

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments		ii
Declaration		iii
Abstract/Summary		iv
Key terms		iv
CHAPTER 1: GENERAL INTRODUCTION		1
1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	BACKGROUND	1
1.2.1	Benefits of an effectively managed diverse workforce	1
1.2.2	The disadvantages of a poorly managed diverse workforce	2
1.2.3	Organisational team sport to minimise diversity barriers in an organisation	2
1.2.4	Motivation for the study	4
1.3	PROBLEM STATEMENT	5
1.4	OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	6
1.5	SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS	7
1.6	ASSUMPTIONS	8
1.6.1	Epistemological assumption	8
1.6.2	Ontological assumption	9
1.6.3	Methodological assumption	9
1.6.4	Axiological assumption	10
1.7	RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	11
1.8	THESIS STATEMENT	11
1.9	DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS	11
1.10	THEORY BUILDING	14
1.11	SUMMARY	15
1.12	CHAPTER LAYOUT	15
CHAPTER 2: DIVERSITY IN THE WORKPLACE		17
2.1	INTRODUCTION	17
2.2	EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY	17
2.3	SHIFTS IN THE WAY DIVERSITY IS DEFINED	18

2.4	CONTEXTUAL NATURE OF DIVERSITY	18
2.5	EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF THE WORKPLACE	19
2.6	DIMENSIONS OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY	19
2.6.1	Primary dimensions	20
2.6.2	Secondary dimensions	21
2.7	DIVERSITY IN THE BROADER SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT OR SOCIETY	22
2.7.1	Diversity in the South African context before independence in 1994	22
2.7.2	Diversity in the South African context after independence 1994	24
2.7.3	The South African dream	25
2.8	COMPARISON OF THE NEW WITH THE OLD DIVERSITY MESSAGE	26
2.9	POTENTIAL PROBLEMS OF A DIVERSE WORKFORCE	27
2.10	POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF A DIVERSE WORKFORCE	28
2.11	ORGANISATIONAL EVOLUTION	29
2.12	MOTIVES FOR DIVERSITY	31
2.13	SUMMARY	31
CHAPTER 3: DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT		33
3.1	INTRODUCTION	33
3.2	RELEVANT DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT CONTENT MODELS	33
3.2.1	Early diversity management models	33
3.2.1.1	<i>The proactive-reactive diversity management model (Gary Powell)</i>	34
3.2.1.2	<i>The three-level-typology diversity management model (Taylor Cox)</i>	35
3.2.1.3	<i>The three-stage diversity management model (Roosevelt Thomas)</i>	35
3.2.1.4	<i>The changing demographics diversity management model (Golembiewski)</i>	36
3.2.2	Current diversity management models	37
3.2.2.1	<i>The change model for work on diversity model (Cox)</i>	37
3.2.2.2	<i>The internal-external pressure diversity management model (Cummings & Worley)</i>	39
3.2.2.3	<i>The input-output systems model (Ivancevich & Gilbert)</i>	40
3.2.2.4	<i>The change dynamics model (Allen & Montgomery)</i>	42
3.3	DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PROCES IMPLEMENTATION MODEL	45
3.3.1	The three-stages diversity management process implementation model (Adgars & Kottke)	45
3.3.1.1	<i>Issue identification stage</i>	45
3.3.1.2	<i>The implementation stage</i>	47

3.3.1.3	<i>The maintenance stage</i>	47
3.4	THE IMPORTANCE OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICAN ORGANISATIONS	48
3.5	REQUIREMENTS FOR ATTAINING EFFECTIVE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT	48
3.5.1	Organisations should view their employees as important human beings	49
3.5.2	Team members should share organisational visions	49
3.5.3	Team members should share organisational goals	50
3.5.4	Employees should have high levels of personal commitment to collaborate with employees who are different	51
3.5.5	Employees should have increased mutual employee trust	52
3.5.6	Employees should have mutual increased employee respect	53
3.5.7	Employees should have effective communication	54
3.5.8	Employees should be familiar with other (diverse) groups	56
3.5.8.1	<i>Accepting cultural differences</i>	56
3.5.8.2	<i>Accepting age generation differences</i>	58
3.6	SUMMARY	61
CHAPTER 4: GROUP WORK		63
4.1	INTRODUCTION	63
4.2	TYPOLOGY OF GROUPS	63
4.2.1	Skills-building groups	64
4.2.2	Decision-making groups	64
4.2.3	Informational groups	64
4.2.4	Support groups	64
4.3	STAGES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT	65
4.3.1	Initial stage: resistance	65
4.3.2	Early stage: concerns in the group	65
4.3.3	Other-focus to self-focus stage	66
4.3.4	Trusting stage	67
4.4	THE CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE GROUPS	67
4.5	TRANSFORMING FROM A GROUP TO A TEAM	71
4.6	ACCELERATING THE TRANSITION FROM A GROUP TO A TEAM	72
4.6.1	Target potential employees who are willing to work together	72
4.6.2	Develop a distinct team identity	73

