

**Networking practices among diverse cultures and generations at a Gauteng mine**

by

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Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

**MASTER OF COMMERCE**

In the School of Business Management at the  
**Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University**

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**November 2011**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to:

God, for the blessings I have received; and thank you for bringing the most remarkable people into my life.

My parents, Andries and Maryna Buys, for teaching me that anything is possible if you work hard enough and for being true examples of what is possible when you have faith.

Jaco Bean, for your unconditional support, love and understanding. Thank you for your patience.

My brother and sister, Andries and Hes-Mari Buys, for shaping me into the person that I am today and for teaching me to fight the battles that you pick.

Prof J. Kroon, thank you for your guidance and assistance, and for believing that I have the potential to complete this piece of work.

Prof S. de Klerk, thank you for your support, honesty, words of encouragement and for planting a seed of curiosity on the topic.

Mrs. J.W. Breytenbach, thank you for your professionalism in analysing the data and helping with the statistical results.

My friends, you know what you mean to me and thank you for always having faith in me when I doubted myself.

Harmony Mine, thank you for being so accommodating and supportive during the fieldwork for the study. Every person and participant with whom I had the privilege of interacting, thank you.

## ABSTRACT

Business management is characterised by fast and ever-expanding development. Culture and generation play an increasingly important role in the management of businesses worldwide. Although studies have been conducted on the subjects of culture and generation, little attention has been paid to culture and generation as a combination of diversity characteristics. As more managers are realising the challenges that arise when managing diverse work environments, the modern manager must question old assumptions about how diverse people work together. In this modern age, it is important to understand diversity issues on all levels of management. Networks are based on people's backgrounds, and understanding the link between networking and diversity is becoming increasingly important. In a culturally complex country such as South Africa, experiencing the impact of diversity on a daily basis can be anticipated. Culture and generation are two terms that encompass all dimensions of diversity.

This study investigates the different networking practices found among diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine. The generational classification used in this study is based on the fact that generations differ from country to country; therefore, the classification used in this study is relevant to South African generations. Seven hypotheses were formulated pertaining to differences among cultural and generational groups with regard to networking practices. Furthermore, four cultural-generational groups were identified, namely Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers. Data was collected from Kusasaletu mine employees. The original sample frame comprised 3630 employees from which a sample was chosen that complied with the criteria for culture, age / generation and education. A total of 1046 employees remained from which the sample elements were chosen by making use of probability, systematic proportionate stratified sampling. Self-completion questionnaires were used for collecting the data. A total of 289 questionnaires were completed which constituted a 100% response rate. The questionnaire used was intended to obtain feedback from respondents regarding their cultural and generational diversity, as well as preferences pertaining to their networking practices. The results from the survey were used to determine the differences between diverse cultures and generations with regards to networking practices.

The findings, supported by the rejection of the first null-hypothesis, indicated that there are indeed a number of salient differences between Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers. Specifically, the results indicated that White Baby Boomers incline to rarely use the medium of SMS when

networking while this group also makes use of telephones when networking more often than Black Generation X'ers. Furthermore, Black Baby Boomers more frequently use e-mails when networking while Black Generation X'ers indicated that they rarely use e-mail as network medium. It was found that White Baby Boomers make use of one-on-one face-to-face methods more often when networking than Black Generation X'ers and White Generation X'ers. The largest number of differences was between Black Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers. The respondents all indicated that they incline to value good relationships at work highly, that they agree that informal work environments are conducive to more effective networking practices, that they frequently have good influences on their families and that they network more during spare time than at work. The results also indicated that the mediums that are used most often when networking include the cell phone and one-on-one face-to-face methods. Respondents tended to rate sharing experiences and exchanging work ideas as very important aims for networking.

By dividing diverse workforces into smaller, more manageable units or homogeneous groups, diversity management can be simplified. This is an ability for which managers can be trained and which should be applied correctly within a business environment. In view of the results, it is recommended that managers of diverse workforces should identify different generations and cultures as a way to manage them more effectively. Furthermore, managers should ensure that work environments that are conducive to good relationship building and informality need to be created. Additionally, conflict between Black Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers should be handled cautiously with a view to ensure that effective solutions are achieved to such conflicts. Preferences with regard to network mediums should be noted, as such awareness may lead to more effective networking / communication within businesses. Management's approach to meetings needs to be reviewed for each group, because differences exist in terms of preferences in this regard. A working environment conducive to exchanging ideas and experiences should be created. Lastly, as all groups value good relationships at work, a climate that encourages openness and conflict resolution should be created.

## OPSOMMING

Bestuurswese word vandag gekenmerk deur snelle en uitgebreide ontwikkeling. Wêreldwyd speel kultuur en generasie 'n toenemend groter rol in die bestuur van ondernemings. Alhoewel daar reeds studies onderneem is met betrekking tot kultuur en generasie, is daar weinig aandag aan kultuur en generasie as 'n kombinasie van diversiteits-eienskappe geskenk. 'n Groeiende aantal bestuurders is bewus van die omvang van die bestuurseise wat deur diverse werksomgewings gestel word, en so ook bevroegte bestuurders toenemend gekykte aannames ten opsigte van hoe diverse mense saamwerk. In die eietydse omgewing is dit belangrik om die aard van diversiteitsgeskilspunte te verstaan op alle vlakke van bestuur. Netwerke is gebaseer op mense se agtergrond; daar is toenemend klem op die belang van die skakel tussen netwerkpraktyk en diversiteit. In 'n kultureel komplekse land soos Suid-Afrika kan mens verwag om daagliks die impak van diversiteit waar te neem. Kultuur en generasie is twee terme wat al die dimensies van diversiteit omvat.

Hierdie studie bied 'n ondersoek na die verskillende netwerkpraktyke van diverse kultuur- en generasiegroepe by 'n Gautengse myn. Die generasie-klassifikasie gebruik in hierdie studie is gebaseer op die feit dat generasies van land tot land verskil; daarom is die klassifikasie wat in hierdie studie gebruik is relevant tot Suid-Afrikaanse generasies. Sewe hipoteses is geformuleer wat almal verband hou met die verskille tussen kultuur- en generasiegroepe ten opsigte van netwerk-praktyke. Verder is vier kultuur-generasiegroepe geïdentifiseer, naamlik Swart Generasie X'ers, Swart *Baby Boomers*, Wit Generasie X'ers en Wit *Baby Boomers*. Data is verkry vanaf werknemers van die Kusasaletumyn. Die oorspronklike steekproef-raamwerk het bestaan uit 3630 werknemers waarvan 'n steekproef gekies is wat aan die kultuur-, ouderdom- / generasie- en opvoedkundige kriteria voldoen het. 'n Somtotaal van 1046 werknemers het oorgebly, waarvan die steekproef-elemente gekies is deur gebruik te maak van waarskynlikheids-, sistematiese-, proporsionele- en gestratifiseerde steekproefneming. Self-invulvraelyste is gebruik vir die data-insameling. 'n Totaal van 289 vraelyste met 'n 100% terugvoeringskoers is gerealiseer. Die vraelys wat gebruik is, het ten doel gehad om terugvoer te verkry vanaf deelnemers, rakende hul kulturele- en generasie-diversiteit, asook voorkeure ten opsigte van hul netwerkpraktyke. Die resultate van die opname is gebruik om die verskille vas te stel ten opsigte van netwerkpraktyke soos dit voorkom binne diverse kulture en generasies.

Soos gerugsteun deur die verwerping van die eerste nul-hipotese het die resultate getoon dat daar inderdaad verskille bestaan tussen Swart Generasie X'ers, Swart *Baby Boomers*, Wit Generasie X'ers en Wit *Baby Boomers*. Die resultate toon verder dat Wit *Baby Boomers*

neig om selde van SMS as medium te gebruik, en dat hierdie groep meer gereeld gebruik maak van telefone wanneer hulle netwerk in teenstelling met Swart Generasie X'ers. Verder verkies Swart *Baby Boomers* om e-pos te gebruik vir netwerkdoeleindes, terwyl Swart Generasie X'ers aangedui het dat hul nie gereeld van e-pos as netwerkmedium gebruik maak nie. Daar is bevind dat Wit *Baby Boomers* meer gereeld van een-tot-een en aangesig-tot-aangesig-metodes gebruik wanneer hulle netwerk, in teenstelling tot die Swart Generasie X'ers en Wit Generasie X'ers. Die mees merkbare verskille is opgemerk tussen Swart Generasie X'ers en Wit *Baby Boomers*. Die deelnemers het deur die bank aangedui dat hulle geneig is om goeie werksverhoudings hoog aan te slaan; hulle het saamgestem dat informele werksomgewings effektiewe netwerkpraktyke bevorder; dat hulle gereeld 'n goeie invloed op hul families het en dat hulle meer gereeld netwerkaktiwiteite beoefen in hul spaartyd as in werkstyd. Die resultate het ook getoon dat die mediums wat die gereeldste gebruik word vir netwerkdoeleindes die selfoon en 'n een-tot-een, aangesig-tot-aangesig benadering insluit. Deelnemers voel dat om ervarings te deel en werksidees uit te ruil baie belangrike netwerk-doelwitte is.

Deur diverse werksmagte in kleiner, meer hanteerbare eenhede of homogene groepe te verdeel, kan die bestuur van diversiteit vereenvoudig word. Dit is 'n vaardigheid waarvoor bestuurders opgelei kan word, en waarvan die uitvoering in 'n besigheidsomgewing korrek moet geskied. Na oorweging van die resultate word daar aanbeveel dat bestuurders van werksomgewings wat uit diverse groepe bestaan, verskillende generasies en kulture behoort te identifiseer as 'n wyse om hulle meer effektief te bestuur. Verder behoort bestuurders te fokus op die daarstel van werksomgewings wat aanleiding gee tot die bou van goeie verhoudings en wat groter informaliteit aanmoedig. Verder behoort konflik wat bestaan tussen Swart Generasie X'ers en Wit *Baby Boomers* met omsigtigheid hanteer te word om te verseker dat effektiewe oplossings vir sodanige konflik bereik word. Bestuurders behoort aandag te skenk aan voorkeure, ten opsigte van netwerk-mediums wat gebruik word, omdat dit tot meer effektiewe netwerkpraktyke / kommunikasie binne 'n besigheid mag lei. Bestuurders behoort hul benadering tot vergaderings te hersien ten opsigte van voorkeurverskille van verskillende groepe. 'n Werksomgewing wat die uitruil van idees en ervarings bevorder behoort ook geskep te word. Laastens, omdat alle groepe goeie werksverhoudings as belangrik ag, behoort 'n atmosfeer van openheid en gesonde konflikhantering geskep te word.

## LIST OF KEY TERMS

**Diversity**

**Networking**

**Practices**

**Culture**

**Generation**

## LIST OF DEFINITIONS

### **Diversity**

Traditionally, the concept of diversity referred to differences in demographic characteristics, but in current discourse the term also includes differences in values, abilities, interests and experiences (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006:348). Diversity can be defined as any attribute relevant to an individual that creates or reinforces a perception that the person is different from another individual (De Janasz, Dowd, & Schneider, 2009:95). Diversity within a business entails having a range of differences among the people; these might relate to such things as gender, ethnic origin and disability (Daniels & Macdonald, 2005:1). Managing diversity is seen as a way of achieving the most from a workforce by regarding employees not just as members of a particular group but as individuals with particular needs (Davidson & Fielden, 2003:178).

### **Networking**

A network is a set or pair of actors connected by a set of ties. The actors can be persons, teams, businesses or concepts (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:992). In the same manner, social networks consist of relationships among social entities such as individuals, groups and institutions (Igarashi, Kashima, Kashima, Farsides, Kim, Strack, Werth & Yuki, 2008:88). Networking is a term usually used to refer to establishing effective relationships with key people and has been found to be the most important activity performed by managers who were promoted the fastest (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2007:277). Networking not only means establishing effective relationships from outside (externally) into the business (for instance relationships with customers, suppliers, competitors, investors and communities); it also involves more individual relationships from the inside (internally) between departments, teams, functions, offices, divisions, subsidiaries and each individual's relationship with the everyday world around him or her (Baker, 2000:xiii). Relationships are therefore the essence of a network (Paul & Kaltenbach, 2004:32).

## **Practices**

Practices refer to the methods, procedures, processes and rules used in a particular field or profession (Anon., 2011a). A practice is a way of doing something; that is, the usual or expected way in a particular business or situation (Hornby, 2010:1148). Practice means to carry out or perform a particular activity, method or custom habitually or regularly; it also means to actively pursue or be engaged in a particular profession or occupation (Stevenson, 2010:1394). According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1978, 7:1217-1219), practice entails the action of doing something; performance, execution, working, operation, method of action or working; practice is to put into action or operation or to actuate or influence craftily.

## **Culture**

Culture refers to the learned beliefs, values and customs that direct the behaviour of members of a specific group (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007:394). Culture entails shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that are transmitted across generations and that result from common experiences of members of collectives (House & Javidan, 2004:15). Culture therefore entails a system in which individuals share meanings and common ways of viewing events and objects and in businesses; it also refers to the shared beliefs and values among employees that are created and communicated by the managers and leaders of the business (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006: 348). Culture and communication are inseparable because culture not only dictates who talks to whom, about what and how the communication proceeds; it also helps to determine how people encode messages, the meanings they have for messages and the conditions and circumstances under which various messages may or may not be sent, noticed or interpreted – culture is the foundation of communication (Staeheli, 2003:168).

## **Generation**

A generation is a social location that has the potential to affect an individual's consciousness in much the same way as social class or culture does (Mannheim, 1970:378). A generation tends to be about 20 years in length, representing roughly the time from the birth of a cohort of people to the time they come of age and start having their own children (Codrington, 2008:2). Generation theory was probably best popularised by the works of Howe and Strauss (1992). Generation theory entails an attempt to interpret human societal existence and variations in this existence (Jansen, 1975:10). Generation theory explains that the era in which a person was born, affects the development of his or her view of the world; this is because value systems are shaped in the first decade or so of our lives by families, friends, communities, significant events and the general era in which we are born (Codrington, 2008:2). The living generations in the South African workplace at the moment, with the years

within which these generations were born in South Africa in brackets, are (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2004:19):

- *The Silent generation (1930-1949)*
- *The Baby Boomer generation (1950-1969)*
- *The Generation X (1970-1989)*
- *The Generation Y (1990-2005)*

One more generation can be distinguished. This youngest generation is called *Generation Net*. Those belonging to this generation was born from the year 2006 onwards (Gatherer & Craig, 2010:89); they will become a part of the South African workforce in the future. There are three important prerequisites for the existence of a generation, namely a certain time dimension, a particular historical context and a vital style (Jansen, 1975:10).

Through the combination of culture and generation the umbrella of diversity are more fully represented. The differences between cultures compared to other cultures, and similarly generations compared to other generations, will not provide such an in-depth view of the true nature of differences present as a result of diversity. On the contrary, by comparing the culture and generation of one group to the culture and generation of another group more prominent differences will be visible.

### **Mine**

A mine is a business that aims to make a profit and render goods or services. As is the case with all other businesses, mines can be categorised as belonging to a specific industry. Industry denotes all those businesses using similar production processes or methods of rendering similar types of services (Du Plessis, 1996:24). Businesses are grouped into three sectors according to the general nature of their activities, namely the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors. The primary sector includes all those businesses involved in exploiting and supplying raw and unprocessed natural resources for further processing; the secondary sector includes businesses that process the natural resources made available by the primary sector into intermediate and final products, and the tertiary sector includes all those businesses which bridge the gap between producers and consumers by providing a service of some kind (Du Plessis, 1996:27). Mines fall into the primary sector since mining is the process of exploiting raw and unprocessed natural resources.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The proposed study originated in the researcher's curiosity and interest in the people she sees and interacts with on a daily basis. In South Africa, a ten-minute drive to the supermarket is equivalent to watching a short film about a diverse nation with different cultures around every corner. Encounters with differences are, indeed, an increasingly common aspect of everyday life in contemporary cities (Collins, 2009:216). When thinking of diversity among people, it is important to understand that the range of areas where differences can occur is very broad; furthermore, diversity within businesses is concerned with recognising this range of differences in people and valuing people as individuals, which means respecting their differences and their diverse needs (Daniels & Macdonald, 2005:1).

South Africa is not the only country with a diverse and pluralist society. Although the borders of the current study include only South Africa, it is important to realise that all countries consist of multicultural societies today. Horwitz, Bowmaker-Falconer and Searll (1995:671) agree that managing affirmative action and diversity is an important issue in most of today's societies. The notion of "globalisation" has become a widespread phenomenon these days (Mato, 2003:283). Globalisation is the worldwide interdependence of resource supplies, product markets and business competition (Schermerhorn, 2004:35). Globalisation has turned the world into a kaleidoscope of races and cultures that requires mindsets to change and adapt to constantly changing realities. People can migrate to anywhere in the world to pursue those opportunities most beneficial to them; this implies that no single country has a purely single-cultured society. South Africa is a good starting point for research into culturally complex groups, which could be applied to other societies as well.

Diversity has been researched from different perspectives, such as the field of communication for example, but little attention has yet been given to diversity management in the workplace and how different cultures and generations interact with one another in most emerging markets. In the United States of America, for example, many offices are filled with African, Latin, Asian, White and many more diverse workers (Flores, 2003:96-98). Australian authors (Wise & Velayutham, 2009:10) have spent vast amounts of time studying the diverse cultures with which they share neighbourhoods, offices and socialising spots. In London (Watson, 2009:125), in particular, markets have changed dramatically in terms of the ethnic composition of both traders and shoppers as global processes have given rise to

large numbers of migrants living in inner-city areas; in many of these markets today diversity can give the illusion of shopping at a market in India, Pakistan, Africa or Asia - not in London or Los Angeles. Many more such examples exist and South Africa is no exception. South Africa's transition, from an Apartheid state that was widely condemned and diplomatically isolated by the international community to a democracy in 1994, was rightfully characterised as a historical turning point (Stevens, Franchi & Swart, 2006:3). The legacy of Apartheid and the concomitant struggle to find effective ways to manage diversity is the driving force behind the current study. South Africa is a culturally complex country which presents great opportunities for cross-cultural research within a single national boundary (Moulton, 2009:35). For the purposes of the study, the focus will be on culture and generation as dimensions of diversity.

The concept of culture is such a simple one that, in fact, for decades it was hard to understand (Bohannon & Glazer, 1988:xviii). Culture, the dimension to which man owes his biological success, is the sum of all that individuals acquire by communicating with their fellow human beings – behaviour, objects, ideas, knowledge and beliefs; it is believed that culture originated in Africa (Hiernaux, 1975:1). Culture is to society what DNA is to the biological human (Wheelan, 1994:26). A generation, in turn, is an entire body of persons born around the same time (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2004:10). A generation consists of coevals who interpret their circumstances, and by seeing their world in roughly the same way (Jansen, 1975:13). Taken together, cultures and generations are groups of people with similarities; from here it is argued that, communication is a basic necessity in such groups. Of importance is that the way in which people communicate in these groups is not random (Wheelan, 1994:27-29). Therefore, networking practices as part of this larger system of communication need to be studied in order to gain insights about the different ways in which diverse cultures and generations in South Africa can be managed. The South African mining industry is a good example of a diverse working environment. Therefore, a Gauteng mine was selected for the study. Information about demographics and networking practices was gathered by means of questionnaires. The results were analysed with a view to assist managers to understand and manage diversity more successfully in a South African context.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

During practical experience gained when working with businesses, the researcher came to realise that diversity is a complex and interesting notion which implies much more than a single dimension such as race, for example. From discussions with different people it

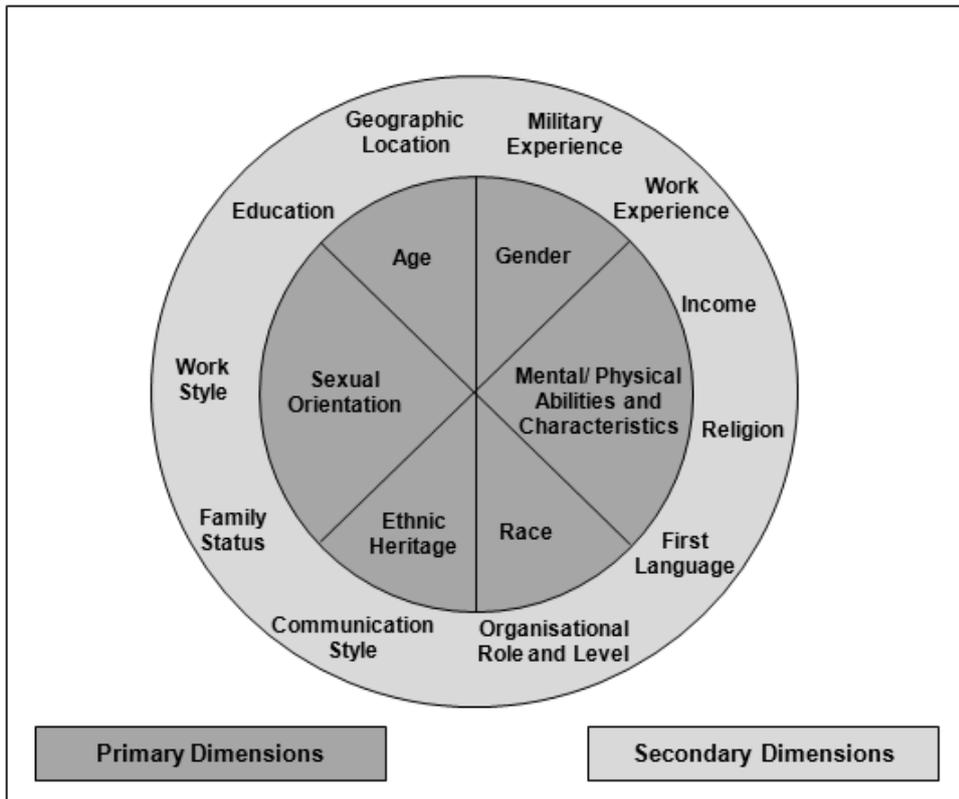
became clear that diversity impacts on all actions – from everyday conduct to business strategies and management.

During the 1930's not much has been written on the subject at hand. With the move from one generation to another the authors also changed. As more freedom and more interaction with diverse individuals became possible, the literature on the subject also grew. During the late 1980's, Gardner (1987) asked, in his book *excellence*, whether it is possible to be equal and excellent at the same time. As the 1990's emerged Kessler (1990) gave insights on managing diversity in equal opportunity workplaces. In 1991, Fernandez (1991) wrote a book on managing a diverse workforce to gain a competitive edge. Taylor and Blake (1991) wrote an article about business trends of globalisation and increasing ethnical gender diversity that turned manager's attention to the management of cultural differences. Roosevelt (1992) also wrote a book about the impact of differences among individuals.

Cultural diversity within businesses was written about by Cox (1994) and Chemers (1995). During times when diversity initiatives were faltering, Loden (1995) wrote about strategies and tactics used by businesses committed to implementing diversity. The topic of communication in a diverse workplace was written about by Kuga (1996). Fine (1996) wrote an article about the challenges posed by the increasing cultural diversity of the United States workforce, followed by Brown (1997) writing a book on the conflicts that arise out of diversity. Robinson and Dechant (1997) wrote an article explaining that although businesses acknowledge diversity, they do not see it as a top priority and Wilson (1997) made the business case for equity in his book *diversity at work*.

Hutcheson and Kruzan (1998) wrote about analysing business culture for managing diversity, while Rufino (1999) wrote the success strategies for diversity. Roosevelt (1999), in his book *building a house for diversity*, offered new strategies for today's workforce. While Tran and Skitmore (2002:36) wrote an article about the common effects of national and international culture on the efficacy of project communication, Zemke, Raines and Filipczack (2002) wrote about the clash of the different generations in the workplace.

With a view to understand the broadness of diversity more fully, one needs to ascertain what diversity is and why it is important. Diversity refers to any aspect relevant to an individual that creates or reinforces a perception that the person is different from another individual. Diversity is therefore the sum total of an individual's uniqueness (De Janasz, Dowd, & Schneider, 2009:95-96). Figure 1.1 illustrates the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.



**Figure 1.1: Primary and secondary dimensions of diversity**

Source: Loden (1995:21).

Diversity and insights as to successfully understand and manage it do not only apply to South Africa. Horwitz *et al.* (1995:671) agree that managing affirmative action and diversity is important; indeed, managing diversity is one of the primary issues faced by businesses today (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:97). The primary dimensions of diversity include race, age, ethnicity, gender, physical ability and sexual orientation. Workplace diversity is a broader issue, and therefore the secondary dimensions of diversity is integrated here, including such things as religious beliefs, education, experience, family status, income and language among others (Schermerhorn, 2004:22-23). From figure 1.1, two terms can be distinguished that capture the essence of both the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity: *culture* and *generation*. Diversity signals differences in individuals' actions and, similarly, cultures and generations differ in terms of relationship building, networking and communicating.

Dimensions of diversity such as ethnic heritage, race, work style, communication style, language, religion and geographic location, as depicted in figure 1.1, fall within the broader umbrella of culture. Culture refers to shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that are transmitted across generations that

result from common experiences of members of collectives (House & Javidan, 2004:15). In the increasingly globalised world of today, it is important to understand salient differences among cultures and to also gain insight into how these differences can potentially affect communication between members of diverse cultures (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:101). South Africa is a culturally complex country that presents challenging opportunities for cross-cultural research within the confines of a single national boundary (Moulton, 2009:35). In particular, the colonial history of South Africa resulted in the bringing together of many cultures; this can be seen as the beginning of South Africa's cultural diversity. The term "rainbow nation", as used by former president Nelson Mandela, describes South African society as a mixture of cultures (Schultz, 2003a:133). It follows that South Africa has a peculiar mix of cultures that, in turn, requires research strategies peculiar to this country's business environment. According to Moulton (2009:6), too much reliance has been placed on American-made management theories for countries which are very different from the United States. The South African population can be divided into numerous cultural groups and sub-groups. For the purpose of the current study, four cultural groups will be distinguished: White South Africans, Black South Africans, Coloured South Africans and Indian South Africans.

Diversity dimensions such as age, mental / physical abilities and characteristics, sexual orientation, family status, education, military experience, work experience, income and business role and level, as depicted in figure 1.1, fall within the definition of generation as the era in which a person was born; a person's generational age influences and predicts these dimensions. Mannheim (1970:378) explains that a generation is a social location that has the potential to affect an individual's consciousness in much the same way as social class or culture does. The generations to which individuals belong refer to the era in which they were born, as well as the worldviews that have been developed and influenced by this era (Codrington, 2008:2). Therefore, different generations will have divergent worldviews that will also vary from one country to country another. The living generations in the South African workplace at the moment, with the years during which these generations were born in South Africa in brackets, are (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2004:19):

- *The Silent generation (1930-1949)*
- *The Baby Boomer generation (1950-1969)*
- *The Generation X (1970-1989)*
- *The Generation Y (1990-2005)*

The reason for this study was to determine the networking practices of diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine.

### 1.3 GOAL OF THE STUDY

#### 1.3.1 Goal

The goal of this research is to investigate the networking practices of the diverse cultural and generational groups represented at a Gauteng mine.

#### 1.3.2 Objectives

The objectives for the study are to:

- Define the diverse cultural groups present at a Gauteng mine.
- Describe the generational groups that are present a Gauteng mine.
- Define diverse groups in terms of cultural and generational differences.
- Identify the differences in networking practices among the diverse groups at a Gauteng mine.
- Suggest recommendations about managing diversity at South African mines.

### 1.4 HYPOTHESES

An hypothesis is an assumption or guess that a researcher makes about some characteristic of the population being investigated (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:455). The abbreviation *Np* refers to *Networking practices*. The following hypotheses were formulated for the study:

$$1. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$H_a$ : There is somewhere a difference between Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers **with regard to networking practices.**

$$2. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$3. H_0: \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$4. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers}$$

$$5. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$6. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$7. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Generations\ X'ers}$$

## 1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 1.5.1 Literature study

Prospective researchers should acquaint themselves with previous research by undertaking a literature survey (Welman & Kruger, 2001:33). Background information should be gathered and an investigation of the existing literature on the topic needs to be performed. A literature survey involves the perusing of statistics, trade journal articles, other articles, magazines, newspapers and books for data or insight into the problem at hand (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:676). The purposes of a literature review include gaining knowledge on the subject areas, determining where the literature is inadequate, gaining feedback information in order to rethink and focus a research topic, determining whether there are related or parallel literatures which have developed in isolation, discovering how others have researched the chosen topic area, justifying how and why the research have been done in the specific way and having a body of information to compare research findings with (Potter, 2006:156-157).

