ORGANISATION TEAM SPORT
INTERVENTIONS TO MINIMISE DIVERSITY
CONSTRAINTS IN THE WORKPLACE

by

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The Centre for Business Management for its financial support

Moya Joubert for language editing
DECLARATION

I, Yvonne Joubert, declare that this dissertation entitled, ORGANISATION TEAM SPORT INTERVENTIONS TO MINIMISE DIVERSITY CONSTRAINTS IN THE WORKPLACE, is my own work, and that all the sources I have used or quoted from have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

____________________
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Student no.: 28583567
ABSTRACT/SUMMARY

The main aim of this study is to explore and determine the effect of an organisation team sport intervention on a number of diversity constraints in two financial organisations. The diversity constraints relevant in this study are race, ethnicity, generation gaps, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, age, physical abilities, religious beliefs, political beliefs, parental status, education and income. The main aim is to determine whether organisation team sport interventions impacted on the participating employees’ relationships, trust and respect towards one another, despite their differences in culture, age, gender and religion. The study was conducted among 26 employees of the two financial organisations that participate in organisation team sport.

The data were collected by means of focus group interviews and individual interviews. The results indicated that a strong bond is established between employees in the organisation during organisation team sport. Employees are encouraged to share information, which leads to increased productivity. Business relationships can be created whilst talking sport, attending sport events or playing sport. The conclusions was made that organisation team sport is therefore a vehicle for creating opportunities to share goals and visions, improving individual commitment, improving cohesion, increasing trust and respect in a workforce, improving communication between employees and enhancing employees’ knowledge of other employees. The contributions that organisation team sport makes to an organisation are all requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace.

KEY TERMS
Diversity, diversity management, organisation team sport, communication, relationship, trust, respect, cohesion, commitment
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1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

1.1.1 The influence of the current recession

Worldwide economic recessions, such as that experienced in 2008/2009, place exceptional strain on organisations, including South African organisations to survive and maintain performance. Against this background, a growing number of South African organisations are introducing organisation team sport as a diversity management intervention.

The latest figures show that about 67 000 jobs were lost in the formal sector in South Africa between April and June 2009. A survey by Stats SA indicates that the workforce declined by 0.8% in the second quarter. This reduces the total number of people employed to an estimated 8.26 million. Employment has decreased by 2.3% annually compared with the figure the same time last year. Thousands of jobs have been lost, mainly in the key mining and manufacturing sectors. The construction sector meanwhile has also reported a reduction in employees (E-News Late Edition 2009). These conditions place a huge strain on organisations to manage the declining workforce more effectively.

In organisations with extremely diverse workforces the challenge is even greater if they do not deliberately and effectively manage their diversity (difference in culture, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, age, physical abilities and religious and political beliefs).

1.1.2 The disadvantages of a poorly managed diverse workforce

South African organisations are known for their cultural diversity, and a large number of official languages. Organisations that fail to manage their diverse workforces effectively often have the following disadvantages (Canham 2008:64; Usowicz 2008:53):

- poor cooperation and teamwork
• a high level of mutual prejudices between groups
• a high level of intercultural and inter-racial conflict
• low morale
• poor communication between different groups
• a lack of trust and respect between co-workers

1.1.3 The advantages of an effectively managed diverse workforce

Organisations need to manage their diverse workforce effectively to enable them to maximise the advantages of this workforce (Jimena 2006:11; Stephen & Mickey 1999; 489):

Keeping employees engaged in a difficult economic environment is a vital but difficult task. When employees are engaged, they perform better and contribute more towards the success of the business.

1.1.4 Motivation for the study

More than a third of an employee’s time is often spent in a stressful environment – the workplace. When employees experience stress in their workshop, it will have a negative effect on production (Vajda 2008:1). The stress can be alleviated when employees treat each other with trust and respect, when employees are committed to their work, they support each other, if good communication emerged between the employees, if employees know and understand each other and when friendships between them are forged. Relationships are necessary for effective teamwork in organisations and will not develop without mutual trust and respect (Edmondson 1999:350; Handler 1991:21).

Formal interventions that are available to organisations to manage their diverse workforces, such as different learning programmes, are expensive and organisations therefore need to initiate more informal and cost-effective interventions, such as sport interventions, to improve and maintain sound, cross-cultural relationships.

When organisational sport interventions are implemented in organisations it could have a positive influence on trust, respect, commitment, communication, support, friendships and employees learn more about each other’s culture and generations.
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the discussion thus far it is apparent that the certain organisations that do in fact implement formal organisational team sport participation do not know whether the specific sport intervention contributes to the diversity management objectives of the organisations.

The main research question is therefore as follows: Does participation in a formal organisation team sport intervention influence the perceptions of a group of participants regarding a number of diversity constraints (i.e. age, race, gender, generation, religious beliefs, sexual orientation, marital status, educational levels and ethnicity)?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

From the above problem statement, the objectives of this study were formulated as follows:

Main objective: To explore the perceptions of a diverse group of employees from two financial institutions on a number of diversity constraints following their participation in a formal organisation sport intervention

Objective 2: To explore the possible influence that organisations team sport intervention may have on employees’ relationships, trust towards and respect for one another

1.4 ASSUMPTIONS

Assumptions are statements that are not tested, but considered to be “true” or relevant to the study. Mouton (1996:123) classifies the assumptions for qualitative research, and the assumptions for this study are thus presented and discussed on the basis of the classification.

1.4.1 Epistemological assumptions

Epistemological assumptions are the researcher’s views on the nature of knowledge and science. The following epistemological assumptions (Mouton 1996:123; Babbie 2007:4) are applicable to this study:
• “Truth” is subjective and depends on the context.
• Cultural knowledge and tradition are perceptions about the truth.
• It is necessary to determine the perceptions of employees when they participate in an organisation team sport.

1.4.2 Ontological assumptions

Ontological assumptions are statements about the nature of the research (Mouton 1996:124; Brink, Van der Walt & Van Rensburg 2006:22). The following ontological assumptions are applicable in this study:

• Humans are complex and experience life in their own way.
• A person’s behaviour and expectations are influenced by his or her culture.

1.4.3 Methodological assumptions

Methodological assumptions refer to the nature of the research process and the most suitable methods to be used (Mouton 1996:124; Babbie 2007:4). The following methodological assumptions are relevant in this study:

• An exploratory design is suitable for this topic because it has not previously been studied from the participants’ perceptions.
• Life experiences and the participants’ perceptions can be studied by observing or communicating with the participants.
• By selecting participants who participate in the experience, the sample will be valid.

1.5 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. Once the diversity constraints have declined, it should enhance diversity competence in the organisation because the diverse sport 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.

1.6 THESIS STATEMENT

A formal organisation team sport intervention introduced in diverse group of employees should reduce the diversity constraints and improve interpersonal relationships, respect and trust in these groups.

1.7 DEFINITIONS OF RELEVANT TERMS

Sport is defined in chapter 4, section 4.2.

- **Intervention.** To intervene means “to get involved, so as to alter an action” (Wordreference.com) or to “come between two events” (Hawkins 1994:271).

For the purposes of this study, sport intervention is therefore involvement which includes sport as a means to minimise the negative influence of diversity constraints in a diverse workforce and which will result in altered 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 (Grobler, Wàrnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield 2002:77).

- **Diversity constraints.** A diversity constraint is an element, subsystem or factor that restricts a project, system or entity (such as a decision-making process) from achieving its goal (BusinessDictionary.com). A constraint can also be defined as “a restriction” (Hawkins 1994:110).
For the purposes of this study, the concept of diversity constraints also involves differences between employees that hinder them to work effectively together and to attain the organisation’s goals.

- *A financial institution.* A financial institution in the context of this study is a Life insurance company whose main business is to provide insurance against death and disability (Asset Financial Review, n.d).

### 1.8 SUMMARY

The goal, purpose, objectives and outline of the research report were elucidated in this chapter. It was indicated that a qualitative research design will be adopted in order to achieve the research objectives. A literature review will follow in chapters 2 and 3.

This research should contribute to the identification of the perceptions and experiences of diverse participant employees in financial organisations that have been exposed to a formal team sport intervention. The findings and recommendations will serve as an information base for future decisions on diversity management and research projects.

### 1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The research report comprises seven chapters.

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<td>This chapter contains a review of books, research reports and journals on the topic.</td>
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<td>Answers to the research questions are provided. Only the statistically significant findings with practical implications are presented. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are outlined.</td>
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2.1 INTRODUCTION

South African organisations have a diverse workforce with differences in age, race, culture, ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, political beliefs and physical abilities. Employees can therefore be likened to diverse trees in an enormous forest in different shapes, colours and sizes (Loden 1996:14).

To enable the researcher to determine the perceptions of a group of employees after the implementation of a formal sport intervention, it is of utmost importance to clarify and discuss the various diversity differences and dimensions of the group.

In this chapter, diversity is therefore defined and explained in context and the different types of diversity dimensions (primary and secondary dimensions) and typologies of diversity discussed.

2.2 DEFINITION OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY

Employee diversity worldwide refers to the study of all characteristics that make employees different from and similar to one another. Most employees think that diversity and inclusion only have to do with race and gender, but everyone has different diversity dimensions (characteristics) (Miller 2008:2).

Different dimensions do not refer only to race and language but may also include values and norms (Trenka 2006:1). Every employee is unique, which explains why the world has immeasurable diversity. There are certain differences that are more important than others because they pose more challenges in developing mutual respect and trust in the organisation.

Employees are distinguishable from one another through biological and environmental differences. Diversity is the difference in employees’ dimensions that varies from teams to

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

## 2.3 EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY IN THE CONTEXT OF THE WORKPLACE

Workplace diversity has changed over the years and today’s workforce is more diverse than ever before. In 1987, almost 80% of the South African workforce population consisted of white males, while from 2000, white males constituted only 20% of it (Bazile-Jones 1996:9).

If employees from diverse organisations strive to work together towards a common goal and there is trust and respect between them, despite their differences, this will give the organisation a competitive advantage over other organisations whose employees are unable to work together because of prejudices and stereotyping (Illes & Moores 1995:44; Trenka 2006:1).

Many employees adopt an overly defensive attitude towards employees who are different from themselves. This is especially true in issues relating to cultural differences. These issues often result in misunderstanding, resentment, distrust and conflict between team members (Day 2008:1). According to Floyd (Sheridan 1994:2), diverse teams often underperform compared with homogeneous teams, because team members are unable to identify with and appreciate other team members.

It is therefore apparent that the expanding diversity in the South African workforce needs to be managed effectively to maximise the strengths of all employees and to give the organisation a competitive advantage. In chapter 3, the management of diversity will be discussed to indicate how an organisation can contribute towards its success.

Owing to diversity, the South African workforce is often characterised by its adversarial relationships, apparent lack of employee motivation and commitment towards organisational goals, absence of trust and respect between employees and teams and low levels of quality, customer service, productivity and profitability (Thomas & Robertshaw 1999:3).
Through diversity management (which will be discussed in chapter 3) organisations in South Africa are able to manage diversity in the workplace that will enhance relationships, commitment and motivation towards organisational goals, trust and respect between diverse employees that improve quality and customer service, productivity and profitability.

2.4 DIMENSIONS OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY

Grobler, Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert & Hatfield (2006:77) and Wellner (2000:23) distinguish as follows between the primary and secondary dimensions of employee diversity:

**Figure 2.1: The primary and secondary dimensions of diversity**

Source: (Grobler et al. 2006:77; Loden 1996:14; Kreitner & Kinicki 1995:55)
Even though employees share important dimensions, there are environmental and biological differences that distinguish them from one another. These dimensions are therefore categorised and discussed as the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity (Wellner 2000:23).

### 2.4.1 Primary dimensions

Primary dimensions are often genetically determined or unchangeable and dominant in their differences (Sacht 2001:1; Kreitner & Kinicki 1995:55). People are usually identified by their primary dimensions of diversity which are readily visible (Grobler et al. 2006:76; Carrel, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx & Van der Schyf 1998:51).

Grobler et al. (2006:77) distinguish the following primary dimensions of diversity:

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

According to Pomeroy (2006:14), visible diversity or the primary dimensions of diversity can have a negative effect on a team in the workplace. The primary dimensions of diversity inadvertently result in employees developing prejudices and stereotyping towards one another (Kreitner & Kinicki 1995:56). This leads to a workforce that is unable to achieve its goals since there are misunderstandings, distrust and lack of respect between the employees.

When employees are able to minimise these prejudices and stereotyping through training, the primary dimensions of diversity cue a team because team members know how to accept different opinions. The cuing, for example, will increase the team’s ability to handle conflict because employees expect different views or conflict in diverse employee settings (Pomeroy 2006:14).
2.4.2 Secondary dimensions

The secondary dimensions of diversity are usually attitudes and perceptions caused by previous diversity-related experiences (Grobler et al. 2006:76; Sacht 2001:1; Kreitner & Kinicki 1995:56).

Secondary dimensions help to shape expectations, experiences and values (Ruderman, Hughes-James & Jackson 1996:35) and can be changed (Loden et al. 1991:18). Since dimensions can be modified, discarded or acquired, the influence of secondary dimensions of diversity on workplace behaviour is more unpredictable than that of primary dimensions (Carrel et al. 1998:54).

These dimensions of diversity include but are not limited to the following (Grobler et al. 2006:76; Wellner 2000:24; Leach, George, Jackson & Labella 1995:42):

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

Because secondary dimensions are often less visible and more mutable and variable in the amount of influence they have on a person’s life (Loden 1996:17), they also have an impact on the employee’s self-definition and self-esteem.

Primary and secondary dimensions interact to help develop the unique person – the integrated and synergistic whole (Loden 1996:19). Both dimensions help to shape a person’s identity.
2.5 THE NEW DIVERSITY MESSAGE COMPARED TO THE OLD DIVERSITY MESSAGE

Organisations and markets are in the midst of dramatic change. Businesses have to stay ahead of the game. The diversity message has also changed over the years. Table 2.1 depicts the new diversity message compared to the old diversity message:

**Table 2.1: The new diversity message compared to the old diversity message**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The old diversity message</th>
<th>The new diversity message</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Refers to ‘problem’ groups of ‘outsiders’ who want a better chance in the main game.</td>
<td>Diversity is a productive resource and working with diversity a core business competency.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appears to involve looking after the special interests of some groups at the expense of others.</td>
<td>Managing diversity is for everybody, a matter of professionalism and top job performance in today’s business environment. This is a message that appeals to everyone’s self interest.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity refers to women, migrants, Aboriginal people, disabled people – sorted into relatively neat interest groups.</td>
<td>Diversity refers to relationships between all staff and clients, in which the groups are not so neatly defined.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A compliance approach: EEO, affirmative action and anti-discrimination measures that often produce a culture of resistance.</td>
<td>Managing diversity is a matter of core business planning: e.g. audits and staff profiles of cultural breadth of the organisation, benchmarked over time against profile of market potentials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>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’.</td>
<td>The best corporate cultures are dynamic, open and welcoming of the productive dynamics produced by diversity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teams are based on shared values, identical vision – a simplification of the potentially great variety of cultures within a team, forced to lowest common denominator in the work</td>
<td>Organisations at the competitive edge are as culturally complex as the markets they serve. Core team competencies include responsiveness, flexibility, adaptability and</td>
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</table>
2.6 TYPOLOGY OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY

There are three levels of typology, namely monolithic, pluralistic and multicultural which will be explained below (Stockdale & Crosby 2004:58; Allen & Montgomery 2001:150):

- A monolithic organisation consists of a large majority group (usually white males). Minority groups are also present in these organisations, but they have to conform to the values and norms of the majority group.

- A pluralistic organisation is more diverse than a monolithic organisation, because the organisation makes a special effort to select and promote the minority employees. Sometimes the organisation develops minority mentoring programmes or affirmative action programmes to advance a pluralistic organisation. Unfortunately, the integration and acceptance of the minority employees in the workgroup is still unsatisfactory in the pluralistic organisation.

- The multicultural organisations value diversity and are representative through many cultures. These organisations are also willing to incorporate the norms and values of the minority group. Different viewpoints are created, which induce a unique multicultural culture in the organisation that enhances teamwork. Multicultural organisations can manage multicultural teams and fast-changing markets effectively. Hence these organisations utilise multiculturism as a benefit and use it to gain a competitive edge.

2.7 POTENTIAL PROBLEMS OF A DIVERSE WORKFORCE

Although diversity in an organisation holds potential performance advantages, it is clear that a diverse workforce is not without its problems. Diversity reduces group cohesiveness because employees are more attracted to and comfortable around similar group members (Cox 1994:
According to Ziller (1973) cited in Cox (1994), there are three possible reasons for this phenomenon:

- Diverse employees may lead to lower cohesiveness due to status congruence. An example is when a woman is a manager it may present status incongruity for some individuals who are accustomed to male managers.

- Perceived similarity increases attraction, which in turn, enhances cohesiveness. This is reflected in the closeness of the workforce.

- Employees tend to seek homogeneity in groups in order to facilitate social comparisons, which they rely on to conduct self-evaluations. Conducting social comparisons are more reliable when group members are similar thereby avoiding cultural diversity.

According to Steiner (1972), cited in Cox (1994) language or communication is another possible constraint that affects the diverse workforce. Other constraints can include high costs, increased uncertainty and dysfunctional problem solving. By ensuring diverse competence through training and diversity management, many of the abovementioned constraints can be counteracted (White 1999:478).

The potential of employees cannot be optimized if diversity is ignored and left unmanaged. An inability to benefit from this potential asset will lead to decreased productivity. When interpersonal skills and work relationships are not nurtured, a domino effect will be seen in the following areas: teamwork, professional communication and productivity which are imperative if organisations want to remain competitive. The effects of not understanding and considering diversity will be seen in misunderstandings, adverse decision-making and weak performance indicators (Goessl, n.d).

### 2.8 POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF A DIVERSE WORKFORCE

The meaning of multiculturalism is when employees develop multicultural competencies. The focus is on understanding cultural differences, incorporate a cohesive value system that respects the differences in people. In short, multiculturalism is to accept and appreciate
different cultures in the workplace and work together to create a positive, inclusive work environment and foster productive employee relationships (Rosado 1996:9).

Diversity in the workplace means that employees have the knowledge, awareness, attitudes and skills that will enable them to interact respectfully and successfully with employees who have different backgrounds, viewpoints and values (Connerly & Pedersen 2005:6). The benefits of diversity in a workplace are: more effective work execution, a diverse collection of skills and experiences, higher productivity and an increase in the bottom-line due to the higher resulting return on investment.

When cultural awareness broadens the mind, communication will be facilitated and employees are helped to achieve cultural empathy and sensitivity (Tomlinson 2001:5; Rosado 2006:4). Diversity competence in the workplace is important for decision-making. It can improve the leader’s decision-making ability by accounting for the many different ways that culture influences different perceptions of the same solution (Connerly & Pedersen 2005:7).

### 2.9 SUMMARY

It is clear from the discussion in this chapter that employees differ from one another. It is therefore essential for managers to know which diversity dimensions will impact negatively on the organisation and how to inspire and manage the diverse workforce (Bär, Niessen & Ruenzi 2007:2; Miller 1994:1; Hodson 1993:1). Diversity is becoming the business catchword, and it is not because organisations are becoming more humane towards minority groups, but because organisations need to survive and prosper (Elmuti 1996:1).

For the purpose of this study, workforce diversity refers to all the primary and secondary diversity dimensions that may impact negatively on the functioning of the diverse workforce. If diversity is not managed effectively, both the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity create negative prejudices and stereotypes in the organisation.

Historically, the cultural and racial differences between South African employees have had the most negative impact on the cooperation between and the productivity of employees.
The current implementation of affirmative action and employment equity legislation by South African organisations is increasing workforce diversity, especially with regard to race, gender and disability. This is also true of organisations in which the research was conducted.

If employee diversity in an organisation is not managed and employees cannot work together in harmony, the organisation will suffer severe financial losses. Chapter 3 discusses diversity management.
3.1 INTRODUCTION

The constantly increasing employee diversity in South African organisations (chapter 2 section 2.4) often has a negative influence on the cooperation and productivity of organisations if they are not managed effectively. Organisations therefore need to manage their diverse workforces more effectively (Bergh & Theron, 1999:286).

This chapter defines diversity management and discusses models of diversity management. Important requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace are also highlighted.

3.2 DEFINITION OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Diversity management 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 organisations competitive and strategic advantage (Grobler et al. 2002:50).

According to Human and Bowmaker-Falconer (1992:28), managing diversity is the process whereby differences are acknowledged through actions. It requires hard work and a huge effort on the part of managers to create systems and an organisational culture in which diverse people can express themselves, grow and develop. These efforts will lead to increased productivity and profit.

From these definitions, and for the purposes of this study, one can infer that diversity management entails planned processes developed to enable a diverse workforce to contribute to the organisation’s success.
3.3 RELEVANT MODELS OF DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

According to Invancevich and Gilbert (2000:75), many theories and models of diversity management have been developed and are acknowledged by a growing number of training specialists, chief executive officers, academics and diversity consultants. Because the emphasis in this study is not on the different models of diversity management, but on the possible influence of an organisation team sport intervention on diversity constraints, only three important diversity management models were selected for discussion. The reason why each model is included as a preferred model, will be discussed in the subsections below.