4.6.3	Define the roles of team members	73
4.6.4	Clarify the purpose of the team	73
4.7	SUMMARY	73
CHAPTER 5: WORK TEAMS		75
5.1	INTRODUCTION	75
5.2	TYPOLOGY OF TEAMS	76
5.2.1	Self-managed teams	76
5.2.2	Virtual teams	77
5.2.3	High performance teams	77
5.3	TEAM MODELS	78
5.3.1	Stages of team development model (Tuckman & Jenson)	78
5.3.2	The changing patterns of team development model (Kur)	78
5.3.1.1	<i>Forming</i>	79
5.3.1.2	<i>Storming</i>	79
5.3.1.3	<i>Norming</i>	80
5.3.1.4	<i>Performing</i>	80
5.3.1.5	<i>Adjourning</i>	81
5.3.2	The changing patterns of team development model (Kur)	84
5.3.3	The punctuated equilibrium model (Gersick)	85
5.3.4	The script-enacting model (Dennis, Garfield & Reinicke)	87
5.4	GENERIC COMPETENCIES AND ACTIONS REQUIRED FOR TEAMWORK	88
5.4.1	Task competencies	89
5.4.2	Team maintenance competencies	90
5.4.3	Personal competencies	92
5.5	FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO TEAM SUCCESS	93
5.6	FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO TEAM FAILURES	94
5.7	A DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE OF THE GENERIC ADVANTAGES OF EFFECTIVE WORK TEAMS	96
5.7.1	Work teams create win-win situations	96
5.7.2	Work teams ensure unity	96
5.7.3	Work teams enhances synergy	97
5.7.4	Work teams enhances cohesiveness	97
5.7.5	Work teams increase innovation and problem-solving skills	97

5.7.6	Effective work teams develop positive attitude towards other employee groups	97
5.7.7	Effective work teams increase feelings of uniqueness among employees	97
5.7.8	Effective teams increase two-way communication between diverse employees	98
5.7.9	Effective teams increase creativity among diversity employees	98
5.7.10	Effective teams create a supportive environment in a diverse organisation	98
5.8	A DIVERSITY PERSPECTIVE OF THE SPECIFIC ADVANTAGES OF PARTICIPATION IN A TEAM FOR THE INDIVIDUAL TEAM MEMBERS	98
5.8.1	Belonging	98
5.8.2	Self-worth	99
5.9	A DIVERSITY PERSPECTIVE OF THE DISTINCT ADVANTAGES OF EFFECTIVE TEAM FUNCTIONING FOR THE ORGANISATION	99
5.9.1	Flatter and shorter structures of command in the organisation	99
5.9.2	Improved organisational communication	99
5.9.3	Effective teams enhance organisational development	99
5.9.4	Effective teams improve the adaptability of the organisation	100
5.10	SUMMARY	100
CHAPTER 6: SPORT INTERVENTIONS IN ORGANISATIONS		101
6.1	INTRODUCTION	101
6.2	THE CONTRIBUTION OF SPORT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN SOCIETY	102
6.3	CONTRIBUTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT TO EFFECTIVE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE WORKPLACE	105
6.3.1	Organisational team sport affords diverse employees the opportunity to share common visions and goals	105
6.3.2	Organisational team sport facilitates the development of individual commitment	106
6.3.3	Organisational team sport enhances cohesion in the team	106
6.3.4	Organisational team sport advances mutual trust among employees	107
6.3.5	Organisational team sport enhances the development of mutual respect among employees	108
6.3.6	Organisational team sport improves open communication between employees	108
6.3.7	Participation in organisational team sport improves relationships with other employees	109
6.3.8	Organisational team sport increases self-esteem	111
6.3.9	Organisational team sport participation develops a climate for harmonious diversity culture	111

6.3.10	Summary of the organisational team sport process to improve organisation diversity effectiveness	113
6.4	SIMILARITIES BETWEEN ORGANISATIONAL TEAM SPORT AND ORGANISATIONAL WORK TEAMS	114
6.4.1	Both types of teams integrate competition and cooperation in the team	114
6.4.2	Both types of teams provide opportunities to orchestrate early wins in the team	115
6.4.3	Both types of teams present opportunities for the team to break away from losing streaks	116
6.4.4	Both types of teams allocate time for team practice	117
6.4.5	Both types of teams schedule specific temporal midpoint intervals in the team	118
6.4.6	Both types of teams enhance cohesion between team members	119
6.4.7	Both types of teams create opportunities to analyse progress in team performance	120
6.5	SUMMARY	120
CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS		122
7.1	INTRODUCTION	122
7.2	SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS	122
7.3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	124
7.4	RESEARCH DESIGN	124
7.4.1	Qualitative research features	124
7.4.2	Qualitative research assumptions	125
7.4.3	Rationale for conducting qualitative research	125
7.4.4	Interpretivist design as a qualitative research approach	126
7.4.5	Grounded theory design as a qualitative research approach	127
7.4.6	Content analysis	128
7.4.7	Advantages and disadvantages of a qualitative research approach	129
7.4.8	Study context	130
7.4.9	Descriptive design features	131
7.4.10	Exploratory design features	131
7.5	THE FOCUS OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN	132
7.5.1	Advantages and disadvantages of participating in organisational team sport	132
7.5.2	The actions of organisations to support organisational team sport	132
7.5.3	Implementation of organisational team sport in an organisation	133
7.5.4	The units of analysis	133

