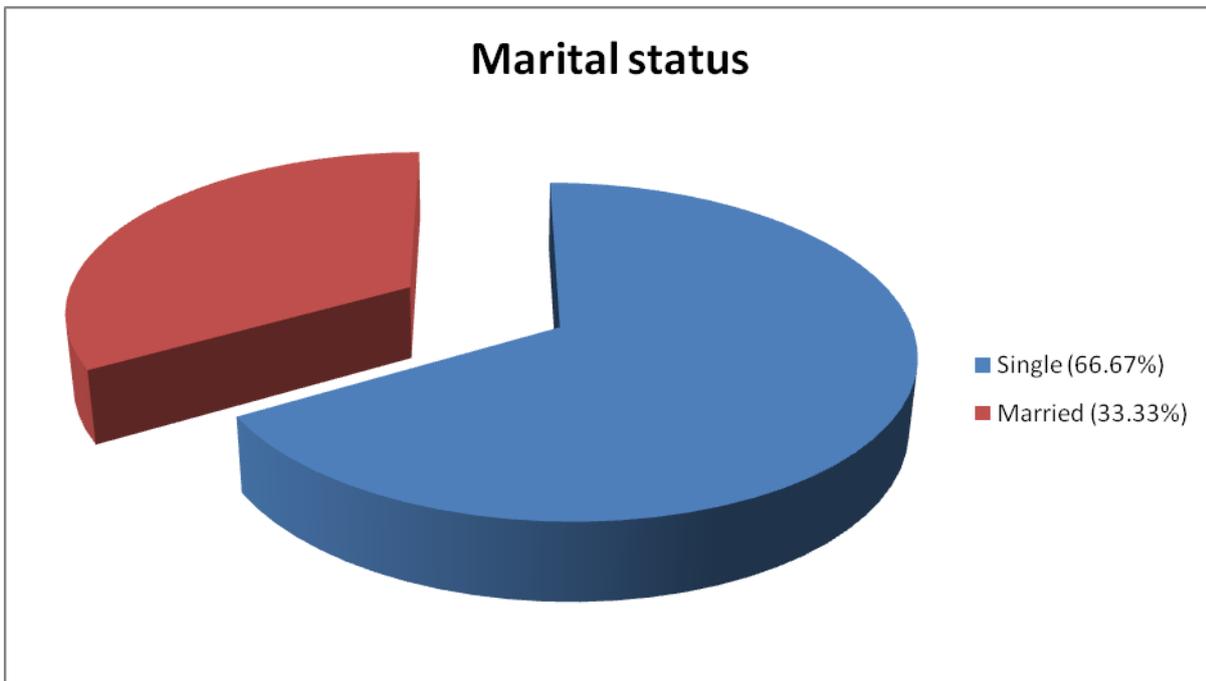


Table 8.29: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)

Job designation		
	Frequency	Percentage
Marketing assistant	1	16.67
Client care advisor	2	33.33
Sales advisor	1	16.67
Advisor	2	33.33
Total	6	100

According to table 8.29 and figure 8.19, the sample consisted of one (16.67%) marketing assistant, two (33.33%) client care advisors, one (16.67%) sales advisor and two (33.33%) advisors. The participants in the netball team focus group (focus group 1) were thus fairly evenly represented in relation to their job designation.

Figure 8.19: The netball team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 1)

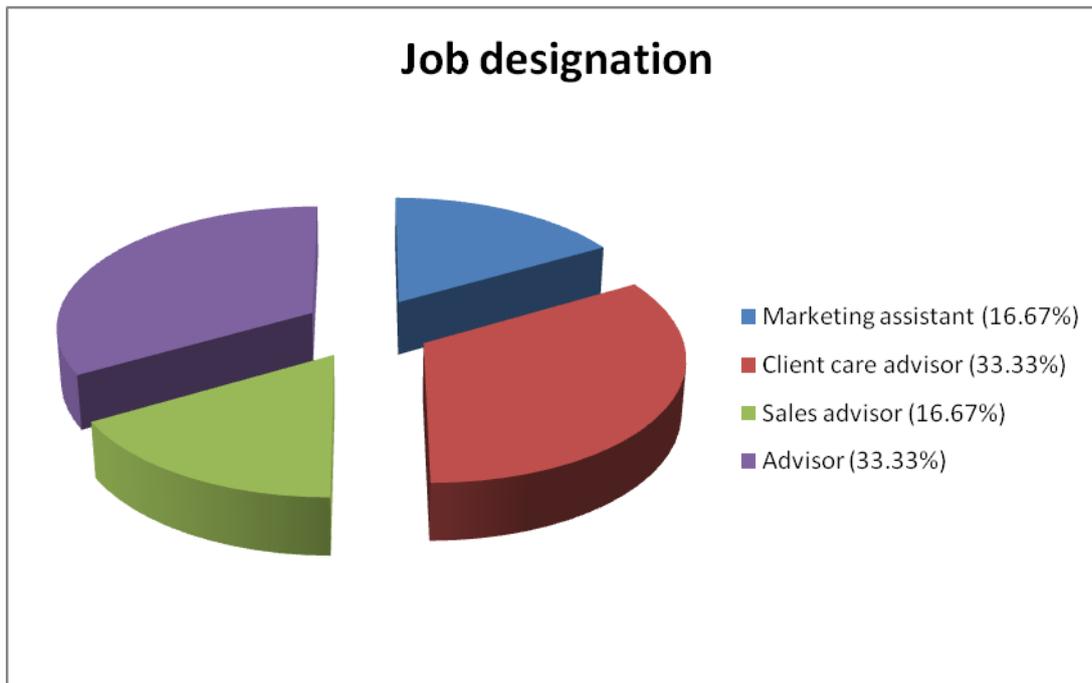
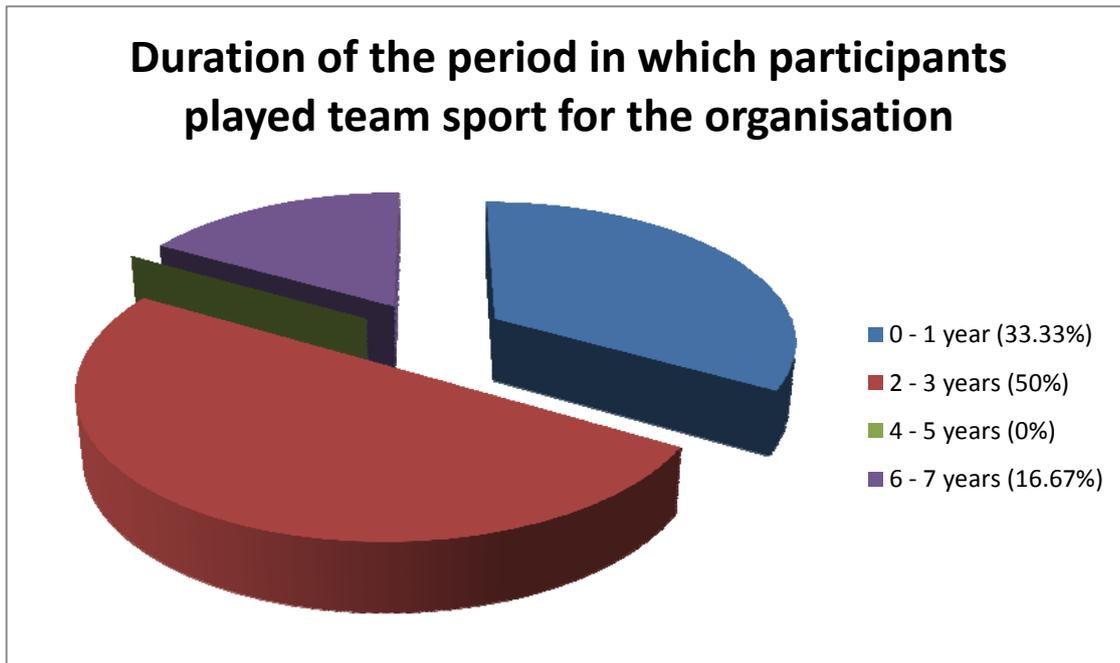


Table 8.30: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the first netball team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played netball for the organisation		
	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	2	33.33
2–3 years	3	50
4–5 years	0	0
6–7 years	1	16.67
Total	6	100

According to table 8.30 and figure 8.20, two (33.33%) of the participants had participated for zero to one year in team sport for the organisation, three (50%) for two to three years, and one (16.67%) for six to seven years. Most of the players (5 out of 6) had thus only played netball for between zero and three years and were relatively new players for the organisation.

Figure 8.20: The netball team sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 1)



8.2.4 Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 2)

The diversity of focus group 2 is depicted in tables 8.31 to 8.38, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.31: Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

		Frequency	Percentage
Race	White	4	57.14
	Black	1	14.29
	Indian	2	28.57
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.31 and figure 8.21, the sample comprised four (57.14%) white participants, one (14.29%) black participant and two (28.57%) Indian participants. The majority of cricket players in this focus group (4 out of 7) were from the white community. This can be explained by the fact that the sport code of cricket is predominantly played by white employees.

Figure 8.21: The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 2)

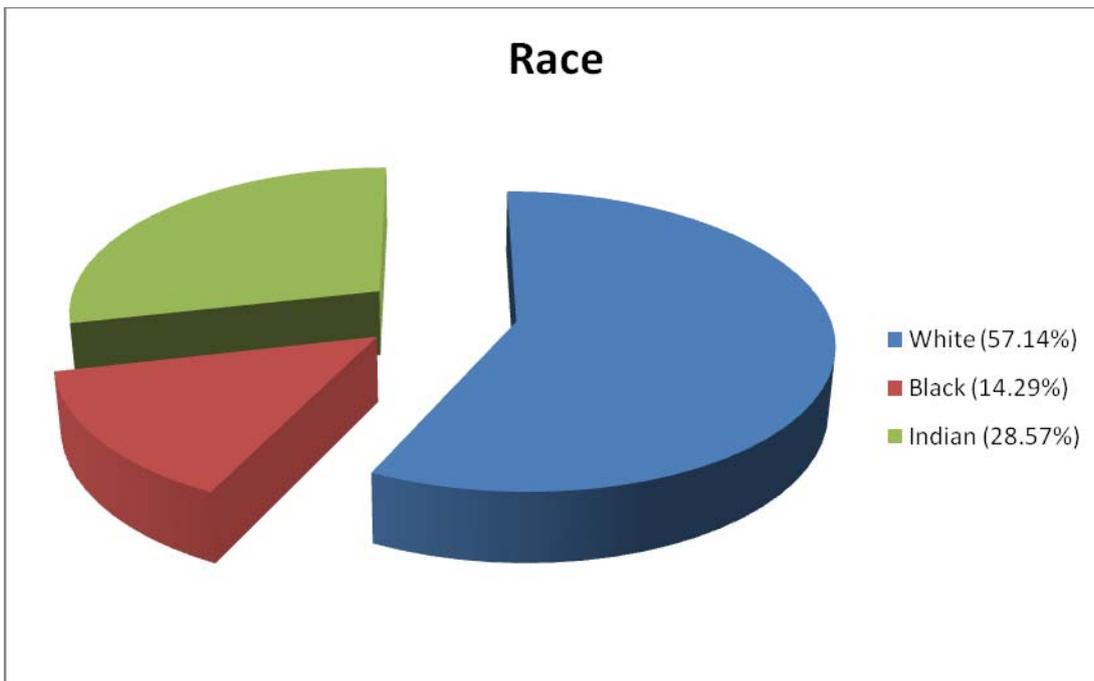


Table 8.32: Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20–25	0	0
26–30	2	28.57
31–35	2	28.57
36–40	2	28.57
41–45	1	14.29
Total	7	100

According to table 8.32 and figure 8.22, the sample comprised two (28.57%) participants between the ages of 26 and 30, two (28.57%) between the ages of 31 and 35, two (28.57%) between the ages of 36 and 40 and one (14.29%) between the ages of 41 and 45. The participants in the cricket team focus group (second focus group) were thus fairly evenly represented with regard to their age profile.

Figure 8.22: The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 2)

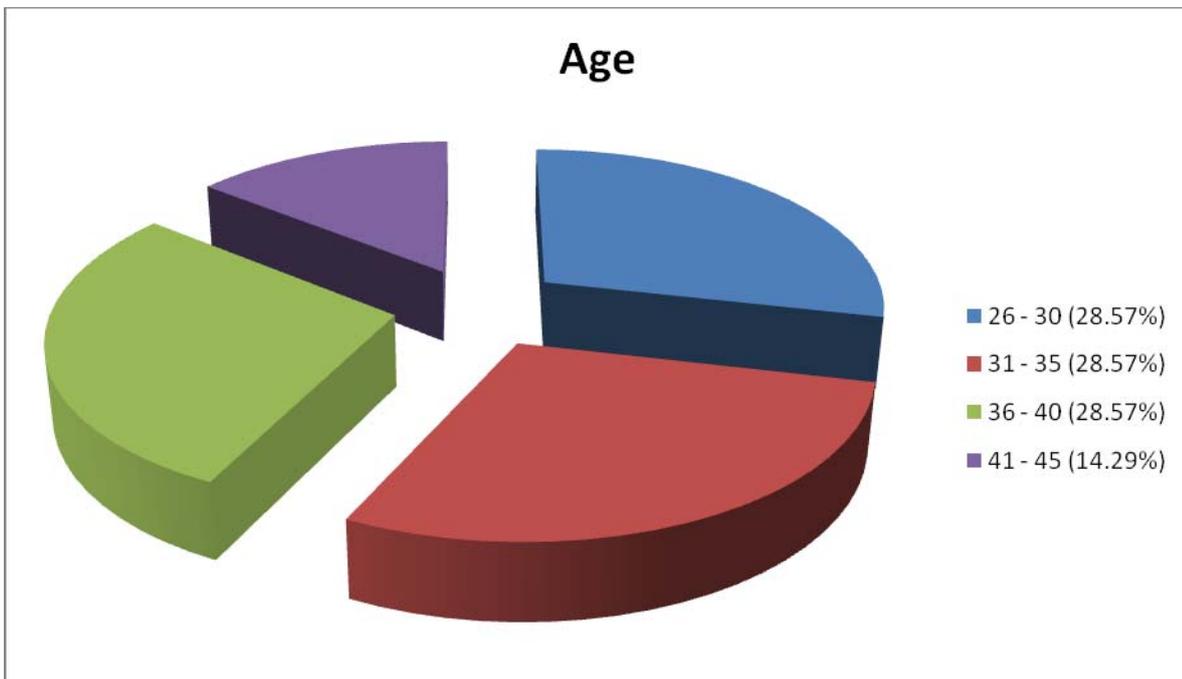


Table 8.33: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	3	42.86
	Male	4	57.14
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.33 and figure 8.23, of the sample, three (42.86%) were female and four (57.14%) were male.

Figure 8.23: The cricket team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 2)

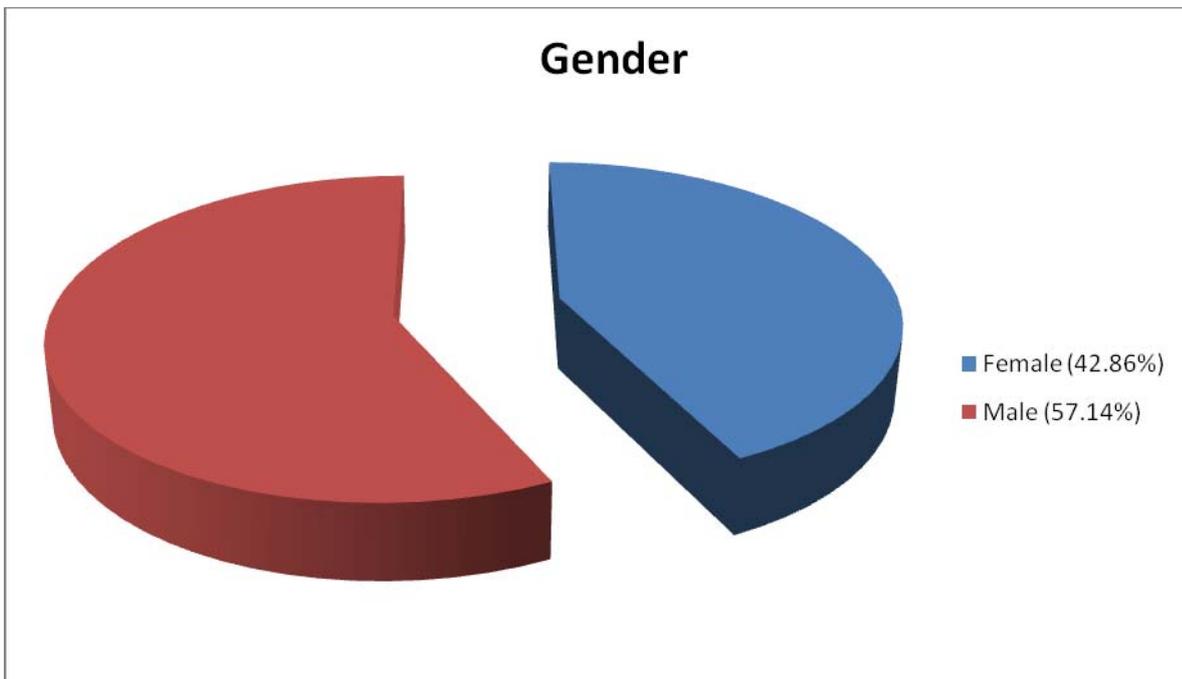


Table 8.34: Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	2	28.57
	Afrikaans	4	57.14
	Xhosa	1	14.29
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.34 and figure 8.24, the sample consisted of two (28.57%) English-speaking participants, four (57.14%) Afrikaans-speaking participants and one (14.29%) Xhosa-speaking participant. Most of the participants (4 out of 7) were thus Afrikaans-speaking employees.

Figure 8.24: The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 2)

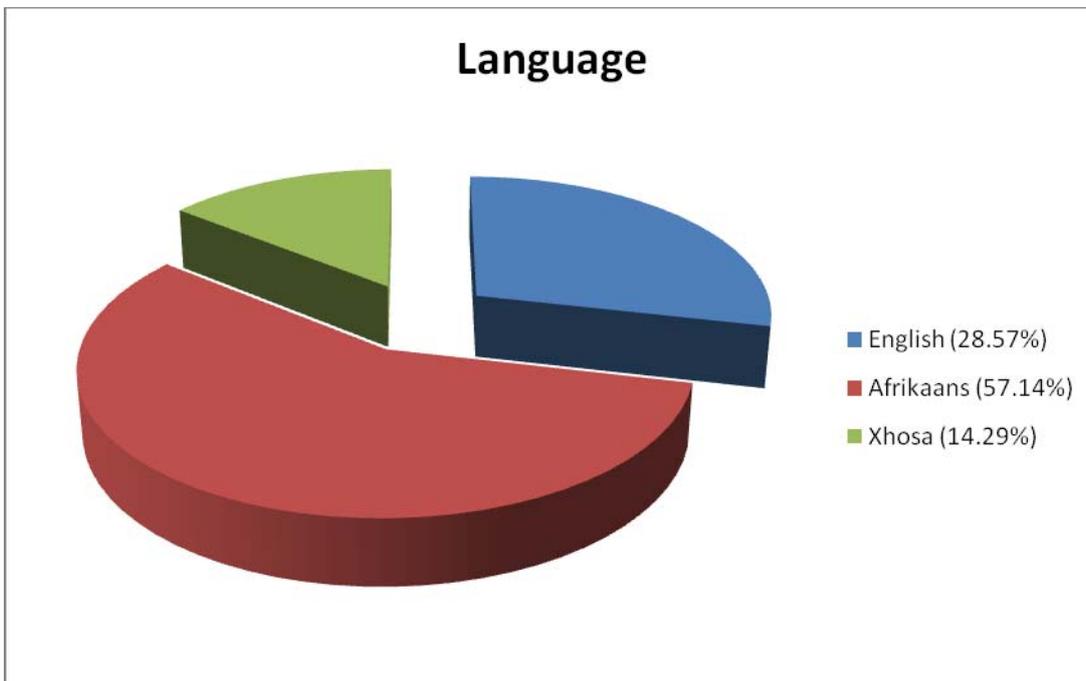


Table 8.35: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

		Frequency	Percentage
Religion	Christian	5	71.42
	Hindu	1	14.29
	Tamil	1	14.29
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.35 and figure 8.25, the sample comprised five (71.42%) Christians, one (14.29%) Hindu and one (14.29%) Tamil. Most of the participants, namely five out of seven, were thus Christians.

Figure 8.25: The cricket team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 2)

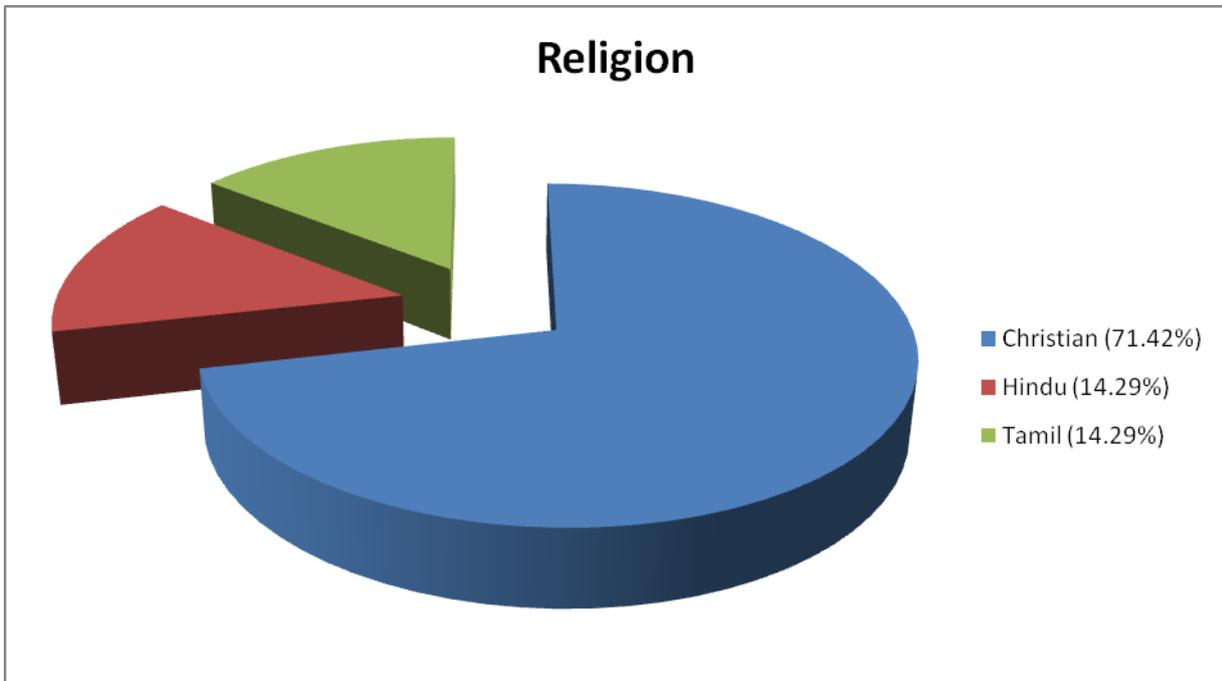


Table 8.36: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	Single	3	42.86
Married	1	14.28	
Divorced	3	42.86	
Total	7	100	

According to table 8.36 and figure 8.26, the sample comprised three (42.86%) single, one (14.28%) married and three (42.86%) divorced participants. Hence only one participant married.

Figure 8.26: The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 2)

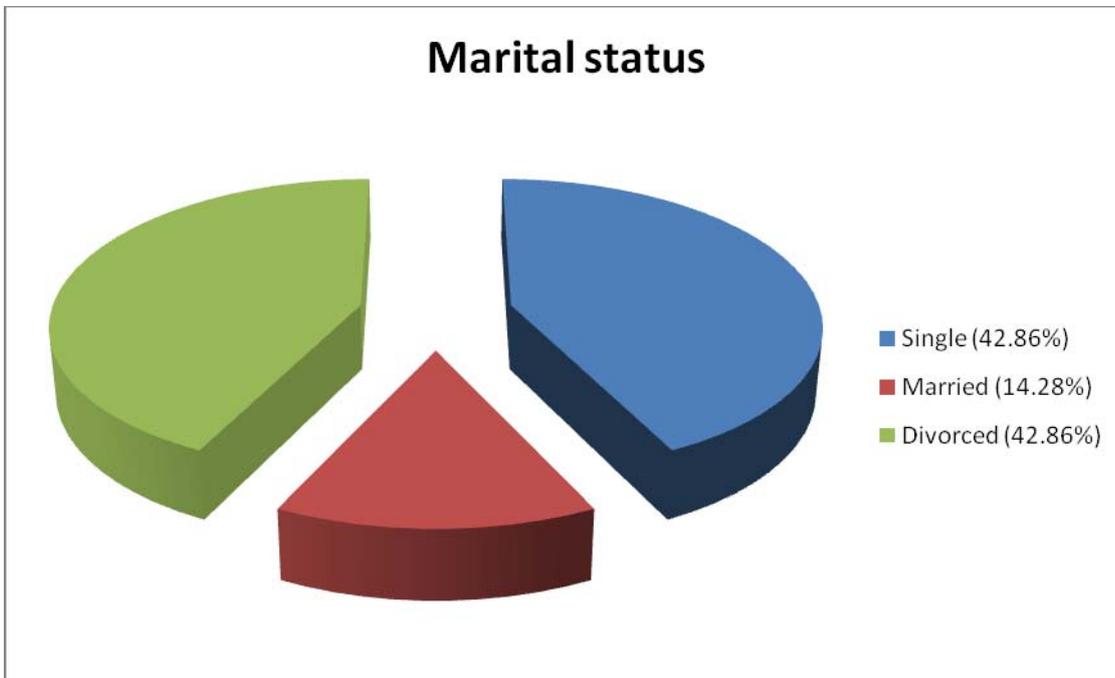


Table 8.37: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)

Job designation		
	Frequency	Percentage
Sales	2	28.565
Analyst	1	14.29
Personal assistant	1	14.29
IT developer	1	14.29
Administrator	2	28.565
Total	7	100

According to table 8.37 and figure 8.27, of the sample, two (28.565%) participants were sales assistants, one (14.29%) was an analyst, one (14.29%) was a personal assistant, one (14.29%) was an IT specialist and two (28.565%) were administrators. The different job descriptions in this focus group were thus fairly evenly distributed.

Figure 8.27: The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 2)

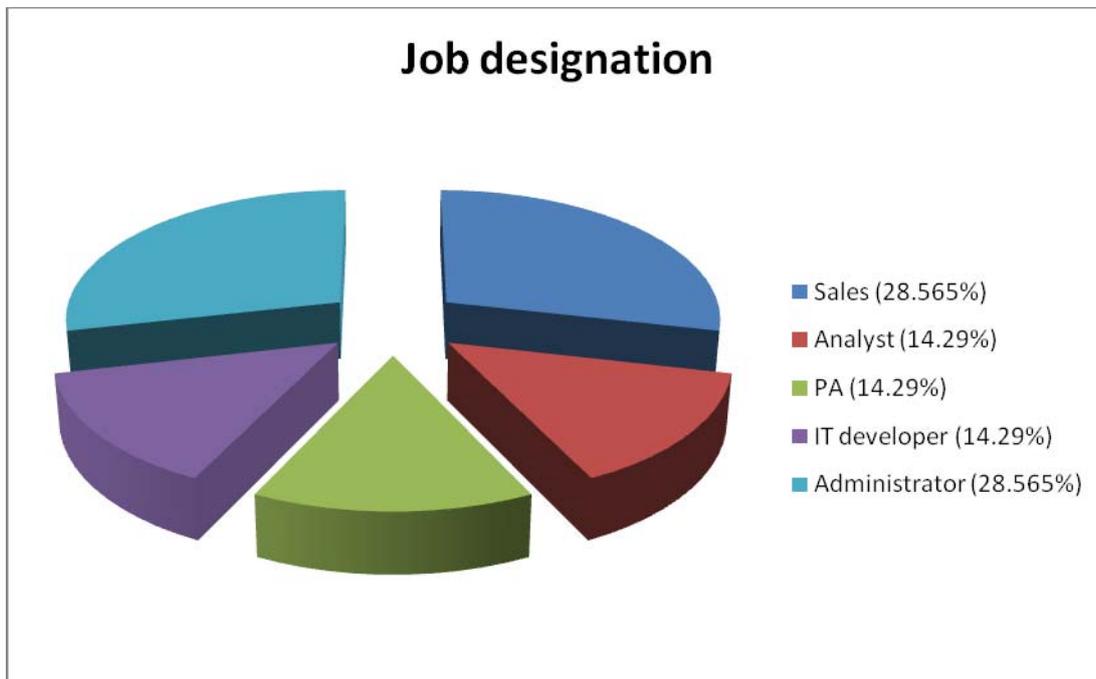
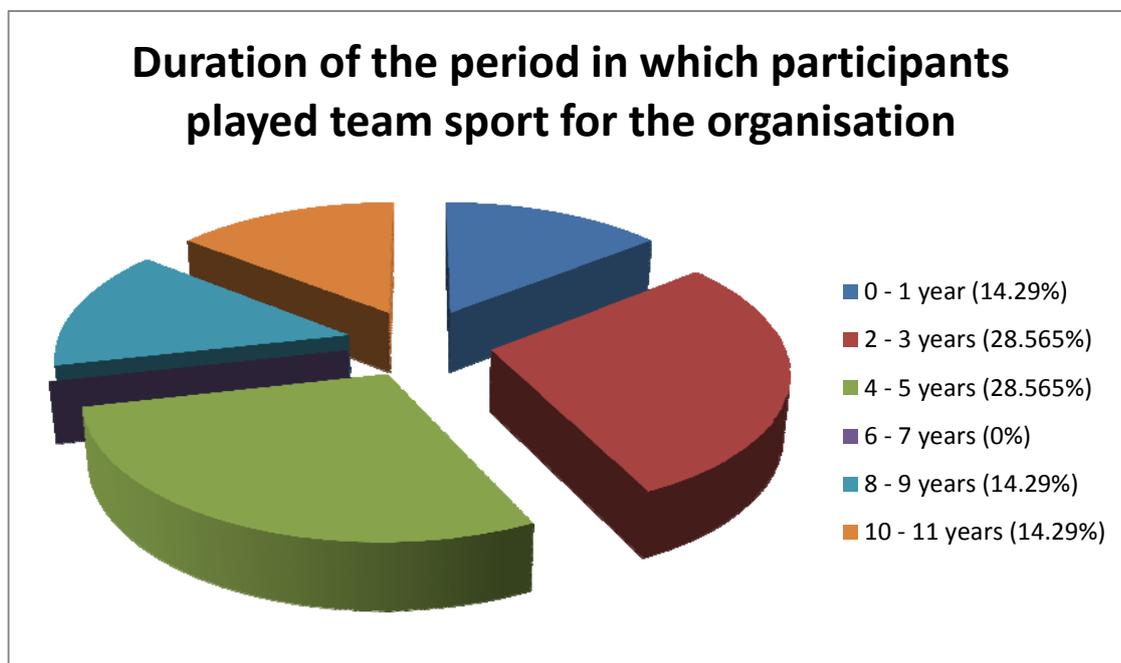


Table 8.38: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which the participants played team sport for the organisation of the second cricket team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played cricket for the organisation		Frequency	Percentage
	0–1 year	1	14.29
	2–3 years	2	28.565
	4–5 years	2	28.565
	6–7 years	0	0
	8–9 years	1	14.29
	10–11 years	1	14.29
	Total	7	100

As indicated in table 8.38 and figure 8.28, of the sample, one (14.29%) of the participants had participated for zero to one year in team sport for the organisation; two (28.565%) for two to three years; two (28.565%) for four to five years; one (14.29%) for eight to nine years; and one (14.29%) for 10 to 11 years. Hence the majority of the players (5 out of 7), had only played cricket for between zero and five years.

Figure 8.28: The cricket team sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which the participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 2)



8.2.5 Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 3)

The diversity of focus group 3 is depicted in tables 8.39 to 8.45, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.39: Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)

Race		Frequency	Percentage
	White	4	57.14
Black	2	28.57	
Coloured	1	14.29	
Total	7	100	

According to table 8.39 and figure 8.29, the sample comprised four (57.14%) white participants, two (28.57%) black participants and one (14.29%) coloured participant. Hence the majority of cricket players in this focus group (4 out of 7) were from the white community. This can be explained by the fact that the sport code of cricket is predominantly played by white employees.

Figure 8.29 The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 3)

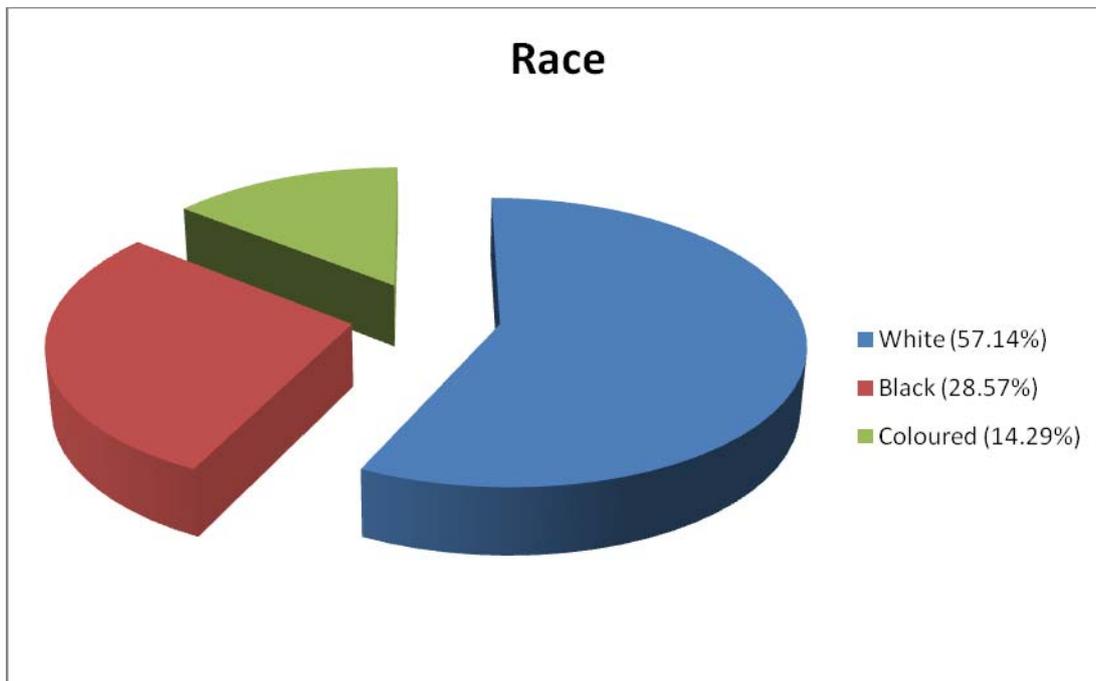


Table 8.40: Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)

Age		
	Frequency	Percentage
20–25	3	42.86
26–30	2	28.56
31–35	1	14.29
36–40	1	14.29
Total	7	100

According to table 8.40 and figure 8.30, the sample comprised three (42.86%) participants between the ages of 21 and 25, two (28.56%) between the ages of 26 and 30, one (14.29%) between the ages of 31 and 35 and one (14.29%) between the ages of 36 and 40. The majority of the focus group (5 out of 7) were thus young employees between the ages of 20 and 30.

Figure 8.30: The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 3)

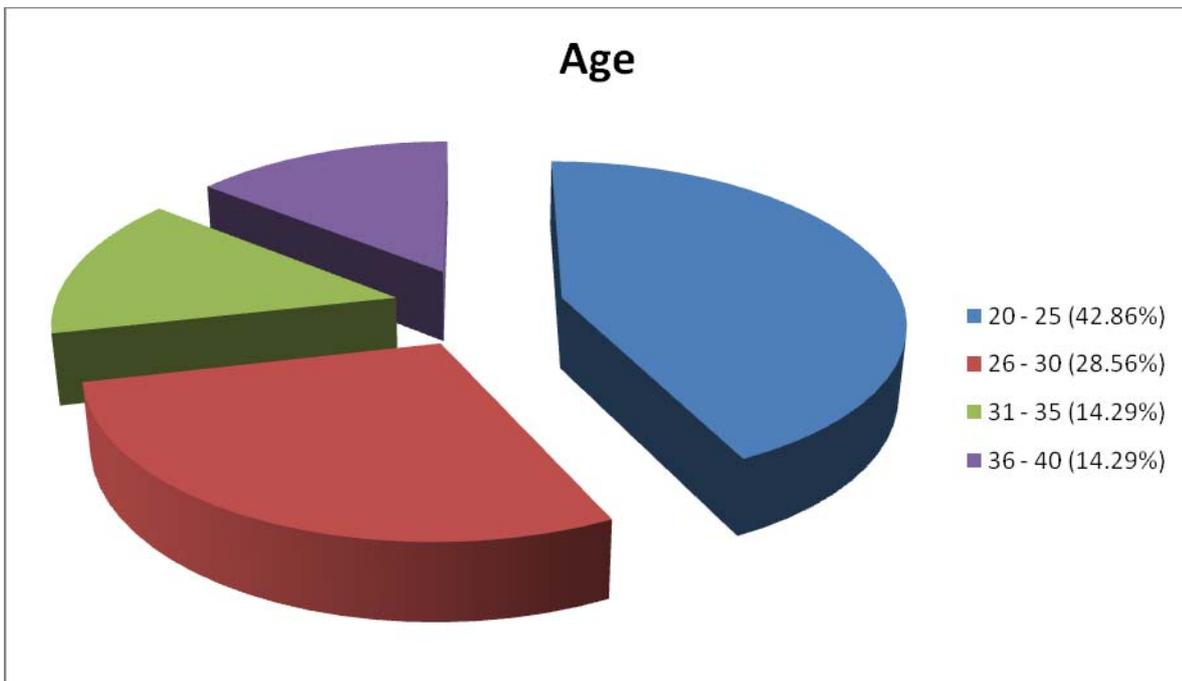


Table 8.41: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	2	28.57
	Male	5	71.43
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.41 and figure 8.31, of the sample, two (28.57%) participants were female and five (71.43%) were male. Hence the majority of the focus group (5 out of 7), were male. Cricket is a sport code that is predominantly played by males.

Figure 8.31: The cricket team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 3)

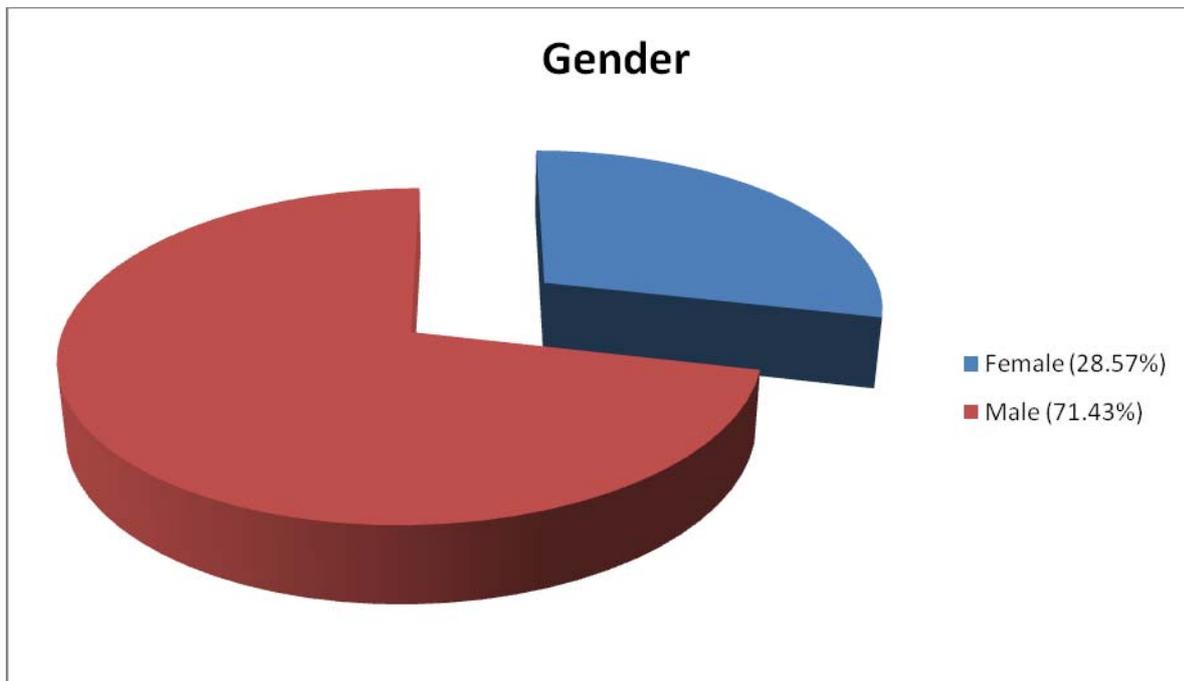


Table 8.42: Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	1	14.29
	Afrikaans	5	71.42
	Tswana	1	14.29
	Total	7	100

As indicated in table 8.42 and figure 8.32, the sample consisted of one (14.29%) English-speaking participant, five (71.42%) Afrikaans-speaking participants and one (14.29%) Tswana-speaking participant. Hence most of the participants (5 out of 7), were Afrikaans-speaking employees.

Figure 8.32: The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 3)

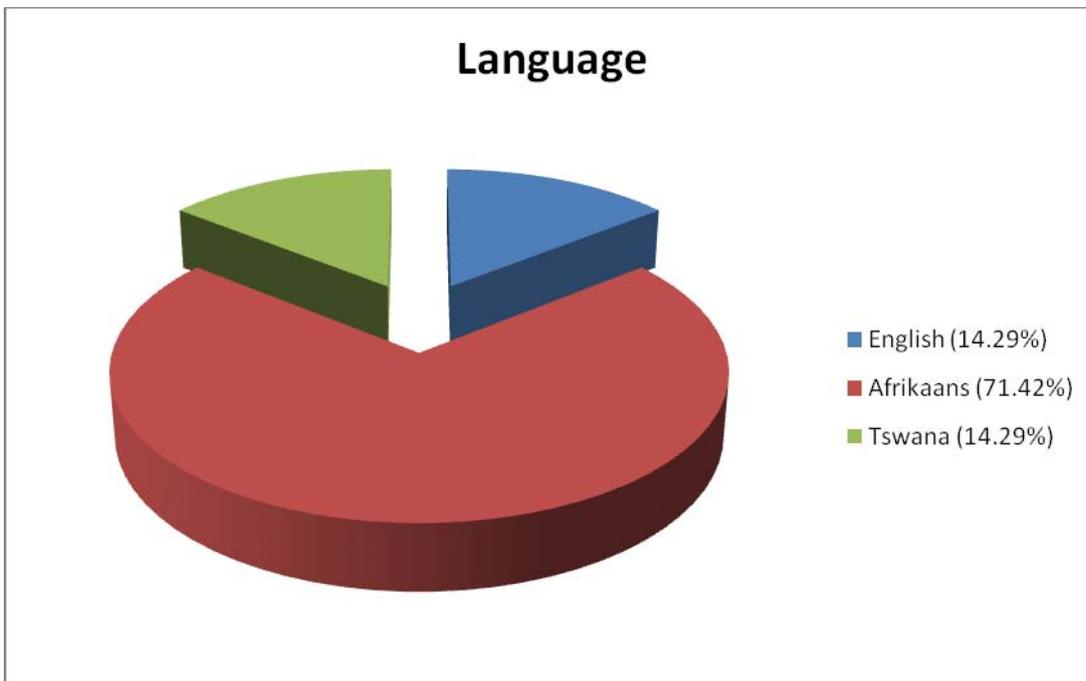


Table 8.43: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)

		Frequency	Percentage
Age	Single	4	57.14
	Married	2	28.57
	Divorced	1	14.29
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.43 and figure 8.33, the sample comprised four (57.14%) single, two (28.57%) married and one (14.29%) divorced participant.