3.3.1 The internal-external pressure diversity management model

Cummings and Worley (2001:430) developed a general model for managing diversity in the organisation. This model was included as a preferred model because it is a general model involving the key functions of management. The practitioner can determine how the diversity in the organisation must be managed. The model is graphically represented in figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1: The internal-external pressure diversity management model

Source: Cummings & Worley (2001:430)
This model suggests that an organisation’s diversity approach is a function of external and internal pressures, for and against diversity. Organisational performance is improved when employee diversity is used as an opportunity. Unfortunately, employee diversity is often discouraged by employees who fear that too many beliefs, perspectives, attitudes and values weaken concerted action.

Management’s perspectives and priorities towards diversity can range from marginal to strategic perspectives and resistance to active learning. For example, by only implementing legal mandated policies, for example, equal employment and affirmative action opportunities, organisations can resist diversity. When a learning and strategic approach is followed, it will change the diversity in the organisation into a source of competitive advantage.

The organisation’s strategic responses can range from proactive to reactive. Lastly, the organisation’s implementation style can range from periodic (implementation occurs in sections) to methodical (implementation occurs consistently). Diversity in an organisation will be most effective when the implementation style and the strategic responses tie in with management’s planned internal and external pressures.

Many organisations in South Africa implement affirmative action and employment equity legislation but, as discussed above, this is not enough to minimise the diversity constraints. When organisation team sport is implemented in South African organisations, the diversity constraints can be changed to a source of competitive advantage.

### 3.3.2 The input-output model

Invancevich and Gilbert (2000:75) developed an input-output diversity management model that describes how diversity initiatives have an influence on organisational and personal outcomes. It was decided to include Invancevich and Gilbert’s model (2000:75) as a preferred model for discussion, because it fits in with the research methodology of the study. It supports the study’s research methodology because organisation team sport is a management intervention (input) which may have an influence on the diversity constraints (output). This model is represented in figure 3.2 below.
The above model indicates that diversity management initiatives (inputs) such as support from top management, training in diversity management, implementation of promotion strategies, implementation of compensation and mentoring and outreach programmes will influence personal consequences that include the employees’ loyalty towards the organisation, higher commitment, a decrease in anger and closer group identity. The diversity management initiatives are shown to have a positive impact on the personal consequences that include increased loyalty to the firm, higher commitment, a decrease in anger and closer group identity. The model also highlights the importance of diversity initiatives such as support from top management, diversity management training, promotion strategy, compensation programmes, mentoring programmes, job design, staffing plan, network groups and outreach programmes. The consequences of these initiatives are shown to have a positive impact on personal consequences such as increased loyalty to the firm, higher commitment, a decrease in anger and closer group identity. The model also highlights the positive impact of diversity initiatives on organisational consequences such as increased performance, creativity, absenteeism, turnover, job satisfaction and grievance rates. The model also highlights the importance of mediating variables such as stereotyping, racism, prejudice and history of diversity management in the firm. Overall, the model provides a comprehensive view of the impact of diversity management initiatives on both personal and organisational consequences.
initiatives (inputs) should also lead to organisational consequences such as increased creativity, a decrease in absenteeism and turnover, higher levels of job satisfaction and better performance.

The model (table 3.2) further indicates that the surface-level (primary dimensions such as differences in employees’ race, ethnicity, nationality, gender, age and physical capabilities) and deep-level (secondary dimensions such as differences in the employees’ values, personality, attitudes, religion, educational, level and job tenure) contribute as input diversity variables. Diversity management, the organisation’s history, racism, prejudice and stereotyping act as mediating input variables.

Until more high-quality empirical studies are conducted, organisations will have to rely on the contributions of consultants, the literature and intuition to make judgments on how to continue with diversity management initiatives (Ivancevich & Gilbert 2000:77).

Ivancevich and Gilbert’s (2000) model suggests that when organisation team sport is implemented by an organisation to minimise diversity constraints, it will have a positive influence on both personal and organisational consequences that will improve the organisation’s competitive advantage.

3.3.3 The change dynamics model

The change dynamics model (Allen & Montgomery 2001:154) is presented in this study as a preferred model because it emphasises the change process dimension of diversity management.

For an organisation to adopt diversity initiatives, it needs to change. Lewin-Schein (in Allen & Montgomery 2001:155) developed a change model that organisations can apply when implementing diversity practices. This model, presented as figure 3.3, consists of three stages, namely unfreezing, moving and refreezing (Allen & Montgomery 2001:154).
Figure 3.3: The change dynamics model for diversity management

Unfreezing stage

- Top management vision and commitment
- Management communication and actions
- Goal-setting

Moving stage

- Recruitment and outreach programs
- Co-op and internship programs
- Training and education
- Mentoring and career development

Refreezing stage

- Policies and procedures
- Job descriptions
- Reward systems

Competitive advantage outcomes

- Improved creativity and decision making
- More agile and adaptive work force
- Improved ability to market to a broader demographic
- Increased market share


The unfreezing stage occurs when the environment, such as the diversity environment, changes and forces the organisation to change. The organisation needs to overcome the forces that resist change. Something important such as noncompliance with the national employment equity requirements may be the reason for an organisation to unfreeze. It could
also be a realisation in the organisation that increased diversity is necessary to give it a competitive advantage. Management intervention is crucial during this stage and they begin the process by unfreezing the existing culture. This is achieved by dedicating sufficient resources and changing the systems in which the culture operates. The steering committee is responsible for implementation and it needs to oversee and guide the diversity plan.

Once the first step towards changing the culture has been taken, the organisation goes through several follow-up stages to effect a complete cultural change. During the second or moving stage, programmes such as recruitment, outreach, internship, educational and training, career development and mentoring are implemented. It starts by including the underrepresented minority group, by recruiting, say from the schools or regions where they are present. Advertisements in newsletters that the minority groups read are another possible strategy to recruit employees from the designated groups.

Diversity training in which employees become aware of diversity and differences is often defective because management expects an immediate change in the employees’ behaviour after the training. Employees can resist change because the training made them uncomfortable and tensions exist between colleagues. The organisation therefore needs to go first through the unfreezing stage during which the employees become psychologically ready for the change. During the first stage, a safety zone is created. Thereafter the education and training initiatives will be more effective. Members start to understand the potential payoffs and importance of diversity. New minority groups are recruited, selected and promoted. The organisation begins to value differences and find new ways of problem solving.

The refreezing stage is the final crucial stage in which an organisation intends to gain the most benefits from diversity. During this stage, the organisation needs to ensure that the changes are institutionalised. The organisation’s rewards system, policies and procedures must be in line with the new organisational culture. If this final stage is not in place, the organisation runs the risk going back to the previous culture. This stage begins by reviewing existing policies and procedures, making sure that they support the new organisational culture of diversity. The reward system needs to value diversity.

Once the organisation has successfully implemented all the stages explained above, it will gain a competitive advantage that is vital in the 21st century. Research has shown the diversity can
provide the benefits of keeping and increasing market shares, the company saves costs because of reduced turnover and absenteeism, increased innovation and productivity and the quality of management is improved. A diverse organisation can achieve a competitive advantage in the everchanging world of work (Allen & Montgomery 2001:159).

The change dynamics model thus explains the behavioural change process the organisation must implement to successfully manage diversity.

3.4 SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS TO ACHIEVE OVERALL EFFECTIVE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

Many different requirements need to be met in the organisation to achieve effective diversity management. The following are some of the main requirements that management have to satisfy:

- an organisational policy of viewing employees as valuable human beings
- sharing organisational goals and visions
- a high level of personal commitment on the part of every employee to cooperate with employees who are different
- high levels of interpersonal and intergroup trust
- high levels of interpersonal and intergroup respect
- effective communication
- knowledge of other groups, where employees learn and understand differences such as language, race, age, generation gaps, religious beliefs and gender among their co-workers

All these important requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace are discussed below.

3.4.1 An organisational policy of viewing employees as valuable human beings

The most important asset in an organisation is not its buildings or its financial capital, but its employees, because the money-making circle starts at the employee in an organisation (Molyneaux 2007:24; Blachard 2009:1; Kaplan-Williams 2009:1).
During recessions, many companies try to curtail costs by reducing their employees’ salaries, lunch treats, bonuses and training. Although many experts agree that the most valuable asset in an organisation is its employees, organisations perceive their employees to be dispensable during rough and hard economic times. When organisations are trying to cut immediate costs by cutting down employees’ salaries and fringe benefits it is often forgotten that this could result in high turnover that is actually more costly in the long run (Parker 2008:23). These cost-cutting efforts can damage employee morale, especially in times when organisations need motivated employees to carry the organisation through rough and difficult times. Organisations believe that the remaining staff are thankful that they have a job and that they will put extra effort into their work. The converse is in fact true – employees are disillusioned by their employer and may consequently suffer from anxiety and stress, which are regarded as performance inhibitors (Wilkinson 2009:36).

Negative stereotyping by the organisation that employees are not valuable tends to limit employees’ potential. Employees perform according to the expectations that the organisation has of them. If the colleagues’ stereotyping is that the employee is incapable, that employee will not perform capably. This stereotyping of employees who are different from other employees results in prejudice. When diversity management initiatives are implemented, they will change the employees’ attitude towards other employees who are different. Their knowledge about these employees will change this stereotyping and prejudice into greater trust and respect. When a team is in a trusting relationship, the members of the team value the input of the others and allow them to do their work.

### 3.4.2 Sharing organisational goals and visions

For a diverse team to succeed, it must have shared achievable goals that unite team members and which they can discuss and must agree upon (Solomon 1998:2). One of the main obstacles to overcoming diversity constraints in an organisation is to ensure that shared or common achievable goals are set.

Diversity constraints cannot be minimised if the shared goals are unrealistic, which happens in two ways: (1) setting goals that are not appropriate to the organisation; and (2) setting goals that are unobtainable in terms of the timeframe or scope. Another mistake that organisations
make in goal setting is that they attempt to move too far too fast. When it is impossible for work teams to achieve the goals, the programme is criticised and the teams become discouraged (Thiederman 2003:1).

Each team member needs to reduce his or her own cultural identity to that of the entire team by accepting superordinate goals based on common interest (Gwynne 2009:68). According to Huling (2006:54), the secret is to work more as a team and less as an individual. However, it is not true that there is no “I” in a team - the synergy of a team does bring unexpected outcomes, but if it were not for the loyalty and ability of the employees who work together as a team, the results would not be so lunar.

A shared vision can be described as a reality that still needs to come into existence – in other words, it gives the employees in an organisation an idea about the future. It also gives an organisation a purpose to exist. It is not a dream. The organisation’s vision needs to be clear to employees so that the confidence in and dedication towards the organisation’s vision are so intense, that they are willing to work long hours over long years in order to fulfil the vision. A vision should impel employees towards an action.

Organisations with no progressive, shared vision have a traditional work style. Such organisations are unable to grow because they do not change their structures and ideas that give the organisation a competitive advantage. Organisations with a progressive, shared vision realise that improvements and changes are always necessary (Snyder & Graves 1994:1).

A shared, progressive vision is essential for an organisation. When such a vision is constantly present, it moves all the employees forward and inspires them, despite the possibility of facing difficulties. It can turn the stereotyped organisation into a harmonious matrix in which everyone works towards a mutual goal (Snyder & Graves 1994:2).

When all the employees in an organisation understand its shared vision and buy into it, they try to accomplish it. Each employee is aware of what can be obtained in the future, and is willing to live with doubt in the short term because he or she can visualise what can and will be accomplished in the long term.
Stephen Covey did a study on generation gaps between employees and found that the main challenge to minimise constraints in diverse teams is that the team members have the same shared vision, mission and values. The team first needs to develop the ability to communicate and listen to the team members with empathy, and then build their shared vision, mission and values (Covey 2006:1).

From the above it is clear that achievable goals must be set and that the shared visions need to be clear to employees. They need to reduce their own personal needs so that they can work together towards a common goal and fulfil the organisational vision.

### 3.4.3 A high level of personal commitment of every employee to cooperate with employees who are different

According to Bassett-Jones (2005:169) every employee needs to commit to cooperating with employees who are different so that diversity management can succeed in the organisation. If there is no personal commitment, diversity may create conflict, misunderstandings and suspicion in the workplace that can result in low morale, absenteeism and loss of production. Organisations that can facilitate personal commitment among their employees through diversity management initiatives will give themselves a basis for competitive advantage (Bassett-Jones 2005:169; Nieman & Bennett 2002:332).

According to Cashmore (2003:65), employees are personally committed to strategic diversity goals when they emphasise these goals and limit their personal freedom to act to the contrary.

A person will be committed to a group when:

- His or her fundamental rights such as the right to privacy, dignity, freedom of speech are fulfilled;
- He or she perceives no conflict between his or her own needs and the organisation’s needs;
- He or she cannot fulfil his or her needs somewhere else (Cooper 1974:1).

Homogenous groups tend to be more cohesive than diverse groups because a lack of similarity in culture, language and background among members in the group contributes to
lower group cohesiveness. This can negatively influence teamwork and work performance (Nieman & Bennett 2002:332). It is not easy to manage a diverse team because employees bring different needs, values and behaviours to the workplace. Differences in an organisation can become a foundation for conflict. It is therefore important to mould diverse work teams into cohesive groups to ensure that differences in race, sex, colour, culture and age give an organisation the competitive edge (Hodson 1993:3).

3.4.4 High levels of interpersonal and intergroup trust

Trust is enormously powerful during diversity management. Employees will not do their best during diversity management initiatives unless they believe that they can trust one another. Misunderstandings, conflict and suspicion between employees are often caused by distrust and will prevent the organisation from having a competitive advantage.

Interpersonal and intergroup trust is at an all-time low in today’s organisations and this has serious implications for effective diversity management and consequently for workers’ engagement, turnover, financial vitality and productivity in organisations. Distrust has a negative effect on diversity management, because it weakens the morale of employees, which will lower the integrity of the employee who associates him or her with a team working towards a common goal. Employees withhold their commitment and enthusiasm when there is no trust. When employees feel that their needs are not adhered to, they tend not to extend their trust (Wilson 2009:50; Nieman & Bennett 2002:334).

If an employee is not trusted by other employees and every piece of work he or she has done needs to be checked by the manager or a co-worker, many extra hours are spent checking his or her work and numerous opportunities are lost. If an employee is not engaged in the company, it will cost the company a lot of money (Wilson 2009:50; Wells & Kipnis 2001:593).

Companies cannot simply put diverse employees together in one team and think that the organisation will be a success. The team members need to trust one another before the team can be regarded as an effective team. When team members trust one another, they will treat one another as equals. For instance, employees with a different accent are normally regarded as less qualified, older employees are assumed to be less creative, workers with disabilities are assumed to be less capable. A diverse team should be cautious not to stereotype, which
is a form of distrust, for instance, “Indians usually act like this in specific situations” or “Women normally act like this in certain situations”. The whole team could deteriorate into a group of name-calling, typecasting, finger-pointing and distrusting employees (Caudron 1994:1).

For any team to be successful the members need to build on trust. When a team is in a trusting relationship, the members value one another’s input and allow one another to do their work (Tallia, Lanham, McDaniel & Crabtree 2006:2).

Trust becomes more prominent and relevant when it is absent from relationships. It is the mortar that keeps an organisation and its employees together and is seen as the foundation necessary to move an organisation forward during diversity management (Wilson 2009:51).

3.4.5 High levels of interpersonal and intergroup respect

Interpersonal and intergroup respect between employees is another vital requirement for diversity management, because diverse employees might find it difficult to respect other employees who are different because of numerous reasons for example lack of understanding another culture (Tehrani 2005:1). Therefore, if diversity is not managed, the organisation is unable to reach its goals.

High levels of respect are important for building solid relationships during diversity management initiatives. Employees respect co-workers who live and work according to an acceptable set of values, are competent in their work, keep their promises and fulfil their obligations. Then again, employees lose respect for co-workers who do not abide by one or more of the above factors – the greater the violation, the greater the loss of respect (Ratliff & Brackner 1998:39).

Respectful interactions are sympathetic, tactful and honest. When diverse employees treat one another with respect, they value one another’s differences and views and will change their own views in reaction to what others say. In challenging situations, respect is crucial because employees work together to solve problems (Tallia et al. 2006:2).

When employees perceive that they are not being treated with respect, they will feel that they are not part of the group and will not work towards their full potential. During diversity
management initiatives, every employee is creative and innovative to help the organisation succeed.

Much of one’s self-respect and sense of worth and identity are determined by how effective one is in the workplace and how one’s colleagues and managers perceive one. Having said this, never before has the job environment been less worker friendly towards employees. Deunionisation, downsizing, competition, outsourcing and changes in technology have changed the workplace to one of the most insecure parts of people’s lives. Tension is created when employees work with co-workers who do not treat them with respect (Berger 2009:18).

Respect is therefore the foundation of all relationships between diverse employees. It is imperative that during the first interaction, employees treat one another in such a way that they feel valued (MacLaughlin Frandsen 2009:57).

3.4.6 Effective communication

When employees are diverse, effective communication is important. Different cultures have different tendencies and assumptions during face-to-face interactions, and it is difficult for cross-cultural employees to communicate their views effectively. Even when language barriers do not exist, cross-cultural communication is a huge challenge during diversity management. Diverse employees need to ensure that their views are communicated effectively during diversity management, to avoid misunderstandings and miscommunication (Nieman & Bennett 2002:332).

South Africa is known for its diversity in cultures, 11 languages and different religions. English is the most commonly spoken language in South Africa, despite the fact that it is the fifth most spoken home language. One of the most relevant diversity constraints in South African organisations is communication (Thiederman 1996:3).

Ineffective communication is increasing because of the escalation in employee diversity among employees. The situation is characterised by confusion and conflict in the workplace. Most communication difficulties have their origin in different points of view and cultural languages. The team members need time to become accustomed to one another. Diverse teams must be
aware of language difficulties and the different ways in which diverse team members speak (Trenka 2006:4; Thiederman 1996:1).

Inaccuracies, misunderstandings, slowness and inefficiencies are the usual communication problems experienced in a diverse group. Team members often assume that other team members understand the message, but when the other team members do not understand the message, the result will be communication breakdown (Nieman & Bennett 2002:332).

If team members cannot communicate and listen with empathy and synergy they will be unable to build a mutual vision, mission and values (Covey 2006:1). According to Covey (2006:1), synergistic communication and listening with empathy, where employees have respect for other employees’ differences, is out of the employees’ comfort zone and competency. If the members of a team in the organisation are able to leave their comfort zone and communicate and listen with empathy and synergy to other diverse team members, they will have a positive influence during diversity management.

Employees need to have an open mind when listening to co-workers, value their input and find ways to implement their values in practice that will appreciate the different contributions and views of all employees. This approach will steer the organisation towards a successful diversity management initiative (Jayne 2008:1).

Communication increases employees’ knowledge about different cultures. It helps employees understand that different cultures have different behaviours. If employees are aware of the differences and understand them, distrust between them will disappear and they will be more aware of the different cultures’ creativity and innovation (Day 2008:2).

In conclusion, open communication must be promoted and encouraged during diversity management, so that an inclusive culture can be created in a diverse workforce. All the different departments in the organisation need to be aware that they can have their say about any diversity concerns without negative consequences and managers should be aware of the diversity issues to enable them to address any areas of concern.
3.4.7 Knowledge of other groups

Knowledge of other groups is a requirement for the effective management of diversity because diverse groups need to understand one another before they can work together as a successful diverse group. Distrust, misunderstandings and miscommunication are inevitable when employees have no knowledge and do not understand their diverse group members.

3.4.7.1 Understanding the differences in culture

Bowing, not bowing, shaking hands, kissing on a person’s cheek or smiling? These appear to be small gestures, but the success of diversity management may depend on them. Almost every employee in an organisation comes from a different background and that can have a severe impact on diversity management. When an employee is not familiar with the group’s culture, this could lead to embarrassment, misunderstanding and frustration that will have a negative effect on the organisation’s success (Daiana; n.d.:1).

It is therefore imperative that employees understand cultural differences in the organisation. Almost every South African organisation has a diverse workforce, and it is common for organisations to do business with Indian, Asian, English or African clients daily. What seems to be quite unimportant to a European person may be seem highly offensive to an Asian person, for example, having pork or beef on the menu during a business lunch, which could offend other diverse nationalities (Smith; n.d.:1).

It takes much time to really get to know and understand an employee. Not only the period of contact but also the kind of association with each employee is important - for example, diverse employees working together for years but having an conversation and interacting with one another on a few occasions only (Tan 2006:1). Diversity management teaches us that difference needs to be valued. Work teams need to remember that different cultures are unique and will be best served by learning from other cultures (Thiederman 2003:2).

If diverse teams do not make the effort to get to know one another, the team will probably fail. Members need to understand and realise that other team members are different and unique.
They can use this understanding to advance an environment that increases the vision for personal growth and productivity (Solomon 1998:2; Sheridan 1994:2). Ignoring or avoiding the existence of cultural influences builds neither a sense of belonging nor esteem, and will invariably create conflict (Nieman & Bennett 2002:338).