7.6	POTENTIAL SOURCES OF BIAS	133
7.7	RESEARCH METHODS	134
7.7.1	Sampling	134
7.7.1.1	<i>Criteria for selecting participants and sport coordinators</i>	135
7.7.1.2	<i>Population</i>	135
7.7.1.3	<i>Sample design and size of participants</i>	135
7.7.2	Negotiation access	136
7.7.3	Data gathering	136
7.7.3.1	<i>Data gathering methods</i>	136
7.7.3.2	<i>Fieldwork</i>	137
7.7.3.3	<i>Focus group interviews</i>	137
7.7.3.4	<i>Individual interviews</i>	139
7.7.3.5	<i>The researcher</i>	140
7.7.3.6	<i>The focus group and interview schedule</i>	141
7.7.3.7	<i>Schedule of guiding questions during the focus group and individual interviews</i>	142
7.7.3.8	<i>Format of questions during the focus group and individual interviews</i>	143
7.7.3.9	<i>Data recording instruments</i>	143
7.7.3.10	<i>Transcription of the tape recordings</i>	144
7.7.4	Data analysis	147
7.7.4.1	<i>Steps 1 – 4 of the research process: the content analysis method of Tesch</i>	147
7.7.4.2	<i>Steps 5 and 6 of the research process: Atlas.ti content analysis method</i>	148
7.7.4.3	<i>The grounded theory structure of Carlile and Christensen (2004) used for the model development</i>	150
7.7.5	Methods to ensure trustworthiness	156
7.7.5.1	<i>Credibility</i>	156
7.7.5.2	<i>Transferability</i>	157
7.7.5.3	<i>Dependability</i>	157
7.7.5.4	<i>Confirmability</i>	158
7.7.6	Truth value	158
7.7.6.1	<i>Prolonged experience</i>	158
7.7.6.2	<i>Reducing the risk of preferred social response</i>	159
7.7.6.3	<i>Avoiding overinvolvement</i>	159
7.7.6.4	<i>Reflexivity</i>	159
7.7.6.5	<i>Bracketing</i>	159
7.7.6.6	<i>Intuiting</i>	160
7.7.6.7	<i>Authority of the research</i>	160

7.7.7	Ethical measures	160
7.7.7.1	<i>Principle of justice</i>	160
7.7.7.2	<i>Principle of beneficence</i>	161
7.7.7.3	<i>Principle of respect for human dignity</i>	162
7.8	SUMMARY	164
CHAPTER 8: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE		165
8.1	INTRODUCTION	165
8.2	GRAPHIC ILLUSTRATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE FOCUS GROUPS AND INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS	171
8.2.1	Overall diversity of participants	171
8.2.2	Diversity variables of the sport coordinators	179
8.2.3	Diversity variables of the netball team (focus group 1)	185
8.2.4	Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 2)	191
8.2.5	Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 3)	199
8.2.6	Diversity variables of the soccer team (focus group 4)	206
8.2.7	Diversity variables of the soccer team (focus group 5)	213
8.2.8	Diversity variables of the volleyball team (focus group 6)	221
8.2.9	Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 7)	229
8.2.10	Diversity variables of the cricket team (focus group 8)	236
8.2.11	Diversity variables of the soccer team (focus group 9)	243
8.3	SUMMARY	250
CHAPTER 9: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION		251
9.1	INTRODUCTION	251
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?	252
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?	253

	RESEARCH PROCESS STEP 2): IS THERE SUFFICIENT AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE PARTICIPANTS ON THE MEANING AND OUTCOMES OF DIVERSITY AND DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT IN THE ORGANISATION?	
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?	325
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?	326
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?	328
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?	328
10.7	STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY	329
10.8	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	330
10.8.1	Limitations relating to the researcher's bias, data collection and analysis	330
10.8.2	Limitations regarding to the implementation of organisational team sport interventions in organisations	330
10.8.3	Limitations regarding to the participating organisation	330
10.9	RECOMMENDATIONS	330
10.9.1	Recommendations for further research	331
10.9.2	Recommendations regarding the implementation of organisational team sport interventions as a diversity management initiative	331
10.10	PERSONAL EXPERIENCES DURING THE STUDY	332
10.11	SUMMARY	332
ARTICLE		
		333
BIBLIOGRAPHY		
		351

LETTER OF CONSENT FORM (ANNEXURE A)	394
GUIDED QUESTIONS ASKED DURING THE FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS (ANNEXURE B)	395
GUIDED QUESTIONS ASKED DURING THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS (ANNEXURE C)	396
THEMES AND SUBTHEMES IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY (ANNEXURE D)	397