Figure 8.33: The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 3)

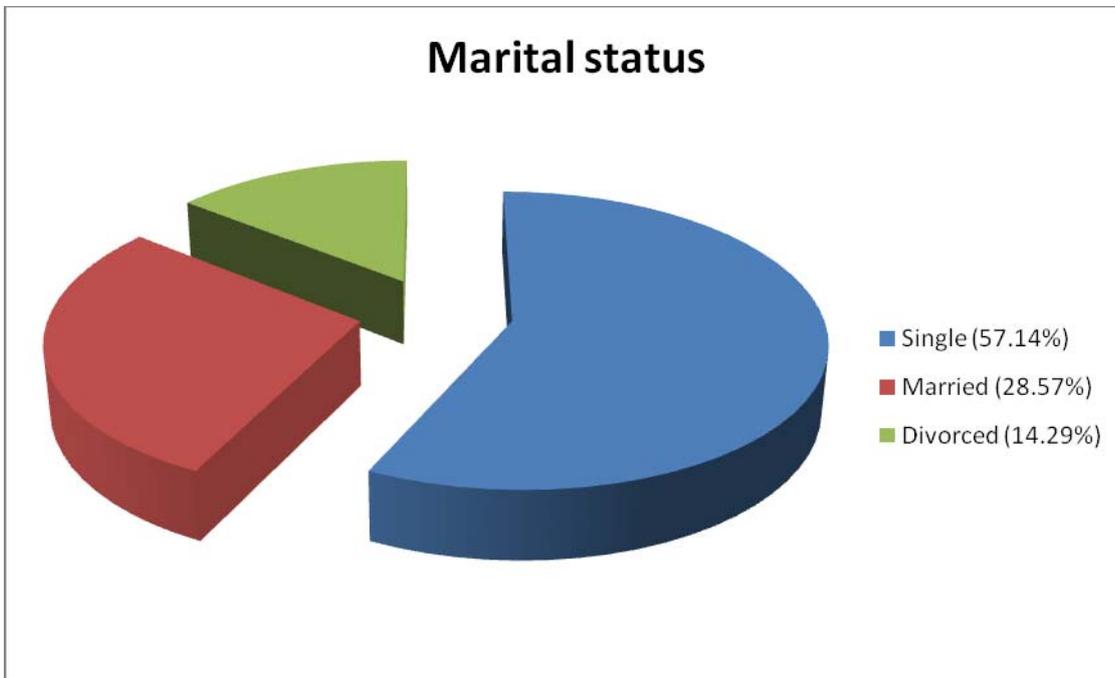


Table 8.44: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)

Job designation		
	Frequency	Percentage
Business analyst	1	14.285
Actuarial analyst	3	42.86
Operational manager	1	14.285
Sales	1	14.285
Marketing	1	14.285
Total	7	100

According to table 8.44 and figure 8.34, the sample consisted of one (14.285%) business analyst, three (42.86%) actuarial analysts, one (14.285%) operational manager, one (14.285%) salesperson and one (14.285%) marketer. Hence most of the participants, (3 out of 7), worked as actuarial analysts.

Figure 8.34: The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 3)

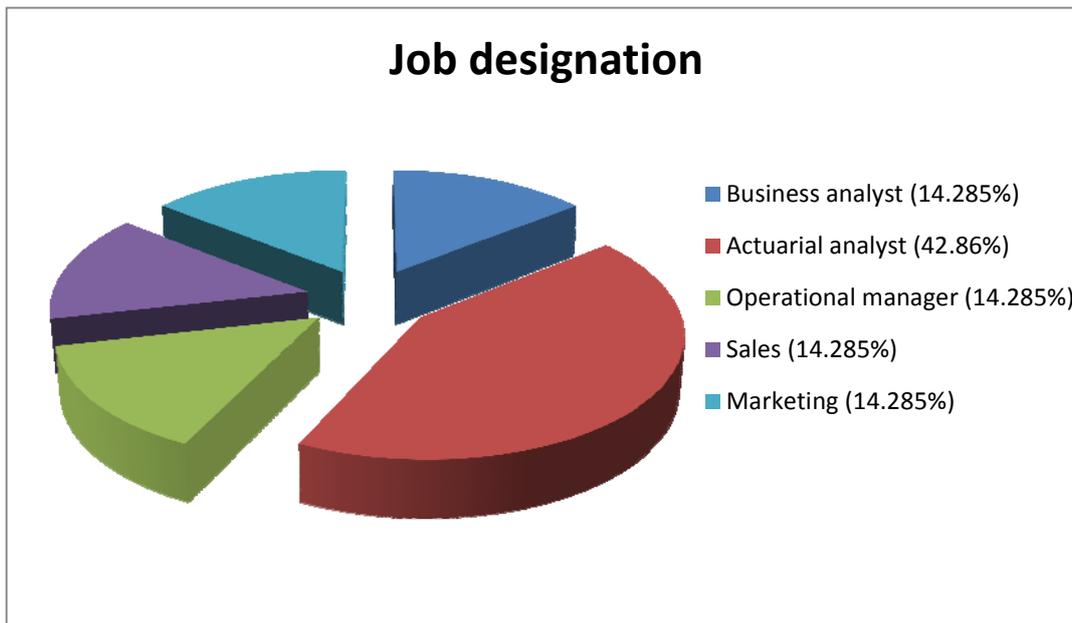
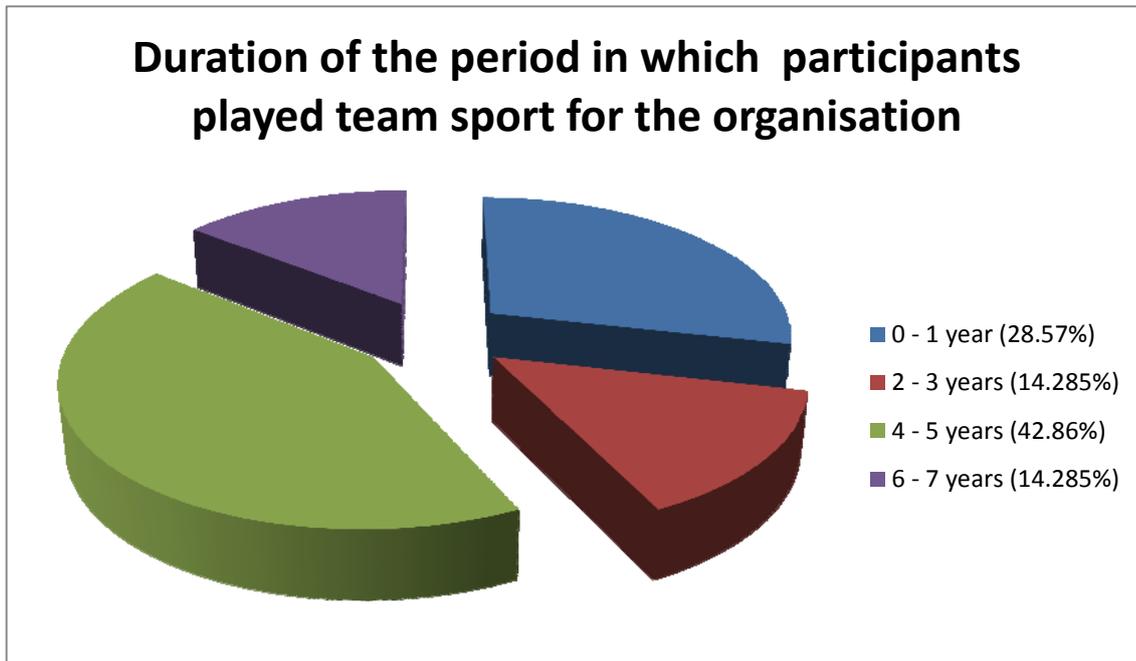


Table 8.45: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the third cricket team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played cricket for the organisation	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	2	28.57
2–3 years	1	14.285
4–5 years	3	42.86
6–7 years	1	14.285
Total	7	100

According to table 8.45 and figure 8.35, the sample consisted of two (28.57%) participants who played team sport for the organisation for zero to one year; one (14.285%) who played team sport for two to three years; three (42.86%) who played team sport for four to five years; and one (14.285%) who played team sport for six to seven years. Hence most of the players (6 out of 7) had played cricket for between zero and five years.

Figure 8.35: The cricket team sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 3)



8.2.6 Diversity variables of the soccer team (focus group 4)

The diversity of focus group 4 is depicted in tables 8.46 to 8.52, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.46: Frequency distribution: race profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)

		Frequency	Percentage
Race	White	3	50
	Black	2	33.33
	Indian	1	16.67
	Total	6	100

As indicated in table 8.46 and figure 8.36, the sample comprised three (50%) white participants, two (33.33%) black participants and one (16.67%) Indian participant. Hence the majority of soccer players in this focus group (3 out of 6) were from the white community. This may be explained by the fact that the sport code of soccer is a growing sport among white employees.

Figure 8.36: The soccer team sample: distribution by race (focus group 4)

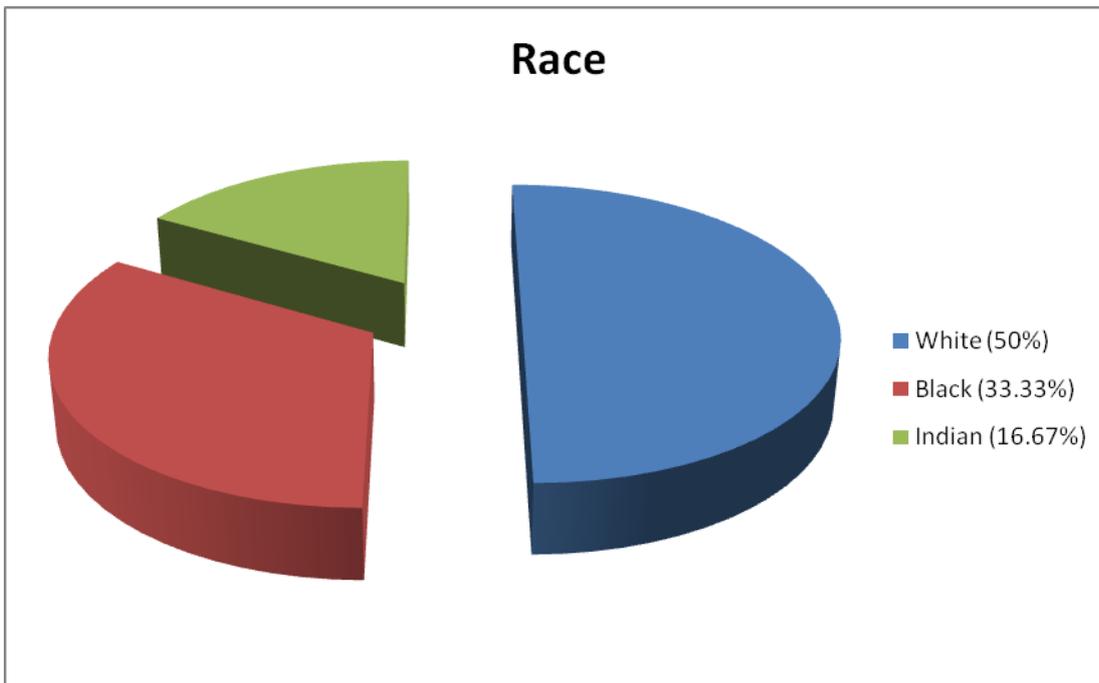


Table 8.47: Frequency distribution: age profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	20–25	2	33.33
26–30	1	16.67	
31–35	2	33.33	
36–40	1	16.67	
Total	6	100	

According to table 8.47 and figure 8.37, of the sample, two (33.33%) of the participants were the ages of 20 and 25, one (16.67%) between the ages of 26 and 30, two (33.33%) between the ages of 31 and 35 and one (16.67%) between the ages of 36 and 40. The participants in the soccer team focus group (focus group 5) were thus fairly evenly represented regarding age.

Figure 8.37: The soccer team sample: distribution by age (focus group 4)

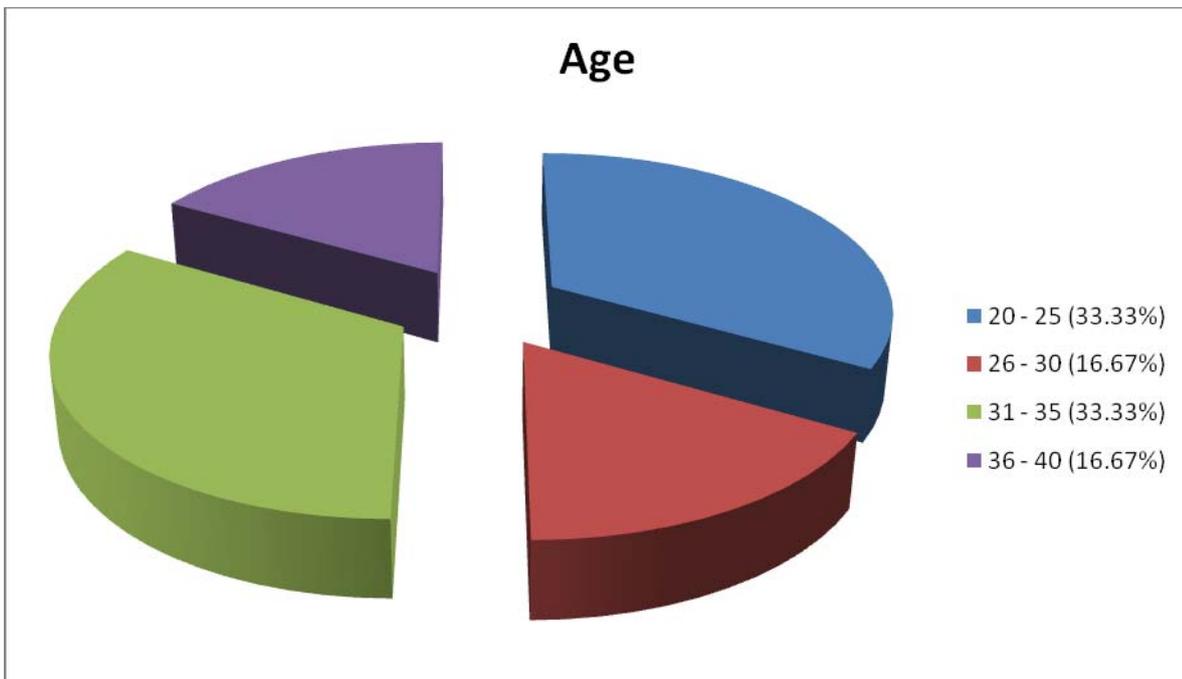


Table 8.48: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	4	66.67
	Male	2	33.33
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.48 and figure 8.38, of the sample, four (66.67%) of the participants were female and two (33.33%) were male.

Figure 8.38: The soccer team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 4)

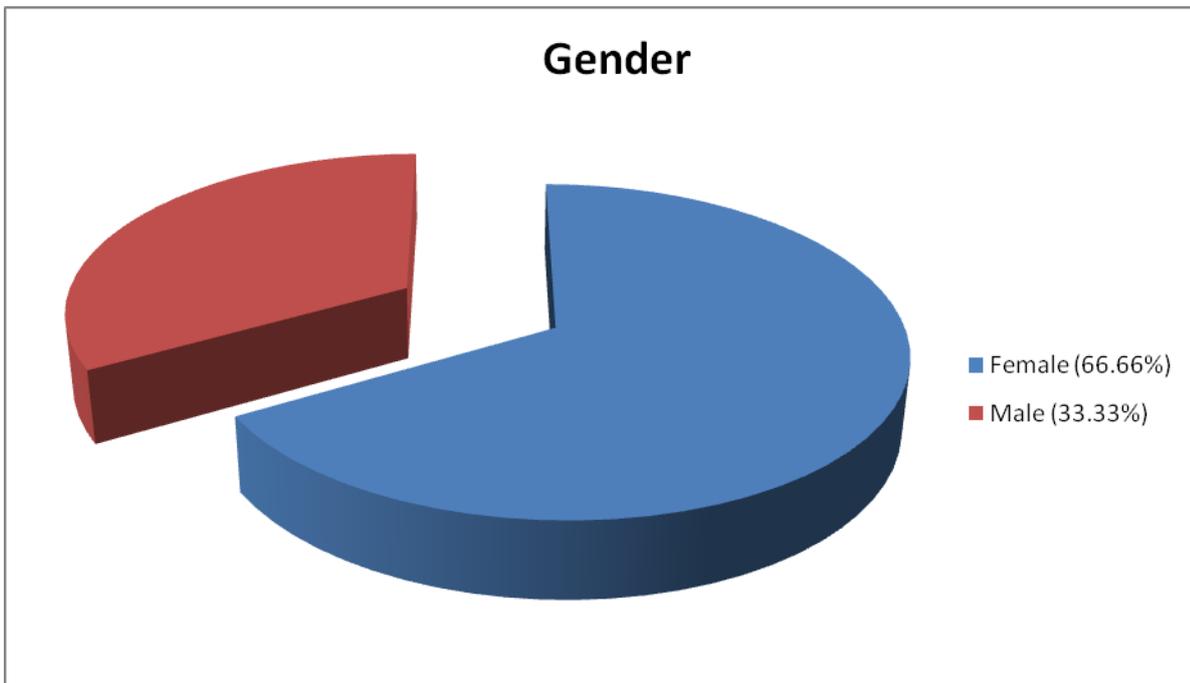


Table 8.49: Frequency distribution: language profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	1	16.67
	Afrikaans	3	50
	Zulu	1	16.67
	Setswana	1	16.67
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.49 and figure 8.39, the sample consisted of one (16.67%) English-speaking participant, three (50%) Afrikaans-speaking participants, one (16.67%) Zulu-speaking participant and one (16.67%) Setswana-speaking participant. Hence the majority of the employees (3 out of 6), were Afrikaans speaking.

Figure 8.39: The soccer team sample: distribution by language (focus group 4)

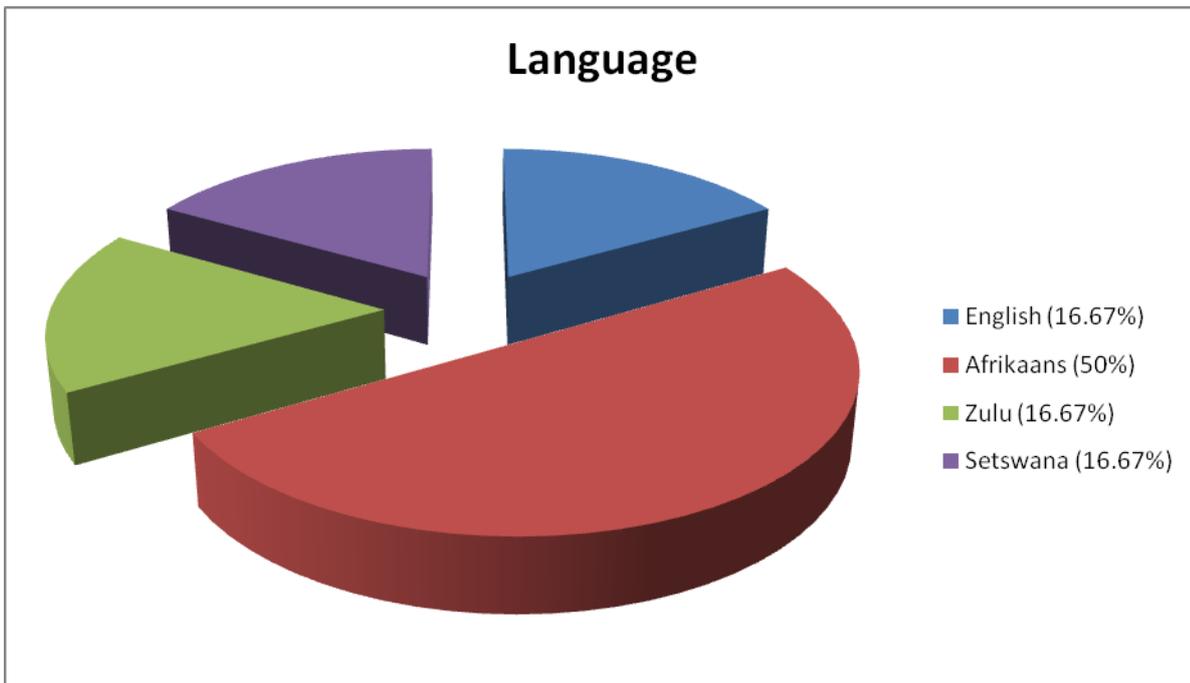


Table 8.50: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)

		Frequency	Percentage
Religion	Christian	5	83.33
	Catholic	1	16.67
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.50 and figure 8.40, the sample comprised five (83.33%) Christians and one (16.67%) Catholic.

Figure 8.40: The soccer team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 4)

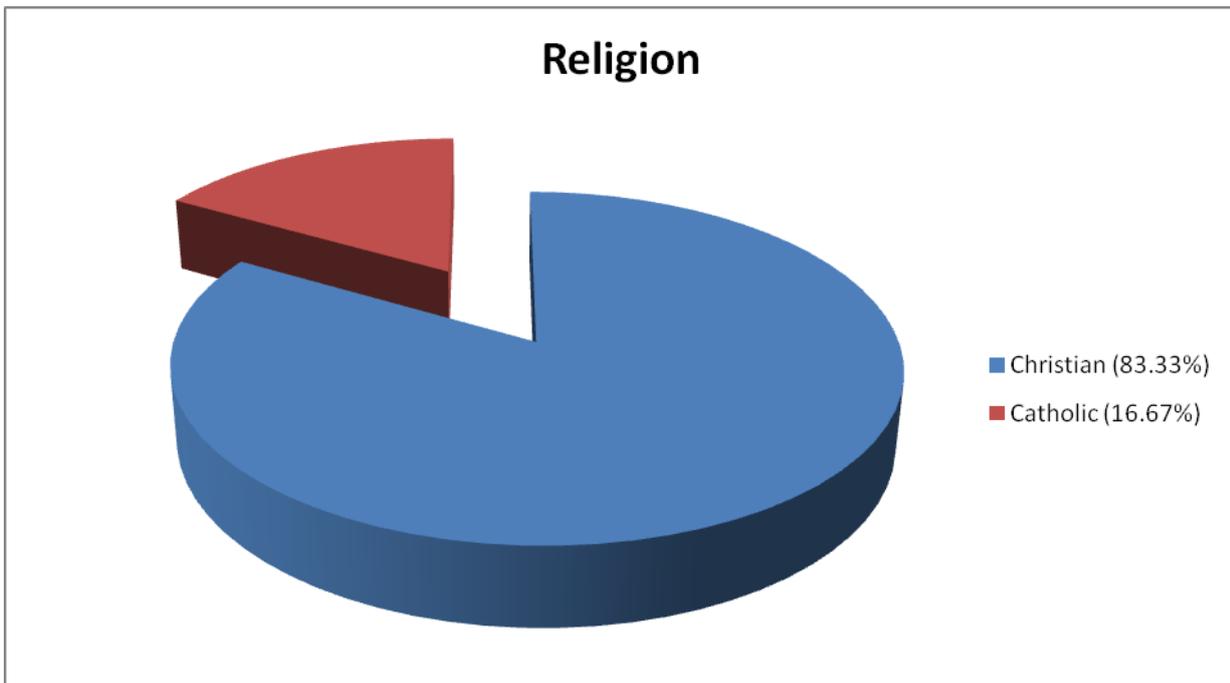


Table 8.51: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)

Job designation		
	Frequency	Percentage
Marketing	1	16.67
Administrator	1	16.67
Service consultant	2	33.33
Personal assistant	1	16.67
Tele-underwriter	1	16.67
Total	6	100

As indicated in table 8.51 and figure 8.41, in the sample, one (16.67%) of the participants was a marketer, one (16.67%) was an administrator, two (33.33%) were service consultants, one (16.67%) was a personal assistant and one (16.67%) was a tele-underwriter. The participants in the soccer team focus group (focus group 4) were therefore fairly evenly represented with regard to job designation.

Figure 8.41: The soccer team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 4)

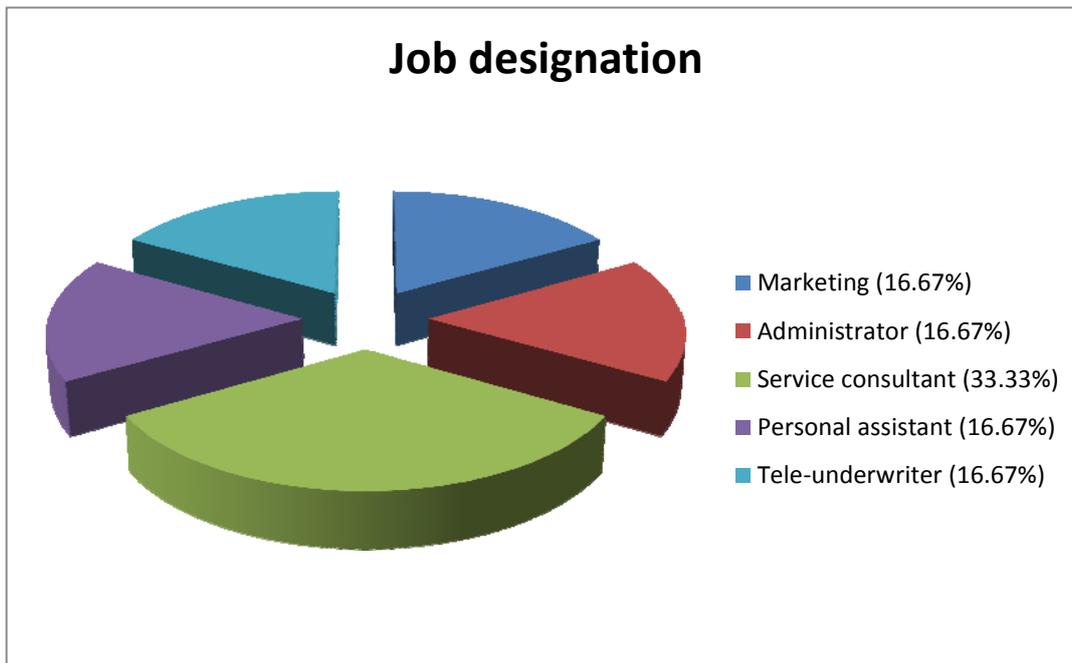
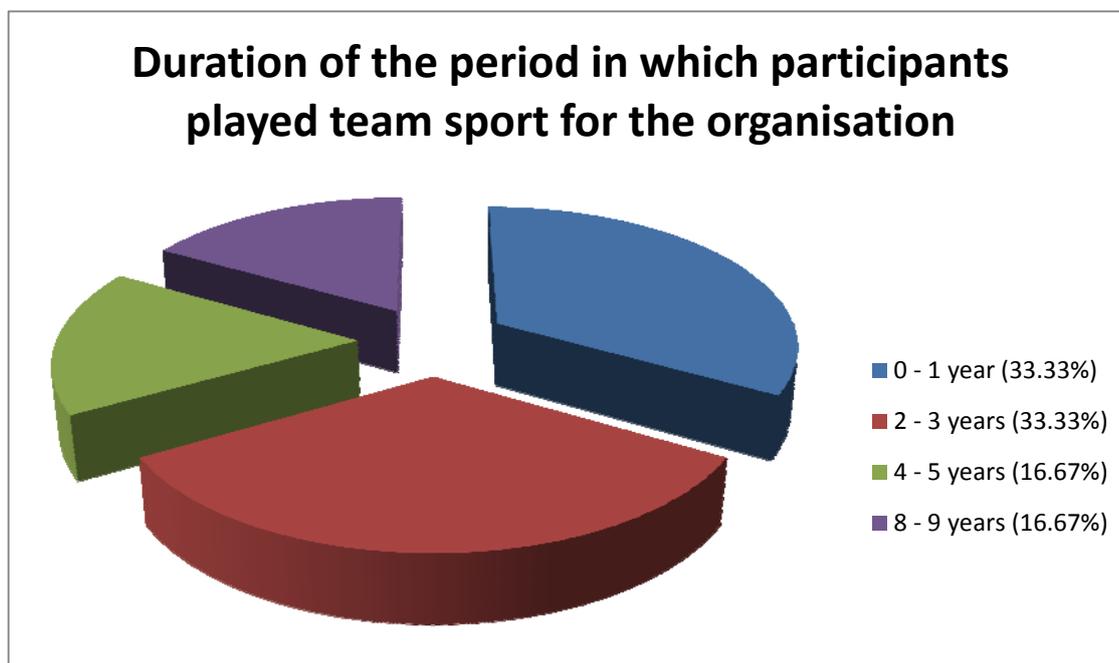


Table 8.52: Frequency distribution: duration of period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the fourth soccer team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played soccer for the company	Frequency		Percentage	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	2	33.33	2	33.33
2–3 years	2	33.33	2	33.33
4– 5 years	1	16.67	1	16.67
6–7 years	0	0	0	0
8–9 years	1	16.67	1	16.67
Total	6	100	6	100

According to table 8.52 and figure 8.42, the sample consisted of two (33.33%) participants who had participated in team sport for the organisation for zero to one year; two (33.33%) for two to three years; one (16.67%) for four to five years; and one (16.67%) for eight to nine years. Hence most of the participants (4 out of 6), had only played soccer for between zero to three years, and were relatively new in playing for the organisation.

Figure 8.42: The soccer team sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 4)



8.2.7 Diversity variables of the soccer team (focus group 5)

The diversity of focus group 5 is depicted in tables 8.53 to 8.60, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.53: Frequency distribution: race profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

	Frequency	Percentage
White	3	50
Black	2	33.33
Coloured	1	16.67
Total	6	100

According to table 8.53 and figure 8.43, the sample comprised three (50%) white participants, two (33.33%) black participants and one (16.67%) coloured participant. The majority of soccer players in this focus group (3 out of 6) were from the white community. This may be explained by the fact that the sport code of soccer is a growing sport among white employees.

Figure 8.43: The soccer team sample: distribution by race (focus group 5)

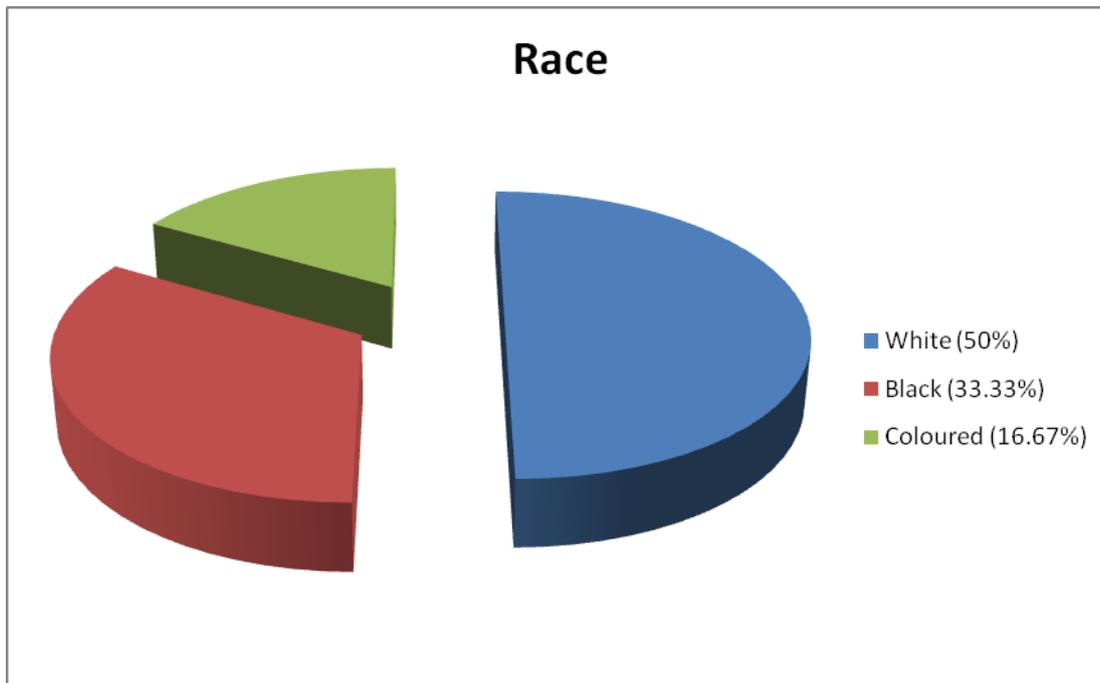


Table 8.54: Frequency distribution: age profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20–25	0	0
26–30	3	50
31–35	2	33.33
36–40	1	16.67
Total	6	100

According to table 8.54 and figure 8.44, the sample comprised three (50%) participants between the ages of 26 and 30, two (33.33%) between the ages of 31 and 35 and one (16.67%) between the ages of 36 and 40. Hence the majority of the focus group (3 out of 6) were young employees between the ages of 26 and 30. There were no participants under the age of 26.

Figure 8.44: The soccer team sample: distribution by age (focus group 5)

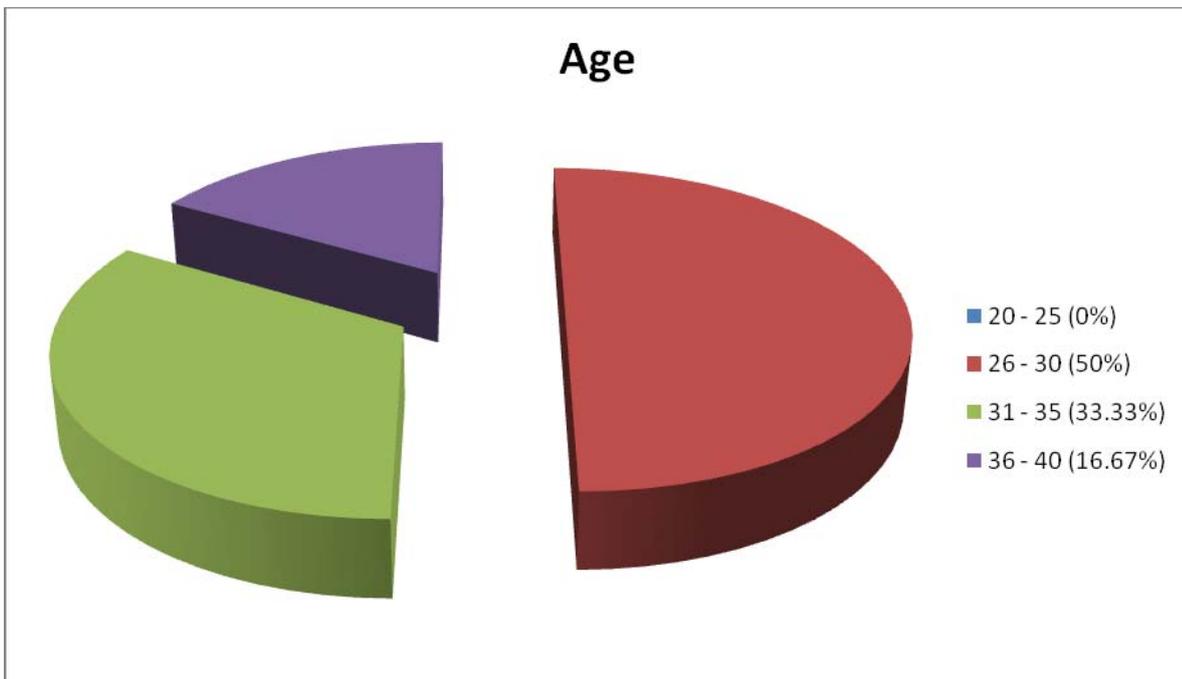


Table 8.55: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

Gender		Frequency	Percentage
	Female	3	50
Male	3	50	
Total	6	100	

According to table 8.55 and figure 8.45, of the sample, three (50%) participants were female and three (50%) were male. The participants of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5) were thus evenly represented with regard to gender.

Figure 8.45: The soccer team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 5)

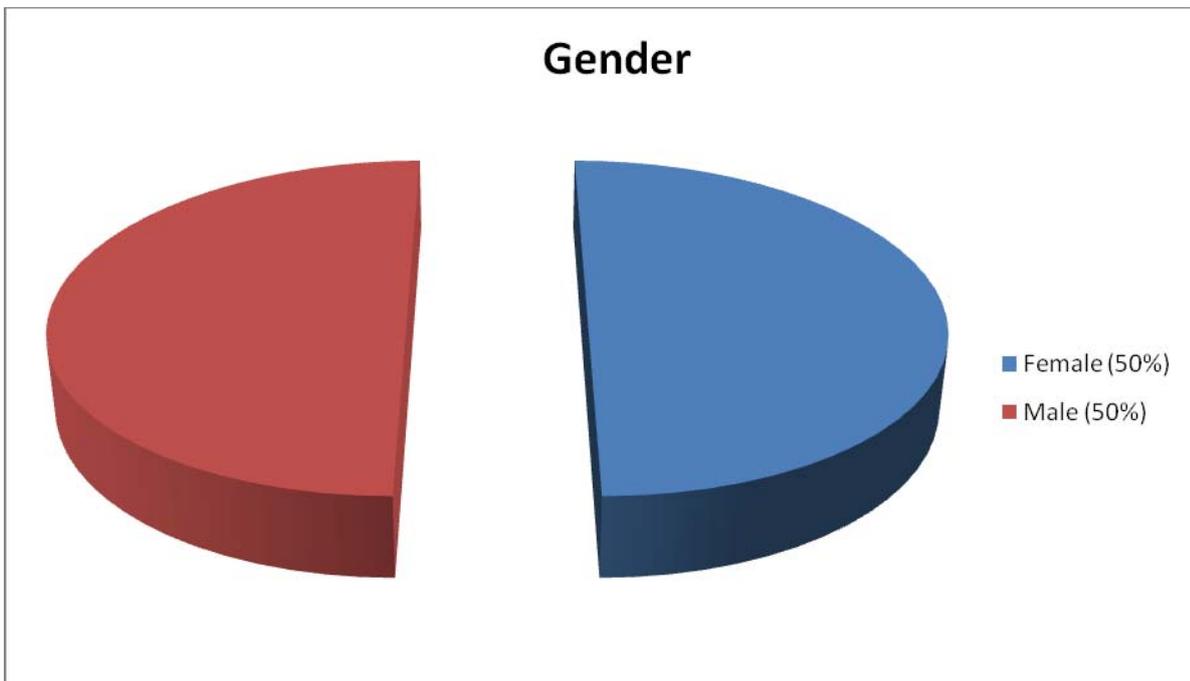


Table 8.56: Frequency distribution: language profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	1	16.67
	Afrikaans	3	50
	Sepedi	1	16.67
	Xhosa	1	16.67
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.56 and figure 8.46, the sample consisted of one (16.67%) English-speaking participant, three (50%) Afrikaans-speaking participants, one (16.67%) Sepedi-speaking participant and one (16.67%) Xhosa-speaking participant. Hence most of the participants (3 out of 6), were Afrikaans speaking.

Figure 8.46: The soccer team sample: distribution by language (focus group 5)

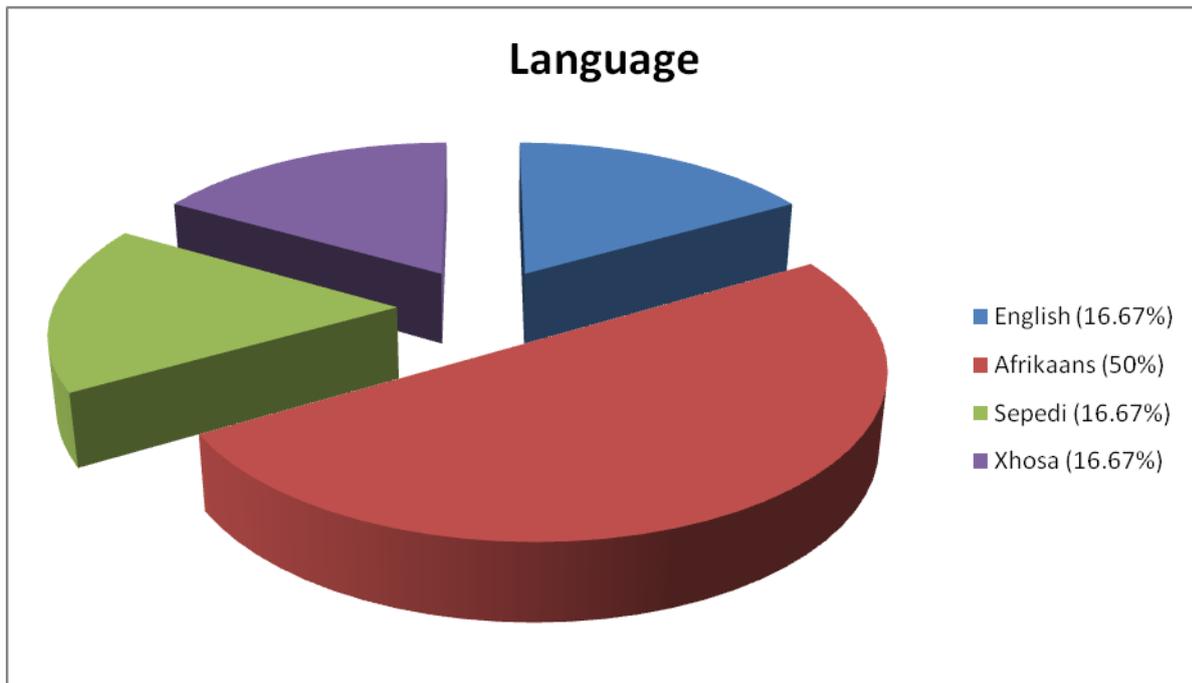


Table 8.57: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

		Frequency	Percentage
Religion	Christian	5	83.33
	None	1	16.67
	Total	6	100

As indicated in table 8.57 and figure 8.47, the sample comprised five (83.33%) Christians and one (16.67%) participant not involved in any religion. The majority of the participants are thus Christians.

Figure 8.47: The soccer team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 5)

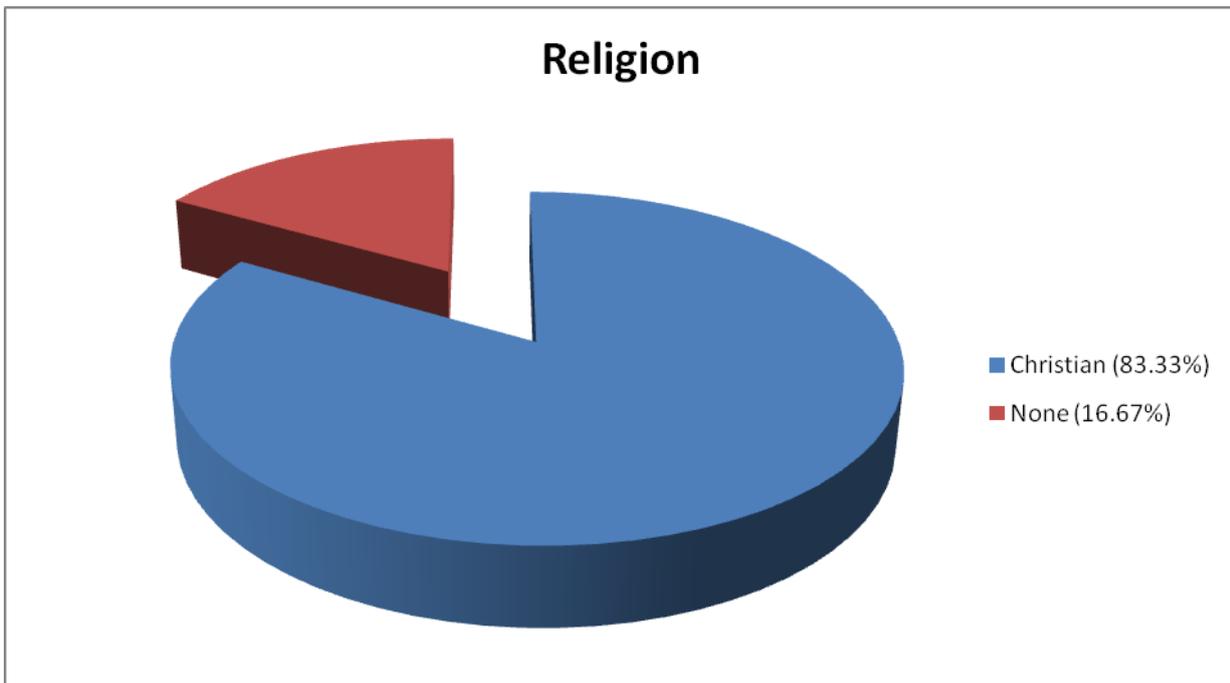


Table 8.58: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

		Frequency	Percentage
Age	Single	4	66.67
	Married	2	33.33
	Total	6	100

According to table 8.58 and figure 8.48, the sample comprised four (66.67%) single and two (33.33%) married participants. Hence most of the participants (4 out of 6), were single.