One example to illustrate the importance of team members getting to know one another happened at Exxon Chemical in Baytown. An intelligent Asian female engineer was appointed in the company, but found herself trapped in her cultural norms and beliefs. According to the Asian cultural beliefs, the women keep quiet until everybody has finished speaking and they roll their words seven times on the tongue before speaking, to ensure that they are not offensive in any way.

The Baytown plant had a different communication culture in meetings, and the Asian woman therefore seldom had an opportunity to make any sort of contribution in meetings. Because of her culture she felt a failure in her professional responsibilities, but she participated like the other team members, she would be in conflict with her own cultural beliefs.

Once the other members in the team had become aware of her dilemma they changed their method of communication. They now make an effort to give her enough time to talk. The company now has a high-performing Asian woman who feels part of the time because of the changes the company made.

This is but one example of how cultural differences can affect employees’ behaviour and how they relate to one another. The way in which employees interact with co-workers can have an impact on the successful management of diversity (Sheridan 1994:2).

3.4.7.2 Understanding the differences between age generations

Understanding the different age generations is another key requirement for effective diversity management because modern society has a great deal of age bias (Aker 2009:46). The generation gaps in an organisation can contribute to miscommunication, misunderstanding, loss of productivity and conflict. However, when generation gaps are bridged, it can improve mutual understanding and communication and will give an organisation the competitive edge.
In a report released by Randstad USA World of Work (Casison 2008), effective communication between different generations is limited. A survey of nearly 3,500 adults revealed that 51% of baby boomers (44 – 62 years of age) and 66% of older workers confirmed that they had almost no communication with younger colleagues. A lack of communication has a negative effect on diversity management. When open communication channels between different generations are established, it can provide clarity instead of confusion between employees (Casison 2008:46).

There are four types of generations namely: traditionalists (born between 1925 and 1942), baby boomers (born between 1943 and 1960), generation X (born between 1961 and 1981) and generation Y (born between 1982 and 2002). There are also cuspers who are born at the end of one generation or at the beginning of the next (Bernstein, Alexander & Alexander 2008:17).

**Table 3.1: Generation differences at a glance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>Born between</th>
<th>Personalities</th>
<th>Stereotyped as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditionalists</td>
<td>1925 – 1942</td>
<td>Dedicated, hardworking, prefer rules and authority, traditional and conservative</td>
<td>Behind the time, old fashioned, autocratic and inflexible, change and risk reluctant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baby Boomers</td>
<td>1943 – 1960</td>
<td>Optimistic, team players, youthful, competitive</td>
<td>Unrealistic, self-centered, power-driven, political and workaholic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generation X</td>
<td>1961 – 1981</td>
<td>Balance work/family life; realistic, self-reliant</td>
<td>Self-centered, loafers, impatient, pessimistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generation Y</td>
<td>1982 – 2002</td>
<td>Multitasking, seeking fun, fast pace, technological ability</td>
<td>Spoiled, technology dependent, disrespectful, short concentration span</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Bernstein *et al.* (2008:18)
Generational diversity exists between employees, suppliers, customers and clients. Differences in generations influence working relationships, approaches to work, expectations, values and success.

**Table 3.2: Generational differences in the workplace**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Traditionalists</th>
<th>Baby Boomers</th>
<th>Generation X</th>
<th>Generation Y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work style</strong></td>
<td>By the book; rigid</td>
<td>Work needs to be done, doesn't matter if it takes nights and weekends</td>
<td>Find short cuts towards results</td>
<td>Work until deadlines – it is not necessary to make schedules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Authority</strong></td>
<td>Command/control. Does not question authority</td>
<td>Respect for achievement and power</td>
<td>Flexible rules and teamwork are important</td>
<td>Value autonomy. Does not incline to pursue formal leadership positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication</strong></td>
<td>Through proper and formal channels</td>
<td>Semi-formal and through structured channels</td>
<td>Direct and casual. Sometimes cynical</td>
<td>Direct and casual. Eager to do favours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognition</strong></td>
<td>Compensation for good work and personal acknowledgement</td>
<td>Career advancement and public acknowledgment</td>
<td>Fair benefits; needs time off as reward</td>
<td>Public and individual praise; opportunity to develop new abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work / family</strong></td>
<td>Work and family are kept separate</td>
<td>Work is more important than family</td>
<td>Balance between work and life</td>
<td>Combine personal life into work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loyalty</strong></td>
<td>To an organisation</td>
<td>To the importance and meaning of work</td>
<td>To their own career goals</td>
<td>To team members who are involved in the project</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Technology**

| “If it is not broken, it doesn’t need to be fixed” | It is necessary for growth | Practical tools to complete tasks | There is nothing more important than technology |

**Source:** Aker (2009:47).

Effectively management of a multigenerational workplace requires organisations and individuals who are willing to take responsibility, encourage respect and explore differences to work towards a mutual goal and find common ground (Bernstein et al. 2008:22). This could increase collaboration, morale and worker productivity. The value of a multigenerational workforce should not be underestimated. It can be used to gain a competitive edge for an organisation (Aker 2009:48).

To conclude this section, it is necessary to emphasise that organisations need to recognise, respond and manage generation differences and use them for the organisation’s foundation of success. This contributes towards new ways of communication, learning and working to organisations. Loss of productivity, ineffective team work and unsatisfied customers are the end results of organisations not being able to recognise, respond to and manage generation differences.

### 3.5 SUMMARY

Effective management of diversity requires implementing of Cumings and Worley’s (2001:430) model for managing diversity in the organisation; the input-output model for managing diversity (Ivancevich & Gilbert 2000:78) and the change dynamics model developed by Lewin-Schein (Allen & Montgomery 2001:155).

The following specific requirements or conditions need to be facilitated to manage diversity effectively:

- an organisational culture that views employees as valuable human beings
- sharing organisational goals and visions
- high levels of personal commitment of every employee to cooperate with employees who are different
• high levels of interpersonal and intergroup trust
• high levels of interpersonal and intergroup respect
• effective communication
• knowledge of other groups, where employees learn and understand the differences such as language, race, age, differences between generations, religious beliefs and gender in their co-workers

These requirements may seem to be easy to satisfy, but this is not always so. When they are met, implemented and nurtured through effective diversity management, this increases the organisation chances of success.

When an organisation is able to manage diversity effectively, employee diversity can contribute towards an organisational culture that is more tolerant towards different norms. This in turn can lead to productivity and business success because employees work together as a team (Trenka 2006:4).

Organisations generally wish to hire the best team. However, some managers are afraid of diverse teams and tend to hire employees only from a specific background, which results in a lack of diversity. Highly competitive companies experience many changes and need teams that are resilient, flexible and determined (Smith 2008:2). Different cultural influences, perspectives and minds in an organisation, will lead to a more effective and universal product. Every idea must be considered during brainstorming so that better ideas can emerge (Purohit 2008:2).

Chapter 4 will deal with the management of diversity through organisation team sport interventions, where team sport is used as a vehicle to minimise diversity constraints in the organisation.
4.1 INTRODUCTION

There is a growing tendency for organisations to utilise formal organisation team sport interventions to advance teamwork and other diversity management goals. Because organisation team sport involves bringing together diverse employees to aspire towards a common goal (winning), it facilitates the following conditions:

- improved awareness of employees from different (other) backgrounds;
- improved culture of cooperation and sound work relationships;
- mutual respect and trust among participants;
- improved personal commitment (see also section 4.4)

According to Plunkett Research Ltd. (2005:1), sport has different meanings to different people:

- Sport can be a venue for gambling, for instance, at the Durban July where people put money on the horse they think will win.
- Sport is used as a mode of personal fitness and recreation for instance working out at the local gym.
- To businesspeople sport can lead to a growing marketplace where investments are made.
- To sportsmen and –women it can result in personal achievement and success.
- To professional sportsmen and -women it can bring fortune and fame such as the current cricket captain who is famous because he leads the South African Cricket Team (the Proteas).
- To local governments and developers, sport events can be used to obtain revenue from local fans and tourists, as in the 2010 Soccer World Cup, for instance.
In this chapter, organisation sport is defined and sport is discussed in the context of employee diversity. The contributions of sport to effective diversity management will be indicated, for instance, that it creates opportunities to share goals and visions, improves individual commitment, cohesion, trust and respect, communication and enhances employees' knowledge of other employees. The chapter will also explain the contribution of organisation sport in creating an amicable diversity culture and present important case studies to confirm the positive impact of organisation sport on diversity management. The chapter will conclude with a summary to provide an overall perspective of the chapter.

4.2 DEFINITION OF ORGANISATION SPORT

Guttmann (1988:13) describes the requirements of sport as follows: sport calls for some kind of morality because fair play and rules, as well as reasonable challenges, are essential. It also calls for competition. Sport is physical. Some sports are more physical than others, and exercise and fitness are therefore related to sport.

Sport is defined as a human activity capable of achieving results that require physical skill and/or exertion, which, by its organisation and nature, is competitive and is accepted as being a sport (Chalmers 2002:22).

For the purposes of this research, the emphasis with regard to sport is on the following: the unifying influence of attaining a common goal through close cooperation between participants, sharing responsibility and mutual gaining of knowledge of other cultures in a relaxed atmosphere.

An organisation is defined as a group of employees deliberately organised to accomplish an overall common goal or various goals (McNamara 1997:1).

The Business Dictionary (BusinessDictionary.com Anon:n.d.) also defines an organisation as a social arrangement of employees, systematically managed and arranged to meet a need or achieve common goals on a continuing basis. Organisations have a management structure that determines the relationship between positions and functions, delegates and subdivides roles, authority and responsibilities to perform tasks. Organisations are open systems that are affected by the environment outside their boundaries.
From the above discussion of the definitions of sport and organisations one can conclude that organisation sport is a specific induced activity of employees designed for them working together in one organisation to achieve common goals and participate together in team sport.

4.3 SPORT IN THE CONTEXT OF EMPLOYEE DIVERSITY

Nowadays, people from all cultures are vigorously involved in sport, and both spectators and participants find a remarkable amount of satisfaction in sport, especially in rugby, cricket and soccer. Becoming involved in sport affords people the opportunity to learn about various cultures as well as businesses (Johnson 2008:1).

According to McLeod, a basketball fanatic, sport cuts through every difference, be it ethnic, religious, gender, age or culture. There is no better way to build bridges to minimise diverse constraints (Andrews 2007:1).

Sport has its own section in almost every newspaper, which is indicative of its importance in the Southern communities. It is a perfect icebreaker in many organisations, especially when diverse teams have no other common ground. Most men follow sport closely and passionately. Women do not follow every game or know every player but are likely to know who won the Super 14 Rugby Series or the Twenty20 Cricket Series (Johnson 2008:1).

Regardless of the fact that sport has numerous health advantages, it also has significant social advantages. Studies have shown that a person’s participation in sport can enhance his or her self-confidence. Social integration, social interaction and equality are encouraged when people belong to a team or group. Sport can help overcome discrimination and ignorance (Maruhn 2004:1).

If employees are healthier and happier, employers see the results in increased productivity and higher quality of work. Sport has the ability to filter aggressive and violent behaviours because participants are able to “let off steam” (Maruhn 2004:1).
4.4 CONTRIBUTIONS OF SPORT TO EFFECTIVE DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

The contributions that sport makes to effective diversity management in an organisation are as follows:

- organisational team sport participation affords people opportunities to share goals and visions (Cashmore 2003:126)
- organisational team sport participation improves individual commitment (Cashmore 2003:66)
- organisational team sport participation improves cohesion in a team (Cashmore 2003:59)
- organisational team sport participation improves mutual trust among employees (Kortex 2006:1)
- organisational team sport participation improves mutual respect among employees (Downs 2009:1)
- organisational team sport participation improves inter-employee communication (Carrigg 2007:1)
- organisation team sport participation enhances employees’ interpersonal knowledge of other employees (Muleskinner 2003:1)
- organisational team sport participation creates an amicable diversity culture (Posten 1998:324)

All of these contributions towards an effective diversity management in an organisation, will be discussed below.

4.4.1 Organisational team sport participation creates opportunities to share goals and visions

Organisational sport 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.
The process of goal setting usually starts with the lowest goal and works upwards until the highest goal is attained. Limited and realistic goals must be set which can lead to further objectives that will enable a team to achieve its goals effectively (Cashmore 2003:126).

The attainment of shared goals through team sport has the following benefits for the organisation (Cashmore 2003:126):

- it develops mutual trust among team members. This happens because the continuous attainment of shared goals facilitates the realisation among team members that they can rely on one another;
- it develops positive attitudes that encourage employees to work harder;
- it contributes towards a team player’s overall success and satisfaction in his or her work.

Gradual and small improvements in a team work better when goals are set. Former Olympic hurdler David Hemery (1991:54), explained how he achieved his goal by improving his time by hundredths of a second.

4.4.2 Organisational team sport participation improves individual commitment

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 examples improving certain skills, whether it is to be present for training, to abstain abstinence from other non-related activities (Cashmore 2003:66).

When participants are motivated in their team, it improves the level of commitment that they are prepared to make (Cashmore 2003:66). These motivations include the following:

- support from other team members which helps participants to do their best
- specific goal setting in the team; when teams are committed, they will achieve their goals regardless of whether they are difficult or easy to attain.
Commitment requires participants to arrange their behaviour according to a specific programme, for example, to a prescribed exercise and diet which requires sacrifice (Cashmore 2003:85).

Team players also need to work together to beat other teams, in the same way as work together in an organisation to become more competitive. If a single player plays in a team sport against another full team, the single player will definitely lose. To enable him to win, the player needs the other team players (Business-Building Information:n.d.).

4.4.3 Organisational team sport participation improves cohesion in a team

Cohesion is formed through the tendency for a team to bond and stay united in search for the team’s goals and purposes. Cohesion does not simply happen - it has to be developed and maintained. Cohesiveness in teams is obtained through the following (Cashmore 2003; 59 – 60):

- Situational factors such as distinctiveness from other teams. A case in point is the team dressing in a particular uniform or a unique ritual such as the New Zealand rugby team’s haka before every game.

- Personal factors such as loyalty towards the team. For example, a participant attends all the training sessions and is on time before every game.

- Leadership factors. According to Carron (1982:133) a democratic leadership style works more effectively than an autocratic leadership style in order to improve cohesion.

- Team factors such as the role each team member plays. For instance, each team player knows what is expected of him or her specifically, and cooperates to realise the goals that have been set.

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 united unit, which will be more effective in pursuing common goals. Becoming a team player does not mean losing or suppressing one’s
personality, but having “one-ness” in the team, as opposed to power of one individual (Cashmore 2003:60).

Team cohesiveness is a dynamic process that reflects the tendency of a group of people to stay united in their search for common goals and objectives. Cohesiveness is associated with a team’s togetherness, be it on or off the field. According to Jowell (2004:1–16); culture and sport can both be used to build community cohesion. Activities such as football afford people opportunities to come together and participate in community life. These activities also break down barriers between groups with different and diverse backgrounds.

Jowell (2004) goes on to explain that a community is cohesive when there is a common goal and vision, a sense of belonging and strong relationships are developed between diverse people in neighbourhoods, schools and workplace.

4.4.4 Organisational team sport participation improves mutual trust among employees

Participation in organisation team sport contributes to the effective management of diversity because it increases employees’ mutual respect.

When team members participate in a sport 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 among the team members (Kortex 2006:1). According to Muleskinner (2003:1), if diverse employees participate together as a team they soon recognise the unimportance of their obsession with differences.

4.4.5 Organisational team sport participation improves mutual respect among employees

Organisational team sport participation improves mutual respect among 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 to fulfil the role assigned to them (e.g. trusting the goal shooter in netball to score goals for the team) (Downs 2009:1).

When participants play in the same team sport and rely on one another and each team member plays his or her separate role successfully, the stereotyping that participants had about their team members’ cultures will change to respect. When Brian Habana (a famous black rugby player who has scored in numerous rugby tests) was working for a certain company, the employees would have respected him and remembered him as a brilliant rugby player and not as a black employee with a certain culture.

Organisation team sport as an effective diversity management initiative will help employees work together with diverse employees in a team and trust them in finishing their work.

4.4.6 Organisational team sport improves inter-employee communication

Organisation team sport participation improves communication because it is a worldwide language that everybody understands and because in a sport team people have to communicate. It brings people together, despite differences in their culture, economic status, religious beliefs or background. Even young people who participate in sport can learn the principles of tolerance and the significance of teamwork (Anon 2004:1). It breaks down barriers which is important to incorporate different cultures and norms (Carrigg 2007:1).

Research conducted by the Australian Sports Commission (AIS) (2008/2009 report) has shown that team sport participation breaks down ethnic, political and social barriers and crosses religious preferences, educational levels and all language groups (Oam 2009:23).

4.4.7 Organisation team sport participation enhances employees’ interpersonal knowledge of other employees

Organisation team sport participation enhances employees’ knowledge of others because they share the same physical space and transfer information. According to Muleskinner (2003:1), sport participation can strengthen friendships and bring harmony between diverse groups, and that is what sport is all about.
Lapchick (2005:2) is the leader in racial equality and is internationally recognised as an expert on sports issues and participation. He is of the opinion that organisation team sport can be used as an effective tool to improve knowledge of other employees and effect positive social change.

A summary of the advantages of the knowledge gained through sport participation is presented in figure 4.1 below.

**Figure 4.1: Summary of the advantages of interpersonal knowledge gained through sport participation**

Figure 4.1 illustrates organisation team sport, which encourages employees to understand one another, work together and make friends. Employees who share knowledge, time and space with one another usually become friends. Friends who communicate well with one another and are in harmony, normally work well together. Employees who are also friends with one another will be more productive in the workplace, because they communicate, socialise and share common goals. They will become more involved in their work and tend to be more creative in what they do. It follows from this that employees who are able to generate new ideas, will help the organisation to be more competitive (Business-Building Information: n.d.).

Participation in organisation team sport might take up some of the employee’s time but it enables employees to share interpersonal knowledge and connect with one another. When managers are willing to give their employees time to participate in organisation team sport and share knowledge about one another, it will help the company to be more successful (Business-Building Information: n.d.).
In a more general arena, the value of participation in cricket was summarised as follows: Indian captain, Mahendra Dhoni, says that through cricket he has been able to meet people from across the globe and he is able to say that he has friends all over the world. According to New Zealand captain, Daniel Vettori, participation in competitions has enabled him to make good friends with players from diverse cultural backgrounds and has enhanced his understanding of different cultures. Haroon Lorgat (ICC Chief Executive) says that whether one participates as a spectator or administrator of the sport, sport affords one an opportunity to meet people from different backgrounds and make diverse friends (Anon 2008:1).

Joe More, a media relations coordinator for central athletics, agrees with this. He states that he was always around diverse people, especially when he played football, but when he spent five months at Norfolk State University, for the first time, he was part of the minority. For the first time, he understood the importance of sharing knowledge and getting to know one another and understanding the different cultures and norms of other diverse groups (Muleskinner 2003:1).

Because organisation team sport creates the opportunity for different employees to learn about one another (gain knowledge), it is a unique opportunity for development. It is a relatively low-cost means of bringing together disparate socioeconomic, gender, ethnic, language, hierarchical and religious groups, on the basis of shared rules and mutual respect (Prescott & Phelan 2008:2).

4.4.8 Organisation team sport participation creates an amicable diversity culture

Sport participation creates an amicable diversity culture by means of the following: It increases self-esteem through affiliation and identification because the participants all wear the same team colours. They know the players’ positions and names, and therefore feel an integral part of the team. Accordingly, when a team succeeds, a spectator’s self-esteem improves because it is aligned to the team’s triumph (Posten 1998:324):

The amicable culture of high self-esteem that is developed through sport also has a positive impact on the world of work because of the following (Chandler, 2006: 44; Singapore Sports Council 2008:1):
• Employees are more motivated because they feel more appreciated by their team members.
• Employees are more effective in 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.

Chandler (2006:44) recommends the following management activities in organisation team sport to enhance the workplace morale, diversity, culture and productivity:

• Employees should watch the organisation team sport together. The energy and goodwill generated by communal interaction and support ensure that workers are more willing to engage in work tasks after the sport event and they also feel more valued.

• Employees should network at organisation team sport events with customers. Customers do business and buy from companies they trust and like most. When staff bond with customers during sport events, it enables them to talk about something more interesting than only product features.

• Management should encourage employees to play organisation team sport together. When running, football, netball or tennis events are organised after work or at lunch time, they help employees to develop a shared interest, they meet co-workers with whom they normally do not have contact and they return to work feeling more productive and recharged.

• Organisation team sport can be used as the focus during team-building events. Competition between employees leads to the development of bonds between superiors and subordinates and also creates team spirit between workers.
• Staff who specialise in organisation team sport should be sponsored. Trips can be arranged for employees to watch their colleagues participate and perform. A presentation can be arranged on what the participants have learnt from being part of an organisation team sport, how to increase performance, how to remain motivated and what characteristics an effective manager should have. Management can transfer this learning to the workplace when a suitable opportunity arises.

In a nutshell, organisation team sport can make a positive contribution towards the management of diversity in the workplace.