LIST OF FIGURES		
Figure 1.1	The process of building theory	14
Figure 2.1	The primary and secondary dimensions of diversity	20
Figure 3.1	The change model for work on diversity model (Cox)	38
Figure 3.2	The internal-external pressure diversity management model (Cummings & Worley)	39
Figure 3.3	The input-output systems model (Invancevich & Gilbert)	41
Figure 3.4	The change dynamics model for diversity management (Allen & Montgomery)	43
Figure 3.5	The complete diversity management implementation model (Adgars & Kottke)	46
Figure 5.1	Stages of team development model	79
Figure 5.2	Change curve as a theoretical construct that affects the team stages development model	82
Figure 5.3	The five changing patterns model	84
Figure 5.4	The script-enacting model	87
Figure 5.5	Competencies and actions required for effective teamwork	88
Figure 6.1	Summary of the organisational team sport process to improve organisational diversity effectiveness	113
Figure 6.2	Impact of competition and cooperation in an organisational sports team	115
Figure 7.1	The process of building theory	152
Figure 8.1	The overall sample: distribution by race	172
Figure 8.2	The overall sample: distribution by age	173
Figure 8.3	The overall sample: distribution by gender	174
Figure 8.4	The overall sample: distribution by language	175
Figure 8.5	The overall sample: distribution by religion	176
Figure 8.6	The overall sample: distribution by marital status	177
Figure 8.7	The overall sample: distribution by the duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation	178
Figure 8.8	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by race	179
Figure 8.9	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by age	180
Figure 8.10	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by gender	181
Figure 8.11	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by language	182
Figure 8.12	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by religion	183
Figure 8.13	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by marital status	184
Figure 8.14	The sample sport coordinators: distribution by the duration of the period as a sport coordinator in the organisation	185

Figure 8.15	The netball team sample: distribution by race (focus group 1)	186
Figure 8.16	The netball team sample: distribution by age (focus group 1)	187
Figure 8.17	The netball team sample: distribution by language (focus group 1)	188
Figure 8.18	The netball team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 1)	189
Figure 8.19	The netball team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 1)	190
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)	191
Figure 8.21	The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 2)	192
Figure 8.22	The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 2)	193
Figure 8.23	The cricket team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 2)	194
Figure 8.24	The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 2)	195
Figure 8.25	The cricket team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 2)	196
Figure 8.26	The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 2)	197
Figure 8.27	The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 2)	198
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)	199
Figure 8.29	The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 3)	200
Figure 8.30	The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 3)	201
Figure 8.31	The cricket team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 3)	202
Figure 8.32	The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 3)	203
Figure 8.33	The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 3)	204
Figure 8.34	The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 3)	205
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)	206
Figure 8.36	The soccer team sample: distribution by race (focus group 4)	207
Figure 8.37	The soccer team sample: distribution by age (focus group 4)	208
Figure 8.38	The soccer team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 4)	209
Figure 8.39	The soccer team sample: distribution by language (focus group 4)	210
Figure 8.40	The soccer team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 4)	211
Figure 8.41	The soccer team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 4)	212
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)	213
Figure 8.43	The soccer team sample: distribution by race (focus group 5)	214
Figure 8.44	The soccer team sample: distribution by age (focus group 5)	215
Figure 8.45	The soccer team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 5)	216
Figure 8.46	The soccer team sample: distribution by language (focus group 5)	217

Figure 8.47	The soccer team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 5)	218
Figure 8.48	The soccer team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 5)	219
Figure 8.49	The soccer team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 5)	220
Figure 8.50	The soccer team sample: distribution by the duration of the period participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 5)	221
Figure 8.51	The volleyball team sample: distribution by race (focus group 6)	222
Figure 8.52	The volleyball team sample: distribution by age (focus group 6)	223
Figure 8.53	The volleyball team sample: distribution by gender (focus group 6)	224
Figure 8.54	The volleyball team sample: distribution by language (focus group 6)	225
Figure 8.55	The volleyball team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 6)	226
Figure 8.56	The volleyball team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 6)	227
Figure 8.57	The volleyball team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 6)	228
Figure 8.58	The volleyball team sample: distribution by the duration of the period participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 6)	229
Figure 8.59	The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 7)	230
Figure 8.60	The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 7)	231
Figure 8.61	The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 7)	232
Figure 8.62	The cricket team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 7)	233
Figure 8.63	The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 7)	234
Figure 8.64	The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 7)	235
Figure 8.65	The cricket team sample: distribution by the duration of the period participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 7)	236
Figure 8.66	The cricket team sample: distribution by race (focus group 8)	237
Figure 8.67	The cricket team sample: distribution by age (focus group 8)	238
Figure 8.68	The cricket team sample: distribution by language (focus group 8)	239
Figure 8.69	The cricket team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 8)	240
Figure 8.70	The cricket team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 8)	241
Figure 8.71	The cricket team sample: distribution by job designation (focus group 8)	242
Figure 8.72	The cricket team sample: distribution by duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation (focus group 8)	243
Figure 8.73	The soccer team sample: distribution by race (focus group 9)	244
Figure 8.74	The soccer team sample: distribution by age (focus group 9)	245
Figure 8.75	The soccer team sample: distribution by language (focus group 9)	246
Figure 8.76	The soccer team sample: distribution by religion (focus group 9)	247
Figure 8.77	The soccer team sample: distribution by marital status (focus group 9)	248
Figure 8.78	A graphic illustration of the sample: distribution by job designation (focus	249

	group 9)	
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)	250
Figure 9.1	Diversity management model intrinsic in organisational team sport interventions (identified utilising Atlas.ti)	297
Figure 9.2	Implementation process model for organisational team sport interventions (after applying the Atlas.ti)	319
Figure 10.1	Summarised diversity management model based on organisational team sport interventions	327
Figure 10.2	Summarised process model to implement organisational team sport in an organisation	329