Figure 8.48: The soccer team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 5)

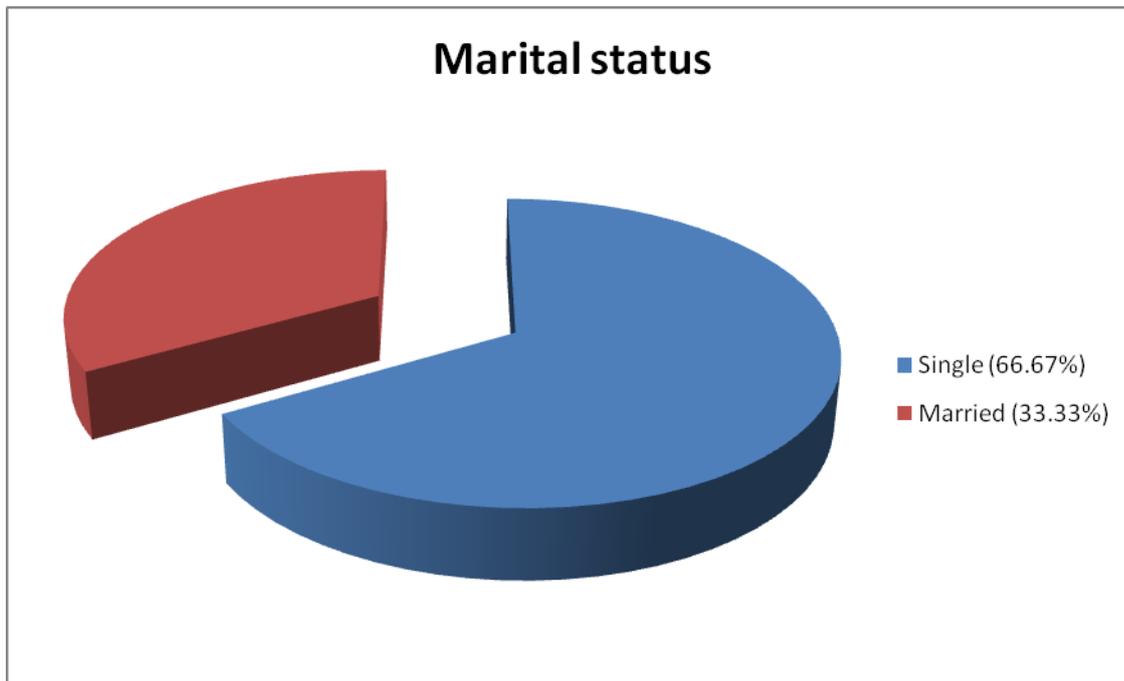


Table 8.59: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)

	Frequency	Percentage
Job designation		
Client care	1	16.67
Actuary	1	16.67
IT developer	1	16.67
Service consultant	1	16.67
Call centre agent	1	16.67
Head business intelligence	1	16.67
Total	6	100

As indicated in table 8.59 and figure 8.49, the sample consisted of one (16.67%) client care assistant, one (16.67%) actuary, one (16.67%) IT developer, one (16.67%) service consultant, one (16.67%) call centre agent and one (16.67%) head business intelligence. The participants in this focus group were thus fairly evenly represented with regard to job designation.

Figure 8.49: The soccer team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 5)

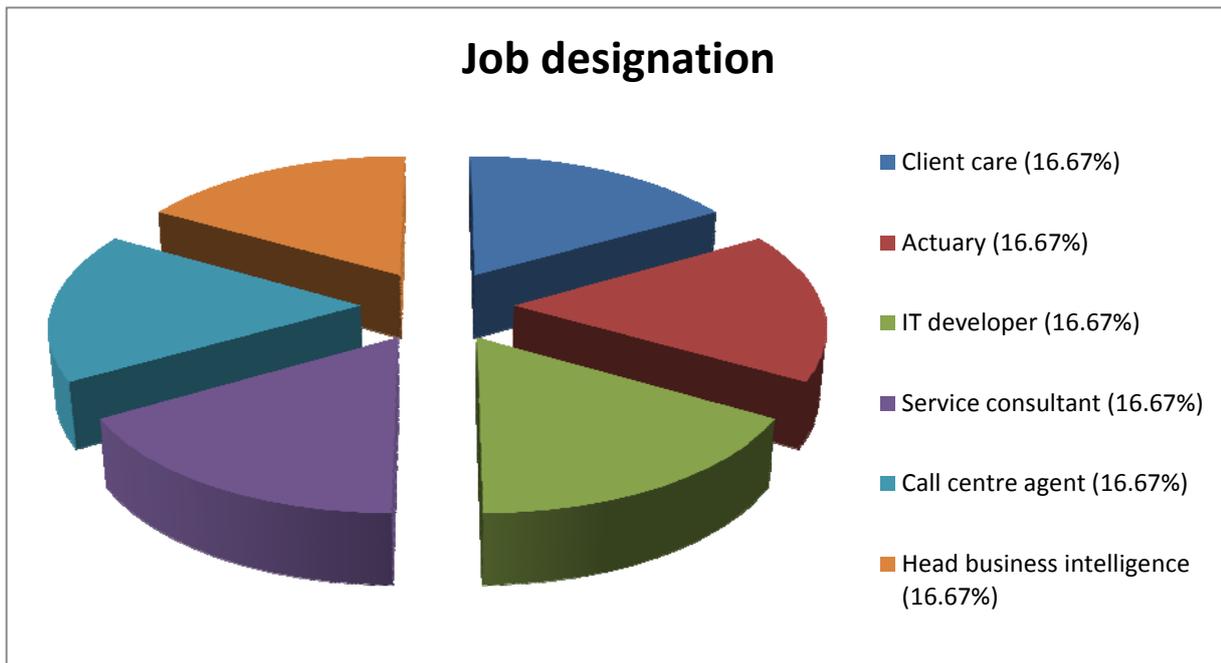
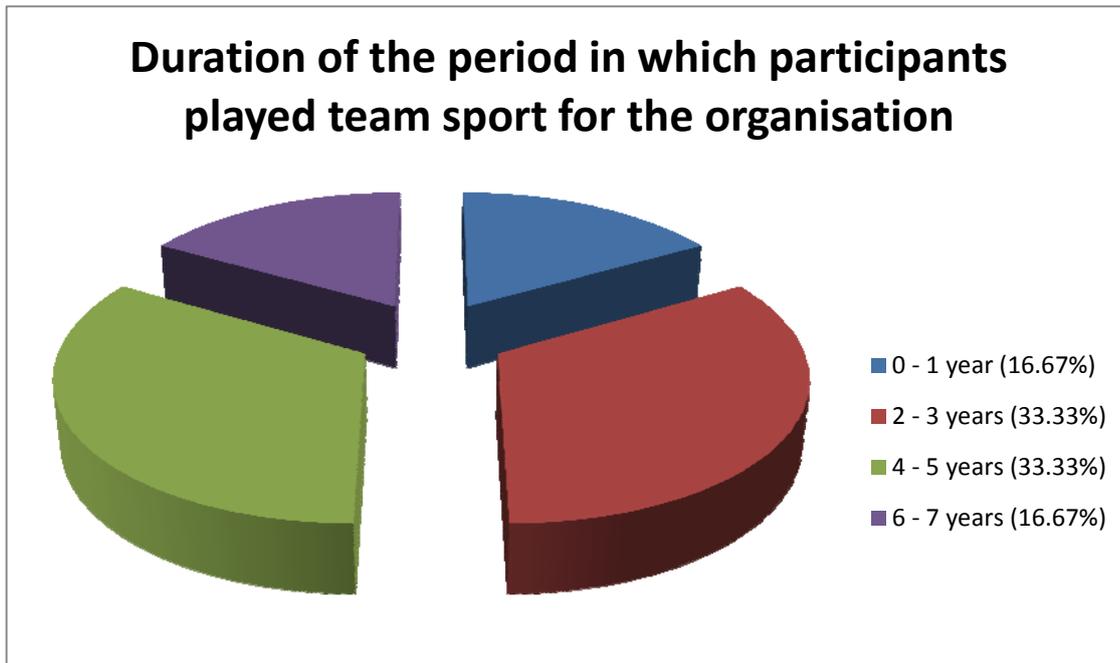


Table 8.60: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the fifth soccer team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played soccer for the organisation		
	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	1	16.67
2–3 years	2	33.33
4–5 years	2	33.33
6–7 years	1	16.67
Total	6	100

According to table 8.60 and figure 8.50, the sample consisted of one (16.67%) participant who had participated in team sport for the organisation for zero to one year; two (33.33%) who had participated for two to three years; two (33.33%) who had participated for four to five years; and one (16.67%) who had participated for six to seven years. The participants in the soccer team (focus group 5) were thus fairly evenly represented with regard to the duration of the period in which they had played team sport for the organisation.

Figure 8.50: The soccer team sample: distribution by the duration of the period participants had played team sport for the organisation (focus group 5)



8.2.8 Diversity variables of the volleyball team (focus group 6)

The diversity of focus group 6 is depicted in tables 8.61 to 8.68, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.61: Frequency distribution: race profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

		Frequency	Percentage
Race	White	3	37.5
	Indian	5	62.5
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.61 and figure 8.51, the sample comprised three (37.5%) white and five (62.5%) Indian participants. Hence the majority of employees in the focus group (5 out of 8) were Indian.

Figure 8.51: The volleyball team sample: distribution by race (focus group 6)

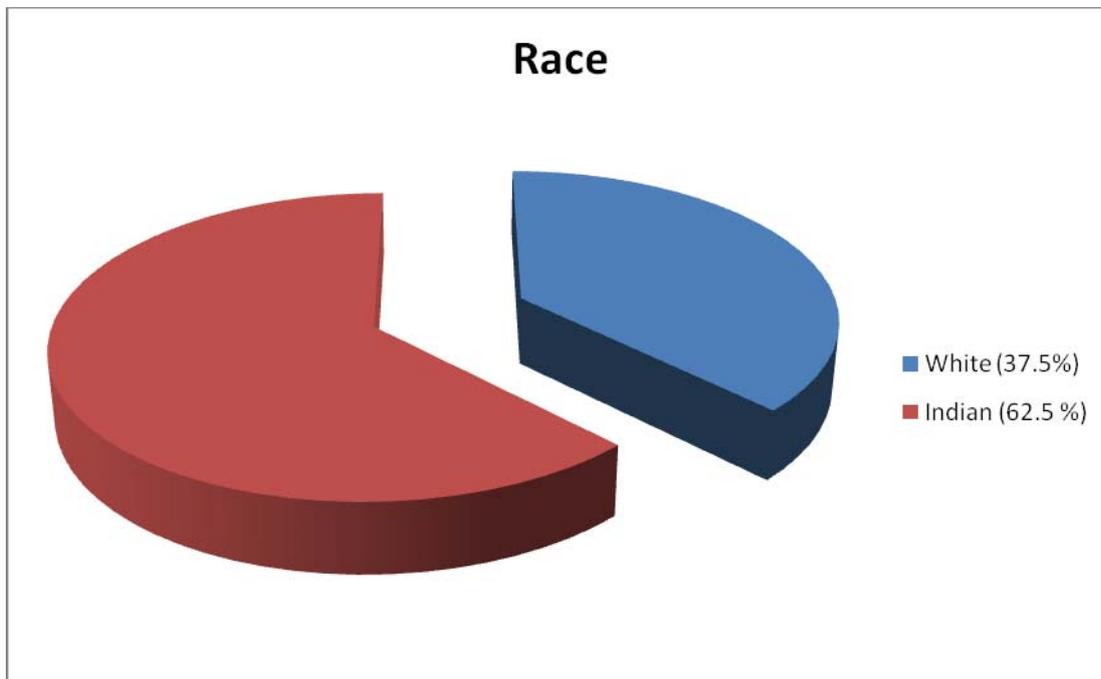


Table 8.62: Frequency distribution: age profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	20–25	0	0
26–30	2	25	
31–35	2	25	
36–40	2	25	
41–45	2	25	
Total	8	100	

According to table 8.62 and figure 8.52, the sample comprised two (25%) participants between the ages of 26 and 30, two (25%) between the ages of 31 and 35, two (25%) between the ages of 36 and 40 and two (25%) between the ages of 41 and 45. The participants in the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6) were thus fairly evenly represented with regard to age.

Figure 8.52: The volleyball team sample: distribution by age (focus group 6)

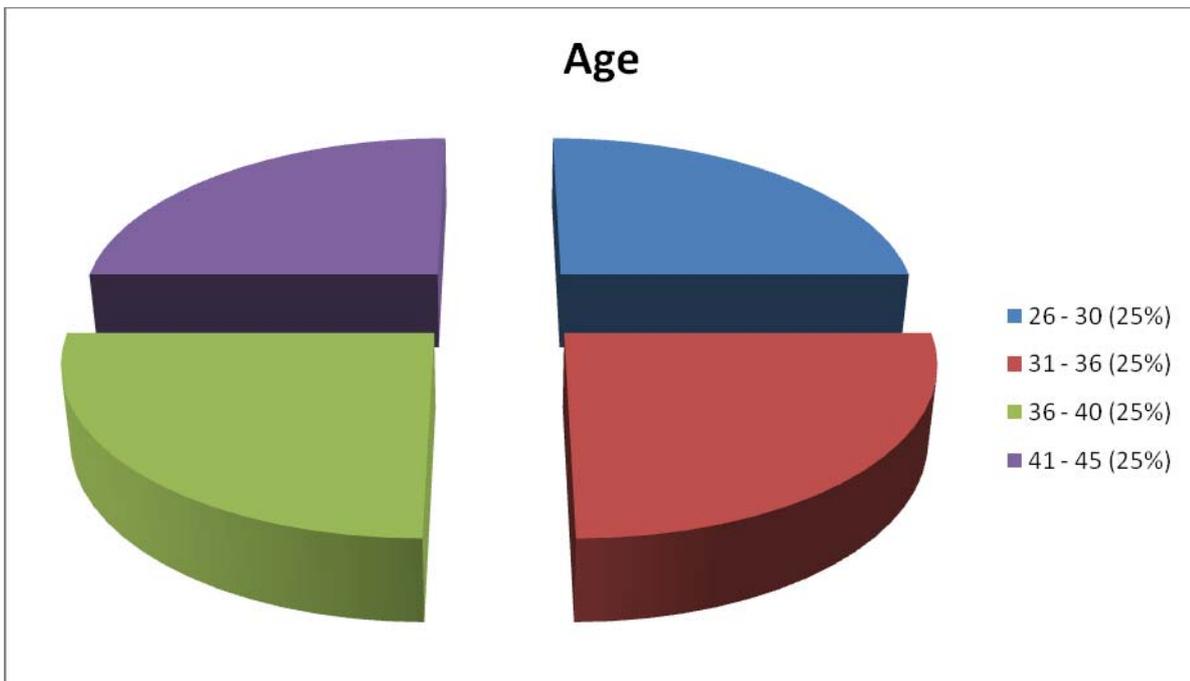


Table 8.63: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	3	37.5
	Male	5	62.5
	Total	8	100

As indicated in table 8.63 and figure 8.53, the sample comprised three (37.5%) female participants and five (62.5%) male participants. Hence most of the participants (5 out of 8), were males.

Figure 8.53: The volleyball team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 6)

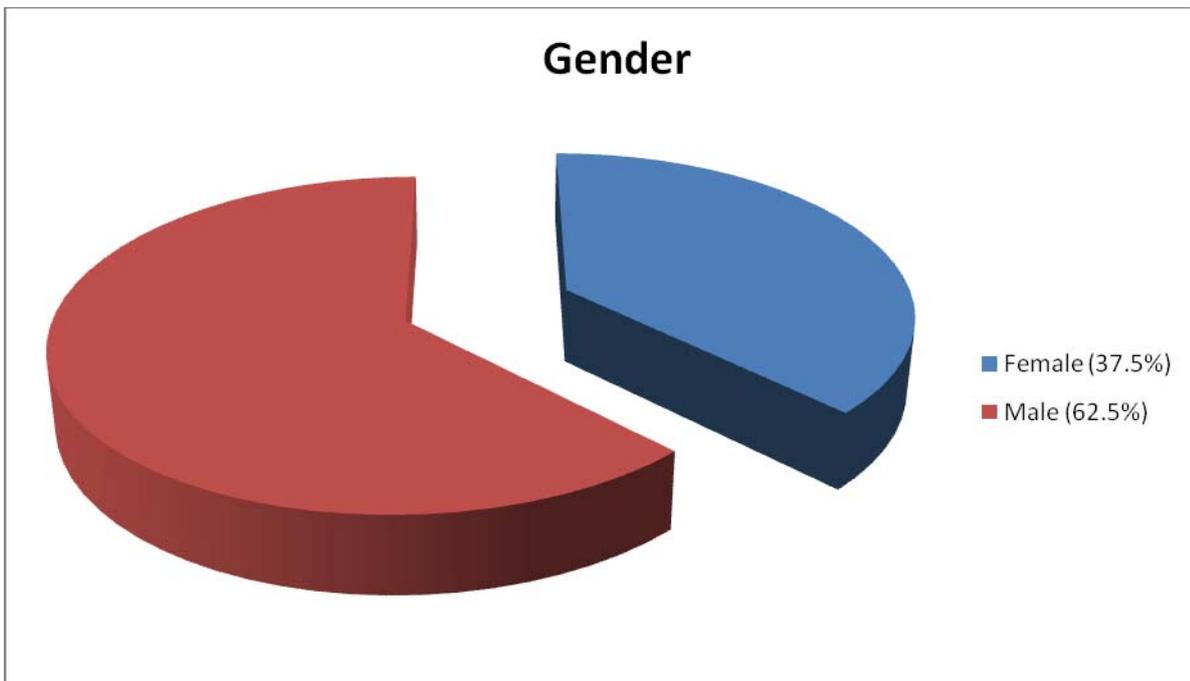


Table 8.64: Frequency distribution: language profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	5	62.5
	Afrikaans	3	37.5
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.64 and figure 8.54, the sample consisted of five (62.5%) English-speaking participants and three (37.5%) Afrikaans-speaking participants. Hence most of the participants (5 out of 8) were English speaking.

Figure 8.54: The volleyball team sample: distribution by language (focus group 6)

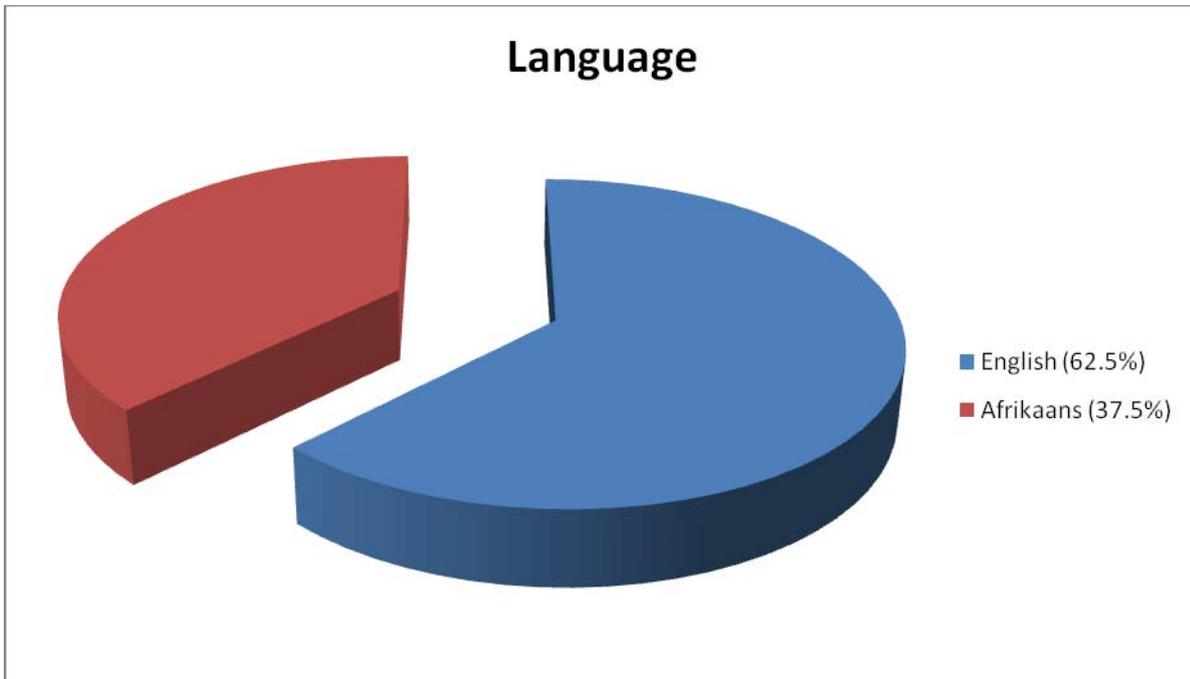


Table 8.65: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

		Frequency	Percentage
Religion	Christian	5	62.5
	Hindu	2	25
	Tamil	1	12.5
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.65 and figure 8.55, the sample comprised five (62.5%) Christian, two (25%) Hindus and one (12.5%) Tamil. Hence the majority of the participants (5 out of 8) were Christians.

Figure 8.55: The volleyball team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 6)

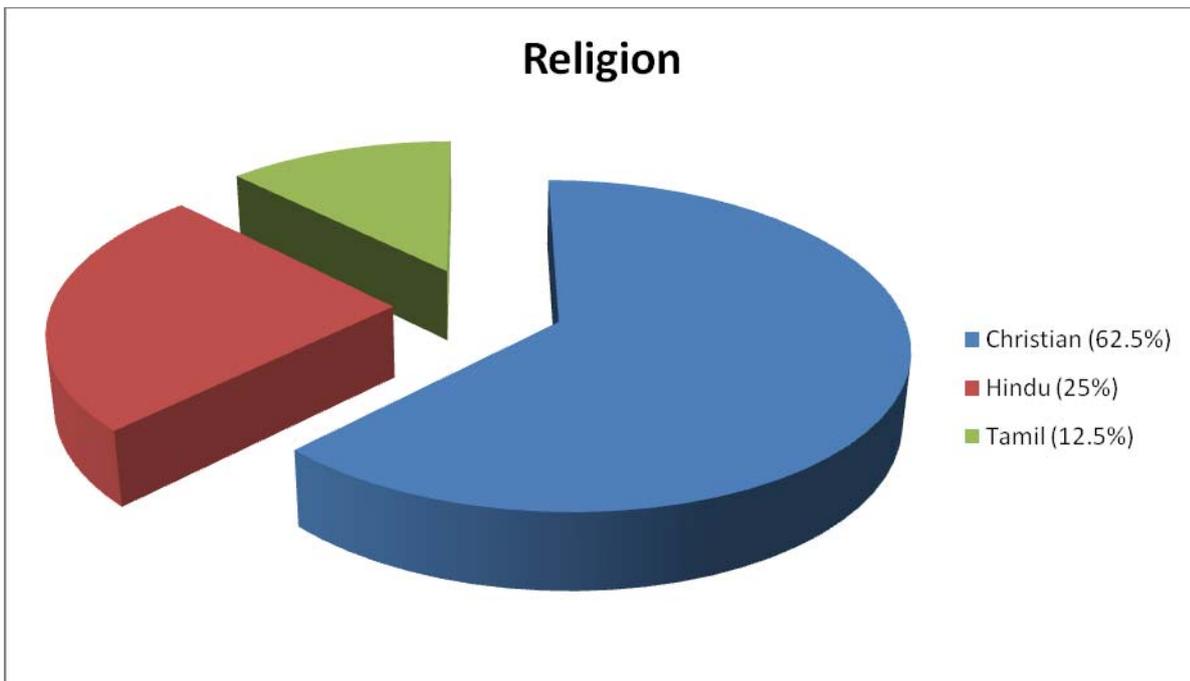


Table 8.66: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	Married	6	75
	Single	1	12.5
	Divorced	1	12.5
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.66 and figure 8.56, the sample comprised six (75%) married, one (12.5%) single and one (12.5%) divorced participants. Hence most of the participants (6 out of 8) were married.

Figure 8.56: The volleyball team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 6)

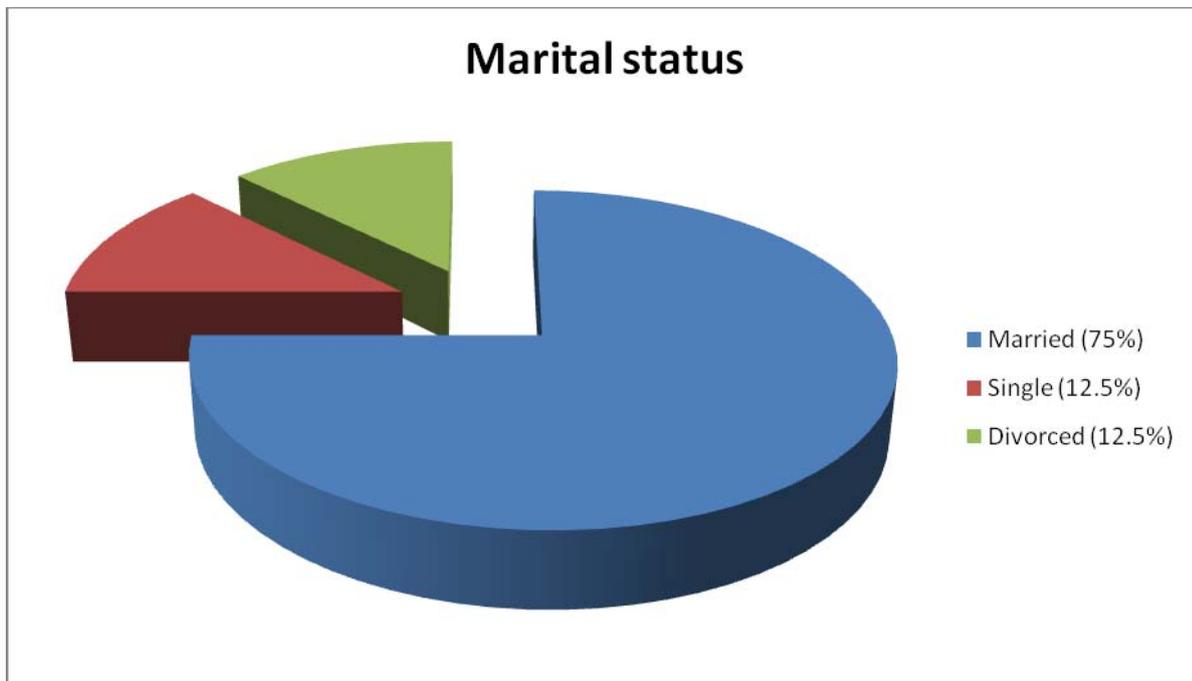


Table 8.67: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)

Job designation	Frequency	Percentage
Relationship manager	1	12.5
Personal assistant	1	12.5
Marketing assistant	1	12.5
Service consultant	2	25
Fund controller	1	12.5
Financial consultant	1	12.5
Database analyst	1	12.5
Total	8	100

According to table 8.67 and figure 8.57, the sample consisted of one (12.5%) relationship manager, one (12.5%) personal assistant, one (12.5%) marketing assistant, two (25%) service consultants, one (12.5%) fund controller, one (12.5%) financial consultant and one (12.5%) database analyst. The participants in the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6) were thus fairly evenly represented with regard to job designation.

Figure 8.57: The volleyball team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 6)

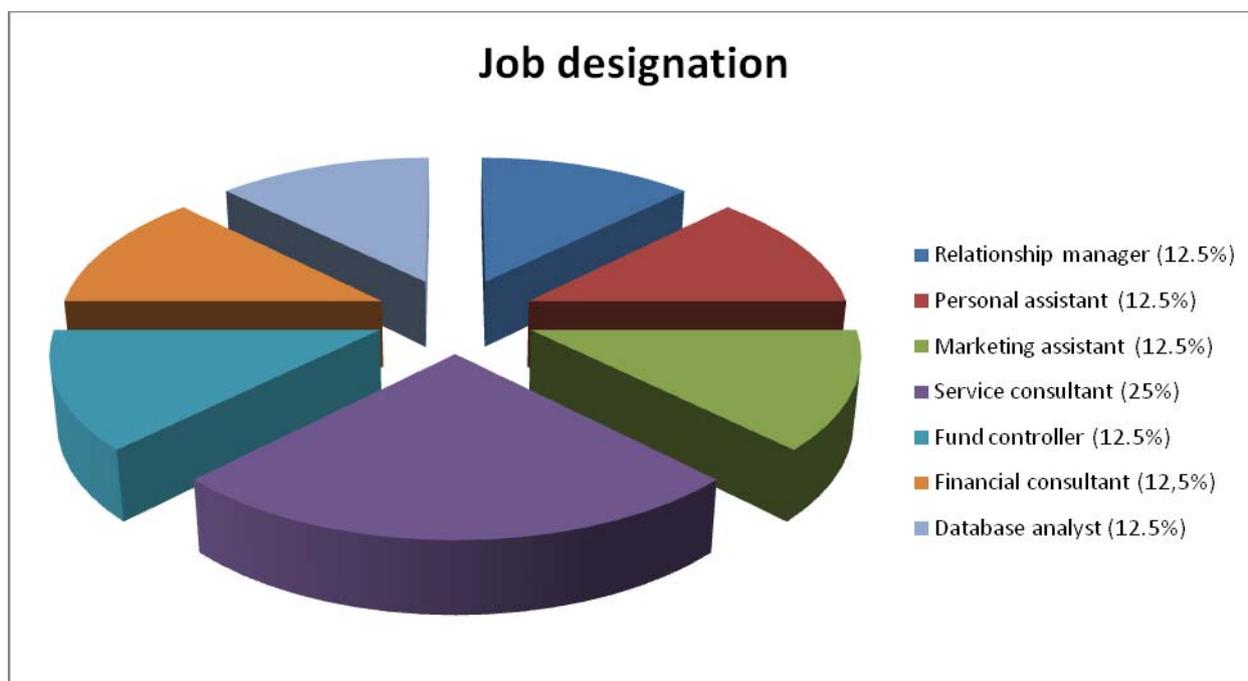
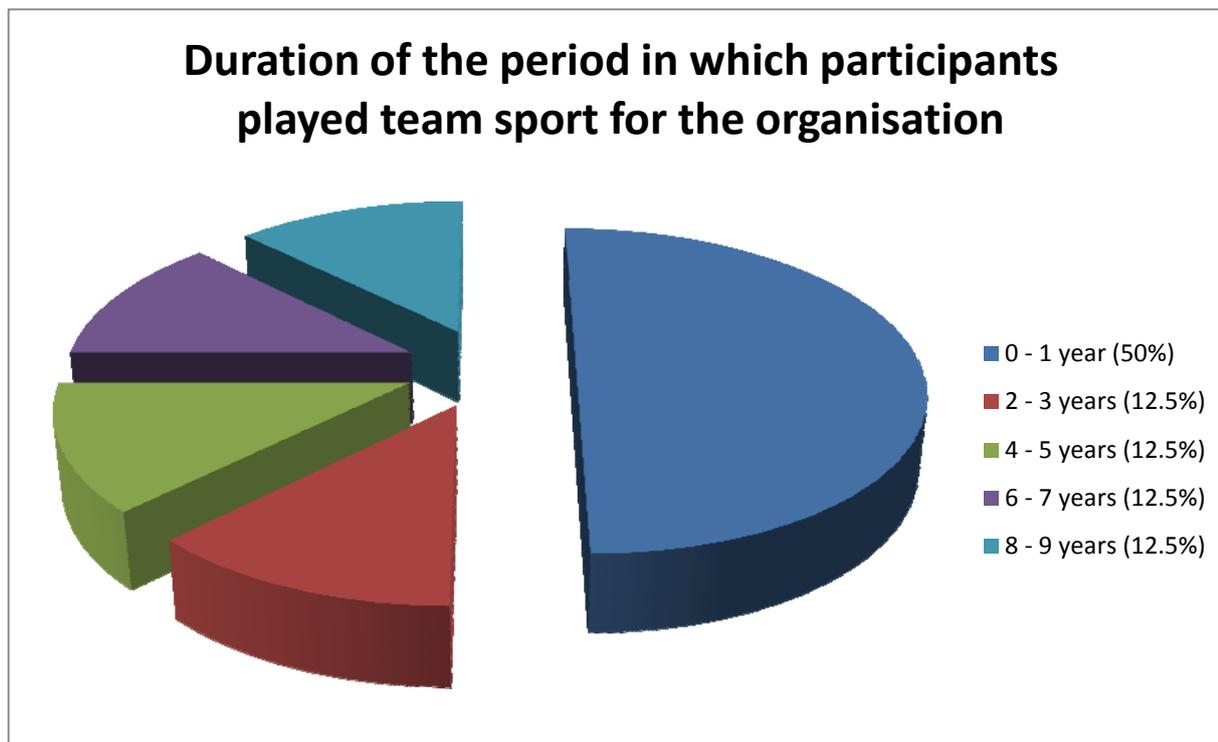


Table 8.68: Frequency distribution: duration of period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the sixth volleyball team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played volleyball for the organisation	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	4	50
2–3 years	1	12.5
4–5 years	1	12.5
6–7 years	1	12.5
8–9 years	1	12.5
Total	8	100

As indicated in table 8.68 and figure 8.58, the sample consisted of four (50%) participants who had participated in sport for the organisation for zero to one year; one (12.5%) who had participated for two to three years; one (12.5%) who had participated for four to five years; one (12.5%) who had participated for six to seven years; and one (12.5%) who had participated for eight to nine years. Hence half of the participants (4 out of 8) had only played volleyball for between zero and one year and were relatively new in playing for the organisation.

Figure 8.58: The volleyball team sample: distribution by the duration of the period participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 6)



8.2.9 Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 7)

The diversity of focus group 7 is depicted in tables 8.69 to 8.75, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.69: Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)

Race		Frequency	Percentage
	White	3	42.86
Indian	2	28.56	
Coloured	1	14.29	
Black	1	14.29	
Total	7	100	

According to table 8.69 and figure 8.59, the sample comprised three (42.86%) white participants, two (28.56%) Indian participants, one (14.29%) coloured participant and one (14.29%) black participant. Hence the majority of cricket players in this focus group (3 out of 7)

were from the white community. This may be explained by the fact that the sport code of cricket is predominantly played by white employees.

Figure 8.59: The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 7)

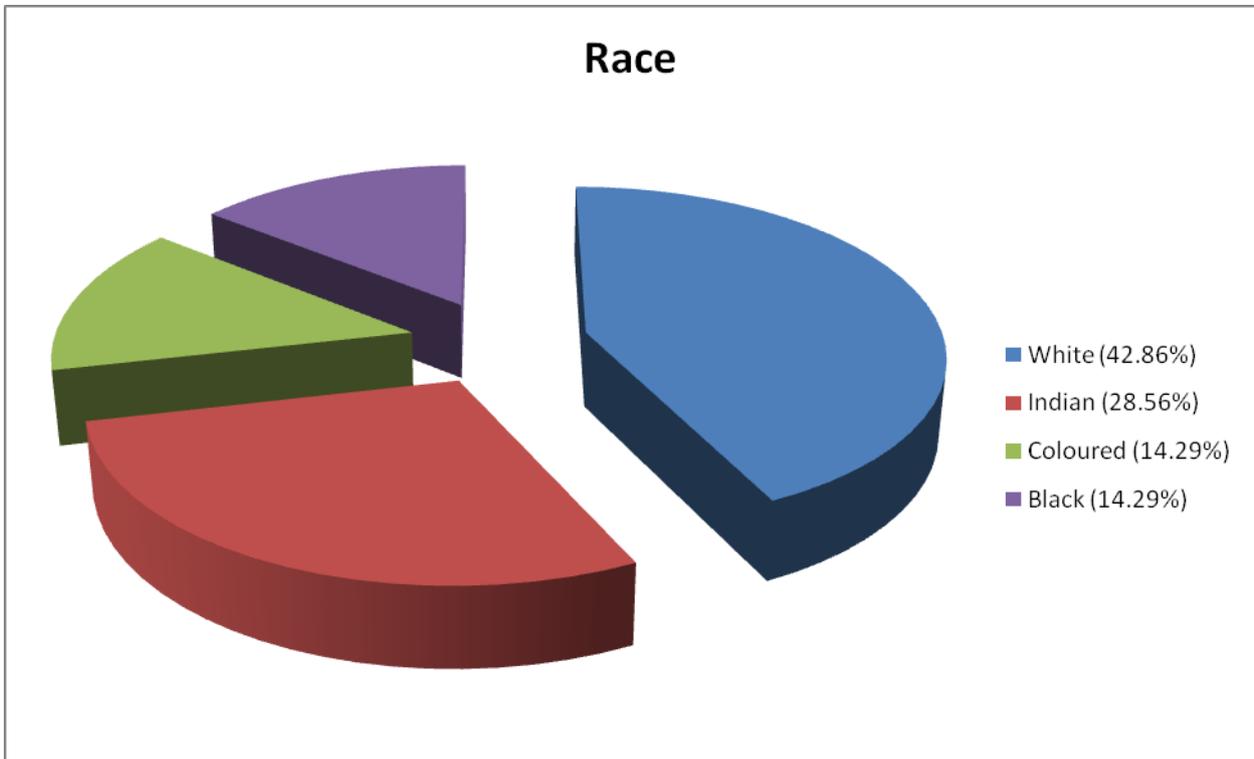


Table 8.70: Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)

Age	Frequency	Percentage
20–25	0	0
26–30	4	57.14
31–35	2	28.57
36–40	1	14.29
Total	7	100

According to table 8.70 and figure 8.60, the sample comprised four (57.14%) participants between the ages of 26 and 30, two (28.57%) between the ages of 31 and 35 and one (14.29%) between the ages of 36 and 40. Hence the majority of the participants in this focus group (4 out of 7) were extremely young employees between the ages of 26 and 30. There were no participants under the age of 26.

Figure 8.60: The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 7)

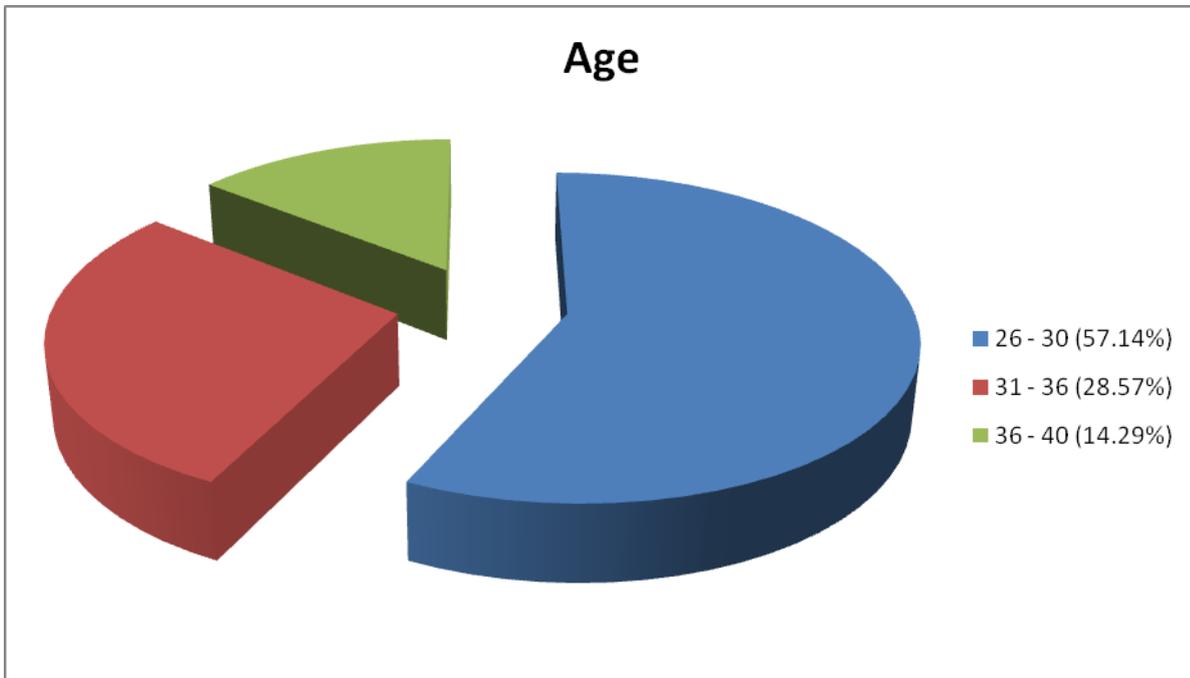


Table 8.71: Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	6	85.71
	Afrikaans	1	14.29
	Total	7	100

According to table 8.71 and figure 8.61, the sample consisted of six (85.71%) English-speaking participants and one (14.29%) Afrikaans-speaking participant. Hence most of the participants in the cricket team focus group (focus group 7) (6 out of 7) were English speaking.

Figure 8.61: The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 7)

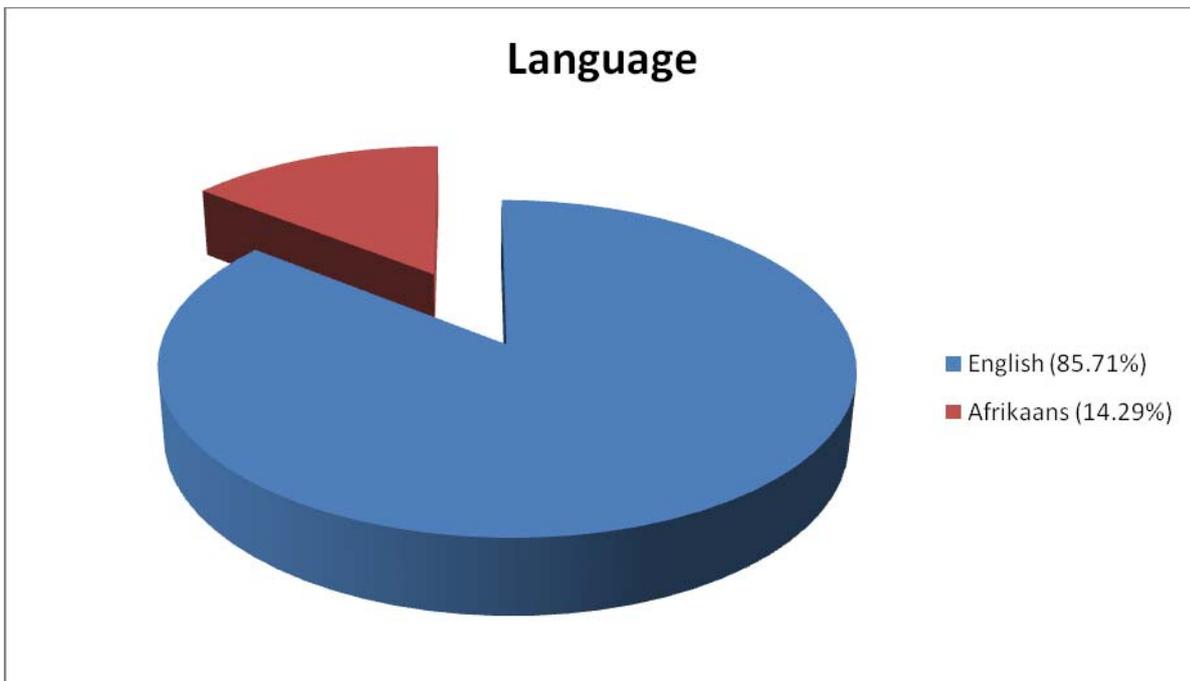


Table 8.72: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)

Religion	Frequency	Percentage
Christian	3	42.86
Hindu	1	14.285
Tamil	1	14.285
Catholic	1	14.285
Huron	1	14.285
Total	7	100

According to table 8.72 and figure 8.62, the sample comprised three (42.86%) Christians, one (14.285%) Hindu, one (14.285%) Tamil, one (14.285%) Catholic and one (14.285%) Huron. Hence the different religious groups were fairly evenly distributed in this focus group.