4.5 IMPORTANT CASE STUDIES TO CONFIRM THE POSITIVE CONTRIBUTION OF ORGANISATION TEAM SPORT TO DIVERSITY MANAGEMENT

A number of studies have been conducted to confirm the contribution of organisation team sport to diversity management. Two relevant case studies will consequently be discussed below.

4.5.1 The impact of sport on the UK workplace:

Hudson performed a study conducted by the Social Issues Research Center (SIRC) (Chandler 2006:7) which assessed the impact of success and failure in sport in the workplace. The findings were gathered from data obtained from one-on-one interviews and focus groups out of a national sample of 2 000 people. The participants’ ranged from 18 to 70. Quantitative and qualitative research were applied.

The findings of the study were as follows (Chandler 2006:9):

• A total of 52% of the women and 63% of the men reported that success in sport (to be part of a winning team) has a positive influence on their approach to work.
• A total of 40% of the men and 47% of the women stated that success in sport helps them to be more productive at work.
• Only 12% of the women and 20% of the men indicated that sport helped them to be more motivated at work.
- Only a minority of 30% of the total sample reported that their success in sport had a negative influence and made them less productive.

The results further indicated that the perception exists among the participants that 2010 Soccer World Cup will have a positive influence on the world of work. A total of 62% of English women and 70% of English men said that if England wins, it will boost the nation’s morale and productivity.

Winning the 2010 Soccer World Cup should change the work environment into a socially inclusive environment and enhance team spirit in the population.

Also, when people discuss sport, social barriers are broken down and relationships between co-workers from different cultures tend to improve (Chandler 2006:4).

Additional findings of the study were as follows:

- A total of 53% of the men and 16% of the women stated that they talk about sport almost every day with their work colleagues.
- It was further found that 24% of the women indicated that they use sport conversations to become more accepted in work-related conversations.
- Of the respondents, 30% reported that sport conversations allow them to communicate more effectively with their colleagues.
- Finally, 18% of the men and eight percent of the women indicated that sport conversations break down the hierarchical barriers with their managers and CEOs (Chandler 2006:5).

The main inference from Chandler’s (2006:5) study is that sport in general has a positive influence on work behaviour in organisations.

### 4.5.2 The influence of sport participation on work success

In a study conducted by Standard Chartered Bank (Sawer 2007), it was found that employees who participate in a team sport, such as soccer or netball, are more successful than non-participants in their work. In this study, it was found that more employees who participate in
organisation team sport work in fast-growing organisations and this may indicate that they have a positive influence on this rapid growth. It could also be that employees participating in sport are generally more motivated to improve the organisation’s productivity and performance.

Sawer’s (2007:33) research indicates that there is a significant positive correlation between team sport participation and benefits for the organisation.

Additional findings of the study were the following:

- A total of 48% of the participants who were questioned in this study agreed that the relationship between the normal workforce and management has improved.
- Of the participants, 80% reported that they learnt to know different employees from different departments.

4.6 THE CONTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPATION IN NETBALL TO CREATE A POSITIVE ORGANISATION CLIMATE

In this study, the researcher specifically used netball as the organisation team sport that is implemented as a diversity intervention. It is therefore necessary to indicate the advantages that participation in netball has on the participants through the presentation and discussion of an applicable case study.

4.6.1 The benefits of participation in netball for employees

In a study by Hewett (2001:34) at the University of New South Wales (Sports Medicine Department) (2001), it was shown that employees, especially women, who keep on playing netball during adulthood, learn how to

- set goals because they are used to setting goals during a netball game
- become more effective leaders - during a netball game, the participants know how to lead others to achieve the goals that are set
- work in a group because a netball team can only succeed if all the participants are able to work together as a group
The following comments were made by some of the participants during this study (Hewett 2001:34):

- The team will only succeed if all the members give of their best and do their part.
- New friendships are formed, because the participants share the same passion.
- The participant shares her personal successes and failures with her team members. The team members experience with her the lows and highs that sport can offer, and through this, the team players learn how to accept others and not to criticise too harshly.
- Team players learn to persevere and will not give up when they have not yet achieved their goals after their first, second or even third attempt.

This study revealed that 1.3 million Australian women who participate in netball enjoy:

- social benefits because the participants become friends
- career benefits because they know how to work together in a team
- sleep better because their stress levels are lower, compared to women who do not participate in netball

Two hundred netball players between the ages of 18 and 39 and a control group of 253 non-players were included in the sample.

In the following examples, the netball players acknowledge that playing netball creates the climate for them to succeed in the workplace:

- Raymond in McDonald (2001:7) participates in a mixed netball team. She is a production manager and agrees that netball gives her focus, confidence and motivation to believe that she can really achieve her career goals.
- Pink, a sales representative, has been playing netball for 15 years. She states that playing in a team helps her to think about others and work more effectively with others, regardless of who the person is. Netball players manage to work together in the workplace, because they are put together in the netball team where they do not know one another (McDonald 2001:7).
From the discussion it is obvious that participation in netball should enhance the acceptance of and cooperation between team members from diverse backgrounds.

4.7 SUMMARY

The main reason different ethnic groups do not mix is not because they do not want to, but because they have no reason to. Sport can afford employees this unique opportunity - developing relationships across different cultures, in a space of mutual trust and commitment.

An organisation sport team is effective and efficient when the participants have a common identity and common goals. Also there is interaction and communication between the participants (Schienberg 2004:1).

Organisation team sport contributes extensively towards effective diversity management. Organisation team sport participants are more likely to set goals, able to work in a group and feel at ease in leadership roles. To confirm this, several case studies in which organisation team sport was implemented to manage diversity in an organisation are discussed.

When organisations plan to implement a diversity management initiative, organisation team sport is a valuable initiative.

The next chapter deals with the methodology and research design used in the study.
5.1 INTRODUCTION

Selecting a research design depends mainly on the research question. This research was conducted in two financial institutions where the perceptions of focus groups and individual employees were explored. The researcher used qualitative research because hearing (listening to and understanding) the participants is the essence of qualitative research methodology. Open ended questions will be asked to gain insight into the employees' perceptions.

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

5.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this study, the main emphasis was on explaining the perceptions of focus groups and individuals regarding the diversity constraints, utilising the qualitative research approach.

5.2.1 Qualitative research

5.2.1.1 Features of qualitative research

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

The methods in qualitative research focus on meanings and interpretations. It takes a complex research method to understand how and why people act in a certain way. Qualitative research
is described by a wide variety of theories and practices. The theories can include 
phenomenology, symbols, interaction between people, psychology and cultural studies, while 
the techniques can include interviews, focus groups, narrative analysis and ethnography 
(Rice & Ezzy 2002:1).

A grounded theory qualitative research paradigm was used in this study because of its 
systematic approach towards gaining an understanding of the participants’ perceptions of their 
own history, beliefs and context. Qualitative research also endeavours to study human action 
and gives participants a voice. It supports a holistic approach towards the participants' 
interactions with various aspects of their environment and the participants as human beings 
(Babbie & Mouton 2003:271).

5.2.1.2 Assumptions of qualitative research

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

- Every human being experiences life differently.
- The researcher observes and communicates with participants to investigate life 
perceptions and experiences and perceptions.
- The researcher is seen as an instrument of the research and cannot therefore be 
entirely objective. Hence some bias is acknowledged.
- It is possible to obtain a valid sample if the researcher selects participants who are 
living the experience and the researcher continues collecting data until data saturation 
occurs.
- The description of human experience is derived from the analysis of data (Lobiondo-

5.2.1.3 Rationale for conducting qualitative research

Qualitative research was deemed to be preferable for the study, because it focuses on the 
perceptions of the people who are studied and the data are reliable as long as the researcher’s 
own perceived ideas do not influence the study. Qualitative methods are used to give a
meaning to and interpret people’s experience, which is almost impossible to do if the researcher uses other methods (Rice & Ezzy 2002:4).

In a qualitative approach, the researcher is able to collect and analyse data by using preconceived ideas of what should be collected. A qualitative approach was adopted in this study, because the subject required exploration – no previous studies had been done to enable the researcher to follow a quantitative approach.

5.2.1.4 Grounded theory as a qualitative research methodology

As stated in section 5.2.1.1, grounded theory was used in this study because it suited the research circumstances. The objective of grounded theory is to collect and analyse data, whereafter an assumption can be made that is “grounded” in the data (Brink et al. 2006:202).

In this study, data were collected from the perceptions of employees working at two financial organisations. The employees participated in organisation team sport (Norwood 2000:285; Dempsey & Dempsey 2000:138).

Data collection and data analysis occur simultaneously when this method is used. Constant comparison takes place in that incidents were compared with other incidents, categories with categories and constructs with constructs. Significant incidents were highlighted in the text and codes were assigned (Brink et al. 2006:116).

5.2.1.5 Content analysis

Content analysis is an analysis method that examines communication messages, and usually occurs in written form (Babbie 2007:320; Brink et al. 2006:200). In content analysis, there is interest in text, and a range of approaches to analysis can be adopted. Via deep reading and personal thinking about data, the researcher can develop valid conceptualisations and understandings. A more structured technique may be used to ensure that more valid content analysis is achieved, namely (Neill 2006:1)

- sorting
• categorising
• naming themes
• counting

The exact method depends on the researcher's personality and experience and the nature of the situation.

The data in this research were coded and categories identified to ensure that more valid and rigorous content analysis would be achieved. An experienced researcher reviewed the interviews, transcriptions, analysis and coding and a colleague who is an industrial psychology accompanied the researcher to all interviews and made handwritten notes.

5.2.1.6 Advantages and disadvantages of qualitative research methods

The main advantage of qualitative research is that rich and valuable data can be gathered using the qualitative research approach. The gathered data can be used to explore new areas of study which are of great value to practitioners, students and researchers.

A disadvantage is that qualitative research is time consuming and laborious. The risks that could be associated with qualitative research methods are that the researcher could lose objectivity. The researcher must be aware of the influence that the research could have on him or her, and vice versa (McNeill 1990:82).

5.3 THE PHASES OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

The research process was conducted in separate distinguishable phases. These phases are explained in table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1: Distinguishable research phases used in this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASES</th>
<th>MAIN CONTENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual phase</td>
<td>• Research problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Research objective</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.3.1 Conceptual phase

During the conceptual phase, an area of interest was identified. The research problem was then formulated and refined and a research objective identified. A literature review was also conducted.

5.3.1.1 Background to the problem

A research problem often arises from available theories, literature content and practical experience (Polit & Hungler 1995:43). The background to the problem was discussed in chapter 1, section 1.1.

5.3.1.2 Problem statement

The problem statement was discussed in chapter 1, section 1.2.

5.3.1.3 Research objectives

The objectives of the research were discussed in chapter 1, section 1.4.
5.3.1.4 Literature review

The literature review in this study helped to identify the research problem and was a guide for the researcher on the type of questions that needed to be asked to enable her to obtain a more precise view of the participants' perceptions. The literature review was presented in chapters 2, 3 and 4. The data in these chapters were provided the foundation for the conceptual phase, and were used to identify the criteria for this research study.

After the interpretation and analysis of the research findings, the researcher again reviewed the literature and positioned the findings and conclusions in relation to the existing facts in the literature.

5.3.2 Design and planning phase

In the design and planning phase, the type of research approach, that is, qualitative or quantitative, was identified. The data collection method, namely the focus group interviews and individual interviews, was determined. Follow-up interviews were conducted to probe, clarify and to obtain an in-depth study. The data gathering instrument was designed and the sampling design selected.

In this stage, careful planning was necessary to prepare for the actual gathering of data (i.e. the data gathering process proposed by Tesch 1990:56) in the succeeding phase. To ensure trustworthiness, a sample design (diverse employees, employed at financial institutions, who participate in action netball) was chosen (Polit & Hungler 1995:32).

5.3.2.1 Research design

a. Context of the study

The current worldwide economic recession is a huge concern, and places exceptional strain on organisations, including South African organisations in order to survive and maintain performance. Millions of people have lost their jobs and millions of people may soon lose jobs if companies are not able to maintain a competitive advantage. South African organisations consist of extreme diverse workforces that make the challenge even greater if they do not
deliberately and effectively manage their diversity (differences in culture, race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, age, physical abilities and religious and political beliefs).

The context is of paramount importance in qualitative research, more specifically when utilising grounded theory and content analysis (Tesch 1990:56) to elicit the data. Context refers to the environment and space in which the research is conducted. The context is characterised by factors such as people, time and changes in the environment. It is therefore necessary for the researcher to understand the participants’ context regarding space and time and their culture. The researcher’s understanding is an interpretation of the data gathered that has a meaning and is not incomplete. According to Streubert and Carpenter (1995:9), the underlying assumption of qualitative research is that there are different ways of understanding people and situations, and that information is context bound.

In the context of the study, formal interventions such as different formal learning programmes are available to organisations to manage their diverse workforce. These programmes, however, are expensive and organisations therefore need a more informal, cost-effective intervention, such as organisation team sport interventions, to manage their diverse workforce in these uncertain and difficult economic times.

b. Descriptive design features

Descriptive design features were used in this research. The aim of the descriptive design is to observe and describe the phenomenon and then to classify the findings (Polit & Hungler 1995:11). It is necessary not to interfere with the situation, but to study the natural situation as it occurs so that the picture of situations, individuals or groups is given accurately and that the information provided in the study is meaningful and complete (Neuman 2000:14).

This study involved a search for information about the influence that organisation team sport interventions could have on diversity constraints in a workplace, according to certain objectives that were used to develop an interview guide. The data obtained from the focus group interviews and individual interviews were then used to create a descriptive account. There was no interference on the part of the researcher.
c. **Exploratory design features**

Exploratory design was used in this study because the researcher identified a problem. However, there was limited literature on the topic. This design entails the discovery of new insights and ideas and necessitates a flexible approach. The data gathered in this study guided the direction of the study (Kothari 2001:45). The researcher conducted a study that had never been done before in South African organisations. She put open ended and probing questions to participants and their answers allowed her to finish the research and possibly also permit further studies.

5.3.2.2 **Data gathering process**

Data were gathered according to a pre-established plan. The researcher became aware of diversity constraints in the organisations and the need for a cost-effective diversity management initiative.

Two financial organisations were selected for the research, and three focus groups were conducted. The researcher felt the need to interview two black female participants separately to expand the diversity in the sample group. Follow-up interviews were also conducted to probe, clarify and to obtain an in-depth study, whereafter she felt that data saturation had occurred.

a. **The researcher as instrument**

In this study, the researcher acted as the primary research tool (Streubert & Carpenter 1995:90). Guiding and probing questions were asked to explore the diversity constraints.

b. **Schedule of guiding questions**

During the interviews, guiding questions were not strictly followed in the same sequence that the researcher had prepared. Sometimes the participants started talking about something that the researcher intended to discuss later in the interview. Guiding questions were formulated on the basis of information on the participants’ views and beliefs.
Although guiding questions give some sort of structure to a qualitative interview, the researcher had to remember that the questions were only tools and could not be applied as a rigid formula (Polit & Hungler 1995:517). A copy of the schedule of guided questions is attached to this dissertation as annexure C.

c. Format of questions

According to Grbich (1999:94), interview questions can be closed or open ended. Closed ended questions are used when only only requires a limited response. The researcher decided to use open ended questions as the guiding questions in this research study. When open ended questions are used, the participants are able to express their perceptions without any limitations. An open ended question, such as “*How do you experience diversity in your workplace*” would allow the participants to give any answer they wished.

The researcher only used closed ended or leading questions when she had to clarify a point. A close-ended question demands a limited response such as “*yes*” or “*no*”. An example of a close-ended question used in this study was “*So you therefore feel that sport is a useful mechanism to manage diversity constraints in a workplace?*” This question was asked, after the participant had already supplied information on the subject and the researcher wished to clarify the point the participant had made.

During the focus group interviews and individual interviews, different types of questions were posed. Introductory questions, based on the planned guide, were used. Follow-up questions were asked to encourage the participants to elaborate further on the topic. Probing questions were used when the researcher was interested in something more specific she needed to understand better. When the researcher required more precise information, specific questions were asked. Direct questions were asked when more personal information was required. Indirect questions, for instance, “*Do you think that every organisation needs to invest in sport interventions*”, were asked when the participants had to give a response on other people’s or the organisation’s views. Interpreting questions were also used to clarify what the participants had said.
5.3.2.3 Steps in the data gathering process

The data collection process used in this study is proposed by Tesch (1990:56) and comprises the following eight steps (Creswell 1994:155):

- The tape-recorded focus group interviews and individual interviews were typed. Notes were made of any ideas as they came to mind.
- The most interesting interview was selected and the ideas in it written down in the margin.
- A list of all the topics was made. Similar topics were grouped together. These topics were then grouped into “major topics”, “unique topics” and “leftovers”.
- The topics were abbreviated as codes.
- The descriptive wording occurring most frequently for the topics was analysed and turned into themes.
- A final decision on the abbreviation for each theme was made and the codes were alphabetised.
- The data material belonging to each theme was assembled and a preliminary analysis done.
- If necessary, the existing data were recoded and reported. If this was unnecessary, the research findings were reported.
- The ethical considerations that need to be kept in mind in conducting the research were mentioned.

5.3.2.4 Focus group and individual interview questions

The following seven open ended questions were asked during the focus group and individual interviews:

- What is your definition or explanation of the word “diversity”?
- How do you experience diversity in your workplace?
• In your experience, what are the constraints in working in a diverse environment (i.e. possible problems in communication, cultural differences, generation gaps, trust, respect, commitment and cohesion)?

• In your experience, what are the advantages of working in a diverse environment (i.e different cultures have different ideas or are more innovative)

• What are your experiences about playing sport in a diverse group (positive/negative)? How do you experience being part of a diverse netball team at work?

• How did the experience of being part of a diverse netball team help you to minimise the diversity constraints in your workplace?

• Based on experience, do you have any suggestions on how various sports can be used in the workplace to minimise diversity constraints?

The researcher asked further probing questions to explore on certain issues or issues that she needed to better understand, which allowed her to collect the necessary data for the study.

5.3.2.5 Sample and sampling design

Sampling involves selecting a few participants from the population to represent the entire population (Polit & Hungler 1993:174). There are probability or non-probability sampling designs. Probability sampling is suitable when quantitative research is used – when prediction and generalisation are required, whereas non-probability sampling methods are normally used in qualitative research. A relatively small sample size is required because generalisation, control and statistical analysis are not necessary (Streubert & Carpenter 1995:23).

The research sample in this study was a non-probability sample because it was impossible to locate the entire population with a convenient sampling approach that involves the selection of the most voluntarily accessible participants for the research (Brink et al: 2006:204). When a non-probability sample is used, the researcher is required to select participants with the most
knowledge about the phenomenon and who can explain nuances to the researcher (Brink et al. 2006:132). Repeated focus group interviews and individual interviews were conducted as well as follow-up interviews with the key participants until data saturation has occurred.

a. **Criteria for selection of participants**

The specified criteria for selecting participants in this research study were that they had to be

- from diverse focus groups with regard to different age, culture, gender, religion, job level, age, marital status and hierarchical levels
- working at an insurance company in the North Gauteng area
- have been participating in action netball for more than one month
- willing to be interviewed individually and/or interviewed in a focus group

b. **Population**

A population is the focus group a researcher wishes to use in his or her study that meets all the requirements for the study (Polit & Hungler 1995:229).

The financial institutions in which the focus groups interviews were held consisted of approximately 1 300 diverse employees, while the financial institution in which the individual interviews were held consisted of approximately 2 000 diverse employees. The two financial institutions had employees from different age groups (ranging from 22 to 65), ethnic groups, gender groups, hierarchical levels, language groups, religious groups and employees of different nationalities.

The research population for this study comprised employees participating in a diverse organisation action netball team at financial institutions.

c. **Sample design of participants**

Since aim in qualitative research is not generalisation, control and statistical analysis findings (Streubert & Carpenter 1995:23), the researcher does not need to determine beforehand the number of participants to be interviewed. The sample size required in this research depended on the data gathering. The sample size was adequate when the data gathering process had
reached saturation (Brink et al. 2006:132). In this study, it was necessary to interview 26 participants before data saturation had occurred.

d. Biographical characteristics of participants

The sample size was determined when the data gathering process had reached data saturation. This was reached after three focus groups and two individuals had been interviewed. The personal details of the participants are presented in table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: Biographical characteristics of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Number of years participating in organisation</th>
<th>Netball</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Shona</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Business analyst</td>
<td>Risk implementation</td>
<td>1 month</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Sepedi</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Business analyst</td>
<td>Myriad</td>
<td>1 month</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Lead agent</td>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Financial planner</td>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>6 games</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Lead agent</td>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Financial controller</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>White</td>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>PA</td>
<td>Risk and Savings</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>Admin-coordinator</td>
<td>STS-sales</td>
<td>1 month</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS HELD ON 29 OCTOBER 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Number of years participating in organisation</th>
<th>Netball</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS HELD ON 2 NOVEMBER 2009**

**BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS:**

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Participant</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
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<th>Department</th>
<th>Number of years participating in organisation netball</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td>Christian</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Systems developer</td>
<td>Risk IT</td>
<td>2 ½ years</td>
</tr>
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<td>Christian</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Financial / admin.</td>
<td>Membership</td>
<td>1 ½ years</td>
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<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Married</td>
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<td>Actuary</td>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
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<td>Internal services</td>
<td>Internal services</td>
<td>2 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Number of years participating in organisation netball</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>34</td>
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<td>Afrikaans</td>
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<td>Married</td>
<td>Accountant</td>
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<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>FAS: Portfolio accounts</td>
<td>2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>Actuarial student</td>
<td>FAS: Portfolio accounts</td>
<td>2 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Afrikaans</td>
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<td>Actuary</td>
<td>FAS: Portfolio accounts</td>
<td>2 months</td>
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<td>2 years</td>
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<td>Tswana</td>
<td>Christian</td>
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<td>Aspire</td>
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<td>Afrikaans</td>
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<td>Married</td>
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<td>Risk and Savings</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Actuarial student</td>
<td>FAS: Portfolio accounts</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS**

**BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Number of years participating in organisation netball</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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5.3.3 Empirical phase

During the empirical phase, the researcher conducted the focus group and individual interviews with employees at two financial institutions. These interviews were audio-taped and typed from 27 October 2009 to 5 November 2009.