A literature study is conducted with a view to revise the relevant body of knowledge on the topic and to be able to combine existing knowledge in the field; it also serves to abridge accrued knowledge in order to build on the work of other authors (Neuman, 2003:96). The literature study will be discussed in more detail within chapter 2.

The books that have been consulted cover a broad range of subjects including communication, sociology, marketing, psychology, networking, human resource management, research practices and methods and behavioural science. The databases that have been consulted include NEXUS, SACat, SAePublications, EbscoHost, JSTOR and ProQuest. Electronic search engines that are used include Google Scholar (www.google.com), among others.

Many sources that were consulted date back as far as 1911; the reason for consulting older sources is that contributions made by the “fathers” of a specific school of thought or concept are important in order to understand the full impact of what needs to be researched. Another reason for using older sources is because this allows one to include primary sources rather than secondary sources for purposes of scientific accuracy, since more recent sources also refer to these primary sources. Older sources can assist one to put more recent and current research in the field of social science into proper perspective. The older sources used for the literature study will be provided in chapter 2.

## **1.5.2 Empirical survey**

### **1.5.2.1 Research design and method of collecting data**

A research design refers to the specific method a researcher uses to collect, analyse and interpret data (Stangor, 2011:13). Research designs can be divided into three basic types that are classified in terms of the fundamental objective of the research, namely *exploratory*, *descriptive* and *causal research*.

*Exploratory research* emphasises the discovery of ideas and insights (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:91). This preliminary type of data collection can help to define a research objective and to understand the problem at hand (Bradley, 2007:516). Exploratory research is often conducted with a view to explore the research issue and is usually undertaken when the alternative options have not been clearly defined or their scope is unclear (Singh, 2007:63).

*Descriptive research* attempts to describe something rather than to explain causes. This type of study attempts to provide a complete and accurate description of a situation such as the market situation, attitudes, beliefs or opinions (Bradley, 2007:515). Descriptive research involves assessing relationships between two forms of conduct (De Meyer, 2003:10).

*Causal research* is defined as a type of research design where the main emphasis is on determining a cause-and-effect relationship (Singh, 2007:66). For example, one of the fundamental goals is to investigate the reason or cause of the influence of certain behaviour (Bradley, 2007:514).

The types of designs discussed above are classified in terms of the fundamental objective of the research, thus helping the researcher to achieve the end-goal successfully. The main differences between the three types of research design can be seen from the objective of each.

For the purpose of the current study, descriptive research will be conducted, because the objectives identified for the study relate to the purpose of descriptive research as identified by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:107), namely to describe the characteristic of certain groups based on information gathered from participants; to estimate the proportion of people in a specified population who behave in a certain way in terms of networking, communication and relationship-building; and to make specific predictions based on the data collected and analysed.

Apart from choosing a research design, the method of data collection also needs to be selected to coincide with the purpose of the study. Data collection refers to the gathering of information for the purpose of the study. Two types of data collection methods can be distinguished, namely *primary data* collection and *secondary data* collection. *Primary data* is information that is collected for a specific purpose; it is new information that has not been available before or obtained from existing sources such as completed questionnaires (Bradley, 2007:518).

*Secondary data* is available data, thus primary data that was collected for a specific reason (Struwig & Stead, 2007:80). Secondary data collection can be classified into three broad categories, namely raw data already collected, such as summaries of numbers and written treatises; it can also either be internal or external to the business (Bradley, 2007:519). Secondary data refers to available information such as journal articles, textbooks, paintings and videos (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245).

For the current study, primary data collection is used and the results will be compared to secondary data obtained from existing publications relevant to the study. Primary data collection can be conducted by using either *qualitative research* or *quantitative research*.

*Qualitative research* does not describe a single research method; it aims to describe the depth and breadth of attitude, belief or opinion rather than to quantify markets. Primary data collection for qualitative research purposes depends on the aim of the study, but the primary data collection methods most commonly used in qualitative research are interviews, focus groups, observation and unobtrusive measures (Bradley, 2007:518). Qualitative research favours in-depth analyses, examining the dynamic interaction of both the individual and the context and interdisciplinary research (Struwig & Stead, 2007:243).

*Quantitative research* is a form of conclusive research and is designed to describe the quantity of some feature of a marketplace (Bradley, 2007:518). Quantitative data refers to numerical data and is based on neo-positivism in the sense that it invests in the allocation of numbers to the objects of study and therefore relies on statistical analyses of data. Quantitative research includes many research methods, including true experimental, quasi-experimental and correlation research (Struwig & Stead, 2007:243-244). Quantitative research as data collection method can be further divided into personal interviews, telephone surveys, mail surveys and online questionnaires (Struwig & Stead, 2007:86-88).

The main difference between qualitative and quantitative research is lodged in the definition of qualitative research which is defined as an approach in which quantitative data is *not* used; it is therefore any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification (Gill & Johnson, 2010:148). A summary of the differences between qualitative and quantitative research is depicted in table 2.1, in chapter 2.

As noted, quantitative research is used for the current study. Quantitative research is characterised by a number of data collection methods, namely *surveys*, *observation* and *experiments*. A *survey* refers to a data collection technique in which research participants answer questions through interviews or pencil-and-paper questionnaires (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245).

The *observational* method is a method of primary data collection that involves collecting data by recognising, tracking or sensing behaviour or actions of people, objects and occurrences in some way (Bradley, 2007:517). This method can refer to structured or unstructured

observations (Singh, 2007:406). Structured observation is a planned form of observation where the ideal environment is created through technological support, while unstructured observation aims to gather data in a natural environment using unobtrusive measures.

*Experimentations* are conditions or procedures that are arranged in a deliberate way to determine whether manipulations by the researcher on an independent variable have an effect on a dependent variable; this allows a hypothesis to be tested. The experimental method of research focuses on cause-and-effect relationships between variables and it is generally conducted in environments and laboratories controlled by the researcher (Struwig & Stead, 2007:42).

For the current study, surveys are used as data collection method. Many surveys use questionnaires, and as a result these terms are sometimes used interchangeably (Bradley, 2007:519). Self-completion questionnaires are used for the current study. In order to conduct the study, a population sample must be identified as it is not practical to interview each unit in the population.

In summary, the current study is an example of descriptive research as it attempts to describe something rather than to explain causes. The data collection method that is used for the study is primary data collection, because data is collected for a specific purpose. Quantitative research is used for the study by means of self-completion questionnaires. Questionnaires relate to the survey data collection method, which is used when conducting quantitative research.

#### **1.5.2.2 Development of the sample plan**

A sample is a sub-set of the people selected from the population to participate in the study. This method is used because, as mentioned above, it is impractical to include all members of the population and therefore the data collected from the sample is expected to assist in the understanding of the entire population. A sampling frame is a list of all the members that constitute the population and forms the basis by which respondents are selected (Bradley, 2007:518). From the sampling frame, a sampling unit is compiled including the list of participants who will be included in the study (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245). The current study focuses on one mine in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

The population includes all possible respondents in a research project, and a sample is drawn from the population of respondents (Struwig & Stead, 2007:242). The target

population is the totality of cases that conform to some nominated specification. From the population a sample will be chosen, which entails a subset of elements from a larger group. This sample will be used as a basis for making judgements about the population not included in the sample (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:981-983). The population of this study, therefore, includes the workers from the Gauteng mine. Kusasaletu mine is one of the mines belonging to the Harmony mine group. Kusasaletu mine has a total of 4987 employees. Kusasaletu does not only employ South African citizens, but for the purposes of this study, foreign workers are excluded. After subtracting the foreign employees, a total of 3634 South African employees remain. The total of 3634 includes 3360 black employees, 270 white employees and 4 coloured employees. Indian / Asian employees are not represented in the population and the coloured employees are too few to be representative. Therefore, the study will focus on black and white employees only as illustrated in table 1.1. By means of the questionnaire, a sample profile will be created determined in terms of the participants' gender, race, year of birth / age, home language and highest level of education. The sampling techniques to consider will be discussed subsequently.

**Table 1.1: Sampling framework**

	<b>BABY BOOMERS</b>	<b>GENERATION X</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>BLACK</b>	237	568	805
<b>WHITE</b>	165	76	241
			<b>1046</b>

The main sampling techniques include *probability sampling* and *non-probability sampling*. In *probability sampling* every element in the population has a known non-zero probability of selection; this means that each element has a known probability of being included in the sample. In *non-probability sampling*, the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown; the selection of sampling units is arbitrary as researchers rely heavily on personal judgement (Struwig & Stead, 2007:111-112). Both probability and non-probability sampling comprise a number of methods that can be used to conduct sampling; these methods include simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, systematic sampling and multi-stage area sampling for probability sampling (Struwig & Stead, 2007:116-117).

*Simple random sampling* is used when the researcher assigns each member of the sampling frame a number and then selects sample units by a random method. *Stratified random sampling* entails that the researcher divides the population into groups and randomly selects sub-samples from each group (Struwig & Stead, 2007:117). Stratified sampling can either be

proportionate or disproportionate, while in the case of a proportionate stratified sample, the number of observations in the total sample is allocated among the strata in proportion to the relative number of elements in each stratum in the population, and disproportionate stratified sampling involves balancing the two criteria of strata size and strata variability (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:147).

*Cluster sampling* is used when the researcher selects sampling units at random and then observes all items in the group. *Systematic sampling* entails that the researcher uses a natural ordering or order of sampling frame, selects an arbitrary starting point and then selects items at a pre-selected interval (Struwig & Stead, 2007:116-117). Systematic sampling involves selecting every  $k^{\text{th}}$  element after a random start (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:349). *Multi-stage area sampling* is when progressively smaller areas are selected in each stage; the researcher performs some combination of the first four techniques (Struwig & Stead, 2007:117).

The methods used for non-probability sampling include convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling. *Convenience sampling* is when the researcher uses the most convenient or economical sample. *Judgement sampling* entails that an expert or experienced researcher selects the sample to fulfil a purpose, such as ensuring all members have a certain characteristic. *Quota sampling* is used when the researcher classifies the population by pertinent properties, determines the desired proportion of sample from each class and quotas for each interviewer. *Snowball sampling* is when the initial respondents are selected by probability samples; additional respondents are obtained by referral from initial respondents (Struwig & Stead, 2007:115-116).

After reviewing the sampling techniques noted above, probability, systematic proportionate stratified sampling was chosen for the study. Because the researcher wishes to draw conclusions about the population characteristics, probability sampling is used. Since information about the characteristics of the population is available, systematic and stratified sampling methods are possible. The sample population was divided into black and white employees and then further into age categories to represent the generations to which employees belong. A list was compiled and a random starting point was chosen. The sample size was calculated as 289. Every  $k^{\text{th}}$  element was selected until the desired total of 289 participants is drawn from the list compiled from the sampling frame. As systematic sampling involves selecting every  $k^{\text{th}}$  element  $k$  was calculated as 0.3. Therefore, every 3<sup>rd</sup> element was chosen until the desired sample size of 289 is drawn.

### **1.5.2.3 Development of the questionnaire**

A questionnaire is an instrument used to obtain information from respondents (Struwig & Stead, 2007:244). For the current study, self-completion questionnaires were used and the researcher was available during the administering of the questionnaires to clear up any uncertainties that may be experienced. The questionnaire was compiled by making use of various relevant sources. The sources included Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Mannheim (1970), Hiernaux (1975), Hofstede (1983), Howe and Strauss (1992), Trompenaars (1994), Borgatti (1997), Baker (2000), Misner and Don Morgan (2000), Borgatti and Foster (2003), Ramos, Hernández and Ramos (2003), House and Javidan (2004), Uzzi and Dunlap (2005), Macionis (2007), Codrington (2008), Özbilgin and Tattl (2008), De Janasz, Dowd and Shneider (2009), Kilduff and Krackhardt (2009), Watson (2009) and Wise (2009).

The questionnaire has been informally pretested by having a number of questionnaires completed, to ensure that the questions asked are understood correctly. The data was collected during August 2011. The researcher personally delivered and collected the 289 questionnaires. The respondents have been located and informed by means of e-mail of their selection to participate in the study.

The questionnaire was designed to obtain feedback from respondents about their cultural and generational diversity as well as preferences with concern to networking practices. Participating in the survey is completely voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaire consists of four A4 size pages, reduced to four A5 size pages. Also, the questionnaire consists of two sections coinciding with the objectives stipulated for the study. More detail regarding the questionnaire will be provided in chapter 2.

The questions relate to diversity among cultures and generations and will address how these diverse work environments affect networking practices in the selected mine. The questionnaire has been discussed with a statistical consultant with a view to ensure that the questions asked do indeed assist in attaining the objectives that have been set for the study. The questionnaire was analysed to ensure adherence with the code of ethics formulated by the University.

### 1.5.2.4 Data analysis

The Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University were asked to assist with the development of the questionnaire and also to determine the number of questionnaires needed to be completed for accurate data analysis. As data analysis is a specialised area of research procedures it is best to use experts in the field (Struwig & Stead, 2007:150). The data gathered through the questionnaires has been analysed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) for quality purposes, accuracy and reliability. The statistical program SAS was used.

## 1.6 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Networking practices among diverse cultures and generations at a Gauteng mine are studied in this research. Figure 1.2 illustrates the research design for this study by means of chapter classification.

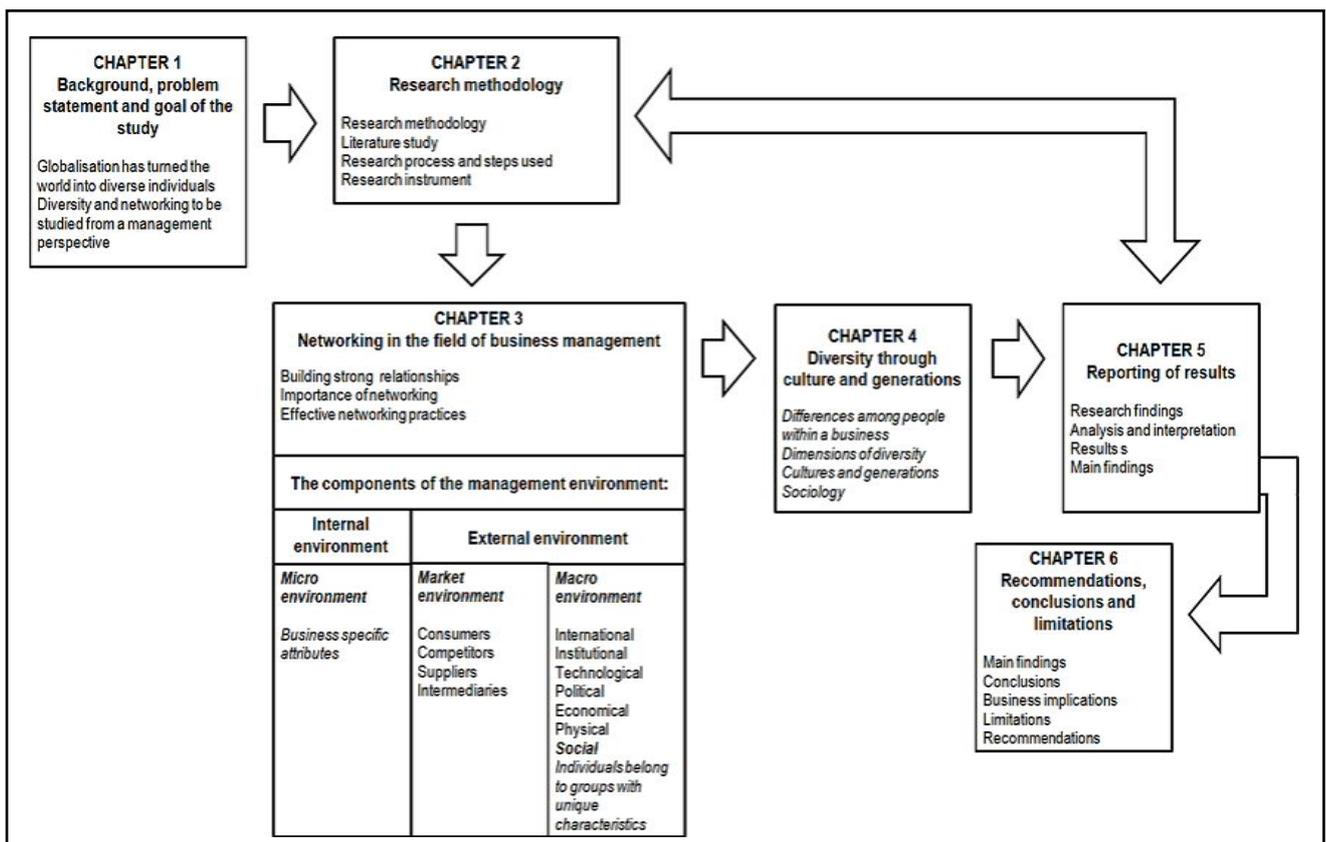


Figure 1.2: Research design

The research methodology, discussed in chapter 2, will provide an overview of the proposed study and will therefore set out how the study will be conducted. The research design, data collection method, sampling method and research instrument will be discussed in more detail.

Chapter 3 presents a discussion on networking within the field of business management. The development of business management is examined together with an interrogation as to how networking fits within the field. Networking practices and the importance thereof are also discussed. The term *networking practices* is illuminated within this chapter.

South Africa is a highly pluralistic society with numerous diverse groups working within the same work environments. Chapter 4 presents a theoretical discussion on the notion of diversity. Culture and generations are discussed as well as how these relate to the field of sociology. This chapter provides detail regarding the specific characteristics of each of the generations and cultures explored in this study, as well as reasons for conflict among and between these groups.

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the findings of the study, while Chapter 6 offers a number of conclusions about the results obtained. This chapter also provides recommendations that can be used by managers of diverse work environments.

## **1.7 SUMMARY**

Chapter 1 presented the motivation for the study by stating the research problem. The objectives of the study as well as the hypotheses were formulated. The research methodology that will be applied throughout the study was discussed briefly. The literature review that needs to be conducted was made apparent. Chapter 2 will focus on the research methodology that will be followed for the study.

## CHAPTER 2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Research is the process in which scientific methods are used to expand knowledge in a particular field of study. Furthermore, research involves the application of various methods and techniques in order to create scientifically acquired knowledge by using objective methods and procedures (Welman & Kruger, 2001:2). As in many other spheres of human undertaking, research provides a key basis for developing knowledge (Crowther & Lancaster, 2009:21).

Research is conducted for the intellectual satisfaction of knowing something (Stangor, 2011:11). It follows that the researcher would like to conduct research for the purpose of gaining practical knowledge about the social problem that has been identified. The social problem in the current study is that South African society is culturally multifaceted – from here it follows that diversity, specifically cultural and generational diversity, influences the way in which workers network amongst one another. It is important to realise that the above mentioned social problem is not bounded only to South Africa. The current study will contribute to the knowledge of the subject at hand and will also be able to give direction to management on how to better handle diversity. The goal of the current study *is to investigate the networking practices of the diverse cultural and generational groups represented at a Gauteng mine.*

Time, cost incurred and invalidity of data can be minimised by using a detailed plan to ensure objectives are met. Literature from various sources and relevant published data was researched and analysed in the course of the current study. In the overview of the research methodology, the focus is on the primary data collected by means of questionnaires. Subsequently the following are discussed: the research design and data collection methods, sampling and data collection, and the research instrument. The reason for setting out research methodologies clearly can be likened to drawing up a blueprint for construction purposes; while it is possible to build a skyscraper without a blueprint, the possibility exists that the end product will differ from what was aimed to achieve when starting the project.

## 2.2 LITERATURE STUDY

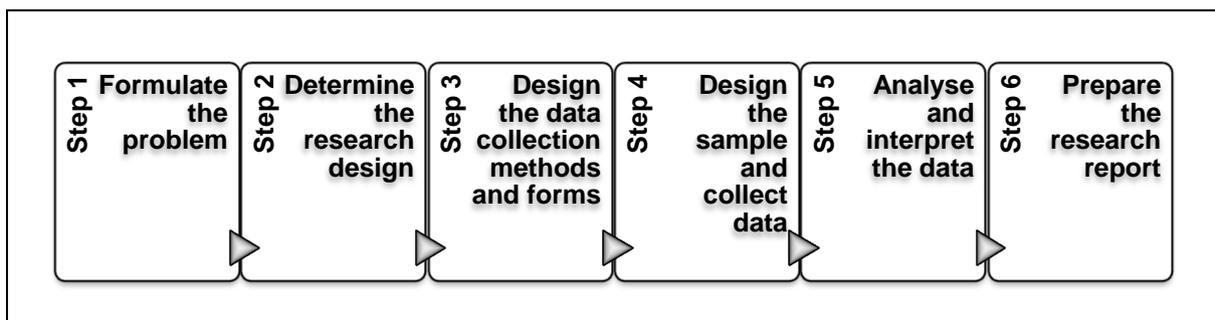
For the current study, a literature study was conducted with a view to explore the existing body of knowledge on the topic and to be able to combine existing knowledge in the field and abridge accrued knowledge to build on the work of other authors (Neuman, 2003:96). To put the concepts into perspective, the literature study was conducted by using relevant books, subject specific journals, websites and accredited and scholarly journal articles. The books that were enquired covered a broad range of subjects including communication, sociology, marketing, psychology, networking, human resource management, research practices and methods and behavioural science. The databases that were enquired included NEXUS, SACat, SAePublications, EbscoHost, JSTOR and ProQuest. NEXUS is the database of the NRF for completed research as well as current research already registered. SACat is a national catalogue of books and journals in South Africa. SAePublications gives South African journal articles. EbscoHost gives international journal articles. JSTOR is a non-profit service helping scholars, researchers and students discover and use a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive of over one thousand academic journals and other scholarly content. ProQuest gives international dissertations and theses in full text. Electronic search engines that were used include Google Scholar ([www.google.com](http://www.google.com)).

As mentioned in chapter 1, many sources that were consulted date back as far as 1911. Some of these older research sources used in the literature study include Taylor (1911), Mead (1934), Moreno (1936), Toeman (1949), Moreno (1953), Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Mannheim (1970), McGregor (1972), Hiernaux (1975), Jansen (1975), Mintzberg (1976), Massey (1979), Van Aswegen (1982), Hofstede (1983), Maslow (1985), Gardner (1987), Bohannan and Glazer (1988), Johanson and Mattsson (1988), Nelson (1989), Kessler (1990), Bartol and Martin (1991), Fernandez (1991), Powell (1991), Taylor and Blake (1991), Howe and Strauss (1992), Roosevelt (1992), Håkansson and Johanson (1993), Krackhardt and Hanson (1993), Lazerson (1993), Boe (1994), Cox (1994), Trompenaars (1994), Wheelan (1994), Horwitz, Bowmaker-Falconer and Searll (1995), Loden (1995), Schemers (1995), Du Plessis (1996), Fine (1996), Kuga (1996), Sorenson (1996), Borgatti (1997), Brown (1997), Davis and Greve (1997), Robinson and Dechant (1997), Wilson (1997), Brass, Butterfield and Skaggs (1998), Ford (1998), Haunschild and Beckman (1998), Hutchesan and Kruzan (1998), Labianca, Brass and Gray (1998), Shah (1998), Veltman (1998), Gulati and Westphal (1999), Hallinan (1999), Kuper (1999), Carr-Ruffino (1999) and Skyrme (1999). The knowledge gained on the topics shows an understanding of the research area, it indicates that a critical review of other work in the field

was made, and that an awareness of the relationship between the current research and the rest of the field exists (Potter, 2006:157).

## 2.3 RESEARCH PROCESS

The research process refers to a sequence of steps in the design and implementation of a research study, including the formulation of a problem; determination of sources of information and research design; establishing the data-collection method and design of data collection forms; the design of the sample and collection of the data; and finally, analysis and interpretation of the data and the research report (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:679). The first concrete step in the scientific research process is the formulation of the problem which should be investigated (Welman & Kruger, 2001:33). The steps in the research process, as illustrated in figure 2.1, are to (1) formulate the problem, (2) determine the research design, (3) design the data-collection method and forms, (4) design the sample and collect data, (5) analyse and interpret the data and, lastly, (6) prepare the research report (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:40). The above-mentioned sequence of steps used in the current study will be discussed in subsequent sections.



**Figure 2.1: The stages in the research process**

*Source:* Churchill and Iacobucci (2005:40).

### 2.3.1 Problem statement

One of the primary issues faced by businesses today is that globalisation is diversifying the workforce and, as a result, the management of diversity needs to adapt to this reality (De Janasz, Dowd & Schneider, 2009:97). Society has become more diverse and communication among members of international cultures more frequent. This has increased the need to appreciate diversity and to understand how people in other cultures view their world (Kendall, 2008:74). Despite the fact that the value of international research in business

behaviour is significant, a leadership perspective that reflects South Africa's uniqueness is needed (Werner, 2003:196).

Difficulties arising from cultural diversity are becoming more apparent to managers of multi-cultural businesses (Özbilgin & Tatll, 2008:8). Diversity within a business means having a range of differences among people. These differences might relate to issues such as gender, ethnic origin and disability (Daniels & Macdonald, 2005:1). Because most South Africans interact with different cultures on a daily basis, cultural diversity is an important issue in South Africa.

Similar to culture, generations differ in a given country, and also from country to country. This means that individuals born in different countries within the same year will belong to different generations (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:19). Group processes, one of the major streams of business network scholarship, propose that differences among individuals in groups affect their actions (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:998). Since work environments are becoming increasingly diverse, it will be of great value to study and understand the impact of diversity on group processes when networking. Therefore, the goal of the current study is to investigate the networking practices among the diverse cultural and generational groups represented at a Gauteng mine.

### **2.3.2 Research design**

A research design is simply the framework or plan for a study, used as a guide in collecting and analysing data. It is the blueprint that is followed in completing a study which ensures that the study will be relevant to the problem and will use economical procedures (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:90). A research design is the plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived to obtain answers to research questions and to control variance (Singh, 2007:63). Research designs can be divided into three basic types namely, *exploratory research*, *descriptive research* and *causal research*. *Exploratory research* can be defined as research into an area that has not yet been studied, or where very little information is available, in which a researcher attempts to develop initial ideas and a more focussed research question (Struwig & Stead, 2007:7). This preliminary data collection can help to define a research objective and to understand the problem at hand (Bradley, 2007:516). Exploratory research is often conducted to explore the research issue and is usually done when the alternative options have not been clearly defined or if their scope is unclear (Singh, 2007:63).

*Descriptive research* is typically concerned with determining the frequency with which something occurs or relationship between two variables (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:91). Descriptive research enumerates descriptive data about the population being studied and does not try to establish a causal relationship between events (Singh, 2007:64). Research designed to answer questions about the current state of affairs is known as descriptive research (Stangor, 2011:14).

*Causal research* is a type of experimentation that is used to change some things, but not others, because the determinist believes that all events are caused by something (Struwig & Stead, 2007:236). One of the fundamental goals of positivistic and neo-positivistic science is to investigate the reason or cause of the influence of certain behaviour or observed effects, directly or indirectly, on other events (Bradley, 2007:514).

The types of designs discussed above are classified in terms of the fundamental objective of the research that facilitates achieving the end-goal successfully (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:91). The main differences between the three types of research design can be established by investigating the objective of each. Exploratory research emphasises the discovery of ideas and insights, descriptive research is typically concerned with determining the frequency with which something occurs or the relationship between two variables, and causal research is concerned with determining cause-and-effect relationships (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:91).

For the purpose of the current study, descriptive research will be conducted, because the objectives identified for the study relate to the purpose of descriptive research as identified by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002:107). Apart from choosing a research design, the method of data collection also needs to be selected to coincide with the purpose of the study. Data collection methods will be reviewed next.

### **2.3.3 Data collection method and forms**

Data collection is the stage in the research process when information is gathered through surveys, experiments, fieldwork or indirect methods in order to generate data (Singh, 2007:400). Data collection refers to the gathering of information for the purpose of a study. After the type of data needed has been established, the decision about where and how the data can be obtained should be made (Struwig & Stead, 2007:41). Data entails information that has been collected through formal observation or measurement (Stangor, 2011:4). Furthermore, data refers to information such as pictures, words and numbers, which is

gathered according to certain scientifically accepted procedures (Struwig & Stead, 2007:237). The empirical evidence gathered is what scientists call data (Spata, 2003:8). Two types of data collection methods can be distinguished, namely primary data collection and secondary data collection. *Primary data* is information that is collected for a specific purpose; this is new information that has not been available before or obtained from existing sources such as completed questionnaires (Bradley, 2007:518). Primary data is collected by the researcher or fieldworker (Struwig & Stead, 2007:40).