Figure 8.62: The cricket team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 7)

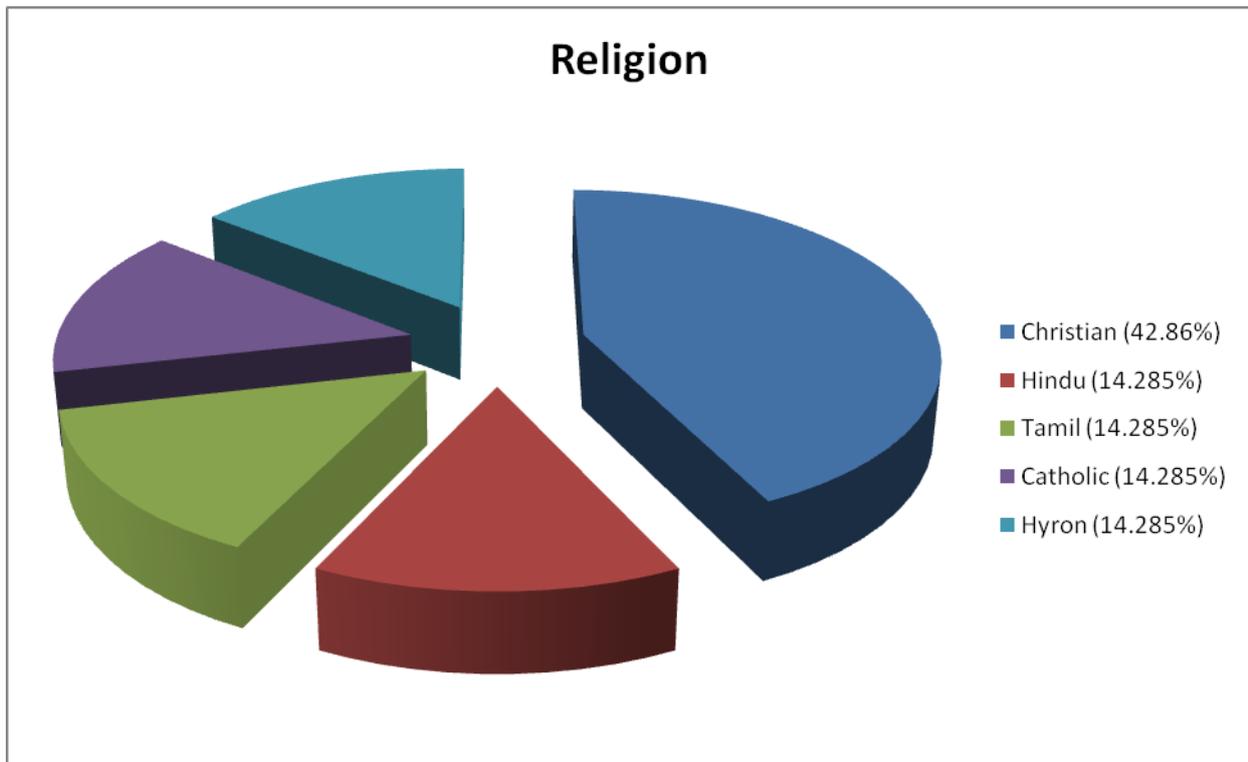


Table 8.73: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	Married	4	57.14
	Single	3	42.86
	Total	7	100

As indicated in table 8.73 and figure 8.63, the sample comprised four (57.14%) married and three (42.86%) single participants. Hence the participants in the cricket team focus group (focus group 7) were fairly evenly represented with regard to marital status.

Figure 8.63: The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 7)

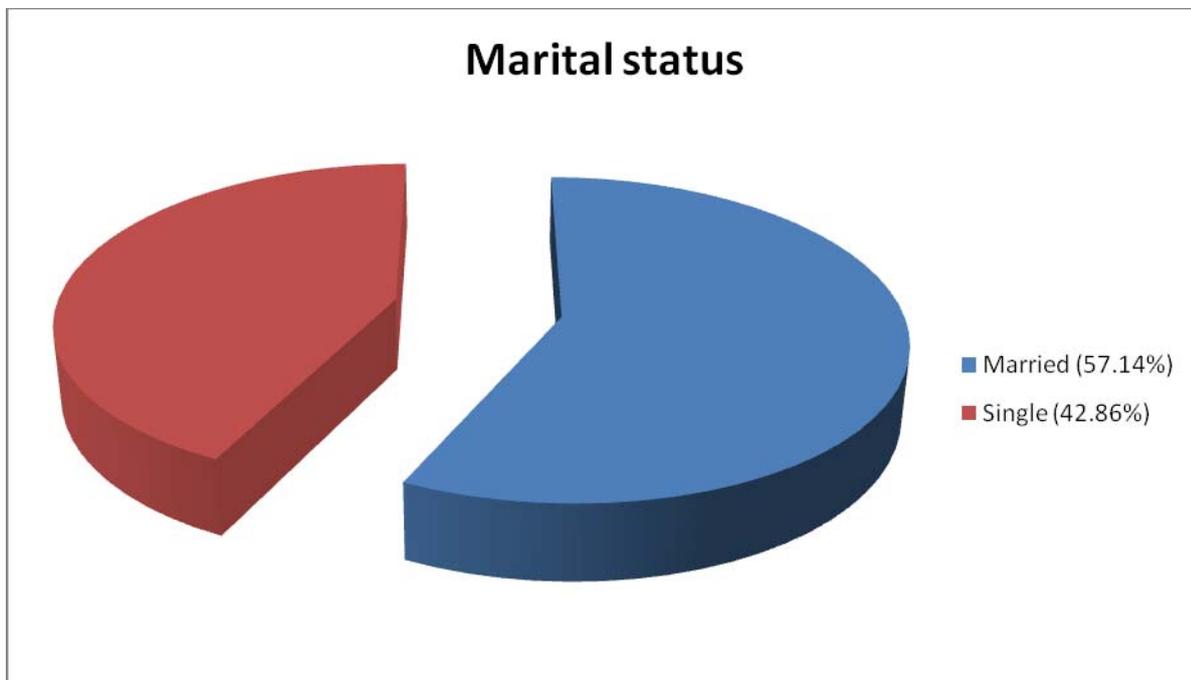


Table 8.74: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)

Job designation		Frequency	Percentage
	Actuary	1	14.29
Underwriting consultant	1	14.29	
IT developer	1	14.29	
Sales	1	14.29	
Finance	1	14.29	
Claims (admin)	2	28.57	
Total	7	100	

According to table 8.74 and figure 8.64, the sample consisted of one (14.29%) actuary, one (14.29%) underwriting consultant, one (14.29%) IT developer, one (14.29%) salesperson, one employee (14.29%) working in the finance department and two (28.57%) claims administrators. Hence the different job descriptions of this focus group were fairly evenly distributed.

Figure 8.64: The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 7)

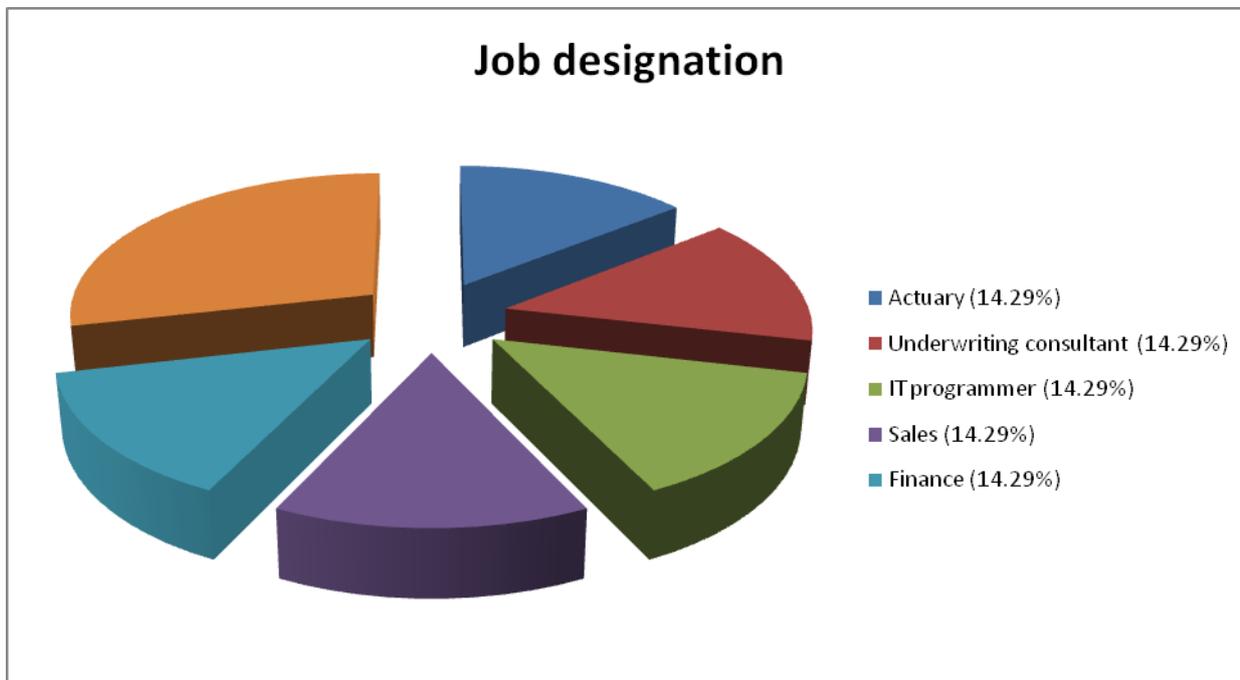
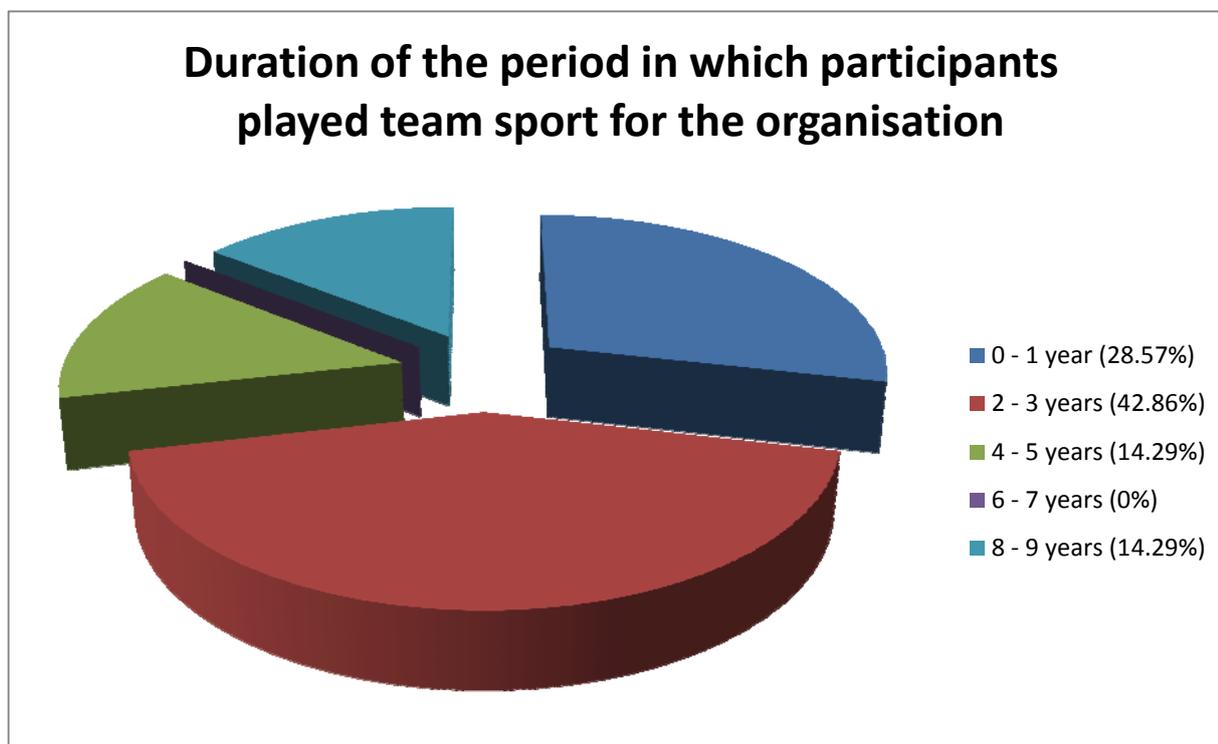


Table 8.75: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the seventh cricket team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played cricket for the organisation	Frequency		Percentage	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	2	28.57		
2–3 years	3	42.86		
4–5 years	1	14.29		
6–7 years	0	0		
8–9 years	1	14.29		
Total	7	100		

According to table 8.75 and figure 8.65, the sample consisted of two (28.57%) participants who had participated in team sport for the organisation for zero to one year; three (42.86%) who had participated for two to three years; one (14.29%) who had participated for four to five years; and one (14.29%) who had participated for eight to nine years. Hence most of the participants (5 out of 7) had only played cricket for between zero and three years and were relatively new in playing for the organisation.

Figure 8.65: The cricket team sample: distribution by the duration of the period participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 7)



8.2.10 Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 8)

The diversity of focus group 8 is depicted in tables 8.76 to 8.82, followed by a discussion.

Table 8.76: Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 8)

Race		Frequency	Percentage
	White	4	50
Indian	3	37.50	
Black	1	12.50	
Total	8	100	

According to table 8.76 and figure 8.66, the sample comprised four (50%) white participants, three (37.50%) Indian participants and one (12.50%) black participant. The majority of cricket players in this focus group (4 out of 8) were thus from the white community. This may be explained by the fact that the sport code of cricket is predominantly played by white employees.

Figure 8.66: The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 8)

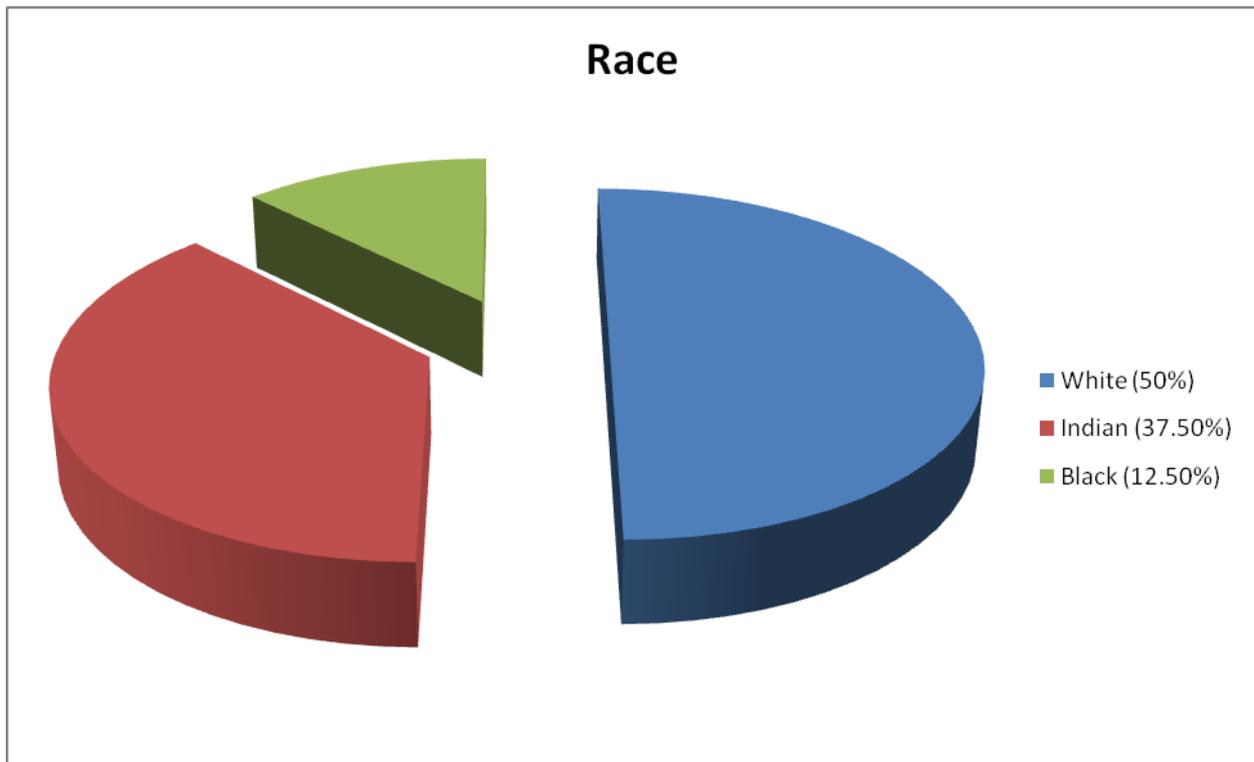


Table 8.77: Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 8)

Age			Frequency	Percentage
	20–25	4	50	
26–30	3	37.50		
31–35	1	12.50		
Total	8	100		

As indicated in table 8.77 and figure 8.67, the sample comprised four (50%) participants between the ages of 20 and 25, three (37.50%) between the ages of 26 and 30 and one (12.50%) between the ages of 31 and 35. Hence the majority of the focus group (7 out of 8) were extremely young employees between the ages of 20 and 30.

Figure 8.67: The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 8)

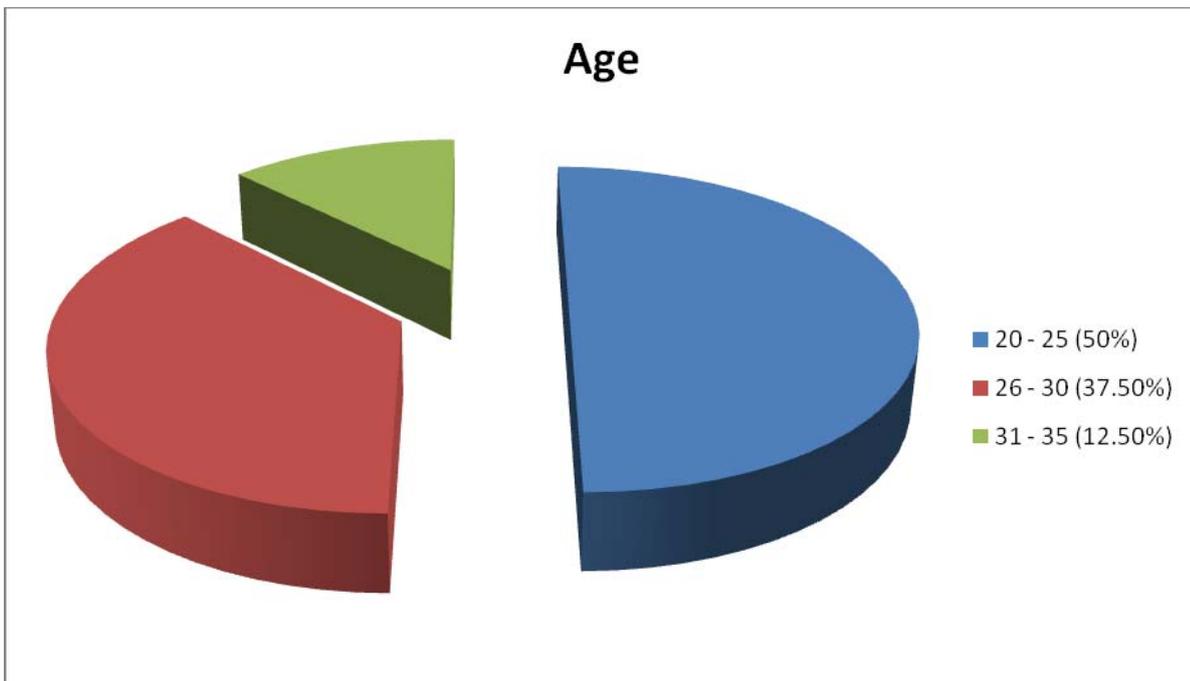


Table 8.78: Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 8)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	7	87.50
	Afrikaans	1	12.50
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.78 and figure 8.68, the sample consisted of seven (87.50%) English-speaking participants and one (12.50%) Afrikaans-speaking participant. Hence most of the participants in this focus group (7 out of 8), were English speaking.

Figure 8.68: The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 8)

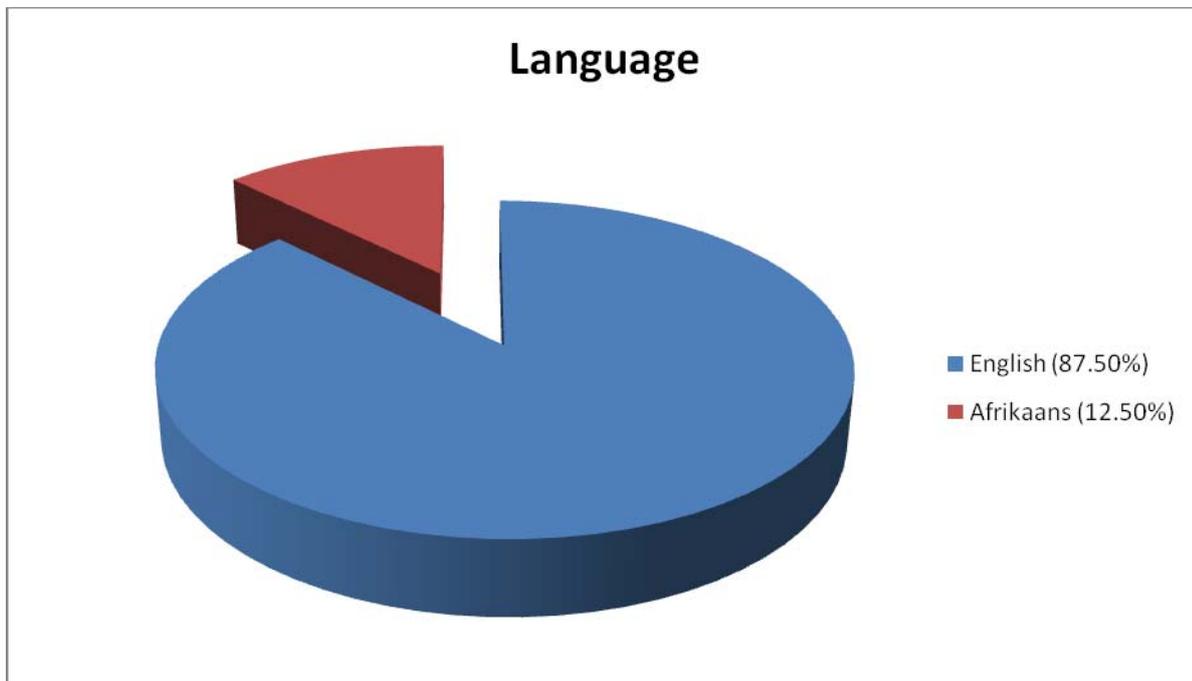


Table 8.79: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 8)

		Frequency	Percentage
Religion	Christian	2	25
	Hindu	2	25
	Baptist	1	12.50
	Catholic	1	12.50
	Evolutionist	1	12.50
	None	1	12.50
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.79 and figure 8.69, the sample comprised two (25%) Christian participants, two (25%) Hindu participants, one (12.50%) Baptist participant, one (12.50%) Catholic participant, one (12.50%) Evolutionist participant and one (12.50%) participant who was not involved in any religion. The participants of the cricket team focus group (focus group) were thus fairly evenly represented with regard to their religion.

Figure 8.69: The cricket team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 8)

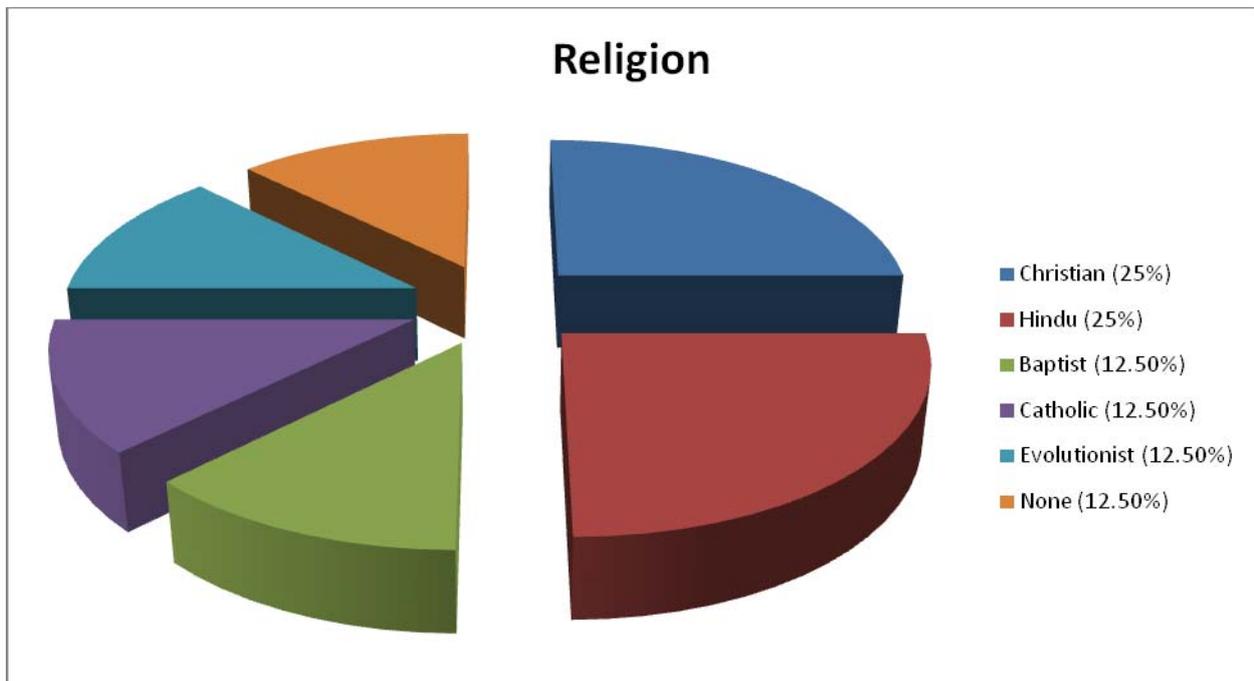


Table 8.80: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 8)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	Married	1	12.50
Single	5	62.50	
Engaged	2	25	
Total	8	100	

According to table 8.80 and figure 8.70, the sample comprised one (12.50%) married, five (62.50%) single and two (25%) engaged participants. Hence the majority of participants in the focus group (5 out of 8) were single.

Figure 8.70: The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 8)

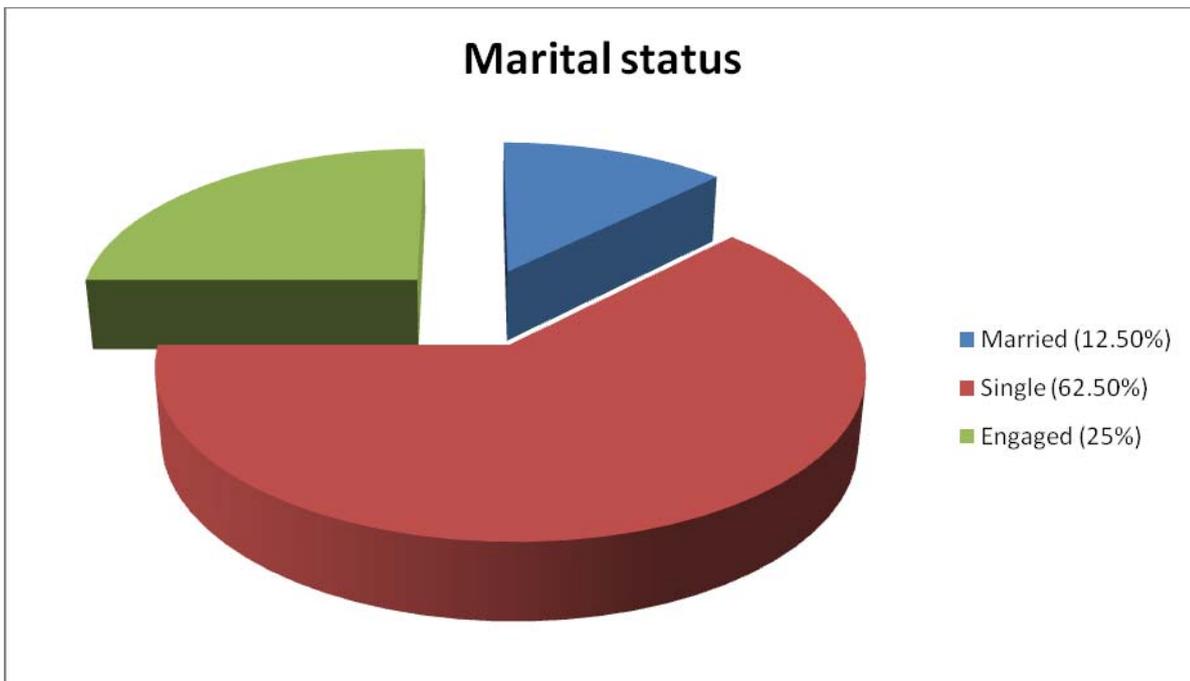


Table 8.81: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 8)

Job designation	Frequency	Percentage
Team leader	2	25
Credit controller	2	25
Consultant	2	25
Service specialist	1	12.50
Client relationship manager	1	12.50
Total	8	100

As Indicated in table 8.81 and figure 8.71, the sample consisted of two (25%) team leaders, two (25%) credit controllers, two (25%) consultants, one (12.50%) service specialist and one (12.50%) client relationship manager. Hence the participants in the cricket team focus group (focus group 8) were fairly evenly represented with regard to job designation.

Figure 8.71: The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 8)

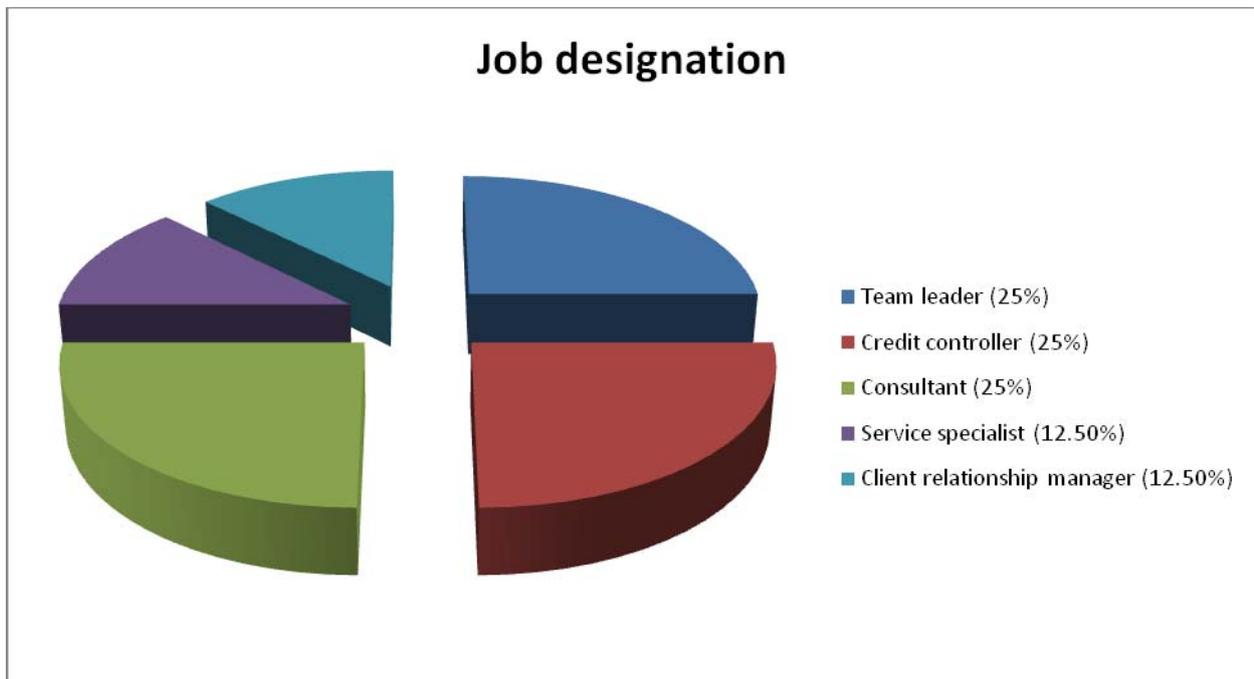
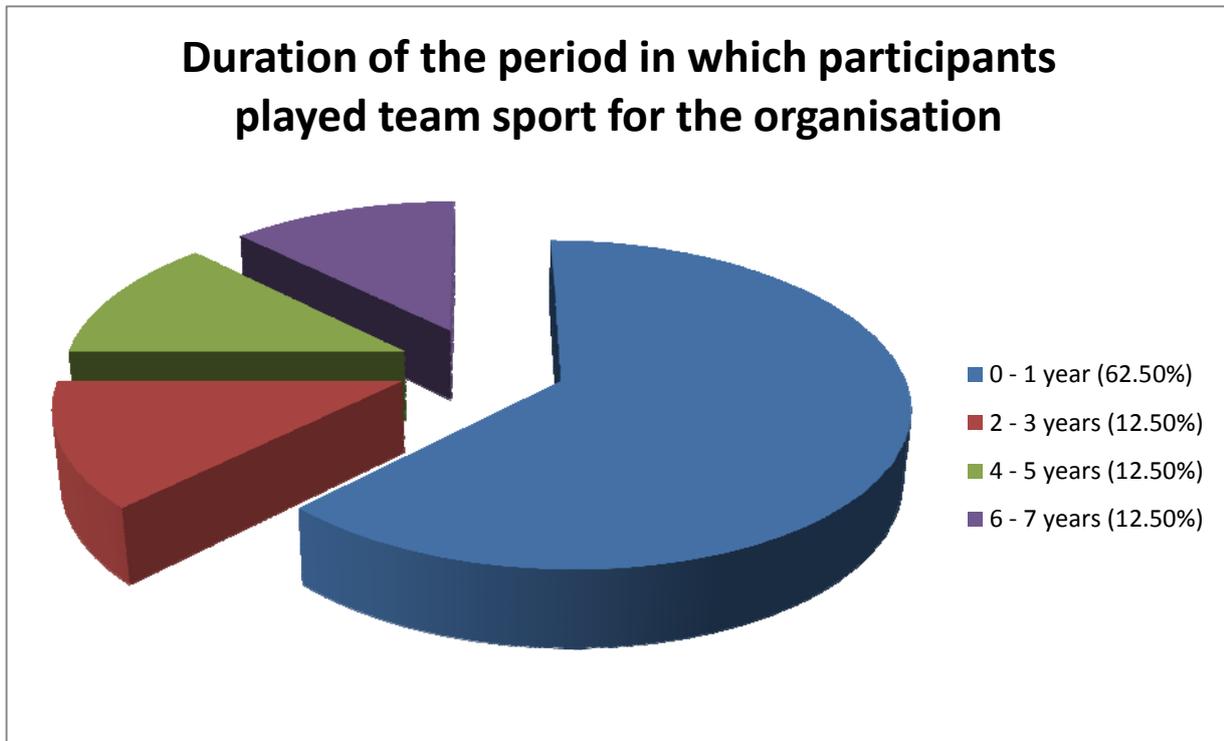


Table 8.82: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the eighth cricket team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played cricket for the organisation		
	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	5	62.50
2–3 years	1	12.50
4–5 years	1	12.50
6–7 years	1	12.50
Total	8	100

According to table 8.82 and figure 8.72, the sample consisted of five (62.50%) participants who had participated in team sport for the organisation for zero to one year; one (12.50%) for two to three years; one (12.50%) for four to five years; and one (12.50%) for six to seven years. Hence most of the participants (5 out of 8) had only played cricket for between zero and one year and were relatively new in playing for the organisation.

Figure 8.72: The cricket team sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 8)



8.2.11 Diversity variables of the soccer team (focus group 9)

The diversity of focus group 9 is depicted in tables 8.83 to 8.89 followed by a discussion.

Table 8.83: Frequency distribution: race profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 9)

		Frequency	Percentage
Race	White	2	25
	Indian	1	12.50
	Black	5	62.50
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.83 and figure 8.73, the sample comprised two (25%) white participants, one (12.50%) Indian participant and five (62.50%) black participants. The majority of the soccer players in this focus group (5 out of 8) were thus from the black community. This may be explained by the fact that the sport code of soccer is predominantly played by black employees.

Figure 8.73: The soccer team sample: distribution by race (focus group 9)

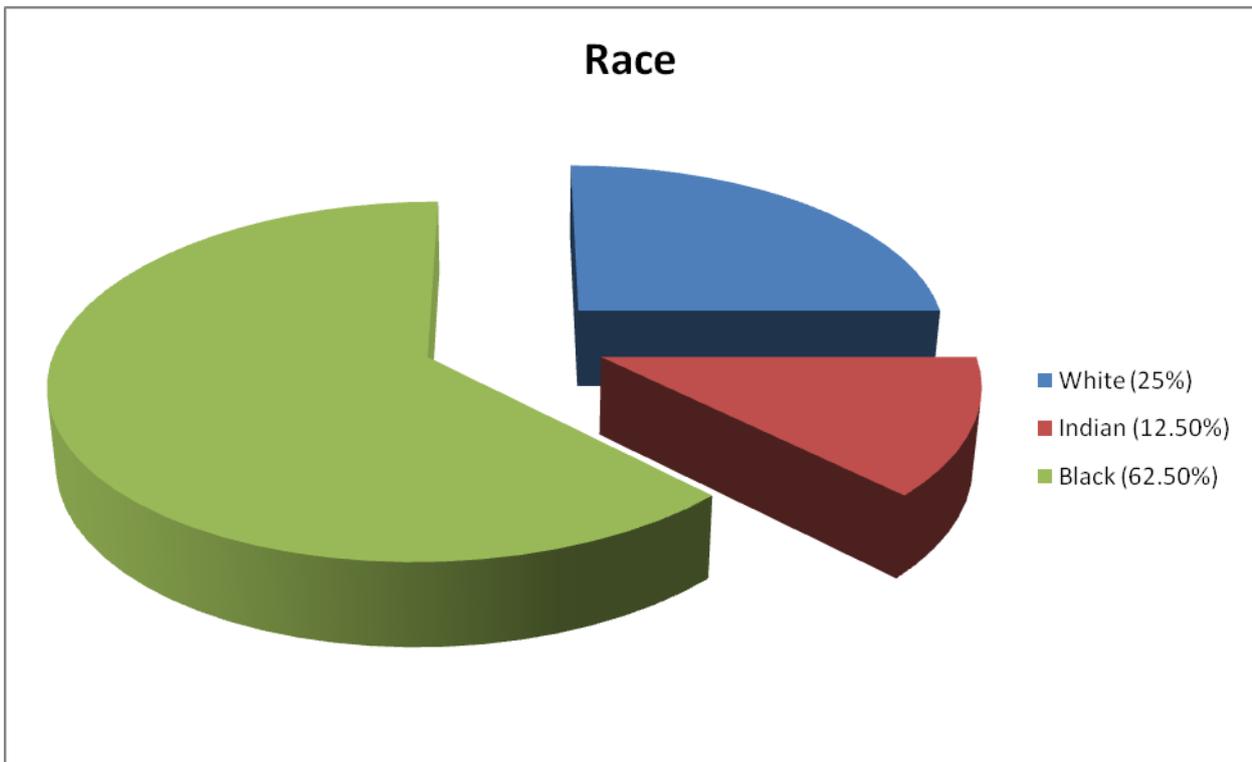


Table 8.84: Frequency distribution: age profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 9)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	20–25	3	37.50
26–30	1	12.50	
31–35	4	50	
Total	8	100	

According to table 8.84 and figure 8.74, the sample comprised three (37.50%) participants between the ages of 20 and 25, one (12.50%) between the ages of 26 and 30 and four (50%) between the ages of 31 and 35. None of the participants in this focus group was older than 35.

Figure 8.74: The soccer team sample: distribution by age (focus group 9)

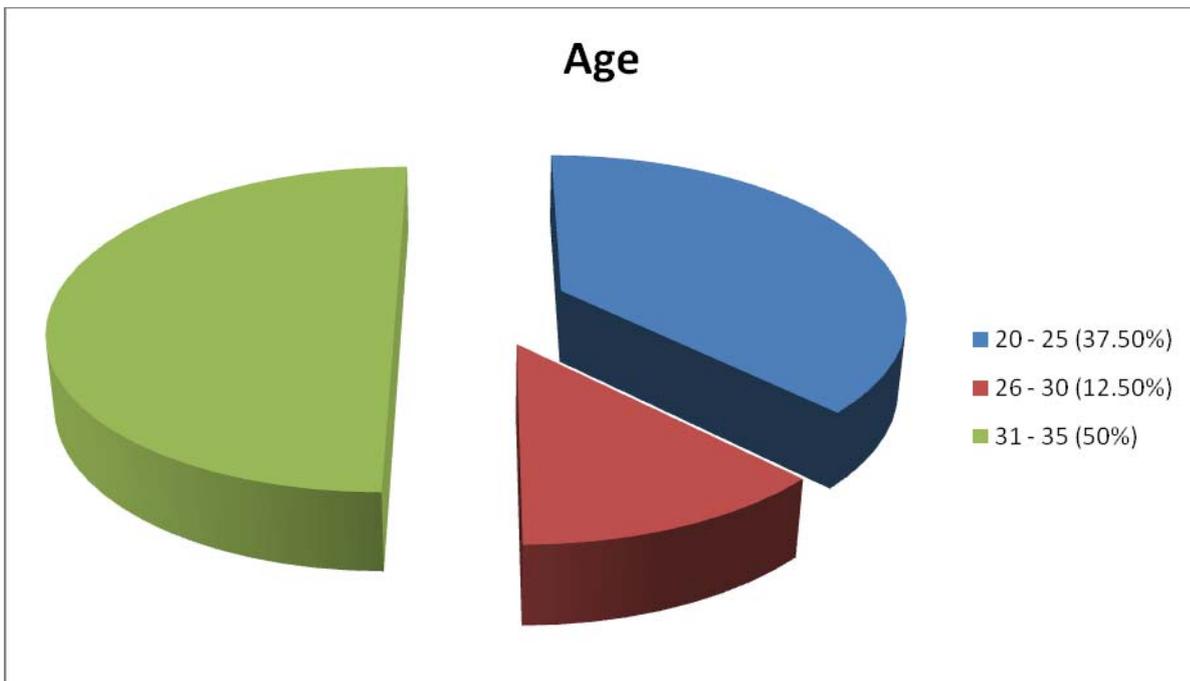


Table 8.85: Frequency distribution: language profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 9)

		Frequency	Percentage
Language	English	3	37.50
	Tswana	2	25
	Zulu	3	37.50
	Total	8	100

As indicated in table 8.85 and figure 8.75, the sample consisted of three (37.50%) English-speaking participants, two (25%) Tswana-speaking participants and three (37.50%) Zulu-speaking participants. Hence the different language groups were fairly evenly distributed in the soccer team focus group (focus group 9).

