Intergroup Conflict and Employment Relation Wellness

David H de Jager

Honns BCom

Dissertation proposed for the degree of Magister Commercii at the School of Human Resources Sciences (Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences) at the North West University.

Supervisor: Prof JC Visagie

May 2008
Potchefstroom

INTERGROUP CONFLICT AND EMPLOYMENT RELATION WELLNESS

DAWIE DE JAGER

Dedicated to my grandfathers and my brother Hennie, three of the greatest men I ever knew ...

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank the Lord, my creator for giving me the skills, abilities, knowledge and power to complete this dissertation.

I also wish to thank the following individuals who helped, guided and assisted me through the completion of this dissertation:

- Prof Jan Visagie, my study leader, for his expert guidance, help and support throughout the writing of this dissertation.
- Prof Faans Steyn, for his expert help and guidance in the statistical analyses and interpretation of the empirical part of this dissertation.
- Mr P Allum, for his help and assistance.
- Margo Joubert, for her support and great friendship.
- Cecilia van der Walt, for her expert help with the technical and language editing of this dissertation.
- Mr Bul du Toit, who is like a second father to me; thank you for all the support and guidance.
- My family, who believed in me and supported me all the way.
- My parents, Dawie and Magda de Jager, who guided me through the years to where I am today.
- Nadia, for believing in me and providing me with love and support throughout my studies.

THE WRITER
MAY 2008

Opsomming

Titel: Intergroepkonflik en indiensnemingsverhoudinge-welstand.

Sleutelterme: Organisasies, Bestuur, Konflik, Intergroepkonflik, intergroepkonflik-bronne, tipes intergroepkonflik, groepe, spanne, intergroepverhoudinge, disfunksionele en funksionele konflik, Indiensnemingsverhoudinge.

Intergroepkonflik is 'n ernstige probleem vir bestuur van organisasies regoor die wêreld. Intergroepkonflik het oor tyd heen verander, maar die grondbeginsels het onveranderd gebly. Intergroepkonflik kan die organisasie so beïnvloed dat werknemers hul werk wil verlaat, onder spanning gebuk gaan of onproduktief funksioneer. Intergroepkonflik lei ook tot ernstige rassespanning en diskriminasie in ondernemings.

Bestuur ondervind probleme daarmee om intergroepkonflik te identifiseer en te begryp. Personeel verstaan nie die oorsake van intergroepkonflik nie en weet nie hoe om dit toepaslik te hanteer nie. Intergroepkonflik kan tot so 'n ernstig vlak ontwikkel word dat dit die Indiensnemingverhoudinge tussen groepe in die onderneming kan beskadig.

Die probleemstelling van die studie is die volgende: **Disfunksionele intergroepkonflik kan die werking van die organisasie so beïnvloed dat dit goeie indiensnemingverhoudinge kan belemmer.**

Die volgende is die doelwitte van die navorsingstudie:

- Om intergroepkonflik te definieer en te evalueer aan die hand van 'n Literatuurstudie.
- Om werknemers se ervaring van intergroepkonflik te bepaal.
- Om die oorsake en bronne van intergroepkonflik te bepaal.
- Om die profiel van die individue wat intergroepkonflik op dieselfde vlak ervaar, te bepaal.
- Om die korrelasie tussen die ervaring van intergroepkonflik en indiensnemingverhoudinge-welstand te bepaal.

Die navorsingstudie bestaan uit 'n teoretiese en empiriese raamwerk. Hoofstuk 1 behels die inleiding, probleemstelling, navorsingsvrae, doelwitte en die metode en doel van die ondersoek.

Hoofstuk 2 behels die manifestering van intergroepkonflik asook die Realistiesekonflik-teorie. In Hoofstuk 3 word intergroepkonflik en indiensnemingverhoudinge-welstand bespreek en geëvalueer.

In Hoofstuk 4 word die empiriese data en navorsingsresultate bespreek. In Hoofstuk 5 word die resultate van die navorsingstudie bespreek en voorstelle en aanbevelings vir verdere navorsing word ook aan die hand gedoen.

INDEX

Chapter 1- Introduction

1.1 Introduction and problem statement.....1
1.2 Research questions.....7
1.3 Aim of the study.....7
1.4. Research objectives.....8
1.5. Method of research.....8
1.5.1. Literature and sources analysis.....8
1.5.2. Research design.....9
1.5.3. Empirical research.....10
1.5.4. Validity of questionnaire.....10
1.5.6. Empirical data.....10
1.5.7. Research group and questionnaire.....11
1.5.8. Data analysis.....11

Chapter 2- The Manifestation of Intergroup Conflict

2.1 Introduction.....13
2.2 Theories of Conflict.....14
2.3 Realistic Group Conflict theory.....17
2.4 The role of power in intergroup conflict theory.....22
2.5 Applicability of conflict theories.....24
2.6 Intergroup conflict and intergroup relations.....25
2.6.1 Intergroup conflict.....25
2.6.2 Intergroup relations.....29
2.7 Dysfunctional and functional conflict.....32
2.7.1 Functional/Constructive conflict.....32
2.7.2 Dysfunctional/Destructive conflict.....32
2.7.3 Dysfunctional (destructive) conflict outcomes.....34
2.7.4 Functional conflict outcomes.....34

2.8 TYPES OF INTERGROUP CONFLICT.....38
2.8.1 Objective versus Subjective Intergroup Conflict.....38
2.8.2 Explicit Versus Implicit conflict.....39
2.8.1 Explicit conflict.....39
2.8.2 Implicit Conflict.....40
2.9 Sources of intergroup conflict.....42
2.9.1 General sources of intergroup conflict.....43
2.9.2 Structural sources of intergroup conflict.....48
2.9.3 Personal factors as sources of intergroup conflict.....50
2.9.4 Diversity as a source of intergroup conflict.....51
2.9.5 Antecedents, Conflict aggravators and moderators
for intergroup conflict.....54
2.9.5.1 Antecedents of intergroup conflict.....54
2.9.5.2 Conflict aggravators and moderators.....57
2.10. Processes promoting intergroup conflict escalation.....58
2.10.1 Intergroup Communication.....59
2.10.2 Conflict and cohesion.....60
2.10.3 Group differentiation and Organisational Identity.....62
2.11 Factors affecting intergroup relations and
stimulating intergroup conflict.....64
2.11.1 The emergence of group structure, leadership
and normative rules in the forming of intergroup conflict.....65
2.11.1.1 Leadership.....65
2.11.1.2 Group structure.....66
2.11.1.3 Normal rules guiding group behaviour.....67
2.11.2 Interdependence, task uncertainty, time
and goal orientation.....67
2.11.2.1 Interdependence.....67
2.11.2.2 Task uncertainty.....70
2.11.2.3 Time and goal orientation.....70

2.12 Consequences of Intergroup conflict.....71
2.13 Conclusion.....74

Chapter 3: Employment relations wellness and intergroup conflict

3.1 Introduction.....76
3.2 Defining employment relations wellness.....77
3.2.1 Employment relations.....77
3.2.2 What is wellness?.....78
3.3 Social psychology in employment relations wellness.....80
3.4 Employment relations wellness and work satisfaction.....84
3.4.1 Work satisfaction.....84
3.5 Team effectiveness, organisational performance and employment relations wellness.....86
3.5.1 Organisational performance and employment relations wellness.....86
3.5.2 Team effectiveness and employment relations wellness.....87
3.6 Stress, burnout and employment relations wellness.....87
3.6.1 The features of Stress.....87
3.6.2 Consequences of Stress in the organisation.....89
3.6.3 Burnout.....90
3.7 Intergroup bias in intergroup relations.....92
3.7.1 Stereotypes.....92
3.7.2 Prejudice.....94
3.7.3 Discrimination.....94
3.7.4 Reducing intergroup bias.....94
3.7.4.1 Individually based strategies for reducing stereotypes and enhancing sound employment relations.....96
3.8 Diversity and employment relations wellness.....99
3.9 Contacts between Members of Different Groups.....101
3.9.1 Sharing of knowledge in intergroup relations.....102

3.10 Creating employment relations wellness
in intergroup relations....107
3.11 Methods for managing sound intergroup
relations and creating employment relations wellness....113
3.11.1 Creating healthy competition in intergroup relations....116
3.12 Negotiation and mediation in employment
and intergroup relations wellness....118
3.12.1 Key principles of negotiation in intergroup relations....120
3.12.2 Key principles of Mediation in intergroup relations....122
3.12.3 Constructive management of intergroup relations....123
3.12.4 Intergroup negotiation tactics....124
3.12.5 Applying the BATNA Principle to intergroup relations....125
3.12.5.1 The BATNA (best alternative to a negotiated agreement)....125
3.13 Conclusion....128

Chapter 4: Empirical study and data analyses

4.1 Introduction....131
4.2 Objective of the Research....132
4.2.1 General Objectives....132
4.2.2 Specific objectives....132
4.2.2.1 Theoretical objectives....132
4.2.2.2 Empirical objectives....132
4.3 Measuring Battery....132
4.4 Statistical analysis....134
4.5 Research group and Research method....135
4.6 Section A: Biographical results of the
measuring instrument....135
4.6.1 Biographical information of the respondents....135
4.6.1.1 Sex, Age and Home language....136
4.6.1.2 Qualifications and Tenure....136