*Secondary data* is available data, it is therefore primary data that was collected for a specific reason and from sources other than the current research project - usually collected by different researchers (Struwig & Stead, 2007:80). Secondary data collection can be classified into three broad categories, namely raw data already collected, summaries of numbers and written treatises. It can also either be internal or external to the business (Bradley, 2007:519).

For the purposes of the current study, primary data collection is used as method to conduct research, and the results are compared to secondary data obtained from existing publications relevant to the study. The ways in which the data can be collected will be discussed in subsequent sections.

### **2.3.3.1 Primary data collection**

As mentioned above, primary data collection is information that is collected for a specific purpose (Bradley, 2007:518). Data collection refers to the gathering of information for the purpose of a study (Struwig & Stead, 2007:41). Primary data collection can either be conducted by using qualitative research or quantitative research.

*Qualitative research* does not describe a single research method and it aims to describe the depth and breadth of attitude, belief or opinion rather than to quantify markets (Bradley, 2007:518). Qualitative research reflects a large variety of schools and research methods and the emphasis is on describing, giving meaning and understanding what is being studied. Qualitative research favours in-depth analyses, examining the dynamic interaction of both the individual and the context, and interdisciplinary research (Struwig & Stead, 2007:243). The research methods of qualitative research are less concerned with collecting numerical data than with gathering data in the form of words, sounds and images. While numerical data may be employed, qualitative data is seldom analysed using advanced statistical techniques (Struwig & Stead, 2007:243). Primary data collection for qualitative research will

depend on the aim of the study, but the most commonly used primary data collection methods in qualitative research are interviews, focus groups, observation and unobtrusive measures (Bradley, 2007:518).

*Quantitative research* is a form of conclusive research and is designed to describe the quantity of some feature of a marketplace. That quantity may describe market size and market share; it may do so using large representative samples and fairly structured data collection procedures such as structured questionnaires and mechanical measuring devices (Bradley, 2007:518). Quantitative data refers to numerical data and is based on neo-positivism which is concerned with the allocation of numbers to the objects of study; it therefore relies on the statistical analyses of data (Struwig & Stead, 2007:243). The main role of quantitative research is to test hypotheses. This approach uses three basic data collection methods, namely observation, questioning and experiments. Quantitative research as data collection method can further be divided into personal interviews, telephone surveys, mail surveys and online questionnaires (Struwig & Stead, 2007:86-88).

**Table 2.1: The differences between qualitative and quantitative research**

<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>	<b>Quantitative</b>
<b>Focus of the research</b>	Quality, investigating the nature and essence of the concept.	Quantity, investigating how many offer the same data.
<b>Goal of investigation</b>	Understanding, to describe, to discover, generating hypotheses or new knowledge.	To predict, control, describe, confirm, to test a hypothesis.
<b>Design characteristics</b>	Flexible, evolving and emergent.	Predetermined and structured.
<b>Sample size</b>	Small, non-randomly chosen or theoretical.	Large, randomly chosen and representative.
<b>Data collection</b>	The researcher is the primary instrument who conducts the interview, observations and discussions.	Inanimate instruments are used, such as scales, tests, surveys, questionnaires or computers.
<b>Hardware needed</b>	Tape recorders, projection devices, video recorders, pictures and discussion guides or agendas.	Questionnaires, computers and printouts.
<b>Degree of repeatability</b>	Low.	High.
<b>Type of research</b>	Exploratory.	Descriptive or causal.
<b>Findings</b>	Comprehensive, holistic and expansive.	Precise, narrow and reductionist.

Source: Mostert and Du Plessis (2007:62).

It can be argued that the main difference between qualitative and quantitative research is lodged in the definition of qualitative research; it is defined as *an approach in which quantitative data is **not** used*. Therefore, any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification is qualitative research

(Gill & Johnson, 2010:148). Table 2.1 is a summary of the differences between qualitative and quantitative research.

Quantitative research transcends basic profile demographics and gives accounts of usage and attitudes. The difference between quantitative and qualitative research is therefore that quantitative research arrives at findings by using statistical procedures, quantification and testing hypothetical predictions; while qualitative research embraces a very different philosophical view of how human behaviour arises (Gill & Johnson, 2010:148). Quantitative research will be applied for the current study. A number of quantitative research data collection methods will be discussed in more detail consequently.

### **2.3.3.1.1 Quantitative research**

Since the quantitative research approach is used in the current study, this method of data collection will be discussed in further detail below. As mentioned in section 1.5.2.1, quantitative research uses three data collection methods, namely *surveys*, *observation* and *experiments* (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245).

A *survey* is a data collection technique in which research participants answer questions through interviews or pen-and-paper questionnaires (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245). Survey is another word for the term “study”; it may be a census survey, a sample survey or a desk research survey (Bradley, 2007:519). Surveys are designed to collect data by means of direct questioning of a sample of respondents (Singh, 2007:409). The *observational method* is a method of primary data collection that involves collecting data by recognising, tracking or sensing behaviour or actions of people, objects and occurrences in some way (Bradley, 2007:517). Observation is a method of data collection in which data is gathered through visual observations. These can be structured or unstructured observations (Singh, 2007:406). Structured observation is a planned form of observation where the ideal environment is created through technological support, while unstructured observation aims to gather data in a natural environment using unobtrusive measures. *Experimentations* are conditions or procedures that are arranged in a deliberate way with a view to determine whether manipulations by the researcher on an independent variable have an effect on a dependent variable; this allows an hypothesis to be tested (Struwig & Stead, 2007:42). The experimental research methodology is used to establish cause-and-effect relationships between the independent and dependent variables by means of manipulation of variables, control and randomisation (Singh, 2007:402).

For the current study, surveys are used as data collection method. A survey is not an experimental method in that situations or groups are not manipulated; the data gathered is generally, but not only, presented as statistical reports in the form of frequency counts, percentages and bar graphs or histograms (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245). Many surveys use questionnaires, and as a result these terms are sometimes used interchangeably (Bradley, 2007:519). In market research, the term “questionnaire” is used to refer both to questionnaires intended for self-completion by survey participants and to survey instruments intended to be administered by an interviewer, either in face-to-face interview or by telephone (Brace, 2008:2).

In conclusion, the research methodology has addressed important questions regarding how research for the current study is conducted; it also clarified why these methods have been chosen. Descriptive research is performed in this study because it attempts to describe something rather than explain causes. The data collection method used for the study is primary data collection, since data is collected for a specific purpose. Quantitative research is used for the study by making use of self-completion questionnaires. Questionnaires are a form of the survey data collection method used when conducting quantitative research. To conduct this type of study, a population sample must be identified as it is not practical to interview each unit in the population. Relevant aspects regarding sampling and data collection will be discussed next.

#### **2.3.4 Sampling and data collection**

Sampling entails the process of selecting parts from a defined population in order to examine these parts, usually with the aim of making judgements about parts of the population that have not been investigated (Bradley, 2007:518). Sampling is defined as the process of selection of sampling units from the population to estimate population parameters in such a way that the sample truly represents the population (Singh, 2007:89). Sampling is, furthermore, the process of selecting a sub-group of a population to represent the entire population (Singh, 2007:408). A sample is a sub-set of the people selected from the population to participate in the study.

Therefore, a sample can be defined as a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are used to make estimates about the population as a whole (Singh, 2007:88). As noted, it is impractical to include all members of the population and therefore the data collected from the sample is expected to assist in the understanding of the entire population. A practical procedure to use when drawing a sample includes the following steps: (1) define

the population, (2) identify the sampling frame, (3) select a sampling procedure, (4) determine the sample size, (5) select the sample elements and (6) collect the data from the designated elements (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:354). In the following sections, the practical procedure used for the sampling in the current study is discussed. The characteristics of the population which is used for the study will be discussed, together with an indication of how the samples have been chosen. The different sampling techniques, and methods within each technique, will be discussed in order to provide an overview of the options considered when choosing the final method to collect the data.

#### 2.3.4.1 Population

A population is a group of individuals, objects or items from among which samples are taken for measurement (Singh, 2007:88). The population includes all possible respondents in a research project and a sample is drawn from the population of respondents (Struwig & Stead, 2007:242). The target population is the totality of cases that conforms to some nominated specification (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:983). From the population, a sample must be chosen – this is a subset of elements from a larger group. The sample is used as a basis from which to make judgements about the population not included in the sample (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002:981).

The population of the current study includes the workers from the Gauteng mine that was chosen. Kusasaletu mine is one of the mines belonging to the Harmony mine group. Kusasaletu mine has a total of 4987 employees. Kusasaletu does not only employ South African citizens; for the current study the foreign workers were excluded, leaving a total of 3634 South African employees. From the total of 3634 South African employees, 3360 are black, 270 are white and 4 coloured. Indian / Asian employees are not represented in the population and the coloured employees are too few to be representative. Therefore, the study focuses on black and white employees only. Table 2.2 illustrates the final population from which the sampling frame will be selected:

**Table 2.2: Population sample**

POPULATION	TOTAL
BLACK	3360
WHITE	270
COLOURED	4
	<b>3634</b>

With the help of the questionnaire, a sample profile was determined in terms of the participants' gender, race, year of birth / age, home language and highest level of education. The sampling techniques that needs to be considered will be discussed subsequently.

### 2.3.4.2 Sampling frame

A sampling frame is defined as the frame of entities from which sampling units are selected for a survey (Singh, 2007:88). A sampling frame is a list of all the members that constitute the population, and forms the basis by which respondents are selected. From the sampling frame, a sampling unit is compiled including the list of participants who will be included in the study (Struwig & Stead, 2007:245). The current study focuses on one mine in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

The sampling frame includes all 3360 black employees and 270 white employees at the Kusasaletu mine. The total of 3630 employees was decreased on the basis of level of education, age / generation; underground employees were excluded. In order to ensure that all participants are literate, only employees with at least a Grade 12 or a similar qualification were included in the sampling frame. The oldest and youngest generations, silent generation and Generation Y, are not sufficiently represented within the population and therefore only employees belonging to the Baby Boomer generation and Generation X were included in the study. After eliminating all others, the remaining number of employees left from which to choose the sample elements was 1046. The total of 1046 comprised of 805 black employees and 241 white employees from the Baby Boomer generation and Generation X. Table 2.3 illustrates the sampling frame.

**Table 2.3: Sampling framework**

<b>CULTURE</b>	<b>BABY BOOMERS</b>	<b>GENERATION X</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
<b>BLACK</b>	237	568	805
<b>WHITE</b>	165	76	241
			<b>1046</b>

The sampling techniques that one can use will be discussed in the next section. The sampling technique needs to be known before the sample elements can be chosen. The selection of the sample elements will be discussed in more detail in later sections.

### 2.3.4.3 Sampling procedure

The main sampling techniques include probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In *probability sampling* every element in the population has a known non-zero probability of selection; this means that each element has a known probability of being included in the sample (Struwig & Stead, 2007:112). With probability sampling, the probability or chance of every unit in the population being included in the sample is known due to randomisation involved in the process (Singh, 2007:102). One can calculate the likelihood that any given population element will be included in a probability sample, because the final sample elements are selected objectively by a specific process, not according to the whims of the researcher or fieldworker (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:329). When the aim of the study is to describe or make inferences about population characteristics, the researcher must use probability sampling techniques (Spata, 2003:40).

Although probability sampling may result in the most unbiased and representative sample, a much more common technique is non-probability sampling (Spata, 2003:41). In *non-probability* sampling, the probability of any particular member of the population being chosen is unknown; the selection of sampling units is arbitrary and researchers rely heavily on personal judgement (Struwig & Stead, 2007:111). Non-probability sampling does not include the process of random selection and therefore the probability of selection of each sampling unit is not known (Singh, 2007:107). Non-probability sampling should be used with caution for two reasons: firstly, it involves personal judgement somewhere in the selection process and, secondly, given that the sample is not probabilistic, the “sampling error” cannot be assessed (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:326).

For both probability and non-probability sampling, a number of methods can be used to conduct sampling. These methods include simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, cluster sampling, systematic sampling and multi-stage area sampling for probability sampling. *Simple random* sampling entails that the researcher assigns each member of the sampling frame a number and then selects sample units by a random method (Struwig & Stead, 2007:116). In a simple random sample, each population element has not only a known but an equal chance of being selected, and every combination of  $n$  population elements is a sample possibility just as likely to occur as any other combination of units (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:330). Researchers begin with a list of  $N$  observations that comprises the entire population; one can then generate  $k$  random case numbers in the range from 1 to  $N$  to select the respective cases into the final sample (Singh, 2007:103).

*Stratified random sampling* is when the researcher divides the population into groups and randomly selects sub-samples from each group (Struwig & Stead, 2007:117). A stratified sample is a probability sample that is distinguished by two steps: the population is divided into mutually exclusive and exhaustive subsets, and a simple random sample of elements is chosen independently from each subset, also called strata (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:340). Subgroups can be based on different indicators like sex, age group, religion or geographic regions (Singh, 2007:104). Stratified sampling can either be proportionate or disproportionate. In the case of a proportionate stratified sample, the number of observations in the total sample is allocated among the strata in proportion to the relative number of elements in each stratum in the population, while disproportionate stratified sampling involves balancing the two criteria of strata size and strata variability (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:147).

*Cluster sampling* is used when the researcher selects sampling units at random and then observes all items in the group (Struwig & Stead, 2007:117). Cluster sampling involves that the parent population must be divided into mutually exclusive and exhaustive subsets, and then a random sample of the subsets is selected (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:348). Cluster sampling implies that instead of selecting individual units from the population, entire groups or clusters are selected at random (Singh, 2007:105).

*Systematic sampling* is when the researcher uses a natural ordering or order of sampling frame, selects an arbitrary starting point and then selects items at a pre-selected interval (Struwig & Stead, 2007:116). Systematic sampling involves selecting every  $k^{th}$  element after a random start (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:349). When using systematic sampling, one unit in a sample is first selected then the selection of subsequent samples is dependent on the preceding unit selected (Singh, 2007:103).

*Multi-stage area sampling* is when progressively smaller areas are selected in each stage; the researcher performs some combination of the first four techniques (Struwig & Stead, 2007:117). Multi-stage sampling involves the selection of units at more than one stage. The number of stages in a multi-stage sampling strategy varies depending on convenience and availability of suitable sampling frames at different stages (Singh, 2007:107).

The sampling methods used for non-probability sampling include convenience sampling, judgement sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Struwig & Stead, 2007:115-116). *Convenience sampling* is when the researcher uses the most convenient or economical sample (Struwig & Stead, 2007:115). Convenience samples are not

recommended for descriptive or causal research, although they may be used with exploratory designs in which the emphasis is on generating ideas and insights (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:327). Convenience sampling is also sometimes called accidental sampling (Singh, 2007:107).

*Judgement sampling* is used when an expert or experienced researcher selects the sample to fulfil a purpose, such as ensuring all members have a certain characteristic (Struwig & Stead, 2007:115). Judgement samples are often called purposive samples. Typically, sample elements are chosen because it is believed that they are representative of the population interest (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:327). Judgement sampling is done with a purpose, which means that selection of sampling units is purposive in nature (Singh, 2007:108).

*Quota sampling* is when the researcher classifies the population by pertinent properties, determines the desired proportion of sample from each class and quotas for each interviewer (Struwig & Stead, 2007:115). Quota samples attempt to ensure that the sample is representative by selecting sample elements in such a way that the proportion possessing a certain characteristic is approximately the same as the proportion in the population (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:328). Quota sampling is divided into two broad types, namely proportional and non-proportional quota sampling. In proportional quota sampling, researchers proportionally allocate sampling units corresponding to the population size of the strata, whereas in the case of non-proportional quota sampling a minimum number of sampled units are selected in each category, irrespective of the population size of the strata (Singh, 2007:108).

*Snowball sampling* is when the initial respondents are selected by probability samples; additional respondents are obtained by referral from initial respondents (Struwig & Stead, 2007:116). The snowball sample is a judgement sample that is sometimes used to sample special populations (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:327). Snowball, or chain sampling, is generally used in the case of explorative research, where researchers do not have much lead information (Singh, 2007:108).

After reviewing the sampling techniques, probability systematic proportionate stratified sampling was chosen for the study. Because this study wishes to draw conclusions about the population characteristics, probability sampling is used. Since information about the characteristics of the population is available, systematic and stratified sampling methods are possible. The sample population was divided into black and white employees and then

further sub-divided into age categories to represent the generations to which employees belong. A list was compiled and a random starting point was chosen. Every  $k^{\text{th}}$  element was selected until the desired total of 289 participants was drawn from the list. The method in which the sample size and eventual participants was chosen will be discussed in more detail next.

#### 2.3.4.4 Sample size

To calculate the sample size where a proportion needs to be estimated,  $n$  will be the wanted sample size to calculate the population percentage ( $\pi$ ) within  $d\%$ , with a probability of 0.95. If  $\pi$  cannot be calculated beforehand then a safe sample size to take is calculated by using equation 2.1 (Barnett, 1974:35). In equation 2.1,  $n$  is the sample size,  $N$  is the population and  $d$  is the percentage within which probability is estimated. To calculate  $n$ ,  $N = 1046$ ,  $d = 5$  and  $d^2 = 25$ .

$$n \geq \frac{N}{1 + \frac{Nd^2}{10000}}$$

**Equation 2.1: Sample size**

Thus:

$$n \geq \frac{1046}{1 + \frac{1046 \times 25}{10000}}$$

$$n \geq \frac{1046}{1 + 2.615}$$

$$n \geq \frac{1046}{3.615}$$

$$n \geq 289$$

Therefore  $n$  is allowed to be equal to or larger than 289. It was decided to make use of a sampling size of 289.

### 2.3.4.5 Selection of sample elements

The sample frame was identified as 805 black employees and 241 white employees. Since systematic proportionate stratified sampling will be used to select the sample elements, the population was divided into four subsets based on gender and culture. This left the researcher with four strata, namely Black Baby Boomers, Black Generation X'ers, White Baby Boomers and White Generation X'ers. A list was formulated starting with the 165 White Baby Boomer employees, followed by the 76 White Generation X employees, the 237 Black Baby Boomer employees and lastly the 568 Black Generation X employees. Each employee received a number from 1 to 1046.

As mentioned in section 1.5.2.2, systematic sampling involves selecting every  $k^{th}$  element from a random start. To generate  $k$  equation 2.2 (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005:349) is used, where  $n$  is the sample size and  $N$  is the population.

$$k = \frac{n}{N}$$

**Equation 2.2:  $k$ -value**

Thus:

$$k = \frac{289}{1046}$$

$$k = 0.28$$

The total desired 289 participants ( $n = \text{sample size}$ ) were thus divided by 1046 ( $N = \text{population}$ ). As a result  $n/N$  equals 0.28 which is a difficult  $k$ -value to implement. Therefore, a more appropriate  $k$ -value will be 0.3 (0.28 rounded up to 0.3). This implies that one out of every three participants was chosen. A random starting point was chosen as 92, and every third employee was chosen until a total of 289 elements were selected.

**Table 2.4: Generation and cultural distribution of selected samples**

CULTURE	BABY BOOMERS	GENERATION X	TOTAL
BLACK	78	161	239
WHITE	24	26	50
			<b>289</b>

The 289 chosen respondents ended up constituting 239 black employees and 50 white employees. The 239 black employees comprise of 78 baby boomer generation participants and 161 generation X participants. The 50 white employees included 24 baby boomer participants and 26 generation X participants, as illustrated in table 2.4.

#### **2.3.4.6 Data collection**

The data was collected during August 2011. The researcher personally delivered and collected the 289 questionnaires. The respondents were located and informed by means of e-mail of their selection to participate in the study. A space was organised where the selected respondents could come and complete the questionnaires. After completing the questionnaires, respondents ticked off their names on a list and placed the completed questionnaire in a box allocated for that purpose. After the first day, the respondents who failed to present themselves and to complete a questionnaire were visited by the researcher and a personal assistant, organised by the Human Resource department, in their place of work or office. These participants were asked to complete a questionnaire to be collected within 15 minutes' time. The data collection took a total of four days to complete.

With the assistance of the Kusasaletu management team and their outstanding organisation skills, a 100% response rate was possible. A letter of thanks was e-mailed to the management personnel of Harmony mine group and the Kusasaletu mine who have helped with the identification of participants and with the completion of the questionnaires.

#### **2.3.5 Data analysis and interpretation**

Data analysis begins with data preparation (Crouch & Housden, 2003:223-225). Data preparation is important, because the quality of analytical results depends on the accuracy of the raw data. The purpose of data analysis is to interpret and draw conclusions from the mass of collected data (Tustin, 2005a:102). As data analysis is a specialised area of research procedures, it is best to use experts in the field (Struwig & Stead, 2007:150). Professional researchers follow a five-step procedure for data analysis, namely:

(1) Validation and editing: The researcher must first determine the extent to which the questionnaires represent a valid interview. For this step, validation is defined as the process of ascertaining that interviews were indeed conducted as specified. The purpose of the validation process is to ensure that interviews have been administered properly and completely with a view to ensure that results on which recommendations are based reflect

the legitimate responses of target individuals (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:413). Editing involves checking for interviewer and respondent mistakes. Paper questionnaires are usually edited twice before being submitted for data entry. This is done in order to check for mistakes that may have occurred (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:416). Validation was done by the researcher and repeated by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus).

(2) Coding: This refers to the process of grouping and assigning numeric codes to the various responses to a particular question (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:417). The questionnaire used for the study contained close-ended questions and that were pre-coded, meaning that numeric codes have been assigned to the various responses on the questionnaire itself.

(3) Data entry: Once the questionnaires have been validated, edited and coded data entry take place. Data entry refers to the process of converting information to a form that can be read by a computer (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:420). The data entry was done by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus).

(4) Machine cleaning of data: Once data has been entered and stored in the computer that will be used to process them, final error checking needs to be done before proceeding to the tabulation and statistical analysis. The final computerised error check is referred to as machine cleaning of data (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:423).

(5) Tabulation and statistical analysis: The data gathered by means of the questionnaires was analysed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus). Further information about the research instrument, the questionnaire, will be given in subsequent sections.

### **2.3.5.1 Reliability and validity**

The reliability of a test refers to the consistency of scores obtained by the same persons when these are re-examined by means of the same test on different occasions, or with different sets of equivalent items, or under other variable examining conditions (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997:84).

The validity of a test concerns what the test measures and how well it does so. If a test is valid, it measures what it is supposed to measure. In the current study, two aspects of validity were used, namely construct validity and content validity. **Construct validity** entails

the extent to which a test measures a theoretical concept or trait such as a personality characteristic (like intelligence) (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997:113). Empirical methods such as principal component analysis and factor analysis identify the underlying structure; that is, the structure of the test items.

**Content validity** means the extent to which the items reflect the theoretical content domain of the construct being measured. Content validity must not be confused with the term face validity, which is a non-scientific judgement as to how well a test may superficially look to those who use it. Content validation addresses two questions, namely whether the test covers the content of interest, and whether the test is indeed appropriate for the participants (Linn, 1989:57).

Evaluation of content validity is done in one of two ways - either subjectively or empirically. Subjective methods involve asking experts to judge the relevance of the test items regarding the subject area being assessed.

#### **2.3.5.2 Methods and statistical techniques used**

The different statistical procedures that exist can be classified into two general categories, namely *descriptive* and *inferential statistics* (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2009:5). Descriptive analysis provides a very useful initial examination of the data, even if the ultimate goal of the researcher is inferential in nature (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:522).

**Descriptive statistics** refers to statistical procedures used to summarise, organise and simplify data. Descriptive statistics entails techniques that take raw scores and summarise these in a form that is more manageable; often the scores are organised in a table or a graph which enables one to see the entire set of scores (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2009:6). Descriptive statistics provides statistical summaries of data with the purpose of providing an overall, coherent and straightforward picture of a large amount of data (Struwig & Stead, 2007:158).

Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for the current study to ensure that the constructs used in the study were reliable. Also, *frequency distributions* were used for the study by placing the scores in a frequency distribution, which is an organised tabulation of the number of individuals located in each category on the scale of measurement (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2009:37). For *measuring central tendency* one can use three measures, namely arithmetic mean, median and mode (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:437). The mean as measure

of central tendency was used for the current study. *Measuring variability* is used to summarise the degree of dispersion. Variance and standard deviation were also determined in the current study, because variance and standard deviation are the most widely used and highly regarded measures of variance (Tustin, 2005c:548-550).

***Inferential statistics*** refers to of techniques that allow researchers to study samples and then make generalisations about the populations from which they were selected (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2009:6). When a researcher wants to go beyond describing the sample data in order to say something about the population from which the sample was drawn, inferential analysis is applied. Therefore, inferences are made on the grounds of what has been observed in the sample (Tustin, 2005b:559).

*T-tests* were conducted with a view to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between the four independent groups studied (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:565). *Cohen's d-value* was used in order to determine the practical significance. *Analysis of variance (ANOVA)* was used to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists between the four independent groups studied (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:573).

### **2.3.5.3 Interpretation of statistics**

A probability, systematic proportionate stratified sampling procedure was followed for the study. Interpretation refers to intermediate results being translated into integrated and meaningful general inferences and findings (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:696). Statistical and practical significance are briefly discussed in the course of the discussion of definitions that follows.

***Cronbach alpha coefficients.*** A Cronbach alpha value that equals or exceeds 0.70 indicates good reliability, while a Cronbach alpha value lower than 0.60 indicates poor reliability (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:334). With regards to constructs that consist of more than one item, Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to determine the reliability statistically. Regarding single items, Cronbach alpha coefficients could not be calculated. For constructs consisting out of more than one item, construct validity was determined while single items' content validity was used to ensure validity.

***Construct validity.*** In order to determine construct validity, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted. Kaiser's measure of sample adequacy (MSA) was used to determine whether a factor analysis was appropriate. MSA gives an indication of the inter-correlations

among variables; the index ranges from 0 to 1, reaching 1 when each variable is perfectly predicted by the other variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:564). The measure can be interpreted with the following guidelines:

**Table 2.5: Kaiser's measure of sample adequacy (MSA)**

Index value	Measure
≥ 0.80	Meritorious
0.70	Middling
0.60	Mediocre
0.50	Miserable
< 0.50	Unacceptable

Source: Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998:99).

**Content validity.** Content validity is determined by expert judgement in which the item domain of the test is compared with a detailed description of the domain of the construct (Struwig & Stead, 2007:139). For the current study, content validity was determined through expert judgement of knowledgeable study leaders and supervisors.

**Statistical significance.** Significance refers to that which is *probably* true (Bradley, 2007:342). The basic motive for making statistical inferences is to generalise from sample results to population characteristics. If a particular difference is large enough to be unlikely to have occurred because of chance or sampling error, then the difference is statistically significant (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:455). The one-way ANOVA, done with SAS (Statistical Analysis System), determines whether groupings or treatments differ statistically significantly with regard to the group mean scores from one dependent variable (Struwig & Stead, 2007:162).

For the current study, the *p*-value (ANOVA) was used. A *p*-value is the exact probability of obtaining a computed test statistic that is due to chance. The smaller the *p*-value, the smaller the probability that the observed result occurred by chance (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:487). The study used a 0.05 level of significance and therefore  $p \leq 0.05$  is regarded as statistically significant. Statistical significance does not necessarily imply that the result is important in practice (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51).

**Practical significance** can be understood as a large enough difference to have an effect in practice (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51). The difference between two means is determined by Cohen's effect size or *d*-value (Steyn, 1999:3). Cohen's *d*-value was used throughout the

study to interpret results. The equation used to formulate Cohen's  $d$ -value is illustrated by equation 2.3 (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:52):

$$d = \frac{|\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2|}{s}$$

**Equation 2.3: Cohen's  $d$ -value**

The guidelines that are used to interpret effect sizes calculated through Cohen's  $d$ -value are:

**Table 2.6: Guidelines to interpret effect sizes**

<b>Effect size</b>	<b>Effect</b>
$d = 0.2$	Small effect
$d = 0.5$	Medium effect in practice and noticeable with the naked eye
$d \geq 0.8$	Large effect and of practical significance

Source: Cohen (1988:223).