LIST OF TABLES		
Table 2.1	Comparison of the new and the old diversity message	26
Table 2.2	The multicultural organisational development model	29
Table 3.1	Generation differences at a glance	58
Table 3.2	Generation differences in the workplace	59
Table 4.1	The characteristics of effective groups that enhance cooperation between employees from diverse backgrounds	68
Table 5.1	Characteristics of the punctuated equilibrium model	85
Table 8.1	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 1 (netball team)	165
Table 8.2	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 2 (cricket team)	166
Table 8.3	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 3 (cricket team)	166
Table 8.4	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 4 (soccer team)	167
Table 8.5	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 5 (soccer team)	168
Table 8.6	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 6 (volleyball team)	168
Table 8.7	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 7 (cricket team)	169
Table 8.8	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 8 (cricket team)	169
Table 8.9	Biological characteristics of participants in focus group 9 (soccer team)	170
Table 8.10	Biological characteristics of sport coordinators	171
Table 8.11	Frequency distribution: race profile of the total sample of participants	172
Table 8.12	Frequency distribution: age profile of the total sample of participants	173
Table 8.13	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the total sample of participants	174
Table 8.14	Frequency distribution: language profile of the total sample of participants	174

Table 8.15	Frequency distribution: religious profile of the total sample of participants	176
Table 8.16	Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the total sample of participants	177
Table 8.17	Frequency distribution: duration that the period in which the participants played team sport for the organisation for the total sample of participants	177
Table 8.18	Frequency distribution: race profile of the sport coordinators	179
Table 8.19	Frequency distribution: age profile of the sport coordinators	180
Table 8.20	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the sport coordinators	181
Table 8.21	Frequency distribution: language profile of the sport coordinators	181
Table 8.22	Frequency distribution: religious profile of the sport coordinators	182
Table 8.23	Frequency distribution: marital status of the sport coordinators	183
Table 8.24	Frequency distribution: duration of the period as a sport coordinator in the organisation	184
Table 8.25	Frequency distribution: race profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)	185
Table 8.26	Frequency distribution: age profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)	186
Table 8.27	Frequency distribution: language profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)	187
Table 8.28	Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)	188
Table 8.29	Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the netball team focus group (focus group 1)	189
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	190
Table 8.31	Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)	191
Table 8.32	Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)	192
Table 8.33	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)	193
Table 8.34	Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)	194
Table 8.35	Frequency distribution: religion profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)	195
Table 8.36	Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the cricket team focus group	196

	(focus group 2)	
Table 8.37	Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 2)	197
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	198
Table 8.39	Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)	199
Table 8.40	Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)	200
Table 8.41	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)	201
Table 8.42	Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)	202
Table 8.43	Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)	203
Table 8.44	Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 3)	204
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	205
Table 8.46	Frequency distribution: race profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)	206
Table 8.47	Frequency distribution: age profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)	207
Table 8.48	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)	208
Table 8.49	Frequency distribution: language profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)	209
Table 8.50	Frequency distribution: religion profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)	210
Table 8.51	Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 4)	211
Table 8.52	Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which participants played team sport for the organisation of the fourth soccer team focus group sample	212
Table 8.53	Frequency distribution: race profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	213
Table 8.54	Frequency distribution: age profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	214

	group 5)	
Table 8.55	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	215
Table 8.56	Frequency distribution: language profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	216
Table 8.57	Frequency distribution: religion profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	217
Table 8.58	Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	218
Table 8.59	Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the soccer team focus group (focus group 5)	219
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	220
Table 8.61	Frequency distribution: race profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	221
Table 8.62	Frequency distribution: age profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	222
Table 8.63	Frequency distribution: gender profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	223
Table 8.64	Frequency distribution: language profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	224
Table 8.65	Frequency distribution: religion profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	225
Table 8.66	Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	226
Table 8.67	Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the volleyball team focus group (focus group 6)	227
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	228
Table 8.69	Frequency distribution: race profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)	229
Table 8.70	Frequency distribution: age profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)	230
Table 8.71	Frequency distribution: language profile of the cricket team focus group (focus group 7)	231
Table 8.72	Frequency distribution: religion profile of the cricket team focus group (focus	232

Table 9.2	Reasons why organisations implement diversity management	255
Table 9.3	Dimensions of diversity	258
Table 9.4	Example of dimensions of diversity	259
Table 9.5	Unique dimensions of diversity in the sport teams	259
Table 9.6	Advantages of diversity management for employees	261
Table 9.7	Constraints of diversity for the employees in the organisation	266
Table 9.8	Advantages of diversity management for the organisation	272
Table 9.9	Benefits in the workplace while participating in organisational team sport	279
Table 9.10	Support from other teams and colleagues	290
Table 9.11	Sport events make an organisation more productive	290
Table 9.12	Conversations about sport	293
Table 9.13	Actions by the organisation to encourage sport activities	299
Table 9.14	Employees not playing sport	305
Table 9.15	Actions by the organisation to implement sport activities	306
Table 9.16	Top managements' functions during the implementation of sport interventions	310
Table 9.17	Management's actions to make employees aware of the new sport activities in the organisation	312
Table 9.18	Management's actions to determine employees' interest in sport activities	313
Table 9.19	Job description of a sport coordinator	314
Table 9.20	Organisation is unaware of available sport facilities	316
Table 10.1	Summary of the research process and main conclusions	322

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).