4.6.1.3 Departments, workgroups and teams.....138
4.7 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire.....140
4.8.1 Reliability.....140
4.8.2 Validity.....141
4.8.3 Face Validity.....141
4.8.4 Construct Validity of questionnaire.....142
4.9 Section B: Causes of conflict.....142
4.10 Section C and D: The influence and
experience of intergroup conflict.....146
4.10.1 Section C: The influence of Intergroup conflict.....146
4.10.2 Section D: The experience of Intergroup conflict.....150
4.11 Determining statistical correlations.....153
4.11.1 Correlation according to Sex (A1):.....154
4.11.1.1 Section B.....154
4.11.1.2 Section C.....155
4.11.1.3 Section D.....156
4.11.2 Correlation according to tenure (A5).....157
4.11.2.1Section B.....157
4.11.2.2 Section C.....159
4.11.2.3 Section D.....160
4.11.3 Correlation according to Home language (A4).....161
4.11.3.1 Section B.....161
4.11.3.2 Section C.....163
4.11.3.3 Section D.....164
4.11.4 Correlation according to Qualifications (A3).....165
4.11.4.1 Section B.....165
4.11.4.2 Section C.....166
4.11.4.3 Section D.....166
4.11.5 Correlation according to Departments (A6).....168
4.11.5.1Section B.....168
4.11.5.2 Section C.....170

4.11.5.3 Section D.....171
4.12 Conclusion.....173

Chapter 5: Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction.....178
5.2 The manifestation of intergroup conflict.....179
5.3 Employment relations wellness in correlation
with intergroup conflict.....180
5.4 Empirical study.....182
5.5 Literature and Empirical findings.....182
5.6 Recommendations.....192
5.7 Limitations of the study.....193
5.8 Further research.....194
5.9 Contribution of this study.....195

Addendum A (Questionnaire).....196
References.....204

List of Tables

Table 2.1 Consequences of Intergroup conflict.....73
Table 4.1 The Structure of the questionnaire.....134
Table 4.2 Biographical information of the respondents.....139
Table 4.3 The statistical results of factors contributing to conflict in a large mining organisation.....143
Table 4.4 Statistical results on influences of intergroup conflict on employees.....147
Table 4.5 Statistical results for the employees' own experience of intergroup conflict.....150
Table 4.6 Symmetric measures: The PHI coefficient.....153
Table 4.7 Respondents sex in correlation with affirmative action.....155
Table 4.8 Misuse of power in correlation with tenure.....159
Table 4.9 Cooperation in correlation with tenure.....161
Table 4.10 Stress in correlation with Departments.....171
Table 4.11 The degree to which departments' experiences intergroup Conflict.....172
Table 5.1 The correlations between chapter 2 and chapter 3.....192

List of Figures

Figure.1.1 Disposition of chapters.....12
Figure 2.1 Own model: The forming
and manifestation of intergroup conflict.....14
Figure 2.2 A theory of conflict behaviour.....22
Figure 2.3 Development of conflict.....54
Figure 2.4 The conflict potential of
Group interdependence.....69
Figure 3.1 Parties to the employment relationship.....78
Figure 3.2 Own model of sound employment relations.....80
Figure 3.3 Stress can be a cause or
consequence of intergroup conflict.....89
Figure 3.4 Adapted model of shared knowledge
in intergroup relations.....104
Figure 3.5 Methods for managing intergroup relations.....114
Figure 3.6 Creating sound employment and
intergroup relations through
mediation and negotiation.....119
Figure 4.1 Sex of the respondents.....136
Figure 4.2 Qualifications of respondents.....137
Figure 4.3 Tenure of respondents.....137
Figure 4.4 Departments forming part of the research.....138
Figure 4.5 Employees' experience of Intergroup conflict.....151

Chapter 1
Introduction

Key Concepts

Conflict; Functional conflict, Dysfunctional conflict, Intergroup conflict; Conflict management; Conflict theories; Conflict handling; Conflict types, Manifestation of conflict, Conflict reduction; Groups; Group dynamics; Employment relations, Intergroup relations; Employment relations wellness; Sound relations.

1.1 Introduction and problem statement

It is impossible to grow up in a family, live in a neighbourhood, attend school, be an employee, have an intimate relationship, raise children or actively participate as a citizen of a country without experiencing frequent conflict (Shaw, 1971).

Conflict is an unavoidable aspect of organisational life. Major trends such as constant change, employee diversity, bigger teams, lesser face-to-face communication and globalisation have made organisational conflict inevitable (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005).

Furthermore, Marx (1965), Dahrendorf (1965), Deutsch and Coleman (2000) as well as Anstey (1999) all indicate that poverty, power, social mobility, unemployment, competition and class consciousness are potential sources of conflict. It is clear that most of the researchers of conflict have identified more or less the same causes of conflict. As in war, groups in organisations can also be in conflict with each other. In 1967, the Arab Israeli war took place, and the battle for power was the main source of conflict. In organisations, a battle for power is also evident. Conflict occurs between groups and before these conflicts can be

resolved the cause must firstly be identified (Forsyth, 2005). If managements want to thoroughly understand conflict and handle it efficiently, managers firstly need to understand the sources of conflict (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

Kreitner and Kinicki (2005) and Anstey (1999) stress that managers can anticipate conflict by knowing the antecedents of conflict. Antecedents of conflict may be different perceptions, different aspirations, different strategies, balance of power, unclear policies, interdependent tasks, lack of communication, limited resources and intergroup competition in the organisation.

Conflict must be managed at every level of the organisation to ensure the reduction and efficient management of dysfunctional conflict (Takaks, 2002). Belak (1998) stresses the fact that it is important to deal with personality conflict, intergroup conflict, intragroup conflict and cross-cultural conflict through all management levels of the organisation in order to ensure the reduction of dysfunctional conflict.

Dysfunctional conflict can manifest itself in intergroup conflict in the organisation. Dysfunctional conflict between groups, teams and departments is a common threat to organisations and its competitiveness (Hewstone & Brown, 1986).

For the purpose of this study, it is important to define and understand conflict and intergroup conflict. Intergroup conflict is a type of conflict and must be explained and defined in order to fulfil the purpose of this study.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), "(c)onflict is a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party. The conflict process unfolds in a context, and whenever conflict, escalated or not occurs, 'the disputants or third parties can attempt to manage it in some manner" (p. 486).

Himes (1980) defines conflict as follows: "Social conflict refers to purposeful struggles between collective actors who use social power to defeat or remove opponents and to gain status, power resources and other scarce values" (p. 14). Havenga (2004) states that conflict is a certain situation which can develop when individuals' and groups' physical, material or psychological interests are threatened, and different powers that come to the fore can be seen as irreconcilable. Forsyth (2005) formulates conflict as "(d)isagreement, discord, and friction that occur when the actions or beliefs of one or more members of the group are unacceptable to and resisted by one or more of the other group members" (p. 36).

Anstey (1999) defines conflict as follows:

> (c)onflict exists in a relationship when parties believe that their aspirations cannot be achieved simultaneously, or perceive a divergence in their values, needs or interests (latent conflict) and purposefully employ the power in an effort to eliminate, defeat, neutralize, or change each other to protect or further their interests in the interaction (manifest conflict). (p. 36)

Conflict can be divided into functional or dysfunctional conflict. Functional conflict takes place in the interest of the organisation, while dysfunctional conflict may have a negative impact on the organisation. Dysfunctional conflict is confrontation or interaction between groups that harms the organisation or hinders attainment of goals or objectives, while functional conflict is considered positive, because it enhances performance and identifies weaknesses (Belak, 1998; Takaks, 2002).

Toscano (1998) states that "(i)ntergroup conflict is a circumstance in which groups take antagonistic actions towards one another to control some outcome

important to each" (p.64). Neal (2003) points out that "(i)ntergroup conflict occurs between groups: nations, gangs, work areas. For example, your department at work might have an 'us vs. them' attitude about some other department".

Deutsch and Coleman (2000) offer a socio-psychological approach to understanding intergroup conflicts. Conflict between people occurs in terms of their group identities. Deutsch and Coleman (2000) consider the implications of this approach for both conflict resolution and training in conflict resolution, and argue that intergroup conflicts arise from objective differences of interest, coupled with antagonistic or controlling attitudes or behaviors. Incompatibilities, which can prompt conflict, include economic power or value differences, or differences in needs-satisfaction. Often intergroup conflicts have a mixture of these elements.

Kruger, Smit and Le Roux (2000) explain "(i)ntergroup conflict may exist in an organisation because of the following: task-interdependence, unclear goals, threats, and group-identity or background" (p. 237-238). Wallace and Wallace (1989) state the following:"The minority and majority in intergroup relations and intergroup conflict are defined in terms of power rather than size" (p. 254).