A large effect size indicates a finding that is of practical significance, a medium effect size indicates a finding that could be substantial and a small effect size indicates that there is no difference and therefore the answers are the same (Cohen, 1988:223).

### 2.3.6 Research report

Chapter 5 presents a summary of the findings of the study while Chapter 6 offers a number of conclusions regarding the results obtained; this chapter also sets out recommendations that can be used by managers of diverse work environments.

## 2.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

A research instrument is something used to collect data; it may be a tangible item, such as a photographic camera or recording device, or a document such as a questionnaire or topic guide (Bradley, 2007:516). A questionnaire is an instrument used to obtain information from respondents (Struwig & Stead, 2007:244). For the current study, self-completion questionnaires have been used; also, the researcher was available to address possible uncertainties in this regard. The questionnaire was compiled by making use of various relevant sources. The sources included Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), Mannheim (1970), Hiernaux (1975), Hofstede (1983), Howe and Strauss (1992), Trompenaars (1994), Borgatti (1997), Baker (2000), Misner and Don Morgan (2000), Borgatti and Foster (2003), Ramos, Hernández and Ramos (2003), House and Javidan (2004), Uzzi and Dunlap (2005),

Macionis (2007), Codrington (2008), Özbilgin and Tattl (2008), De Janasz, Dowd and Schneider (2009), Kilduff and Krackhardt (2009), Watson (2009) and Wise (2009).

The questionnaire has been informally pretested by having a number of questionnaires completed. This process ensures that the questions asked are understood correctly and that the data obtained from the questionnaire is sufficient to satisfy the objectives of the study. Pretesting should eliminate uncertainty that might be experienced by the participants, but as noted, the researcher was available during the completion of the questionnaires in order to clarify possible uncertainties. A total of 289 questionnaires were completed, which constitutes a 100% response rate.

As discussed in section 1.5.2.3, the questionnaire was designed with a view to obtain feedback from respondents about their cultural and generational diversity as well as their preferences regarding networking practices. The results from the survey were used to determine the differences that exist between diverse cultures and generations in terms of networking practices. Participation in the survey was completely voluntary and anonymous. The questionnaire ran over four A4 size pages, reduced to four A5 size pages. The questionnaire consists of two sections coinciding with the objectives set out for the study and illustrated in table 2.7. The sections of the questionnaire are:

**Section 1:** Demographic questions. Information obtained assists with creating sample profiles of the participants. Questions are asked in terms of gender, age / year of birth, major cultural group, home language and highest level of education.

**Section 2:** Networking questions are asked with a view to gain insight into the perceptions of the participants toward relationships at work, the influence of the work environment on networking, and different networking practices. Questions are therefore asked in order to gain feedback on respondent's attitudes toward networking and their preferred styles of networking.

The questionnaire has been constructed to satisfy the objectives of the study. The questions relate to diversity among cultures and generations and how their culturally and generationally diverse work environments affect networking practices among employees at the selected mine. The questionnaire was discussed with the Statistical Consultation Services of the North-West University (Potchefstroom) to ensure that the questions asked would indeed assist towards achieving the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was also analysed to ensure adherence with the code of ethics formulated by the University.

**Table 2.7: Theory / objectives of the study compared to research instrument**

<b>THEORY / OBJECTIVE</b>	<b>QUESTIONNAIRE</b>	<b>REPRESENTED IN QUESTIONNAIRE</b>
<b>NETWORKING</b>		
Who networks with whom?	Who do you include in your network?	Question 2.4
How do they network?	How often do you use the following mediums when you network?	Question 2.5
Knowledge of good networking practices.	In a relationship, rate the importance of the following.	Question 2.8
Why do they network?	Rate the importance of the following pertaining to why you network.	Question 2.7
<b>CULTURE</b>		
Which cultural group.	Major cultural group?	Question 1.3
Relationship view.	How do you value good relationships at work?	Question 2.1
Which cultures know good networking practices?	Major cultural group? In a relationship, rate the importance of the following.	Question 1.3 ( <i>compared with</i> ) Question 2.8
Which cultures networks with whom?	Who do you include in your network?	Question 2.4
When do they network?	How often do you network during the following time frames?	Question 2.6
Perception on network influence.	On which of the following people do you think you have a good influence?	Question 2.3
<b>GENERATION</b>		
Which generation group.	The year you were born (age group)?	Question 1.2
View on working environment.	An informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices.	Question 2.2
Relationship view.	How do you value good relationships at work?	Question 2.1
Which generations networks with whom?	Who do you include in your network?	Question 2.4
When do they network?	How often do you network during the following time frames?	Question 2.6
Perception on network influence.	On which of the following people do you think you have a good influence?	Question 2.3

## **2.5 SUMMARY**

The current study focuses on different networking practices used by the diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine. The descriptive research design was applied in terms of primary and secondary data. Secondary data was obtained from existing publications and was compared to the findings from the primary data (which was collected in

the form of quantitative research using surveys as data collection technique). For the purposes of the study it was decided that self-completion questionnaires would be used with assistance from the researcher who could address uncertainties that might occur.

A sample was chosen from the population defined as all the employees at the Kusasaletu mine. The sample consisted of South African citizens. The population was further decreased by eliminating underground workers, employees with less than a Grade 12 education and those who belong to either the Silent Generation or Generation Y. The sample was chosen through probability, systematic proportionate stratified sampling. The sample size is 289, consisting of 239 black employees and 50 white employees. The questionnaire was designed with a view to identify the different networking practices among the diverse cultural and generational groups at the chosen Gauteng mine. Feedback on demographic information, networking and generational and cultural interaction was obtained. Chapter 5 presents a discussion of the results obtained in the study.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **NETWORKING IN THE FIELD OF BUSINESS MANAGEMENT**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

Since the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the science and practice of management have shown a rapid and expansive path of development (Schermerhorn, 2004:249). Globalisation is part of the changes that managers have to deal with today (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:50). In particular, the 21<sup>st</sup> century manager must question old assumptions about how people in different geographical locations work together (Schultz & Werner, 2003:9). This is especially important in view of the fact that we live in an increasingly “smaller” world where everything is linked to everything else, and where nothing happens in isolation (Ramos, Hernández & Ramos, 2003:1).

The key to understanding business success is lodged in the dynamic interplay between the psychology of individuals and the structure of their social networks (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 2009:476). Networks are indispensable to managerial success in today’s complex work environments, and the best managers devote much time and effort to network development (Schermerhorn, 2004:13).

Business is one of many fields (other fields include health and human services, communication, academia and the law) in which the ability to analyse social science research is an important asset (Kendall, 2008:6). Business management, networking, diversity and sociology are, therefore, linked in such a way that one has the potential to affect the other. The opportunities for collecting valuable research from studying the link among the above mentioned fields are vast.

#### **3.2 BUSINESS MANAGEMENT**

A business is a systematic arrangement of people brought together to accomplish some specific purpose (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:4). Management can be defined as the processes of planning, organising, leading and controlling the use of resources to accomplish performance goals (Schermerhorn, 2004:6). A business falls within an industry which represents all the businesses using similar production methods of rendering similar types of services (Du Plessis, 1996:24-26).

Businesses are further grouped into three sectors, namely primary, secondary and tertiary sectors, based on the general nature of their activities. A sector is a group of businesses classified in terms of the nature of their activities in the production chain (Van Rensburg, 2007a:6). The primary sector includes all those businesses involved in exploiting and supplying unprocessed natural resources for further processing, the secondary sector includes businesses that process natural resources made available by the primary sector into intermediate and final products, and the tertiary sector includes all those businesses which bridge the gap between producers and consumers by providing a service of some kind (Du Plessis, 1996:27). The mining industry falls into the primary sector as mining is the process of exploiting raw and unprocessed natural resources.

The definitions above relate to modern management knowledge. Management as such has a rich history, and the development of management from an idea into a discipline will be reviewed in the following section.

### **3.2.1 The development of business management**

In its broadest application the idea of “management” is as old as human society; this is because ancient tribes, kingdoms and empires of old also utilised the concept of management. Organised activities and management have therefore existed for thousands of years (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:29). The ancient Sumerians, for example, used written records to assist in governmental and commercial activities; management was important in the construction of the Egyptian pyramids, and equally paramount during the rise of the Roman Empire (Schermerhorn, 2004:249).

These examples show that management activities have existed since before the Industrial Revolution. However, it was only during the past several hundred years that management developed into a formal discipline (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:29). Modern management mostly refers to business management while pre-industrial statecraft and war strategies provided a narrower view of the management function (Makamson, 2000a). Possibly the most important pre-20<sup>th</sup> century influence on management was the Industrial Revolution which started in the late 18<sup>th</sup> century in Great Britain (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:30).

Management as it is known today emerged distinctively in the United States of America as a result of the combined effect of the Industrial Revolution, the vast geographical expanse of the country and its national markets, and the unique complexities of the American railroad industry (Makamson, 2000b). The advent of machine power, mass production, reduced

transportation costs that followed the rapid expansion of the railroads, and a lack of governmental regulations also fostered the development of big businesses (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:30). Since the time of the Industrial Revolution, different schools of thought or management approaches have emerged (Van Rensburg, 2007a:14). Management can perhaps be best understood by considering a framework consisting of three approaches:

- The **classical approach** to management can be divided into three branches known as scientific management, administrative principles and bureaucratic business management (Schermerhorn, 2004:249). If a year had to be pinpointed during which modern management theory was born, a strong point could be made for the year 1911 when Taylor's book *The principles of scientific management* was published (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:30). This publication earned Taylor the title of "father of scientific management" (Van Rensburg, 2007a:14). Taylor sought to create a mental revolution among both workers and management by defining clear guidelines for improving production efficiency. Taylor tried to use scientific techniques to improve the productivity of people at work, and the implications of his efforts are still found in many management settings today (Schermerhorn, 2004:250). The second branch of the classical approach, namely administrative principles, describes efforts aimed at defining the universal functions that managers perform as well as those principles that constitute good management practice (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:436-437). Fayol and Follett were major contributors to the administrative theory. Fayol divided the business activities into six business functions, namely technical, commercial, financial, security, accounting and managerial; he also divided management tasks into five elements, namely planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Fayol further identified characteristics and competencies needed to be a manager and proposed fourteen principles of management (Van Rensburg, 2007a:14). Follet displayed an understanding of groups and a deep commitment to human cooperation in her writings; she viewed businesses as communities in which managers and workers should work in harmony. The third branch of the classical approach is the bureaucratic business management. Weber's ideas have had a significant impact on the field of management and the sociology of businesses. Weber believed that a specific form of business, called a bureaucracy, could correct the problem of performance deficiencies (Schermerhorn, 2004:252). Weber's bureaucracy is characterised by division of labour, a clearly defined hierarchy, detailed rules and regulations and impersonal relationships (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:33).

- Major branches that emerged during the 1920's, when the **human resource approach** was established, include the Hawthorne studies, Maslow's theory of human needs and McGregor's theory X and theory Y (Schermerhorn, 2004:253). The most important

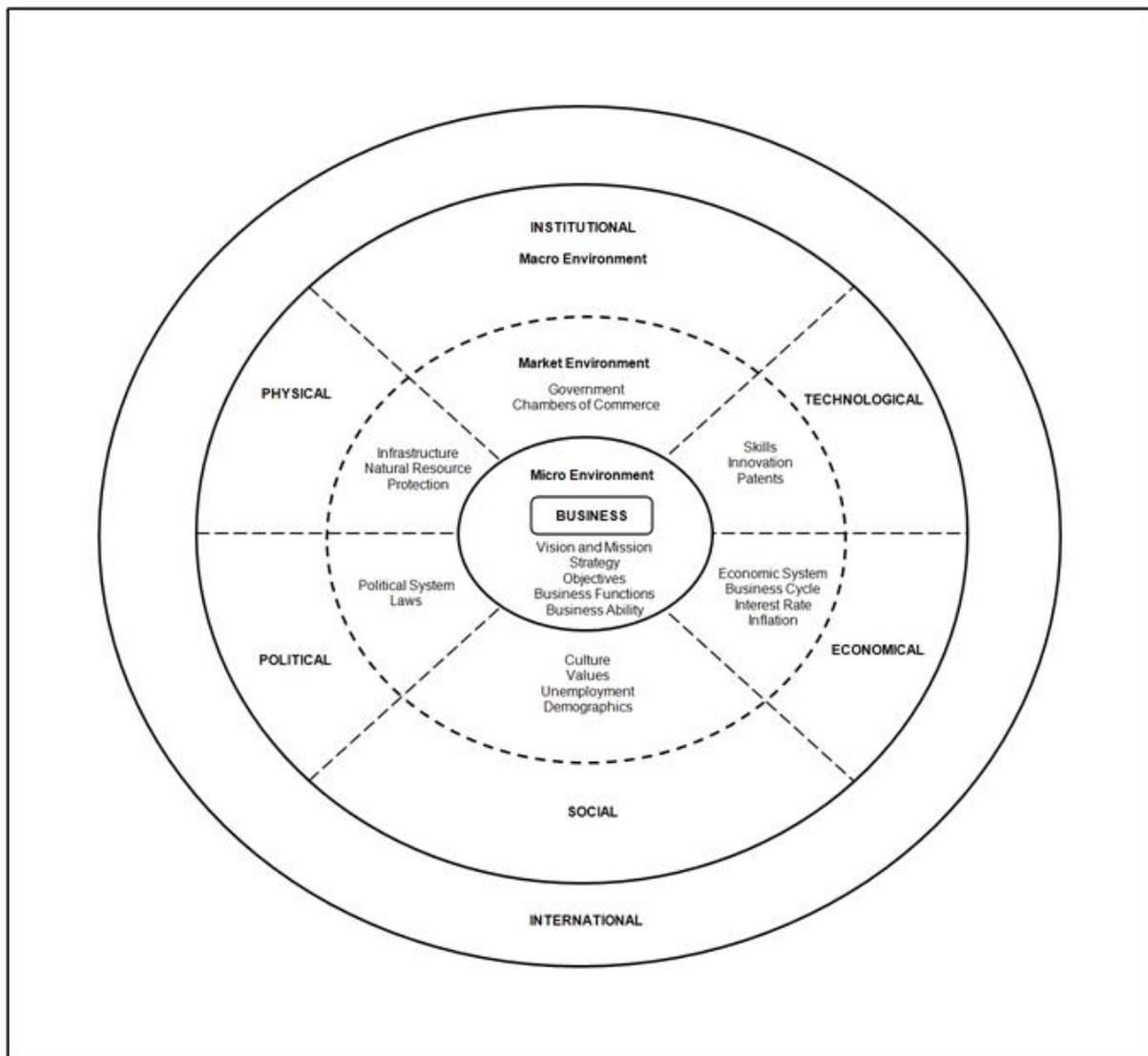
contribution to the human resource approach came out of the Hawthorne studies undertaken at the Western Electric Company commencing in 1924 (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:439). The rise of the human resource approach was a by-product of these experiments (Van Rensburg, 2007a:14). In 1927, Mayo began to expand his research efforts with a view to examine the effect of worker fatigue on output (Schermerhorn, 2004:254). It was recognised that groups have strong negative and positive influences on individual productivity (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:440). Among the insights of the human relations movement, Maslow's work in the area of human needs is a key foundation (Schermerhorn, 2004:255). Maslow (1958:28) proposed a hierarchy of five human needs, namely physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-actualisation (Maslow, 1958:30). Maslow's ideas are still relevant to everyday management practice and philosophy (Schermerhorn, 2004:255). McGregor is best known for his formulation of two sets of assumptions, called theory X and theory Y. Theory X presents an essentially negative view of people - assuming that they have little ambition, dislike work, want to avoid responsibility and need to be closely supervised to work effectively. Theory Y offers a positive view and assumes that people can exercise self-direction, accept responsibility and consider work to be as natural as rest or play (McGregor, 1972:136). McGregor (1972:138) argues for the value of theory Y assumptions in which managers should free up their employees to unleash their full creative and productive potential.

- **Modern approaches** to management respect the classical and human resource schools, but also recognise that no one school of thought is universally applicable to all situations. The modern approaches focus on the systems view of businesses and the contingency thinking in a dynamic and complex environment (Schermerhorn, 2004:249-255). The systems approach defines a system as a set of interrelated and interdependent parts arranged in a manner that produces a unified whole (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:42). The systems approach view businesses as open systems that interact with their environments in the continual process of transforming resource inputs into product outputs (Schermerhorn, 2004:256). The contingency approach has been used to replace simplistic principles of management and to integrate much existing management theory (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:44). Contingency thinking aims to match managerial responses with the problems and opportunities unique to different situations (Schermerhorn, 2004:256).

From the discussion above it is clear that management does not exist in isolation. The contributors to the development of management were from different disciplines and scientific backgrounds. It is important to realise that disciplines in the humanities and social sciences - such as anthropology, economics, philosophy, political science, psychology and sociology - affect management practices in a direct manner (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:20-22).

### 3.2.2 The management environment

One of the most significant threats in terms of managing a business today is failing to adapt to the changing world (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:48). The management environment encompasses all factors, internally and externally to a business, which have a bearing on the business's ability to practice effectively strategies for serving the market (Van Rensburg, 2007b:66). The components of the management environment are illustrated in figure 3.1. The management environment includes the internal and external environments which influence a business. The external environment is divided into the macro- and market-environments, while the internal or micro-environment refers mainly to a business's specific attributes (Van Rensburg, 2007b:67-70).



**Figure 3.1: The components of the management environment**

Source: Van Rensburg (2007b:67).

The macro-environment includes aspects such as international, institutional, technological, political, economical, social and physical issues (Schermerhorn, 2004:21). Business and economic activities and practices are ingrained in the complexity of the social relations of networks of friends, family, government, educational and professional history, religion, gender, ethnicity and culture (Jones & Tilley, 2003:17). Today, not only domestic and national events influence businesses; especially international events also play a role. The international environment refers to business activities which have an influence on national business activities (Van Rensburg, 2007b:70). South Africa has only recently entered the international business arena (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:4). Also, management is no longer constrained by national borders (Robbins & Decenzo, 2005:50).

The world is becoming one large marketplace in which boundaries are becoming increasingly vague (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:25). To be effective in this boundaryless world, managers need to adapt to cultures, systems and techniques that are different from their own (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:50). Alongside these changes in the international environment, the institutional environment has also experienced a number of changes. The institutional environment encompasses all those institutions with which the business comes into contact, such as trade institutes and chambers of commerce (Van Rensburg, 2007b:68). Establishing regional trade agreements with other countries enhances trade within or between regions and regulates unfair competition in the international markets (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:25). It is easy to forget that just a few years ago no one had a fax machine, a cellular phone or a notebook computer (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:48). The rate of technological advancement is indeed dramatic (Van Rensburg, 2007b:74). Agricultural changes, industrialisation and the dawn of the information age have given rise into our contemporary civilisation (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:49).

South Africa is currently experiencing immense social changes (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:25). The range of dramatic changes that have taken place due to South Africa's ongoing transformation have resulted in an increased awareness of and sensitivity to cultural diversity (Moulton, 2009:6). Many South African businesses have undergone radical transformation since 1994, mirroring the wider society's transition from apartheid to democracy (Moulton, 2009:35). The objectives of the political party who runs the government as well as laws and government regulations all form part of the broader political environment (Schermerhorn, 2004:21).

Since 1994, employment equity strategies such as legislated affirmative action and Black Economic Empowerment policies have been implemented by the government as

mechanisms aimed at developing and empowering disadvantaged racial and ethnic groups to enter into management structures (Moulton, 2009:35). The general state of the economy in terms of inflation, income levels, gross domestic product, unemployment and related indicators of economic health form part of the broader economic environment (Schermerhorn, 2004:21). A large proportion of South Africa's economically active population has low literacy levels; these people are also considered to be economically illiterate (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:4).

Individuals belong to specific groups with unique characteristics including peculiar languages, religions, culinary habits, clothing and traditions (Van Rensburg, 2007b:74). Globalisation has created unique challenges for businesses as a result of cultural diversity brought about by the emergence of the global village (Moulton, 2009:21). Generally speaking, a social environment includes the general state of prevailing social values, trends in education and related social institutions as well as demographic patterns (Schermerhorn, 2004:21). In South Africa, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Afrikaans and English are the most widely spoken languages (Van Rensburg, 2007b:75). In view of the country's linguistic diversity, it is hardly surprising that no uniquely South African management philosophy accepted by all cultures has yet emerged (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:4).

The general state and nature of the conditions of the natural or physical environment influences businesses forming part of the primary sector (Schermerhorn, 2004:21). The physical environment encompasses the availability, protection, improvement and exploitation of natural resources to which a country has access (Van Rensburg, 2007b:76). Since mining entails the process of exploiting raw natural resources, mines will be influenced significantly by the physical environment.

Networking is a very important management skill that is needed in order to manage effectively (Schermerhorn, 2004:13). When looking at the market environment - which is the part of the external environment influencing the business most directly - many network opportunities exist (Van Rensburg, 2007b:68). A network is a web of social relationships that links one person with other people, and through them, also with other people they know (Kendall, 2008:179). The key to understanding business success lies in the dynamic interplay between the psychology of individuals and the structure of their social networks (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 2009:476).

The market environment includes consumers, competitors, suppliers and intermediaries (Van Rensburg, 2007b:68). Good networking relationships with suppliers can be a great

competitive advantage for a business. The relationships between buyers and sellers are rather like the relationships between people: it takes effort on both sides to make them work (Ford, 1998:8). Also, networking with competing businesses will create opportunities for inter-business network relationships. Businesses sharing similar technologies and training have a propensity to spill over their designs and technologies through monitoring, imitation or even active knowledge sharing (Fornahl & Brenner, 2003:86). Networking with customers, in turn, can lead to referrals to other potential customers. Forming relationships with customers can also lead to a competitive advantage in the increasingly competitive world (Little & Marandi, 2003:33).

In the increasingly global world businesses find themselves in, it is important to understand the differences among people and how these differences can potentially affect communication between members of diverse cultures (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:101). In terms of the micro-environment, which refers to the internal situation in a business, networking is very important (Van Rensburg, 2007b:67). Networking across, up and down the business structure can lead to more effective management practices. By making use of sociometry managers can find out who people like or dislike and with whom they wish or would not wish to work. This information can be used to determine causes of high staff turnover, absenteeism and diversity problems (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:177). A key issue in the micro-environment is the notion of inclusivity of individuals, regardless of their race, sexual preference, gender or other diversity attributes (Schermerhorn, 2004:23).

It is of great importance for the management environment to acknowledge and understand networking practices and diversity issues. An in-depth look at networking and diversity will clarify this important link.

### **3.3 NETWORKING**

The volume of social network research in management has increased radically in recent years (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:991). Some authors such as Johanson and Mattsson (1988), Powell (1991), Håkansson and Johanson (1993), Lazerson (1993), Krackhardt and Hanson (1993), Sorenson (1996), Skyrme (1999), Friedman (2000) and Barabási (2002) share their research interest by indicating the importance of network building in today's knowledge economy. Other recent business research on traditional social psychological topics includes work on conflict (Nelson, 1989; Labianca, Brass & Gray, 1998; Joshi, Labianca & Caligiuri, 2002), social referent choices (Shah, 1998), leadership (Pastor, Meindl & Mayo, 2002) and ethical behaviour (Brass, Butterfield & Skaggs, 1998; Nielsen, 2003).

One of the most famous studies of managers was conducted by Mintzberg (1976:3) who followed several top managers around for one week each and recorded everything they did. The managers in Mintzberg's study showed a strong preference for verbal communication, and they relied heavily on networks for obtaining and transmitting information (Mintzberg, 1976:8). Networking entails establishing effective relationships from inside and outside the business (Baker, 2000:xiii). A network is a set of actors connected by a set of ties (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:992). Networks are people talking to each other, sharing ideas, information and resources (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:13). Building strong relationships, which is what networking is all about, is even more important now in this new, fast paced, global business environment (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:20).

As society has become increasingly diverse and communication among members of international cultures is becoming more frequent, the need to appreciate diversity and to understand how people in other cultures view their world has also increased (Kendall, 2008:74). Researchers (Krackhardt & Kilduff, 2002:280) have begun to draw upon sociological theory and cognitive anthropology with a view to apply a social network approach to culture; such an approach emphasises the underlying structures of relations rather than the content of ceremonies and rituals. The majority of the work that has examined the effects of workforce diversity, rather than the effects of diversity initiatives, is therefore clearly underpinned by social identity theory. Social identity theory states that individuals will be attracted to groups that will enhance their self-esteem; it follows that individuals will be less attracted to groups that they perceive to be potentially esteem-damaging (Davidson & Fielden, 2003:142). Culture and communication are inseparable because culture dictates who talks to whom, about what and how; therefore, culture can be seen as the foundation of communication (Staehele, 2003:168).

### **3.3.1 Examples of networking and the development of the field**

Historical examples of networking successes abound. In this regard, one can think of Paul Revere and William Dawes - they were the two main riders during the night of the Midnight Ride. Revere and Dawes came from the same social class and had similar educational backgrounds, but only Revere's name became famous because he occupied a key role in his social network while Dawes circulated within a small group of people (Uzzi & Dunlap, 2005:53). Bill Gates' success came out of a series of strategic alliances with important and timely network contacts (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:58). A monumental study conducted by Collins (1998:68) showed that breakthroughs by icons such as the seven sages of

antiquity, Freud, Picasso, Watson and Crick and Pythagoras were the consequence of a particular type of personal network that prompted exceptional individual creativity.

Although reflections on the notion of network analysis can be found in writings dating as far back as the ancient Greeks, the actual development of the field began in the 1930's in different traditional fields that functioned separately. These fields include psychology, anthropology, and mathematics (Borgatti, 1997). The 1990's saw network theories emerge in virtually every traditional area of business scholarship (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:1005). The boom in network research is part of a general shift, beginning in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, toward more relational, contextual and systematic understandings of human behaviour and society at large (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:991).

Many researchers (Toeman, 1949:255; Borgatti, 1997; Hallinan, 1999; Chen & Yang, 2010:233) of the social network idea have admitted that the psychiatrist Moreno is the founder of the social network, as his sociogram proposed in 1943 inspired a great deal research over a number of decades to follow. Moreno (1936:287) hypothesised that the smallest unit of mankind is not the individual but the social atom, which is composed of all the individual's interpersonal relationships that are essential to his or her daily living. Some of the major research streams in business network scholarship include social capital, embeddedness, network businesses, board interlocks, joint ventures and inter-business alliances, knowledge management, social cognition and group processes (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:993).

Social capital consists of the stocks of active connections among people: the trust, mutual understanding and shared values and behaviours that bind members of human networks and communities and make cooperative action possible (Cohen & Prusak, 2001:4). The concept of network embeddedness offers potential ways to limit a network in a relevant manner or, at least, to become conceptually more aware of the nature of network complexity (Halinen & Törnroos, 2005:1293). Intertwined with the body of embeddedness literature is the literature on network business (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:995). The emergence of business networks may be seen as evidence of an historical process in which the lengthening and strengthening of the chains of interdependence between human beings expand social boundaries from, for instance, family or village to nation or class – in turn, giving rise to widening circles of identification (Ellis & Ybema, 2010:279).

Board interlocks refer to ties among businesses through a member of one business sitting on the board of another (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:996). One development in the literature on

board interlocks, paralleling developments in social capital literature, is that researchers (Davis & Greve, 1997; Haunschild & Beckman, 1998; Gulati & Westphal, 1999) are beginning to study the contingencies that determine when interlocks have the effects they do. Businesses engage in networking on different levels, and business networking systems involve the tendency of businesses to move closer to their partners through mergers or by forming new alliances (De Klerk & Kroon, 2008:26). Over the last few years, research on joint ventures and inter-business alliances has flourished (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:996).

Knowledge can be defined as information that changes something or somebody, either by becoming grounds for action or by making an individual or institution capable of different or more effective action (Huggins & Johnston, 2010:458). In our current era of continual change, the success of any business is lodged in its ability to utilise knowledge-sharing practices and procedures to create, disseminate and use new knowledge in order to outlive or outlast the competition (Van der Merwe, 2004: 3). Social cognition grows out of the informant accuracy research of the 1970's and 1980's which was concerned with the methodological implications of respondents' inability to report their interactions accurately. The social cognition field has much to offer the field of transactive memory, since groups can exploit the knowledge of their members only to the extent that their cognitive maps of "who knows what" and "who knows who knows what" are accurate. Group processes constitute a well established area of research and has its roots in classical social psychology. This field is concerned with how physical proximity, similarity in beliefs and attitudes, amount of interaction and affective ties are interrelated (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:998).