- 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 (Guttmann, 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.

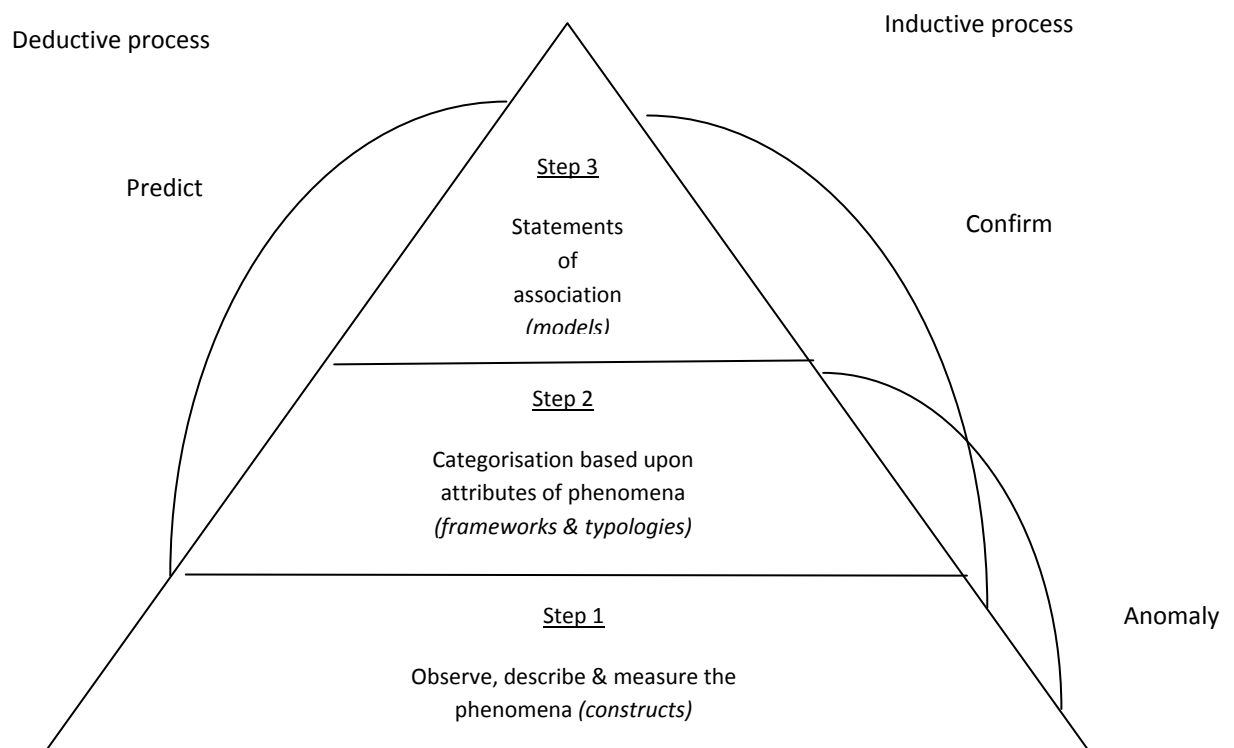
These employees collaborate in order to enhance the value and output of an organisation (Shah, 2010).

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.

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.
-------------------	--------------------

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.