In South Africa, intergroup conflict plays a huge role in organisations, especially based on the bias of resources, power, race, gender and religion (Schultz, Bagraim, Potgieter, Viedge, & Werner, 2003). People of the same backgrounds and race tend to form their own groups and may be in conflict with other groups depending on that group members' background (Forsyth, 2005).

Dysfunctional intergroup conflict can be very disruptive to any organisation and if it is not handled correctly, it may have severe consequences for the organisation (Gottlieb, 2003). According to Belak (1998), "(i)ntergroup conflict causes changes to occur, both within the groups in conflict and between them". Furthermore, Wallace and Wallace (1989) state that intergroup conflict may lead to violence

between groups, rising stress levels between groups and in organisations, lack of work performance in conflicting groups, industrial strikes, degradation of communication in the organisation and finally the termination of relations between conflicting groups and employees of the organisation.

Within the groups, members may overlook individual differences in an effort to unite against the other groups, and with this effort the focus is on the task. The group can become more efficient and effective at what they do and members can become more loyal, closely following group norms. Problems can occur when the group loses focus of the organisation's goals and becomes closed off from other groups in the organisation. Isolation quickly leads to decreased communication. Communication is a key factor between groups in reciprocal interdependence, but a lack of effective communication can have negative consequences such as intergroup conflict. Miscommunication can be the death knell of any organisation (Belak, 1998).

A main area for concern is the lack of management's involvement in handling intergroup conflict (Larson & Lafasto, 1989). Fisher (2000) indicates that some managements of certain organisations do not manage intergroup conflict correctly and often do not know how to deal with intergroup conflict. This forming of conflicting groups can be disastrous for the organisation if not resolved or reduced (Greenberg & Baron, 1995). The process of change and competition for power and sources must be identified and understood before management can start repairing the damage this conflict might cause (Thompson, 2004). According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), "(m)anagers who understand the mechanics of intergroup conflict are better equipped to face this sort of challenge" (p. 491). The question is thus raised: Does management really understand intergroup conflict?

One can clearly conclude that researchers such as Belak (1998) and Brown (2004) share the common idea that intergroup conflict must first be identified before the problem can be solved. The difficult part is understanding how

intergroup conflict manifests and changes in the organisation. If management can identify the sources of the conflict and understand the conflict, solutions and remedies for the problem can be found.

Such a study of intergroup conflict is very important for the employment relationship. It is clear that intergroup conflict can have dire consequences for the organisation. Intergroup conflict's sources, antecedents and consequences must be identified in order to find a remedy to resolve it. Management must understand intergroup conflict in order to find positive outcomes. Robbins (1996) argues that intergroup conflict occurs in most organisations and dysfunctional conflict can severely disrupt the operations of any organisation.

Brown (2004) stresses that organisational life is changing so drastically, and with this change, intergroup conflict is becoming increasingly evident in organisations. If this conflict manifests in dysfunctional intergroup conflict the outcomes or consequences can be disastrous, as mentioned earlier. Brown mentions that intergroup conflict can also hamper healthy intergroup and employment relations. According to Fiske (2002) bias, including stereotyping, can create a breakdown of healthy employment relations in the organisation. Moreover, Hewstone and Brown, I.D. (1986) highlights that it is important for an organisation to create and stimulate harmonious intergroup and employment relations.

Robbins (1996), Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), Brown (2004), Belak (1998) and Sherif (1966) all indicate that intergroup conflict exists in most organisations. From this evidence and research, the assumption in this study is that intergroup conflict exits in this company. If the empirical study proves that intergroup conflict does not exist it will be an indication that this company has perfect leadership, conflict resolution mechanisms and good employee relations. For the purpose of this study, it is important to note that people who experience intergroup conflict may not be of the same workgroup, but can have the same intergroup conflict experience.

From the fore-going introduction concerning intergroup conflict, the following problem statement is identified: **Dysfunctional intergroup conflict influences the functioning of the organisation in such a manner that it can severely hamper sound employment relations.**

1.2. Research Questions

The following primary research questions can be posed:

- What is intergroup conflict and how does it manifest in the workplace?
- How do employees experience intergroup conflict?
- What are the sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict?
- What is the profile of individuals who experience intergroup conflict on similar levels?
- What is the correlation between the experience of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness?

1.3 Aim of the study

The aim of this research study is to investigate intergroup conflict and determine how intergroup conflict influences employment relations throughout all levels of the organisation. The aim of this study is to identify the problem of intergroup conflict and identify the correlation between intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness.

Intergroup conflict was analysed and evaluated. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations made on the occurrence of intergroup conflict based on the findings of the literature and empirical study.

The Realistic group conflict theory served as theoretical background to this study. The problem of intergroup conflict was identified by means of this conflict theory, and an explanation was given of the phenomenon of conflict theories.

1.4. Research objectives

The primary objectives of this study are the following:

- Defining and evaluating intergroup conflict through a literature study
- To determine the employees' experience of intergroup conflict
- To determine the sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict
- To determine the profile of individuals who experience intergroup conflict at similar levels
- To determine correlations between the experience of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness

1.5. Method of research

1.5.1. Literature and sources analysis

This study contains two major components:

- Firstly, an in-depth literature study was done on intergroup conflict and intergroup relations wellness. The APA style of referencing was used in this study.
- An empirical research study was done. This included a quantitative study, which includes questionnaires that were given to a certain research population in order to find reliable and valid research results concerning intergroup conflict in the organisation.

The following databases were used in this research study:

- Potchefstroom Public Library
- South African and International Magazines and Journals
- Internationally and Nationally published Textbooks
- Ferdinand Postma library
- The Internet, including the following search engines;
- Nexus
- INMAGIC
- Ebscohost
- Google
- Google scholar

1.5.2. Research design

In this study, the first part entailed a literature study and theoretical perspective of intergroup conflict, and the empirical research included a structured questionnaire which forms part of the literature study and the theoretical perspective. The questionnaire was formulated in such a way that it could motivate the respondents to participate in the study and to share their thoughts on conflict between groups.

1.5.3. Empirical research

The main objective of this empirical research is to identify how intergroup conflict influences the employment relationship. Stratified random sampling was used in selecting a target population. The Phi and Cramer's V coefficients were used to retrieve valid and reliable data and information. A questionnaire was used which measures the affects of intergroup conflict on the individual and employment relations.

1.5.4. Validity of questionnaire

Parts of the research questionnaire have already been used in other research studies such as Havenga (2002), Havenga (2004) and Cheung and Chuah (2002). The questionnaire has shown to be effective in testing conflict and intergroup conflict in organisations. People who are experienced in the field of Human Resource Management, and especially industrial relations and conflict, confirmed the validity of the questionnaire. All the information in the questionnaires was treated as confidential in order to protect the respondents' privacy.

1.5.6. Empirical data

The SPSS programme (SPSS 17.0, 2008) was used to find true, accurate, reliable and valid research results. The Statistical Consultation Service of the North-West University assisted in processing and interpreting empirical data.