In summary, similar to the development of business management, network research has roots in many different disciplines. The study of group processes, one of the major streams of business network scholarship, has established that differences among individuals in groups affect their actions. Since work environments are becoming increasingly diverse, it will be of great value to study and understand the impact of diversity on group processes when networking.

### **3.3.2 The importance of networking**

There is an old saying: "It's not what you know, it's who you know." Simply stated, networks are people talking to each other, sharing ideas, information and resources (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:13). Almost everyone wants a sense of belonging – which is the essence of group life (Macionis, 2007:168). A group is a cluster of two or more individuals who have

come together for a specific purpose, normally for the benefit of the individuals in the group (Potgieter, 2003:96). Some networks come close to being groups (Macionis, 2007:175).

Networking is such an integral part of everyday life that many individuals do not even realise they are networking until introduced to the word (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:25). The networks and businesses to which people belong exert enormous influence over their lives (Giddens, 2009:823). Networks are based on people's backgrounds, hobbies, views and personal interests (Macionis, 2007:175). Networks can occur within a business or between businesses (De Klerk & Kroon, 2008:25). The secret as to why networking works can be found in its smallest-scale feature: the person-to-person connection (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:79). In a country such as South Africa, the diversity of cultures poses a wide range of obstacles that must be overcome in areas such as communication (Schultz, 2003a:132).

Networks exist in order to foster self-help, for exchanging information and for sharing resources (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:14). Furthermore, networking enhances management processes and relationships, and provides a competitive advantage (Tullier, 2004:28). Networking can prove to be a competitive skill for managers and entrepreneurs that work in absolute isolation and find it very difficult to establish and maintain business relationships (Cohen & Prusak, 2001:111). Strong relationships are of critical importance to exchange information, risks and rewards and to work together when planning and implementing processes (Moberg & Speh, 2003:1). Managers who do not network will not be exposed to new opportunities, ideas, solutions to problems and other resources that can be accessed through involvement with other people (De Klerk & Kroon, 2008:32).

### **3.3.3 The reason for studying networking**

Networks filter through our daily lives, underpinning our economies and societies; in the process, networks provide the infrastructure for business, science, technology, social systems and education (Nagurney & Dong, 2002:xv). In a business, networks are conducive to knowledge sharing – such networks are generally established casually when people meet on a regular basis, for instance over lunchtime (Stafford & Mearns, 2009:3). It is through these informal networks, rather than during formal meetings, that value-adding information is created (Liebowitz, 2007:79).

Multicultural businesses are becoming more global in their operations and the difficulties arising from cultural diversity are becoming increasingly apparent to managers (Özbilgin & Tatlı, 2008:8). Cultural diversity and orientation influence a group's communication networks

which, in turn, influence group performance. Therefore businesses employing cross-cultural groups should recognise that certain characteristics of such groups may impede or encourage communication and information flows (Khorram, Vora & Dakhli, 2010). Indeed, network analysis has had a combative and problematic relationship to culture since its rise to prominence in the late 1970's and early 1980's (Vaisey & Lizatdo, 2010:1596).

Culture is essential for individual survival and for communication with other individuals (Kendall, 2008:74). In South Africa, cultural diversity is an important reality because all South Africans interact with different cultures on a daily basis. In the South African workplace, four broad cultural groups can be identified, namely Black, White, Coloured and Indian South Africans. Studying the link between diversity and the ways in which it influences networking practices can be helpful with a view to create more effective management strategies and more accommodating work environments.

#### **3.3.4 Characteristics of effective networking practices**

We meet people all the time because it is a part of life, but it is also one of the fundamental steps of networking (Lindsay, 2005:17). When building a network, the focus should be on a network that supports one's own personal and professional needs and goals (Boe, 1994:153). The cornerstone of all successful networking is reciprocity, which essentially means helping others so that they will help you. Reciprocity also means that people generally feel that they should be paid back for the various things they do, and that one good or bad turn deserves another (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:200).

If networks are created with trust, diversity and brokerage, the level of information can be raised from *what* is known to *who* is known (Uzzi & Dunlap, 2005:60). Trust refers to the confidence one has in the other partner's ability and intent, and involves one's willingness to rely on that expected satisfaction (Armstrong & Yee, 2001:63). Individual success is tied to the ability of transcending natural skill limitations through others; highly diverse network ties can help one to develop more unbiased views of issues. An information broker is a person who occupies a key role in a social network by connecting disparate groups of people. Brokers connect separate clusters, thus stimulating collaboration and exploiting arbitrage among otherwise independent specialists (Uzzi & Dunlap, 2005:33-35).

The critical success factors involved in business networking have been shown to include trust, informality, redundancy, commitment and interdependency. Informality has been shown to facilitate collaboration between businesses occurring at a personal, semi-social

level, not at a formal level. Dense networks of relationships involving overlapping knowledge domains characterise successful business networks as well as redundancy (Ramos *et al.*, 2003:2). Commitment entails an unconditional and pure promise of intent to achieve the set outcome by conducting the specified actions (Ciancutti & Steding, 2001:5 & 98). Interdependence includes interaction between and amongst the network members (Arrien & Mickhail Sergeevich, 2001:28).

In conclusion, the key concepts associated with effective networking practices include reciprocity, trust, redundancy, informality, commitment, interdependency, diversity and brokerage. It is important to remember that individuals have different values, beliefs and attitudes because of various cultural backgrounds (Macionis, 2007:64). Respecting these differences is important for networking success.

### **3.4 SUMMARY**

The practice of business management is changing rapidly. Business management entails the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the use of resources with a view to accomplish performance goals (Schermerhorn, 2004:6). Old assumptions about management are questioned as the world is becoming smaller and all things are linked to other things. In this increasingly globalised situation it is important to understand salient differences among people. On all levels of management it is therefore, more than ever, important to understand diversity issues. Networking is an important skill needed to manage effectively (Schermerhorn, 2004:13).

Because networks are based on people's backgrounds, the necessity of understanding the link between networking and diversity is mounting. Networking entails the establishment of effective relationships from inside and outside the business; it entails people talking to one another, sharing ideas, information and resources (Baker, 2000:13). The notion of diversity with reference to cultures and generations as well as its link to sociology will be explored in more greater in chapter 4.

## CHAPTER 4

### DIVERSITY THROUGH CULTURE AND GENERATIONS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Multicultural businesses are becoming increasingly global in their operations and the difficulties arising from cultural diversity are becoming more apparent to managers (Özbilgin & Tatll, 2008:8). Very few business environments have homogeneous groups of employees because individuals can migrate to anywhere in the world and pursue the best opportunities.

Economic integration and societal globalisation are diversifying the world's workforce in new ways; these notions stress the need for management practices to adapt (Mor-Barak, 2005:73). Managing diversity is one of the primary issues faced by businesses today (De Janasz, Dowd & Schneider, 2009:97). The forces of diversity are challenging businesses and their members to deal with differences in a positive manner (Schermerhorn, 2004:16). It is important to understand the differences among cultures and how these differences can potentially affect communication between members of diverse cultures (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:101). Managing diversity and affirmative action assume special meaning in South Africa these days, although these are indeed important issues in most contemporary societies (Horwitz *et al.*, 1995:671).

Communication networks are influenced by cultural diversity and orientation and, in turn, group performance is influenced by communication networks. Characteristics of cross-cultural groups should be recognised as this may influence communication and information flows, either positively or negatively (Khorram, Vora & Dakhli, 2010).

#### 4.2 DIVERSITY

Diversity means many things to many people. Some people think of diversity in terms of a single dimension (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:95). This is one of the main stumbling blocks on the way to effective diversity management (Özbilgin & Tatll, 2008:27). Diversity within a business means having a range of differences among the people in the business; such differences might relate to aspects such as gender, ethnic origin and disability (Daniels & Macdonald, 2005:1).

Traditionally, diversity referred to differences in demographic characteristics, but it also includes differences in values, abilities, interests and experiences (Schreuder & Coetzee,

2006:348). Diversity is any attribute relevant to an individual that creates or reinforces a perception that the person is different from another individual (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:95). Workforce diversity is concerned with differences in age, gender, race, ethnicity, able-bodiedness, religion and sexual orientation (Schermerhorn, 2004:8). Social diversity aspects such as race, ethnicity, class or gender, play a part in group dynamics and influence intergroup contact (Macionis, 2007:174).

Businesses are finding that utilising diversity in the workforce is a complex undertaking that can cut both ways (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:96). Management behaviours are based upon cultural assumptions, and because businesses operate across multiple cultures, these assumptions will vary (Özbilgin & Tatll, 2008:8-9). Although diversity groupings vary from one culture or country to the next, the common factor that seems to transcend national boundaries is the experience of social exclusion, particularly in the workplace (Mor-Barak, 2005:6).

The social field of diversity management is affected by the dynamics of the business environment (Özbilgin & Tatll, 2008:403). Workforce diversity contributes to the bottom line by helping to meet the demands of diverse customers, in this way giving the business a competitive edge in times of globalisation, enhancing labour relations while reducing labour turnover, absenteeism and recruitment cost, and improving the quality and performance of the internal workforce in terms of skills, creativity, problem-solving and flexibility (Özbilgin & Tatll, 2008:65-66).

#### **4.2.1 Diversity across the world and South Africa**

Today, the individual does not have to travel abroad to come face to face with diversity; indeed, simply going to work is like a cross-cultural journey (Schermerhorn, 2004:224). The word “globalisation” has become a widespread phenomenon these days (Mato, 2003:283). Globalisation refers to the worldwide interdependence of resource supplies, product markets and business competition (Schermerhorn, 2004:35).

The workplace abounds with subcultures based on gender, age, ethnicity, race and other factors (Schermerhorn, 2004:224). Such diverse workplaces can be found in, for example, the United States of America, Australia and Great Britain. In the United States of America, African, Latin, Asian, White and many more diverse employees are working together (Flores, 2003:96-98). Australian authors, Wise and Velayutham (2009:10), studied the interesting cultures with which they share neighbourhoods, offices and socialising spots. London's

markets have also changed dramatically in terms of the ethnic composition of both traders and shoppers. In many of these markets today, the extent of diversity can give the illusion of shopping at a market in India, Pakistan, Africa or Asia (Watson, 2009:125).

South Africa has a rich history of people in interaction, starting with the first inhabitants of Africa followed by immigrants who entered the country as early as 1652 - from the Netherlands, France, Germany and eventually Britain – followed by the age of colonialism (Van Aswegen, 1982:392). Colonialism therefore brought different cultures to South Africa and can be said to have initiated South Africa's cultural diversity. The term "rainbow nation", as used by former president Nelson Mandela, describes South African society as a mixture of cultures (Schultz, 2003a:133). South Africa has an estimated population of 49,004,031 in the year 2011. Black South Africans represent 79%, White South Africans represent 9.6%, Coloured South Africans represent 8.9% and Indian / Asian South Africans represent 2.5% of the total population (Anon., 2011b).

The Black race group in South Africa is further divided into nine main tribal or ethnic groups speaking the languages of Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, isiNdebele, siSwati, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Xitsonga and Tshivenda. The White and Coloured race groups in South Africa are divided into two ethnic groups that typically speak one of the remaining two official languages as mother tongue, namely Afrikaans or English (Moulton, 2003:8). The immigrants from the Netherlands, France and Germany, for the most part, amalgamated to form the Afrikaans-speaking White cultural group while most English-speaking White South Africans are descendants from British immigrants (Van Aswegen, 1982:392). The majority of South Africa's Asian race group is Indian in origin and speaks English, although many retain the language of their origins as well. There is also a significant presence of Chinese South Africans (Anon., 2010).

There is no doubt, therefore, that South Africans live in an international community (Schermerhorn, 2004:34). As a result, the importance of cross-cultural communication skills applies at home just as well as it does in a foreign country (Schermerhorn, 2004:224). In light of this reality, South African businesses are awakening to the fact that diversity can be used to achieve competitive advantage (Schultz & Werner, 2003:16).

#### **4.2.2 Dimensions of diversity**

Diversity does not refer to a single dimension such as race (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:95). Figure 1.1, in chapter 1, illustrated the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity.

Primary dimensions of diversity include race, age, ethnicity, gender, physical ability and sexual orientation. Workplace diversity is a broader issue, and therefore the secondary dimensions of diversity are integrated and include aspects such as religious beliefs, education, experience, family status, income and language, among others (Schermerhorn, 2004:22-23).

A number of differentiating attributes that have been identified and studied are social-category differences, differences in knowledge or skills, differences in values or beliefs, personality differences, business- or community-status differences, and differences in terms of social and network ties (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:95-96). Two terms that can be highlighted from the dimensions of diversity are *culture* and *generation*.

Culture refers to shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings attached to significant events that result from the common experience of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations (House & Javidan, 2004:15). Culture includes the knowledge, language, values, customs and material objects that are passed from person to person, from one generation to the next in a human group in society (Kendall, 2008:73). Culture also encapsulates the values, beliefs, behaviour and material objects that together form a people's way of life (Macionis, 2007:60). Diversity dimensions such as ethnic heritage, race, work style, communication style, language, religion and geographic location fall within the definition of culture.

A generation is a social location that has the potential to affect an individual's consciousness in much the same way as social class or culture does. The generations to which individuals belong are indicative of the era in which they were born, and their worldviews are developed and influenced by this era. Diversity dimensions such as age, mental / physical abilities and characteristics, sexual orientation, family status, education, military experience, work experience, income and business role and level fall within the definition of generation; it follows that one's age suggests these influences and predicts these diversity dimensions (Codrington, 2008:2-3).

Culture and generation are therefore two terms used to encompass all the primary and secondary dimensions of diversity. The cultural diversity in South Africa has a vast reach and includes people who speak eleven official languages. It has also been found that there are four different generations working together in the South African workplace at the moment.

### **4.2.3 Culture**

Culture is often treated as representing the unexplained residuum of rigorous empirical analysis, an area of darkness beyond the reach of currently available scientific searchlights (Fornahl & Brenner, 2003:15). Unlike scientific knowledge, the wisdom of culture is subjective; its most profound insights are relative, not universal laws (Kuper, 1999:6). Network analysis has had a combative and problematic relationship to culture (Vaisey & Lizatdo, 2010:1596).

Most approaches to culture proceed from an ethnographic perspective that focuses on the rich texture of rituals and activities within specific domains, but recently researchers (Krackhardt & Kilduff, 2002:279-280) have begun to draw upon sociological theory and cognitive anthropology in order to force a social network approach to culture that emphasises the underlying structures of relations rather than the content of ceremonies and rituals. The majority of research that examines workforce diversity is underpinned by social identity theory. Social identity theory states that individuals will be attracted to groups that enhance their self-esteem and less attracted to groups that are perceived to be potentially esteem-damaging (Davidson & Fielden, 2003:142).

An important question that any approach to culture must address is the relationship between culture and social structure. Within a business, individuals and groups attract and repel each other to form social interactions (Krackhardt & Kilduff, 2002:280). In South Africa, four broad cultural groups can be identified, namely Black, White, Coloured and Indian groups. Using existing theories of cultural differences and network analysis will yield insights to the social interactions among these cultural groups.

#### **4.2.3.1 The importance of culture**

Culture is concerned with more than objects displayed in museums; it includes customs and other human expressions and actions (Veltman, 1998:78). Cultural diversity reflects a country's long history of receiving immigrants from all over the world (Macionis, 2007:60). Understanding how culture affects lives will assist one to develop a sociological imagination, which is the ability to see the relationships between individual experiences and the larger society (Kendall, 2008:74). Entering an unfamiliar culture reminds us of the power of difference between individuals of different cultures (Macionis, 2007:65).

A fairly diverse workforce is expected to increase business effectiveness, lift morale, bring greater access to new segments of the marketplace, enhance productivity and bolster managers' power bases (Schultz, 2003b:144). The ultimate elegance of the new workplace may well be its ability to combine the talents of many people to achieve unique and significant high-performance results (Schermerhorn, 2004:2). On the other hand, difficulties arising out of cultural diversity are becoming more apparent to managers of multi-cultural businesses (Özbilgin & Tatli, 2008:8).

Culture is essential for individual survival and for communication with other individuals. Individuals rely on culture because they are not born with the information they need to survive. In the same way that culture is essential for individual survival, it is also fundamental for the survival of societies (Kendall, 2008:75-76). The essence of culture is not what is visible on the surface, but the shared way in which groups of people understand and interpret the world around them (Moulton, 2009:22).

#### **4.2.3.2 Elements of culture**

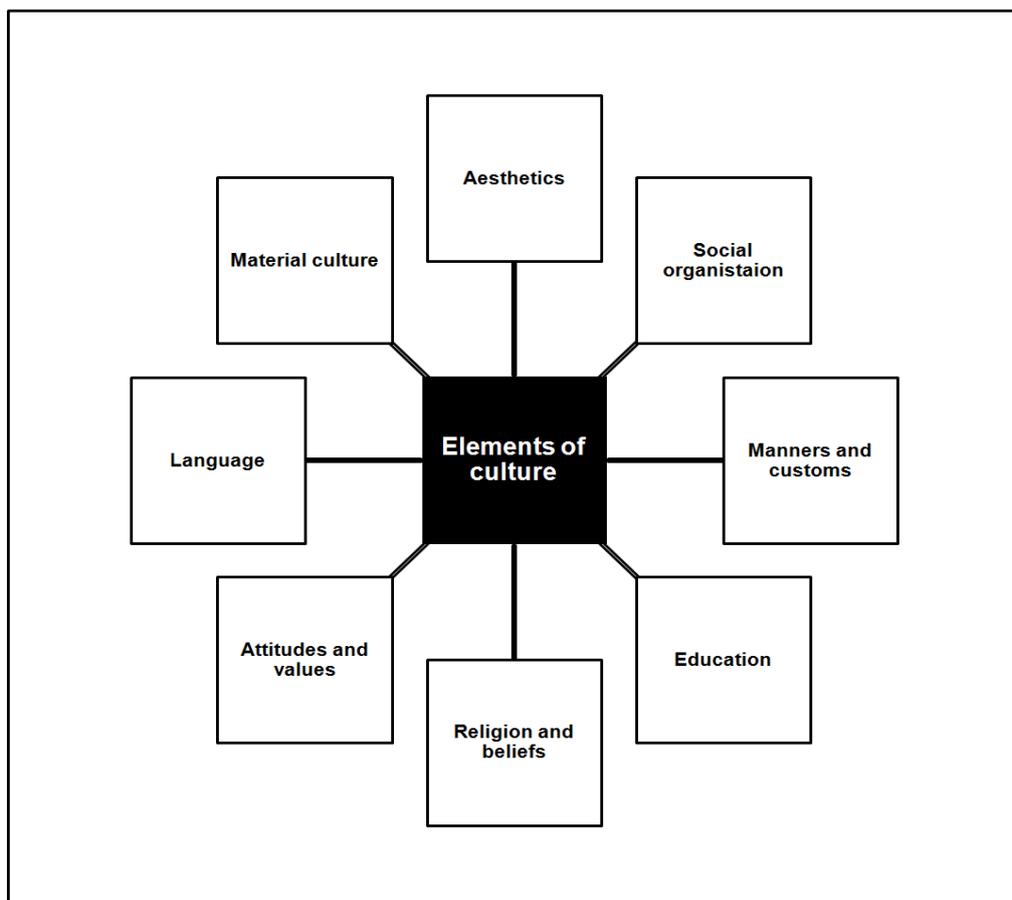
Culture entails many things (Veltman, 1998:73). The study of culture has led to the development of generalisations that apply to different cultures (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:168). Even though the specifics of individual cultures vary widely, all cultures have common cultural components or elements which contribute to both harmony and strife in society (Kendall, 2008:79). These common cultural elements include aspects such as symbols, language, values and norms (Macionis, 2007:64).

Material culture, aesthetics, social organisation, manners and customs, education, religion and beliefs, attitudes and values and language as elements of culture are illustrated in figure 4.1. Material culture entails the physical things created by members of a society (Macionis, 2007:60). It is a result of the society's exposure to technology and is related to the way in which the economic activity of a society is arranged (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:168). Material culture is made, used and shared by members of society (Kendall, 2008:77).

Aesthetics differ from culture to culture. Humans use their senses to experience the surrounding world and give meaning to it (Macionis, 2007:64). Every culture has its own idea of what is considered as good taste, and which is expressed in the culture's art and through colour, form and music, to name a few. Interestingly, most people view their own behaviour as natural, even though what is natural differs from culture to culture (Macionis, 2007:62). Social organisation is seen as the way people relate to each other. It is typically based upon

kinship, common territory, special interest groups, class or caste groupings, age and the role of women in society (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:169).

Cultures also differ in terms of what is considered good manners and appropriate custom (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:171). Norms are established rules of behaviour or standards of conduct (Kendall, 2008:85). Some norms are prescriptive and others are proscriptive (Macionis, 2007:72). Prescriptive norms state what type of behaviour is appropriate or acceptable, while proscriptive norms state what behaviour is inappropriate or unacceptable (Kendall, 2008:85-86). A society's culture and heritage are also reflected by its educational system. Education influences views, wants and motives of individuals. The literacy rate as well as levels of knowledge within a particular society depends on the level of education and the extent to which individuals participate in the society's educational system (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:171).



**Figure 4.1: The elements of culture**

*Source:* Burgess and Bothma (2007:168).

Beliefs are specific statements that people hold to be true (Macionis, 2007:68). The role of religion varies from culture to culture, and in many instances religion dictates how individuals live their lives in terms of what they eat, drink, and wear, and the activities they engage in. Attitudes and values also differ from one culture to the next; attitude is a learned predisposition of responding in a consistent manner with respect to a given object (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:172). Values, in turn, are culturally defined standards that people use to decide what is desirable, good and beautiful and which serve as broad guidelines for social living (Macionis, 2007:68).

The key to the world of culture is a system of symbols that allows people to communicate with one another, otherwise known as language (Macionis, 2007:66). Language is a set of symbols that express ideas and enable individuals to think and communicate with one another (Kendall, 2008:79). Language has both verbal and non-verbal dimensions (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:173). Language not only makes communication possible, but is also the key to passing on culture from one generation to the next (Macionis, 2007:66).

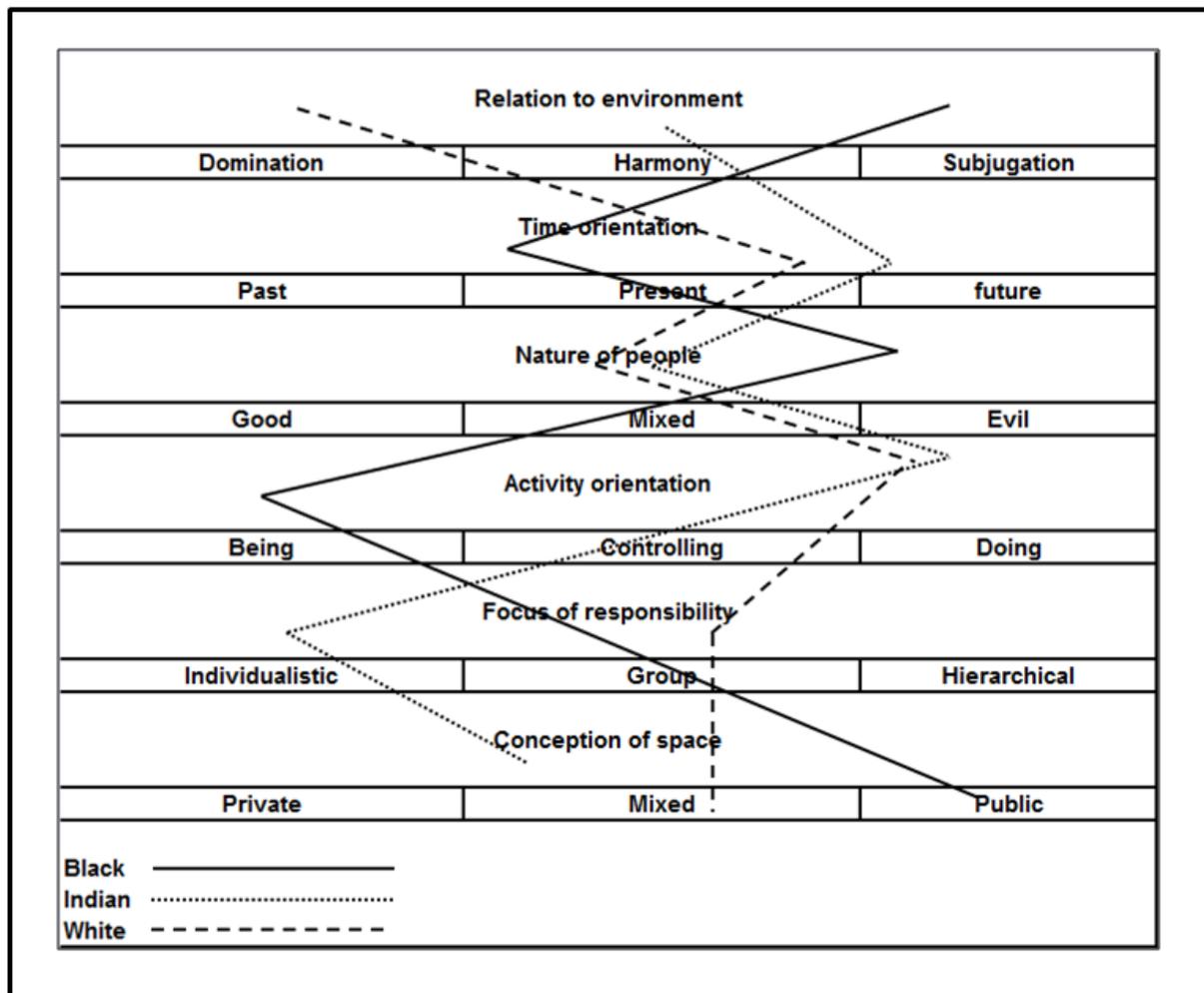
#### **4.2.3.3 Existing theories on cultural differences**

Several theoretical models exist for studying cultural differences. The most frequently cited models include the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework, the Hofstede framework, the Trompenaars framework and the GLOBE study:

- **The Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework.** One of the oldest cultural conceptual frameworks is the one proposed by the anthropologists Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961:46) and which focuses on the societal level of culture analysis. This framework includes six universal dimensions which can be observed in every culture, namely relationship to the environment, time orientation, nature of people, activity orientation, focus of responsibility and conception of space. Cultures differ in terms of their views on the individual's relationship with nature in three ways. Two extremes exist, namely subjugation and domination, while the third is a more moderate approach, namely to live in harmony with nature (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961:89).

Cultures differ with respect to their time orientation: some focus on the past, others on the present and still others on the future (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961:131). Most traditional African cultures, for example, tend to focus on the past, show little time consciousness and consequently also little time urgency (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:33). Different cultures will also have diverse views on human nature. Some cultures view people as essentially dishonest

and untrustworthy, while others regard people as basically honest and trustworthy. A further distinction between cultures can be based on activity orientation. Some cultures are more activity-orientated while others focus on being or living for the moment, and a third group focuses on controlling by restraining their desires through detachment from objects (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961:240-244).



**Figure 4.2: Hypothesised differences between S.A. cultural groups in terms of the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework**

Source: Robbins *et al.* (2007:34).

Cultures also differ in terms of assuming responsibility for others. Some cultures are highly individualistic; most individuals in these cultures use personal characteristics and achievements to define their identity (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961:300). In countries like Israel, for example, the focus is more on the group, and here the emphasis is on harmony, unity and loyalty. The French and British, in turn, rely on hierarchical relationships where society shows a high degree of status differentiation (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:33). Lastly, cultures differ in terms of ownership of personal space. Some societies are very open and

public, while others tend to keep things private (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961:335). It is worthwhile to draw a comparison between South African cultures as it may help gain insight into some of the cultural differences that exist in the country.

Figure 4.3 illustrates the differences, according to the Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework, between Black, Indian and White South Africans. It can be seen that Black South Africans differ from White and Indian South Africans in terms of their relationship to the environment, time orientation, nature of people, activity orientation, focus of responsibility and conception of space.