During the focus group interviews, the participants received a number. When they answered a question, the participant had to first give his or her number, whereafter he or she answered the question. This approach made it easier when transcribing the interviews, because the researcher was aware what the participant had said during the interviews. The interviews were typed up as follows:

**FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS (HELD ON 27 OCTOBER 2009)**

A1 Researcher: What is your definition of or explanation for the word “diversity”?
A2 Participant 8: It is the difference in ethnic groups.
A3 Participant 5: It is not only ethnic groups, it is also age, race, education,
A4 marital status, gender.
A5 Researcher: Do you ever experience diversity in your organisation?

**FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS (HELD ON 29 OCTOBER 2009)**

B1 Researcher: What is your definition of or explanation for the word “diversity”?
B2 Participant 4: Diversity is people that are different from one another, whether
B3 it is background, race, age, gender – anything that is being different from the
B4 guys next to us.
B5 Participant 5: Cultural differences as well.
Each line was numbered. For instance during the first focus group interview, the researcher started the first line with A1 and the second line with A2, etc. During the second interview, the researcher started the first line with B1 and the second line with B2, etc. This technique was used to facilitate the data analysis and when the researcher was referred back to the typed interviews, she knew exactly where to find that specific statement.

During this phase, the actual data collection and preparation for the next phase, namely the data analysis phase, were done (Polit & Hungler 1995:35). Verbatim reports are the type of data collection used in qualitative research methods. Tesch (1990:56) suggested that qualitative research can be done exclusively through words because words are used in a language and language is used for communication. Words are used to explore the information or interpretations. In this study, verbatim focus group interviews, individual interviews and follow-up interviews were used for the data gathering process and the subsequent analysis of the data.

5.3.3.1 Focus group interviews and field notes stage

During this stage, focus group interviews and individual interviews were conducted to gather data from them.
a. Qualitative research interviews

i. Definition of interview

An interview is a medium of verbal exchange between one person and another. It is seen as an interaction between two or more people during which information that is needed is shared (Hein 1980:25).

The main aim of a focus group interview was to describe and comprehend the perceptions of a selected population to gain an understanding about a particular topic from the participants’ viewpoint. The researcher deemed focus group interviews and individual interviews to be a useful research tool for this study, because the participants were unknown to her and they provided their own perceptions. According to Rice and Ezzy (2002:72), a focus group is useful when a researcher wishes to explore and describe participants’ experience and knowledge.

ii. Types of interview

An interview can be in guided, structured or informal (Grbich 1999:93). A guided interview consists of broad objectives that are reflected in guiding questions, where participants are encouraged to describe their experiences and views in a particular situation and the interviewer is free to explore any matter that may arise. When a structured interview is used, the interviewer is bound to a set of predefined questions, which tend to limit the objectives. During an informal interview, the informant is allowed to structure the interview and he or she can also choose the topic. Guided interviews were used in this study.

iii. Advantages of interviews as a data collection method

Although questionnaires are more cost-effective and less time consuming, the data gathered in interviews are deemed to be more trustworthy because they are collected directly from participants and the researcher is in a position to expand and clarify on any situation. The researcher can develop a relationship with the participants and is able to observe both nonverbal and verbal communication (Kothari 2001:120).
Although observation, questionnaires and informal discussion can provide useful information, the researcher decided to use focus group interviews and individual interviews as the data collection method to enable her to clarify the responses and probe the interviewees for more information. Employees may view diversity in a workplace as a sensitive issue. Rice and Ezzy (2002:74) suggest that focus groups are used if a sensitive issue is being explored or if the research involves a sensitive population. Focus groups can be used in three different ways:

1. as a self-contained method (focus groups are the main source of data collection)

2. as a supplementary source of data (information from the focus groups can be used as preliminary data in quantitative research)

3. in multi method studies (a collection of several approaches are used to collect information)

The researcher followed the third approach (also known as triangulation) because she used individual semi-structured interviews and observed the participants’ reactions.

iv. Disadvantages of interviews as a data collection method

Conducting, transcribing and analysing interviews are time consuming. The sample size is much smaller when interviews are used as a data gathering method. The success of an interview also depends on the interviewer’s ability (Kothari 2001:122).

Even though the interviewer and the interviewee speak the same language, they may have a problem understanding each other. The interviewer may interpret the response as the truth when the interviewee puts up a protective front and only reveals the outside layer. The interviewee may also change his or her opinion during the course of the interview (Grbich 1999:86).

v. The role of interviewer during the interview

The main role of the interviewer is to encourage interviewees to talk freely (Polit & Hungler 1995:272). To ensure that top-quality of data are gathered, the interviewer needs to have an amicable relationship with the interviewees. A competent interviewer has the following
characteristics: listening skills, interest in the subject matter, enthusiasm, focus, compassion and sensitivity (Grbich 1999:89). The interviewer needs to be aware of his or her feelings and values, strengths and limitations and the impact he or she has on others.

In this study, the interviewer was conscious of the fact that she was an instrument during the gathering of new data, which could still be undocumented as at present.

vi. Interview models

There are two different types of interview models, namely control or freedom. When control is used as an interview model it means that it is content oriented, directive and structured. If freedom is used as an interview model, it is process oriented, nondirective, open ended and non-structured. In this study, the balance type of interview was used to allow the researcher to achieve certain goals by using some sort of a structure (the use of guiding, open ended questions) and to afford the participants the opportunity to express themselves freely (Hein 1980:29).

vii. Stages in an interview

There are three different stages in conducting an interview, namely an introductory, middle and closing stage. In this study in the introductory stage, the participants and the interviewer got to know one another and the interviewer explained the purpose of the interview. The interviewer also explained the issue of privacy, the right not to answer any questions and the right to, at any stage, terminate the interview. After these matters were explained, the participants were requested to sign a consent form (annexure B).

The middle stage of the interview entailed work - the interviewer interacted with the participants so that the goals of the interview could be achieved. The skills the interviewer used during this stage were questioning, listening, observing and responding.

The last stage of the interview, the closing stage, entailed consolidation. This stage involved clarifying, sharing, reviewing, reflecting and summarising. The interviewer expressed appreciation for the participants’ cooperation.
viii. **Skills / techniques in interviewing**

An environment in which the interview could be administered was arranged to accommodate the participants and to ensure their comfort and privacy. The interviews were conducted in a private boardroom with no or limited disturbances.

The participants were requested to sign the informed consent. The researcher explained the purpose of the study and the tape recordings before the meetings started. An estimated duration for the interview was discussed so that the participant did not pressurise about time. The researcher endeavoured to limit the length of each interview to one hour so that the participants could remain focused and not become irritated when the interview took too long.

Before the researcher started the interview, she asked each participant to introduce himself or herself. This process in which the participants got to know each other and the researcher helped to encourage and improve trust and confidence in one another.

When the researcher started the data collection process, she took up the role of an observer and listener, with limited participation. This means that she only asked questions and encouraged the participants to explain further, until she felt that the question had been answered. After the interview, the researcher reflected on and reconfirmed the findings obtained during the interview. She reflected on all the data that had been collected and the participants confirmed the interpretations.

ix. **Interpretation of non-verbal behaviour**

It was essential for the interviewer to use a relaxed posture, appropriate eye contact, facial and gesture expressions in order to convey respect for and interest in the participants. This encouraged the participants to respond to the questions posed by the interviewer. When the interviewer became aware of any discomfort or non-verbal signs such as reduced eye contact, tense facial expressions, restlessness, answering with gestures or a closed posture, she interpreted these as discomfort with the questions or having exceeded the limit (Hein 1980:203).
x. Listening

Listening is the process of adding meaning to what one hears, but it also requires time, attention and interest (Hein 1980:223). It is an acquired skill and an active process.

In this study the researcher listened to information. She was sensitive to the overt content of verbal messages as well as the tone of voice, speed and rhythm of speech. It is necessary to identify new, unusual or important themes, differentiating between irrelevant and relevant data (Hein 1980:223).

The interviewer was an active listener, which required her to limit the number of interruptions and avoid prejudice. It is necessary to continuously reassess what is being said, and she was extremely aware of her own preconceived ideas (Kvale 1996:135).

xi. Creativity

In this study, concern, sympathy and humour were used to make the most of every interview. Different methods of interviewing with different focus groups were followed (Hein 1980:267).

xii. Quality criteria for an interview

Various criteria were used to judge the quality of this research. The participants provided useful, rich and relevant information. The communication used during the interviews also had to be clear to ensure that the meaning was expressed without the need for extra explanations.

b. Tape recorder/field notes

Participants sometimes find videotaping distracting, while tape recordings appear to be acceptable (Grbich 1999:99). The researcher used a reliable tape recorder in a quiet environment. The tape recorder was placed on a table that was not in use for any other purpose (Kvale 1996:162).

Field notes were used in this study. Compiling field notes entails interpreting events, activities and emotions. The use of field notes does not entail a technical or mechanical interpretation, but instead “inductive reasoning, thinking, and theorising” (Taylor & Bogdan 1998:140).
The following steps were applied in the preparation of field notes:

- To enable a researcher to write field notes, a time and place should be set. The field notes should be written as soon as possible after the observation.
- All field notes should contain the location, date, time and details of the participants.
- The research question and design should provide theoretical criteria to enable the researcher to know what, when, where and how to record field notes.
- The field notes should be prepared in such a way that the researcher is able to rearrange and manipulate the order of the field notes.

The field notes that the researcher compiled in this study contained facts about the interviews, the interview setting and her personal feelings and impressions.

i.  **Timing and location**

A prearranged time was set for conducting interviews, namely in a boardroom which was an undisturbed area at the participants’ workplace. Each interview took approximately one hour.

5.3.4 **Data analysis phase**

During the data analysis phase, the typed interviews are thematically analysed. This phase is done simultaneous with the empirical phase until data saturation occurs.

Data analysis is used to make sense of, formulate and arrange the data so that they can be presented clearly and logically. This is not easy, especially in the case of qualitative research, because there is no fixed rule for data analysis, a large sample from the population is not used, and it is difficult to summarise the findings (Polit & Hungler 1995:520).
5.3.4.1 Data analysis procedure

a. General considerations

The gathering of data involves a preliminary analysis. Relevant data were assessed and grouped into broader categories (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber 1994:270). During the analysis and interpretation of data, the researcher should be aware of the fact that he or she has a preconceived idea about the subject and predicting the findings, and although these considerations can not be completely disregarded, he or she should be aware that they could have an impact on the study (Andrews, Lyne & Riley 1996:443).

b. Thematic analysis

The research circumstances were simple enough for thematic analysis to be used – hence it was unnecessary to utilise a more formal method such as GABEK or Atlas TI.

Focus group interviews and individual interviews were audio-taped and transcribed verbatim. The audio-taped interviews were typed. The interviews were typed in one-and-a-half spacing with wide margins to enable the researcher to make written comments and notes. Recurring ideas and themes and important concepts were gained from the transcript. The data gathering process proposed by Tesch (1990:56) were used (section 5.3.2.3). Consideration was given to themes and ideas that could be categorised into a smaller number of broader groups. After the completion of the transcript, it was reviewed to identify any concepts that were not initially noted. Similarities and variations in data from different focus groups were noted.

Focus groups, individual semi-structured interviews and follow-up interviews were held until the researcher had reached data saturation.

5.3.5 Dissemination phase

In the last phase, the dissemination phase, the data are presented, discussed and recommendations formulated.
Although research is mainly conducted in clearly distinguishable phases, these often overlap and are sometimes conducted simultaneously. The research considerations that were of great relevance during all the phases in this study were trustworthiness, reflexivity and ethical consideration.

5.3.5.1 Ensuring the trustworthiness of the research

The quality of quantitative research is evaluated through its reliability and validity. The reliability and validity measures used in quantitative studies, however, are not appropriate in qualitative studies where the concept of trustworthiness is applied to determine the value of a study. A qualitative study is considered to be trustworthy when the phenomena in the study can be accepted as true (McNeill 1990:83).

Lincoln and Guba (1985; 55) suggest four criteria to ensure trustworthiness in a study, namely credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. The researcher compiled a schematic representation of the methodology to ensure trustworthiness in the study. The steps in the different phases of this research methodology to ensure trustworthiness are depicted in table 5.3 below:

Table 5.3: Steps to ensure trustworthiness in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research objective</th>
<th>Trustworthiness strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **PHASE 1: Conceptual phase**  
Background to the problem  
Research question and objectives | • Credibility: reflexivity  
• Dependability: intuiting  
• Confirmability: intuiting and bracketing  
• Transferability: intuiting and bracketing |
| **PHASE 2: Design and planning phase**  
Research design  
Data collection instruments  
Sampling design | • Credibility: reflexivity  
• Dependability: intuiting  
• Confirmability: intuiting and bracketing  
• Transferability: intuiting and bracketing |
| **PHASE 3: Empirical phase**  
Data collection process (focus group and individual interviews) | • Credibility: reflexivity  
• Dependability: intuiting  
• Confirmability: intuiting and bracketing |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PHASE 4: Data analysis phase:</th>
<th>PHASE 5: Dissemination phase:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analyse / interpret data</td>
<td>Present data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formulate discussions and recommendations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Transferability: intuiting and bracketing
- Credibility: reflexivity
- Dependability: intuiting
- Confirmability: intuiting and bracketing
- Transferability: intuiting and bracketing
- Credibility: reflexivity
- Dependability: intuiting
- Confirmability: intuiting and bracketing
- Transferability: intuiting and bracketing

a. **Truth value**

According to Krefting (1991:3), in qualitative research, truth value involves representing the realities revealed by the participants. This should enable the population who experience the research phenomenon to familiarise themselves with the information gleaned from the sample group (Krefting 1991:4).

i. **Prolonged experience**

Credibility can be improved by spending adequate time with the participants (Krefting 1991:362). The credibility of this study was enhanced because the researcher had been playing action netball for more than eight years and was familiar with the game. The game was also well known to the participants. She had therefore spent adequate time with the participants and was familiar with the research context.

ii. **Reducing the risk of preferred social response**

According to Krefting (1991: 18), there is a risk that the participants may present favourite social responses, especially when the researcher is seen as an authority figure. During this research, the researcher took care to reduce biased responses, for example, when the
following question was asked: “How did your experience of being part of a multicultural netball team help you to minimise the diversity constraints in your workplace?”, the participants were able to give their own perceptions of how a multicultural netball team had helped them to minimise the diversity constraints in their workplace.

iii. Avoiding over-involvement

The researcher also plays action netball and was aware of a risk of over-involvement with the participants and the fact that this bias could lead her to interpret the findings incorrectly (Krefting 1991:218). The interviews took approximately one hour, and the participants invited the researcher to return for another interview, if necessary. It was necessary to conduct follow-up interviews to probe, clarify and to obtain an in-depth study.

iv. Reflexivity

Reflexivity promotes credibility. This happens when the researcher continuously assesses the influence of his or her own perceptions, interests, views and background on the research process (Krefting 1991:218). In this study, the researcher was aware of her own diversity constraints in South African organisations.

v. Bracketing

The researcher bracketed out any personal preconceived opinions so that she could consider every perception and view objectively (Brink et al. 2006:114).

vi. Intuiting

The researcher develops an intuitive awareness of the participants’ perceptions, and becomes totally absorbed in the study through the participants’ perceptions. The researcher reassessed the data continuously until there was a common understanding. Patterns and themes emerged during the data analyses.
vii. Authority of the research

The credibility of the research was enhanced by the researcher’s authority. The researcher established her authority by means of the following (Krefting 1991:11):

- her extended knowledge on the subject
- her excellent judgmental skills
- her ability to explore
- her applicable postgraduate qualifications
- her in-depth personal experience with the game of action netball

b. Transferability

Trustworthiness is increased by the transferability of the results. Transferability occurs when one study’s findings can be generalised to other situations (Krefting 1991:220; Polit & Hungler 1995:362). Holt (2001:146), however, states that the generalisation of one cultural group to another is inappropriate.

According to Krefting (1991:220), transferability in qualitative research may or may not be a problem. If, at the beginning of the study, the assumption is made that the findings represent one life perspective or are descriptive and explorative, the transferability criterion is not relevant. When the researcher wishes to make generalisations about the subject matter, strategies to increase transferability are vital.

To enable the readers of this research study to ascertain whether the findings were relevant to their personal situation, information about the population was presented in chapter 1 and the personal details of the participants provided in table 5.2 (Krefting 1991:220). The researcher did not need to provide an index of applicability, but it was her responsibility to provide sufficient information to enable others to make transferability judgments.
c. Dependability

Dependability occurs when the researcher accounts for the ever-changing context in which the research occurs. He or she needs to describe the changes that occur in the data gathering process and how these affect the research.

Repeatability is expected in quantitative studies, whereas variability is expected in qualitative research. According to Krefting (1991:221), almost all qualitative methods are modified to the research situation, and no methodological descriptions exist, such as interrater reliability is generally used in quantitative studies. In qualitative research, it is necessary to describe the data gathering methods, analysis and interpretation of the data. The description of methods provides information on how unique or repeatable the study is.

d. Confirmability

Confirmability occurs when the results of the study are confirmed by others. A number of strategies to enhance confirmability are available. The researcher can document the process by checking and rechecking the data gathered. Another researcher may fulfil the role of a "devil's advocate" for the results, and this process can be documented.

Objectivity is required in quantitative studies, whereas in qualitative studies, the researcher must be involved with the subjects. Neutrality of data is an appropriate consideration and can be achieved when applicability and truth value are ensured (Krefting:1991:221).

In all qualitative research, detailed records should be kept, including field notes, the instruments used and summaries to enable a moderator to examine the records and to arrive at similar conclusions. Detailed and complete records were kept in this study, in case outside audits were required (Krefting 1991:221).

e. Credibility

Credibility means that the results of the research are credible from the participants’ perspectives. The purpose of qualitative research is to understand and describe the
experience or interest from the participants’ perspectives. Only the participants can reasonably judge the credibility of the research (Krefting 1991:221).

5.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations in qualitative research are more complex than in quantitative research. The complexity occurs because of the involvement in individuals’ experiences in life and the route that qualitative research studies may take (Holloway & Wheeler 2000:43; Silverman 2002:201). All the trustworthiness factors discussed in section 5.3.5.1 above form part of the ethical considerations. The principles of justice, beneficence, and respect for human dignity are discussed below.

5.4.1 Principle of justice

The principle of justice includes the right to fair treatment and privacy.

5.4.1.1 Right to fair treatment

The participants have the right to fair treatment. This involves the commitments made by the researcher being honoured and each individual being treated with courtesy and respect (Polit & Hungler 1993:362). There must be an understandable agreement relating to the researcher’s role and the subject’s participation. A prerequisite is to ensure that the participants’ rights to fair treatment are protected by means of an informed consent. The researcher also needs to respect cultural differences and other types of individual diversity (Polit & Beck 2004:149). During the interviews, the researcher also dressed appropriately and each participant was greeted respectfully.

5.4.1.2 Right to privacy

The right to privacy involves a participant deciding what personal information he or she wishes to share with others and under what conditions (Burns & Grove 2001:200).

Interviews were conducted in privacy, and confidentiality was maintained by ensuring that the data were available only to the researcher. None of the employees at the financial
organisations had access to the data. The data were stored at the researcher’s office/home. The participants remained anonymous.

5.4.2 Principle of beneficence

The principle of beneficence includes freedom from harm, and from exploitation and the risk/benefit ratio.

5.4.2.1 Freedom from harm

When a researcher ensures freedom from harm, this basically means that he or she has to take any necessary measures to decrease the risks to the subjects involved in the research study, including harm to the development of the participants and physical harm such as fatigue or injury, loss of self-esteem, fear, stress or economic harm, such as loss of income (Bryman 2001:479; Polit & Beck 2004:143). Although physical harm is unlikely to occur, some of the questions might require answers from participants that they dislike and would rather avoid (Polit & Hungler 1993:356).

In this study, the interview schedule was prepared, bearing in mind the need to obtain information but also to respect the participants’ time. The researcher was aware that political matters should be handled with great care. The researcher realised that cultural differences might be an uncomfortable and sensitive issue, and therefore explained the reason for the research. The participants were more than willing to voice their personal views on certain issues. When the informed consent was obtained from the participants, the risk of economic harm was dealt with by talking about the use of time. The researcher adhered to the time limits set.