Figure 8.75: The soccer team sample: distribution by language (focus group 9)

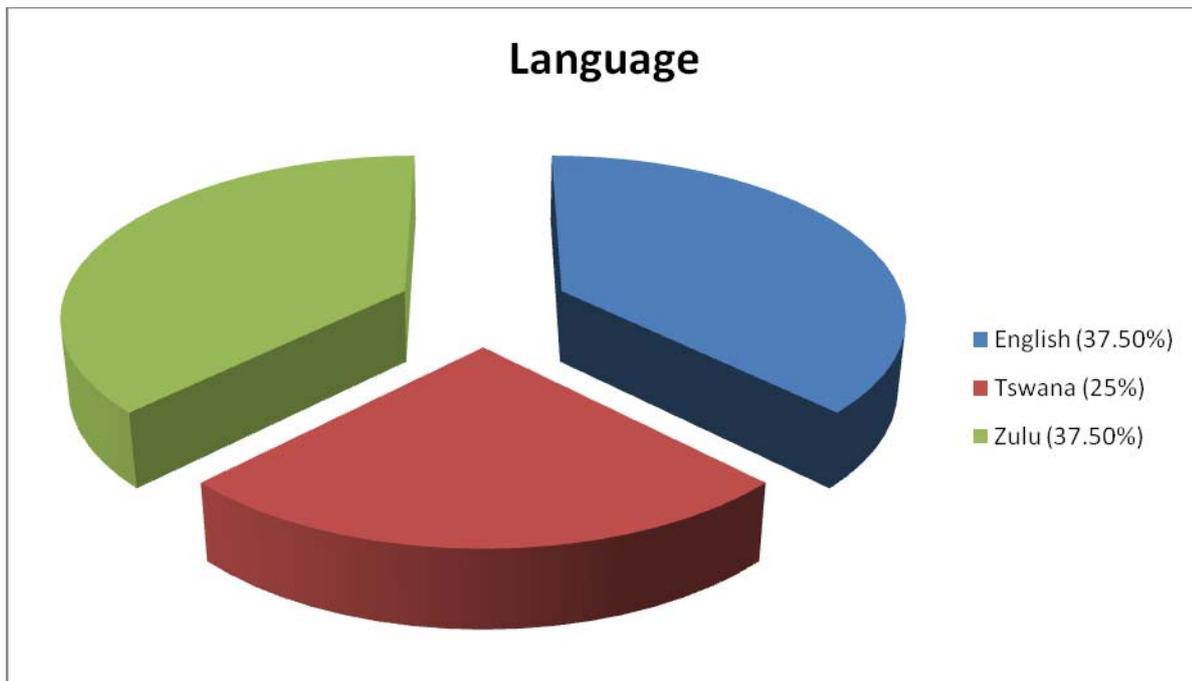


Table 8.86: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 9)

		Frequency	Percentage
Religion	Christian	5	62.50
	Muslim	1	12.50
	Catholic	2	25
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.86 and figure 8.76, the sample comprised five (62.50%) Christian, one (12.50%) Muslim and two (25%) Catholic participants. Hence most of the participants in this focus group (5 out of 8) were Christians.

Figure 8.76: The soccer team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 9)

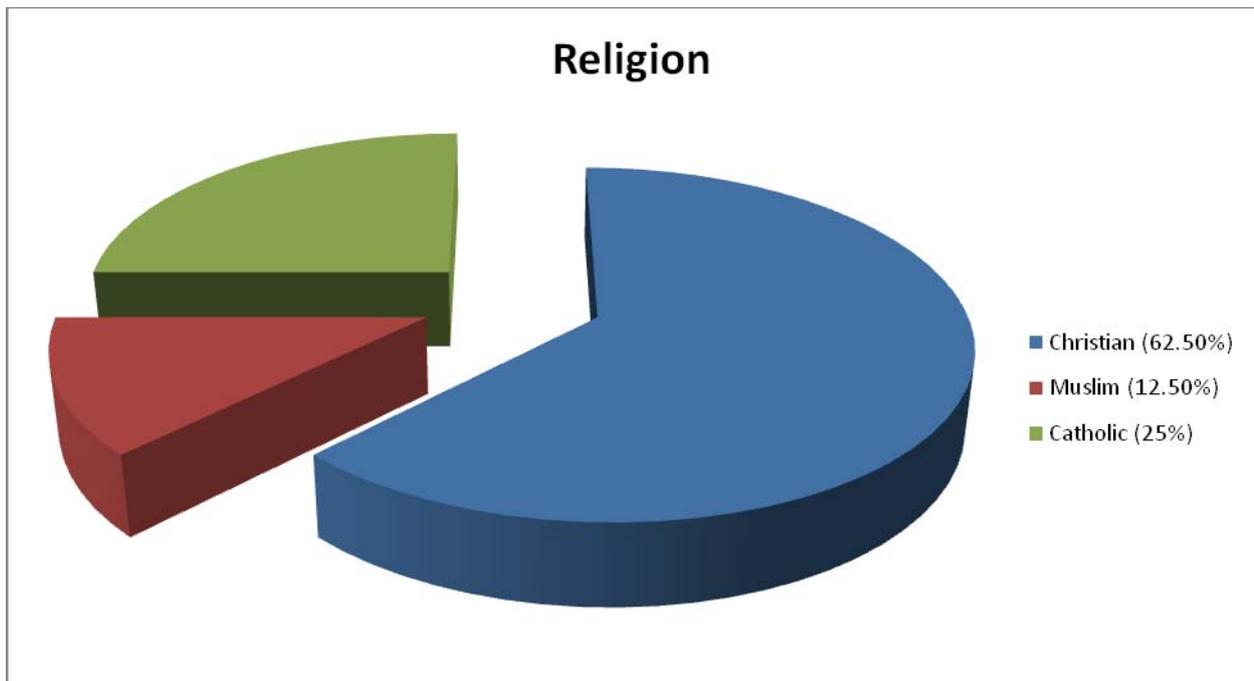


Table 8.87: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 9)

Age		Frequency	Percentage
	Married	4	50
	Single	4	50
	Total	8	100

According to table 8.87 and figure 8.77, the sample comprised four (50%) married and four (50%) single participants. The participants in the soccer team focus group (ninth focus group) were thus evenly represented with regard to marital status.

Figure 8.77: The soccer team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 9)

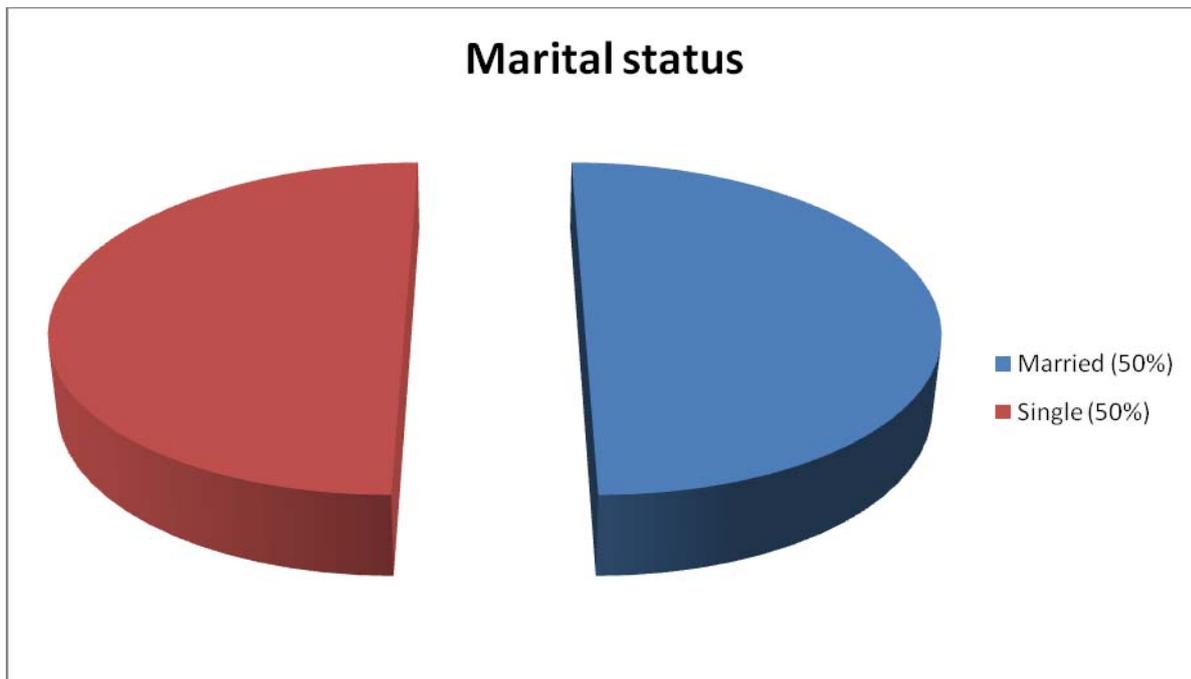


Table 8.88: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 9)

Job designation	Frequency	Percentage
Reinsurance clerk	1	12.50
Sales consultant	2	25
Claims specialist	1	12.50
Assistant manager	1	12.50
System analyst	1	12.50
Motor liability	1	12.50
Admin clerk	1	12.50
Total	8	100

As indicated in table 8.88 and figure 8.78, the sample consisted of one (12.50%) reinsurance clerk, two (25%) sales consultants, one (12.50%) claims specialist, one (12.50%) assistant manager, one (12.50%) system analyst, one (12.50%) motor liability employee and one (12.50%) admin clerk. Hence the different job descriptions were fairly evenly distributed in this group.

Figure 8.78: The soccer team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 9)

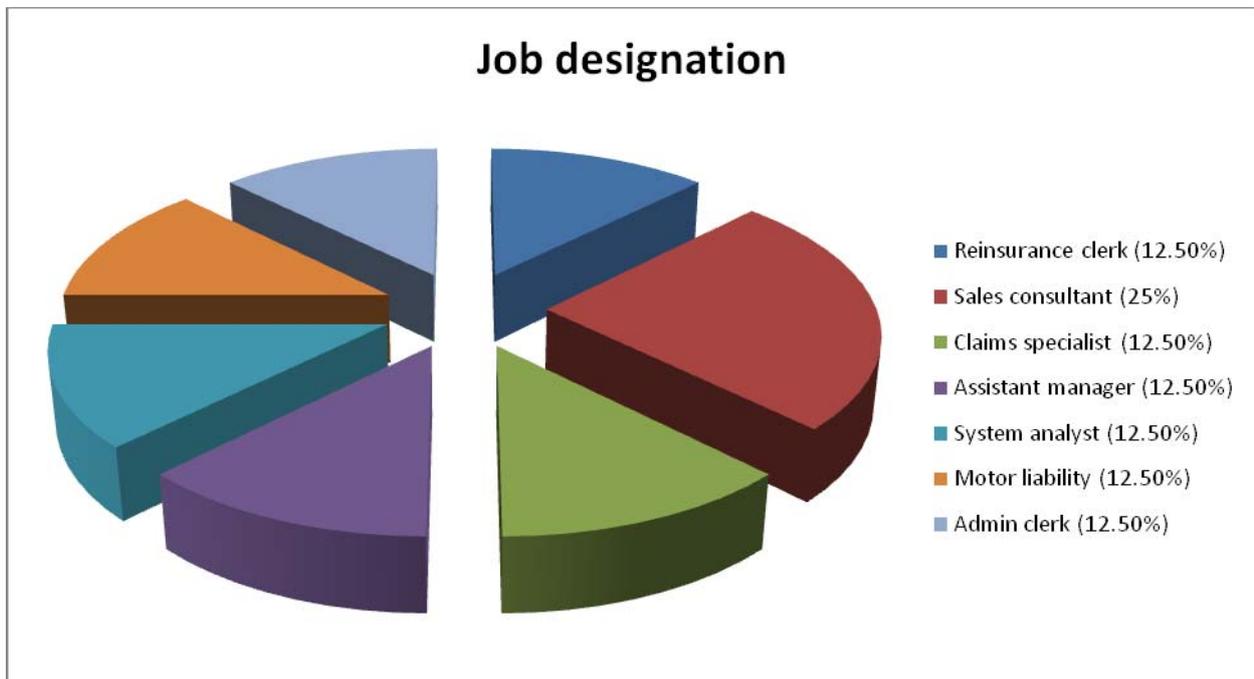


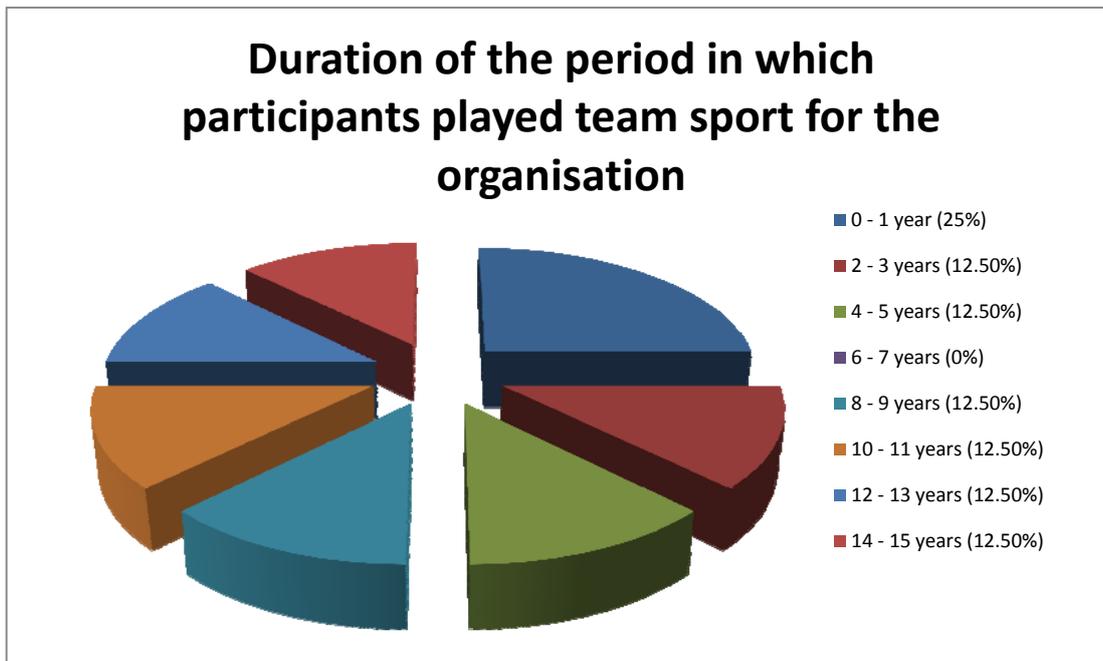
Table 8.89: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the ninth soccer team focus group sample

Duration of the period in which the participants played soccer for the organisation	Frequency		Percentage	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
0–1 year	2	25		
2–3 years	1	12.50		
4–5 years	1	12.50		
6–7 years	0	0		
8–9 years	1	12.50		
10–11 years	1	12.50		
12–13 years	1	12.50		
14–15 years	1	12.50		
Total	8	100		

According to table 8.89 and figure 8.79, the sample consisted of two (25%) participants who had participated in team sport for the organisation for zero to one year; one (12.50%) who had participated for two to three years; one (12.50%) who had participated for four to five years; one (12.50%) who had participated for eight to nine years; one (12.50%) who had participated for 10 to 11 years; one (12.50%) who had participated for 12 to 13 years; and one (12.50%) who had participated for 14 to 15 years. Hence the participants in the soccer team focus group (focus

group 9) were fairly evenly represented with regard to the time they had devoted to team sport for the organisation.

Figure 8.79: The soccer team sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 9)



8.3 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the characteristics of the nine focus groups with the participants and the total sample group of the sport coordinators were discussed.

One of the criteria in this study was that the groups that were part of the focus group should be diverse because this study focused on organisational team sport interventions to surely promote diversity management in an organisation. One may therefore conclude that the different focus groups were diverse with regard to race, age, gender, language, religion, marital status, job designation and number of years the participants had participated in organisation team sport. The sport coordinators were also diverse with regard to race, age, gender, language, religion, marital status and the number of years they had spent being a sport coordinator in the organisation.

Chapter 9 focuses on the interpretation, reporting and integration of the research results.

CHAPTER 9

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objectives of this research were to identify the indicators of an organisational team sport intervention that contribute to the management of a diverse workforce. On the basis of this, an organisational team sport intervention model to assist with diversity management in the organisation was developed.

A further objective of the research was to design a process model on how to implement an organisational team sport intervention in an organisation. From the positive and negative experiences of the sport coordinators and employees on the implementation of an organisational team sport intervention, a process model emerged on how to implement an organisational team sport project in organisations for maximum diversity management effectiveness (chapter 1, section 1.4).

Four main themes and subthemes were identified using Tesch's (1990) method of content analysis and the Atlas.ti method. The Atlas.ti method was mainly used to confirm the data analysed by means of Tesch's model and more specifically to develop an organisational team sport model. Atlas.ti is renowned for its utility value in the development of models (Appalsamy 2004; Lewis, 2004). From the main and subthemes that were identified, the answers to the research questions and the data content were obtained to achieve the objective of the research, namely to develop an organisational team sport model for diversity management.

The data and findings of this study were obtained by applying the methods and research process discussed in chapter 7. The findings are based on the data obtained from focus group interviews with sport participants from nine sports teams and nine individual interviews with the sport coordinators.

The results will be presented and discussed in this chapter in the same sequence as the research questions and research steps set out in sections 1.5 and 7.2.

After applying the methods discussed in chapter 7, the following themes emerged from the data (the themes as well as the subthemes emanating from this research study are also presented comprehensively as annexure D):

- Theme 1: perceptions of diversity management – answer to research question (table 9.1), steps 1 and 2
- Theme 2: advantages and constraints of diversity management in an organisation – answer to research question (tables 9.6 and 9.7), steps 1 and 2
- Theme 3: diversity management experiences (content and process) relating to participating in organisational team sport with diverse colleagues – answer to research question (table 9.9), step 3
- Theme 4: organisation's contribution (process) to organisational team sport – answer to research question (table 9.13), step 4

9.2 RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 1): IS THERE A RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT ACTIVITIES AND OUTCOMES AND THE MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSITY ACTIVITIES AND OUTCOMES IN ORGANISATIONS? IF SO, WHAT IS THIS RELATIONSHIP?

The research is based on the rationale that an organisation team sport activity can be substituted as a diversity management intervention if correctly applied. This rationale was tested and confirmed by Chandler (2006) and the results of a MCom study by Joubert (2010).

The high degree of overlapping found in this research between the participants' perceptions of diversity management and their perceptions of the outcomes of participating in organisational team sport (comparison of results: themes 2 and 3) further confirms the high-level similarities between the outcomes of managing diversity and the outcomes of an organisational team sport intervention. This study thus confirms the assumption that an organisational team sport intervention resembles a diversity management intervention.

9.3 RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 2): IS THERE SUFFICIENT AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE PARTICIPANTS ON THE MEANING AND OUTCOMES OF DIVERSITY AND DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE ORGANISATION?

According to step 1 of Carlile and Christensen's (2004) process of theory building, which was applied in this research, sufficient consensus among participants regarding the basic concepts of the theory is required, for instance, regarding the definition and related concepts of diversity and diversity management, to be able to proceed with theory building. In this instance, the theory building relates to developing an organisational team sport model for managing diversity in the organisation.

9.3.1 Theme 1: participants' perceptions of diversity management

The answers to the following questions and probing questions gave rise to theme 1: perceptions of diversity management:

- What is your definition of or explanation for the word "diversity management"?
- Why do organisations implement diversity management?
- Give me some examples of diversity regarding religion and language.
- What is the diversity unique to your team?

This theme unfolded in the following subthemes:

- Subtheme 1.1: a definition of diversity management
- Subtheme 1.2: the dimensions of diversity

9.3.1.1 *Subtheme 1.1: definition of diversity management*

The main question and answers relating to the definition of diversity management are indicated in table 9.1.

Table 9.1: Definition of diversity management

Main question: What is your definition of / or explanation for the word “diversity management”?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for definition of diversity management
<p>Participant 1: It is basically when you manage people with things that are different.</p> <p>Participant 2: It is to manage diverse people in an organisation.</p> <p>Participant 6: Diversity management is managing cultural, religious, race, gender etc, and educate people about our differences in order for us to work better together.</p> <p>Participant 8: All people are different or diverse and diversity management means to manage the differences between people.</p> <p>Participant 20: It is how we manage all the differences in people so that they can work as a team together and to overcome conflict between them.</p> <p>Participant 30: It is how we manage all the differences in people.</p> <p>Participant 32: Diversity management is to manage the differences in an organisation.</p> <p>Participant 40: It is to put diverse people together and manage them.</p> <p>Participant 46: Diversity management is basically managing the different perceptions of people because perceptions are basically what everybody has.</p> <p>Participant 54: It is to manage the differences between people.</p> <p>Participant 62: It is to manage different diversity.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 2: Diversity management is in my opinion when you manage every type of race, age, culture, background.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Diversity management is to understand and manage diversity with respect to culture, language, religion, sex, etc, in your personal and working environment.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: It's the management of people from different</p>	<p>Manage different people</p>

<p>cultures, race and age groups.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: People are diverse and diversity management means to manage these differences between employees.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: Diversity management is to manage and guide a group of individuals from different backgrounds, cultures, religions and races.</p>	
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From table 9.1 it is evident that 16 participants concurred that diversity management is about managing different people (people who are diverse).

Probing/follow-up question and answers

The probing question and answers relating to the reasons why organisations implement diversity management are indicated in table 9.2.

Table 9.2: Reasons why organisations implement diversity management

Probing question: Why do organisations implement diversity management?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for why organisations implement diversity management
<p>Participant 5: To create a supportive climate for diverse employees.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: We ensure that the employees can all coexist in harmony.</p>	Supportive/ harmonious climate
<p>Participant 6: To enable employees to learn the other cultures, how they work.</p> <p>Participant 2: To avoid making others mad, because you don't understand them.</p> <p>Participant 9: ... it is to learn more about the differences of other people and help them to understand each other.</p> <p>Participant 32: To help people to learn about the different cultures.</p> <p>Participant 40: It is to know different people.</p> <p>Participant 57: It is to create awareness about the different cultures.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: Diversity management is to understand that we</p>	Learn and understand differences

are in a diverse nation where we have different cultures, religion and beliefs and I think that it is the understanding that goes into work on a daily basis.	
<p>Participant 1: It is to manage people who are different to work together towards a common view.</p> <p>Participant 4: It is to put a lot of Smarties into one packet and work together. That is the simple way of saying things.</p> <p>Participant 11: People understand one another and it is easier for them to work together as a team.</p> <p>Participant 23: Diversity management means to put all the different flavours together and help them to work together and understand one another.</p> <p>Participant 24: That is when different people come together as a group – they learn how to accept each other.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... so that they can work as a team together</p> <p>Participant 34: People will be able to work together because they respect each other.</p> <p>Participant 40: ... and help them to work together as a team.</p> <p>Participant 42: Changing the way that you think; changing your strategies to enable diverse people to work together.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: ... work together for one mutual goal.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Diversity management for me is to establish an environment inclusive of everyone's differences and similarities, to work towards the same goal.</p>	Manage diverse employees to work together
<p>Participant 30: It will help them to overcome the conflict in the group because they understand each other.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: It is to minimise conflict between diverse people.</p>	Minimise conflict
<p>Participant 5: To create a supportive climate for diverse employees.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: We ensure that the employees can all coexist in harmony.</p>	Supportive/ harmonious climate

As indicated in table 9.2, the participants maintained that the reasons why organisations implement diversity management are to

- create a supportive climate (2 participants)

- learn about and understand differences (7 participants)
- enable employees to work together (11 participants)
- minimise conflict (2 participants)

From the information in tables 9.1 and 9.2, it is clear that the participants reached sufficient consensus on the definition of diversity management and the reasons why organisations implement diversity management (Carlile & Christensen 2004). The interviews could therefore continue.

Discussion

Before the researcher could continue with theory building (Carlile & Christensen 2004), it was necessary to ask these questions to establish whether the sport participants and sport coordinators were aware of and concurred with the meaning of diversity management and the reasons why organisations implement diversity management. If the participants had not been able to provide and share the definition of diversity management, the aim of this study (i.e. to identify the indicators of an organisational team sport intervention that contribute to the effective management of a diverse workforce and to develop a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport intervention), would not have been possible (Carlile & Christensen 2004). The findings presented in table 9.2 confirm that the sport participants and sport coordinators understood and concurred sufficiently with the basic definition of diversity management and the reasons why organisations implement it.

The participants perceived diversity management as managing different people and putting different people together. The results support McNerny (1994), Hoover's (2002) and Swanepoel *et al.*'s (2009) (section 1.9) view that diversity management entails managing diversity among different employees.

The results also support the views of the following authors regarding the reasons why organisations implement diversity management in the workplace:

- Blanchard (2009), Kaplan-Williams (2009) and Molyneaux (2007) (section 3.5.1) contend that employees should be viewed as important human beings because they are the principal asset in an organisation, which is a vital requirement for effective diversity management in an organisation.

- Faull (2008) and Klarsfeld (2010) (section 3.5.8.1) contend that employees should understand and accept cultural differences in an organisation which is a key requirement for effective diversity management in an organisation, especially in South African organisations with their diverse workforces.
- According to McNerny (1994), Hoover (2002) and Swanepoel *et al.* (2009) (section 1.9), diversity management allows every employee to work to his or her potential.
- Hodson (1993) and Burt (2007) (section 3.5.4) argue that diversity in an organisation can result in conflict, and it is therefore imperative to change a diverse group into a cohesive group to ensure that diversity gives an organisation the competitive edge.

9.3.1.2 Subtheme 1.2: dimensions of diversity

The main question and answers relating to the dimensions of diversity are presented in table 9.3.

Table 9.3: Dimensions of diversity

Main question: Give me examples of “different things” among people who are diverse.	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for the dimensions of diversity
Participant 1: People from different backgrounds, different race, in our case, also people from different cultures. Participant 8: Like only in this group, we are different with regard to race, backgrounds, religion and gender. Participant 52: Different cultures, different races and different backgrounds. Participant 53: Diversity is different cultures that the country has so many of. Participant 63: It can be the difference in age, backgrounds and different kinds of cultures. Sport coordinator 5: It is the difference between people, for instance, race and religion. Sport coordinator 5: ... cultures, race and age groups.	Different backgrounds, races, cultures, religions, genders and ages

Probing/follow-up question and answers

The probing question and answers relating to the dimensions of diversity are indicated in tables 9.4 and 9.5.

Table 9.4: Example of dimensions of diversity

Probing question: Give me some examples of diversity.	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for examples of diversity
Participant 9: It could be Hindu, Christian, Moslem.	Different religions
Participant 23: English, Afrikaans, Sotho, Tswana, just to name a few.	Different languages

Table 9.5: Unique dimensions of diversity in the sport teams

Probing question: What is the diversity unique to your team?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for diversity unique to the sports team
Participant 23: It is age, race, different job levels. Participant 26: Even our education is different. We can all work for the same organisation but our education levels differ. Participant 27: We receive different salaries, therefore our income can also be an example of diversity. Participant 29: And some of us are married and others are single. I don't think there are divorced people among us (marital status). Participant 30: We have different races (Indians, coloureds), different languages and job levels. Participant 34: We are different with regard to race, age and religion.	Age, race, education, job levels, income, language, backgrounds, religion, marital status and culture

Participant 36: Some of us are married and we also have different cultures and backgrounds.	
Participant 51: We are all different races, religions, backgrounds, different levels in the organisation.	
Participant 53: Different ages.	
Participant 59: It is the different cultures, age, marital status, language and religion.	
Participant 60: And different levels in the organisation.	

The information in of tables 9.3, 9.4 and 9.5 indicates that there was a high level of agreement among the participants on their perception of the dimensions of diversity.

Discussion

Although the participants were not able to distinctly group the diversity into primary and secondary dimensions, they were aware of the different dimensions of diversity. The participants also reached sufficient consensus on the dimensions of diversity (Carlile & Christensen, 2004). The findings support the view of Grobler *et al.* (2006), Loden (1996) and Kreitner and Kinicki (1995) view (section 2.6) that diversity is divided into primary and secondary dimensions. Primary dimensions such as age, race and so forth, are dominant and unchangeable. Since secondary dimensions such as education are acquired and modified, their influence is often less constant than that of primary dimensions. Figure 2.1 is a graphical representation of the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.

The participants were able to give examples of diversity in race, religion and language. The findings support Ocholla's (2002) view (section 3.4) that the major population groups in South Africa are blacks, whites, coloureds and Indians, and there are 11 official languages, namely English, Afrikaans, isiZulu, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, Sesotho, Xitsonga, Setswana, Tshivenda, Sepedi and isiSwati. South Africa is also known for its diverse religions, which include Christianity, Islam and Hinduism.

9.3.2 Theme 2: advantages and constraints of diversity management

The answers to the following questions during the focus group interviews and individual interviews gave rise to the theme of the advantages and constraints of diversity management:

- What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?
- In your experience, what are the constraints (to the employee) in working in a diverse environment?
- What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the organisation?

This theme unfolded in the following subthemes:

- Subtheme 2.1: advantages and constraints of diversity management for employees
- Subtheme 2.2: advantages of diversity management for the organisation

9.3.2.1 *Subtheme 2.1: advantages and constraints of diversity management for employees*

The main question and answers relating to the advantages of diversity management for employees are indicated in table 9.6.

Table 9.6: Advantages of diversity management for employees

Main question: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for the advantages of diversity management for employees
<p>Participant 2: Even to add on to the cultures. There is stuff that you find out that you didn't even know exists like the headbands and all that type of stuff.</p> <p>Participant 3: It keeps you very open minded as a person because you learn a lot from different cultures.</p> <p>Participant 5: To make the person understand you better, and you can also understand the other person better, because if you don't know how to interact with the next person you would not know what to say.</p> <p>Participant 6: There is a lot to learn and it helps people to accept</p>	<p>Learn about one another</p>

other people for who they are.

Participant 9: You learn more about other cultural groups

Participant 19: People understand more about the different cultures.

Participant 21: I was raised in the old “apartheid era” and I only spent time with white kids at school. I never learned about the other cultures or races. But now that I am working in a diverse environment I have learned a lot about other races and cultures.

Participant 25: I have learned a lot about other people and I have met a lot of people.

Participant 28: Instead of doing what you are doing and knowing what you know, say for instance I go to my manager and she starts telling what her job entails, it makes you more at ease and you understand the people from different departments and levels.

Participant 41: If you understand the different diversities in your company it makes you more comfortable around the people in your company. You understand different cultures.

Participant 44: If you work in a diverse environment, it opens a lot more doors, because people are diverse (learn from one another).

Participant 45: People start to understand the different cultures.

Participant 51: I think that it makes the environment interesting. You learn from each other.

Participant 53: You get exposed to other cultures and you learn from their mistakes and also from their experiences, how they see things.

Participant 52: The different cultures have their own beliefs and understandings of certain areas or issues and the advantages thereof are that you learn more about their beliefs and you understand them better.

Participant 56: The qualities at work - for instance, you can have a female boss and I am a man, and it is not right in our culture that a female is a manager, but because of diversity management you learn to know each other better. You learn to understand the difference in gender.

Participant 57: And you not only learn about the difference in genders, but also different generations, cultures, backgrounds and religions.

<p>Sport coordinator 1: Employees learn different cultures and gaining different mileage from each other's different backgrounds. We can learn from each other when people come from different backgrounds.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: You can learn from each other and understand each other better.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Better understanding of your fellow employees' point of view when for instance certain comments are made, the way and reason he or she is doing or not doing certain things (cultures).</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: People learn to know other different people, even management and lower level employees get to know each other. The people can also learn new things from the people they meet.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: When you work with people from different backgrounds, ages and races, you learn so much more and it makes your work environment so much more dynamic.</p>	
<p>Participant 5: ... they start to know each other and there is better communication.</p> <p>Participant 3: The advantages for the employees are that it is easier for the employees to interact with the next person and to make the person feel at home. So if you understand the person better, there will be better communication and it helps you to know more diverse people.</p> <p>Participant 44: People come together and communicate much more easily.</p>	Improved communication
<p>Participant 1: You make good friends and you learn a lot more about one another.</p> <p>Participant 3: And when you know someone it is easier to be his/her friend.</p> <p>Participant 5: I would say the employees become friends.</p> <p>Participant 14: And different people who work together also become friends.</p> <p>Participant 20: You get exposed to many different types of people and cultures. When I started to work I had different friends and learnt about different cultures.</p> <p>Participant 24: The employees get opportunities to make new</p>	Become friends

<p>friends because everyone knows them.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... and you make friends.</p> <p>Participant 33: People are friends because they know their different cultures.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Advantages for employees will definitely be on social trip, where employees can make new and more friends within the company.</p>	
<p>Participant 8: When people understand each other, there is more respect and trust between them.</p> <p>Participant 27: ... and you trust the persons.</p>	Trust
<p>Participant 6: It ensures that everyone is treated with respect, regardless of their gender, race, religion and culture.</p> <p>Participant 21: Now that I am working in a diverse organisation I have learned more about the other races and I have more respect for them because I understand them better.</p>	Respect
<p>Participant 18: And the employees can work together in a team.</p> <p>Participant 35: People are able to work together as a team because there is less conflict when they understand the differences.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: Employees work as a team together and they understand each other.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: If we acknowledge our differences, this will enable us to work better together, and by knowing this, enrich our lives.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: When the organisation is aware of differences, one can go forward and work towards one goal.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: If we acknowledge our differences, this will enable us to work better together, and by knowing this, enrich our lives.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: It makes it comfortable to interact with your fellow colleagues, breaks boundaries and brings about teamwork.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: It brings people together and employees learn to adapt, understand and work with a large range of diverse employees.</p>	Work together as a team
<p>Sport coordinator 2: It gives everybody an equal chance. It is not something like, "because I am black I don't get the same opportunities as someone else". It is also sometimes to put up your</p>	Equal opportunities

<p>hand and say “I am here, I want to participate”.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: The advantages for employees – they know that equal opportunities are being offered to everybody.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Mainly it is to give everybody an equal opportunity and not to look at one person only.</p>	
<p>Participant 20: Because people understand more about the different cultures, there are less stereotyping between them.</p> <p>Participant 26: I think it is just basically that you understand people and it helps you to not judge other different people. And then your whole viewpoint will change because you know that person (<i>discrimination</i>).</p> <p>Participant 38: I will, for instance, not discriminate against another person if I know where he comes from and if I understand his culture.</p> <p>Participant 42: People stop being narrow minded. They are open to different perceptions and think out of the box. They stop with their stereotyping.</p> <p>Participant 60: And people have preconceived ideas about other cultures and diversity management can help to overcome those preconceived ideas (<i>stereotyping</i>).</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: There is no discrimination.</p>	<p>Less stereotyping/ discrimination</p>
<p>Participant 25: You also learn different skills, because different people have different views.</p> <p>Participant 29: It can also enhance someone’s career because you meet several managers and you interact with higher levels.</p> <p>Participant 35: Employees learn from other employees if they are able to work together.</p> <p>Participant 54: And different cultures have different skills and therefore you learn more from the different cultures</p> <p>Participant 58: In a diverse organisation there are different cultures with different views and you learn from these people.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: You have better perceptions of the diverse group, acknowledging the differences to enable one to work better together and enrich your life. Learn from each other and understand each other better.</p>	<p>Learn new skills from one another (development)</p>

It is evident from table 9.6, that there was satisfactory consensus between the participants and that they perceived the advantages of diversity management for the employee to be that

- they learn more about one another (21 participants)
- there is improved communication among one another (3 participants)
- they become friends (9 participants)
- there is trust between the employees (2 participants)
- there is mutual respect between the employees (2 participants)
- they are able to work together as a team (7 participants)
- the employees all have equal opportunities in the organisation (3 participants)
- there is less stereotyping and discrimination among the employees (6 participants)
- they are able to learn new skills from other diverse employees (6 participants)

Probing/follow-up question and answers

The probing question and answers relating to the constraints of diversity management for employees are indicated in table 9.7.

Table 9.7: Constraints of diversity for the employees in the organisation

Probing question: In your experience, what are the constraints (for the employee) in working in a diverse environment?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for constraints of diversity management for employees
<p>Participant 4: Stereotyping and prejudice among diverse employees. Different people get funny comments from other people. For instance, many people think that all the Indian people have rims on their cars, but it is not necessarily so.</p> <p>Participant 18: Diversity can lead to discrimination in an organisation. Some people think more of themselves because they are, for instance, a certain culture and they discriminate against other cultures. These people will also stereotype against other</p>	<p>Stereotyping/ prejudice and discrimination</p>

<p>people because they are more important than the rest.</p> <p>Participant 51: Preconceived ideas and you believe that about other cultures and have constructive mindsets (<i>discrimination</i>).</p>	
<p>Participant 1: To go back to conflict – if I don't understand a different culture, I would not know if I am offending them. So that would be definitely a problem, because I made a comment or a joke innocently and the other person would not understand it. It makes the company unproductive and inefficient because the people can't work together and they would be fighting all the time.</p> <p>Participant 2: Even the other day we had the problem, because some people would say something and the Christians would see that as cursing. Like one of my colleagues is saying that word the whole time and I told him, listen I don't like that, you must stop using that word and he didn't even know that we take offence.</p> <p>Participant 30: Definitely conflict, because different people have different views and personalities and they can clash. I think that is the number 1 constraint.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Definitely conflict, whereby different cultures or races clash with each other because of different beliefs and opinions.</p>	<p>Conflict and misunderstandings</p>
<p>Participant 6: I agree, because people don't always understand or know the other cultures or religions, they might unintentionally be disrespectful towards other cultures and religions.</p> <p>Participant 63: Respect could be a problem because some people are stereotyping against other cultures and that is where they lose their respect for that culture (disrespect).</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: Respect plays a vital role in a diverse workforce because people have misconceptions about other cultures because their approaches are totally different (disrespect).</p>	<p>Respect</p>
<p>Participant 2: Another disadvantage is that we need to work in teams and it can cause communication gaps between us and it can make an organisation less productive.</p> <p>Participant 4: Language could also be a problem – different cultures have different languages and we do not always understand each other.</p> <p>Participant 13: It is also harder to express yourself because of your</p>	<p>Language and communication gaps</p>

<p>culture or your religion because your view might offend another culture and that can be a big constraint.</p> <p>Participant 19: Different languages can be an obstacle because it can create misunderstandings.</p> <p>Participant 25: Language... "ek kan net 'n bietjie Afrikaans praat", so the problem is when meetings are in Afrikaans and they are speaking way too fast, so I can't follow what is being said and I miss the goal and the purpose of the meeting. I don't know what is expected from me.</p> <p>Participant 32: One of the big things that we need to deal with is language and that will create a problem with communication.</p> <p>Participant 33: Definitely language. The way another cultures say something can be interpreted differently and that creates conflict and misunderstandings.</p> <p>Participant 35: My biggest constraint would be language. It is difficult for me to express myself in English.</p> <p>Participant 46: Language constraints – we may not all understand or express ourselves accurately which may lead to misperceptions.</p> <p>Participant 53: Communication barriers. I can say something and for me it may mean something but for another one it may mean something else.</p> <p>Participant 56: And language can be a problem. I am Tswana and it is difficult for me to express myself in English.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: And the hierarchical levels – management don't always mingle with the workers below them.</p> <p>Participant 48: In terms of hierarchy, you lose focus and there are different techniques from certain situations from different cultures.</p>	Hierarchical levels
<p>Participant 7: I think of just looking at each culture on their own; if you look at the Indian community, there are different religions to it and if you look at the Afrikaans community, there are different churches that they follow. Their belief systems would be different as well as the black culture. So within ourselves, we still have other diversity.</p> <p>Participant 44: People struggle to work with certain culture groups.</p> <p>Participant 45: If I interacted with black people, and I did not know that black people talk hard because it is a sign of not hiding</p>	Cultural differences

<p>something, I would not understand that if I did not understand that culture and I would have taken it as disrespect.</p> <p>Participant 57: Culture differences can be a constraint.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: There will be frustrations in the process purely because of lack of understanding of each other's culture – that can delay progress, that can delay results, that can delay profitability, but once it is in good place, the results will come.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: If one does not understand the different cultures and social groups, it is difficult to work together in harmony.</p>	
<p>Participant 17: Religion is another problem in a diverse environment. I can never understand why certain people believe certain things.</p> <p>Participant 25: I am Catholic and I work with people who are born again. So in most cases we have arguments how we pray and how we deal with situations and they feel that their church is better than others and that is where the conflict comes from most of the time.</p>	Religion
<p>Participant 23: I work in a male dominated department and it is quite challenging for me because you have to do stuff and say stuff that does not come naturally for you.</p> <p>Participant 27: Gender is also a problem. Men think differently than women.</p> <p>Participant 56: Gender can also be a problem. I don't want to be controlled by a woman.</p>	Gender
<p>Participant 25: ... so in most cases we have arguments how we pray and how we deal with situations and they feel that their church is better than others and that is where the conflict comes from most of the time.</p> <p>Participant 29: Different cultures have different beliefs and gestures and that could create problems in an organisation if you don't understand the different cultures.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: ... not having food in your canteen to cater for certain beliefs etc.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Definitely conflict, whereby different cultures or races clash with each other because of different beliefs and opinions.</p>	Beliefs
<p>Participant 37: Because I am almost the eldest, I think age can also</p>	Age

<p>be a constraint because I am not so fast as the other young players and when I have an injury it will not heal as quickly as other youngsters' injuries.</p> <p>Participant 40: Definitely age. I am much older than some of my colleagues and the generation gaps create difficulties. We don't understand each other.</p> <p>Participant 61: Age differences can also be a problem. Young people will come for instance with their jokes at work and old people don't understand it.</p>	
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It is evident from table 9.7 that the participants perceived the constraints (to the employee) in working in a diverse environment to be

- stereotyping/prejudice and discrimination (3 participants)
- conflict and misunderstandings (4 participants)
- respect (3 participants)
- language and communication gaps (11 participants)
- hierarchical levels (2 participants)
- cultural differences (6 participants)
- religion (2 participants)
- gender (3 participants)
- beliefs (4 participants)
- age (3 participants)

Discussion

It is clear from the information gathered from the participants that they reached a satisfactory degree of consensus on the advantages of diversity management for an employee (Carlile & Christensen 2004).

The results support the views of the following authors on the advantages of diversity management for an employee:

- Faull (2008) and Klarsfeld (2010) (section 3.5.8.1) maintain that employees should understand one another in an organisation, which is a vital requirement for effective

diversity management in an organisation, especially in South African organisations with their diverse workforces.

- Faull (2008), Nieman and Bennett (2002) and Thiederman (1996) (section 3.5.7) contend that open communication is an important requirement during diversity management in order to avoid miscommunication, misinterpretations and misunderstandings.
- Joubert and De Beer (2011) (section 6.3.10) argue that when employees are friends, they will be more productive in their work, because they are able to share common goals, socialise and communicate.
- Meyer *et al.* (2010), Nieman and Bennett (2002) and Wilson (2009) (section 3.5.5) view trust as a key requirement for effective diversity management in an organisation, and Doty (2009), Mor Barak (2011) and Ratliff and Brackner (1998) (section 3.5.6) argue that respect is a vital requirement for effective diversity management in an organisation, because if the employees do not respect one another, the organisation is unable to achieve its goals.
- Gibson *et al.* (2009), Klein *et al.* (2009) and Spiegel and Torres (1994) (section 5.5) argue that it is essential for members to work together in a team because participation in a team improves the leadership skills and morale of members in a team, processes, procedures and productivity in an organisation.
- According to Golembiewski (1995) (section 3.2.1.4), equal opportunity is one of five approaches to diversity management.
- Caudron (1994) and Sackmann and Friesl (2007) (section 3.5.5) regard stereotyping as a form of mistrust and a diverse team should be guard against stereotyping because the whole team could deteriorate into a group of finger-pointing, typecasting, name-calling and mistrusting employees.
- Scarnati (2001) and Shah (2010) (section 5.7.1) argues that when team members learn from one another, it creates a win-win situation which can only be accomplished through working on the talents and strengths of each employee as well as supporting one another to reduce weaknesses.