1.5.7. Research group and Questionnaire

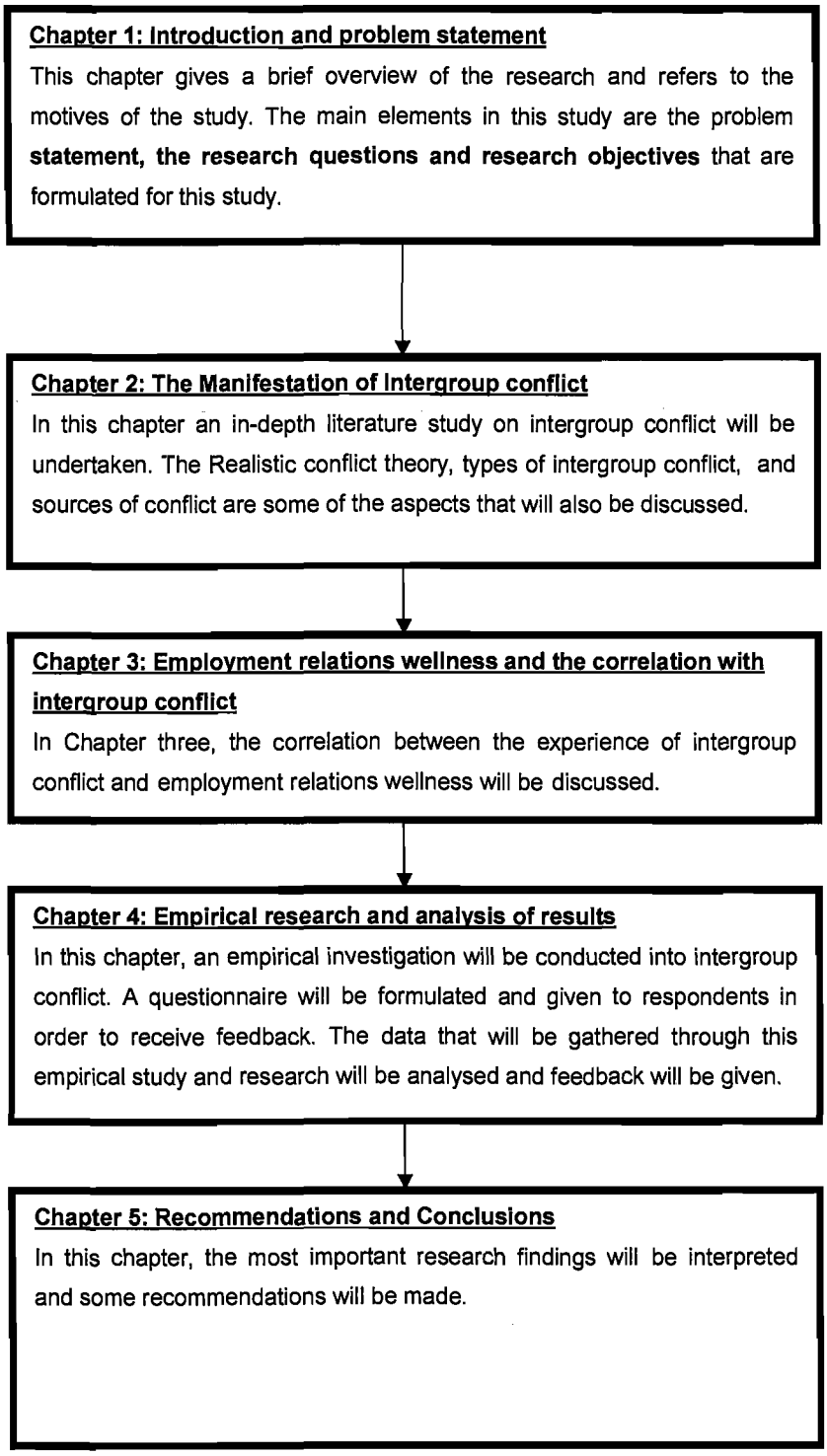
The research group consists of a number of personnel of a large mining company through all levels of the organisation, thus including top management, middle management as well as lower level employees. Every respondent received the same questionnaire. The size of the research population was chosen through stratified random sampling. The Head of HR of the mining organisation identified twelve departments in the mining company. The Departments include the following: Human Resources, Mining, Geology, Environmental, Production, Financial, Engineering, Communication, IT, Construction, Seismic and Ventilation. From a possible population of 1000 in the twelve departments, 200 employees were chosen to participate in the research. This number represents 20% of the total population. One hundred and eight

questionnaires were received back, which represents 54% of the selected research population.

1.5.8. Data analysis

All statistical calculations were done by means of different statistical techniques. The Phi coefficient, Cramer's V coefficient, data frequencies, correlations and a correlation analysis were performed through the SPSS programme (SPSS 17.0, 2008). This was performed through assistance and guidance from the North-West University's Statistical Consultation Service.

Figure.1.1 Disposition of Chapters



CHAPTER 2

The Manifestation of Intergroup conflict

2.1 Introduction

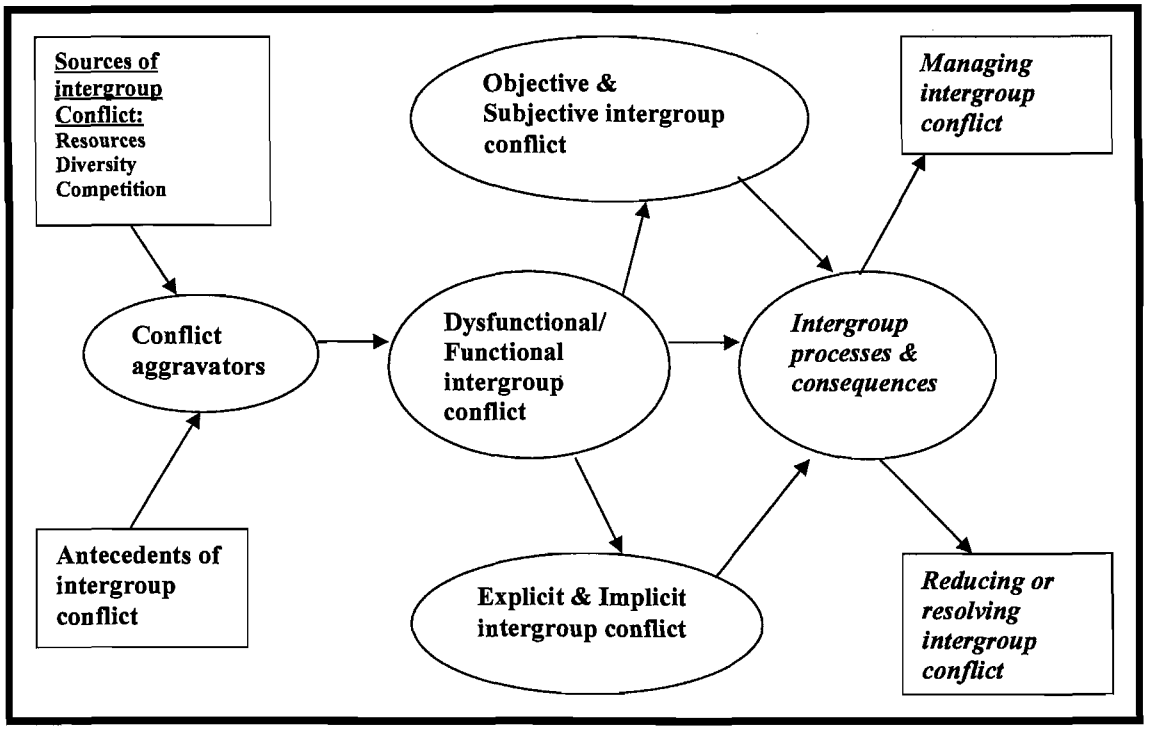
Conflict is present in daily life. Organisations are changing and so are the conflicts in the organisations. Modern day organisations must adapt to this change that takes place in the organisation in order to survive in more globalised and competitive markets (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Of huge concern to organisations and management is intergroup relations and intergroup conflict. This type of conflict occurs in most organisations and if management does not understand and manage intergroup conflict, it can lead to destructive conflict in the organisation (Robbins, 1996; Brown, R. D., 2004; Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 2000).

Cheung and Chuah (2002) find that intergroup conflict is the most frequently experienced type of conflict in organisations in Hong Kong. Furthermore, as seen in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.2; item D1, most of the respondents of this organisation (52.3%) experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis; thus indicating that intergroup conflict is evident in the mining organisation. This clearly shows that intergroup conflict exists in organisations and can pose a problem for management. In this study of intergroup conflict it is important to look at sociological theories in order to understand the existence of intergroup conflict in organisations.

The importance of utilizing theoretical bases for the purpose of this study is vital to the quest to reach the research objectives of this study. The following model explains the Manifestation of intergroup conflict. Intergroup conflict starts with sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict which in turn manifest into conflict aggravators. When the conflict is aggravated it will lead to functional or

dysfunctional intergroup conflict. This conflict can be divided into two groups namely Objective and Subjective Intergroup conflict as well as Explicit and Implicit Intergroup conflict. From these different types of intergroup conflict intergroup processes and consequences occur. Lastly, after Intergroup conflict has manifested through these various stages there can be a resolution to manage, reduce or resolve intergroup conflict.

Figure 2.1 The forming and manifestation of intergroup conflict



Source: Own model

2.2 Theories of Conflict

A sociological theory is the process of developing possibilities which enables one to explain why certain phenomena occur. It can also be stated that a theory is the vehicle of all knowledge in science. A theory is also a comfortable way to organise a certain experience (Visagie & Linde, 2006).

Visagie & Linde (2006) point out that:

> (n)o phenomenon can be studied without the application of a more clearly defined theoretical approach. The choice of a theoretical approach that would best explain a certain phenomenon is not always easy. A researcher shall find it impossible to do research successfully without the guidance and support of a theory. The researcher shall find it impossible to identify what to research, and what to do with the outputs of the research. (p. 78)

Almost all theories that attempt to explain the sources or causes of conflict and the way in which conflict is, or should be managed, are supported by, or adjusted to, empirical studies (Havenga, 2002). There are many exponents of the conflict theory that had a significant impact on the theory of conflict and the view of conflict. Marx, Pareto, Dahrendorf, Weber, Davis, Comte and Durkheim made the most exceptional contributions towards the theory of conflict (Lopreato & Hazelrigg, 1972). The numerous social theories that emphasise social conflict have roots in the thoughts of Karl Marx (1818-1883), the great German theorist and political activist. Karl Marx was the father of communism and he was also the main exponent of the conflict theory.

Marx emphasised social struggle between classes and divided the groups into the bourgeoisie (owners) and proletariat (non-owners) (Havenga, 2004). The Marxist conflict approach stresses materialist explanation of history, a dialectical technique of analysis, a significant attitude concerning existing social measures, and a political agenda of revolution or, at least, reforming. Karl Marx saw the ownership and control of the powers of production as the most important social factors that enable one to understand the dynamics of the modern day societies (Visagie & Linde, 2006).