5.4.2.2 Freedom from exploitation

Ensuring freedom from exploitation means taking the necessary precautions to prevent any disrespectful or abusive treatment of subjects in the research study. The use of time involved the risk of exploitation in this study (Polit & Hungler 1993:357). The researcher explained the amount of time that was likely to be used when she obtained the participants’ informed
The researcher was aware that she could misuse her position as an action netball player and therefore did not include participants in her own team as informants.

5.4.2.3 The risk/benefit ratio

The risk/benefit ratio refers to the results of careful analysis of the possible benefits and risks of a study. If risks are identified, they should be fully outweighed and justified by the expected benefits. An attempt should be made to minimise risks and maximise benefits (Burns & Grove 2001:205; Polit & Hungler 1993:357).

The participants in this study were informed of the expected risks and benefits. The benefits were not immediate or obvious to the participants in this study, but they did enable the researcher to complete the research. In the long run, the benefits could allow for an intervention to manage diverse workforces as well as further studies. The only risks in this study were possible discomfort in talking about diversity and loss of time.

5.4.3 The principle of respect for human dignity

The principle of respect for human dignity includes the right to self-determination, full disclosure and informed consent.

5.4.3.1 The right to self-determination

The right to self-determination implies that the participants can choose whether or not they wish to be involved in the study, without coercion. The researcher informed the participants that they had the right (Polit & Hungler 1993: 358)

- not to divulge information on certain questions
- stop participating at any time
- to ask for clarification at any time
5.4.3.2 The right to full disclosure

The right to full disclosure means that participants have the right to be fully informed about every aspect of the study (Polit & Hungler 1993:359). The participants in this research were fully informed about the purpose and nature of the study before they were interviewed.

5.4.3.3 Informed consent

Informed consent ensures that the participants participate voluntarily (Silverman 2002:201).

The participants in this study were informed that it could help as an intervention in managing diverse workforces. The participants were requested to answer the questions as precisely and accurately as possible - whatever questions they were willing to answer. They were informed that the interviews would last about one hour. If they agreed, the interviews were tape-recorded, but if they did not approve, the researcher made written notes of their responses. If they required a summary of the study, the researcher was willing to give them one on completion of the study.

The researcher expressed her appreciation for the participants’ cooperation and the fact that they had the right to terminate the interview at any stage. The methods of maintaining anonymity, privacy and confidentiality were explained to the participants (Brink & Wood 1998:301; Polit & Hungler 1993:359).

5.5 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The findings are presented and discussed in chapter 6 of this research. Feedback was given to those participants who requested it.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations will be discussed in chapter 7 of this research study. The recommendations relate to the findings on the aim to use sport interventions to reduce diversity constraints in an organisation.
5.7 SUMMARY

A qualitative research approach was adopted in this study. A literature review was conducted prior to data gathering and the researcher focused on the trustworthiness and ethical considerations in the study. A purposive sample group was used, and guided interviews were conducted using open ended questions. Prior to making recommendations for this study, the questions will first be analysed and themes identified and discussed.

Chapter 6 discusses the reporting and interpretation of the results and the integration of the research results.
6.1 INTRODUCTION:

This chapter discusses the findings of the study. Three main themes emerged from the study, namely perception of diversity, experience of diversity and experiences relating to participating in team sport with diverse co-workers. Subthemes were also identified in the main themes.

The first objective of this study was to explore the perceptions of a diverse group of employees in two financial institutions of a number of diversity constraints following their participation in a formal organisation sport intervention. The second objective was to study the possible influence of organisations team sport interventions on employees’ relationships between, trust towards and respect for one another (chapter 1, section 1.3). The main themes and subthemes covered the objectives of this study.

The findings were based on the literature review and the data obtained from three focus groups, two individual interviews and follow-up interviews (chapter 5, table 5.2). The discussion relates to the possible impact that organisation team sport interventions have on diversity constraints in financial organisations.

6.2 GRAPHICAL ILLUSTRATION OF DIVERSITY IN THE DIFFERENT FOCUS GROUPS AND INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

It was necessary for the researcher to use a diverse sample because the purpose of the study was to determine whether organisation team sport interventions have an impact on the participating employees’ relationships with, trust in and respect for employees from different backgrounds. Before discussing the actual data analysis, the diversity in the total sample, in all three focus groups and the individual interviews needs to be graphically depicted.
6.2.1 Total diversity in all the focus groups combined and individual interviews:
overall diversity of participants

The diversity of the total sample (three focus groups and interviews) is indicated in tables 6.1 to 6.9, and then discussed.

**Table 6.1: Frequency distribution: race profile of the total sample of participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.1, the sample comprised 76.9% white participants, 19.2% black participants and 3.9% Indian participants. More than 75% of the participants were white. Annexure A highlights the history of netball. In the late 1800s netball was played in England. Most of the residents in England during the late 1800s were white. One can only conclude that the reason why more white participants were used in this study is because netball was previously regarded as a white female team sport. The fact that 25% of the sample was from the African and Indian race groups made the sample sufficiently diverse for the study to be conducted.
Figure 6.1: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by race

![Pie chart showing sample distribution by race.]

Table 6.2: Frequency distribution: age profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 – 25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 – 40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 45</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.2, the sample comprised 46.2% of the participants who were between the ages of 20 and 25, 15.4% between the ages of 26 and 30, 11.5% between the ages of 31 and 35, 15.4% between the ages of 36 and 40 and 11.5% between the ages of 41 and 45. Almost half of the participants were between the ages of 20 to 25 years old. Age was not expected to influence the expectations and experiences that much because most of the participants were in fact between 20 and 25.
Figure 6.2: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by age

Table 6.3: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.3, the sample comprised 65.4% female participants and 34.6% male participants. There were more female participants in the total sample. Netball is mainly a women’s game, but nowadays, men also appear to have discovered the game (annexure A). Although the sample consisted of more women (65.4%) than men (34.6%), it still represented both gender categories sufficiently to ensure valid observations of the perceptions and experiences of the male and female participants.
Table 6.4: Frequency distribution: language profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>69.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shona</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sepedi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zulu</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tswana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.4, the sample comprised 11.54% English-speaking participants and 69.23% Afrikaans-speaking participants, 3.85% Shona-speaking participants, 3.85% Sepedi-speaking participants, 7.69% Zulu-speaking participants and 3.85% Tswana-speaking participants. Most of the participants were Afrikaans speaking. Table 6.1 indicates that most of the participants were White. According to a study of South Africa’s population, the white population descended from the colonial immigrants (Dutch, French Huguenot, German and British). In South Africa, 39.3% of the white population speaks English, 59.1% Afrikaans and less than 2% a nonofficial language (Anon. 2007). The participants speaking an African language constituted nearly 20% of the sample and the Afrikaans-speaking group consisted
69.23%. Although there were more Afrikaans-speaking participants in the sample there were still enough African-speaking participants represented to ensure that the perceptions and experiences of the African language group would come across strongly.

Figure 6.4: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by language

Table 6.5: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>92.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahai</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.5, the sample comprised 92.30% of the participants who were Christian, 3.85% who were Hindu and 3.85% who were Bahai. Only two participants were not Christian. The one participant was in focus group 3 (financial organisation 3), while the other was involved in an individual interview. According to a study on the South African population, approximately two-thirds of its population is Christian (Anon. 2007). The tiny percentage (7.7) of participants who were non-Christian may have inhibited these participants’ statements about their perceptions of and experiences in their participation in an organisation team sport.
Figure 6.5: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by religion

Table 6.6: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.26, the sample was made up 46.15% single marital status participants, 50% married participants and 3.85% engaged marital status participants. Only one participant was engaged to be married. Marital status was thus fairly represented, with the highest representation of 50% married participants. The fact that 46.15% of the sample were single and 50% married made the sample sufficiently diverse for the study to be conducted.
Figure 6.6: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by marital status

Table 6.7: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business analyst</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead agent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial planner</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial controller</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin coordinator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial advisor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System developer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial/administration staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development manager</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service consultant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuarial student</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales advisor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client care staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to table 6.7, the sample of participants comprised the following: 7.69% were business analysts; 7.69% were lead agents; 3.85% were financial planners; 3.85% were financial controllers; 7.69% were PA’s; 3.85% were admin coordinators; 3.85% were financial advisors; 3.85% were system developers; 3.85% were administration staff; 3.85% were development managers; 7.69% were actuaries; 3.85% were service consultants; 3.85% were involved in internal services; 11.54% were accountants; 11.54% were actuarial students; 3.85% were consultants; 3.85% were sales advisors and 3.85% were involved in client care. The job designations were fairly equally represented, with the highest representation of actuarial students (11.54%) and accounts staff (11.54%). Because the sample was divided into numerous diverse job designations, it was sufficiently diverse for the study to be conducted.

Figure 6.7: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by job designation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business analyst</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead agent</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial planner</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial controller</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin coordinator</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial advisor</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems developer</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial/admin staff</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development manager</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuary</td>
<td>7.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service consultant</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal services</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>11.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuarial student</td>
<td>11.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultant</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales advisor</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client care staff</td>
<td>3.85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk implementation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myriad</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk and Savings</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STS sales</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client services</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal services</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAS: portfolio accounts</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspire</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.8, the sample comprised the following: 3.85% of the participants worked in risk implementation department; 3.85% worked in the myriad department; 15.38% worked in the sales department; 3.85% worked in the finance department; 7.69% worked in the risk and savings department; 3.85% worked in the STS sales department; 3.85% worked in the MDS department; 7.69% worked in the IT department; 3.85% worked in the membership department; 3.85% worked in the corporate department; 3.85% worked in the client services department; 3.85% worked in the internal services department; 26.92% worked in the FAS: portfolio accounts department; 3.85% worked in the Aspire department and 3.85% worked in the business department. The highest departmental representation was in the FAS: portfolio accounts (26.92%). The rest of the departmental representations were fairly equally represented. Since the sample was divided into different departments, this made it sufficiently diverse for the study to be conducted.

**Figure 6.8: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by department**
Table 6.9: Frequency distribution: duration of the period in which the participants played netball for the company profile of the total sample of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of the period in which the participants played netball for the company</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 – 1 year</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – 3 years</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>42.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 – 5 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 7 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.9, the sample was made up in such a way that the majority of the participants (46.15% and 42.31%) had only played netball for a short period of time (less than three years). Most of them were between the ages of 20 and 25 (table 6.2). When the age component is compared to the period for which the participants played netball for the company, one can assume that most of the participants had been employed by the financial organisation for only a short period. Organisation team sport is a new concept in many organisations, which could explain why most of the participants in the sample group had participated in organisation team sport for between 0 and 3 years only.
Figure 6.9: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by the duration of the period in which the participants played netball for the company

6.1.1 Diversity in focus group 1

The diversity of focus group 1 is depicted in tables 6.10 to 6.15, and then discussed.

Table 6.10: Frequency distribution: race profile of the first focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.10, the sample comprised 74% white participants and 25% black participants.

Figure 6.10: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by race (focus group 1)
Table 6.11: Frequency distribution: age profile of the first focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 – 25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 – 40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.11, the sample comprised 62.5% of the participants between the ages of 20 and 25, 25% between the ages of 26 and 30 and 12.5% between the ages of 41 and 45 years.

Figure 6.11: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by age (focus group 1)
Table 6.12: Frequency distribution: language profile of the first focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shona</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sepedi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.12, the sample consisted of 12.5% English-speaking participants, 62.5% Afrikaans-speaking participants, 12.5% Shona-speaking participants and 12.5% were Sepedi-speaking.

Figure 6.12: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by language (focus group 1)
Table 6.13: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the first focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.13, the sample comprised 62.5% single marital status participants, 25% married participants and 12.5% engaged marital status participants.
Figure 6.13: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by marital status (focus group 1)

Table 6.14: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the first focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business analyst</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead agent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial planner</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial controller</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative coordinator</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.14, the sample consisted of 25% of the participants who were business analysts, 25% who were lead agents, 12.5% who were financial planners, 12.5% who were financial controllers, 12.5% who were PA’s and 12.5% who were administrative coordinators.
Figure 6.14: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by job designation (focus group 1)

Table 6.15: Frequency distribution: department profile of the first focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Risk implementation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myriad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk and savings</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STS sales</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.15, the sample comprised 12.5% who worked in the risk Implementation department, 12.5% who worked in the myriad department, 37.5% who worked in the sales department, 12.5% who worked in the finance department, 12.5% who worked in the risk and savings department and 12.5% who worked in the STS sales department.
Figure 6.15: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by department (focus group 1)

6.1.2 Diversity in focus group 2

The diversity of focus group 2 is depicted in tables 6.16 to 6.21, and then discussed.

Table 6.16: Frequency distribution: age profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 – 25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 – 30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 35</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 – 40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.16 the sample consisted of 42.87% of the participants between the ages of 20 and 25, 14.28% between the ages of 31 and 35, 28.57% between the ages of 36 and 40 and 14.28% between the ages of 41 and 45.
According to table 6.17, the sample comprised 28.57% female participants and 71.43% male participants.
According to table 6.18, the sample comprised 14.29% of the participants who were English-speaking and 85.71% who were Afrikaans-speaking.
Figure 6.18: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by language (focus group 2)

![Diagram showing sample distribution by language]

Table 6.19: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.19, the sample consisted of 28.57% single marital status participants and 71.43% married participants.
Figure 6.19: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by marital status (focus group 2)

Table 6.20: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial administrator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System developer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development manager</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service consultant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal services staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.20, the sample consisted of 28.5% of the participants who were financial administrators, 14.3% who were system developers, 14.3% who were development managers, 14.3% who were actuaries, 14.3% who were service consultants and 14.3% who were involved in internal services.
Figure 6.20: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by job designation (focus group 2)

Table 6.21: Frequency distribution: department profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk IT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail Service IT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client Services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.21, the sample comprised 14.286% of the participants who worked in the MDS department, 14.286% who worked in the risk IT department, 14.286% who worked in the membership department, 14.286% who worked in the retail service IT department, 14.286% who worked in the corporate department, 14.286% who worked in the client services department and 14.286% who worked in the internal services department.
6.1.3 Diversity in focus group 3

The diversity of focus group 3 is depicted in tables 6.22 to 6.29, and then discussed.

Table 6.22: Frequency distribution: race profile of the third focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.22, the sample comprised 77.8% white participants, 11.1% black participants and 11.1% Indian participants.
According to table 6.23, the sample consisted of 22.22% of the participants who were between the ages of 20 and 25, 22.22% between the ages of 26 and 30, 22.22% between the ages of 31 and 35 years, 22.22% between the ages of 36 and 40 and 11.11% between the ages of 41 and 45.
Figure 6.23: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by age (focus group 3)

Table 6.24: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the third focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.24, the sample consisted 55.56% female participants and 44.44% male participants.
Figure 6.24: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by gender (focus group 3)

![Gender distribution graph]

Table 6.25: Frequency distribution: language profile of the third focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tswana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.25, the sample comprised 11.11% English-speaking participants, 77.78% Afrikaans-speaking participants and 11.11% Tswana-speaking participants.
Table 6.26: Frequency distribution: religious profile of the third focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>88.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.26, the sample consisted of 88.89% of the participants who were Christian and 1.11% were Hindu. It is necessary to point out that this sample group was the only sample group in which the participants differed according to their religions.
Figure 6.16: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by age (focus group 2)

Table 6.17: Frequency distribution: gender profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.17, the sample comprised 28.57% female participants and 71.43% male participants.
Figure 6.17: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by gender (focus group 2)

Table 6.18: Frequency distribution: language profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>85.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.18, the sample comprised 14.29% of the participants who were English-speaking and 85.71% who were Afrikaans-speaking.
Figure 6.18: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by language (focus group 2)

Table 6.19: Frequency distribution: marital status profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.19, the sample consisted of 28.57% single marital status participants and 71.43% married participants.
Figure 6.19: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by marital status (focus group 2)

Table 6.20: Frequency distribution: job designation profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial administrator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System developer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development manager</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actuary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service consultant</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal services staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.20, the sample consisted of 28.5% of the participants who were financial administrators, 14.3% who were system developers, 14.3% who were development managers, 14.3% who were actuaries, 14.3% who were service consultants and 14.3% who were involved in internal services.
Figure 6.20: A graphical illustration of the sample distribution by job designation (focus group 2)

Table 6.21: Frequency distribution: department profile of the second focus group sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MDS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk IT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Membership</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail Service IT</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client Services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Services</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 6.21, the sample comprised 14.286% of the participants who worked in the MDS department, 14.286% who worked in the risk IT department, 14.286% who worked in the membership department, 14.286% who worked in the retail service IT department, 14.286% who worked in the corporate department, 14.286% who worked in the client services department and 14.286% who worked in the internal services department.
Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Why do you say diversity is the difference between people?

The participants’ perceptions were that if all the people were the same, there would be no diversity between people. Another participant explained that no one is the same and that is how diversity exists.

**Discussion**

At this stage it was necessary to ask this question to establish whether the participants were aware of the meaning of diversity before the researcher could continue with the interviews. If the participants could not give an exact definition of diversity, the aim of this study, namely to explore the perceptions of a diverse group of employees on a number of diversity constraints after their participation in a formal organisation sport intervention, would be in vain. The findings confirmed that the participants understood the basic definition of diversity and that the research could continue.

The participants perceived diversity to be the differences between people. The results support Hayles and Russell’s (1997:11) view (section 2.2) that diversity is all the biological and environmental differences in employees.

**6.3.1.2 Subtheme 1.2: dimensions of diversity**

The main question and answers relating to the dimensions of diversity are set out in table 6.31.

**Table 6.31: Dimensions of diversity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: Give me some examples of diversity between people.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[A3] Participant 5: “It is not only ethnic groups, it is also age, race, education, marital status, gender.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[B5] Participant 13: “Cultural differences as well”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C5] Participant 21: “And cultural differences and gender.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participant 25: “Diversity is not only incorporated in different cultures but also incorporated in a lot of skills for making it work for whatever purpose. It could include age, gender, cultures, languages, religions.”

Participant 26: “… race, gender, financial status, language, age.”

**Probing/follow-up questions and answers**

- What are the differences in culture, language, race, gender, religion, financial status, education and marital status?

The examples that the participants cited where White, Indian, black, coloured people (differences in race); Christian, Hindu, Moslem (differences in religion); Male versus female (differences in gender); married, divorced, single or engaged (differences in marital status) and qualified or not qualified (differences in education); rich versus poor (differences in financial status).

**Discussion**

The participants were aware of the different dimensions of diversity, although they were not able to group the diversity dimensions into primary and secondary dimensions. The findings support Grobler et al.’s (2006:77) view (section 2.4) that diversity is divided into primary and secondary dimensions. Primary dimensions are unchangeable and dominant, while secondary dimensions can be modified, discarded or acquired and their influence is therefore less constant than primary dimensions. Figure 2.1 is a graphical representation of the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.

**6.1.1 Theme 2: experiences of diversity**

The answers to the following questions during the focus groups gave rise to this theme:

- Do you ever experience diversity in your workplace?
- What are the advantages of working in a diverse environment?
- From your experience, what are the constraints in working in a diverse organisation?
- Did you learn more about one another when playing together in a netball team?
• You are all playing in a diverse team. What have you experienced from this team? What are the disadvantages of playing in a diverse team?
• Do departments work together more effectively when they participate in the same team sport?
• Did you learn anything about other cultures?
• Do you think productivity can also be an advantage?
• Is diversity in a company bad?
• Why is there diversity in a workplace?
• Do these disadvantages prevent you from playing together in one diverse team?

This theme unfolded in the following subthemes:
• Subtheme 2.1: experience of diversity in the workplace
• Subtheme 2.2: advantages of diversity in the workplace
• Subtheme 2.3: diversity constraints in the workplace
• Subtheme 2.4: disadvantages of diversity in playing a team sport

6.1.1.1 Subtheme 2.1: experience of diversity in the workplace

The main question and answers relating to the experience of diversity in the workplace are indicated in table 6.32.

Table 6.32: Experience of diversity in the workplace

Main questions: Do you ever experience diversity in your workplace?

| [A6] Participant 3: “Yes, I mean, every single day we are surrounded by people of different races, different languages, come from different places and so forth.” |
| [C14] Participant 16: “There is diversity at work i.e. age, race, gender.” |
| [B15] Participant 9: “We experience diversity every day. Sometimes it is not always, but it is also age, all the differences in people. You can’t really get away from diversity and it is not always a bad thing.” |
| [A21] Participant 6: “You also have the people who are feelers / see-ers / hearers. I mean that is also a diversity constraint. I have a manager who is a feeler. He does not send me an e-mail. He will not reply on my e-mail. That is diversity in a person’s character and that is also...” |
very important, because, now someone sends him an e-mail, you do not know him and you will expect an e-mail back, but you will not get an e-mail back. So I guess that is a more deeper level of diversity.”