The participants also reached a satisfactory level of consensus on the advantages and constraints that a diverse organisation offers employees (Carlile & Christensen 2004). The advantages of diversity are that the employees learn from one another, they make friends, they learn about other cultures, the organisation becomes more productive, trust and respect are fostered, preconceived barriers are broken down and cohesion improves. However, if diversity is not properly managed, constraints may develop such as stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination, conflict and misunderstandings, disrespect and language and communication

gaps. The difference in hierarchical levels, cultural differences, religion, gender, beliefs and age groups can create relationship problems if diversity is not properly managed.

The participants' perceptions confirm Inancevich and Gilbert's (2000) (section 3.2.2.3) input-output diversity management model which describes how diversity management initiatives have a positive influence on personal outcomes.

9.3.2.2 Subtheme 2.2: advantages of diversity management for the organisation

The main question and answers relating to the advantages of diversity management for the organisation are indicated in table 9.8.

Table 9.8: Advantages of diversity management for the organisation

Main question: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the organisation?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for diversity management advantages for the organisation
<p>Participant 3: And if a client and I don't get along, there is the next person that can help him who understands him. We've got all the different types of managers, blacks, whites, Indians, people from overseas, so there is always someone that can help the different clients (makes the company more productive).</p> <p>Participant 5: ... to participate and contribute, with a high degree of efficiency and innovation in order to achieve corporate objectives, improve organisational effectiveness and increase corporate profit.</p> <p>Participant 3: And also will it help for the productivity in a business – I am for instance in sales. I need to know exactly what the client's need is. If I don't understand the client, I will not be able to give him what he needs.</p> <p>Participant 4: With diversity management the company will be able to run more smoothly with less obstacles and nitty gritty things like</p>	<p>Productivity</p>

ok, let's sort out that one's interest and sort out that group because now, if there is less of that conflict then business can go on as usual, because at the end of the day that is what we are trying to do – have the business grow.

Participant 15: It makes the organisation more productive because people have different views and are able to work together.

Participant 23: Guys that are technical thinkers, they come up with ideas and guys who implement it. So they are all necessary in the workplace. If they are able to work together as a team, they will help the company to make a success (*productive*).

Participant 25: When I look at diversity – different race, different age levels and so on, I don't want to use the word "manage", but if you manage it correctly, then it definitely can increase productivity, because you have different people doing things differently and that gives the company the ability to do more in less time.

Participant 38: People have different views and that will increase the productivity in your organisation because when people only have one view and it does not work, then the organisation will not achieve its goals.

Participant 44: If everyone can work together, the company will prosper and you will have more sales, because your managers are working together and your people are working together.

Participant 51: With everyone's differences and how they grew up, if they put it together you can make a strong organisation which could help the organisation in productivity.

Participant 54: There are different strengths from different cultures. Every race and every culture have their strengths that will help the company to grow.

Sport coordinator 1: When the diverse people can work together, it will result in profitability and the organisation can make progress. Employees draw from each other's strengths.

Sport coordinator 1: There are certain employees that are keen on working very hard, other employees are keen to time management, there are other employees that are strong in respect – these are all ingredients for a very good relationship and a profitable organisation.

Sport coordinator 2: The advantages are that you the employees all

<p>have different type of skills and different type of mentalities and it is basically working with different personalities and it is to use each person's personalities to the advantage of the organisation. Different employees have different views and if they work together the company will benefit from it.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 2: We are working in a very stressful environment and people need to work together. One person cannot do all the work himself. The company will not be profitable if only one person does all the work and only one person's views are accepted.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: By using the diversity optimal, you can increase productivity and morale within the company.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: Increased productivity and the company goals can be achieved with more ease.</p>	
<p>Participant 16: By using the diversity and if you manage it correctly you can set your goals according for that for the organisation. It is easier then to manage to achieve those goals.</p> <p>Participant 38: ... because when people only have one view and it does not work, then the organisation will not achieve its goals.</p> <p>Participant 42: To work together to achieve the same goal. To work together in a more welcoming and happy environment.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: When the people are aware of differences, one can go forward and work towards one goal.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: Common goals can be achieved more quickly because employees network with each other and that open doors to other opportunities ...</p>	Achieve goals
<p>Participant 1: So the employees are able to work together and it makes our clients feel at home because I am not going to be funny with the client because he is of a different race – I am going to let him feel at home.</p> <p>Participant 16: There is unity within a company, because I know that person and it is easy for me to go to someone else, it doesn't matter what race or age or religion he or she is, for some help.</p> <p>Participant 20: It creates unity in your organisation and it creates a good image of your company for the public because you can work together.</p> <p>Participant 18: People want to work in an organisation that is able to</p>	Work together/unity

<p>manage its diversity because it is more fun and everybody can work together.</p> <p>Participant 23: We all come together and are one family so we are able to work together.</p> <p>Participant 26: There is unity because the people work together.</p> <p>Participant 27: There is unity within a company, because I know that person and it is easy for me to go to someone else ...</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: It is good when a company can grow because people are able to work together.</p> <p>Participant 40: It would help the employees in an organisation to work together in a group ...</p> <p>Participant 42: There is a better understanding - you know where to go and who to talk to. It is more relaxed because people are able to work together.</p> <p>Participant 61: And the employees are able to work together which will benefit the organisation.</p>	
<p>Participant 20: ... increased creativity because employees have different views and different ways of working.</p> <p>Participant 29: If the employees collaborate it creates new ideas that are good for the company. That will make the company more profitable.</p> <p>Participant 41: People have a diverse way of thinking and people have different ideas.</p> <p>Participant 52: Definitely also creativity and innovation. If a person comes from let's say Kwazulu-Natal, geographically speaking - there will be different opinions and different ways of doing certain things. So innovation is also an advantage for diverse organisations.</p> <p>Participant 53: With the diverse cultures you bring in different backgrounds and different points of views and versions.</p> <p>Participant 56: The advantages can also be to understand many cultures and social groups and that might create development among employees. There might be a 20-year old person who comes up with new ideas and there are people who are old and they have their own style. It is necessary for an organisation to change.</p> <p>Participant 59: And it will produce better ideas in a company</p>	Creativity/new ideas

<p>because different cultures and diverse people have different ideas.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: The different cultures and social groups will be able to understand one another and that will produce better ideas.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: The range of ideas is different for each culture or background, and getting these different ideas could be so much more creative and beneficial for the business.</p>	
<p>Participant 19: And because we can work together it will create better client service.</p> <p>Participant 40: It would help the employees in an organisation to work together in a group and that will help the organisation to offer better client services.</p> <p>Participant 53: It also helps with the external communication with the clients and the members. For example, if an Indian phones in there will be an Indian guy in the company to assist him because they all speak the same language. That means better client services.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: For the organisation, it will be more productivity ... whereby we will now know people in other departments therefore we know whom to liaise with in regard to solving queries or assisting clients.</p>	<p>Improved client service</p>
<p>Participant 51: I think that it makes the environment interesting. You learn from each other.</p> <p>Participant 57: It makes the organisation interesting because everyone is different.</p>	<p>Interesting environment</p>

The information in table 9.8 reflects the participants' perceptions of the advantages of diversity management to the organisation as follows:

- The organisation is more productive/better client service (15 participants).
- The organisation is able to achieve its goals (5 participants).
- There is cohesion among the employees and they are able to work together (10 participants).
- The organisation has different employees with different ideas and creativity (9 participants).
- The organisation's service to clients will improve (4 participants).
- Diversity makes the organisation an interesting environment (2 participants).

Discussion

It is clear from the information gathered from the participants that they reached a satisfactory level of consensus on the advantages of diversity management for the organisation (Carlile & Christensen 2004).

The results support the views of the following authors on the advantages of diversity management for the organisation:

- Grobler *et al.* (2002) and Swanepoel *et al.* (2008) (section 1.9) argue that all employees, with their differences and similarities, contribute to an organisation's competitive and strategic advantage.
- Biech (2008) and Solomon (1998) (section 3.5.3) contend that a team must share the same goals on which they agree and can discuss before a diverse team can be successful.
- According to Bassett-Jones (2005) and De Beer and De Beer (2009) (section 3.5.4), all employees need to be committed to cooperating with other employees who are different to enable the management of diversity to succeed.
- Scarnati (2001) (section 5.7.5) maintains that the employees' strengths and skills vary immensely, but combined they create new ideas and knowledge.
- Swanepoel *et al.* (2008) and Thomas and Robertshaw (1999) (section 2.5) concur that the South African workforce is often characterised by low levels of customer service because of diversity.
- Scarnati (2001) (section 5.7.5) argues that the diverse team members can combine their interests and ideas to create an interesting project.

The findings and discussion thus far confirm that sufficient numbers of the participants agreed on the meaning of the basic concepts relating to diversity and diversity management. The requirements of the first step suggested by Carlile and Christensen (2004) for model (theory) development were therefore met.

9.4 RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2 RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 3): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (OUTCOMES) THAT MANIFEST FROM PARTICIPANTS IN THE ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION (TESCH'S METHOD)?

Theme 3 reveals the participants' experiences relating to diversity management when participating in organisational team sport activities. In this section, the participants' experiences of their participation in organisational team sport interventions will be identified and discussed. The following main theme and subthemes emerged to answer the research question in step 3 of the research process:

9.4.1 Theme 3: diversity management experiences relating to participation in organisational team sport with diverse colleagues

The answers to the following questions gave rise to this theme:

- How did the experience of being part of a diverse sports team help you to overcome the diversity constraints in your workplace?
- Does your team receive support from other sports teams and colleagues in your organisation?
- In your opinion, do you think that when an organisation implements organisational team sport that it will make the organisation unproductive (loss of work time)?
- What are the advantages when conversations about sport are held with customers/clients/colleagues?

This theme unfolded in the following subthemes:

- Subtheme 3.1: benefits in the workplace while participating in organisational team sport.
- Subtheme 3.2: conversations about sport in an organisation.

9.4.1.1 Subtheme 3.1: advantages of organisational team sport interventions for the participants

The main question and answers on the benefits of participating in organisational team sport with colleagues are highlighted in table 9.9.

Table: 9.9: Benefits in the workplace when participating in organisational team sport

Main question: How did the experience of being part of a diverse sports team help you to overcome the diversity constraints in your workplace?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for benefits in the workplace when participating in organisational team sport
<p>Participant 6: I am more accommodative and understanding and accepting of other people's differences.</p> <p>Participant 1: It basically helps people to understand each other and to be more tolerant. In our company we have currently action cricket, action netball, action soccer, action rugby, touch rugby and volleyball and in that we realise that if there is a manager who does not necessarily work with you every day and who doesn't make the effort to get to know you because you are from a different race and you are different from him obviously; but because you see him on the sport ground and you see him somewhere else in the workplace, the guys do get together because there is something we have in common and something we both enjoy and we make the effort to say "hey, how do you do".</p> <p>Participant 7: Although we are the same, you pick up different words and slang that you don't know in your own culture. Like we picked up "gees" and I didn't know what they were talking about. I learned different words in a different language and you are able to use it in a conversation and you are able to understand it. You feel comfortable within the environment. In every language we all have our own language and slang and now integrated in a team we all pick up on different things. Like when I play with white people I would say we "pick up gees", but if I play with black people I would say "Heita my friend". You learn about each other's culture and how they speak.</p> <p>Participant 29: One of the advantages is that we learn more about</p>	<p>Learn about one another</p>

<p>the other culture's background.</p> <p>Participant 38: I have learned a lot about other cultures because I play in a diverse team.</p> <p>Participant 42: You may drop your boundaries because you learn more about the person's culture.</p> <p>Participant 43: I am more open-minded to anything – even if it is just a remark or the way people talk. I now know, for instance, the white culture.</p> <p>Participant 50: The team environment is different from a work environment. In a work environment is very easy to sample or classify people by race. With the race, there are a lot of different kinds of characters. There are for instance 4 different white guys in this team and they behave a certain way. They like their Castle and like their rugby. Team sport helps, because these guys learned to know what kind of person I am.</p> <p>Participant 54: I mean, the laughs and smiles make up for the games that we lost. In having fun you learn much about different individuals and cultures. There is a harmony in the team.</p> <p>Participant 61: We have learned about the different cultures – how the other cultures behave.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: Interaction helps to understand the next person better as well as their culture.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: It overcomes communication, respect issues, tolerance. It just makes you more at ease with other people and with yourself.</p> <p>Participant 3: And of course, now that we pass each other at work, we will not only pass but we will actually have something to say.</p> <p>Participant 24: When you know the person at sport you are more relaxed and you always have something to say for that person. It helps with communication.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... And in that way, when you come to work it is easier to speak with them on another level – not so formal and you are more confident with them.</p> <p>Participant 32: Because we play in the same team, we don't just walk past them, which is what we would have done if we had not played in the same team. We actually stop and start a conversation.</p>	<p>Improved communication</p>

<p>Just to hear how it goes. We have always something to talk about, even if it was last night's game.</p> <p>Participant 34: You don't just pass someone in the organisation but you stop and start a conversation with that person.</p> <p>Participant 39: It is easier for me to communicate and interact with people that I play sport with.</p> <p>Participant 39: ... as soon as you know someone on a deeper level, it is much easier to communicate with them.</p> <p>Participant 45: You communicate more with your sport friends, there is more interaction. It is easier for me to go to one of my team mates and ask him a favour.</p> <p>Participant 45: If I did not play cricket with participant 42, I would have never talked or interacted with him.</p> <p>Participant 50: The members in the team make time for each other to help you, because you know that if he was in the same situation you will do the same for him.</p> <p>Participant 58: Our communication has improved ...</p> <p>Participant 61: And it is much easier for me to have a conversation with one of my team mates.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 2: ... and everybody interacts with each other. They communicate more easily.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Sport is a universal language.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: ... it is easier for you to start a conversation with a person that plays sport as well.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: And to add to what participant 3 has said, it makes us more efficient. Instead of letting the customer wait while I look on the system for someone, now at least I know to whom I can refer the customer to because I know the people from different department because we are playing in the same team.</p> <p>Participant 3: Well, it is basically breaching the gap, because if you are not certain about a certain type of person you would not know how to approach that type of person but by doing sports and actually having been with them on a different level, it help you to know that person socially or even on a business level.</p> <p>Participant 9: You have fun and you start to know the people around you. You are not just working in your own department. You also</p>	<p>Know one another</p>

<p>learn the other people from the other departments.</p> <p>Participant 9: ... And it was through the interdepartmental challenge that I got to know my colleagues better.</p> <p>Participant 22: We learn more about the other person's preferences.</p> <p>Participant 29: You get that some people are temperamental, like myself and the people know how to handle me in the sports team as well as in the organisation.</p> <p>Participant 30: With myself, especially when I started with the sports team, it is fun and when you have fun there are always positive things to look at and you get to know the people at a lighter note.</p> <p>Participant 39: When you only work with your colleagues you know them on a formal level, but when you play sport together you get to know them on a deeper level.</p> <p>Participant 44: People feel more comfortable when they come together in a social environment – they open up much more easily and that is how they start to understand each other.</p> <p>Participant 45: You learn about different cultures, because, for instance, participant 46 and I would not understand each other's cultures and races if it was not for sport.</p> <p>Participant 47: You know secrets about the other people.</p> <p>Participant 52: You also get to learn and know each and everybody's weaknesses as well as their strengths. You can identify each weakness and you can help them in that matter how to improve it.</p> <p>Participant 51: We come from a bad losing streak and now all of a sudden it is changing and I think it is from coming from the whole process of learning from each other and knowing each other. We start to understand the team members' preferences, who wants to do field work and who wants to bowl (<i>know one another</i>).</p> <p>Participant 58: Our communication has improved because we get to know each other and we both play the same sport that we understand.</p> <p>Participant 59: When you only work together, it is basically a work relationship, you work together and then you go home; but with sport, it is more like a family relationship and you keep that relationship forever. You learn a lot from your team members. You</p>	
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<p>learn how to speak with someone, what or what not to do to another person.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: Different cultures get together and diverse individuals get to spend time with each other and learn more about each other through the sport activities, they bond and they know each other better with regard to team dynamics.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: If you understand the diverse team, there should not be negative experiences, and if there are, you know where the person comes from and take it from there.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: When you participate in sport, the people get to know you.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: In short, you overcome the hierarchical barriers and become friends.</p> <p>Participant 3: Maybe at work we see each other but we never say "hi" to each other, but now that we are playing in the same team now we are friends.</p> <p>Participant 7: We also became friends. We socialise before and after the game with the team players, so it is not just the game and go home, we spend time together.</p> <p>Participant 8: We receive more funny e-mails from our team members because we are now friends.</p> <p>Participant 18: You are more intimate with your team players, because you become friends. When I receive a call and I need to transfer it to someone else then you might think "oh, I know someone from that department".</p> <p>Participant 20: You can actually make jokes with people that you play sport with, whereas if you make the same joke to someone else he will feel offended, because you make a joke and he knows where it is coming from, because we are friends.</p> <p>Participant 33: We became friends.</p> <p>Participant 48: We learned how to react differently both on the field itself and in the work environment. It has given us an opportunity to become friends on the field because at work there is a lot of stress and it is not that easy to become friends in such a stressful environment.</p> <p>Participant 54: ... and I view all these guys as "my brothers"</p>	Friends

<p>because we are playing together (<i>friends</i>).</p> <p>Participant 55: On a personal level you feel more comfortable to approach your team mates. Like the other day, my tyre was flat and at the end of the day I asked one of my team mates to come and help me. Sport creates brotherhood (<i>friends</i>).</p> <p>Participant 59: We became friends in this team – it doesn't matter whether we are Indian or black.</p> <p>Participant 63: If a new member comes and plays for our team, he will become one of our "brothers" after he is part of the team for a while because we became friends and are able to communicate.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 2: Certain groups flock together – the Indians will pull together with other Indians, whites will pull together with other whites, but with sport different people come together and are friends.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: I believe that it can bring people together and unite them. For instance, the 1995 rugby world cup, you can make a lot of friends through sport should you mutually like it.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: I've made a lot of new friends.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: Trust and respect are part of our values in the company. And a sports team will improve the trust and respect between people in our company because I know that if one of the girls tell me that they can't make it tonight, I trust them that something has happened and they don't just make excuses. I also send an e-mail out once and I trust that the players will all be here on time for the game. You also trust your team players that they will catch the ball if you throw it to them.</p> <p>Participant 4: We trust the goal shooter when she has the ball. We know that she will score a goal. Sometimes when she has the ball, we just turn around and walk back to our position. We know it is a done deal.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: ... If you walk into another department it feels as if the people trust you.</p>	Trust
<p>Participant 1: Trust and respect are part of our values in the company. And a sports team will improve the trust and respect ...</p> <p>Participant 1: I have to say, people tend to respect us more. The people who thought "ag, she is just a dumb blond or ag, she is so useless". They see you at a match and already the vibe is so nice</p>	Respect

<p>and everybody is cheering and that person, even if he/she doesn't like you at work they also start cheering for you.</p> <p>Participant 17: If something goes wrong you accept it and just go on because you respect them.</p> <p>Participant 30: For me, when I see you can play, I just have more respect for you.</p> <p>Participant 50: Over time, during the season that we are playing, you build relationship to a point that what I expect from the guys is what I will also be willing to give to the team. If they give a 100% I must also give a 100%. That means that we have mutual respect for each other.</p> <p>Participant 61: There is interaction between the team players and that creates more respect for the team because we know each other.</p> <p>Participant 62: We have the same goal and that is to win. But if the opposite team scores a goal, we will not blame the goal keeper because he has done his best because each and every one of us has our own role to play and there is respect between the players because we know that all the members are doing their best.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: The managers will also think that this person is a good sportsman and they will have respect for him and think that he is also a good worker.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Another thing is that when you are committed in your sport, the team players will have more respect for you. When a sport player for instance gets provincial colours, the other team players will have so much more respect for that player, even if that player is not a manager – even the managers will have more respect for you.</p>	
<p>Participant 2: You know how to work as a team with someone else.</p> <p>Participant 3: The fact that we are all equal in the sports team, we bring it back to the workplace. We are all here for the same goal which is to win. We work together towards the same goal. We are all the same if we are on the court.</p> <p>Participant 6: In sport we are all the same, have the same goal and we work towards a common goal regardless of our differences.</p> <p>Participant 5: I like playing in a diverse team because it shows that</p>	<p>Work together as a team/same goal</p>

<p>all colours can work together and make it fun too.</p> <p>Participant 17: The teamwork is so much better because you understand one another better ...</p> <p>Participant 23: In sport we are focused on a goal and we become one in a team.</p> <p>Participant 26: The team works towards one goal and therefore you know how to work together towards a goal in the organisation.</p> <p>Participant 30: And everyone works together because there is a common goal and that is to win.</p> <p>Participant 33: In sport the goal is to win and everyone is aware of the goal and works hard to get that goal. In the workplace there are also goals that you need to get and through sport you know how to work together to reach the goal.</p> <p>Participant 44: It brings everyone together and you might dislike them in the workplace, but on the field you need that person to help the team achieve the goal.</p> <p>Participant 45: Sport brings people together because we have a common goal – our common goal is to play cricket together. The commonness between guys brings people together.</p> <p>Participant 51: A positive thing is that when you make a mistake in the team you want to improve. We work towards a common goal and when a problem happens we know how to deal with it. We all make mistakes and we learn from each other.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: When diversity is utilised correctly, it could assist in achieving the goal of the team and it will give an advantage over other teams who do not have the same diversity.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: And when people are committed in their work and they learned to work towards a goal, they will also be able to work in a group at the organisation and reach the organisational goals.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Everybody can bring individual input to the team which can help make the team better and achieve its goals.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: When everybody in the team is committed and able to work together, they will be able to win a game which is the main goal in sport.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: The positive experience is that all the team</p>	
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<p>players are working towards the same goal - therefore they will be able to work together towards the same goal in an organisation.</p>	
<p>Participant 3: I am working in the sales department and participant 2 is working in the client care department and if I want to speak to someone or need some advice from the client care department I will definitely first call participant 1 because I know her.</p> <p>Participant 9: You actually make friends with people in other departments because you know them and that creates better client service.</p> <p>Participant 8: I work in a call centre so it is easier for me to make my queries because I can go to the person that I play sport with, with more confidence to help me with something. My client service is better.</p> <p>Participant 24: We know the people from other departments and because of that it will speed up the process because we know who to contact if we need help.</p> <p>Participant 40: It is much easier for me to phone someone that is playing in the same sports team to go to that person and ask for help.</p> <p>Participant 46: It is basically establishing a network base in the company – if you want something to be done quickly you can go to your sport buddy in any department.</p> <p>Participant 52: I know, if I have a problem with finance, I know I can phone participant 49 and 50 because I know that they are in that division and we have built that relationship on the field as well as in the work environment.</p>	<p>Improved client service</p>
<p>Participant 4: I am very competitive and playing in a diverse group it brings out the drive, because everyone is competitive.</p> <p>Participant 9: What I have experienced previously in this organisation, there is a lot of competitiveness - male/female, white/black.</p>	<p>Competitiveness</p>
<p>Participant 1: When you are on the court, whether I am playing next to the manager or the CEO of the company, when he is there, he is on the same level than me and it makes him approachable to me and makes me approachable to him – we will have a basis point of communication the next time we see each other because he will</p>	<p>Overcome hierarchical barriers</p>

<p>remember me as the one that played with him on the court...</p> <p>Participant 1: ... In short, you overcome the hierarchical barriers and become friends.</p> <p>Participant 2: To add on to what participant 1 has said – sometimes you are so scared of the managers and when you come together in the game you start to realise that "ok, he is not that bad"; he is also just a person.</p> <p>Participant 3: When it comes to sport, colour or race does not matter. We are all the same and we are all equal. That court does not see colour, culture, nothing.</p> <p>Participant 20: It also helps us to have a relationship with different levels for instance management because in sport we all play in the same team. It doesn't matter if you are a junior or a senior.</p> <p>Participant 50: In the company he may be higher on the hierarchy than you but if you have something like sport you will see that they are also human, the same as you.</p> <p>Participant 49: At the end of the day, work is work. And if a team leader is above you, he is above you, but if you play together in a team you will not go to work the next day and think "I'm scared of him and I'm not going to ask him because he is higher than me". You will feel comfortable to approach him.</p> <p>Participant 60: The other day I had to phone Finance, a certain guy whose name sounded very familiar. When I phoned him we chatted like old friends, only because I met him through sport. He is a CEO. The relationship is much more relaxed.</p>	
<p>Participant 33: In sport you learn to be committed – be on time for the games and bring your best - and a company also requires you to be committed.</p> <p>Participant 55: And there is commitment from the guys in the team. If we have to play a certain time all the guys are on time.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: There is more commitment between people who participate together in sport ... When participants are committed in their sport activities, they will also be committed in the workplace.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: It takes time to settle down and completely know or understand each other's strengths and weaknesses, but once that is through, the members will be committed to their team.</p>	Commitment

<p>Participant 9: I was playing and working and playing and working, it was so nice. It was like a stress reliever.</p> <p>Participant 35: Sport is a stress reliever because it is not only work work, but it also includes “play”. People are therefore more motivated towards their working environment.</p>	Stress reliever
<p>Participant 1: When I walk on the court I don’t think “oh my gosh, I am the only darky in the team”. I walk on the court with self-confidence. “Bring it on!!”</p> <p>Participant 9: You also grow within yourself. Before I started being part of a sports team I was always shy and did not speak. I only played. And as I go on, I get more self-confidence.</p>	Self-confidence

It is clear from the information gathered from the participants that the main of diversity management derived from participation in organisational team sport interventions with colleagues are the following:

- They have learnt about one another (cultures) (11 participants).
- Interpersonal communication has improved (13 participants).
- They now know more about one another (17 participants).
- They have become friends (15 participants).
- There is more trust between the participants (3 participants).
- There is more respect between the participants (8 participants).
- Organisational team sport interventions help them to work together as a team and towards the same goal (16 participants).
- Organisational team sport interventions improve client service in the organisation (7 participants).
- It has taught them to be more competitive (2 participants).
- They have overcome hierarchical barriers (7 participants).
- There is stronger commitment among the participants (4 participants).
- Sport is a stress reliever (2 participants).
- The participants are more self-confident (2 participants).

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

The probing question and answers relating to the benefits of participating in organisational team sport interventions with colleagues are indicated in tables 9.10 and 9.11.

Table 9.10: Support from other teams and colleagues

Probing question: Does your team get support from other sports teams and colleagues in your organisation?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for experiences relating to support
<p>Participant 6: Yes, we do get support from other sports teams.</p> <p>Participant 1: We support them and they support us. Like tonight. There were many supporters from our company who came and watched our game. They could have been sitting at home, doing their own things, but they chose to be here tonight.</p> <p>Participant 4: And it is a nice feeling when you hear how your colleagues support you during a game. It gives you more energy and you perform better.</p>	<p>Support from colleagues and other team participants</p>

The participants felt that it is vital for them to receive support from other teams and their colleagues, which confirms Chandler's (2006) view (section 6.3.9) that nonparticipating employees should be part of organisational team sport by being spectators. The goodwill and energy generated by joint support and interaction will ensure that employees feel more valued and are more willing to be engaged in work tasks after a sport event.

Table 9.11: Sport events make an organisation more productive

Probing question: In your opinion, do you think that, when an organisation implements organisational team sport, that it will make the organisation unproductive (loss of work time)?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for experiences relating to productivity
<p>Participant 40: When people are doing sport they are healthier and that will help the organisation with less absenteeism.</p>	<p>Healthier employees</p>

<p>Participant 44: I am now 39 and that game once a week benefits my health and an organisation needs healthy employees.</p> <p>Participant 54: If you keep your staff healthy, they will always be at work – I believe in that.</p> <p>Participant 59: One of the advantages is that exercise makes people healthy.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Sport makes the employees happy and healthy and their work will therefore be a success.</p>	
<p>Participant 9: When I started here, we were busy with our interdepartmental challenge and it was awesome. I was new, but I immediately felt good towards the organisation.</p> <p>Participant 35: Sport is a stress reliever because it is not only work work work, but it also includes "play". People are therefore more motivated towards their working environment.</p> <p>Participant 63: Staff need to be entertained. They must not only work, but they also need to play, which will change their attitude towards the organisation.</p> <p>Participant 56: In order for your staff to enjoy the company, the company must entertain them (<i>positive attitude</i>).</p>	Positive attitude/ motivated employees
<p>Participant 48: Relationships are also built and therefore you want to be at work because you are friends with the players.</p> <p>Participant 62: And people become friends, so they want to work for the company. They have friends at work and don't mind coming to work.</p>	Good relationships
<p>Participant 57: The company will be promoted - it is like corporate social investment for a company.</p> <p>Participant 56: And also if you are playing sport in the company, other companies play against you and that will help with the marketing of the company (<i>social investment</i>).</p>	Corporate social investment

It is evident from the information in table 9.11 that the organisation benefits in the following ways when employees participate in organisational team sport:

- The employees are healthier (5 participants).
- The employees have a more positive attitude and are more motivated (4 participants).
- The employees have positive interrelationships (2 participants).

- It is a corporate social investment for the organisation (2 participants).

Discussion

The results support the views of the following authors on the advantages of organisational team sport for the organisation:

- According to Maruhn (2004) (section 6.2), not only does sport have several health advantages, it also has significant social advantages. He adds that sport can filter violent and aggressive behaviours because participants are able to “let off steam”.
- The findings confirm Chandler’s (2006) (section 6.3.8) contentions that sport has benefits for the workplace as the participants are more motivated because the team players appreciate them.
- Chandler (2006) (section 6.3.8) and Joubert and De Beer (section 6.3.7) maintain that positive relationships are developed between colleagues because employees became friends through organisational team sport participation. He also indicates that employees should be encouraged to participate in organisational team sport interventions because it will help them to meet colleagues with whom they do not have contact, share interests and the workers will return to their workplace feeling more recharged and productive.
- The findings also confirm the Plunkett Researcher Ltd team’s (section 6.2) view that organisations can use sport as a growing marketplace for investments.

There was noteworthy overlapping between the outcomes of the participants’ perceptions of diversity management and organisational team sport. The following benefits of organisational team sport interventions (theme 3) correspond with the benefits of diversity management interventions identified earlier (theme 2):

- learning about one another
- improved communication
- becoming friends
- building trust
- promoting respect
- working together as a team

These findings underscore a previous observation that the constructs of diversity management and organisational team sport overlap extensively.

9.4.1.2 Subtheme 3.2: conversations about sport in an organisation

The main question and answers relating to conversations about sport in an organisation are set out in table 9.12.

Table 9.12: Conversations about sport

Main question: What are the advantages when conversations about sport are held with customers/clients/colleagues?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for advantages of conversations about sport
<p>Participant 1: Sport is a common ground.</p> <p>Participant 6: Sport becomes a common ground where we can come together since all parties love the same thing.</p> <p>Participant 34: Sport is a common ground – if you don't know what to say to clients or colleagues, then you talk about sport.</p> <p>Participant 38: Even after the soccer world cup – I am not that into soccer, but when the games started it was all that I and my colleagues could talk about because it was a common ground.</p> <p>Participant 45: Sport is a perfect common ground.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: Sport forms a common ground to converse, it also brings people together.</p>	Common ground
<p>Participant 1: Sport is an icebreaker. If I am with a client on the phone and we don't really know what to say to each other, I can always say: "Oh sir, did you watch the soccer this weekend?". It doesn't matter what colour I am, if we talk about sport the client is already smiling – he will be on my side.</p> <p>Participant 19: I was never a sporty person but know now I use sport as an icebreaker and you can learn about other sports like rugby, soccer or action cricket.</p> <p>Participant 35: Sport is an icebreaker.</p> <p>Participant 36: ... I think we talk about sport the whole time just to</p>	Icebreaker

<p>break the ice.</p> <p>Participant 44: Sport is an icebreaker if you both like the same sport.</p> <p>Participant 45: If you want to talk about cricket with someone and that person does not want to talk about cricket, then you have already broken the ice, because you have learned something about that guy.</p> <p>Participant 48: Sport is the biggest icebreaker.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: Conversations about sport are an icebreaker.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Sport is seen as an icebreaker.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Conversations about sport are an icebreaker.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: It is an icebreaker.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: Sport conversations are seen as icebreakers. In a diverse country like South Africa it allows us all to assume that every individual knows about sport and/or is at least very interested in sport.</p>	
<p>Participant 7: It is good, like when I am speaking to black clients' I'm talking about the Pirates and when I am talking to white clients I'll talk about rugby. It definitely will start a conversation and it will put the client at ease. With Indian clients I mostly talk about cricket.</p> <p>Participant 16: One advantage is that it is a nice connection point with the client because you start talking about sport and then you can take it from there.</p> <p>Participant 33: Conversations about sport are good because people can connect with something they both like.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 2: I am a very sporty person. I watch everything from rugby to squash to swimming and tennis. With me, when I talk about sport with our clients it can be one of our selling tools. Instead of going "uhm uhm uhm" I can now say "did you watch the game we played" (even though it is not my team I will say that we have played) and in many ways it help me to understand and to connect with the clients.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: An advantage is that it is a good connection point to start a conversation.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: Colleagues like to talk about sport and it can be used as a connection point.</p>	<p>Connection point</p>

<p>Participant 48: ... I think as a country itself, we come from 2010 and we love our soccer, cricket and rugby and that in itself unifies everybody.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: Sport is a unifying activity and every person knows the "language" of sport.</p>	<p>Unifying activity</p>
<p>Participant 42: It builds up a relationship with clients and colleagues.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: If you know what people are interested in, you can start a conversation and build relationships.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: If you know what people are interested in, you can start a conversation and build relationships.</p>	<p>Builds relationships</p>

Conversations about sport have the following vital advantages for diversity management:

- Common ground is established (6 participants).
- It is an ice breaker (12 participants).
- A connection point is made (6 participants).
- A unifying activity is initiated (2 participants).
- It builds relationships between employees (3 participants).

Discussion

The above-mentioned inferences confirm the findings in Chandler's study (section 6.3.6) that sport conversations allow the respondents to communicate more effectively with their colleagues and it also breaks down the hierarchical barriers with managers and CEOs.

According to Bernstein *et al.* (2008) and Delcampo *et al.* (2011) (section 3.5.8.2), a diverse and multigenerational workplace can be effectively managed when employees are willing to find common ground. Joubert and De Beer (2011) and Johnson (2008) (section 6.2) presented similar findings by adding that sport is a perfect icebreaker in many organisations, especially when diverse teams have no other common ground.

9.5 RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 4): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (OUTCOMES) REGARDING THE CONTENT OF THE TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL IDENTIFIED USING THE ATLAS.TI?

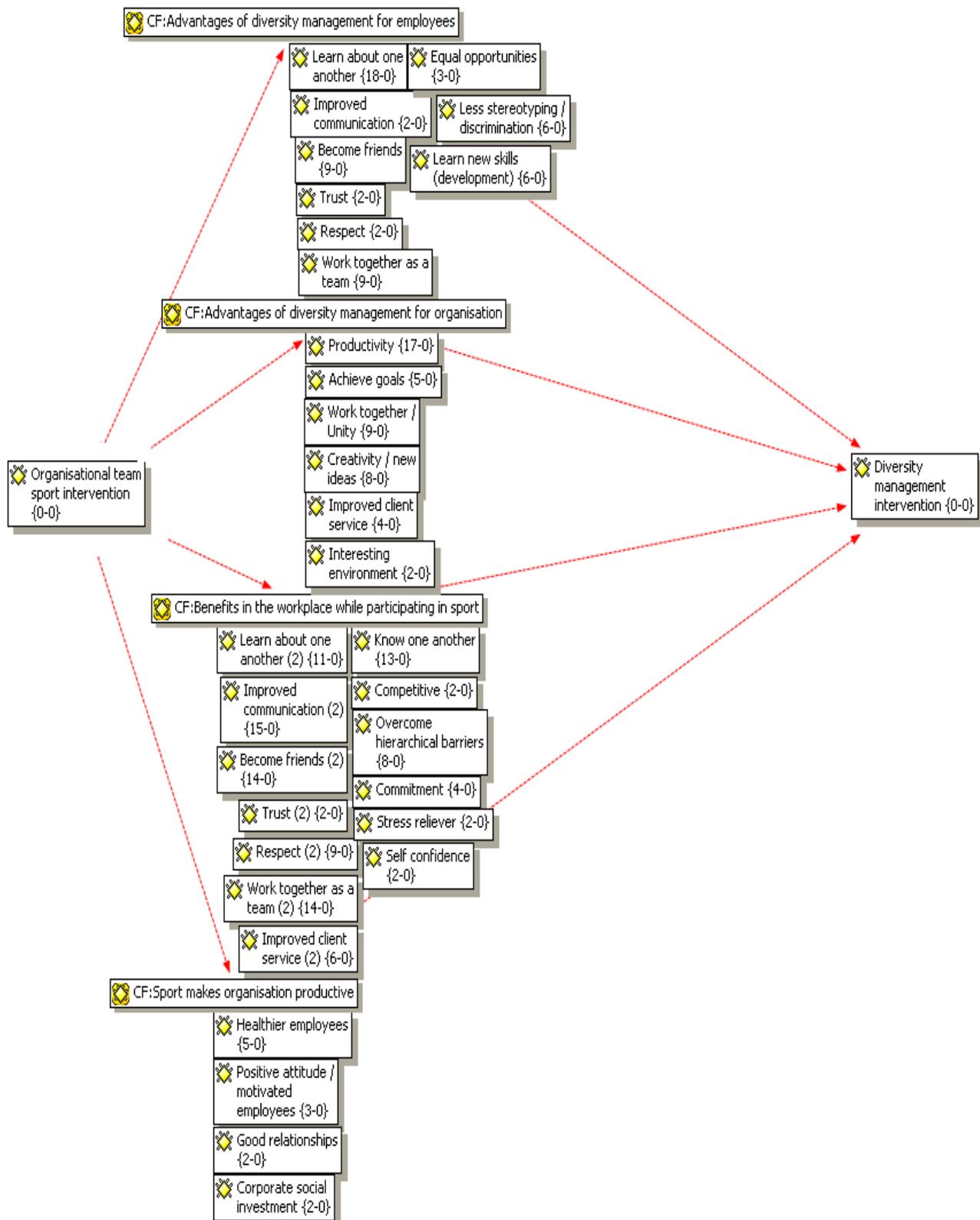
Objective 1 (chapter 1) was to identify a diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions.

The Atlas.ti method for content analysis was conducted on the diversity management experiences (outcomes) of employees participating in organisational team sport. On the basis of these experiences, a generic diversity management model was constructed for organisational team sport. This diversity management model, which is intrinsic in organisational team sport interventions, is depicted in figure 9.1.

Various "families" or main groups of diversity management experiences and outcomes were created on Atlas.ti, namely (1) the advantages of diversity management for employees; (2) the advantages of diversity management for organisations; (3) the benefits in the workplace while participating in sport; and (4) sport makes an organisation productive.

The families consist of numerous codes or subcategories. The codes under the main category of experience (family), namely the advantages of diversity management for the employees, are as follows: learn about one another, improved communication, become friends, trust, respect and work together as a team. The codes under the main category of experience (family), namely the advantages of diversity management for organisations, are as follows: productivity, achieve goals, work together/unity, creativity/new ideas, improved client services and interesting environment. The codes under the main category of experience (family), namely the benefits in the workplace of participating in sport are as follows: learning about one another, improved communication, becoming friends, trust, respect, working together as a team, improved client service, knowing one another, competitiveness, overcoming hierarchical barriers, commitment and stress reliever. From the main category of experience (family), sport makes organisations productive, the following codes were identified: healthier employees, positive attitude/ motivated employees, good relationships and corporate social investment.

Figure 9.1: Diversity management model intrinsic in organisational team sport interventions (identified utilising Atlas.ti)*



- * The arrows in figure 9.1 are connected from organisational team sport interventions to the main categories of experiences (families), and from the main categories of experiences (families) to the diversity management intervention.

9.6 RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 5): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES AND STEPS) IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL (TESCH'S METHOD)?

In this section, the steps in an implementation model of a diversity management organisational team sport intervention will be presented and discussed. The following main theme and subthemes emerged during step 4 of the research process:

9.6.1 Theme 4: organisation's contribution to organisational team sport

The answers to the following questions gave rise to this theme:

- Based on your experience, what are the actions that organisations can take to encourage team sport in an organisation?
- And if there are colleagues who cannot play sport?
- In your view, what is the process that an organisation can follow to implement organisational team sport?
- What are the functions of top management during the implementation of sport activities?
- What can management do to make employees more aware of the new sport interventions?
- What can management do to determine the employees' interest in certain sport activities?
- What are the responsibilities of a sport coordinator?
- If a company is not aware of any facilities where its sport activities can take place, what actions can it take?

This theme unfolded in the following subthemes

- Subtheme 4.1: actions by of the organisation to encourage sport activities
- Subtheme 4.2: actions by the organisation to implement sport activities in the organisation

9.6.1.1 *Subtheme 4.1: actions by the organisation to encourage sport activities*

In chapter 1 (section 1.4), the following objective was formulated for the study: To compile a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation. The experiences that the sport coordinators and employees had with regard to the implementation process of organisational sport activities will be explored. On the basis of the positive and negative experiences, a process model was identified on how to implement an organisational team sport project in organisations for maximum diversity management effectiveness.

The main question and answers relating to the actions by the organisation to encourage sport activities are highlighted in table 9.13.