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.
---	---	---

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

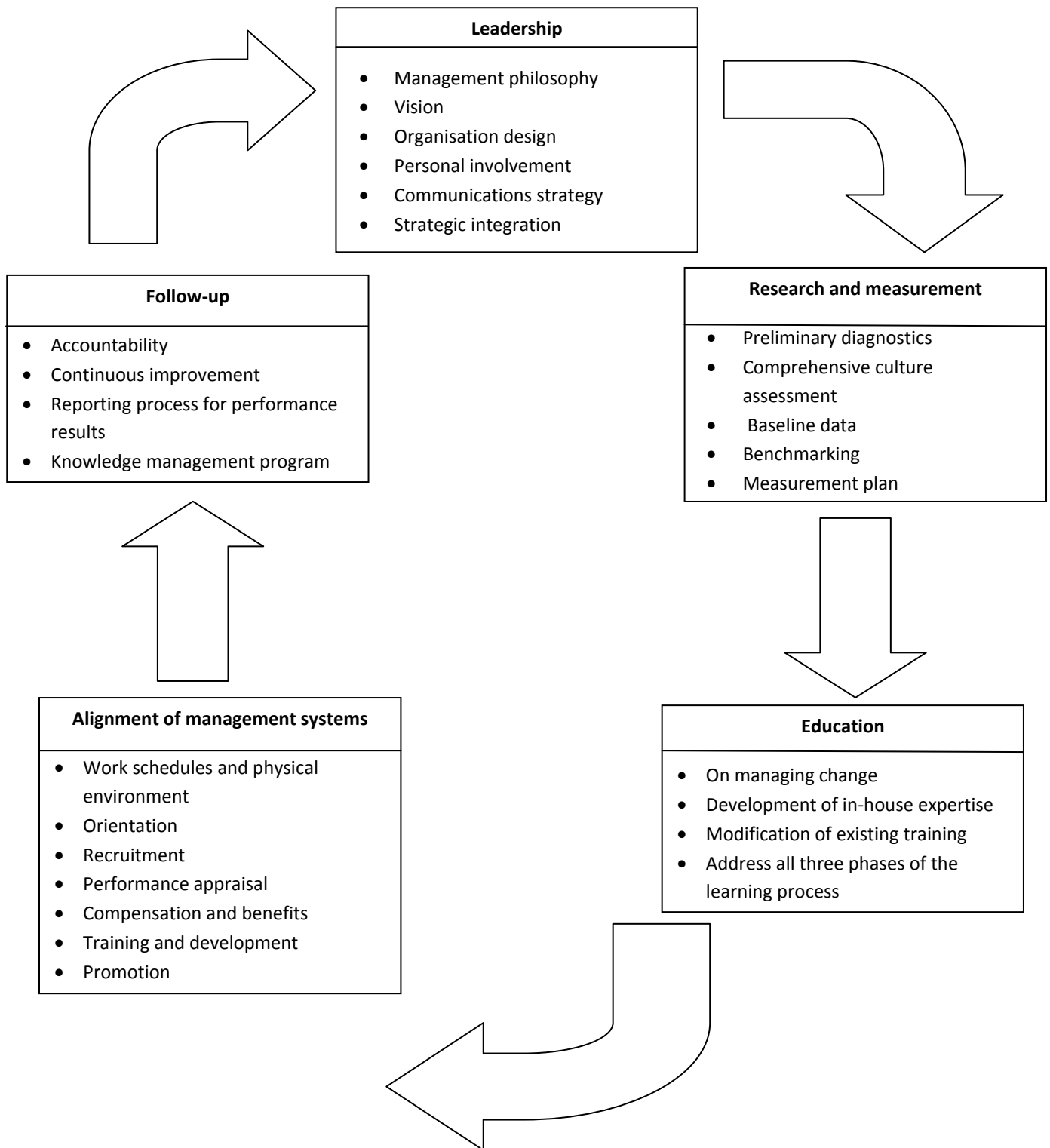
The more contemporary models acknowledge the relevance of the environment, but tend to emphasise organisational development and change more as a prerequisite for diversity management interventions.

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)

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).

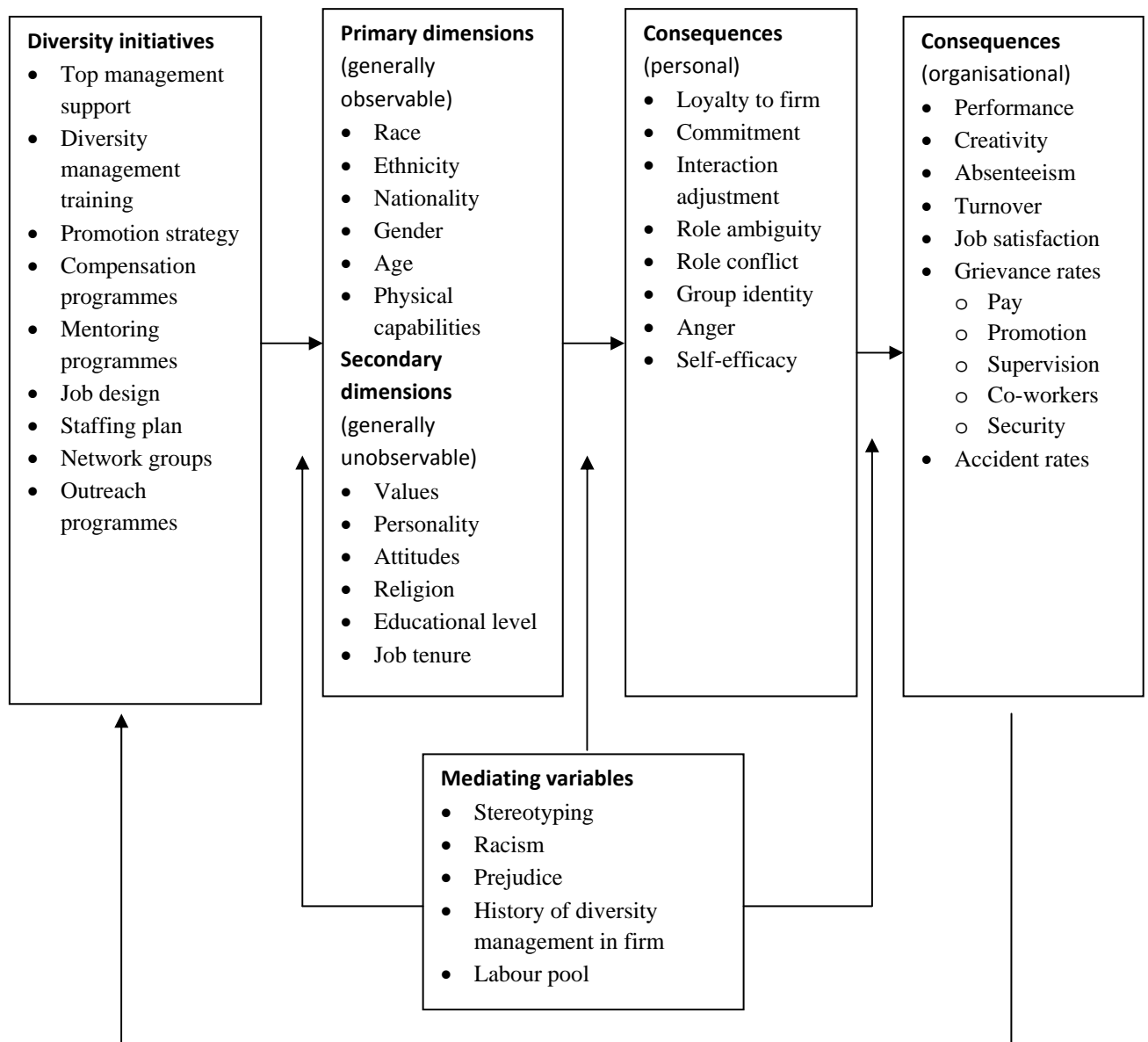
The strategic response to diversity in an organisation may range from reactive to proactive, while the implementation style may range from methodical (implementation occurs consistently) and periodic (implementation occurs in sections). The management of a diverse workforce will be more effective when 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)