- **The Hofstede framework.** Hofstede (1983:47) undertook groundbreaking research in the 1980's in order to develop an understanding of how values that are shared within cultures underlie behaviour. His framework includes five dimensions of cross-cultural differences, namely power distance, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity and time orientation. Power distance refers to the degree to which a society accepts the unequal distribution of power in businesses. Countries with a high power distance have a relatively small number of high-ranking individuals, while in countries with low power distance, power is more dispersed (Hofstede, 1983:52). The degree to which a society emphasises individual self-interests versus the collective values of groups refers to individualism or collectivism. Individualistic cultures are comprised of individuals who are loosely connected to each other, while collectivistic cultures have closely connected individuals (Hofstede, 1983:54). Both Afrocentric collectivistic and Eurocentric individualistic cultural values are represented in South African businesses (Moulton, 2009:4). Uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree to which a society tolerates risk and situational uncertainties. In some cultures individuals feel threatened by uncertain situations, while in other cultures uncertainty is more readily accepted. Masculinity versus femininity refers to how much emphasis a society places on assertiveness and material concerns as opposed to greater concern for human relationships and feelings. This dimension has an influence on the role of women in society; in highly masculine cultures the role of women is more traditional (Hofstede, 1983:54). The time-orientation dimension involves members of a society's orientation to the future. Some cultures have a realistic future orientation, while other cultures have short-term orientations (Burgess & Bothma, 2007:174).

Table 4.1 presents a comparison of different countries, including South Africa, in terms of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, namely uncertainty avoidance (UAI), power distance (PDI), masculinity (MAS) and individualism (IDV). As there is a measure of resemblance between

South Africa and Germany, one might find that not all of the South African cultural groups are represented in these early findings of Hofstede.

**Table 4.1: Cultural dimensions**

Country	UAI score	PDI score	MAS score	IDV score
Mozambique	66	112	34	36
Portugal	104	63	31	27
Uruguay	100	61	38	36
Peru	87	64	42	16
Turkey	85	66	45	37
South Korea	85	60	39	18
Taiwan	69	58	45	17
Arab countries	68	80	53	38
Germany	65	35	66	67
Thailand	64	64	34	20
West Africa	54	77	46	20
East Africa	52	64	41	27
Kenya	59	111	10	21
South Africa	49	49	63	65
Indonesia	48	78	46	14
Malaysia	36	104	50	26

Source: Hofstede (2001:458).

- **The Trompenaars framework.** Trompenaars (1994:43) attempted in the late 1990's to measure culture differences across the globe. Trompenaars addressed some of the limitations of the Hofstede study in his research. His study included five dimensions, namely universalism versus particularism, individualism versus communitarianism, neutral versus affective, specific versus diffuse and achievement versus ascription (Trompenaars, 1994:60).

In a society characterised by universalism, steadfast principles in terms of what is right and wrong are important, while in a society characterised by particularism, obligations that come with relationships are viewed as more important than obeying rules. Individualistic societies consider individuals as individuals first and then as members of a group, while in societies characterised by communitarianism, group obligations are seen as more important than individual desires. In neutral cultures, emotions are held in control and people are not emotionally expressive, while in affective cultures emotions are expressed openly and naturally (Trompenaars, 1994:65-67).

In specific cultures, each individual who owns a large public space shares a portion of this private space only with close friends or relatives, while in diffuse cultures the differentiation between public and private space is less clear. In a culture that is achievement-orientated, a

person's status in society is derived from achievements, while in a culture that is characterised by ascription, status is dependent upon the person's age, gender, family relations and social contacts (Trompenaars, 1994:80-82).

- **The GLOBE study.** Project GLOBE (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, Dickson & Gupta, 1999:171) was conceived around 1991 and launched in 1993 with the purpose of analysing leadership and business practices around the globe. GLOBE is an abbreviation for Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (Staeheli, 2003:130). The GLOBE study was conducted in 61 countries and 18 000 respondents were included in the survey. The GLOBE study examined eight dimensions in order to assess cultural differences, namely uncertainty avoidance, future orientation, power distance, individualism / collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, humane orientation and performance orientation (House *et al.*, 1999:172). Uncertainty avoidance refers to the degree to which a society's people value orderliness, consistency and structure. Future orientation entails the extent to which people of a certain culture are willing to defer immediate gratification for future benefits (Moulton, 2009:34).

Power distance refers to the extent to which a society tries to minimise the inequalities between individuals and groups, or to maintain inequalities by power and status stratification at all levels of society. The extent to which a society encourages and rewards individualistic or collectivistic behaviour is another dimension used in the GLOBE study (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:35). Gender egalitarianism is the degree to which a culture's people support gender equality (Moulton, 2009:34). Assertiveness refers to how assertive, confrontational and aggressive people in a particular culture are (Moulton, 2009:34).

Humane orientation refers to the degree to which a society encourages and rewards aggressive and hostile actions on the one hand, or fairness, altruism, generosity and kindness, on the other (Robbins *et al.*, 2007:35). The degree to which a culture's people encourage and reward people for performance refers to the performance orientation dimension. In the original GLOBE study of South Africa, the White sample was grouped into the Anglo cluster, while the Black sample was grouped into the sub-Saharan Africa sample; no attempt was made to group the other two race groups in South Africa, namely the Indian and Coloured groups (Moulton, 2009:31-34).

By using the frameworks discussed above in order to identify the differences among South Africa's cultural groups and generations in the workplace, a better understanding of why they tend to act the way they do can be developed.

#### **4.2.3.4 The reasons for studying culture in South Africa**

South Africa's transition from an apartheid state (that was widely condemned and diplomatically isolated by the international community) to a democracy in 1994 was rightfully characterised as a historical turning point (Stevens, Franchi & Swart, 2006:3). In the increasingly multi-cultural society that resulted from this transition, efforts to increase workforce diversity and manage it effectively with a view to facilitate positive outcomes constitute simply the right and ethical thing to do (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:104).

South Africa is a culturally complex country which presents good opportunities for cross-cultural research within a single national boundary (Moulton, 2009:35). South Africans will always have to interact, communicate and build relationships with people whose backgrounds and cultural orientations differ from their own. Each culture has acceptable social conventions and norms that affect the communication process (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:102). Culture and communication are inseparable, because these elements dictate who talks to whom and therefore both culture and communication help to determine how people encode messages (Staeheli, 2003:168).

Without disregarding the value of international research in business behaviour, there is a need to develop a leadership perspective that will reflect South Africa's uniqueness (Werner, 2003:196). Both Afrocentric collectivistic and Eurocentric individualistic cultural values are understood to be represented in South African businesses (Moulton, 2009:4). The concept of "Ubuntu" is probably the most popular Southern African idea, meaning *we are what we are through our interaction with others* (Werner, 2003:196-197). There is a need to better understand how the values and beliefs of Africans can be incorporated into Western-based management practices (Sartorius, Merino & Carmichael, 2011:1965).

#### **4.3.4 Generation**

At first glance it might seem somewhat strange to study the theme of generations; indeed, the problem of the "revolting youth" and "over conservative elders" is by no means unfamiliar (Jansen, 1975:ix). Nearly everyone has an attitude, values and expectations that are based on what "life was like" when they grew up. These shared experiences and times have bounded people into cohorts generally known as generations (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:3). The theme of generations is of great concern in current research as it seems to be at the heart of many societal problems (Jansen, 1975:x).

Although generations have existed since recorded humanity, the slow pace of life in previous eras meant that the differences between generations have not been as dramatic and as overt as they are today; this is because the advent of the industrial era impacted massively on the pace of life (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:11-12). A generation constitutes a social location that has the potential to affect an individual's consciousness in much the same way as social class or culture does. It has been noted that a generation tends to be about 20 years in length, representing roughly the time from the birth of a cohort of people to the time they come of age and start having their own children (Codrington, 2008:2-3). There are three important prerequisites for the existence of a generation, namely a certain time dimension, a particular historical context and a vital style (Jansen, 1975:10).

Similar to culture, generations differ from country to country. Individuals born in different countries within the same year will therefore belong to different generations (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:19). Each generation has preferences in terms of what they choose to wear, how they choose to communicate and where they choose to work. Having a workforce comprised of different generations can clearly lead to misunderstandings and conflict. It is important to know how each generation thinks so that harmony can be facilitated within the multi-generational, and multi-cultural, workplace of today.

#### **4.3.4.1 The importance of generational differences**

Studying generations will provide a much-needed perspective on pressing problems because such a study will assist towards explaining the underlying problematic of intergenerational relations (Jansen, 1975:x). A sociological analysis of the phenomenon of *generations* entails an attempt at defining the phenomenon and formulating a theory concerning it. The generation theory is an attempt at interpreting human societal existence and variations in this existence (Jansen, 1975:10).

The living generations in the South African workplace at the moment are the *silent generation*, the *Baby Boomer generation*, *Generation X* and *Generation Y* (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:19). The South African *Silent Generation* was born between the years 1930 and 1949, making them approximately 62 to 81 years old. This generation is often composed of traditionalists who grew up during the Depression and who regard work as a privilege (Callahan, 2010). They tend to be conservative, hard-working and structured, preferring rules, order and formal hierarchies. Today, the *Silent Generation* are entering old age, and are facing the future as fairly well-adjusted older people (Codrington, 2008:5-6).

The South African *Baby Boomer* generation was born between the years 1950 and 1969, making them approximately 42 to 61 years old. They are traditionally hard-working team players (Callahan, 2010). Young adult *Baby Boomers* typically went to University and then entered the workplace, in the process rebelling against the older generation dominated institutions. *Baby Boomers* love conspicuous consumption and have created more wealth than any other generation; they are a workaholic generation, driven, goal-orientated and bottom-line focused (Codrington, 2008:6-7).

The South African *Generation X* was born between the years 1970 and 1989, making them approximately 22 to 41 years old. They tend to be self-reliant and result-driven (Callahan, 2010). *Generation X* grew up with their parents becoming increasingly busier. They are sceptical of corporations, and have realised that long-term commitment is unlikely to pay the dividends it did to their parents and grandparents. *Generation X*'ers need options and flexibility, they dislike close supervision and prefer freedom and an outputs-driven workplace (Codrington, 2008:8).

Representatives of South Africa's *Generation Y* was born between the years 1990 and 2005, making them approximately 6 to 21 years old. Although no employees under the age of 18 years will necessarily be found within the workplace, the earliest age at which individuals start to work is 18 years. People from this generation tend to be "plugged in" and have higher expectations of work than previous generations (Callahan, 2010). *Generation Y* children grew up in the new era of globalisation, communication technology and wireless connectivity. This generation is confident, almost arrogant, and are growing up in a world that is creaking under the strain of our lifestyles (Codrington, 2008:9).

One more generation can be distinguished; this youngest generation is called *Generation Net* and people from this generation were born from the year 2006 onwards (Gatherer & Craig, 2010:89). This generation will become a part of the South African workforce in the future. It should be noted that there are many exceptions to every rule where many people have adapted and changed their attitudes and outlooks to be more in line with younger generations (Codrington, 2008:10). Stereotypes should not be made about generations because generational overlaps exist (Callahan, 2010).

#### **4.3.4.2 Theory on generations**

Generational theory is sometimes considered as controversial; however, there are plenty of hard evidence and ongoing research to show that a generational approach to understanding

society and groups is scientifically acceptable and well-grounded in sound social science (Codrington, 2008:3). The fact of generations has been part of human experience for thousands of years, and the concept used to describe the phenomenon, likewise, has a long history. Indeed, the concept *generation* has a much longer history than the *sociological concept generation*. The history of the sociological concept *generation* constitutes one stage in the total history of the concept. Both pre-sociological definitions and non-scientific, non-sociological definitions exist which differ in one important respect: pre-sociological definitions were forerunners of sociological definitions and these definitions concern mainly those definitions which are formulated without a view to scientific usage or for the purpose of serious intellectual conversation (Jansen, 1975:1).

Historically, philosophers who have attempted to describe generational theory include Comte, Littré, Stuart Mill, Romelin, Lorenz, Dilthey and Durkheim (Codrington, 2008:4). The anthropologist Mead (1934:3), referenced generational theory, particularly showing examples in her contentious study of the Polynesian cultures. The first serious modern scholar to investigate the phenomenon of generational values development, and attempt to explain this phenomenon was Mannheim (1970:378). Mannheim explained that a generation is a social location that has the potential to affect an individual's consciousness in much the same way as social class or culture.

More recently, Massey (1979:17) has become a legend in academic circles in the early 1970's for identifying the arriving *Baby Boomers*. The primary European contributors to generational theory in the 20<sup>th</sup> century have been Bourdieu, Ortega, Gasset, Peterson, Pinder and Marias (Codrington, 2008:4). Generation theory was probably most popularised in the 1990's by the works of Howe and Strauss (1992). The best and most well-known researched authors on the topic include Tulgan, Raines, Dytchwald, Bennis, Tapscott, Regele and Schultz, Mueller, Smith, Barna, Mayo and Sheanan (Codrington, 2008:4).

Generation theory is an attempt at interpreting human societal existence and variations in this existence (Jansen, 1975:10). Furthermore, generation theory propounds that the era in which a person was born affects the development of their view of the world, value systems are shaped in the first decade or so of their lives by families, friends, communities, significant events and the general era in which they are born (Codrington, 2008:2). As people in different countries grow up in different situations, significant events that shape their worldviews and value systems will differ from country to country. One major difference between South African and other countries is that during the 60's, South Africa was still under sanctions enforced by the rest of the world because of the Apartheid regime.

Worldviews shaped by events in the rest of the world would therefore have had a different impact on the South African generation of the time.

#### 4.3.4.3 South Africa compared to the world

One of the most common questions regarding generational theory is whether it is globally applicable. It would be foolish to claim that any theory could have such broad reach and applicability and certainly generational theory suffers the same weaknesses that all sociological models would suffer when faced with these questions (Codrington, 2008:12). It is not surprising that America has led the *generational way*, as it does in so many other ways, with different countries following - some up to fifteen years behind it (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:18). Table 4.2 indicates the various timeframes within which identified generations were born in different countries.

**Table 4.2: Generations in different countries**

<b>Generation</b>	<b>USA</b>	<b>Europe / UK</b>	<b>Japan</b>	<b>South Africa</b>
<b>Silent</b>	1923-1942	1918-1945	1925-1945	1930-1949
<b>Baby Boomer</b>	1943-1962	1946-1965	1945-1965	1950-1969
<b>Generation X</b>	1963-1983	1966-1984	1966-1985	1970-1989
<b>Generation Y</b>	1984-2001	1985-2001	1986-2001	1990-2005

Source: Codrington and Grant-Marshall (2005:19).

Another younger generation, who will become a part of the South African workforce in the future, can be distinguished. This youngest generation is called *Generation Net* and was born from the year 2006 (Gatherer & Craig, 2010:89). South Africa has a much younger classification of the generations compared to the United States. South Africa is also a younger country and a younger democracy than the United States, and therefore it makes sense that the compelling events that shaped the countries' generations occurred later during the history of the world. In a South African study comparing people of different ages and race groups, it was found that age (generation) is a much more powerful predictor of attitude and values than race; therefore, in South Africa the younger the person, the less race and the more age becomes a predictor of attitudes and behaviour (Codrington, 2008:12).

It is once again important to note that generational theory does not claim to be able to explain the individual actions of individuals, nor to be able to predict an individual's behaviour, but combined with personality profiles as well as an understanding of gender, culture, religion and race it can be a very helpful additional "layer" of analysis of people's

behaviour drivers (Codrington, 2008:15). Therefore, generational theory is a sociological, rather than psychological theory.

#### **4.4 SOCIOLOGY**

Sociological theory is not at all uniform, unanimous or homogeneous with regard to some of its more crucial problems, such as the point of departure in the definition of concepts and basic premises for a theory of society. This is not a sign of immaturity; it is, on the contrary, presupposed by the ever-changing and dialectically articulated sets of meanings which constitute society, the subject matter of sociology (Jansen, 1975:56). People who interact in a defined territory and share a culture is known as a society (Macionis, 2007:667).

Sociology is the scientific study of human life, social groups, whole societies and the human world as such (Giddens, 2009:6). Sociology entails the systematic study of human society (Macionis, 2007:667). Most individuals see the world in terms of the familiar features of their own lives, but sociology demonstrates the need to take a much broader view of lives in order to explain why individuals act as they do (Giddens, 2009:6). Sociologists study human societies and their social interactions in order to develop theories of how human behaviour is shaped by group life, and how group life is affected by individuals. There are many fields within which the ability to analyse social science research is an important asset, for example health and human services, business, communication, academia and the law (Kendall, 2008:4-6).

As was mentioned in section 3.2.1, disciplines in humanities and social sciences, directly affect management practices. These disciplines include, among others, anthropology, economics, philosophy, political science, psychology and sociology (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:20). The traditional fields of psychology, anthropology and mathematics that functioned separately, all contributed to the development of the social network analysis during the 1930's (Borgatti, 1997). Recently, researchers (Krackhardt & Kilduff, 2002:279-280) have begun to draw upon sociological theory and cognitive anthropology to apply a social network approach to culture in order to emphasise the underlying structures of relations rather than the content of ceremonies and rituals. Generation theory is an attempt at interpreting human societal existence and variations in this existence (Jansen, 1975:10). From the above it is apparent that business management, networking, culture and generation all form a part of the sociological field.

#### 4.4.1 Development of sociology

Sociology has never been a discipline in which there is a body of ideas that everyone accepts as valid; it is true that sociologists often quarrel amongst themselves about how research results should best be interpreted (Giddens, 2009:10). Throughout history, social philosophers and religious authorities have made countless observations about human behaviour, but the first systematic analysis of society is found in the philosophies of early Greek philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle (Kendall, 2008:9). Although writers from earlier periods provided insights into human behaviour, the systematic study of society is a relatively recent development, whose beginnings date back to the late 1700's and early 1800's (Giddens, 2009:11-12).

Social thought began to change rapidly in the 17<sup>th</sup> century with the scientific revolution; like their predecessors in the natural sciences, social thinkers sought to develop a scientific understanding of social life, believing that their work might enable individuals to reach their full potential. The origins of sociological thinking as we know it today can be traced to the scientific revolution in the late 17<sup>th</sup> and middle 18<sup>th</sup> centuries and to the Age of Enlightenment (Kendall, 2008:9). Table 4.3 presents the major sociological theorists and their sociological perspectives.

**Table 4.3: Major sociological theorists**

Theorist	Sociological perspective
European Enlightenment philosophers; Herbert Spencer	Philosophical thinkers
Auguste Comte; Emile Durkheim; Talcott Parsons; Robert Merton	Functionalism
Karl Marx; Antonio Gramsci; Frankfurt School; Jürgen Habermas; Pierre Bourdieu; Immanuel Wallerstein	Marxism
Max Weber; Georg H. Mead ; Alfred Schutz; Chicago School; Erving Goffman; Howard Becker; Harold Garfinkel	Interactionism
Harriet Martineau; Simone de Beauvoir; Betty Friedan; Judith Butler; Vandana Shiva	Feminism
Michel Foucault; Jean Baudrillard; Zygmunt Bauman	Postmodernism / post-structuralism
Norbert Elias; Anthony Giddens; Ulrich Beck; Manuel Castells	Theoretical syntheses

Source: Giddens (2009:71).

Several types of revolution that took place in the 18<sup>th</sup> century had a profound influence on the origins of sociology: the Enlightenment produced an *intellectual revolution* in terms of how individuals thought about social change, progress and critical thinking, while the optimistic views of the philosophers and other social thinkers regarding progress and equal opportunity became part of the impetus for *political* and *economic revolutions* (Kendall,

2008:11). There was also widespread scepticism regarding the primacy of religion as a source of knowledge, together with a heartfelt opposition to traditional authority (Kendall, 2008:9). Table 4.4 provides a chronological overview of the major sociological theorists and schools of thought.

Social thinkers started to believe that by applying the methods developed by the natural sciences, they might discover the laws for solving social problems (Kendall, 2008:12). The French social thinker, Comte, coined the term sociology in 1838; of course, he was not the first person to think about the nature of society (Macionis, 2007:13). Early social thinkers (Comte, Martineau, Spencer and Durkheim) were interested in analysing social order and stability – many of their ideas had a dramatic influence on modern sociology (Kendall, 2008:13). During the 19<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries the *Industrial Revolution* occurred; urbanisation accompanied modernisation and the rapid process of industrialisation (Kendall, 2008:11).

**Table 4.4: Chronology of major sociological theorists and schools, 1750-2000**

Date	Theorist
1750	European Enlightenment philosophers (1750-1800)
1800	Auguste Comte (1798-1857) Harriet Martineau (1802-1876)
1850	Karl Marx (1818-1883) Herbert Spencer (1820-1903)
1900	Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) Max Weber (1864-1920)
1930	Georg H. Mead (1863-1931) Alfred Schutz (1899-1959) Chicago School (1920's) Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937)
1940	Talcott Parsons (1902-1979) Frankfurt School (1930) Simone de Beauvoir (1908-1986)
1950	Robert Merton (1910-2003)
1960	Erving Goffman (1922-1982) Betty Friedan (1921-2006) Howard Becker (1928-) Harold Garfinkel (1917-) Norbert Elias (1897-1990)
1970	Jürgen Habermas (1929-) Michel Foucault (1926-1984)
1980	Pierre Bourdieu (1930-2002) Immanuel Wallerstein (1930-) Jean Baudrillard (1929-2007)
1990	Anthony Giddens (1938-) Ulrich Beck (1944-) Judith Butler (1956-) Vandana Shiva (1952-) Zygmunt Bauman (1925-)
2000	Manuel Castells (1942-)

Source: Giddens (2009:71).

Today, most sociologists still consider science as a crucial part of sociology, but they have come to realise that human behaviour is far more complex than the movement of planets or even the actions of other living things (Macionis, 2007:14). Sociologists make use of three

major theoretical approaches, namely the *structural-functional approach* (which is a framework for building theory that sees society as a complex system whose parts work together to promote solidarity and stability), the *social-conflict approach* (which is a framework for building theory that sees society as an arena of inequality that generates conflict and change), and the *symbolic-interaction approach* (which is a framework for building theory that sees society as the product of everyday interactions of individuals) (Macionis, 2007:15-20).

#### **4.4.2 Sociology and networking**

The areas of interest and research in the social sciences overlap in the sense that the goal of scholars, teachers and students is to learn more about human behaviour, including its causes and consequences. In applied sociology, there is increasing collaboration among researchers across disciplines to develop a more holistic, integrated view of how human behaviour and social life take place in societies (Kendall, 2008:33).

A social group refers to two or more people who identify and interact with one another. Social groups fall into primary or secondary groups; primary groups are small social groups whose members share personal and lasting relationships, while secondary groups is large and impersonal social groups whose members pursue a specific goal or activity (Macionis, 2007:168-169). Groups also vary in size. A *dyad* refers to a social group with two members and a *triad* refers to a social group with three members (Macionis, 2007:174). The terms *group*, *dyad* and *triad* remind one of the field of networking. A network is a set of actors connected by a set of ties (Borgatti & Foster, 2003:992). Networks are people talking to each other, sharing ideas, information and resources (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:13). Networking and sociology are therefore closely linked in that they aim to study human relations and human society.

Modern social network analysis originates from Moreno's research on sociometry (Toeman, 1949:255). Sociometry is based on the fact that individuals make choices in interpersonal relationships (Moreno, 1953:720). A drawing, like a map, of those networks is called a *sociogram* (Hoffman, 2001). Other social sciences that also investigate human relationships include anthropology, psychology, economics and political sciences (Kendall, 2008:32).

### 4.4.3 Sociograms

The word *sociometry* is derived from the Latin “socius” and “metrum”, which means social and meaning distinctively. Moreno coined the term and conducted the first long-range sociometric study from 1932 to 1938 (Hoffman, 2001). Moreno is widely accepted as the founder, or genesis, of sociometry and the modern social network analysis that springs from it (Toeman, 1949:255; Borgatti, 1997; Hallinan, 1999; Chen & Yang, 2010:233).

Moreno was a leading psychiatrist, theorist and educator who grew up in Vienna during a time of great intellectual creativity and political turmoil (Moreno institute east, 2010). The history of the sociometric movement fell into three periods. The first period was during the time that Moreno lived in Europe and when he was the only writer on the subject from 1905 up to 1925; the second period was when Moreno lived in the United States where he encountered many more co-creators and collaborators from 1925 up to 1941; and during the third period sociometry and its sub-disciplines became generally accepted and universally applied from the year 1941 and onwards (Toeman, 1949:255).

Moreno (1953:15-16) himself defined sociometry as “... *the mathematical study of psychological properties of populations, the experimental technique of and the results obtained by application of quantitative method ...*” A drawing, like a map, of those networks is called a *sociogram* and the data for the sociogram may also be displayed as a table or matrix of each person’s choices, such a table is called a *sociomatrix* (Hoffman, 2001).

Sociograms will not be used in the current study; the above discussion aimed to provide an overview of the existing methods and tools used to study human interaction. When drawing up sociograms, respondents cannot remain anonymous. Therefore, the researcher would rather like to suggest that managers within businesses use this tool where employees feel comfortable to participate in a name-giving activity.

### 4.4.4 Benefits and importance of sociology and sociometry as analytical tools

Sociology helps one to gain a better understanding of individuals and their social world; it enables researchers to see how behaviour is largely shaped by the groups to which individuals belong and the society in which they live (Kendall, 2008:4). Although every individual is unique, a society shapes the lives of its members (Macionis, 2007:2). Sociologists obtain their knowledge of behaviour through research, which results in a body of

information that helps move beyond guesswork and common sense in understanding society (Kendall, 2008:38).

The sociological perspective entails seeing the general in the particular; in other words, sociologists look for general patterns in the behaviour of particular people (Macionis, 2007:2). The sociological perspective incorporates theory and research in order to arrive at a more accurate understanding of the *hows* and *whys* of human social interaction (Kendall, 2008:38). The sociological perspective helps researchers to assess the truth, and to see the opportunities and constraints in lives. Such a perspective empowers people to be active participants in society and helps them to live in a diverse world (Macionis, 2007:11).

Within sociology, sociometry has two main branches, namely *research sociometry* and *applied sociometry*. *Research sociometry* is a type of action research with groups that explores the socio-emotional networks of relationships, while *applied sociometry* is a range of methods used to assist people and groups to review, expand and develop their existing psycho-social networks of relationships (Hoffman, 2001).

In almost any type of work, success depends on understanding how various categories of people differ in terms of beliefs, family patterns and other ways of life (Macionis, 2007:12). Sociology and sociometry involve the unmasking of fallacies in the everyday and official interpretations of society (Kendall, 2008:39). In an increasingly interconnected world, it is possible to understand ourselves only to the extent that others are understood; therefore, sociology can be seen as an invitation to learn a new way of looking at the world around us (Macionis, 2007:9).

#### **4.5 SUMMARY**

South African businesses are realising the competitive advantages that arise from acknowledging diversity. Diversity entails having a range of different people in a given situation. Diversity also serves as a reminder that one person is different from another (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:95). Diversity includes aspects such as race, age, ethnicity, gender, religion, education, experience, family status, income and language (Schermerhorn, 2004:23). Culture and generation can be identified as broad terms encompassing the dimensions of diversity.

Culture includes the knowledge, language, values, customs and material objects that are passed from person to person, and from one generation to the next in a human group of

society (Kendall, 2008:73). An increasing number of managers are coming to realise the challenges of managing culturally diverse work environments. They are also realising that in order to communicate with individuals, they need to rely on culture. In a culturally complex country such as South Africa, interacting with different cultures on a daily basis is inevitable. South Africa's "rainbow nation" includes Black, White, Coloured, Indian and Asian South Africans who speak eleven official languages. Although international research in business behaviour has been conducted, there is a need to develop uniquely South African perspectives for the future.

A generation is a social location that affects an individual's consciousness, and it also refers to the era in which a cohort of people was born and their worldviews were shaped (Codrington, 2008:3). Similar to culture, generations differ in terms of taste, mannerisms and even from one country to the next. Therefore, having a workforce comprised of diverse generations can lead to misunderstandings and conflict. The living generations in the South African workplace include the silent generation, Baby Boomer generation, Generation X and Generation Y (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:19). Controversy has followed the notion of generational theory, but there is sufficient evidence and ongoing research to support the basic tenets of the theory. It is important to note that generational theory is a sociological theory rather than a psychological one.

Sociology is the scientific study of human life, social groups, whole societies and the human world as such (Giddens, 2009:6). Management does not exist in isolation, because the major contributors to the development of management theory and principles came from various disciplines and scientific backgrounds. Disciplines such as sociology, for example, affect management practices in a direct manner (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:20). Networking and sociology, similar to sociology and management, are linked in the sense that both aim to study human relations and society. Modern social network analysis even springs from Moreno's research on sociometry, based on the fact that individuals make choices in interpersonal relationships and illustrated in the form of a map (Moreno, 1953:720).