Table 9.13: Actions by the organisation to encourage sport activities

Main question: Based on your experience, what actions can organisations take to encourage team sport in an organisation?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for process steps to encourage sport in an organisation
<p>Participant 6: Get everyone to participate by encouraging them and showing them how much fun sport can all be.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: Make sport compulsory because sport promotes good clean living.</p>	Involvement of all employees
<p>Participant 1: I have to say, our company does want to push the sport thing. They try to give us every opportunity they can. They pay for all our sports. They go out of their way to make sure that we have everything ... They make sure that we have the funds and the shirts.</p> <p>Participant 4: And, for instance, our soccer team and even our cricket team have a full kit. They have balls and gear everything which is paid for by the company.</p> <p>Participant 20: ... and the organisation also needs to fund the activities.</p>	Funding

<p>Participant 30: ... and finance the sport events.</p> <p>Participant 29: When there are sport events, they pay for our gear. They sponsor us to play sport.</p> <p>Participant 34: We need money.</p> <p>Participant 44: The company must pay for the gear and games.</p> <p>Participant 57: Our organisation sponsors us with t-shirts and they pay for our games.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: When an organisation markets the sport activities, they also need to put their money where their mouth is – fund the activities.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 2: Organisations need to fund the sport players ... Like our soccer team, every time we organise a game, we need to give them money, booking a game etc. And sometimes, it becomes very difficult for the participants to get the funds. Even for washing the kit.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 3: Organisations can back the sport from a financial point of view to enable the team sport to grow.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: The company must support them financially and with gear.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Organisations can "back up" the sport from a financial point of view to enable the team sport to grow.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: Companies need to provide their people with the opportunities to do it. The company advertises sport vigorously.</p> <p>Participant 8: The organisation can help by organising sport activities. People don't necessarily come together and start to participate in sport all by themselves. The organisation must start with the initiation to make employees aware of the sport activities.</p> <p>Participant 17: I just think communication is also important, because when we don't know that our organisation is playing action cricket at that time, there will be no supporters.</p> <p>Participant 20: Marketing is very important in the organisation because then people will be interested.</p> <p>Participant 25: They can advertise it or maybe use it during induction. I started here last year July and during my induction the sport club was mentioned, so I made an effort to be part of the sport club.</p>	<p>Advertise/make employees aware</p>

<p>Participant 30: they must advertise ... the sport events.</p> <p>Participant 31: The company needs to advertise sport because in the soccer there are not enough women who want to play it, only men. The company advertised soccer three years ago.</p> <p>Participant 30: I remember, before I started participating in the sport event, our company had a presentation about the sport club. They had like a video of the sport club and that is how I got to know about it and got involved.</p> <p>Participant 35: ... they can even get a big tv screen at the entrance so that other employees get interested.</p> <p>Participant 39: You can advertise the sport activities on intcom.</p> <p>Participant 40: Not all the employees read their intcom; maybe the organisation can advertise the sport events through internal mail once a month to every employee.</p> <p>Participant 36: The organisation can also support the team events by publishing every accomplishment in the organisation's newsletter.</p> <p>Participant 46: The company must make the employees more aware of the sport events. If you consider most of the events, there are no build-up actions by the organisation. We receive a day before the sport event an e-mail, "come and support your team". But there are many employees here who have a family environment and they can't just arrange everything on number 99.</p> <p>Participant 58: And the other employees must be aware of the different sports teams.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: The organisation needs to market the sport activities in the organisation.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: It is important that the organisation advertise the events.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: The organisation must communicate and advertise the sporting events.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: The organisation can put an article of a sport participant's accomplishment in the organisation's newsletter.</p>	
<p>Participant 1: And we also need support. What our company does, they give us a credit card with a limit to places like this that has a bar and say the first 20 supporters that arrive get a free drink. People do arrive – it is a form of a bribery, but when they are there, they are</p>	<p>Support</p>

<p>there with us and have a good time. Even though they are not part of the team they are aware of it and they support us.</p> <p>Participant 19: The organisation also needs supporters. The company gives the people free drinks to encourage them to support us.</p> <p>Participant 54: ... and more involvement in terms of fan base.</p> <p>Participant 54: ... The colleagues must show their presence at the games.</p> <p>Participant 49: They can incentivise - for instance, they can give every supporter a free beer. There must be some bribery, then the colleagues will come and support us. On a cold day, like night no one will come to watch the game, but if there were incentives paid, there would have been supporters.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Management must show their support by participation or just plain give their support. This will also encourage everybody to start engaging in the team sport either by participation or just support.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: The organisation can support the employees by giving rewards to excellent sport achievements.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 9: The organisation needs to support sport participation.</p>	
<p>Participant 54: I mean, if Jake White is not at a rugby game, what does it say about the team? So the team will not have a lot of respect for Jake White. It would inspire the team more if they see a physical presence in terms of management.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: People from the organisation always draw from what the management believes to be the cornerstone of the business and sport is as such to be the concept of team dynamics. It has to start with management who shows their appreciation towards sport as an activity that brings people together and sport is an activity that is important to the business and from there people want to be a part of that.</p>	Top management involvement
<p>Participant 7: They can provide better facilities. If you want to encourage it, you will need to have good facilities. We have a netball field and a volleyball court.</p> <p>Participant 23: If we had more facilities here at our company we</p>	Sport facilities

<p>would have had more support in a sense that if matches were advertised for instance, soccer would be played on that day - you just go to the facilities that are easily accessible for all employees.</p> <p>Participant 29: We need better facilities. We would like something at our company where we can play and practise sport. When other companies come to play us, we want to bring them to our domain and we want to be proud of our workplace.</p> <p>Participant 33: Facilities are also important because at the moment we need to go to Faerie Glen to play our volleyball games. We have facilities at our company grounds, but they need attention.</p> <p>Participant 42: It is also important for organisations to make the facilities on their grounds. There are some organisations that have a cricket court, netball court, volleyball court on their grounds. It is more convenient to participate in sport. There will also be more supporters.</p> <p>Participant 44: If you play during working hours and you have the facilities on your office grounds, it is easier to interact with other companies. The company can host an event with other companies.</p>	
<p>Participant 16: What we experienced last year with the inter-departmental challenge is that we had limited time to play in the sport and some of our departments are in a sense forced to work until 17h00 but we have to start earlier with a game to enable us to finish in time, so the organisation needs to be more lenient over that period to accommodate that, because it is a team built for the company.</p> <p>Participant 38: It is important that the head of a department give the employees time off to play their games. Even if top management approved the time off, the head of the department needs to be aware of it and also approve it.</p> <p>Participant 45: I think time off during the week. Have a sports day on a Friday or once every quarter on a Friday. Obviously not everyone will be playing sport but they can be supporters. Not everybody can leave the office at once, but the employees can rotate.</p> <p>Participant 44: And time, because some people want to spend time over a weekend with their families and that is why they don't join the</p>	<p>Accommodative/ time off</p>

<p>sports teams. They could maybe dedicate one day a month.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Where company events are being held, to be more lenient to enable everybody to be able to participant for instance time off.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Give time off for participants to play games.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: They should allow staff members time off to participate in sport activities.</p>	
<p>Participant 18: No, that is a free choice. If you are going to be forced to do something, the people will not be interested in sport.</p> <p>Participant 39: ... but these sport activities must not be forced on employees because then they will lose interest.</p>	<p>Not force sport activities on employees</p>
<p>Participant 30: They must create a sport club.</p> <p>Participant 24: To gain an income for the sport club, a club house is a good idea.</p> <p>Participant 40: You can also build a club house at the sport facilities, but the employees need to be responsible.</p>	<p>Sport club and club house</p>

From the information in table 9.13, it is clear that the participants felt that the company actively supports organisational team sport interventions through

- the involvement of all employees (2 participants)
- funding/subsidies (13 participants)
- advertising the sport activities and making employees aware of the sport activities (17 participants)
- supporting nonparticipants (7 participants)
- top management involvement (2 participants)
- sport facilities for the participants (6 participants)
- accommodating the participants by giving them more time off (7 participants)
- not forcing sport activities on employees (2 participants)
- supplying a sport club and club house (3 participants)

Probing/follow-up question and answers

The probing question and answers relating to the actions by the organisation regarding nonparticipants are indicated in table 9.14.

Table 9.14: Employees not playing sport

Probing question: And if there are colleagues who cannot play sport?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified regarding nonparticipants
<p>Participant 6: He can always be a supporter or for instance during a game, he can be the one to bring water or oranges during half time.</p> <p>Participant 18: They can come and give their support.</p> <p>Participant 23: They can support the teams.</p> <p>Participant 34: Yes, other employees who do not play sport can become spectators.</p> <p>Participant 36: And they can support the other teams.</p> <p>Participant 39: They can be the supporters. The participants play harder when there are supporters shouting for you next to the court.</p> <p>Participant 47: I think you need to try to give them something that will motivate them to join the sports teams; for instance, they can come and give support. They can also join in the fun.</p> <p>Participant 50: It is not that they have to come and play, they only need to come and support.</p> <p>Participant 57: They can become spectators.</p>	<p>Supporter/ spectators</p>

The participants felt that nonparticipating employees can also be involved in the sport activities by being a spectator/supporter (9 participants) of the various sport activities.

Discussion

Some of the results supported the following view of Blanchard (2009), Kaplan-Williams (2009) and Molyneaux (2007) (section 3.5.1): a key requirement for the effective management of diversity in an organisation is that the organisation creates an organisational culture in which the employees are viewed as valuable human beings.

The participants' perceptions also supported the views of Chandler (2006) (section 6.3.9) who contends that a more favourable diversity culture is created through sport participation. According to Posten (1998) (section 6.3.8), sport participation increases self-esteem through affiliation and identification because the participants all wear the same outfits. They know

the players' work positions and names, and therefore feel an integral part of the team. Accordingly, when a team wins, the spectators' self-esteem improves because it is aligned to the team's triumph.

9.6.1.2 *Subtheme 4.2: actions by the organisation to implement sport activities*

To develop a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation, the experiences that the sport coordinators and employees had with regard to the implementation process of organisational sport activities were explored.

The main question and answers relating to the actions by the organisation to implement sport activities are highlighted in table 9.15.

Table: 9.15: Actions by the organisation to implement sport activities

Main question: In your view, what is the process that an organisation can follow to implement organisational team sport?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for the implementation of organisational team sport interventions
Participant 11: I think that the management must initiate it. Participant 17: Oh, ok, I would say that management must make a decision during one of their meetings to start with sport activities. Participant 26: I think it has to start from top management ... Participant 30: Well, obviously it will come from management. Participant 40: Top management needs to be involved because they need to make all the decisions. Participant 45: We developed a social committee. One of our very senior managers was involved and he has direct access to certain people of stature for the money and time. Participant 52: Management must start with the awareness. Participant 60: The managers must start and drive the sport activities in an organisation.	Top management initiative

<p>Sport coordinator 4: Ensure management is involved and adequate marketing is done to promote this.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: Top management must be involved and aware that there is a need for sport in the organisation and you need to get approval from top management.</p>	
<p>Participant 7: Yes, when management is involved, they can start making the employees aware.</p> <p>Participant 7: They can maybe send e-mails to all the employees.</p> <p>Participant 17: They can advertise it on their intcome, or even advertise it in the company's magazine, if they have something like that.</p> <p>Participant 26: ... and they must make the people aware of the sport through induction or presentations.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... and then they must advertise it.</p> <p>Participant 40: The organisation needs to advertise the sport through inductions and presentations.</p> <p>Participant 45: The senior manager is part of marketing and he has been given a mandate to communicate to everybody in the company to market the games. He sends out the emails to all the employees.</p> <p>Participant 48: They should introduce it into their training programme. Make it compulsory. Communication should be shared.</p> <p>Participant 50: You can start with departmental competitions to make everyone aware of the sport.</p> <p>Participant 52: Competing between the different departments as a team-building thing to get everyone else involved.</p> <p>Participant 59: The employees must be made aware of the sport activities ...</p> <p>Participant 56: They must make each and every department aware of the sports ...</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Then the employees must be made aware of the fact that the organisation is going to start a sport club – they can advertise it through billboards and emails.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: The sport activities need to be advertised.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: Employees can be informed via email or the organisation can advertise the sport activities on the notice board.</p>	<p>Advertise/make employees aware</p>

<p>Participant 7: Before the sport managers are appointed, top management must first send out the surveys to determine who wants to participate in what type of sport – you can't just appoint sport managers without knowing how many people are interested in cricket, soccer and netball. There might be no interest in netball and then top management have already appointed someone for the netball team.</p> <p>Participant 16: They can send out a questionnaire where the employees must tick whether they are interested in sport and what sport they want to participate in. They can send that questionnaire through email.</p> <p>Participant 19: And management can email surveys to all the employees to ascertain who is interested in playing sport for the organisation.</p> <p>Participant 24: ... and they can start with a survey.</p> <p>Participant 26: After that they can send out questionnaires to all the employees or send emails and the employees must respond to the email stating their interest in which sport activity.</p> <p>Participant 31: We can do a survey to see who is interested.</p> <p>Participant 30: Send out a survey to everybody and ask them if they are interested in sport and what sport they want to play, and from those results you can take it further.</p> <p>Participant 46: The senior manager sends out questionnaires.</p> <p>Participant 48: The company must get everyone involved by word-of-mouth and emails.</p> <p>Participant 53: Send a survey out to see what sport types attract who and then you start building it from there.</p> <p>Participant 56: ... And the subordinates must reply via email saying in which sport they are interested.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: A survey needs to be sent to all the employees in the organisation to determine their interest.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Find out, by doing a survey, if there is a love for sport in the organisation. Find out what are the most popular sports.</p>	<p>Determine employees' interest</p>
<p>Participant 7: Before the sport managers are appointed, top management must first send out the surveys ...</p> <p>Participant 19: They must get other people involved, who are</p>	<p>Appoint a sport manager/sport coordinator</p>

<p>normal employees, to help them manage these sport activities.</p> <p>Participant 17: They are like sport coordinators, exactly what we have in our company. Some of them coordinate rugby, the other cricket and someone else the soccer and so on.</p> <p>Participant 26: Then a person needs to be appointed that is the head of a certain sport activity, for instance, cricket or netball ...</p> <p>Participant 30: Well, after the survey, in terms of the results you need to nominate someone who will do the soccer or do the netball and obviously make them a sport manager ...</p> <p>Participant 34: Appoint someone to run the different sport activities.</p> <p>Participant 46: So you have a person that is responsible for the soccer teams and a person that is responsible for the cricket team.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 7: A sport committee must be formed to drive participation.</p> <p>Participant 54: ... it goes down to certain people with certain capabilities, not necessarily the team leaders, but it could be staff that show capabilities and strengths and let them run with the programme. The company must appoint people who have the drive and interest to run the sports teams.</p> <p>Participant 8: There must be a sport committee that will look after the interests of the participants.</p> <p>Participant 57: The sport committee must manage the sport activities.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Then start by putting a sport committee together who start with social events based on the responses received from the survey. The sport events must not stop after the first event.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: ... and then appoint various individuals to control the different sporting codes.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 6: The company needs to appoint different sport managers for the different team sports. This sport manager must be passionate about sport.</p>	
<p>Participant 8: I think the most important thing is to get facilities.</p> <p>Participant 18: Then they can contact sport clubs and ask them whether they can start playing there.</p> <p>Participant 31: If you start, for instance, hockey, you need facilities –</p>	<p>Provide facilities</p>

<p>hockey facilities are needed to host these games. Then you just start from there, you enter your league and you go.</p> <p>Participant 36: The sport manager needs to do research to determine where the nearest sport facilities are and he must enrol the team for sport events.</p>	
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From the information in table 9.15 it is clear that the participants identified the following implementation steps for organisational team sport interventions in the organisation:

- Obtain top management’s commitment (10 participants).
- Advertise/make employees aware (15 participants).
- Determine employees’ interest (13 participants).
- Appoint a sport manager/sport coordinator (14 participants).
- Provide facilities (4 participants).

Probing/follow-up question and answers

The probing question and answers relating to the actions by the organisation to implement sport activities are indicated in tables 9.16, 9.17, 9.18, 9.19 and 9.20.

Table 9.16: Top managements’ functions during the implementation of sport interventions

Probing question: What are the functions of top management during the implementation of sport activities?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified for functions of top management
<p>Participant 11: I think that the management must initiate it.</p> <p>Participant 17: Oh, ok, I would say that management must make a decision during one of their meetings to start with sport activities.</p> <p>Participant 26: I think it has to start from top management and they must make the people aware of the sport.</p> <p>Participant 30: Well, obviously it will come from management ...</p> <p>Participant 40: Top management needs to be involved because</p>	<p>Initiate process</p>

<p>they need to make all the decisions.</p> <p>Participant 60: The managers must start and drive the sport activities.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 1: People from the organisation always draw from what the management believes to be the cornerstone of the business, and sport is as such the concept of team dynamics. It has to start with management who show their appreciation for sport.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: Ensure management is involved ...</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: Top management must be involved and aware that there is a need for sport in the organisation...</p> <p>Sport coordinator 8: ... Management should also be involved in the sport committee ...</p>	
<p>Participant 7: Yes, when the management is involved, they can start making the employees aware.</p> <p>Participant 26: ... and they must make the people aware of the sport.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... and then they must advertise it.</p> <p>Participant 45: The senior manager is part of marketing and he has been given a mandate to communicate to everybody in the company to market the games. He sends out the emails to all the employees.</p> <p>Participant 56: They must make each and every department aware of the sports.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: ... and adequate marketing is done to promote this.</p>	<p>Make employees aware</p>

From the information in table 9.16 it is clear that the functions of top management during the implementation of sport interventions are to

- act as an initiator (10 participants)
- make employees aware of the new sporting activities (6 participants)

Table 9.17: Management’s actions to make employees aware of the new sport activities in the organisation

Probing question: What can management do to make the employees more aware of the new sport interventions?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified to make employees aware of the new sport interventions
<p>Participant 13: Yes, the new employees can watch a video during their orientation process.</p> <p>Participant 26: I think it has to start from top management (TP) and they must make the people aware of the sport through induction ...</p> <p>Participant 29: During orientation the company can make the employees aware of the sport.</p> <p>Participant 40: The organisation needs to advertise the sport through inductions ...</p>	Induction/ orientation
<p>Participant 26: I think it has to start from top management (TP) and they must make the people aware of the sport through induction or presentations.</p> <p>Participant 30: I remember, before I started participating in the sport event, our company had a presentation about the sport club.</p> <p>Participant 40: The organisation needs to advertise the sport through ... and presentations.</p>	Presentations
<p>Participant 7: They can maybe send emails.</p> <p>Participant 48: ... The company must get everyone involved by word-of-mouth and emails.</p> <p>Participant 59: The employees must be made aware of the sport activities via communication or sending out emails.</p> <p>Participant 56: They must make each and every department aware of the sports by sending the manager of every department an email and they must distribute it to their subordinates.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 5: ... Then the sport managers must make the employees aware that the organisation is going to start a sport club – they can advertise it through billboards and emails</p>	Emails

Sport coordinator 8: ... employees can be informed via email.	
Participant 50: You can start with departmental competitions to make everyone aware of the sport. Participant 52: Competing between the different departments as a team-building thing to get everyone else involved.	Departmental competitions
Participant 13: And to make the employees more aware of the sport activities they can show a video (VD). Participant 30: ...They had like a video of the sport club ...	Videos

From the information in table 9.17 it is clear that the participants' perceptions of management's actions to make employees aware of the new sporting activities in the organisation were through

- induction/orientation (4 participants)
- presentations (3 participants)
- emails (6 participants)
- departmental competitions (2 participants)
- videos (2 participants)

Table 9.18: Management's actions to determine employees' interest in sport activities

Probing question: What can management do to determine the employees' interest in certain sport activities?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified regarding employees' interest in sport
Participant 7: Before the sport managers are appointed, top management must first send out the surveys to determine who wants to participate in what type of sport. Participant 9: Maybe top manager or sport managers can send out surveys to determine whether there is a need for a certain type of sport. Participant 19: And management can email surveys to all the employees to ascertain who is interested in playing sport. Participant 24: I think first of all, there must be a person who	Surveys

<p>likes sport and who has the background and passion for all the sport activities and he/she can start with a survey.</p> <p>Participant 30: Send out a survey to everybody and ask them if they are interested in sport.</p> <p>Participant 33: And they can send out surveys to all the employees.</p> <p>Participant 53: Send a survey out to see what sport types attract who.</p> <p>Sport coordinator 4: A survey needs to be sent to all the employees in the organisation to determine their interest.</p>	
<p>Participant 26: ... After that they can send out questionnaires to all the employees.</p> <p>Participant 46: The senior manager sends out questionnaires.</p>	Questionnaires

It is clear from the information in table 9.18 that the action that management can take to determine the employees' interest in the new sporting events is to send out surveys (8 participants) or questionnaires (2 participants).

Table 9.19: Job description of a sport coordinator

Probing question: What are the responsibilities of a sport coordinator?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified regarding the responsibilities of a sport coordinator
<p>Participant 10: Or they can appoint a sport manager who handles these administrative tasks. They can appoint a sport manager for each type of sport, that is, cricket, soccer, netball.</p> <p>Participant 26: ... that is the head of a certain sport activity - for instance, cricket or netball.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... you need to nominate someone who will do the soccer or do the netball.</p> <p>Participant 46: ... and a person responsible for the soccer team and cricket team etc is appointed.</p>	Head of sport activities
<p>Participant 16: They must organise sport events, see to it that the</p>	Coordinator

<p>employees know what time their games start, make sure that the games are paid for.</p> <p>Participant 30: The sport manager needs to set up all the training sessions and sport events.</p> <p>Participant 46: That person also needs to ... and organise the games.</p>	
<p>Participant 18: I know that it is also our sport coordinator's job to draw up budgets every year.</p> <p>Participant 34: They also need to draw up a budget every year of how much money is needed to do the sport.</p>	Draw up budgets
<p>Participant 26: ... he is responsible for the communication between the employees. That person needs to have the passion.</p> <p>Participant 30: ... and they must communicate all the events with the teams.</p> <p>Participant 34: This person needs to communicate all the events to the players.</p> <p>Participant 46: That person also needs to communicate ... the games.</p>	Communicator

From the information in table 9.19, it is clear that the responsibilities of a sport coordinator are to

- act as the head of the sport activities (4 participants)
- coordinate the sporting events (3 participants)
- draw up an annual budget (2 participants)
- communicate the sporting events to employees/teams (4 participants)

Table 9.20: Organisation is unaware of available sport facilities

Probing question: If an organisation is unaware of any facilities where their sport activities can be played, what action can they take?	
Verbatim evidence	Group category (code) identified regarding the steps to obtain sporting facilities
<p>Participant 8: They can do research on the internet to find sport facilities.</p> <p>Participant 18: Maybe on the internet. I'm sure the different sport clubs advertise themselves on the internet. Or maybe in magazines, although I have never seen an advert of a sport club advertising itself in a magazine.</p> <p>Participant 25: I'm sure they can search on the internet ...</p> <p>Participant 31: They can use the internet.</p> <p>Participant 29: Do research.</p> <p>Participant 45: You search for it ...</p>	Research
<p>Participant 11: Or they can speak to other organisations that are already participating in sport events and find out where they can find such a sport facility.</p> <p>Participant 25: ... or maybe they can find out from another company that already plays sport where these sport facilities are.</p> <p>Participant 45: We got this facility from word-of-mouth.</p>	Word-of-mouth

From the information in table 9.20, it is clear that the participants' perceptions of the actions that a company can take to find possible sport facilities are through

- research on the internet (6 participants)
- word-of-mouth (3 participants)

Discussion

It is clear from the data gathered that the participants had specific views on the implementation process of organisational team sport interventions. The steps are as follows.

Implementation process: step 1

Top management need to initiate the sporting activities in the organisation. The function of top management (table 9.16) is to act as an initiator of the new sporting events.

Implementation process: step 2

The employees need to be made aware of the new sporting activities in the organisation. Methods (table 9.17) such as induction/orientation, presentations, emails, departmental competitions or videos can be used to make employees aware of the new sporting activities.

Implementation process: step 3

The next step during the implementation process is to determine the employees' interest in the different sporting events. A survey or questionnaire could be sent to the employees to determine their interest in the different sporting activities (table 9.18). The employees need to respond to the survey and return the questionnaire to top management to enable them to ascertain in what sport activities the employees would be interested.

Implementation process: step 4

Different sport managers /sport coordinators need to be appointed in the various team sport activities. The sport coordinator will act as the head of sport and be responsible for implementing the content model (figure 9.1) according to the process model (figure 9.2). This person needs to communicate all the events to the participants, coordinate the sporting events and be responsible for preparing an annual budget on how much money is needed for the sport events (table 9.19).

Implementation process: step 5

It is also the sport manager's responsibility to find appropriate sport facilities where the sport events could be held. Suitable sport facilities could be identified by conducting internet research or via word-of-mouth (table 9.20).

The participants' perceptions support the elements in Allen and Montgomery's (2001) change dynamics model for diversity management (figure 3.4). The participants felt that

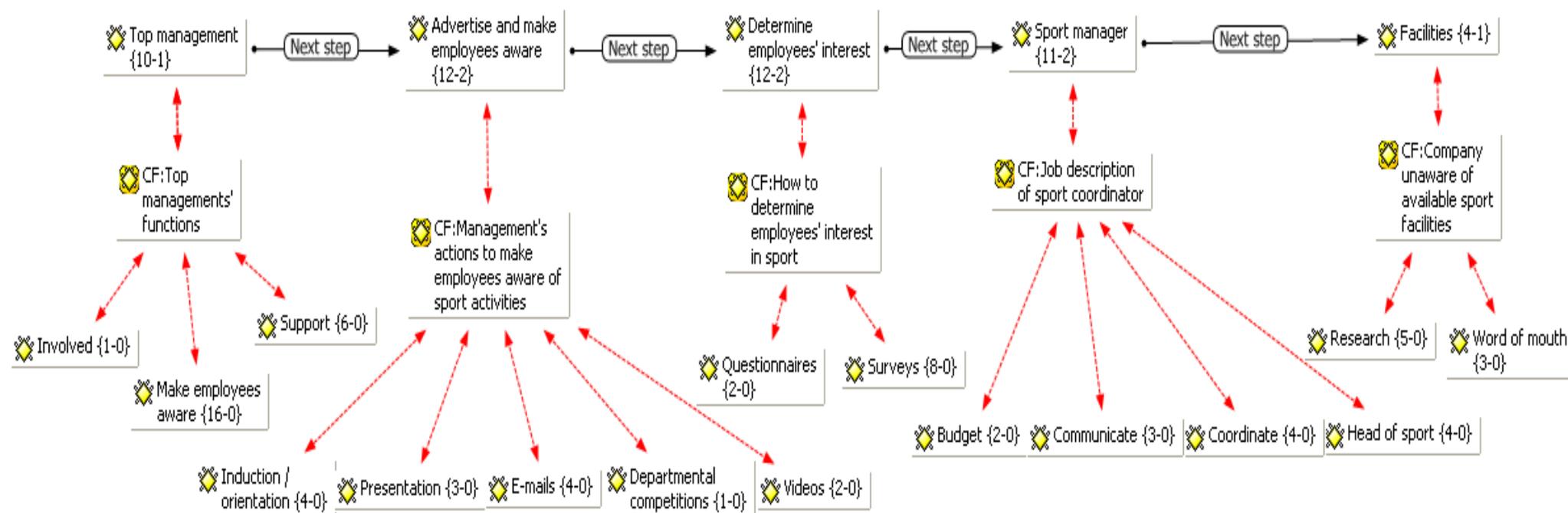
during the unfreezing stage, top management have a vision and commitment and they communicate the actions to the employees (step 1 of the implementation process). During the moving stage, the company must start its recruitment and outreach programmes (step 2 of the implementation process). The refreezing stage procedures must be implemented (step 3 of the implementation process).

9.7 RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 6): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES AND STEPS) IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT ORGANISATIONAL SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL IDENTIFIED USING ATLAS.TI?

The experiences of the sport coordinators and employees in the implementation process of organisational sport activities were also explored by implementing the Atlas.ti method of analysis. On the basis of the participants' experiences, the process model identified using Tesch's model was extended. Using Atlas.ti, an extended process model emerged on how to implement an organisational team sport project in organisations for maximum diversity management effectiveness. The extended implementation process model for organisational team sport interventions, identified by means of the Atlas.ti method, is depicted in figure 9.2.

Using the main categories of actions that were identified with Tesch's method, various group categories/"families" were created on Atlas.ti, namely (1) top management's functions; (2) management's actions to make employees aware; (3) how to determine the employees' interest; (4) the job description of a sport coordinator; and (5) company unaware of available sport facilities. The families consist of numerous codes. The codes under the main category of experience (family), namely top management's functions are initiator and make employees aware. The main category of experience (family), management's actions to make employees aware of sport facilities also has various codes, namely induction/orientation, presentation, emails, departmental competitions and videos, which describe the actions that an organisation or manager can take to make the employees in the organisation aware of their new decision to implement sport interventions in the organisation. Included in the main category of experience (family), how to determine employees' interest in sport, are questionnaires and surveys. The codes, budget, communicate, coordinate and head of sport, fall under the family name: job description of sport coordinator. The last main category of experience (family), company unaware of available sport facilities, has two codes, namely research and word-of-mouth.

Figure 9.2: Implementation process model for organisational team sport interventions (after applying Atlas.ti)



The top line in figure 9.2 consists of the following codes: top management, advertise/make employees aware, determine employees' interest, sport manager/sport coordinator and facilities. These codes were obtained from table 9.15. The letters "NS" between each node mean "next step".

9.8 SUMMARY

Important concepts and recurring themes were identified in the data, and the irrelevant data discarded. The identified themes were grouped into four main themes with subthemes. The data were then compared with the findings in the literature review and discussed to ensure a better understanding. The data in the four themes and subthemes enabled the researcher to develop a diversity management content model based on the organisational team sport interventions as well as a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation.

The final chapter deals with the conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study, and also makes recommendations for practice and possible future research.

CHAPTER 10

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 9 the findings were comprehensively presented and discussed and also compared and integrated with the relevant literature study in chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6.

In this chapter, conclusions will be drawn on the basis of the findings presented and discussed in chapter 9 and the objectives of the study. The limitations of the study will also be considered and recommendations made for possible future research and for the implementation of the diversity management content and process models.

The research objectives of the study were as follows:

- Objective 1: To identify the indicators of an organisational team sport intervention that contribute to the management of a diverse workforce and to utilise the indicators to construct a diversity management content model.

- Objective 2: To compile a process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation. The experiences of the sport coordinators and employees in the implementation process of organisational sport activities were investigated. On the strength of the positive and negative experiences, a process model emerged on how to implement an organisational team sport project in organisations to promote maximum diversity management effectiveness.

The research process and main conclusions are summarised and presented in table 10.1.

TABLE 10.1: SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS AND MAIN CONCLUSIONS

STEPS	RESEARCH QUESTION	AIM	RELEVANT DATA	RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED	CONCLUSIONS
Step 1	Is there a relationship between organisational team sport activities and outcomes and the management of diversity activities and outcomes in organisations? If so, what is this relationship?	To determine whether organisational team sport activities and outcomes support and advance diversity management activities in organisations	MCom study, Joubert (2010) (Organisational team sport interventions to minimise diversity constraints in the workplace) Secondary literature (chapters 3 and 6)	Confirmation by comparison of the findings of research process – step 2 and research process step 3	There is sufficient proof that organisational team sport activities do support and advance diversity management activities
Step 2	Is there sufficient agreement between the participants on the meaning and outcomes of diversity and diversity management in the organisation?	To determine whether there is common ground/consensus between the participants on the perceived meaning and outcomes of the concepts of diversity and diversity management	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Content analysis of the qualitative data gathered from focus group interviews and individual interviews	The participants experience a high measure of consensus on the meaning/definition of diversity and diversity management
Step 3	What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) that manifest from participants in the organisational team sport intervention?	To determine the main and subthemes of the content of diversity management in an organisational team sport intervention	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis using Tesch's method	Using Tesch's method of content analysis, a number of diversity management outcomes were identified from the organisational team sport intervention. These diversity management outcomes are summarised and presented as a content model in figure 10.1

STEPS	RESEARCH QUESTION	AIM	RELEVANT DATA	RESEARCH METHOD APPLIED	CONCLUSIONS
Step 4	What are the diversity management experiences (outcomes) regarding the content of the team sport intervention model identified using the Atlas.ti?	To determine the main and subthemes in the content of the diversity management team sport intervention model	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Atlas.ti	The outcomes obtained from Atlas.ti regarding the organisational team sport intervention were similar and thus confirmed the outcomes obtained from Tesch's method of content analysis
Step 5	What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational team sport intervention model?	To determine the main and subthemes in the implementation of an organisational team sport intervention	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Tesch's method	A number of activities for the implementation of an organisational team sport intervention were identified using Tesch's method of content analysis. These procedural steps are summarised and presented as an implementation model in figure 10.2 below
Step 6	What are the diversity management experiences (implementation activities and steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model identified using Atlas.ti?	To determine the main subthemes (steps) in the implementation of a diversity management organisational sport intervention model using Atlas.ti	Data from focus group interviews and individual interviews	Qualitative content analysis, using Atlas.ti	The outcomes obtained from Atlas.ti regarding the implementation of an organisational team sport intervention were similar and thus confirmed the outcomes obtained from Tesch's method of content analysis

The research question, step 1, was not repeated in the empirical research because sufficient evidence that organisational team sport activities support and advance diversity management was provided in chapter 9 and previous references. The comparison of the results of research question step 2 and research question step 3 further confirms the previous findings.

Since the findings of the study were presented and discussed in chapter 9, only the main conclusions will be dealt with in this chapter. The conclusions relating to the main research questions will now be discussed.

10.2 **CONCLUSION REGARDING RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 2): IS THERE SUFFICIENT AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE PARTICIPANTS ON THE MEANING AND OUTCOMES OF DIVERSITY AND DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE ORGANISATION?**

The following specific conclusions were drawn:

- There was sufficient consensus between the participants (see the requirements of Carlile and Christensen (2004), section 7.7.4.3) to indicate that they perceived diversity management as the management of different people and putting different people together (section 9.3.1.1). A comprehensive discussion of the definition of diversity management was provided in the literature, and it was shown that the results obtained from the participants supported the findings in the literature.
- There was also consensus that the following dimensions of diversity are important in the workplace: language, religion, race, background and awareness of others' culture give the organisation a competitive edge.
- There was a satisfactory degree of consensus between the participants (section 9.3.2.1) that diversity management is an advantage for the employees in an organisation. The advantages of diversity management for employees in an organisation are as follows:
 - They learn more about one another.
 - There is improved communication between them.
 - They become friends.
 - There is trust between the employees.
 - There is respect between the employees.
 - They are able to work together as a team.
 - The employees all have equal opportunities in the organisation.
 - There is less stereotyping and discrimination among the employees.
 - They are able to learn new skills from other diverse employees.

The input-output diversity management model of Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000) (section 3.2.2.3) can be applied to describe how the management of diversity initiatives has an influence on the organisation and the employees' personal outcomes. If diversity is managed through organisational team sport interventions (input), this will impact positively on managing the diversity constraints (output).

- There was sufficient consensus between the participants that if diversity is not properly managed it could result in constraints such as stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination, conflict and misunderstandings, lack of respect and language and communication gaps. The difference in hierarchical levels, cultural differences, religion, gender, beliefs and age groups can also create problems if diversity is not properly managed.
- It can also be concluded that there is sufficient consensus (section 9.3.2.2) between the participants that diversity management is an advantage for the organisation. The advantages for an organisation are as follows:
 - The organisation is more productive/better client service.
 - The organisation is able to achieve its goals.
 - There is cohesion among the employees and they are able to work together.
 - The organisation has different employees with different ideas and creativity.
 - The organisation's service to clients improves.

10.3 CONCLUSION REGARDING RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 3): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (OUTCOMES) THAT MANIFEST FROM PARTICIPANTS IN THE ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION?

The following specific conclusions can be drawn about the experiences (outcomes) that manifest from organisational team sport interventions (Tesch's method) (section 9.4.1.1):

- Organisational team sport interventions helped the participants learn about one another.
- They knew about one another.
- Their communication improved.
- They became friends.
- There was more mutual respect.

- There was more trust between them.
- The organisation's client service improved.
- They learnt to be more competitive.
- They overcame the hierarchical barriers in the organisation.
- There was commitment among the participants.
- Sport was regarded as a stress reliever.
- The participants felt that they were more self-confident because of their participation in sport activities.

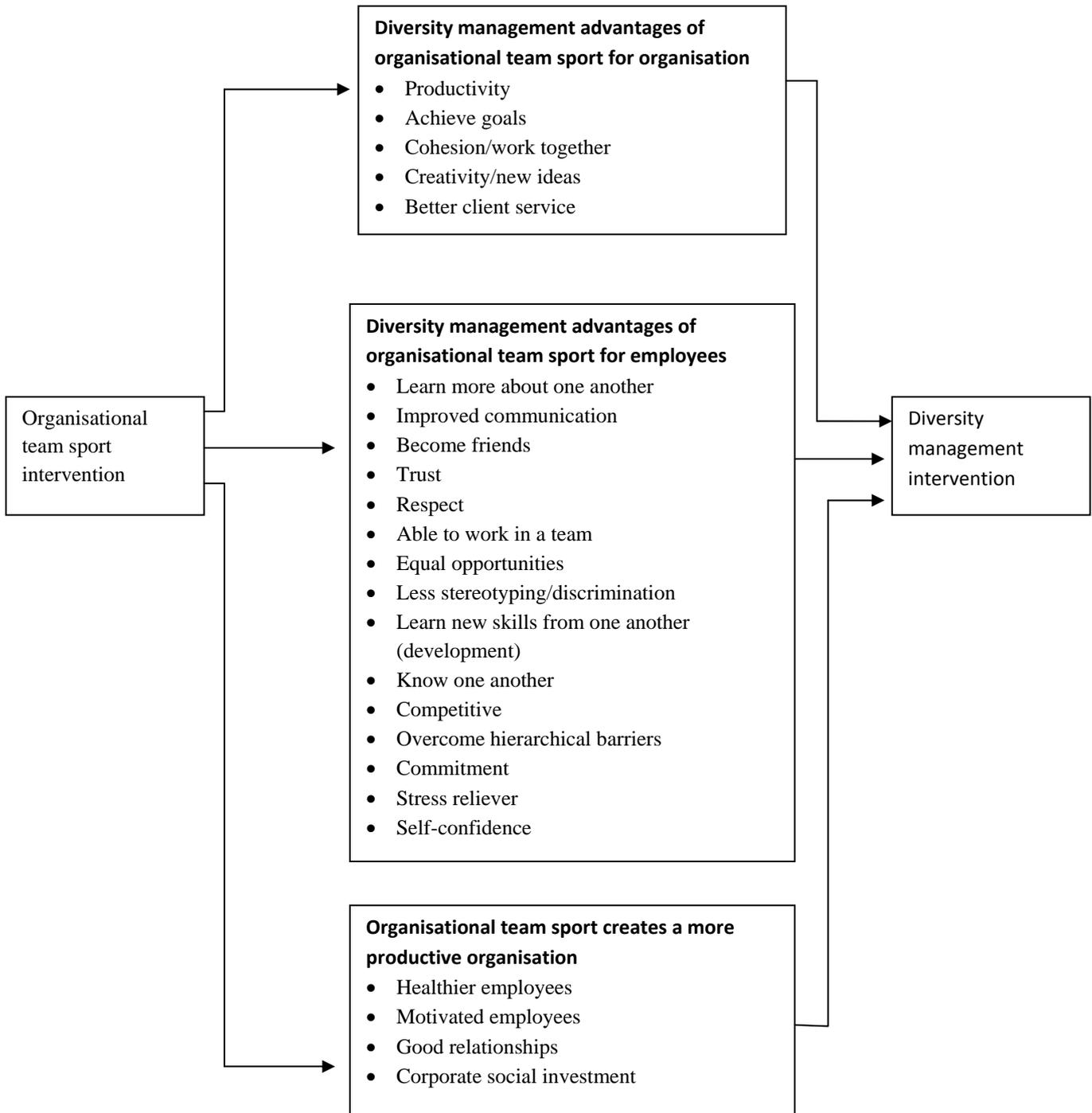
The participants' perceptions of the benefits of participation in team sport with colleagues concurred with similar findings in the literature. Participation in organisational team sport interventions enhances the participants' knowledge of others because they transfer information and share the same physical space.

- On the basis of the evidence provided in the findings of the study it can be concluded that organisational team sport interventions can be used as a diversity management intervention because the participants' views on the advantages of diversity management for the employee in an organisation and their experiences of their participation in organisational team sport activities concur.
- On the basis of the results of the study, it can also be concluded that the participants felt that conversations about sport with their colleagues and clients contributed to diversity management because such conversations create common ground, act as an ice breaker and are a unifying activity in building relationships (section 9.4.1.2).

10.4 CONCLUSION REGARDING RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 4): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (OUTCOMES) REGARDING THE CONTENT OF THE TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL IDENTIFIED USING THE ATLAS.TI?

Similar findings and conclusions were obtained from the application of Atlas.ti and Tesch's method of content analysis. After integrating and streamlining the content of figure 9.1, a revised model is presented as figure 10.1. This model is a summary of the specific conclusions of the input-output content study and illustrates the different codes under each main category of experience (family) node.

Figure 10.1: Summarised diversity management model based on organisational team sport interventions



The model confirms that organisational team sport interventions can be used to support diversity management in organisations.

10.5 CONCLUSION REGARDING RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 5): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES AND STEPS) IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL?

Regarding the organisation's contribution to the effective implementation of the team sport intervention, the following conclusions (from sections 9.6.1.1 and 9.6.1.2) can be drawn:

- Top management should be involved by initiating the sporting events and make employees aware of the new sport activities.
- Questionnaires or surveys should be sent to the employees to determine their interest in the various sport activities.
- Sport managers should be appointed in the various team sport activities to manage the different sport events. Their responsibility would be to coordinate and communicate all the events to the participants. Sport managers should also be responsible for drawing up an annual budget on how much money is needed for the sport events.
- There should be appropriate sport facilities where the sport events could be held. These could be found through internet research or word-of-mouth.
- Management should provide funding for the different sport activities.
- Management should provide outlets to allow employees to let off steam
- Nonparticipants and the organisation should support sport activities.
- The company should be more accommodating or allow the participants more time off.
- Employees should not be compelled to take part in sport activities.

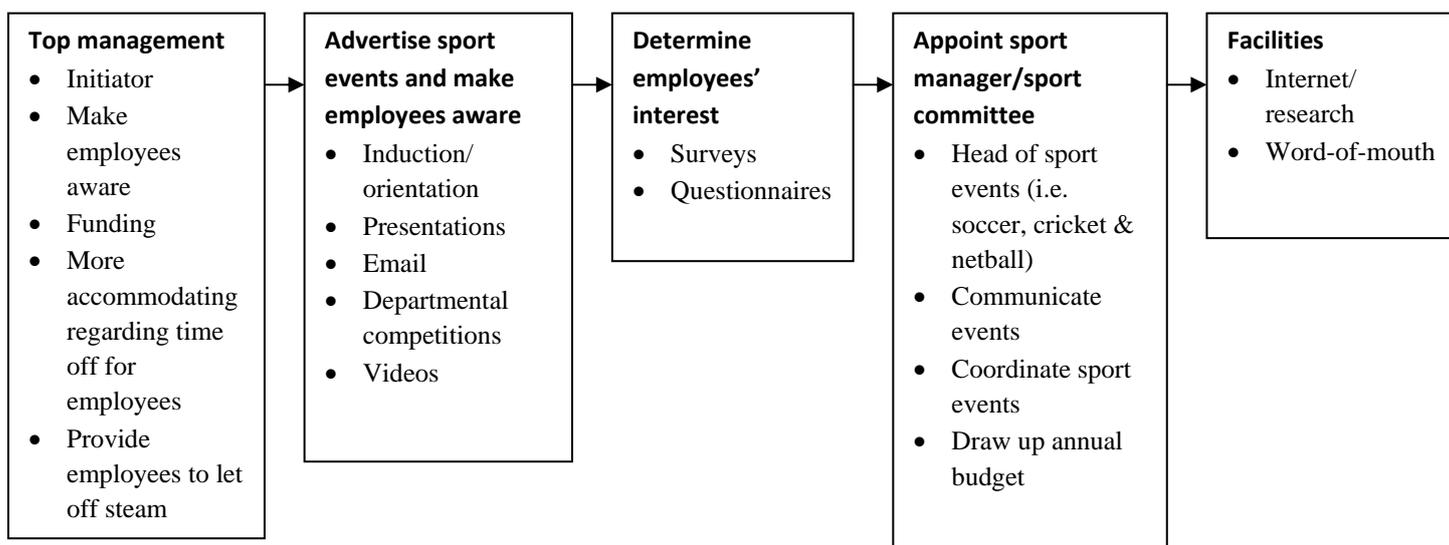
Final conclusions were drawn regarding the implementation process.

10.6 CONCLUSION REGARDING RESEARCH QUESTION (SECTION 7.2, RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 6): WHAT ARE THE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT EXPERIENCES (IMPLEMENTATION ACTIVITIES AND STEPS) IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT ORGANISATIONAL SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL IDENTIFIED USING ATLAS.TI?