It appears that Marx's idea of conflict centres on the macro-world and not on the micro-world of the organisation. In analysing the conflict perspective and theory of Marx, it is clear that there is conflict between groups for different reasons. Marx identified private ownership as being the origin of conflict. Private ownership implies that two parties or classes are in conflict with each other, namely the bourgeoisie and the proletariats or the owners and non-owners. This can also apply to the organisation. There is conflict between the groups and one group may have more than the other, which will lead to conflict or intergroup conflict (Havenga, 2004).

Dahrendorf (1965) states that the capitalist society lost all importance and was replaced by the new industrial society. Dahrendorf identifies a wide variety of groups in conflict. Two important aspects of conflict can be identified in his work.

- The first main aspect is the importance of power and that conflict is unavoidable. Dahrendorf stresses the importance of power as well as the unavoidability of conflict.
- Secondly, emphasis is placed on the determinants of active conflict and how it changes, manifests and develops in groups with conflicting goals (Visagie & Linde, 2006). Dahrendorf (1959) notes that "(t)he structural origin of such conflicts must be sought in the arrangement of social rules endowed with expectations of domination or subjection" (p. 165). The spread of power is the central focus point of social structures in society. Power, which is associated with a certain position, is the key viewpoint of Dahrendorf (Wallace & Wolf, 1995).

Concerning the work of Marx and Dahrendorf it can be said that they saw competition and power playing an important part in conflict. This can be directly linked with the realistic conflict theory which will subsequently be discussed. The realistic conflict theory will serve as the theory basis of the literature part of this study.

2.3 Realistic group conflict theory

Probably one of the most important descriptions for intergroup conflict, the **Realistic group conflict theory** implies that intergroup conflict arises from incompatible interests and goals between groups, with the incompatibility encouraged by scarcity of resources (LeVine & Campbell, 1972). The realistic conflict theory views conflict between groups as generated by an interdependent competition for scarce resources (Hogg & Abrams, 1988). This theory argues that conflict between groups stems from competition for scarce resources, including food, territory, wealth, power, natural resources and energy. This theory and method regarding intergroup relations assumes that conflict between groups is coherently implying that groups have conflicting goals and compete for scarce resources (Brewer, 1979; LeVine & Campbell, 1972; Sherif, 1966). The incompatibility of goals can lead to prejudice, reliance on stereotypes, bias and hostile behaviour among groups. This scarcity of resources can also transpire within the organisational environment (Galinsky, 2002).

The group which possesses most of the resources and power, will do anything possible to stop the other groups from attaining these resources and to prevent the other groups from reaching their objectives (Forsyth, 2005). Thus the source of conflict can be seen as "realistic" (Enns & Rotundo, 2004). According to Galinsky (2002), scarcity of resources can surface within an organisation.

Sherif (1966) and his colleagues carried out a numerous amount of well-known field studies on boys at summer camps. The boys were spilt up in different groups and competed in several events. In 1954, the Robber's Cave experiment was done. A group of 11-year-old boys of the same social backgrounds, same age and no unusual features in their backgrounds, were taken to Robber's Cave for the experiment. The original Robber's Cave study comprised three parts. First, there was group formation, second intergroup competition, and finally, intergroup cooperation. Sherif conducted an in-depth study on the boys before

taking them on this experiment, more than 300 hours. Sherif and his colleagues divided the boys into two separate groups (Forsyth, 2005).

Each group started showing signs of group-orientated behaviours, cohesiveness, and positive group attitudes within itself. It was clear that both groups viewed the other group as the outsiders. Both groups were in competition with each other and a tournament was held in which the groups competed against each other in various sparing events. The tempers flared up and clearly, the groups were in serious conflict and competition with each other. The conflict escalated as far as manifesting in fistfights between the groups. The conflict was becoming serious and intergroup competitions led to out-group derogation and guerrilla actions as well as disruption of the other group. In the studies of Sherif (1966), intergroup conflict rapidly escalated when the groups were competing for desirable resources (points that accrued towards winning a trophy, medals and other prizes) (Galinsky, 2002; Brown, R. D., 2004).

The conclusion was that competition causes intergroup conflict and that there needs to be some constructive and purposeful interdependence between groups before the conflict can be terminated. Sherif and his colleagues stress that it is vital to make groups cooperate with each other (Brown, R. D., 2004). Sherif and his colleagues created an environment where cooperation between groups was made possible. These particular circumstances led to superordinate goals being formed. Brown and Galinsky (2002) indicate that superordinate goals can be defined as goals that neither group could attain on its own nor which outdated all other goals each group might have had. Sherif (1966) also indicates that a single superordinate goal was not adequate to decrease intergroup conflict, but a sequence of escalating superordinate goals was crucial in order to reduce the conflict. From empirical evidence in paragraph 4.11.2.3, Tenure correlated with item D7. One hundred percent of the respondents with 26-31+ years' tenure indicated that it is necessary for workgroups and departments to cooperate, while 90% of respondents with 5-25 years' tenure indicated that it is important to

cooperate to be productive. Seventy-five percent of the respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that it is important to cooperate with other groups or departments. This is an indication that the longer the tenure at the organisation, the stronger the emphasis on cooperation. Moreover, this evidence supports the research, which emphasises the importance of cooperation in intergroup relations.

Insko and Schopler (1998) elaborate on the work of Sherif by demonstrating that intergroup relations and intergroup conflict tend to be more competitive and less cooperative than inter-individual relations. This phenomenon can be classified under the discontinuity effect. The discontinuity effect implies that it is possible that an individual's behaviour is different when forming part of a group than his/her apparent beliefs and actions when isolated as an individual. It is clear that when an individual forms part of a group, his/her behaviour can change drastically. Galinsky (2002) supports this by stressing that an individual can be biased or racist towards others, but when in the group his or her perception can change and bias may be eliminated.

According to the research of Sherif (1966) and of Insko and Schopler (1998), the distribution of scarce resources must be negotiated, and this suggests that the presence of groups versus individuals encourages rivalry. Thus the question arises: Are scarce resources essential for intergroup conflict to exist, or can intergroup conflict spring from merely categorizing people into separate groups?

Simply dividing individuals into separate groups, even when fundamental competitive procedures have been reduced, can encourage in-group favouritism and out-group conflict (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel, Billig, Bundy, & Flament, 1971).

This competition for scarce resources is linked with Karl Marx's conflict theory and with that of Ralph Dahrendorf. Many researchers such as Marx and Engels

(1947), Gurr (1970), Streufert and Streufert (1986), Gaines and Reed (1995) and Clark (1998) all indicate that the competition for scarce resources was the source of countless intergroup conflicts including bloody wars.

The zero-sum competitive relationship (i.e. only one group can attain a desired goal) between the in-group and out-group is considered to be the source of conflict. The result of a zero-sum competition essentially prescribes that one group has a higher status than the other. The prospect of not acquiring the scarce resource thus specifies that the apparent position and value of the in-group is put in jeopardy. In an attempt to preserve value in the face of conflict, a risk to the value of group membership should lead to behaviours that assist the in-group in acquiring the resource. Encouraging this idea, the realistic conflict theory has been set up to extract both in-group favouritism and out-group derogation (Enns & Rotundo, 2004).

Perceived realistic conflict predicts that employees' intergroup differentiation (the perception of larger differences between the in-group and a relevant out-group), is a precursor to in-group favouritism (Brown, Condor, Mathews, Wade, & Williams, 1986). When group members concentrate on efforts to preserve value by increasing in-group favouritism and out-group derogation, they will therefore be less likely to execute behaviours that appear to help rather than hamper the out-group in the conflict. In-group members who perceive the out-group to be in competition for scarce resources are unlikely to directly aid the other group in attaining the resource (Enns & Rotundo, 2004).

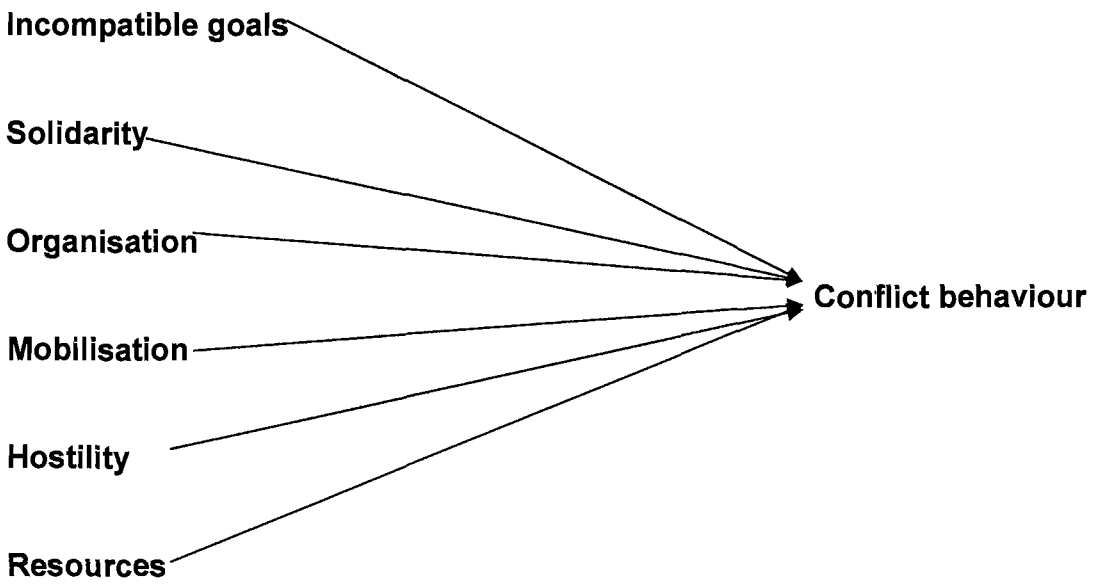
Another important aspect of intergroup conflict and the realistic conflict theory is the scapegoat theory. The Scapegoat and Realistic conflict theories are interlinked and if the one occurs, the other will. Forsyth (2005) states that the scapegoat theory is "an explanation of intergroup conflict that argues that hostility caused by frustrating environmental circumstances is sometimes released by taking hostile actions against members of other social groups" (p. 384).