[B11] Participant 10: “In most cases what I experience is whenever there is a social gathering, even a social gathering in the workplace, Indians are together, Whites are together, Blacks are together. Even male –vs- female as well.”

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Why is there diversity in a workplace?

The participants’ answer to this question was that everyone is different and diversity is everywhere, not only in the workplace - especially in South Africa with its diverse ethnical groups and 11 languages.

Discussion

The participants indicated that they were aware of diversity at work, more particularly in differences in age, race, gender and character. The results support Thomas and Robertshaw’s (1999:3) view (section 2.3) that South Africa is known for its diversity and if diversity in organisations is not managed, it can result in low morale, which means that organisations will not be able to increase their productivity or achieve their goals.

6.1.1.2 Subtheme 2.2: advantages of diversity in the workplace

The main question and answers relating to the advantages of diversity in the workplace are depicted in table 6.33.

Table 6.33: Advantages of diversity in the workplace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: What are the advantages of working in a diverse environment?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[A43] Participant 1: “It makes the environment interesting. You learn from one another.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[A46] Participant 6: “Definitively also creativity and innovation. A person coming from lets</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
say Kwazulu-Natal – just now going geographically. There will be different opinions and different ways of doing certain things. So innovation is also an advantage for diverse organisations.”

[A50] Participant 7: “… diversity helps out company to be more productive.”

[A52] Participant 3: “… with everyone’s differences and how they grew up, if they put it together you can make a strong organisation which could help the organisation in productivity.”

[B18] Participant 13: “…diversity is almost always interpreted as a bad thing, but diversity is not always a bad thing because if you had only university honors level employees in a company and they all are on the same level, it would not work because we not only need that type of employees, we need all different types of employees in a company to make it work and being in a diversity country you need to respect the diversity as well. And experiencing diversity, I think I have also experienced that – coming initially from a company where all people were of a similar type of education level and background and things like that, as you move you start interacting more widely where you actually interact with people with all different levels and it is very important to be able to adjust yourself and almost to respect different people’s cultures and beliefs and so forth. I think it is very important to have an experience to it so that you can adapt yourself and know how to act in different areas.”

[B52] Participant 12: “When I look at diversity – different race, different age levels if it, I don’t want to use the word “manage” necessarily, but if you manage it correctly, then it definitely can increase productivity, because you have different people doing things differently and that give the company the ability to do more in less time.”

[C33] Participant 23: “Yes, I agree, different people view things differently and different cultures think differently and when the organisation takes all the different views into consideration it will definitely give them an advantage above the other organisations.”

[C38] Participant 21: “No. It makes an organisation interesting. Everyone is different.”

[C39] Participant 19: “I think it is good if the people can work together.”

[C40] Participant 24: “I agree. Diversity opens up your mind and experience to other things you were not exposed to.”

[D23] Participant 25: “O, everything that you have to learn. It is beautiful. Some people from a different department tells you no, we do this and we do that and we do that. So I think the best is our different cultures – on 23 September we always have a culture day at our company and it is “potjies” all around and people are making “breyani” and other people is making “magodi” and you can actually go and taste all of that. That is quite cool. And we
dress up and we look pretty. It is true that the differences in an organisation can help an organisation to grow. Some people think it this way and other people think it that way and somewhere you find a common point.”

[B52] Participant 4: “…. is “managed” because you have different people doing things differently and that give the company the ability to do more in less time. But the opposite is also true. If you don’t keep your finger on the pulse, it can haywire very quickly. You really need to look at that consistently”.

[B59] Participant 5 “… it is important to respect a person’s different ways of doing things but you can’t allow complete freedom. You almost need to try and bring it in and maybe everybody needs to sort of like adapts slightly so that you can be more productive. You do want diversity at work”.

**Probing/follow-up questions and answers**

- Do you think that diversity can improve productivity, and why?

The participants agreed that if diversity is not managed, it is impossible for the organisation to grow. Organisations need to manage their diversity because different employees do things differently and that enables the organisations to do more in less time.

It is vital to respect an employee’s different ways of doing things, but total freedom is not permissible. Every employee needs to adapt slightly so that the company can be more productive.

**Discussion**

It is clear from the information gathered from the participants that they were aware of the advantages that diverse organisations can offer. Diversity can make an environment more interesting because one learns more from one another and the organisation has more creativity and innovation, which improve productivity. However, diversity needs to be properly managed. If an organisation is able to manage its diversity, it will have an advantage over its competitors.
The participants’ perceptions confirm Invancevich & Gilbert’s (2000:75) input-output diversity management model that describes how diversity management initiatives have an influence on organisational and personal outcomes.

6.1.1.3 Subtheme 2.3: diversity constraints in the workplace

In chapter 1 (section 1.3) the following objective was stated for the study: to explore the perceptions of a diverse group of employees from two financial institutions on a number of diversity constraints following their participation in a formal organisation sport intervention.

The main question and answers relating to diversity constraints in the workplace are highlighted in table 6.34.

Table 6.34: Diversity constraints in the workplace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: From your experience, what are the constraints in working in a diverse organisation?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[A10] Participant 1: “Language or communication.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[A12] Participant 6: “…the way they think about things. The other day some of my colleagues had a meeting and he said that they were all like in the late 60’s and they are all the Baby Boomers and I am from Generation Y, there are a lot of generation gaps. I think we have to look at, to help to company to go forward because top management is all before the Baby Boomer time and the rest of the organisation is more from the 1970’s / 1980’s.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[A18] Researcher: “… do you mean that the Baby Boomers think differently than the Generation Y?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[A20] Participant 6: “Most definitely. You also have the people who are feelers / see-ers / hearers. I mean that is also a diversity constraint.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C18] Participant 18: ‘Language, it is difficult to communicate with one another if you don’t speak the same language.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C20] Participant 21: “Gender is also a problem. Men think differently than women.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C22] Participant 16: “Age can also be a problem. Young people don’t want to have conversations with old people.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C27] Participant 20: “Culture or race can also be a problem. We don’t also understand the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
other culture’s backgrounds and believes.”

[D15] Participant 25: “Actually I have a good incident to show about this. A lot of people say something that has a different meaning in another culture. Can I tell you a little story now… A couple of weeks ago, this one black guy always said “jisses” and in the black culture, it is just an expression but it means a lot more for especially White Christians, because he was wondering why everyone was picking on him. So I went to him and explain to him that in a black culture that is only an expression but in a white culture, it totally has another meaning.”

[E6] Participant 26: “Language can be a barrier sometimes because someone can say something and the other person takes it in the wrong contents clearly because they don’t know what you meant by it. Same also can gender be an issue or financial status when someone makes a joke about “ag, R5 is nothing to me” when I know that to the next person it could be a big deal. So those are the implications where diversity comes into play and people don’t really understand it.”

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Do you think diversity is bad

The answers given by the participants were that although diversity makes the organisation interesting, everyone is different. People need to work together in a team, and diversity opens up one’s mind and experiences to other things one was not exposed to.

- Can it impact on trust?

The participants agreed that diversity can impact on trust because there are sometimes misconceptions about what one has heard and one does not necessarily allow people one’s splace, because one does not know them.

Discussion

From the data gathered it was apparent that there are constraints in diverse organisations. The participants experienced the following disadvantages:

- differences in language (impact on communication)
• religion
• generations
• gender
• culture

The results also supported the following authors’ views:

• Nieman and Bennett (2002:332) (section 3.4.6) contend that effective communication is an important requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace.
• Daiana (n.d.:1), (section 3.4.7) explains that employees need to understand the different cultures, and this is another vital requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace;
• According to Aker (2009:46) (section 3.4.7), employees need to understand the different generations, and this is another key requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace.

6.1.1.4 Subtheme 2.4: disadvantages of diversity in playing a team sport

The main question and answers relating to the disadvantages of diversity in playing a team sport are indicated in table 6.35.

Table 6.35: Disadvantages of diversity in participating in team sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: You are all playing in a diverse team. What have you experienced from this team? What are the disadvantages when playing in a diverse team?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| [C44] Participant 17: “Language can be a barrier because we are used to shouting in Afrikaans on the court but half the time I sometimes forget that participant 6 and 9 are English.”  
[C51] Participant 16: “And also the different player’s character. I like to shout on the court when we play a game to encourage the other players, but someone else doesn’t like it and they all of a sudden stop and don’t give their best, whilst other people have a boost when I shout and encourage them on the court.”  
[C55] Participant 20: “Because I am almost the eldest, I think age can also be a constraint because I am not as fast as the other young players and when I have an injury it will not heal" |
as quickly as other youngster’s injuries.”

[C168] Participant 16: “My biggest constraint would be language. It is difficult for me to express myself in English.”

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Do these disadvantages prevent you from playing together in one diverse team?

The participants all agreed that the disadvantages do not play a major role in their sport team. They became friends and learnt more about one another’s cultures and personalities. There was more trust and respect between the participants and they became friends.

Discussion

The possible constraints that the participants may experience when playing in a diverse team sport are language, the different personalities of the players and generation gaps, but they overcame these constraints because they learnt more about one another. There was thus more trust and respect (section 6.3.3.1).

6.1.2 Theme 3: experiences relating to participation in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers

The answers to the following questions gave rise to this theme:

- What are the advantages of participating in a diverse sport team?
- Do you think that organisations need to use sport to minimise negative diversity related experiences in the company?
- Does the organisation support sport members?
- Do you talk about sport in the workplace?
- Do you socialise with your team members?
- Do you know the other netball teams in the organisation?
- Do you feel that the company appreciates you as an employee because of its support of sport members?
• Does the company lose a lot of money when it pays for all your t-shirts, registration fees and half the game fees?
• Do you talk to clients about sport? .... Who of you watched the rugby and soccer this weekend?
• Who spoke about the weekend’s rugby with co-workers?
• Do you think that sport is time consuming and that productivity in the company suffers because of the time spent on sport events?

This theme unfolded in the following subthemes

• Subtheme 1: organisation team sport outcomes that diminish diversity constraints and advance the attainment of diversity management objectives
• Subtheme 2: the company’s support of sport members
• Subtheme 3: benefits of sport events in organisations
• Subtheme 4: advantages of being able to conduct conversations about sport

6.1.2.1 Subtheme 3.1: organisation team sport outcomes that diminish diversity constraints and advance the attainment of diversity management objectives

In chapter 1 (section 1.3), the following was stated for the study: to explore the possible influence that an organisation’s team sport intervention may have on employees’ relationships between, trust towards and respect for one another

The main question and answers with regard to the benefits of participating in team sport with co-workers are highlighted in table 6.36.

Table: 6.36: Organisation team sport outcomes that diminish diversity constraints and advance the attainment of diversity management objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: What are the advantages of participating in a diverse sport team?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[B159] Participant 12: “We do get more support from one another if you play together in a team. Now if you walk up and down the hall you see people that you play netball with you will find that there is always something that you can talk about, because we play netball together.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participant 12: “It [sport] definitely enables a more open communication than we had before the time. When we played the departmental games, it made a big difference to communication. You can work with a person who sits next to you for 5 years and never really speak to him if you don’t do anything outside work together.”

Researcher: “In other words, you sit next to someone else, but you don’t really know him because there is no other interaction with one another, except work? You learn more about him.”

Participant 14: “… the people were on higher levels than me, so you greet one another, but that is all, but when you play sport together, everyone was almost like on equal level, I mean, we had more of an upper hand, because we knew the game and some of them didn’t and the “fights” that broke out were incredible. Everyone wants to play the same positions. And yes, the whole office was more friendly with one another after that.”

Participant 15: “Before the departmental challenge, you would walk passed someone and didn’t greet them at all, but after the departmental challenge where you were talking and joking with one another, the next day at work you can actually greet him and have a chat.”

Participant 14: “Sport makes friends that would normally not happen.”

Participant 14: “But what we do is that we practice during the week at a Thursday, after work. We are there for a reason. Even though we do it for fun, there is still commitment … One of the advantages is that we learn more about the other culture’s background.”

Participant 12: “And employees are less sick. If you can bring down your absenteeism by 5% you save millions a year. If you sponsor people to stay fit, the company will definitely benefit.”

Participant 17: “Because we play in the same team, we don’t just walk past them what we would have done if we have not played in the same team. We actually stop and start a conversation. Just to hear how it goes. We always have something to talk about, even if it was last night’s game.”

Participant 22: “We had an inter departmental challenge last week where we played action soccer, action netball, action cricket and volleyball and some co-workers in our department were so good in sport, we never even knew that until we had this inter departmental challenge.”

Participant 24: “And we meet other people that we probably would not interact with.”

Participant 19: “We also ensure that we are on time for the games and we don’t practice a lot, but if we do, we make sure that we are there, because the team needs us and we need them. [Commitment] We trust one another.”

Participant 17: “…Well, I wouldn’t know them that well if they didn’t play netball. We are all working in the accounting and actuary department and one of the other netball players that is playing in another team is working in the finance department and if I need something from the
finance department, I normally phone him because, regardless of the fact that he knows everything, he became my friend.”

[D36] Participant:25: “I learnt a lot from the other people [in the team]. From where I come from, I was in an Afrikaans High School so I have a lot of Afrikaans friends, but it is not only different races that you learn, you learn more about people in general because there is one girl who is English and the rest are Afrikaans and then you do learn a lot from cultures and people as a whole. I know more about my team mates know as what I would have known if we did not play netball together. Honestly, I wouldn’t knew them at all. If I see them now I say hi, hi how’s it going. And I can go out to them and say “Hey guys, you would not believe what had just happened to me”.

[E18] Participant 26: “When you understand a person and you know a person or when you are willing to go the extra mile, things immediately will become better, the trust issue, the respect issue because in a way you made an effort to try and bring in more diversity, thus acknowledging yourself and the people around you. The organisation gets to actually have a harmonious feeling, because people are diverse but they acknowledge it and work around it or work together to make the organisation succeed.”

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Do you socialise with your team members?

The participants did socialise together. They sat together, next to the court while they were waiting for their games and after their games they stayed a while to talk about the game. Most of the participants’ games were late at night and some of them had husbands/wives and children. They therefore went and played and enjoyed the game, but went home after it. (There is a bar area at the action netball court where players and supports can sit and socialise, but most of the participants indicated that they did not socialise at the bar - only for a short while before and after the game). Most of the participants mentioned that because of being involved together in sport, when they say pass one another in the corridor, they stop and talk to one another, before moving on, because they have learnt more about one another and have become friends.

One of the participants had sprained her ankle during a netball game and reliant on others. She said that it was amazing that the people she asked to help her were her netball friends. She stated “If I want someone to help me, I start phoning my netball friends”.

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• Do you know the other teams’ (of that specific organisation) netball players? Do you watch the other teams and support them when they are playing on the court?

The participants knew the other players in other teams and when they were participating in a game, they would sit next to the court and support them. They also became friends with the participants in the other teams, and when the other teams needed a team player, they would be more than willing to help them out.

According to one participant, the whole team supports other teams, and not only the teams that play netball - other teams such as rugby, soccer, cricket and volleyball.

• A probing question was put to participant 21 because she was the only black woman in the team. The researcher wanted to know if she had learnt more about the white players’ culture.

Participant 21 responded as follows “Yes, I learnt a lot. Because we play in the same team, we don’t just walk pass one another ... We actually stop and start a conversation. Just to hear how it goes. We have always something to talk about, even if it was last night’s game”.

• Another probing question was put to participant 24 because she was the only Indian woman in the team. The researcher asked her if she had learnt more about the white players’ culture and if her team members had learnt more about the Indian culture.

Participant 24 said that “I learnt a lot from the white culture. I also explained to them my background and about the Diwli, that is, the Hindu’s festival of light”.

Discussion

From the data gathered, it is evident that the participants experienced benefits in the workplace while participating in organisation team sport with co-workers, as highlighted below.

• They had more support
• They experienced improved interpersonal communication
• They learnt more about one another
• They made friends
• Employees were less often sick and this reduced absenteeism in the organisation
• Trust and respect were increased
• Commitment was evident
• There was a harmonious feeling in the group and organisation.

The results support the views of the following authors with regard to the significant requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace:

• Wilson (2009:50) and Nieman and Bennett (2002:334) (section 3.4.4) contend that high levels of interpersonal and intergroup trust are a vital requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace.
• Tehrani (2005:1) and Ratliff and Brackner (1998:39) (section 3.4.5) confirm that high levels of interpersonal and intergroup respect are a key requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace.
• Nieman and Bennett (2002:332) (section 3.4.6) maintain that effective communication is an important requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace.
• Aker (2009:48) (section 3.4.7) confirms that a crucial requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace is to understand the differences between age generations (section 3.4.7).
• Daiana (n.d.:1) (section 3.4.7) is of the view that a primary requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace is to understand differences in culture.

The participants’ perceptions also supported the following authors’ views on the contributions of sport to effective diversity management:

• According to Cashmore (2003:66) (section 4.4.2), organisational team sport participation improves individual commitment.
• Kortex (2006:1) (section 4.4.4) holds that organisational team sport participation improves mutual trust among employees.
• Downs (2009:1) (section 4.4.5) contends that organisational team sport participation improves mutual respect between employees.
• According to Carrigg (2007:1) (section 4.4.6) organisational team sport participation improves inter-employee communication.
• Muleskinner (2003:1) (section 4.4.7) confirms that organisation team sport participation enhances employees’ interpersonal knowledge of other employees.

The participants’ perceptions also support figure 4.1 which is a summary of the advantages of interpersonal knowledge gained through sport participation.

A study by Chandler (2006:44) (section 4.4.8) found that when participants experience support during organisation team sport, it ensures that workers are more willing to engage in work tasks after the sport event. They also tend to feel more valued.

Maruhn (2004:1) (section 4.3) is of the opinion that if employees are healthier and happier, they see the results in increased productivity and better quality work. Sport has the ability to filter aggressive and violent behaviours because participants are able to “let off steam”.

6.1.2.2 Subtheme 3.2: company’s support for sport members

The main question and answers relating to the company’s support for sport members are set out in table 6.37.

Table 6.37: Company’s support for sport members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: Does the organisation support sport members?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[B20] Participant 13: “Yes, they subsidize about 50% if you are part of the sports club.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[B251] Participant 14: “And they also pay for the outfits that you are wearing. And there are special sport events, like bike riding – out company advertise it like creasy, they even give you a sporty bag, t-shirt.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[B258] Participant 17: “Our company feels that if you participate in sport, you will be a healthier person and that will benefit the company.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C120] Participant 19: “Yes. We have t-shirts that they sponsor.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participant 23: “If you belong to the sport club, like all the other netball players around this table, the organisation pays the registration fee and half of the game fees.”

Participant 25: “Yes, they pay our money for the games, they gave us shirts. We do also get co-workers who come and support us, even though they do not play action netball. And it is not only one race, it is every single person.”

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Do you feel that the company appreciates you as an employee because it supports sport members?

The participants felt that the company did appreciate them because it supported them, and this in turn encouraged them to give more back to the company. According to one participant, they were willing to go the extra mile for their company because the organisation valued them.

- Does the company lose a lot of money if they pay for all your t-shirts, registration fees and half the game fees?

The participants’ perception was that the company gained more from their employees if they were involved in organisation team sport because employees tended to be ill less often. If absenteeism is decreased by only 5%, a company can save millions a year. If companies sponsor people to stay fit, the companies will definitely benefit.

Discussion

It is clear from the data gathered that the participants felt that their company supported sport members. The support of the organisation includes subsidies (i.e. the company pays half of the games and registration fees), advertisements, outfits (i.e. t-shirts) and spectators (non-playing netball players in the company made the effort to support the participants during games). The results supported the views of Molyneaux (2007:24), Blachard (2009:1) and Kaplan-Williams (2009:1) (section 3.4.1) who confirmed that an important requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace is that organisations need to create an organisational culture in which the employees are viewed as valuable human beings.
The participants’ perceptions also confirm Posten’s (1998:324) view that a more favourable diversity culture is created through sport participation. According to Posten (1998), sport participation increases self-esteem through affiliation and identification because the participants all wear the same team colours (outfits). They know the players’ positions and names, and therefore feel an integral part of the team. Accordingly, when a team wins, the spectators’ self-esteem improves because it is aligned to the team’s triumph (section 4.4.8).

6.1.2.3 Subtheme 3.3: benefits of sport events in organisations

In chapter 1 (section 1.3) the following objective was stated for the study: to explore the possible influence that organisation team sport interventions may have on employees’ relationships between, trust towards and respect for one another.

The main question and answers relating to the benefits of sport events in organisations are highlighted in table 6.38.

Table 6.38: Benefits of sport events in organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: Do you think that organisations need to use sport to minimise diversity constraints in the organisation?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[B206] Participant 10: “To go back to the support, even though we don’t work together, if we walk past one another and see that he is down, and he says that it is not going so well, you do support him.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[B210] Participant 10: “... and I play soccer with the guys as well, and I mean, I am the only “whitey” and I would not have gotten to know them as well as I do today, had I not been playing with them in a team.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[D119] Participant 25: “... in terms of sport in companies, especially big companies, there are so many people and you are so busy during the day that you never get the time to know the people you are working with, so things like sport and team outings help a lot, not only in growing yourself, but in knowing your fellow players but also the people who are working with you.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[E68] Researcher: “... sport helps you to have better communication, you learn from one another, there is trust and support there is commitment.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[E71] Participant 26: “... And friendship.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
[E54] Participant 26 “… regardless whether it is sports, even at work, as I said, it is easier for me to go to one of them since I know them in a way instead of going to someone I never had to deal with in the company before.”