Therefore, sociology facilitates an understanding of individuals and their social world. An understanding of individuals is needed to research networking and diversity. Ultimately, business management, networking, diversity and sociology are linked in their shared aspiration of better understanding human interactions.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **REPORTING OF RESULTS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The goal of the current study was to investigate the networking practices, as these are used in business, among diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine. The findings from the primary data collection, which was conducted by means of self-completion questionnaires, are discussed in this chapter. Firstly, the sample profile is discussed based on the demographic information gathered. The remainder of the chapter will engage with the results from the statistical methods used in the sequence of the questions asked in the questionnaire (see appendix A).

#### **5.2 SAMPLE PROFILE**

The demographic profile of respondents will aid to a fuller understanding of who participated in the study. The sample profile of respondents was determined in terms of gender, age, major cultural group, home language and highest level of education. Throughout the chapter, *F* refers to frequency and % refers to percentage.

The original sampling frame included 3630 employees; this number was reduced on the basis of level of education, age / generation and employees working underground, all of whom were excluded. Thereafter, a total of 1046 employees remained from which the sample had to be selected. Systematic proportionate stratified sampling was used to select the sample elements; in this manner the population was divided into four subsets based on gender and culture, which left the researcher with four strata from which a list was formulated.

The process entailed that each employee received a number from 1 to 1046. A total sample of 289 respondents was chosen, starting at random from 92, by choosing one out of every three employees. A 100% response rate was realised. Table 5.1 presents the frequencies and percentages relating to the above-mentioned demographic variables. The demographic profile was compiled out of section one of the questionnaire (see appendix A). As a probability, systematic proportionate stratified sampling procedure was followed for the study, the quantity of differences that exist between total number of cultural, age and gender groups are proportionate to the sample profile, although these may seem to vary quite extensively.

From table 5.1 it can be discerned that more male respondents (79.44%) than female respondents (20.56%) participated in the survey. The majority of respondents were born between 1970 and 1989 (63.76%), which makes them part of Generation X; a fair number were born between 1950 and 1969 (36.24%) – they are part of the Baby Boomer generation. Most respondents were Black (81.94%). The four home languages spoken by the majority of respondents included, from highest to lowest, isiXhosa (23.51%), Sesotho (23.16%), Afrikaans (14.39%) and Setswana (14.04%). Concerning the level of education of respondents, 88.54% indicated having a Grade 12 / Diploma / Certificate.

**Table 5.1: Frequency table indicating the sample profile of respondents**

Demographic variables		Total n=289	
		F	%
Gender	Female	59	20.56
	Male	228	79.44
The year you were born (age group)	1970-1989 (22-41 years)	183	63.76
	1950-1969 (42-61 years)	104	36.24
Major cultural group	Black	236	81.94
	White	52	18.06
Home language	Afrikaans	41	14.39
	English	12	4.21
	isiNdebele	3	1.05
	isiXhosa	67	23.51
	isiZulu	13	4.56
	Sepedi	15	5.26
	Sesotho	66	23.16
	Setswana	40	14.04
	siSwati	4	1.40
	Tshivenda	10	3.51
	Xitsonga	14	4.91
Highest level of education	Grade 12 / Diploma / Certificate	255	88.54
	Bachelors degree	22	7.64
	Honours degree	6	2.08
	Master's degree or PhD	5	1.74

### 5.3 FOUR INDEPENDENT GROUPS

The results were analysed on the basis of four independent groups because the differences in terms of networking practices between these groups were studied. Table 5.2 illustrates the four groups. Group 1 includes respondents who are Black and who are part of Generation X; group 2 includes respondents who are Black and who are part of the Baby Boomer generation; group 3 includes respondents who are White and are part of Generation X and, lastly, group 4 includes respondents who are White and are part of the Baby Boomer generation. The remainder of chapter six will present a discussion on the results obtained by

comparing the results for the entire study sample with those obtained for the four independent groups.

**Table 5.2: Four independent groups**

Culture	Generation	Group	Total n=289
Black	Generation X	1: Black Gen X'ers	161
Black	Baby Boomer	2: Black BB	78
White	Generation X	3: White Gen X'ers	26
White	Baby Boomer	4: White BB	24

## 5.4 NETWORKING

The networking questions in section two aimed at clarifying respondents' attitudes toward relationships and networking at work. This section further aimed to determine on whom respondents believe they have a good influence; who they include in their networking practices; the mediums they use when networking; the timeframes during which they network; the aim of their networking and, finally, how they relate to effective networking practices. The questions asked in section two are discussed in the sequence as asked in the questionnaire (see appendix A).

On a scale from 1 to 4, the central point is 2.5. All scales used in the questionnaire are 4-point scales. Therefore, means below 2.5 will demonstrate an inclination towards the lower range of the scale, while means above 2.5 will demonstrate an inclination towards the higher end of the scale.

### 5.4.1 Attitude toward relationships at work

Table 5.3 indicates the results obtained for question 2.1: *how do you value good relationships at work?* The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = low, 2 = average, 3 = high and 4 = very high. The mean refers to the average response for the question by respondents, whereas the standard deviation (Std. Dev.) indicates the degree of distribution in response to the mean (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:388). Table 5.3 presents the findings about relationships at work.

**Table 5.3: Relationships at work**

Statement	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Good relationships at work	2.98	0.82	2.92	0.83	3.19	0.68	2.95	0.86	3.12	0.73

For question 2.1, a mean of 2.98 was obtained for the study sample, showing that respondents value good relationships at work high with a low standard deviation (0.82). For the four independent groups, a mean averaging between 2.92 and 3.19 was obtained, showing very similar results than those obtained for the entire study sample. There is a propensity by the study sample to incline towards the higher end of the rating scale.

**Main finding 1:** The respondents of the study sample were inclined to value good relationships at work highly.

#### 5.4.2 Attitude toward networking at work

Table 5.4 indicates the results obtained for question 2.2: *an informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices*. The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree. Table 5.4 presents the findings obtained about networking at work.

**Table 5.4: Networking at work**

Statement	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Informal work environment conducive to effective networking practices	2.97	0.62	2.95	0.68	2.85	0.36	3.04	0.59	2.92	0.49

A mean of 2.97 was obtained for the study sample, showing that respondents agreed that an informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices. The results of the four independent groups yielded in a mean averaging between 2.85 and 3.04. The similar means and the low standard deviations imply that very similar results were obtained

for the study sample and the four groups individually, with very little dispersion among them. The means tend towards the higher end of the rating scale.

**Main finding 2:** The respondents of the study sample tended to agree that an informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices.

### 5.4.3 On whom do respondents believe they have a good influence

Table 5.5 indicates the results obtained for question 2.3: *on which of the following people do you think you have a good influence?* The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = very rarely, 2 = rarely, 3 = frequently and 4 = very frequently. Table 5.5 presents the findings obtained about respondents' believed network influence.

**Table 5.5: Network influence**

Statement	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Family	3.60	0.73	3.75	0.82	3.74	0.45	3.56	0.69	3.76	0.44
Friends	2.98	0.81	2.92	0.85	3.19	0.74	3.05	0.77	2.96	0.79
Neighbours	2.64	0.91	2.59	0.94	2.65	0.80	2.79	0.89	2.52	0.87
Colleagues	3.10	0.80	3.03	0.90	3.19	0.56	3.14	0.72	3.32	0.48

#### Family

For the study sample, a mean of 3.60 was obtained while the mean for the four groups varied between 3.56 and 3.76. The study sample therefore leans towards the higher end of the scale, which indicates that respondents feel that they have a good influence on their families very frequently. The four groups are also inclined to think that they very frequently have a good influence on their families. The small standard deviations imply little dispersion among the respondents regarding the influence of networking on family.

#### Friends

A mean of 2.98 was obtained for the study sample, indicating that they frequently have a good influence on friends, while the mean for the four groups varied between 2.92 and 3.19; this indicates that all four groups frequently have a good influence on their friends. The study sample leans more towards the higher range of the scale.

## Neighbours

The study sample indicated a mean of 2.64, while the four groups varied indicating a mean between 2.52 and 2.79. Therefore, the study sample as well as the four groups indicated that they frequently have a good influence on their neighbours. The study sample indicated that they lean more towards the higher end of the scale, above 2.5.

## Colleagues

The mean (3.10) for the study sample was close to the means obtained for the four groups (between 3.32 and 3.03). Therefore, respondents feel that they frequently have a good influence on colleagues. The small standard deviations imply little dispersion among the respondents regarding network influence on colleagues and a tendency towards the higher range of the scale has been found.

**Main finding 3:** The respondents of the study sample tended to think that they very frequently have a good influence on their families.

### 5.4.4 Whom respondents include in their network

Table 5.6 indicates the results obtained for question 2.4: *who do you include in your network?* The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = very rarely, 2 = rarely, 3 = frequently and 4 = very frequently. Table 5.6 presents the findings obtained about whom respondents include in their networks.

**Table 5.6: Persons included in network**

Statement	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Colleagues	3.04	0.89	2.95	0.94	3.19	0.74	3.05	0.81	3.28	0.98
Former colleagues	2.64	0.93	2.62	0.97	2.69	0.84	2.71	0.87	2.48	0.96
Social acquaintances	2.72	0.82	2.70	0.87	2.74	0.86	2.76	0.76	2.68	0.75
Religious groups	2.87	0.91	2.90	0.93	2.67	0.88	2.92	0.87	2.76	0.97
Management	2.71	0.99	2.66	1.08	2.74	0.66	2.79	0.92	2.68	0.90
Cultural groups	2.43	0.95	2.46	0.99	2.31	0.79	2.47	0.95	2.29	0.81

## Colleagues

A mean of 3.04 was obtained for the study sample, indicating that they frequently include colleagues in their networks. The means obtained for the four groups varied between 2.95

and 3.28, indicating the same as for the entire study sample, namely that they frequently include colleagues in their networks. A tendency to lean more towards the higher end of the scale was measured.

### **Former colleagues**

For the study sample a mean of 2.64 was obtained, while for the four groups the means varied between 2.48 and 2.71. Therefore, it was found that both the study sample as well as the four groups frequently include former colleagues in their networks. The small standard deviations imply little dispersion among the respondents with the tendency to lean more towards the higher spectrum of the rating scale.

### **Social acquaintances**

A mean of 2.72 was obtained for the study sample, indicating that respondents frequently include social acquaintances in their networks. For the four groups, the means varied between 2.68 and 2.76, indicating that all four groups frequently include social acquaintances in their networks. There is a tendency towards the higher end of the scale, above 2.5.

### **Religious groups**

For the study sample the mean was 2.87, while for the four groups the means varied between 2.67 and 2.92. All four groups, supported by the study sample mean, frequently include religious groups in their networks. The study sample leaned more towards the higher end of the scale with little dispersion among the respondents regarding including religious groups in their networks.

### **Management**

The mean for the study sample was 2.71, indicating that respondents frequently include management in their networks. For the four groups, the means varied between 2.66 and 2.79. Therefore, all four groups frequently include management in their networks. The tendency towards the higher end of the scale, above 2.5, was observed.

### **Cultural groups**

A mean of 2.43 was indicated for the entire sample, showing that respondents rarely include cultural groups in their networks. For the four groups, the means varied between 2.47 and 2.29. There is a tendency to lean more towards the lower end of the rating scale, below 2.5, indicating that the study sample incline to rarely include cultural groups in their networks.

### Other, please specify

This was an open-ended question to be filled in by respondents if they choose. None of the respondents filled in this option, indicating a 0 mean and 0 standard deviation.

**Main finding 4:** The respondents of the study sample tended to frequently include colleagues in their networks while they tend to rarely include cultural groups in their networks.

### 5.4.5 Medium used when networking

Table 5.7 indicates the results obtained for question 2.5: *how often do you use the following mediums when you network?* The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = very rarely, 2 = rarely, 3 = frequently and 4 = very frequently. Table 5.7 presents the findings obtained about network mediums. Each medium will be discussed separately below.

**Table 5.7: Network mediums**

Medium	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Cell phone	3.48	0.85	3.44	0.97	3.59	0.64	3.51	0.72	3.54	0.72
SMS	2.85	0.96	2.86	1.01	3.00	0.88	2.94	0.85	2.40	1.00
Telephone	2.87	1.04	2.73	1.09	2.85	0.91	2.99	0.97	3.32	0.90
e-mail	2.54	1.12	2.41	1.11	3.12	1.18	2.48	1.04	2.88	1.15
One-on-one face-to-face	3.10	0.96	3.04	0.96	3.22	0.80	3.00	1.03	3.58	0.72
Group face-to-face	2.79	0.98	2.79	0.99	2.44	0.80	2.78	1.03	3.12	0.83

#### Cell phone

A mean of 3.48 was obtained for the study sample, indicating that respondents very frequently use cell phones when networking. For the four groups the mean varied between 3.44 and 3.59, showing that all four groups of respondents very frequently use cell phones when networking. There is a tendency to bend more towards the higher end of the scale, with little dispersion among respondents.

#### SMS

The mean for the study sample is 2.85 and the means for the four groups varies between 2.40 and 3.00. Therefore, the study sample indicated that they frequently make use of SMS

when networking. Group 1 (2.86), group 2 (3.00) and group 3 (2.94) indicated that they frequently make use of SMS when networking while group 4 (2.40) indicated that they rarely make use of SMS when networking. Therefore, the tendency towards the higher end of the scale exists among Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers and White Generation X'ers, while the tendency towards the lower end of the scale was measured for White Baby Boomers.

### **Telephone**

A mean of 2.87 was obtained for the study sample, indicating that respondents frequently use telephones when networking. For the four groups the means varied between 2.73 and 3.32, indicating that all four groups frequently use telephones when networking. A tendency exists towards the higher end of the scale - above 2.5.

### **E-mail**

For the study sample a mean of 2.54 was obtained, indicating that respondents frequently use e-mail when networking. Means varying between 2.41 and 3.12 were obtained for the four groups. Group 1 (2.41) indicated that they rarely use e-mail when networking, while group 2 (3.12), group 3 (2.48) and group 4 (2.88) indicated that they frequently use e-mail when networking. Black Generation X'ers indicated a tendency towards the lower end of the rating scale, while Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers indicated a tendency to lean more towards the higher end of the scale.

### **One-on-one face-to-face**

A mean of 3.10 was obtained for the study sample, indicating that respondents frequently network on a one-on-one face-to-face manner. The means for the four groups varied between 3.00 and 3.58. Group 1 (3.04), group 2 (3.22) and group 3 (3.00) indicated that they frequently network on a one-on-one face-to-face manner, while group 4 (3.58) indicated that they very frequently network on a one-on-one face-to-face manner. There is thus a tendency within the study sample to lean more towards the higher end of the rating scale, above 2.5.

### **Group face-to-face**

A mean of 2.79 was obtained for the sample as a whole, indicating that respondents frequently network in a group face-to-face manner. For the four groups, the means varied between 2.44 and 3.12. The study sample tends to lean more towards the higher end of the rating scale.

**Main finding 5:** White Baby Boomers inclined to use the medium of SMS rarely when networking.

**Main finding 6:** Black Generation X'ers tended to rarely use e-mail as a medium when networking.

**Main finding 7:** The respondents of the study sample inclined to frequently network on a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

**Main finding 8:** The respondents of the study sample tended to frequently network on a group face-to-face manner.

**Main finding 9:** The respondents of the study sample inclined to use the cell phone and one-on-one face-to-face behaviour most frequently as mediums when networking.

## **5.5 FACTOR ANALYSIS**

The most prominent individual items of the study sample were discussed in the previous sections. Data reduction, using factor analyses, were done on groups of less prominent individual items of the study sample. From the factor analyses performed on all the items of questions 2.6, 2.7 and 2.8 (less prominent individual items) two, one and two factors were retained respectively. Table 5.8, 5.10 and 5.12 presents the item number in the questionnaire, with its factor loading for each item on each separate factor retained. These tables also display the Eigen values, the Measure of Sample Adequacy (MSA) and communality estimates for each factor.

Eigen values, equal or larger than one, represent the amount of factors retained. The MSA indicates the appropriateness of the factor matrix. The communality estimates refer to the total amount of variance original items share with all other items included in a factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1998:99). These five factors (two, one and two) will be used in the remainder of chapter 5 to guide the discussion of the results for questions 2.6, 2.7 and 2.8. The way in which the factors were assembled will be discussed subsequently.

### 5.5.1 Timeframe during which respondents network

Question 2.6 was divided into two factors using factor analysis. Factor 1 constitutes the first three constructs forming part of question 2.6, and factor 2 constitutes the last two constructs of question 2.6. The percentage variation retained by these two factors were 65.80%.

The Eigen value for factor 1 was 2.19 and for factor 2 it was 1.10. As explained in chapter 2, MSA values  $\geq 0.80$  are meritorious,  $\geq 0.70$  middling, and  $\geq 0.50$  mediocre, while MSA values  $< 0.50$  are miserable (Hair *et al.*, 1998:99). The MSA value reported in table 5.8 (0.60) is acceptable for the study. The final communality estimates for factor 1 ranged between 0.30 and 0.80 and for factor 2 between 0.69 and 0.81.

**Table 5.8: Rotated factor matrix factor 1 and factor 2**

No	Items	Factor loadings	
		Factor 1 Network time work	Factor 2 Network time spare time
Q2N6N2	Lunch time	0.85	
Q2N6N1	Tea time	0.85	
Q2N6N3	During work hours	0.56	
Q2N6N5	Over the weekend		0.92
Q2N6N4	Spare time before / after work		0.76
	<b>Eigen values</b>	2.19	1.10
	<b>MSA</b>	0.60	
	<b>Communality estimates</b>	<b>High</b>	0.81
		<b>Low</b>	0.69

#### Factor 1: Network time work

Table 5.9 indicates the results obtained for question 2.6: *how often do you network during the following time frames?* The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = very rarely, 2 = rarely, 3 = frequently and 4 = very frequently. Each timeframe and factor will be discussed separately.

Factor 1 comprises three timeframes: (1) tea time, (2) lunch time and (3) during work hours. For factor 1, a mean averaging between 2.21 and 2.40 was obtained for the four groups, with low standard deviations indicating little dispersion among the respondents regarding networking at work. For the study sample, a mean of 2.31 was obtained. Therefore, the study sample tends to lean more towards the lower end of the rating scale where it was indicated that respondents rarely network during work time.

**Table 5.9: Network time**

Time	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>Factor 1 Network time work</b>	2.31	0.88	2.27	0.85	2.40	0.73	2.39	0.95	2.21	0.95
<b>Factor 2 Network time spare time</b>	2.95	0.91	3.02	0.85	3.00	0.76	2.83	0.98	2.76	1.13

**Factor 2: Network time spare time**

Factor 2 comprises two timeframes: (1) spare time before or after work, and (2) over the weekend. For factor 2, a mean averaging between 2.76 and 3.02 indicates that all four groups frequently network in their spare time. A mean of 2.95 was obtained for the study sample. There is a tendency to lean more towards the higher end of the rating scale, indicating that respondents more frequently network during spare time.

**Main finding 10:** The respondents of the study sample tended to rarely network during work time.

**Main finding 11:** The respondents of the study sample inclined to more frequently network during spare time.

**5.5.2 Aim of networking**

From the factor analysis done on question 2.7, one factor was retained (factor 3). Factor 3 constitutes seven constructs. The percentage variance retained by this factor was 49.45%.

The Eigen value for factor 3 was 0.50. The MSA value reported in table 5.8 (0.83) is meritorious for the study (Hair *et al.*, 1998:99). The final communality estimates for factor 3 ranged between 0.34 and 0.60.

Table 5.11 indicates the results obtained for question 2.7: *rate the importance of the following pertaining to why you network*. The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = not important 2 = of lesser importance, 3 = important and 4 = very important. Factor 3 comprise seven constructs and each reason will be discussed separately.

**Table 5.10: Rotated factor matrix factor 3**

No	Items	Factor loadings	
		Factor 3 Network aim	
Q2N7N1	To build relationships with employees	0.77	
Q2N7N2	To share experiences and exchange work ideas	0.76	
Q2N7N3	To communicate with potential interest groups	0.75	
Q2N7N4	For information	0.72	
Q2N7N5	To form alliances	0.69	
Q2N7N6	For career growth	0.63	
Q2N7N7	For socialisation at work	0.58	
	<b>Eigen values</b>	0.50	
	<b>MSA</b>	0.83	
	<b>Communality estimates</b>	<b>High</b>	0.60
		<b>Low</b>	0.34

**Factor 3: Network aim**

Factor 3 comprises seven reasons for networking: (1) building relationships with employees, (2) sharing experiences and exchanging work ideas, (3) communicating with potential interest groups, (4) for information, (5) forming alliances, (6) career growth and (7) socialisation at work.

For factor 3, a mean averaging 3.05 and 3.20 with low standard deviations was obtained, indicating that respondents from all four groups find the reasons for networking important - with little dispersion among the respondents. A mean of 3.16 was obtained for the study sample, indicating a tendency to lean more towards the higher end of the rating scale, above 2.5.

**Table 5.11: Reasons for networking**

Reason	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>Factor 3 Network aim</b>	3.16	0.58	3.17	0.62	3.05	0.47	3.20	0.58	3.15	0.42

**Main finding 12:** The respondents of the study sample tended to rate sharing experiences and exchanging work ideas as very important aims for networking.

**5.5.3 Effective networking practices**

Question 2.8 was divided into two factors using factor analysis. Factor 4 constitutes the first six constructs forming part of question 2.8, and factor 5 constitutes the last three constructs of question 2.8. Table 5.13 indicates the results obtained for question 2.8: *in a relationship*;

rate the importance of the following. The statement was rated on a 4-point scale, where 1 = not important 2 = of lesser importance, 3 = important and 4 = very important. Each characteristic and factor will be discussed separately.

The percentage variation retained by these two factors was 87.47%. The Eigen value for factor 4 was 0.50 and for factor 5 it was 1.10. The MSA value reported in table 5.8 (0.85) is meritorious for the study (Hair *et al.*, 1998:99). The final communality estimates for factor 4 ranged between 0.49 and 0.69, and for factor 5, between 0.58 and 0.78.

**Table 5.12: Rotated factor matrix factor 4 and factor 5**

No	Items	Factor loadings	
		Factor 4 Relationship Conceptual	Factor 5 Relationship People
Q2N8N3	Trust	0.93	
Q2N8N5	Commitment	0.74	
Q2N8N1	Giving support	0.69	
Q2N8N6	Interdependency	0.65	
Q2N8N4	Informality	0.58	
Q2N8N2	Repaying kindness for support	0.58	
Q2N8N9	Knowing important people		0.85
Q2N8N8	Be part of diverse connections		0.74
Q2N8N7	Getting valuable connections		0.62
	<b>Eigen values</b>	0.50	1.10
	<b>MSA</b>	0.85	
	<b>Communality estimates</b>	<b>High</b>	0.78
		<b>Low</b>	0.58

#### **Factor 4: Relationships conceptual**

Factor 4 comprises six characteristics of effective networking: (1) giving support, (2) repaying kindness for support, (3) trust, (4) informality, (5) commitment and (6) interdependency.

For the four groups, a mean averaging 3.23 and 3.46 was obtained for factor 4, with low standard deviations. A mean of 3.28 was obtained for the study sample. There is a tendency to lean more towards the higher end of the rating scale, indicating that the study sample inclined to rate conceptual relationship attributes as important.

**Table 5.13: Characteristics of effective networking**

Statement	Study Sample		Group 1: Black Gen X		Group 2: Black BB		Group 3: White Gen X		Group 4: White BB	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
<b>Factor 4 Relationship conceptual</b>	3.28	0.57	3.23	0.61	3.46	0.43	3.28	0.52	3.37	0.51
<b>Factor 5 Relationship people</b>	3.17	0.60	3.20	0.62	3.98	0.63	3.27	0.57	2.96	0.53

**Factor 5: Relationship people**

Factor 5 comprises three characteristics of effective networking: (1) getting valuable connections, (2) being part of diverse connections and (3) knowing important.

For the four groups, a mean averaging between 2.96 and 3.98 was obtained for factor 5 with low standard deviations indicating little dispersion among the respondents regarding people relationship attributes. A mean of 3.17 was obtained for the study sample. The tendency exists to lean more towards the higher end of the rating scale. Group 1 (3.20), group 3 (3.27) and group 4 (2.96) tended to find people relationship attributes important in a relationship, and group 2 (3.98) tended to find people relationship attributes very important in a relationship.

**Main finding 13:** The respondents of the study sample were inclined to find conceptual relationship attributes to be important in a relationship.

**Main finding 14:** The respondents of the study sample tended to find people relationship attributes to be important in a relationship.

**5.6 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY**

As stated in chapter 2, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were calculated with a view to ensure that the constructs used in the study were reliable. Table 5.14 indicates the Cronbach alpha values for the five factors. To determine construct validity, confirmatory factor analyses were completed. Kaiser's measure of sample adequacy (MSA) was used to determine whether a factor analysis was appropriate. For the study, content validity was determined through expert judgement of knowledgeable study leaders and supervisors.

**Table 5.14: Cronbach alpha values associated with factor analysis**

Factor label	Cronbach alpha
Factor 1: Time network work	0.70
Factor 2: Time network spare time	0.62
Factor 3: Network aim	0.82
Factor 4: Relationship conceptual	0.83
Factor 5: Relationship people	0.70

A Cronbach alpha value that equals or exceeds 0.70 indicates good reliability, while a Cronbach alpha value lower than 0.60 indicates poor reliability). As can be seen from table 5.13, the Cronbach alpha value for each factor is equal or larger than 0.70, with the exception of factor two, indicating a high level of reliability between items (Zikmund & Babin, 2010:334).

Field (2005:668) explains that the variety of constructs being measured, if the study deals with psychological constructs, may result in Cronbach alpha values lower than 0.70 being regarded as acceptable. Because the current study is concerned with attitudes and opinions of respondents and also because the approach followed is closely related to social science studies it can be argued that factor two, with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.62, can be regarded as acceptable. Furthermore, Cronbach alpha values depend on the number of items that a factor comprises of. The lower Cronbach alpha value for factor two can possibly be ascribed to factor two comprising of only two items.

## **5.7 EFFECT SIZE AND STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE**

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists between the four independent groups studied. As stated in chapter 2, significance is that which is *probably* true (Bradley, 2007:342). If a particular difference is large enough to be unlikely to have occurred because of chance or sampling error, then the difference is statistically significant (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:455). A *p*-value is the exact probability of getting a computed test statistic that is due to chance. The smaller the *p*-value, the smaller the probability that the observed result occurred by chance (McDaniel & Gates, 2005:487). The study used a 0.05 level of significance and therefore  $p \leq 0.05$  to be statistically significant (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51).

Cohen's *d*-value was used throughout the study to interpret results. To interpret effect sizes, a *d*-value = 0.2 has a small effect, a *d*-value = 0.5 has a medium effect and a  $d \geq 0.8$  has a

large effect. The large effect size indicates a finding that is of practical significance, a medium effect size indicates a finding that could be substantial and a small effect size indicates that there is no difference and therefore the answers are the same (Cohen, 1988:223). Table 5.15 indicates the effect sizes (*d*-values) and *p*-values that are statistically significant for the four independent groups. From table 5.15, it is clear that medium effect sizes were obtained between the four independent groups for four questions, indicating statistically significant *p*-values. The four questions that presented statistically significant values will be discussed subsequently.

#### **Q2N5N3 Network medium: Telephone**

Through Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), a *p*-value of 0.04 was obtained for question 2.5 number 5. A *p*-value smaller than 0.05 is considered as sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51). The significant comparisons are between group 1 and group 4. The effect size (*d*-value) obtained is 0.54, indicating a medium effect according to Cohen (1988:223).

A mean of 2.73 was obtained for Black Generation X'ers (group 1) while a mean of 3.23 was obtained for White Baby Boomers (group 4). Therefore, Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers regarding the use of the telephone as network medium. White Baby Boomers use the telephone as network medium more often than Black Generation X'ers do.

#### **Q2N5N4 Network medium: E-mail**

Through Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), a *p*-value of 0.01 was obtained for question 2.5 number 4. A *p*-value smaller than 0.05 is considered as sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51). Significant comparisons can be made between group 1 and group 2. The effect size (*d*-value) obtained is 0.60, indicating a medium effect according to Cohen (1988:223).