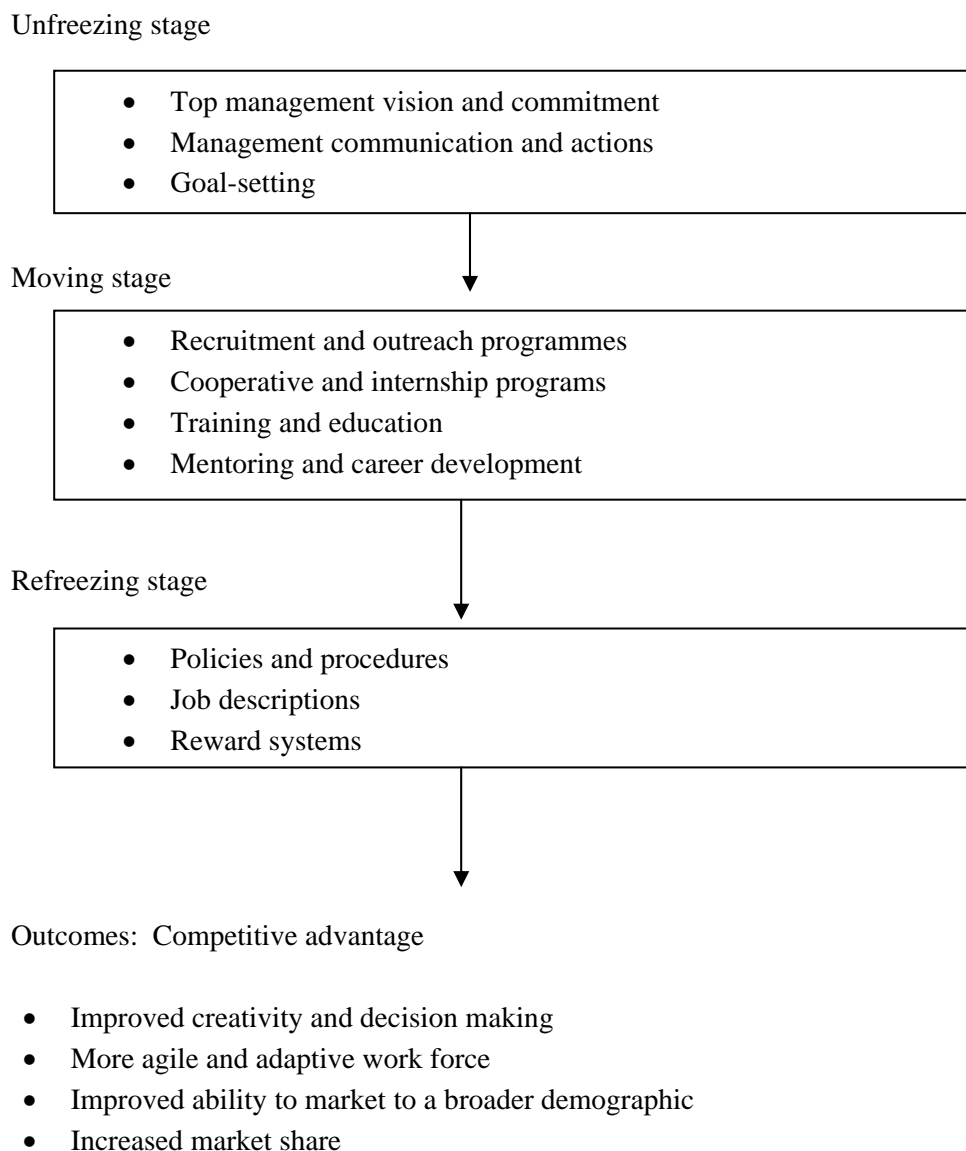
Allen and Montgomery's (2001) change dynamics model is discussed in this study because it emphasises the stages or dimensions of the change during diversity management. The rationale for the model is that diversity management interventions are actually change processes. If an organisation adopts a diversity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