Atlas.ti and Tesch's method of content analysis produced similar findings and conclusions. These conclusions are summarised in figure 10.2.

The participants' views on the implementation process (tables 9.13, 9.15, 9.16, 9.17, 9.18, 9.19 and 9.20) and figure 9.2 were revised and streamlined in order to create this model.

Figure 10.2: Summarised process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation



10.7 STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

An impartial strength of the data-gathering process was that the sport participants and sport coordinators were interviewed in a boardroom at their workplace with minimal disturbances. This allowed the participants and sport coordinators to feel in control of the situation, and it enabled the researcher to observe them in their work environment.

The participants and sport coordinators were extremely cooperative and friendly. They were willing to fully cooperate and share information, and once they realised that the researcher was interested in what they had to say and that she was not judgemental, they shared their experiences more openly.

Because the researcher could identify with the participants, she was therefore more accessible to them. The reason for this was that she had been an action netball player for more than nine years, is familiar with team sport and actually knew some of the participants. The researcher also did not allow any preconceived ideas to influence the findings and conclusions.

10.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Certain limitations were identified in this study, relating to possible researcher bias, participant effect, data collection and data analysis.

10.8.1 Limitations relating to the researcher bias, data collection and analysis

The researcher's longstanding association with team sport could have increased bias (section 7.7.5). In order to prevent this form of bias, intuiting, bracketing and reflexivity were implemented during all the phases of the study.

Owing to the qualitative nature of the study, the researcher's judgement regarding data gathering and data analysis was extremely important. During the focus group interviews with the sport participants, the individual interviews with the sport coordinators and the data analysis, the primary data collection instrument was the researcher. Trustworthiness, intuiting, reflexivity and bracketing were applied during all the different stages in the study in an effort to overcome the possibility of researcher bias.

10.8.2 Limitations relating to the implementation of organisational team sport interventions in organisations

The sports codes investigated in this study favoured mainly the younger employees and excluded employees older than 35 years of age.

10.8.3 Limitations relating to the participating organisation

Since this study was only conducted in financial organisations in Gauteng, the findings cannot be generalised to other nonfinancial organisations. When transferability of the findings is considered, the context in which this study was conducted should be taken into account.

10.9 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions that were drawn from the findings in this study, recommendations can be made for the implementation of the diversity management content model that is based on organisational team sport interventions as well as the implementation of the process model to implement organisational team sport interventions in an organisation.

10.9.1 Recommendations for further research

The following recommendations can be made for possible to future research:

- The researcher recommends that this research be repeated to include a larger and more diversified sample of organisations nationally.
- It is further recommended that a comparative study which includes international organisations is conducted to investigate the influence of different weather conditions and other diversity constraints (e.g. different organisation cultures) in the working environment.
- A study could be conducted to investigate the relative contribution of different sporting codes to the management of diversity.
- The possibility of conducting a study on other sporting codes in order to accommodate employees older than 35 (e.g. chess, darts, etc) should be explored.

10.9.2 Recommendations regarding the implementation of organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative

The following recommendations can be made about the implementation of organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative:

- The researcher recommends that the implementation model should be used as a guideline to implement organisational team sport interventions.
- It is also recommended that competent sport coordinators be appointed as a priority step to manage the sporting events in the organisation.
- The first step would be for top managers to support sport events financially.
- It is further recommended that the sports coordinator should recruit as many diverse participants for the organisation team sport as possible.

10.10 **PERSONAL EXPERIENCES DURING THE STUDY**

The researcher found this study academically, professionally and personally enriching. The study enabled her to gain a better understanding of the implementation of a diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions as well as the implementation of the process model to implement organisational team sport interventions in an organisation. A future challenge would be to collaborate with international academics in order to conduct further studies in this field.

10.11 **SUMMARY**

This chapter dealt with the conclusions relating to the research findings. Recommendations were also made on the basis of the six research questions of this study and a content and implementation model presented in order to summarise the conclusions. This chapter highlighted possible future studies as well as the strengths and limitations of the research.

The study is original and will hopefully emphasise the importance of the implementation of organisational team sport interventions in an organisation as a diversity management initiative.

Article

ABSTRACT

Although diversity management is seen as a necessary programme for organisations to remain competitive, the concept of diversity management remains vague for many organisations. When sport is used in the workplace, it enables employees to focus on their similarities instead of their differences. If the diversity barriers have been overcome, it could provide access to knowledge, skills and abilities in the organisation because the group works together towards mutual goals. When the goals and efforts of the teams and individuals in the organisation are in alignment, the organisation can move forward through strong leadership and supportive systems. Existing diversity management interventions are costly and often less effective. They are also often forced upon employees. There is therefore a need to develop an organisational team sport intervention model that can be utilised as a diversity model in organisations. This new intervention will not be forced upon employees. It is the employees' own choice whether they would like to participate in sport or not. The purpose of this research was to compile a diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions. The qualitative exploration study was conducted among 63 sport participants and 9 sport coordinators of nine different financial organisations in the Gauteng region, South Africa. The data were collected by means of focus group and individual interviews. The results indicate that organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative hold benefits for the employees (i.e. the employees learn more about and from one another, communicate openly, become friends, form trust and respect, are able to work together in a team, have equal opportunities and there is less stereotyping/discrimination) and the organisation (i.e. productivity, the company is able to achieve its goals, employees are more cohesive and able to work together, there is creativity, new ideas are generated and better client service). The findings of this study contribute valuable new knowledge to the literature on the diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions because no known studies have been done regarding an organisational team sport intervention model that can be utilised as a diversity model in organisations.

Key words

Communication; commitment; trust; respect; friends; cohesion; productivity

DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT CONTENT MODEL BASED ON ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION

INTRODUCTION

Although diversity management is seen as a necessary programme for organisations to remain competitive, the concept of effective diversity management remains vague for many organisations. When sport is used in the workplace, it enables employees to focus on their similarities instead of their differences. If the diversity barriers have been overcome, it could provide access to knowledge, skills and abilities in the organisation because the group works together towards mutual goals. When the goals and efforts of the teams and individuals in the organisation are in alignment, the organisation can move forward through strong leadership and supportive systems.

Existing diversity management interventions are costly and often less effective. They are also often forced upon employees. There is therefore a need to develop an organisational team sport intervention model that can be utilised as a diversity model in organisations. This new intervention will not be forced upon employees. It is the employees' own choice whether they would like to participate in sport or not.

Many employees benefit from diversity management when their employers become more inclusive. Those employees who have been stigmatised or discriminated against, such as employees of colour, poor and lower-class employees, employees with different sexual orientations, women and disabled employees, benefit in the short and long term when working in an inclusive environment. Improved opportunities and salaries are obvious gains, while improved physical and mental health are less obvious gains. The potential benefits extend to the entire workplace. The work environment for heterosexual employees improves when sexual orientation is no longer a taboo issue. When older employees are treated well, it will reassure the young employees because they will someday also be in the same position (Bullock, 1999; Stroh, Varma & Valy-Durbin, 2000).

Although it is easy to focus on employees, the organisation also gains from diversity that is well managed. For instance, when an organisation develops leadership potential from minority groups, the process that allows an organisation to utilise talent serves as a blueprint for the types of competencies needed in the new millennium. All the employees benefit from an increased awareness of the operation of bias, especially from an enhanced insight into their own prejudices, attitudes and biases towards diverse employees. Every employee benefits from an awareness of their own cultural heritage and wins through the development of interpersonal communication skills, conflict management skills, role modelling skills and feedback-seeking skills (Chrobot-Mason & Thomas, 2002; Stroh *et al.*, 2000).

Organisations that do not develop multicultural competencies are faced with many challenges. White-dominant organisations are exposed to legal difficulties whereas organisations that are able to manage their diversity well are effectively preventing discrimination court cases, which are costly. A non-inclusive organisation creates unhealthy problems for its employees. A well-managed diversity intervention helps to reduce the organisational costs related to low productivity, high turnover and withdrawal, as well as the medical aid costs resulting from stress-related illnesses caused by unfair treatment (Sagrestano, Heavey & Christensen, 1998).

The purpose of this research was to compile a diversity management content model based on organisational team sport interventions.

LITERATURE STUDY

Requirements to manage diversity effectively

Organisations need to meet certain requirements to manage diversity effectively. Some of these are discussed below:

Team members must share organisational goals

A team must share the same goals on which they agree and can discuss before a diverse team is successful (Biech, 2008; Solomon, 1998). One of the main requirements for successful diversity in organisations is to ensure that common or shared attainable goals are set.

It is clear that achievable and reachable goals must be set in an organisation. Employees need to subdue their own personal needs to enable them to work together towards a common goal. South Africa is known as the Rainbow Nation and there are differences between white, Black, Indian and coloured population groups. It is therefore imperative that the different populations in South African organisations be committed to work towards the same goal (Stander, 2011). According to Thomas (2011), only 5% of employees in the South African workforce understand the goals that they are supposed to pursue and this will result in a team not pulling in the same direction. The conflict in an organisation comes when the team is debating the goal. It is therefore vital that the team be absolutely sure that they understand the goal completely and are 100% committed to achieving the goals.

Employees should have high levels of personal commitment to collaborate with employees who are different

All employees need to be committed to cooperate with other employees who are different to enable the management of diversity to succeed (Bassett-Jones, 2005). If employees have no personal commitment, diversity may create misunderstandings, suspicion and conflict in the workplace, which will result in loss of production, low morale and absenteeism. Organisations that are able to facilitate personal commitment among their diverse employees through the management of diversity initiatives will have a competitive advantage (Bassett-Jones, 2005; Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Meyer, Hecht, Gill, Toplonysky, 2010).

Diverse groups tend to be less cohesive than homogeneous groups because a lack of similarity in background, culture and language among group members contributes to lower group cohesiveness. Homogeneous groups can therefore negatively influence work performance and teamwork (Brodbeck, Guillaume & Lee, 2010; Nieman & Bennett, 2002). It is not an easy task to manage a diverse group because the members of the group have different behaviours, needs and values. Differences in organisations can result in conflict and it is therefore important to change a diverse group into a cohesive one to ensure that differences in culture, sex, race, gender and age give an organisation the competitive advantage (Hodson, 1993).

Employees should have increased mutual trust

Developing trust between employees is extremely important for the effective management of diversity. Employees need to trust one another before they are willing to do their best. Conflict, suspicion and misunderstandings between group members are often caused by mistrust and the organisation will not be able to attain its goals.

Trust between employees is mostly low in today's organisations, and this has serious implications for the effective management of diversity and consequently for workers' financial vitality, turnover, engagement

and productivity. Mistrust has a negative effect on the management of diversity because the employees' morale is weakened, which in turn will decrease the integrity of the employee who is working in a team towards a common goal. Employees withhold their enthusiasm and commitment when they don't trust one another. When employees are of the view that their needs are not being met, they will not extend their trust (Meyer *et al.*, 2010; Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Wilson, 2009).

Employees should have mutual increased respect

Respect between colleagues is a vital requirement for the management of diversity. Employees find it hard to respect employees who are different, and there are numerous reasons for this, e.g. lack of knowledge about different cultures (Bellou, 2009; Mor Barak, 2011; Tehrani, 2005). Therefore, if employees do not trust one another and diversity is not managed, the organisation will not reach its goals. Respect is of the utmost importance for building and maintaining solid relationships during the management of diversity (Doty, 2009; Mor Barak, 2011; Ratliff & Brackner, 1998).

Employees should have effective and open communication

Effective and open communication is important especially when employees are from diverse backgrounds. Different cultures have different assumptions and tendencies during verbal interactions, and it is often difficult for cross-cultural employees to communicate their perceptions and views effectively. Even when language barriers are non-existent, it is still a challenge to manage cross-cultural communication in diversity management. Diverse employees in an organisation need to ensure that their perceptions and views are communicated effectively during diversity management, to avoid miscommunication, misinterpretations and misunderstandings (Faull, 2008; Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Thiederman, 2003).

Familiarity with other (diverse) groups

Another important requirement to manage diversity effectively is acquiring information about other groups. Diverse groups need to understand and familiarise themselves with one another before they are able to work together successfully. This could include:

- Accepting the cultural differences

Looking someone in the eye, bowing or not, kissing a person's cheek, shaking hands or smiling— these seem to be small gestures, but the success of the management of diversity may depend on them. Most employees in an organisation come from different backgrounds and that has an immense impact on diversity management. When an employee is unfamiliar with the culture of group, this could lead to frustration, misunderstanding and embarrassment that will negatively affect the success of the organisation. Avoiding or ignoring the reality of cultural influences will not build esteem or a sense of belonging, and will create conflict (Nieman & Bennett, 2002; Trivedi, 2008).

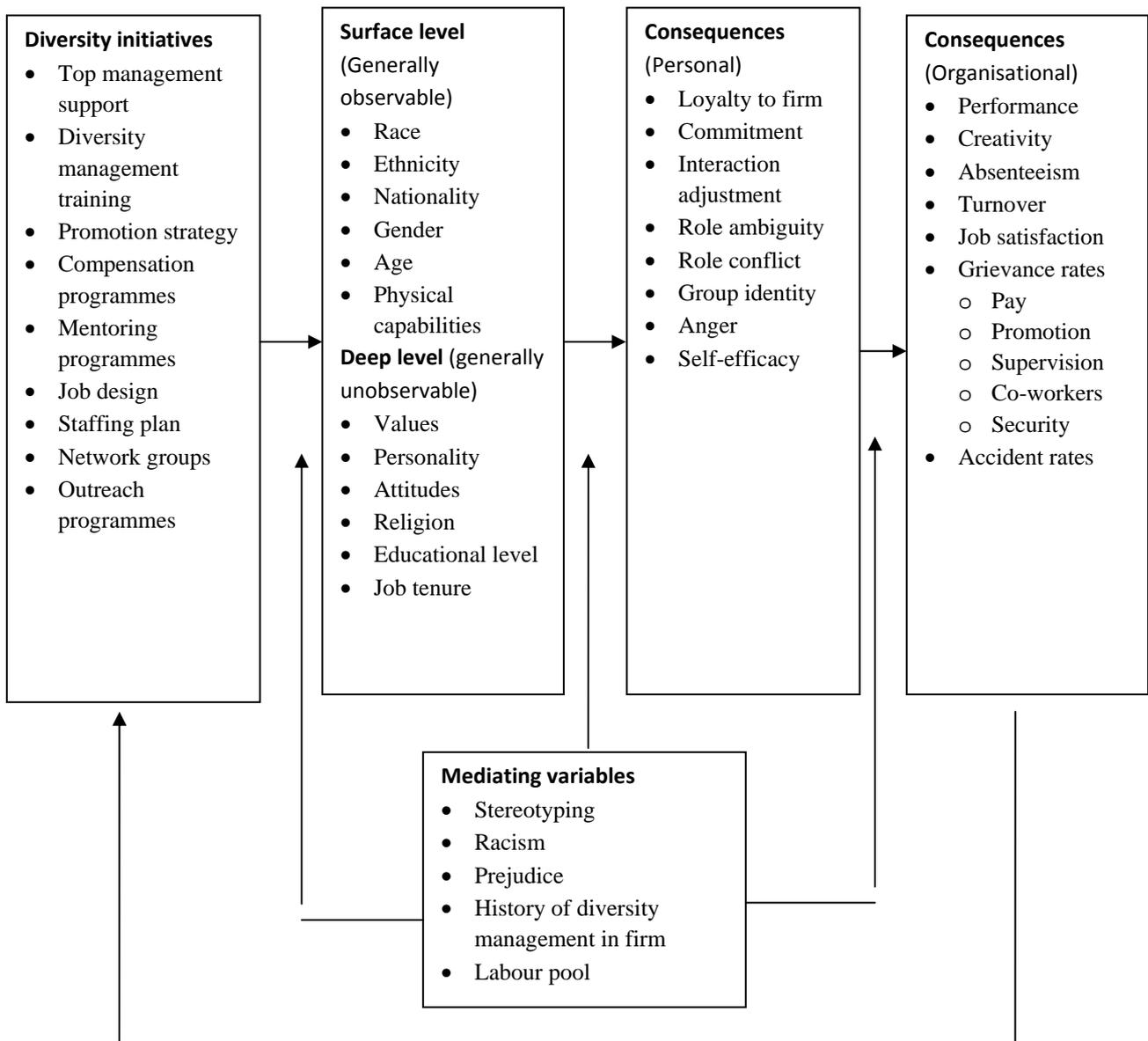
- Accepting age generation differences

Accepting age generation differences is another key requirement to manage diversity effectively because modern-day society has a great deal of age bias (Aker, 2009; Parry & Urwin, 2009). The age generation gaps in organisations can lead to conflict, loss of productivity, misunderstanding and miscommunication. When employees are able to bridge the generation gap, it will improve mutual communication and understanding and will make an organisation competitive.

The input-output system approach (Ivancevich & Gilbert)

An theoretical input-output system approach was developed by Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000) applied in this research. It emphasises that an effective diversity initiative influences personal and organisational outcomes. The researcher decided to include this model developed by Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000) because it underscores the relevance of input-output dynamics for the management of diversity. This diversity management model acknowledges the concept of an organisational team sport intervention as a management intervention (input) which minimises diversity constraints (output). This model is represented in figure 1 below.

Figure 1: The input-output systems model (Ivancevich and Gilbert)



Source: Ivancevich and Gilbert (2000, p. 78)

Figure 1 indicates that management initiatives (inputs) such as top management support, diversity management training, implementation of promotion strategies, compensation, mentoring and outreach

programmes influence personal consequences (outcomes). These include the employees' loyalty towards the organisation, increase in commitment, reduced levels of anger, and group identity. The inputs will also lead to organisational consequences such as higher creativity, lower absenteeism and turnover, increased levels of job satisfaction and better performance.

The model further indicates that the surface-level (primary) dimensions and deep-level (secondary) dimensions contribute as inputs to the systems model. The mediating input variables could include the organisation's history, stereotyping, prejudices, diversity management and racism.

The main contributions that the input-output systems model makes to diversity management theory are the following:

- It identifies and simplifies the actions (input) required to bring about change.
- It postulates that what the organisation put into diversity management interventions will be visible as results or outcomes. What does not go in cannot bring about change and results.

The relevance of the model for this research is that a team sport intervention is regarded as an input in the diversity management strategy. It should have consequences at both a personal and organisational level if applied correctly.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Research approach

The essence of this research was to listen to and understand the sports participants' and sport coordinators' perceptions and views, and so therefore a qualitative approach was used in this study. The researcher asked guiding and probing questions to gain in-depth insight into the research participants' perceptions. The methods in this type of research focus on interpretations and meanings (Rice & Ezzy, 2002).

A grounded theory paradigm was used in this study because of its organised approach towards listening to and gaining an understanding of the participants' views and perceptions of their own beliefs, context and history. Qualitative research maintains a holistic approach towards the participants' views and interactions with various aspects of their environment and towards the participants as human beings (Babbie & Mouton, 2003).

Research procedure

Sport participants and sport coordinators from nine financial organisations in the Gauteng region, South Africa, were approached to be part of the study. A qualitative study can be considered as trustworthy when the research can be accepted as true (McNeill, 1990). Trustworthiness was improved by analysing the data using Atlas.ti to ensure credibility (Welsh, 2002), because computers are more concerned with structure and not with emotional experiences (Goulding, 1999). To enable readers of this article to determine whether the findings of the study are relevant to their personal circumstances, the information of the population is presented, as is the personal information of the sport participants and sport coordinators. Trustworthiness was also enhanced because the researcher has played a team sport for more than nine years and has personal experience of the benefits of organisational team sport interventions. She was also known to some of the participants and a good working relationship was established between her and the participants. In this study, the researcher experienced data saturation after participants and sport coordinators from six different financial organisations were interviewed. The researcher interviewed three more financial organisations for validity. No new information was obtained in the last three focus group interviews and individual interviews with the sport coordinators.

Population

The research population for this study comprised players participating in team sport and sport coordinators working at financial institutions in the Gauteng region, South Africa. Nine different financial institutions were selected for this research. A sample of convenience was used because random sampling could not be applied and the participants were readily available.

Sample

A purposive participant technique was used to identify 63 sport participants for the focus group interviews and 9 sport coordinators for the individual interviews until data-saturation occurred. To be included in this study the participants had to work for the financial organisations in the Gauteng region and participate in organisational team sport. The focus group interviews with the sport participants and the individual interviews with the sport coordinators were conducted to gather the required information to enable the researcher to achieve the research objectives. The first focus group (netball team) consisted of six females. The second focus group (cricket team) consisted of seven players (four males and three females), the third focus group (cricket team) consisted of seven players (five males and two females), the fourth focus group (soccer team) consisted of six players (two males and four females), the fifth focus group (soccer team) consisted of six players (three males and three females), the sixth focus group (volleyball team) consisted of eight players (five males and three females), the seventh focus group (cricket team) consisted of seven male players, the eighth focus group (cricket team) consisted of eight male players and the ninth focus group (soccer team) consisted of eight male players.

Data collection

Because of the large quantity of the data that were collected in this study, the researcher used qualitative data analysis software (Atlas.ti) to manage the data (Maclaran & Catterall, 2002). When there is a vast quantity of qualitative data, the use of a computer software program is necessary for data analysis by coding data. This makes it possible to present a visual model of data that is based on emerging categories (Brown, Stevens, Troiano & Schneider, 2002). Atlas.ti is a code-based theory-builder designed to become an extension of the researcher herself (Babbie & Mouton, 2003). In this study, data from the focus group interviews were collected through tape recordings, which were then typed verbatim. The transcripts were typed in one-and-a-half spacing with wide margins to enable the researcher to write comments and notes.

Focus group interviews with sport participants and individual interviews with sport coordinators were used to obtain a richer response as the participants knew one another and felt able to differ from the other participants and to give their own views and ideas. Individual interviews were conducted with sport coordinators because the sample group from several different financial organisations was small and there were not enough sport coordinators from the same financial organisation to conduct focus group interviews. The individual interviews were conducted on the same basis and principles as the focus group interviews. The focus group interviews and the individual interviews were conducted at a specific time in a boardroom, an undisturbed area at the participants' workplace. Each focus group interview took approximately an hour and the individual interviews took approximately 45 minutes to complete.

The focus group and individual interviews were semi-structured because guided interviews, as used in this study, consist of broad objectives that are reflected in guiding questions, where participants are encouraged to describe their experiences and views in a particular situation and the interviewer is free to explore any matter that may arise (Grbich, 1999). A reliable tape recorder in a quiet environment was used during the interviews (Kvale, 1996). The researcher also compiled field notes that contained facts about the interviews, the interview setting and her personal feelings and impressions.

The questions posed during the focus group and individual interviews to enable the researcher to collect the data for the study are presented in table 1:

Table 1: Focus group and individual interview questions

Interview questions
1. What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation *
2. What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the organisation? *
3. How did the experience of being part of a diverse sports team help you to overcome the diversity constraints in your workplace?
4. In your view, do you think that, when an organisation implements organisational team sport that it will make the organisation unproductive (loss of work time)?

- Questions 1 and 2 were included to satisfy Carlile and Christensen's (2004) requirements.

Data analysis

The qualitative data (interviews) were analysed by making use of Tesch's content analysis method and Atlas.ti. The following steps (Tesch, 1990) were applied to identify the main code names:

- *Step 1:* The tape-recorded focus group interviews with the sport participants and individual interviews with the sport coordinators were typed. Notes were made as they came to mind.
- *Step 2:* The interview that was most interesting, in this research the researcher used the longest interview, was selected and the researcher wrote the ideas in the margin that serves as a starting point to identify the main codes.
- *Step 3:* The descriptive wording that occurred the most for the different topics was analysed and themes were created.
- *Step 4:* A list of all the different main topics was made. The researcher wrote on a separate piece of paper the different topics. Topics that were similar were grouped together. These topics were then grouped into three categories namely: "main topics", "exclusive topics" and "leftovers".
- *Step 5:* The different main topics were abbreviated and codes were allocated.
- *Step 6:* A final decision was made on the abbreviation for each main theme and the codes were alphabetised.
- *Step 7:* Each main theme's data material was assembled and a preliminary analysis was done.
- *Step 8:* After the preliminary analysis, the findings were reported.

Atlas.ti is a code-based theory-builder designed to become an extension of the researcher herself (Babbie & Mouton, 2003). Atlas.ti supports content analysis and grounded theory, therefore the researcher decided to apply the Atlas.ti to confirm and if possible, to extend the data gathered from Tesch's method of content analysis. Atlas.ti allows for the analysis of textual, graphical and audio data (Muhr, 1994). Atlas.ti was chosen because it is a computer-aided data analysis method and known for its ability to retrieve and index data through codes, efficient data management, identify themes, identify linkages in the data and to build a picture of the relations between data (Maclaran & Catterall, 2002). Atlas.ti is very user friendly and also a strong tool for network displays (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

During the development of a model, a researcher can pursue the following three steps (Carlile & Christensen, 2004):

- *Step 1: observation.* The phenomena are observed by the researcher and he describes and measures what is being presented by the participants. Thorough observation, documentation and assessment of the phenomena in numbers and words are of utmost importance during this step because if the participants are unable to agree upon the description of the phenomena, it will not be possible to develop trustworthy theory, if it is based on different descriptions and interpretations of the phenomena.
- *Step 2: classification.* After the phenomena have been observed and described, the researcher classifies them into categories. The researcher used the first four steps of Tesch's (1990) method. Researchers normally refer to these categories as *frameworks* or *typologies*.
- *Step 3: defining relationships.* In the last step, the researcher explores the relationship between the category-defined features and the observed outcomes. In the stage of descriptive theory building, researchers recognise and make clear what differences in attributes and differences in the size of those attributes, concur with the outcomes. The output of studies obtained during this step is referred to as *models*.

Ethical considerations

Focus group and individual interviews were conducted in a venue that ensured the comfort and privacy of the participants. A private boardroom was used where no or limited disturbances occurred. Another ethical consideration was to ensure that the participants' written, informed consent was obtained prior to their participation in the study (Silverman, 2002). Confidentiality was maintained by ensuring that the data were available only to the researcher. None of the employees at the financial organisations had access to the data. The data were stored at the researcher's office. The participants remained strictly anonymous.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

- **Question 1: What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?**

It was observed that there was a satisfactory consensus among the participants and that they perceive the advantages of diversity management for the employee to be that they learn more about one another (21 participants), there is improved communication among one another (3 participants), they become friends (9 participants), there is trust among the employees (2 participants), there is respect among the employees (2 participants), they are able to work together as a team (7 participants), the employees all have equal opportunities in the organisation (3 participants), there is less stereotyping and discrimination among the employees (6 participants) and they are able to learn new skills from other diverse employees (6 participants). This high level of consensus among the participants satisfies the requirements by Carlile and Christensen (2004) that the first step in model building is that the participants agree significantly on the meaning of the basic concepts and benefits of the inventing in this case diversity management.

- **Question 2: What are the advantages of diversity for the organisation?**

The participants' perceptions of the advantages of diversity management to the organisation are that the organisation is more productive / better client service (15 participants), the organisation is able to achieve its goals (5 participants), there is cohesion among the employees and they are able to work together (10 participants), the organisation has different employees with different ideas and creativity (9 participants), the organisation's service to clients will improve (4 participants) and diversity makes the organisation an interesting environment (2 participants). Evidence obtained from questions 1 and 2 confirms that there is sufficient agreement among the participants regarding the benefits of diversity management (Carlile & Christensen, 2004) and therefore the compiling of a diversity management content model could continue.

- **Question 3: How did the experience of being part of a diverse sports team help you to overcome the diversity constraints in your workplace?**

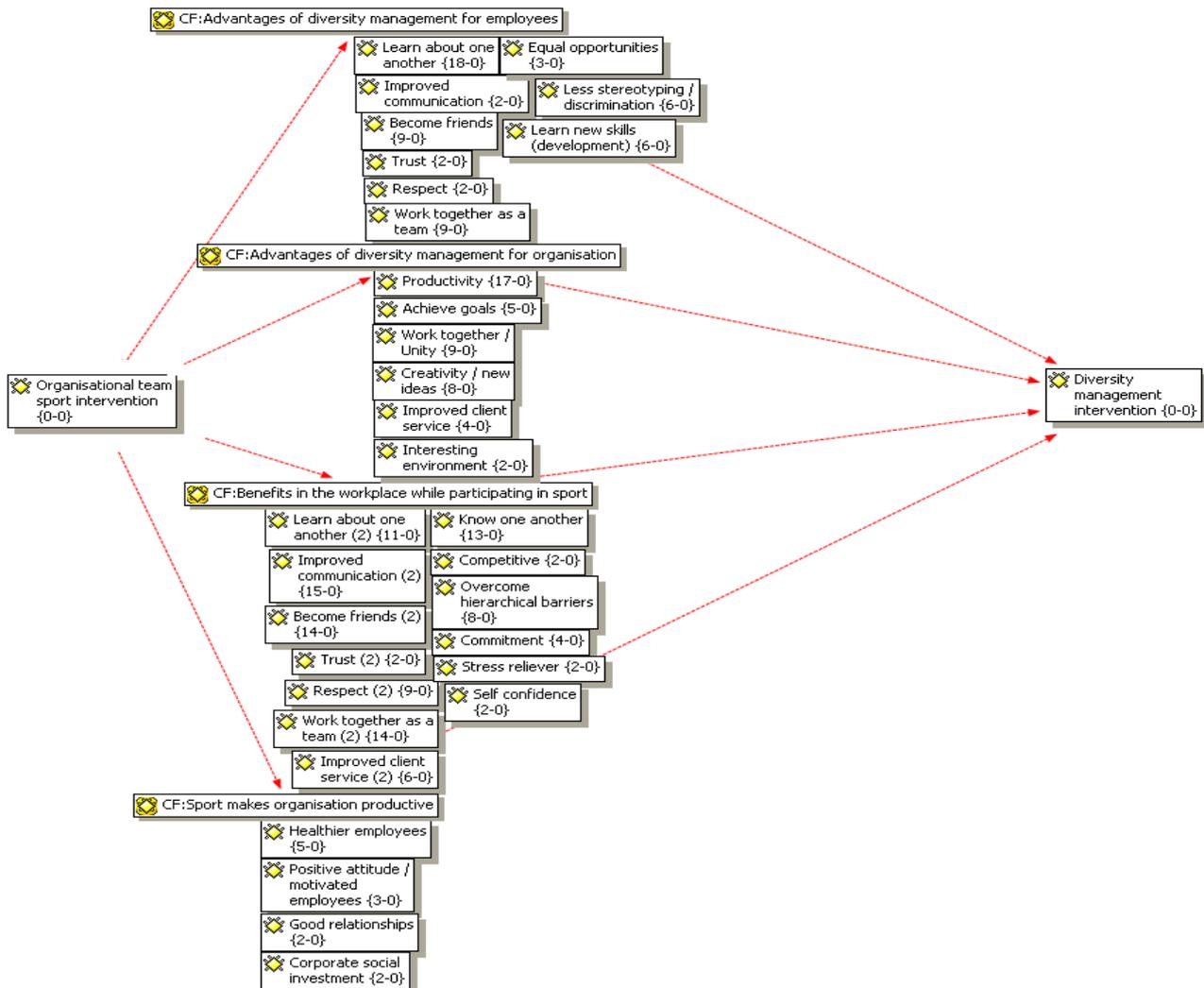
It was clear from the information gathered from the participants that the most important benefits regarding diversity management that emanate from participating in organisational team sport interventions with colleagues are that they have learned about one another (cultures) (11 participants), interpersonal communication has improved (13 participants), they now know more about one another (17 participants), they became friends (15 participants), there is more trust among the participants (3 participants), there is more respect between the participants (8 participants), organisational team sport interventions help them to work together as a team and towards the same goal (16 participants), organisational team sport interventions improves client service in the organisation (7 participants), it learned them to be more competitive (2 participants), they overcame hierarchical barriers (7 participants), there is stronger commitment among the participants (4 participants), sport is a stress-reliever (2 participants) and the participants are more self-confident (2 participants).

There was a noteworthy and significant overlapping between the outcomes of the participants' perceptions regarding diversity management and organisational team sport. The following benefits of organisational team sport interventions (question 2) correspond with the benefits of diversity management interventions identified earlier (question 4): learn about one another, improved communication, become friends, trust, respect and work together as a team.

- **Question 5: In your view, do you think that, when an organisation implements organisational team sport, that it will make the organisation unproductive (loss of work time)?**

It was observed that the organisation gains as follows when participants participate in organisational team sport: the employees are healthier (5 participants), the employees have a more positive attitude and are more motivated (4 participants), the employees have a good relationship among one another (2 participants) and it gives the organisation a corporate social investment (2 participants)

Figure 2: Diversity management model intrinsic in organisational team sport interventions (identified utilising Atlas.ti) *



- * The arrows in figure 2 are connected from organisational team sport interventions to the main categories of experiences (families) and from the main categories of experiences (families) to diversity management intervention.

The Atlas.ti method for content analysis was conducted on the diversity management experiences (outcomes) of employees participating in organisational team sport. From these experiences a generic diversity management model for organisational team sport was constructed. This diversity management model that is intrinsic in organisational team sport interventions is presented as figure 2.

Various 'families' or main groups of diversity management experiences and outcomes were created on Atlas.ti namely (1) advantages of diversity management for employees; (2) advantages of diversity management for organisations; (3) benefits in the workplace while participating in sport; and (4) sport makes an organisation productive.

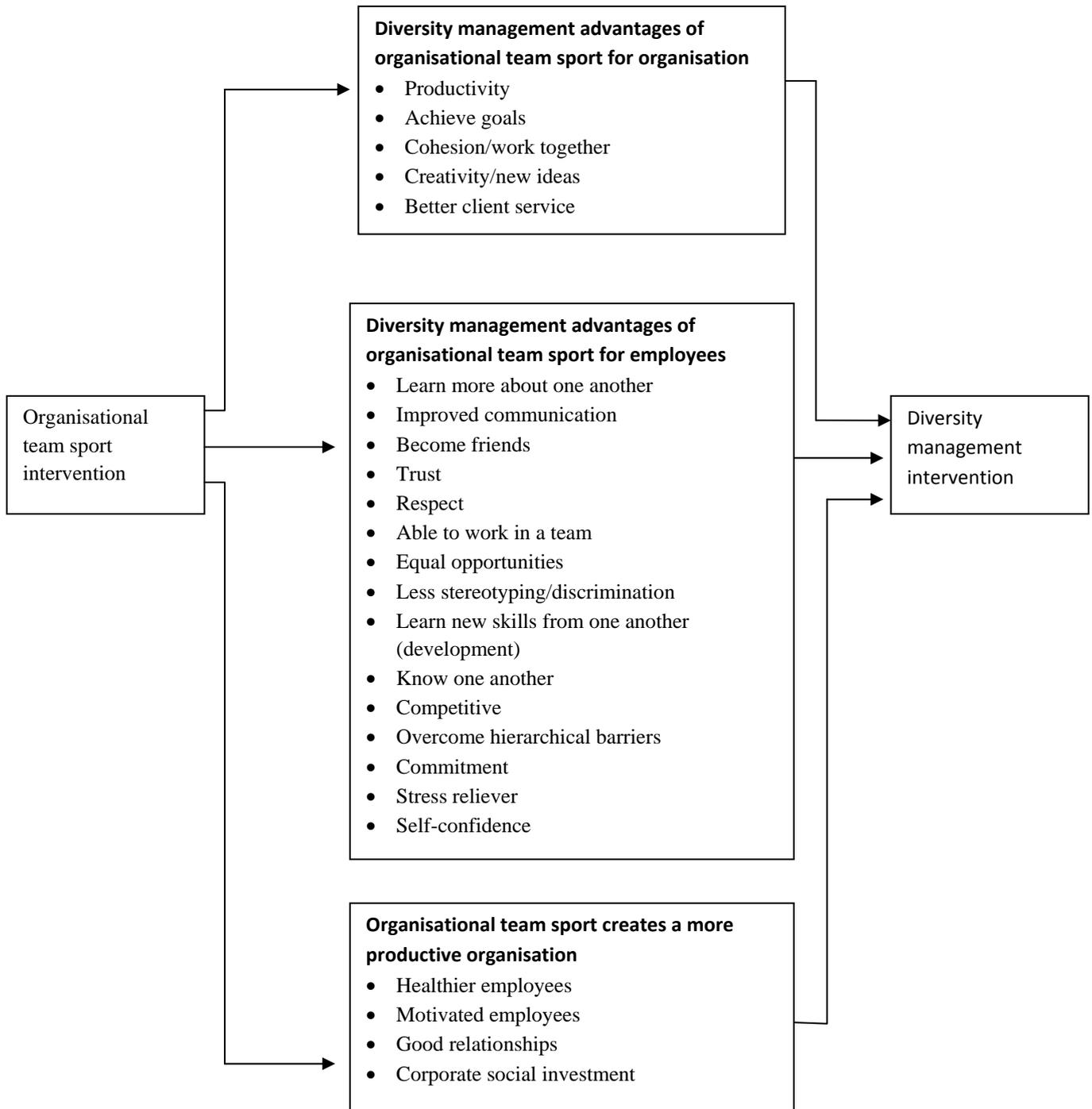
The families consist out of numerous codes or sub-categories. The codes under the main category of experience (family), advantages of diversity management for the employees are: learn about one another, improved communication, become friends, trust, respect and work together as a team. The codes under the main category of experience (family), advantages of diversity management for organisations are: productivity, achieve goals, work together / unity, creativity / new ideas, improved client serviced and interesting environment. The codes under the main category of experience (family), benefits in the workplace while participating in sport are the following codes: learn about one another, improved communication, become friends, trust, respect, work together as a team, improved client service, know one another, competitive, overcome hierarchical barriers, commitment and stress reliever. From the main category of experience (family), sport makes organisation productive the following codes were identified: healthier employees, positive attitude / motivated employees, good relationships and corporate social investment.

The participants' view regarding the benefits that the employees experience from diversity management (questions 2 and 4) and the benefits for the organisation when diversity management is implemented (question 3) were used to create this model. It is concluded that organisational team sport interventions can be applied as an input-output diversity management model where the diversity in an organisation is managed through organisational team sport interventions (input) and will have a positive impact on the diversity constraints and will benefit the employees in an organisation and the organisation (output).

The researcher compiled a revised model (figure 3) which emphasises the simplified input-output nature of the model explicitly, and illustrates the different codes under each main category of experience (family) node. The first column under the main category of experience (family): benefits in the workplace while participating in sport does not appear in this column because it already appeared in the other categories of experiences (families). Figure 3 represents a diversity management model based on organisational team sport interventions (objective 1). When an organisation implements organisational team sport as a diversity management intervention it will benefit the employees as well as the organisation.

Organisational team sport interventions can be used as an input-output diversity management model where the diversity in an organisation can be managed through organisational team sport interventions (input) and will have a positive impact on the diversity constraints and will benefit the employees in an organisation and the organisation (output).

Figure 3: Summarised diversity management model based on organisational team sport interventions



CONCLUSION

The objective of the study reported on in this article was to compile a diversity management content model based on organisational team sport intervention. The experiences of the sport participants and sport coordinators surveyed with regard to the effect that organisational team sport interventions have on diversity management were explored.

The results indicate that organisational team sport interventions hold benefits for the employees as well as the organisation, and these benefits have been mentioned above. When participants participate in sport, or have conversations about sport or even when supporters attend sport events, business relationships can be created. Organisational team sport is therefore a vehicle to create possibilities to share visions and goals, enhance individual commitment, increase cohesion, improve trust and respect between employees, enhance communication in a workforce and increase the employees' knowledge of one another. The contributions that organisational team sport makes to an organisation are all requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace. This study therefore recommends that organisational team sport be used as a diversity management initiative in an organisation.

The focus of this study was on employees who participated in organisational team sport interventions and sport coordinators in nine financial organisations. The researcher interviewed financial organisations in the Gauteng region, South Africa. Several other organisations in other regions should also be considered in further studies.

RECOMMENDATION

Based on the conclusions that were drawn from the findings in this study, recommendations can be made for the implementation of the diversity management content model that is based on organisational team sport interventions as well as the implementation of the process model to implement organisational team sport interventions in an organisation.

Recommendations for further research

The following recommendations can be made for possible to future research:

- The researcher recommends that this research be repeated to include a larger and more diversified sample of organisations nationally.
- It is further recommended that a comparative study which includes international organisations is conducted to investigate the influence of different weather conditions and other diversity constraints (e.g. different organisation cultures) in the working environment.
- A study could be conducted to investigate the relative contribution of different sporting codes to the management of diversity.
- The possibility of conducting a study on other sporting codes in order to accommodate employees older than 35 (e.g. chess, darts, etc) should be explored.

Recommendations regarding the implementation of organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative

The following recommendations can be made about the implementation of organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative:

- The researcher recommends that the implementation model should be used as a guideline to implement organisational team sport interventions.
- It is also recommended that competent sport coordinators be appointed as a priority step to manage the sporting events in the organisation.
- The first step would be for top managers to support sport events financially.

- It is further recommended that the sports coordinator should recruit as many diverse participants for the organisation team sport as possible.

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ANNEXURE A
LETTER OF CONSENT FORM



Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

TITLE OF THE STUDY:

TOWARDS AN ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT INTERVENTION MODEL FOR MANAGING A DIVERSE WORKFORCE

Research conducted by:
Ms. Y.T. Joubert (33144796)
Cell: 082 721 9862

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Yvonne Joubert, a doctoral Industrial Psychology student from the Department Human Resource Management at the University of South Africa.

The purpose of the study is to construct an organisational team sport intervention model for managing a diverse workforce in financial organisations.

Please note the following:

- This study involves an anonymous survey. Your name will not appear in the research and the answers you supply will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person on the basis of your answers.
- Your participation in this study is of vital importance to me. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, Professor J. J. De Beer (072 452 8563) if you have any questions or comments on the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that you

- have read and understand the information provided above
- give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis

Respondent's signature

Date

ANNEXURE B
GUIDED QUESTIONS ASKED DURING
THE FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

1. What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity management”?
2. What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?
3. What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for an organisation?
4. In your experience, what are the constraints in working in a diverse environment (i.e. possible problems in communication, cultural differences, generation gaps, trust, respect, commitment and cohesion)?
5. In your experience, what are the advantages of working in a diverse environment (i.e. different cultures have different ideas or are more innovative)
6. What are your experiences of playing sport in a diverse group (positive/negative)?
7. How did the experience of being part of a diverse sports team help you to minimise the diversity constraints in your workplace?
8. What are the advantages and disadvantages of conversing about sport with customers/clients/colleagues?
9. Based on your experience, what are the actions that organisations can take to implement team sport in an organisation?

ANNEXURE C
GUIDED QUESTIONS ASKED DURING
THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

1. What is your definition or explanation of the word "diversity management"?
2. What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the employees in an organisation?
3. What are the advantages of diversity management interventions for the organisation?
4. In your experience, what are the constraints in working in a diverse environment?
5. In your experience, what are the advantages of working in a diverse environment?
6. What do you think are the positive and negative experiences of the sport participants when playing in a diverse team?
7. What are the advantages and disadvantages of conversing about sport with customers/clients/colleagues?
8. Based on your experience, what are the actions that organisations can take to implement team sport in an organisation?

ANNEXURE D
THEMES AND SUBTHEMES
IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY

Theme 1	Perceptions of diversity management
Subthemes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Definition of diversity management 2. Dimensions of diversity
Theme 2	Advantages of diversity management in an organisation
Subthemes	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advantages of diversity management for the employee 2. Advantages of diversity management for an organisation
Theme 3	Experiences relating to participating in organisational team sport with diverse colleagues
Subtheme	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Advantages of organisational team sport interventions for the participants 2. Conversations about sport in an organisation
Theme 4	Organisation's contribution towards organisational team sport
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Actions by the organisation to support sport activities 2. Actions by the organisation to implement sport activities in an organisation