Black Generation X'ers (group 1) obtained a mean of 2.41 and Black Baby boomers (group 2) a mean of 3.12. Therefore, Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significant with a medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers regarding the use of e-mail as network medium. Black Generation X'ers make less use of e-mail as network medium than Black Baby Boomers do.

**Table 5.15: P-values yielded by ANOVA and effect sizes**

Factors	Group	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	p- value: ANOVA	Comparisons significant at the 0.05 level*	d-value			
							(1) Black Gen X	(2) Black BB	(3) White Gen X	(4) White BB
<b>Q2N5N3</b> Network medium: Telephone	(1) Black Gen X	2.73	1.09	156	0.04*	4-1	-	0.11	0.24	0.54 <sup>Δ</sup>
	(2) Black BB	2.85	0.91	27			0.11	-	0.14	0.52 <sup>Δ</sup>
	(3) White Gen X	2.99	0.97	79			0.24	0.14	-	0.34
	(4) White BB	3.23	0.90	25			0.54 <sup>Δ</sup>	0.52 <sup>Δ</sup>	0.34	-
<b>Q2N5N4</b> Network medium: E-mail	(1) Black Gen X	2.41	1.11	153	0.01*	2-1	-	0.60 <sup>Δ</sup>	0.06	0.40
	(2) Black BB	3.12	1.18	26			0.60 <sup>Δ</sup>	-	0.54 <sup>Δ</sup>	0.20
	(3) White Gen X	2.48	1.04	79			0.06	0.54 <sup>Δ</sup>	-	0.34
	(4) White BB	2.88	1.15	24			0.40	0.20	0.34	-
<b>Q2N5N5</b> Network medium: One-on-one face-to-face	(1) Black Gen X	3.04	0.96	154	0.05*	4-1 4-3	-	0.19	0.04	0.57 <sup>Δ</sup>
	(2) Black BB	3.22	0.80	27			0.19	-	0.22	0.45
	(3) White Gen X	3.00	1.03	77			0.04	0.22	-	0.57 <sup>Δ</sup>
	(4) White BB	3.58	0.72	24			0.57 <sup>Δ</sup>	0.45	0.57 <sup>Δ</sup>	-
<b>Factor 5</b> Effective practices: Relation towards people	(1) Black Gen X	3.20	0.62	155	0.04*	Specific differences could not be detected by Tukey's test.	-	0.35	0.11	0.38
	(2) Black BB	2.98	0.63	27			0.35	-	0.46	0.02
	(3) White Gen X	3.27	0.57	79			0.11	0.46	-	0.53 <sup>Δ</sup>
	(4) White BB	2.96	0.53	25			0.38	0.02	0.53 <sup>Δ</sup>	-

\* Tukey's comparison statistical significant at the 0.05 level

<sup>Δ</sup> Medium practical effect and noticeable with the naked eye

**Q2N5N5 Network medium: One-on-one face-to-face**

Through Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), a *p*-value of 0.05 was obtained for question 2.5 number 5. A *p*-value smaller than 0.05 is considered as sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51). Significant comparisons can be made

between group 1 and group 4 and also between group 3 and group 4. The effect size /  $d$ -value obtained is 0.57 for groups 1 and 4, indicating a medium effect according to Cohen (1988:223). The effect size ( $d$ -value) obtained is 0.57 for groups 3 and 4, indicating a medium effect according to Cohen (1988:223).

Black Generation X'ers (group 1) obtained a mean of 3.04, White Generation X'ers (group 3) a mean of 3.00 and White Baby Boomers (group 4) a mean of 3.58. Therefore, Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers regarding the use of one-on-one face-to-face manners of networking. White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly from White Baby Boomers regarding the use of one-on-one face-to-face manners of networking. White Baby Boomers make more use of one-on-one face-to-face manners of networking than Black Generation X'ers and White Generation X'ers do.

#### **Factor 5: Relationship people**

Through Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), a  $p$ -value of 0.04 was obtained for question 2.5 number 4. A  $p$ -value smaller than 0.05 is considered as sufficient evidence that the result is statistically significant (Ellis & Steyn, 2003:51). Specific differences could not be detected by Tukey's test. Therefore, a difference between the four groups exists regarding people relationship attributes, but no specific differences could be detected.

**Main finding 15:** Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers on the use of the telephone as medium when networking.

**Main finding 16:** Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers in terms of using e-mail as medium when networking.

**Main finding 17:** Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers in terms of networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

**Main finding 18:** White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers in terms of networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

## 5.8 HYPOTHESES

The abbreviation *Np* refers to *Networking practices*. The following hypotheses were formulated for the study:

$$1. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$H_a$ : There is somewhere a difference between Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers **with regard to networking practices.**

As a result of main finding 5 (White Baby Boomers were inclined to rarely use the medium of SMS when networking), the first null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted. Therefore, there is somewhere a difference between Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers with regard to networking practices.

$$2. H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

As a result of main finding 16 (Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers on the use of e-mail as medium when networking) the second null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is consequently accepted.

$$3. H_0: \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

$$H_a: \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$$

As a result of main finding 18 (White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers when networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner) the third null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

4.  $H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers}$   
 $H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers}$

No statistically significant differences were found to disregard the fourth null-hypothesis.

5.  $H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$   
 $H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$

No statistically significant differences were found to disregard the fifth null-hypothesis.

6.  $H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$   
 $H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$

As a result of main finding 15 (Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers on the use of the telephone as medium when networking) and main finding 17 (Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers when networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner), the sixth null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

7.  $H_0: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers}$   
 $H_a: \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} \neq \mu_{Np:White\ Generations\ X'ers}$

No statistically significant differences were found to disregard the seventh null-hypothesis.

## 5.9 SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

This section presents a summary of all the main findings of chapter 5 for each of the sections of the questionnaire. In so doing, this section aims to provide a comprehensive view of the results for the study.

**Main finding 1:** The respondents of the study sample were inclined to value good relationships at work highly.

**Main finding 2:** The respondents of the study sample tended to agree that an informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices.

**Main finding 3:** The respondents of the study sample tended to think that they very frequently have a good influence on their families.

**Main finding 4:** The respondents of the study sample tended to frequently include colleagues in their networks while they tend to rarely include cultural groups in their networks.

**Main finding 5:** White Baby Boomers inclined to use the medium of SMS rarely when networking.

**Main finding 6:** Black Generation X'ers tended to rarely use e-mail as a medium when networking.

**Main finding 7:** The respondents of the study sample inclined to frequently network on a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

**Main finding 8:** The respondents of the study sample tended to frequently network on a group face-to-face manner.

**Main finding 9:** The respondents of the study sample incline to use the cell phone and one-on-one face-to-face behaviour most frequently as mediums when networking.

**Main finding 10:** The respondents of the study sample tended to rarely network during work time.

**Main finding 11:** The respondents of the study sample inclined to more frequently network during spare time.

**Main finding 12:** The respondents of the study sample tended to rate sharing experiences and exchanging work ideas as very important aims for networking.

**Main finding 13:** The respondents of the study sample were inclined to find conceptual relationship attributes to be important in a relationship.

**Main finding 14:** The respondents of the study sample tended to find people relationship attributes to be important in a relationship.

**Main finding 15:** Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers on the use of the telephone as medium when networking.

**Main finding 16:** Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers in terms of using e-mail as medium when networking.

**Main finding 17:** Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers in terms of networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

**Main finding 18:** White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers in terms of networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

## **5.10 CONCLUSIONS**

During the course of the discussions presented in chapter 5, it became clear that many similarities could be identified between the four independent groups (Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomer, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers). Nevertheless, differences also exist - as proved by the rejection of the first null-hypothesis.

The similarities include that the respondents of the study sample were inclined to value good relationships at work highly. Respondents of the study sample were inclined to agree that an informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices. Furthermore, respondents of the study sample tended to think that they very frequently have a good influence on their families. It was found that respondents of the study sample tended to rarely network during work times, but do this more frequently during spare time. The most frequently used mediums when networking include the cell phone and one-on-one face-to-face behaviour. Respondents of the study sample also tended to rate sharing experiences and exchanging work ideas as very important aims for networking.

The differences found include that White Baby Boomers were inclined to use the medium of SMS rarely when networking as compared with other groups. Black Generation X'ers tended to use e-mail rarely as a medium when networking. Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers on the use of the telephone as medium when networking. Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a

medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers on the use of e-mail as medium when networking. Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers when networking in a one-on-one face-to-face manner. White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers when networking in a one-on-one face-to-face manner.

Chapter 5 presented the results of the study on the networking practices among diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine. The results were discussed in the same order as the questions appeared in each section of the questionnaire (see appendix A). The main findings were presented in section 5.9. The results were obtained through frequency analyses, cross-tabulations, ANOVAs, effect sizes and factor analyses. Chapter 6 will provide a discussion of the results reported in chapter 5 in the form of conclusions, recommendations, limitations and recommendations for future research. The subsequent discussion will help to transpose the results obtained in the study towards a management context.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter 1, the goal for the study was set - namely to determine the networking practices among diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine. Chapter 2 provided the methodological framework used for the study. Chapter 3 provided a theoretical discussion about how networking fits into the field of business management, and in chapter 4 a discussion was presented regarding the theory on diversity, with specific reference to the concepts of culture and generation.

As the results were reported in chapter 5, this chapter sets out to present a summary of the study, including the final conclusions, recommendations, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

#### **6.2 OVERVIEW**

From the literature review it became apparent that diversity has a bearing on influences business management (Kendall, 2008:6). A manager in the current era of vast differences among employees in a single business must be agile; he or she must learn to adapt to the requirements of this new age (Schultz & Werner, 2003:9). Indeed, a significant challenge for business management today is to be able to adapt to the changing world (Robbins & DeCenzo, 2005:48). The global society, including South African society, has become increasingly diverse and this necessitates that individuals appreciate and understand the diversity that exists within societies (Kendall, 2008:74).

Because networks are based on people's backgrounds, the need to understand the link between networking and diversity is mounting. Diversity is much broader than race; it includes aspects such as religion, gender, age, language, income and sexual orientation (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:95). In South Africa, diversity has been typified as comprising of a Rainbow Nation of eleven official languages (Schultz, 2003a:133).

Theories on cultural and generational differences propose that differences exist among diverse cultures as well as between generations. The Kluckhohn-Strodtbeck framework (1961), Hofstede framework (1983), Trompenaars framework (1994) and the GLOBE study (1999) all identify different universal dimensions that are perceived differently by diverse

cultures. Generational theory explains that individuals born within different eras will have particular preferences regarding how they choose to communicate and work (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005:19). Therefore, it is likely that one would find differences among diverse cultures and generations in terms of their networking practices.

The goal of the study was to investigate the networking practices among the diverse cultural and generational groups represented at a Gauteng mine. The population included the workers from the Gauteng mine. Kusasaletu mine is one of the mines belonging to the Harmony mine group and has a total of 4987 employees. The sample chosen comprised 289 participants, selected with probability, systematic proportionate stratified sampling. Self-completion questionnaires was used for the study (appendix A). The data obtained for the study was presented in chapter 5.

## **6.3 CONCLUSIONS**

The goal of the study was to investigate the networking practices among the diverse cultural and generational groups represented at a Gauteng mine. The conclusions made from the literature review and the results obtained for the study, compared with the objectives of the study, will be discussed in this section.

### **6.3.1 Conclusions from objective 1**

The first objective of the study was to define the diverse cultural groups that exist at a Gauteng mine. It was identified that only two cultural groups, Black and White, are well represented within Kusasaletu mine. The Coloured and Indian cultural groups are underrepresented within the mine. The cultural groups that exist within South Africa were discussed in section 4.2.1, but the focus was placed on Black and White mine workers for the study as Coloured and Indian mine workers are underrepresented.

Colonialism brought different cultures to South Africa and can be seen as a start to South Africa's cultural diversity. Black South Africans represent 79% and White South Africans represent 9.6% (Anon., 2011b). The Black cultural group in South Africa is divided into nine main tribal or ethnic groups speaking the languages of Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, isiNdebele, siSwati, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Xitsonga and Tshivenda. The White culture group in South Africa is divided into two ethnic groups which speak one of the remaining two official languages as their mother tongue, namely Afrikaans and English (Moulton, 2003:8). The

immigrants from the Netherlands, France and Germany merged to form the Afrikaans-speaking White cultural group while most English-speaking White South Africans are descendant from British immigrants (Van Aswegen, 1982:392).

### **6.3.2 Conclusions from objective 2**

The second objective formulated for the study was to describe the generational groups that are present at a Gauteng mine. It was identified that only two of the existing four generational groups are well represented in Kusasaletu mine namely, Generation X'ers and Baby Boomers. The Silent Generation and Generation Y are underrepresented within Kusasaletu mine. The four generational groups was discussed in detail within section 4.3.4.1, but only the Generation X'ers and Baby Boomers were analysed for the study.

Baby Boomers were born between the years 1950 and 1969, making them approximately 42 to 61 years old. They went to University and to places of work, rebelling against older generations of the time. Baby Boomers love conspicuous consumption and have created more wealth than any other generation. They are a workaholic generation, driven, goal-orientated and bottom-line focused (Codrington, 2008:6-7). On the other hand, Generation X'ers were born between the years 1970 and 1989, making them approximately 22 to 41 years old. They are sceptical of corporations, realising that long-term commitment is unlikely to pay the dividends it did to their parents and grandparents. Generation X'ers need options and flexibility, they dislike close supervision and prefer freedom and an outputs-driven workplace (Codrington, 2008:8).

### **6.3.3 Conclusions from objective 3**

The third objective formulated for the study was to define diverse groups in terms of cultural and generational differences. As only Black and White cultural groups and Generation X and Baby Boomer generational groups are well represented within Kusasaletu mine, the focus was placed on the four independent groups. The four independent groups include Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers. The data was analysed by tracing the differences that exist among the above mentioned four groups.

#### 6.3.4 Conclusions from objective 4

The fourth objective was to identify the differences in networking practices among the diverse groups at a Gauteng mine. The results were reported by comparing the results of the four independent groups with one another. The first hypothesis was formulated to prove that differences indeed exist among diverse cultural and generational groups. Through the rejection of the first null-hypothesis,  $\mu_{Np:Black\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:Black\ Baby\ Boomers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Generation\ X'ers} = \mu_{Np:White\ Baby\ Boomers}$ , it was proved that differences do exist among diverse cultures and generations, concerning their networking practices.

The remaining hypotheses were formulated to identify the specific differences that exist between the four independent groups. Findings from the study show that there are specific differences between cultural and generational groups on how they prefer to network. Between the four groups differences were proved to exist on some level of networking.

White Baby Boomers were inclined to rarely use SMS as medium when networking compared to other groups (Main finding 5 p. 89). Considering that Baby Boomers were born between the years 1950 and 1969 in South Africa according to Codrington and Grant-Marshall (2005:19), it is not strange that SMS as network medium may still feel less appropriate to this group. Similar to this finding, Hamaker (2009:9) explains that only 20% of Baby Boomers regularly use text messages. As a result of main finding 5 (White Baby Boomers were inclined to use the medium of SMS rarely when networking), the first null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there is somewhere a difference between Black Generation X'ers, Black Baby Boomers, White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers with regards to networking practices.

Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers regarding the use of the telephone as medium when networking (Main finding 15 p. 98). Black Baby Boomers make use of telephones when networking more often than Black Generation X'ers do. This finding concurs with the statement by Macionis (2007:175) that networks are based on people's backgrounds, hobbies, views and personal interests. Codrington and Grant-Marshall (2005:3) explain that shared experiences and times have bounded people to cohorts whom have similar attitudes, values and expectations. As a result of main finding 15 (Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers regarding using the telephone as medium when networking) and main finding 17 on page 98 (Black Generation X'ers differ statistically

significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers with regards to networking in a one-on-one face-to-face manner), the sixth null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there is a difference between Black Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers with regards to networking practices.

Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers regarding the use of **e-mail** as medium when networking (Main finding 16 p. 98). Black Generation X'ers were inclined to use e-mail rarely as a medium when networking. A statistically significant difference was obtained between Black Generation X'ers and Black Baby Boomers, indicating that Black Baby Boomers use e-mails when networking more frequently as compared to Generation X'ers who indicated that they use e-mail rarely as network medium. As a result of main finding 16 (Black Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from Black Baby Boomers regarding using e-mail as medium when networking) the second null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. **Therefore, there is a difference between Black Generation X'ers and Black Baby Boomers with regards to networking practices.**

Black Generation X'ers and White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers when networking in a **one-on-one face-to-face**, referring to a one-on-one meeting, manner (Main finding 18 p. 98). Kovalski (2008:27) explains that younger generations do not enjoy having meetings in the same manner than older generations and that the way in which meetings are held needs to be reconsidered. A 25 year longitudinal study conducted in South Africa (Codrington, 2008:12) also found that age / generation is a much more powerful predictor of attitude and values than race / culture was. The finding is also similar to that of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) as adapted by Robbins *et al.* (2007:34) that Black South Africans view the group as more important than the individual. As a result of main finding 18 (White Generation X'ers differ statistically significantly with a medium effect size from White Baby Boomers when networking on a one-on-one face-to-face manner), the third null-hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. **Therefore, there is a difference between White Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers with regards to networking practices.**

No specific differences could be detected with regards to **people relationship attributes**, but there was an indication that statistically significant differences do indeed exist. Therefore, a difference between the four groups exists regarding people relationship attributes but no specific differences could be detected. The most salient differences were found to be between **Black Generation X'ers and White Baby Boomers** (Main findings 15, 16 and 17

p. 98). This finding makes sense, as these two groups differ with regard to both their age / generation as well as their respective cultures.

Apart from the differences that have been found, similarities also exist between the four groups regarding their attitudes towards good relationships and networking at work, as well as in terms of whom they perceive they have a good influence. A study conducted by the Conference Board of Canada (Watt, 2010) proved that different generations includes workers with similar personality types, workplace motivations and social behaviour disregarding their age / generation. The same study showed that different generations display similarities concerning respect, flexibility, fairness and opportunity to do interesting and rewarding work. Therefore, different generations may have similar objectives when it comes to networking.

### **6.3.5 Conclusions from objective 5**

The final objective for the study aims to suggest recommendations about managing diversity in South African mines. The recommendations made for the study will be discussed subsequently.

## **6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

In view of the findings of the study, managers should note that differences between diverse cultures and generations do indeed exist (rejection of first null-hypothesis). The following recommendations regarding networking practices among diverse cultural and generational groups can be made:

- Globalisation has created unique challenges for businesses as a result of cultural diversity (Moulton, 2009:21). Culture is essential for communication with other individuals (Kendall, 2008:74). The social field of diversity management is affected by the dynamics of the business environment (Özbilgin & Tatli, 2008:403).

The respondents of the study sample indicated that they tended to agree that informal work environments are more conducive to effective networking practices and that they value good relationships at work highly. Managers should ensure that work environments are created that are conducive to good **relationship building and informality** to facilitate effective networking.

- Economic integration and societal globalisation are diversifying the world's workforce; this realisation stresses the need for management practices to adapt (Mor-Barak, 2005:73). As society has become more diverse and communication among members of international cultures more frequent, the need to appreciate diversity and to understand how people in other cultures view the world has also increased (Kendall, 2008:74).

It is important to understand the differences among cultures and how these differences can potentially affect communication between members of diverse cultures (De Janasz *et al.*, 2009:101). In this regard, it is recommended that managers of diverse workforces **identify the different generations and cultures** as a way to manage these people more effectively.

- Generation theory explains that the era in which a person was born, affects the development of their worldview and value systems (Codrington, 2008:2). It was found in the current study that the most significant differences exist between **Black Generation X'ers** and **White Baby Boomers**. Therefore, conflict between these two groups of employees needs to be handled cautiously to ensure that effective solutions to potential problems are found. conflict, in this context, may refer to differences in organising meetings or preferences towards communicating.
- Networking is such an integral part of everyday life that many individuals do not realise that they are networking (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:25). Networks are based on people's backgrounds, hobbies, views and personal interests (Macionis, 2007:175). In this study, a number of differences concerning mediums used when networking were found, which in turn influence the ways in which communication takes place. Generation X'ers prefer informal meetings with a broad idea of what to expect, while Baby Boomers prefer traditional boardroom meetings as these were conducted in the past.

Preferences with regard to network mediums should be noted, as this awareness may lead to more effective networking / communication within businesses. Also, the **approach to meetings** should be reviewed for each group because this study found differences existed in terms of preferences concerning Generation X'ers and Baby Boomers.

- Networks exist in order to foster a sense of self-help, to exchange information and to share resources (Misner & Don Morgan, 2000:14). The respondents of the study sample

tended to rate sharing experiences and exchanging work ideas as very important aims for networking. A working environment conducive to **exchanging ideas and experiences** should therefore be created.

- Ignoring cultural and generational differences may lead to conflict and friction between diverse groups, while respecting and fostering these differences can prove to be a productive and creative advantage for businesses in the future (Callahan, 2010). No specific differences could be detected with regard to people relationship attributes, but there was an indication that statistically significant differences indeed exist. As all groups value good relationships at work, a climate that encourages **openness and conflict resolution** should therefore also be created.

#### **6.4 LIMITATIONS**

There are several limitations to the current study. Firstly, the study only included two cultural groups, namely Black and White South Africans. This was the case because the other cultural groups were underrepresented within the Gauteng mine used in the study. Secondly, the study only included two generational groups, namely Generation X'ers and Baby Boomers, as the other generational groups were also underrepresented in this mine. Thirdly, the study did not take gender differences into account; also, the majority of respondents (79.44%) included in the study was male. Also, only quantitative research methods were used within the study; no qualitative methods therefore featured. Lastly, the study was conducted only in one province. As diverse cultures are spread across South Africa, with various cultures represented more in some provinces than others, more differences may be elucidated by conducting a study that includes more provinces.

#### **6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Future research should, in view of the above-mentioned limitations, include all four cultural groups (Black, White, Coloured and Indian South Africans). Additionally, it is suggested that all four generational groups, namely the Silent Generation, Baby Boomer Generation, Generation X and Generation Y, should be included in further studies. It is also suggested that gender differences need to be taken into consideration and that a sufficient number of male and female respondents must be included in future research.

Furthermore, qualitative methods with special mention of sociograms, provided the confidentiality concerns can be overcome, should be considered with a view to gain a more

accurate and personal description of networking practices among diverse cultural and generational groups. Lastly, future research should determine whether cultural and generational groups in different provinces perceive networking similarly.

## **6.6 SUMMARY**

The results of this study suggest that there are indeed differences, but also similarities, regarding networking practices of diverse cultural and generational groups. The findings have implications for management as well as for future research. Since conflict will inevitably occur in a business environment because of diversity, it is vital for managers to gain greater insight into cultural and generational differences that exist, and to develop strategies for managing such situations effectively. Respondents were inclined to value good relationships at work highly, and therefore managers should ensure that a work environment conducive to good relationship building is created. Such an environment can be created by recognising and accepting the differences that are evident between cultural and generational groups.

Respondents also tended to agree that informal work environments are more conducive to effective networking practices, which implies that management should encourage informality with a view to improve networking and communication among employees. Finally, it is most likely that the findings from the current study could also be generalised to similar industries such as large factories and motor vehicle manufacturers.

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## **APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE**

# NETWORKING AMONG DIVERSE CULTURES AND GENERATIONS

This questionnaire forms part of a master's degree by Karina Buys (Tel: 073 134 4680, email: [20497482@student.nwu.ac.za](mailto:20497482@student.nwu.ac.za)) with the study leader Prof Japie Kroon (Tel: 018 299 1423, email: [Japie.Kroon@nwu.ac.za](mailto:Japie.Kroon@nwu.ac.za)) of the School for Business Management, North-West University.

The **goal of the study** is to investigate the networking practices among these diverse cultural and generational groups at a Gauteng mine as used in business. Please answer all the questions.

**Networking** is a connection between role-players with social or business relationships between them.

A **generation** represents roughly the time from the birth of a cohort of people to the time they come of age and start having their own children.

## SECTION 1: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please mark with a cross (X) one answer per question:

1.1 Gender	Female	1	
	Male	2	
1.2 The year you were born (Age group)	1970-1989 (22-41 years)	1	
	1950-1969 (42-61 years)	2	
1.3 Major cultural group	Black	1	
	White	2	
1.4 Home language	Afrikaans	1	
	English	2	
	isiNdebele	3	
	isiXhosa	4	
	isiZulu	5	
	Sepedi	6	
	Sesotho	7	
	Setswana	8	
	siSwati	9	
	Tshivenda	10	
	Xitsonga	11	

1.5 Highest level of education	Grade 12/ Diploma/ Certificate	1	
	Bachelors degree	2	
	Honours degree	3	
	Master's degree or PhD	4	

## SECTION 2: NETWORKING QUESTIONS

A **Relationship** refers to the way in which two or more people are connected, therefore a state of connectedness between people.

### 2.1 How do you value good relationships at work?

Low		Average		High		Very high	
1		2		3		4	

### 2.2 An informal work environment is conducive to more effective networking practices:

Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree	
1		2		3		4	

Answer questions 2.3 to 2.6 by using the following rating scale:

<b>1</b> Very rarely	<b>2</b> Rarely	<b>3</b> Frequently	<b>4</b> Very frequently
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<b>2.3 On which of the following people do you think you have a good influence?</b>							
1 Family	1		2		3		4
2 Friends	1		2		3		4
3 Neighbours	1		2		3		4
4 Colleagues	1		2		3		4
<b>2.4 Who do you include in your network?</b>							
1 Colleagues	1		2		3		4
2 Former colleagues	1		2		3		4
3 Social acquaintances	1		2		3		4
4 Religious groups	1		2		3		4
5 Management	1		2		3		4
6 Cultural groups	1		2		3		4
7 Other, please specify:							

<b>1</b> Very rarely	<b>2</b> Rarely	<b>3</b> Frequently	<b>4</b> Very frequently
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<b>2.5 How often do you use the following mediums when you network?</b>									
1 Cell phone	1		2		3		4		
2 SMS	1		2		3		4		
3 Telephone	1		2		3		4		
4 e-mail	1		2		3		4		
5 One-on-one face-to-face	1		2		3		4		
6 Group face-to-face	1		2		3		4		
<b>2.6 How often do you network during the following time frames?</b>									
1 Tea time	1		2		3		4		
2 Lunch time	1		2		3		4		
3 During work hours	1		2		3		4		
4 Spare time before / after work	1		2		3		4		
5 Over the weekend	1		2		3		4		

**Answer questions 2.7 and 2.8 by using the following rating scale:**

<b>1</b> Not important	<b>2</b> Of lesser importance	<b>3</b> Important	<b>4</b> Very important
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<b>2.7 Rate the importance of the following pertaining to why you network.</b>									
1 To build relationships with employees	1		2		3		4		
2 To share experiences and exchange work ideas	1		2		3		4		
3 To communicate with potential interest groups	1		2		3		4		
4 For information	1		2		3		4		
5 To form alliances	1		2		3		4		
6 For career growth	1		2		3		4		
7 For socialisation at work	1		2		3		4		

<b>1</b> Not important	<b>2</b> Of lesser importance	<b>3</b> Important	<b>4</b> Very important
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<b>2.8 In a relationship, rate the importance of the following:</b>						
1 Giving support	1	2	3	4		
2 Repaying kindness for support	1	2	3	4		
3 Trust	1	2	3	4		
4 Informality	1	2	3	4		
5 Commitment	1	2	3	4		
6 Interdependency	1	2	3	4		
7 Getting valuable connections	1	2	3	4		
8 Be part of diverse connections	1	2	3	4		
9 Knowing important people	1	2	3	4		

**Any comments you would like to make:**

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**All information is confidential.**

**Thank you very much for your time and assistance.**

**APPENDIX B: CONSULTATION SERVICES OF NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY  
POTCHEFSTROOM**



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3 November 2011

Aan wie dit mag gaan

**Verhandeling Me Karina Buys, studentenommer: 20497482**

Hiermee word bevestig dat die data-analise deur die Statistiese Konsultasiediens van die Noordwes-Universiteit gedoen is en dat hulp verleen is met die interpretasie van die resultate.

Vriendelike groete



**Mev. J.W. Breytenbach (MSc Wits)**

Statistiese Konsultaiediens