The scapegoat theory points out the reasons why frustrating economic conditions lead to increasing levels of prejudice and violence (Hepworth & West, 1988). Scapegoating can also stimulate the oppression of groups by other oppressed groups (Myers, 1997). Scapegoating is very important for understanding certain group actions such as open hostilities between two departments.

Despite the realistic conflict theory, Karl Marx, Ralf Dahrendorf and Sherif indicate that competition promoted intergroup conflict and competition promoted aggression. Billig (1976) indicates that intergroup conflict or out-group bias can occur before competition has even been introduced. The sheer knowledge of the other group's existence was adequate to prompt the initial occurrence of intergroup bias.

Bartos and Wehr (2002) remark that it is important in the theories of conflict to look at the processes which lead to conflict, and also at certain conflict behaviours. Bartos and Wehr share the same opinion as Dahrendorf, Marx, Sherif and Brown. All these researchers indicate that resources, incompatible goals and hostility towards other groups might lead to conflict and conflict behaviours. Bartos and Wehr indicate that the following factors will lead to a theory of conflict behaviour:

Figure 2.2 A theory of conflict behaviour



Source: Bartos and Wehr (2002)

Dahrendorf's conflict theory and the realistic conflict theory identify the battle for power playing a major role in intergroup conflict. This emphasizes the importance of power in intergroup conflict and why it is necessary to subsequently discuss the role of power.

2.4 The role of power in intergroup conflict theory

Power can play a key role in most conflicts such as wars and even intergroup conflict. When a group has power, it has access to the valued resources and uses them to achieve personal, relational or environmental goals, often using different approaches of authority. A misconception about conflict can be that it has some physical location and that the usage of power is competitive (Bartos & Wehr, 2002). In paragraph 4.8.1, 61.1% of respondents indicated that misuse of

power is a source of conflict, thus indicating the major role power plays within groups and organisations.

According to Bartos and Wehr (2002) in the study of social sciences there can be five different perspectives on power.

- Firstly, power-over is the skill to force someone or a group to do something. Dahrendorf (1965), Marx (1965), Sherif (1966) and Brown, R. D., (2004) mention that this view of power implies that power can be seen as coercive or competitive.

- Secondly, power-with which underlines the value of shared or corrective action. This occurs when two or more groups work together to enhance their power in order to get greater ascendancy over the other conflict groups.

- Thirdly, powerlessness and dependence is also important to look at. If a group is powerless, it can look at another group to help it to gain some power or order to compete with conflicting groups.

- Fourthly, empowerment can be seen as power-to the group. The group is empowered to act effectively without constraint or disability (Deutsch & Coleman, 2000). Personal factors such as different cognitive, motivational and moral orientations regarding power can exist in the group. A group might be motivated to strive for power to the group. In this drive and motivation for power, groups make certain moral decisions. These moral values, perception of justice, and moral decision-making will play a major role in the way the group uses its power. If the group has low moral values, it will abuse its power in the organisation and will do almost anything in order to retain this power. Culture in the group plays a very important role within it because it can

influence the attitude of the group members towards power inequalities.

- Lastly, in this battle and struggle for power, research has shown that high-power groups like power; these groups value it and will do anything to hold on to it. These power-driven groups focus very little on low-powered groups, and their only goal is to dominate every individual and group around them (Bartos & Wehr, 2002).

Deustch and Coleman (2000) say that high-power groups "pay less attention to low-power people, and have an "unreflective tendency to dominate" (p. 125). High-power groups will be inclined to alienate low-power groups, and to draw out resistance. On the other hand, low-power groups tend to be restricted in their thinking and dissatisfied with the way decisions are made in the organisation. These groups may express their disapproval by projecting responsibility on even less powerful groups. This will undermine these low-power groups to empower themselves through cooperation and partnership building (Brown, R. D., 2004).

2.5 Applicability of conflict theories

It is essential to understand the theories of conflict when studying conflict. These theories of conflict identified, competition, battle for power, processes which occur in the forming of conflict, the elements of conflict as well as the ways in which to manage and deal with conflict.

A conflict theory identifies conflict between groups in organisations, which is the core aspect of this study. Aspects such as scarce resources, competition, power, authority and cooperation were a few that were evaluated in these conflict theories. The realistic conflict theory gives an indication of why certain groups blame other groups for their own mistakes and the reason why groups search for a so-called "scapegoat". The realistic conflict theory gives a clear indication of the working intergroup conflict in organisations. Researchers such as Sherif, Tajfel,

Turner and Brown did a considerable amount of research on the realistic conflict theory. This theory explains the occurrence of intergroup conflict and can help create an understanding of intergroup conflict.

2.6 Intergroup conflict and intergroup relations

2.6.1 Intergroup conflict

Intergroup conflict manifests in intergroup relations, and both intergroup relations and groups form an integral part of intergroup conflict. The diversity of phenomena included under the expression *intergroup conflict* is also potentially substantial, including prejudice, discrimination, injustice, and perpetuation of inequality, oppression, ethnic cleansing, and genocide (Hewstone, 1996).

Filley (1975) stresses that employees and employers interact in close proximity on a regular basis. For conflict to exist there must be two conflicting parties with conflicting goals and with the conflict parties fighting for power. This can be linked to Dahrendorf who also indicated that battle for power is the main reason for conflict.

Nelson and Quick (2006) state that:

> Intergroup conflict occurs within trade unions, between two departments or between an employer and the government. This situation occurs when opposing groups are formed within a work situation and are unable to come to an agreement such as in organisations when different groups work in conflict with each other. (p. 438)

Without groups, intergroup conflict will not occur. Many people and managers can ask the question: **Why do we need groups or teams in the organisation?**

According to Harrington and Fine (2000), the emphasis on group research has declined since the great Muzafer Sherif redefined the study of groups. Keeping this in mind, it is important to look at the group as a complex living system which changes over time. It is important for any organisation to understand the terms *groups* and *teams* and processes such as *intergroup conflict* as well as the influence thereof on the employment relationship. Harrington and Fine contend that, if the organisation focuses on groups and places emphasis on them, it may be productive and successful.

A group is a social unit which consists of a number of individuals who, at a certain time, stand in a more or less exact inter-reliant status and role relationship with one another. A group possesses a set of values or norms modifying the behaviour of individual members, at least in issues of significance to the group. Thus shared attitudes, emotions, objectives, desires and goals are related to and implicit in the ordinary values or norms of the group (Sherif, 1966).

Forsyth (2005) stresses that "a group is a collection of two or more interacting individuals with a stable pattern of relationships among them who share common goals and who perceive themselves as being a group" (p. 5).

Thompson (2004) states that "a team is a group who are interdependent with respect to information, resources and skills and who seek to combine their efforts to achieve a common goal" (p. 4). **Thus a team simply is a specialised functioning group.** Groups and teams form an integral part of the organisation and are part of organisations everywhere. Teams and groups are formed to create better performance in organisations (Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993). Organisations, big or small, private or public, profit or non-profit, use groups and

teams for everything from designing and implementing projects to managing and improving quality (Shaw, 1971).

To understand a group better, one needs to look at the following aspects, according to Lumsden and Lumsden (1993):

- **Relationships:** Interacting, influencing, sharing, cooperating and interdependent.

- **Processes:** Communicating, organising, leading, supporting, developing, analyzing, thinking and creating.

- **Purposes:** Goals, vision, activities and outcomes.

Over the years managers discovered that teams can be very effective in making decisions quickly and efficiently. The quality of work can improve. Teams and groups are part of an organisation and are necessary to reach the goals of the organisation (Thompson, 2004).

Thompson (2004) states that teams are of vital importance to the organisation and have identified the following reason why teams are important in the organisation:

Customer Service Focus - To keep customers happy is much less hard work than to require new clients. If teams are positioned to care about customers, it will lead to better customer relations for a business. A company can increase profits by setting up a team to look after the customer needs.