[E47] Participant 26: “…. I have to say, me and the girl are now friends and from 1 January I will start to work with her in the same department, so I already have a friend by the time I move in there, so it is quite nice, because I know I can talk to her about other stuff and not only work, because she knows me on a more personal level.”

[E39] Participant 26: “And also when you play with other people in a team you also get to know that person’s good behaviour and bad behaviour. You get to see when they are upset about something and when they are excited. You get to see both sides of the coin instead of just sitting together in an office.”

Probing/follow-up questions and answers

- Do you think that sport is time consuming and that the company will lose productivity because of the time spent on sport events?

At the time of the interviews, the participants were all playing in an action netball team and their games were all after hours. The participants agreed that when organisation team sport is implemented in organisations the participants feel valued and are willing to work longer hours and work towards the company success because employees are now friends. Sport increases open communication, trust, respect, support and commitment between employees. The organisations do not lose production time. The converse is actually true. The company gains more from employees who are participating in sport.

Discussion

From the data gathered, it is apparent that the benefits of sport events in organisations experienced by the participants are as follows:

- Support from team members
- getting to know one another
- communication
• trust
• commitment
• friendships

The abovementioned results supports subtheme 3.1 above, (benefits of participating in team sport with co-workers) (section 6.3.3.1).

The participants' perceptions support the views of the following authors with regard to the important requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace:

• According to Wilson (2009:50), and Nieman and Bennett (2002:334) (section 3.4.4), a vital requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace is high levels of interpersonal and intergroup trust.
• Tehrani (2005:1) and Ratliff and Brackner (1998:39) (section 3.4.5) contend that high levels of interpersonal and intergroup respect are key requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace.
• Nieman & Bennett (2002:332) (section 3.4.6) state that effective communication is a significant requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace.
• According to Aker (2009:48), (section 3.4.7) another key requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace is understanding the differences between age generations (section 3.4.7)
• Daiana; (n.d.:1) (section 3.4.7) holds that understanding the differences in culture, is an essential requirement for effective diversity management in the workplace.

The results also support the views of the following authors with regard to the contributions of sport to effective diversity management:

• Cashmore (2003:66) (section 4.4.2) maintains that organisational team sport participation improves individual commitment.
• According to Kortex (2006:1), (section 4.4.4), organisational team sport participation improves mutual trust between employees.
• Downs (2009:1) (section 4.4.5) confirms that organisational team sport participation improves mutual respect between employees.
• According to Carrigg (2007:1), (section 4.4.6), organisational team sport participation improves inter-employee communication.

• Muleskinner (2003:1) (section 4.4.7) states that organisation team sport participation enhances employees’ interpersonal knowledge of other employees.

The results also support figure 4.1, which is a summary of the advantages of interpersonal knowledge experienced in sport participation.

A study by Chandler (2006:44), (section 4.4.8) concluded that support during organisation team sport, ensures that employees feel more valued and are more willing to engage in work tasks after the sport event.

Maruhn (2004:1) (section 4.3) maintains that if employees are healthier as a result of organisation team sport participation, the productivity in an organisation will increase and the quality of employees’ work.

6.1.2.4 Subtheme 3.4: advantages of being able to conduct conversations about sport

The main question and answers relating to the advantages of being able to conduct conversations about sport are pinpointed in table 6.39.

Table 6.39: Advantages of being able to conduct conversations about sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main question: Do you talk about sport in the workplace?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[B244b] Participant 12: “... when you talk about sport, it always breaks that initial barrier. I am not an extrovert and when you talk about sport, it is a common ground and usually sport falls nicely into that.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[B247b] Participant 19: “It is nice to talk about sport, Sport makes people connect.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[C151] Participant 20: “… just to break the ice.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Probing/follow-up questions and answers**

One participant explained that she felt it is highly unprofessional to talk about sport in the workplace and with customers.

- The researcher asked the following probing question: *“Do you talk to clients about sport? Who of you watched the rugby and soccer this weekend?”* (It was the curry cup final that weekend).

All of the participants watched either soccer or rugby that weekend.

- The researcher then asked the following question: *“Who spoke about the weekend’s rugby with co-workers?”*

According to participant 17, it was the first thing that he spoke about that morning. Participant 18 further stated that he thought that everybody spoke about that weekend’s rugby. When the researcher once again asked the question whether they talk about sport in their workplace and with customers, all of them agreed that they did and they regarded it as an icebreaker.

**Discussion**

From the data gathered it was found that the advantages the participants experienced of being able to conduct conversations about sport were that it breaks down barriers, it represents a common ground, it makes people connect and it is an icebreaker.

The abovementioned conclusions confirms Chandler’s study (section 4.5.1) that sport conversations allow the respondents to communicate more effectively with their colleagues and it also breaks down the hierarchical barriers with their managers and CEO’s.

According to Bernstein *et al* (2008:22) a multigenerational and diverse workplace can effectively be managed when individuals are willing to find common ground. Johnson (2008:1) confirmed this statement by adding that sport is a perfect icebreaker in many organisations, especially when diverse teams have no other common ground.
6.2 SUMMARY

To achieve maximum clarity and understanding of the data, the data were carefully read and the important concepts and recurring themes identified. Irrelevant data were discarded. The themes identified were grouped into four main themes with subthemes. That data were then correlated with the literature review to ensure a better understanding.

In the final chapter, the conclusions and limitations of the study will be discussed and recommendations made for practice and future research.
7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the conclusion drawn in this study, discusses the limitations and makes recommendations for organisations in terms of the implementation of team sport interventions to minimise diversity constraints in an organisation. The chapter also touches on the possibility of conducting further research on the topic.

The findings and recommendations discussed below are based on the perceptions and experience of 26 employees employed at two financial organisations who participated in an organisation team sport.

The research objectives of the study were as follows:

- **Main objective:** To explore the perceptions of a diverse group of employees from two financial institutions on a number of diversity constraints following their participation in a formal organisation sport intervention

- **Objective 2:** To explore the possible influence that the organisation team sport intervention may have on employees’ relationships, trust towards and respect for one another

The researcher conducted a literature review to collect information on the problem and objectives. A research problem was identified and the research objectives then formulated. A non-probability purposive sample technique was used to identify the 26 participants for the focus groups and the individual interviews. The focus group interviews, individual interviews and follow-up interviews were conducted to illicit the required information in order to achieve the research objectives.
During the data analysis phase, reflexivity, bracketing and intuiting were implemented which formed the basis for the data analysis. The three main themes that emerged during the focus group and individual interviews were the participants’ perception of diversity, their experience of diversity and their experiences in participating in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers. Lincoln and Guba’s (1985:55) model of trustworthiness for qualitative research was used to ensure the trustworthiness of all the data gathered. The four criteria of trustworthiness, namely credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability were applied. The three main themes with subthemes emerged in the data analysis, and guidelines were formulated to facilitate future transformation.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

From the results presented and discussed in chapter 6, conclusions were drawn with regard to the objectives that had been set. The three main themes were interrelated. The conclusions will be discussed below, according to the themes.

7.2.1 Conclusions relating to the participants’ perceptions of diversity

7.2.1.1 Perceptions of the definition of diversity (main theme of perceptions of diversity)

It is concluded that the participants perceived diversity as the differences between people (section 6.3.1.1). A full discussion of the definition of diversity in the literature was provided, and it was shown that the results obtained from the participants support the findings in the literature.

Diversity management cannot be implemented in an organisation if there are no differences between employees. Diverse employees need to combine their personal creativity and innovation in the workplace and need to work together to increase productivity in the organisation.

7.2.1.2 Perceptions of the dimensions of diversity (main theme of perceptions of diversity)

It is concluded that the participants were aware of the different dimensions of diversity, such as background, race, age, gender, education, marital status, religion, language, culture and
financial status (section 6.3.1.2). The participants’ perceptions about the different dimensions of diversity support the findings in the literature.

Diversity management initiatives such as organisation team sport are essential to mould a diverse workforce into a cohesive team to ensure that the employees’ differences such as culture, age, sex and race gives the organisation a competitive edge.

7.2.2 Conclusions relating to the participants’ experience of diversity

7.2.2.1 Experiencing diversity in the workplace (main theme of experience of diversity)

It is concluded (section 6.3.2.1) that the participants’ perceptions were that they do experience and are aware of diversity in the workplace. The diversity they experience is in age, race, gender and characters. The participants’ perceptions of the diversity in the workplace reflect the perceptions reported on in the literature.

South African organisations which are renowned for their diversity, need to manage their diverse workforces more effectively through organisation team sport, to enable organisations to be more competitive.

7.2.2.2 Advantages of diversity in the workplace (main theme of experience of diversity)

It was concluded in section 6.3.2.2 that the participants experienced a number of advantages emanating from a diverse workforce. These advantages are as follows:

- Diversity makes the workplace a more interesting environment because employees learn more from one another.
- There is more creativity and innovation in the organisation which can result in greater productivity, but diversity needs to be managed.
- If an organisation is able to manage its diversity, this will give it a competitive edge over other organisations.

An input-output diversity management model was developed by Invancevich and Gilbert (2000:75). This model describes how the management of diversity through initiatives has an
influence on the organisation and employees’ personal outcomes. If diversity is managed through an organisation team sport intervention (input), it will impact on the diversity constraints (output).

7.2.2.3 Constraints of diversity in the workplace (main theme of experience of diversity)

It is concluded that the participants experienced the following diversity constraints in the workplace (section 6.3.2.3), which concurs the findings in the literature:

- differences in language
- differences in religion
- differences in generations
- differences in gender
- differences in culture

When employees experience the above-mentioned diversity constraints in the workplace, the organisation is unable to gain the competitive edge. Implementation of an organisation team sport intervention is of utmost importance to minimise these diversity constraints.

7.2.2.4 Diversity constraints experienced when participating in an organisation team sport (main theme of experience of diversity)

From the results gleaned from the participants (section 6.3.2.3), the conclusion drawn is that the participants experienced a number of constraints when participating in a diverse organisation team sport. These were language, the different personalities of the players and generation gaps which tie in with findings in the literature.

Although the participants experienced more constraints, they confirmed that sport does promote open communication, trust, respect, support and the participants become friends (sections 6.3.3.1 & 7.2.3.1).
7.2.3 Conclusions relating to the participants’ experiences of participating in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers

7.2.3.1 Organisation team sport outcomes that diminish diversity constraints and advance the attainment of diversity management objectives (main theme of participating in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers)

The participants did experience several benefits when participating in organisation team sport with co-workers (section 6.3.3.1). These experiences included more support for one another, improved interpersonal communication, learning more about one another, making friends, being ill less often which reduces absenteeism in the organisation, an increase in overall commitment, increased mutual trust and respect and there is a harmonious climate in the organisation. The participants’ perceptions of the benefits of participating in team sport with co-workers concur with similar findings in the literature.

Organisation team sport participation enhances employees’ knowledge of others because they share the same physical space and transfer information. Organisation team sport strengthens friendships and creates harmony in diverse groups.

7.2.3.2 Company’s support for sport members (main theme of participating in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers)

It is concluded that the participants felt that their company supported sport members (section 6.3.3.2). The participants perceived that their company viewed employees as valuable human beings, which confirms the findings in the literature.

When employees feel that their organisation supports them when they participate in organisation team sport, they feel as if the organisation values them, and this ensures that they are more willing to engage in their work and help the organisation to increase its productivity.
7.2.3.3 Benefits of sport events in organisations (main theme of participating in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers)

It is concluded that the participants felt that sport events in an organisation have several benefits. These include support from team members, getting to know one another, communication, trust, commitment and friendships (section 6.3.3.3).

If employees from diverse organisations can work together because they participate in organisation team sport, this will give the organisation a competitive edge over other organisations whose employees are unable to work together. Organisation team sport is therefore an excellent initiative to use as a diversity management intervention.

7.2.3.4 Advantages of being able to conduct conversations about sport (main theme of participating in organisation team sport with diverse co-workers)

It can be concluded that the participants’ perceptions of the advantages of sport conversations were that they break down barriers, create common ground, sport conversations connect people and serve as an icebreaker (section 6.3.3.4).

When conversations about sport are experienced as an effective icebreaker, they connect people and break down hierarchical barriers. This emphasises the significance of organisation team sport in organisations in managing diversity. Sport enhances the sharing of ideas and promotes innovation and creativity.

7.3 PERSONAL EXPERIENCES DURING THE STUDY

The researcher found this study personally, academically and professionally enriching. It enabled her to gain a better understanding of the effect that organisation team sport has on diversity constraints in financial organisations. A future challenge would be to conduct further studies in this field.
7.4 STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

It was possible to interview participants at their workplace in a boardroom in which disturbances were limited. This allowed the participants to feel in control of the situation, and the researcher could observe them in their work environment.

The participants were friendly and cooperative. They were willing to share information and as soon as they realized that the researcher was not judgmental and interested in what they had to say, they shared their experiences more openly.

The researcher is vastly experienced in the field of the intervention. She has been playing action netball for more than eight years and is familiar with the game. She also knew some of the participants. The researcher is thus conversant with the situation and was more accessible to the participants. Although the researcher is also an action netball player, it should be emphasised that bias was restricted and this research reflects on the participants’ personal perceptions only. The researcher did not allow preconceived ideas to influence the conclusions and finding.

7.5 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

Certain limitations such as the researcher bias, participant effect and data collection and analysis were identified in this study. Based on the conclusions drawn from the findings of this study, recommendations can be made for implementing organisation team sport interventions to minimise diversity constraints and for conducting further research.

7.5.1 Limitations and recommendations relating to the researcher’s bias, the participant effect and data collection and analysis

The researcher’s longstanding association with action netball could have increased bias (section 7.4). To prevent bias, reflexivity, intuiting and bracketing were implemented in all the phases of the study. Peer review was also conducted in this study. An experienced researcher reviewed the interviews, transcriptions, analysis and coding and a colleague (an industrial psychologist) accompanied the researcher to all the interviews and took handwritten notes. This enabled the researcher to listen attentively to the participants and ask the
necessary probing questions where applicable, while the industrial psychologist took down notes.

Participant effect could also be another limitation. The data collection process was in the form of focus group interviews, individual interviews and follow-up interviews, and the participants may have withheld some of their experiences. Private and personal experiences may have been withheld during the data gathering process owing to the lack of anonymity to the researcher. This may also have biased the data and research findings.

It was necessary for the researcher to conduct follow-up interviews in order to probe, clarify and do an in-depth study. This was extremely time consuming and it was difficult to contact all the participants. When further studies are conducted, a more in-depth study would be necessary during the focus group interviews and individual interviews to ensure that follow-up interviews would not be necessary.

This qualitative research relied on the researcher’s judgments of data gathering and analysis. The researcher was the primary data collection instrument during the unstructured focus group, individual interviews and follow-up interviews and analysis of the data. The possibility of bias was overcome throughout all the stages of the study by applying trustworthiness, reflexivity, bracketing and intuiting.

7.5.2 Limitations and recommendations regarding the implementation of sport interventions in organisations to minimise diversity constraints

The main aim of this study was to determine whether participation in a formal organisation team sport intervention affects the diversity constraints between employees employed at a financial organisation. The sample was represented by diverse employees working at financial organisations that permit participation in action netball.

The main challenge that diverse organisations face is managing diverse workforce. It is difficult to encourage a diverse team to work together in harmony when they are so different in race, gender, ethnic, sexual preferences, generations and religion.
There is no doubt that discussions about sport break down barriers between co-workers, customers and suppliers. This can make or break a relationship between co-workers. Conversations about sport are constantly used by employees to tear down social barriers in the workplace and also promote more productive working relationships. Sport enhances the sharing of ideas and promotes innovation and creativity.

The contribution that organisation team sport makes to effectively managing diversity is that a strong bond is established between employees in the organisation during sport events. They are encouraged to share information which helps to increase productivity. Business relationships can be created while talking sport, attending sport events or playing sport. Organisation team sport is therefore a vehicle to create opportunities to share goals and visions, improve individual commitment, improve cohesion, increase trust and respect in a workforce, improve communication between employees and enhance employees’ knowledge of other employees. The contributions that organisation team sport make to an organisation are all requirements for effective diversity management in the workplace.

It is therefore recommended that organisation team sport be used in diverse organisations to minimise diversity constraints in organisations. It is further recommended that the word “harmonise” as opposed to the word “diversity” is used because companies and employees need to change their negative perception (that diversity only emphasises differences) of diversity into a more positive perception. Organisations need to work towards a more harmonised workforce.

7.5.3 Limitations and recommendations for further research

Since this study was conducted in two financial organisations, the findings cannot be generalised. When considering transferability of the findings, the context in which the study is conducted should be taken into account. It is recommended that the research should be repeated to include more differentiation of organisations and a larger sample group.

More in-depth research should be conducted to investigate the effect of organisation team sport interventions on diversity constraints in an organisation. This study involved too few black and Indian men and Indian women. The majority of participants in this study were white females. The reason why relatively more white female participants were included and
interviewed is because netball is regarded as a female sport. According to Drummond (2009:8) netball is traditionally a women’s game.

The focus of this study was on the employees in two financial organisations participating in a team sport. The researcher interviewed only those participants who played in a netball team. Several other sports such as hockey, cricket, soccer, rugby and volleyball should also be considered as team sports.

7.6 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the conclusion of the research findings. The findings and recommendations were discussed according to the three main themes derived from the study. Possible future studies and the strengths and limitations of the research were also highlighted.

The researcher trusts that this study will contribute to enhancing the importance of implementing organisation team sport interventions in organisations to minimise diversity constraints.

Most employees like to participate in sport, while non-participating employees tend to enjoy watching it. Hence organisation team sport is becoming a critical resource in supporting diversity management programmes in organisations.


Casison, J. (2008). One size does not fit all. Incentive 6, June: 44.


MacLaughlin Frandsen, B. (2009). Fostering effective work relationships. *Long-Term Living*, 58(9), September: 56.


THE HISTORY OF NETBALL

The UK is known as the home of netball, whilst the USA is seen as the nation of developers of the game. Dr Toles, an American, who worked with student teachers in London at Madame Osterberg’s Physical Training College, taught basketball, which was originally known and played by women in the USA, to student teachers in London. At first there was a raised mark at each end of the court, but Dr Toles modified this to dustbin baskets where the players tried to throw the ball into a basket on the other side of the court. There were no boundaries and almost no rules, but as the game developed and became more popular, it became an outside game, with rings and nets, played with a larger ball and the court was laid out as we know it today.

Netball started in 1895 and is an adaptation of basketball. English ladies had trouble dribbling the ball and trying to run in their long skirts, long sleeves and high-buttoned boots. Hence certain adaptations were made to some of the basketball rules, and this is how today’s well-known game of netball came in existence. In 1900, the first netball rules were set by the Physical Education Association. Netball was introduced to schoolgirls by the former student teachers, who had played the game during their training. Netball was extremely popular because it did not require a lot of equipment or space. Netball is mainly a women’s game, but nowadays men also play it. Netball is played on all five continents and in over 50 countries.

NATURE OF NETBALL

There are seven players on a side and the team is made up of defensive players (goal defence, wing defence and goal keeper) and attack players (goal attack, wing attack and goal shooter). There is also the centre player.

The playing area for each player is as follows:
Action netball is an indoor sport. It is played in a court fully enclosed by netting. The rules are slightly different from those of outdoor netball because it is necessary to compensate for the nets surrounding the courts (Drummond 2006). The nets are therefore an integral part of the game, where the ball always remains in play. Traditionally, netball was seen as a game for only girls and women, but teams in which men and women participate, better known as mixed teams, are becoming more popular, especially when netball is played indoors (action netball) (Drummond 2009).
Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by me, Yvonne Joubert.

The purpose of this study is to investigate whether the integration of organisation team sport interventions minimise the diversity barriers between employees employed at financial organisations.

Please note the following:

- The study involves an anonymous survey. This means that your name will not appear on the questionnaire and the answers you give will be treated in strict confidence. You cannot be identified in person on the basis of your responses.
- Your participation in this study is important to me. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may stop participating at any time, without any negative consequences.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. I will provide you with a summary of the results of my findings on request.
- Should you have any queries, do not hesitate to contact me at yjoubert@gmail.com.

Please sign this form to indicate that

- you have read and understand the above information
- you give your consent to participate voluntarily in the study

__________________________________  __________________________________
Respondent’s signature  Date
1. What is your definition of or explanation for the word “diversity”?

2. Do you ever experience diversity in your organisation?

3. What are the constraints in working in a diverse environment?

4. What are the advantages of working in a diverse environment?

5. What are the advantages and disadvantages of participating in a diverse sports team?

6. What are your experiences of playing sport in a diverse group? How has your experience of being part of a diverse netball team helped you to overcome the diversity constraints in your workplace?

7. Based on your experience, do you have any suggestions on how various sports can be used in the workplace to overcome diversity constraints?
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