Competition - The markets are expanding and the economy is crowing rapidly. Some companies make a great deal of profit, while others see a decline in growth and profits. Some big companies create massive revenue and form a

monopoly, for example Coca Cola in the soft drink market. Teamwork is vital to such a big company to create top products and to leave the competition behind. Companies are competing in a battle for the market share and the battle of competition brings out the best in teams.

Information age - In the new era of the world, knowledge is power and power is knowledge. Employees are knowledge and the work teams are knowledge integrators. Technology and information is becoming easier to reach; making it easier to transfer technology. Managers' roles are to identify key recourses that will best implement the team's objectives and use its resources in the company to reach objectives. Team members' roles have also changed. Technology is decreasing the number of workers and work can be done over long distances and through computer technology. These changes in structure, communication, work environment and technology can increase the importance of the team in the organisation drastically.

Globalisation - The increasing global and fast-paced economy requires that workers that are more specialized are needed. The specialized workers still need to work together. Coordination becomes more important because of changes such as restructuring of the organisation. Boundaries in the organisation will change; so will the links with the teams in the organisation (Adelfer, 1977).

The following can be described as reasons for the existence of teams in an organisation, as explained by Lumsden and Lumsden (1993) and Thompson (2004):

Better performance -Work teams lead to better performance at times and higher customer service ratings for example 20 percent improvement in productivity.

Improved job satisfaction - Improved levels of satisfaction because of improved intrinsic rewards.

Increasing collective commitment to organisational goals - The teams in the organisation will strive and may reach the organisational goals with more ease.

Peer control - This saves time for the organisation because in teams, not so much supervision is needed.

Pressure to perform - Members in a group pressure one another to perform and this will lead to better work performance.

Increased commitment to team performance - The team members are committed to one another, the team, and this will lead to much more commitment to perform.

More creative solutions to problems - Teams may find more creative solutions to problems and actually solve them.

Reducing costs and overheads - Teams may self-manage them and this will reduce costs, because less supervision is required.

Decision-making is decentralised - Teams make decisions easier and quicker, which can save time.

From the above-mentioned evidence it can be concluded that Intergroup conflict is of vital importance in group and team performance.

2.6.2 Intergroup relations

The term *intergroup relations* refers to the relations between two or more groups and their respective members. Intergroup relations occur when individuals belonging to one group interact, collectively or individually, with another group

and its members. These groups interact, depending on how the different groups see and perceive each other (Sherif, 1966). Intergroup relations are all the activities that occur between and among groups (Adelfer, 1986).

Taylor and Moghaddam (1987, p. 6) define intergroup relations as any aspect of human interaction that involves individuals perceiving themselves as members of a social group, or being perceived by others as belonging to a social category.

According to Belak (1998), intergroup relations between two or more groups and their individual members are often essential to complete the work required to operate an organisation successfully. In certain cases in organisations, groups correlate with each other to achieve the organisation's goals and objectives, and in this situation intergroup conflict can occur.

Luthans (1992, p. 389) notes that groups in the organisation who experience intergroup conflict might exhibit the following characteristics:

- There can be a clear difference and comparison between "we" (the in-group) and "they" (the out-group).
- A group that is in conflict with another group can become more cohesive and mould into a structured and solid unit. When this occurs, the group puts up a solid front in order to defeat the enemy (out-group).
- Any positive reactions, feelings and cohesion that occur in the group cannot be converted to the out-group. The members of the out-group are not seen as allies or neutrals, but as enemies. The outcome of this can be that groups who form part of the same department and who strive for the same goal can view each other as enemies.
- If group members feel threatened, a feeling of superiority can manifest in them. Group members might overestimate their own strength and underestimate the strength of the out-group.

- One of the most common characteristics of groups in conflict is that levels of communication decrease drastically. If communication between these groups occurs, it is characterized by negative comments and opinions and hostility.
- If the group is losing the battle, the group members' cohesion decreases and they start experiencing increasing tension among themselves. The outcome of this is that group members start looking for a scapegoat to blame their failure on.
- Intergroup conflict and intergroup hostilities might be a product of group interaction, even if the groups are normal and well adjusted.

Luthans (1992) indicates that the above-mentioned findings can help organisations in understanding intergroup conflict and intergroup behaviour better.

Summarising all the above the following definition can be formulated: **Intergroup conflict occurs between groups or teams in organisations. These groups compete for survival and power and when this survival and power is threatened, the groups engage in conflict with other groups in order to ensure they retain their status and wealth.**

Defining and understanding intergroup conflict is very important. It is important to understand the terms *intergroup conflict* and *intergroup relations*. If management understands and defines intergroup conflict, it may be easier to understand the conflict which occurs in the organisation. Intergroup conflict can be divided into functional and dysfunctional conflict. This will be discussed next.

2.7 Dysfunctional and functional conflict

2.7.1 Functional/Constructive conflict

Functional conflict is constructive or cooperative conflict. This type of conflict assists the management in achieving the objectives of the organisation (Brown, I. D., 1986). Management can use functional conflict to ensure a positive outcome for conflict. Productive or functional conflict can lead to stimulate a problem-solving motivation, triggering creativity and innovation, stimulating new ways of interaction and promoting interparty relations in terms of communications, trust, sensitivity and understanding (Deustch, 1973).

Conflict is not always negative. No group can function entirely harmoniously, because then the group will have no process and structure. When conflict gives structure to a group and leads to certain processes, the conflict might not be dysfunctional (Anstey, 1999). Conflict can have the same social functions as cooperation. Conflict has functions such as group formation and preservation of group life. Conflict can become constructive when conflict escalation leads misjudgements and misperceptions. When this occurs, conflicting parties are not interested in winning, but rather defeating or harming the other group (Filley, 1975). Bendeman (2003) points out that, if this situation occurs, the conflict becomes unmanageable, and destructive conditions will emanate.

When conflict is positive, the different parties to the problem are motivated to solve it. This approach can enhance creativity and innovation and stimulate better intergroup relations (Deustch, 1973).

2.7.2 Dysfunctional/Destructive conflict

Destructive conflict occurs when there is a threat to the entire group, the goals of the group are being subverted by the conflict, or one member is attacked

persistently; and that person cannot defend her/himself and must resort to deliberate distortions just to save face, and conflict goes on too long and too much energy is expended (Anstey, 1999; Forsyth, 2005; Robbins, 1996; Deustch, 1973). This type of conflict is undesirable and management must seek to abolish it (Brown, I. D., 1986). Dysfunctional conflict or destructive conflict can lead to mutual attacks and efforts to destroy each other, misjudgements, misperceptions, and jeopardizing of group goals (Deustch, 1973).

Robbins (1996) argues that all conflicts might be dysfunctional and management must keep the conflict intensity as low as possible. Robbins stresses the following to support this case: There are too many negative consequences connected to conflict. The most obvious are increased turnover, decreased employee satisfaction, inefficiencies between work units, sabotage, labour grievances and strikes and physical aggression. Conflict works against teamwork, and management creates teamwork by minimizing internal conflicts and facilitating internal synchronization.

There must be a clear distinction between conflict and competition. Conflict is behaviour directed against another party, while competition is aimed at acquiring a goal without intrusion from another party. Competition is healthy, it is a source of organisational strength, while conflict on the other hand, is damaging. Managers who inspire and accept conflict will not survive in organisations. Managers must eliminate conflict and if this does not occur the manager will not last very long in the organisation (Robbins, 1996).

The major obstacle is to distinguish or identify between the conflicts. One group may see conflict as functional, while the other group might see it as dysfunctional. The way the group perceives the conflict is important (King, 1981). The performance of the group is important because if it is underperforming it might perceive conflict as dysfunctional rather than functional. The main aspect contributing to this is the goal of the group and wither the group can attain this

goal. If this goal is attainable, conflict with other groups might be seen as a positive and motivational factor (Robbins, 1996).

2.7.3 Dysfunctional (destructive) conflict outcomes

According to Rutzburg (1999), destructive conflict can have the following outcomes for the organisation. It:

- diverts energy from the real task
- destroys morale
- polarizes individuals and groups
- deepens differences
- obstructs cooperative action
- produces irresponsible behaviour
- creates suspicion and distrust
- decreases productivity

Moreover, from empirical evidence in paragraph 4.11.5.3, 67% of Mining, 72% of Environmental, 73% of Engineering, 100% of communication and 100% of Construction respondents indicate that conflicts do not have positive outcomes. This is a large number of employees who do not see conflict as positive.

2.7.4 Functional conflict outcomes

If the intergroup conflict in the organisation increases group performance, the outcome of the conflict will be functional. It is possible for low or moderate conflict to serve a purpose of increasing productivity and group performance. When the conflict is constructive, it may lead to better decision making, the stimulation of innovation and creation, group members' interest in work is rekindled, it provides a situation in which problems and opinions can be raised and released, and this type of conflict can foster an environment conducive to change. Functional conflict can improve the quality of decision-making, even the group that is seen as the lesser one. Functional conflict can also be seen as a remedy for

groupthink (Gray & Starke, 1994). Conflict can also foster the creation of new ideas, encourage re-examination of group goals and activities and may increase the possibility that the group or team will respond positively to change in the organisation. Positive conflict can be related to productivity (Robbins, 1996). From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.5.3, Ninety percent of respondents of the Geology department, 53% of HR, 100% of Seismic and 100% of the Ventilation department indicated that conflict could have positive outcomes for the organisation.

According to Tjosvold as cited in Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), functional conflict can have three desirable outcomes:

- Agreement - These on conflict must be free and fair for all parties involved.
- Stronger relationships - Stronger intergroup relationships must arise from intergroup conflicts in order to build trust and goodwill between conflicting groups.
- Learning - Groups must learn from their mistakes and from the past. They can use this knowledge to deal better with conflict and create better intergroup relations.

Rutzburg (1999) highlights that constructive intergroup conflict can have the following outcomes in the organisation. It:

- opens up an issue in a confronting manner
- develops clarification of an issue
- improves problem-solving quality
- increases involvement
- provides more spontaneity in communication
- initiates growth
- strengthens a relationship when creatively resolved

- helps increase productivity

Van de Vliet (1985) and Gray and Starke (1994) indicates that conflict can be an advantage for the organisation and intergroup relations; subsequently leading to better employment relations in the intergroup context. Van de Vliert indicates the following benefits conflict has for the organisation:

- Conflict is the vehicle which can foster radical change in the organisation. The conflict can be used to change power structures, group structures, interaction patterns and entrenched attitudes. A group's attitude can be changed as well as the status of a certain group and its members.

- Conflict can enhance the energy levels of groups in conflict. Groups in conflict with each other can show higher energy levels and work harder. This can be beneficial to the organisation.

- Problems made known in intergroup conflict. If the conflict arises, management can obtain a better understanding of the conflict and problems in the organisation between groups.

- Conflict encourages groups to clarify their objectives, and this strengthens groups' awareness of their purpose. If intergroup arises, the groups will have to clarify their objectives in order to survive the conflict and reduce intergroup conflict.

- Conflict facilitates group cohesiveness. When the group becomes more cohesive, it becomes more closely knit and more structured, and becomes a unit. If intergroup conflict then arises, the group might see it as a challenge and will compete in functional intergroup conflict, which will lead to better intergroup and employment relations.

- **Conflict can improve group and organisational effectiveness.** If the conflict is functionally stimulated, the conflict can initiate new ideas, goals, objectives and innovations.

- **Conflict can enhance a constructive level of tension.** When conflict arises and the levels of tensions between groups are low, the groups are not sufficiently motivated to reduce or eliminate the conflict.

Management must play a pivotal role in creating these benefits of conflict. When groups and management avoid conflict, the groups and organisations might suffer bitter consequences. These groups and organisations might experience apathy, stagnation and groupthink. In many cases, big organisations failed because they experienced too little conflict. Big companies such as General Motors, Western Union, IBM and Greyhound stagnated in the past because their managements were not willing or able to foster positive change and conflict. If management does not back up this viewpoint of conflict and does not support the processes to stimulate positive intergroup conflict, the process will fail and so will the creation of better employment relations between groups and departments (Van de Vliet, 1985).

In paragraph 4.10.2, item D-5, 43.5% of respondents indicated that conflict could have positive outcomes for the organisation. Moreover, in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.3.3, Home language correlated with item D5. More than 56% of English respondents, 54.3% of Afrikaans respondents and 53% of isiXhosa respondents indicated that conflict could have positive outcomes for the organisation. This is an indication that some employees see conflict to have positive outcomes. From these perspectives of functional and dysfunctional conflict, it is important to identify factors affecting intergroup conflict, the sources of the conflict and the management of conflict (King, 1981).

After assessing dysfunctional and functional conflict, the next important step in explaining the Manifestation of Intergroup conflict is identifying the types of intergroup conflict.

2.8 TYPES OF INTERGROUP CONFLICT

There are distinctive socio-psychological bases of intergroup conflict largely concerned with what is seen as special behaviour shown by members of groups. Even though several social psychologists have attempted to explain intergroup conflict in terms of some intra-individual factor (e.g., personality or frustration leading to aggression), a far more credible explanation can be presented by focusing on the distinctive nature of the intergroup conflict phenomenon. This can be done by identifying and explaining the different types of intergroup conflict which can occur either in the organisation or in daily life (Hewstone, 1996; Hewstone &, Cairns, 2001).

Tajfel and Turner (1979), Hewstone (1996) and Hewstone and Cairns (2001) differentiate between a number of types of intergroup conflict which can help to highlight how intergroup conflict manifests, changes and exists in an organisation.

2.8.1 Objective versus Subjective Intergroup Conflict

When researchers and managers in organisations talk about intergroup conflict, they normally have in mind what Tajfel and Turner call objective intergroup conflicts over authority, resources, or territory. These objective conflicts noticeably have their determinants outside the sphere of psychology and entail an analysis in terms of social, economic, political, and historical configurations (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001). Objective conflicts can differ from mental, symbolic or "subjective" conflicts, such as the attempt by groups to form a distinct culture and norms and to be different to other groups (Hewstone, 1996).

Even though dissimilar, objective and subjective conflicts are often interlinked and subjective conflict can survive long after objective discrepancies vanish. Deutsch (1973) is of opinion that the concept *harmful conflicts* is likely to continue after instigating foundations have become inappropriate. For this significant reason, the problems with intergroup conflicts are more psychological and symbolic; thus becoming more difficult to deal with. If the intergroup conflict manifests in psychological or symbolic conflict the conflict is becoming much more difficult to manage (Cairns & Darby, 1988).

2.8.2 Explicit Versus Implicit Conflict

Furthermore, a distinction can be drawn between explicit and implicit intergroup conflicts.

2.8.1 Explicit conflict

Explicit conflict is legitimised and institutionalised by rules or norms (Hewstone, 1996). Tajfel and Turner (1979) point out that, certain behaviours concentrated on the out-group in explicit conflict can, in turn, be grouped into two classes, namely instrumental behaviour and noninstrumental behaviour.

- Instrumental behaviour is the behaviour that is aimed at motivating the group to win the competition with the other group. This motivation to win drives the group, motivates the group and finally pushes the group into winning the challenge against their conflicting groups (Hewstone, 1996). Thus behaviour is clearly noticed where groups are always competing against other groups to develop the feeling of being victorious (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001).
- Noninstrumental behaviour is much more fascinating and complex. Its emphasis is on the psychological aspects because it is unjustified

discrimination against the out-groups and has no sense outside the context of intergroup relations. A major example of noninstrumental behaviour is the acknowledgement of negative stereotypes regarding the members of the out-group and to the group as a whole. Negative Stereotyping can become a problem for any organisation. If a certain group is seen as a certain stereotype it can affect it and its performance negatively (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001). This negative stereotype is a set of traits which are attributed to most members of a certain group. The individuals of the certain group are seen as similar and are thought to be different from the members of the in-group. The other groups are seen as different from the in-group; thus the groups are being categorised and stereotypes are formed (Tajfel, 1981).

Thinking of and dealing with the out-group in this manner makes them more predictable. This behaviour of the group itself can be used to justify discriminatory behaviour towards the other groups. This type of behaviour might also help the group members to differentiate the in-group positively from the out-group (Linville, 1998; Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994; Tajfel, 1981).

2.8.2 Implicit Conflict

Implicit conflict refers to conflict that exists in the absence of explicit institutionalisation (e.g. experimental member's preference for comparative achievement at the sacrifice of the out-group in the nominal groups model, yet when this means a reduction in objective compensation and where there is no explicit conflict of interests) (Hewstone, 1996).

Tajfel and Turner (1979) maintain that, in many cases, group members differentiate between groups, although there are no reasons for these differentiations to be made. The other groups can be seen as very different but

the fact of the matter is that the conflicting groups are the same in every aspect of the group with only slight differences. In an organisation, this can be seen very clearly. Conflict can exist between groups who work day shift and those working night shift. Although the groups are precisely the same, the idea of working differs. Shifts can create conflict between groups (Hewstone, 1996; Hewstone & Cairns, 2001, Tajfel, 1981).

A tragic example is provided by the Hutu and Tutsi war in Rwanda. These groups of people are almost the same and have the same culture but for only a slight difference, they are in war. This same principle is set in organisations, and only these slight differences can lead to fierce conflict in the organisation, instigated by the different groups (Keane, 1995; Prunier, 1995). It is evident that social psychological features of conflict are most obvious in the occurrence of implicit conflict and are exemplified by noninstrumental behaviours associated with explicit conflict (Hewstone, 1996).

To summarise the above, intergroup conflict consists of various types of conflict. Every type of conflict is very intriguing and can be seen as different, but in the study of intergroup conflict it is exceptionally important to look into these types of intergroup conflict. It is clear from the work of Hewstone that social psychological aspects play a very important role in forming intergroup conflict. The same principles which applies in life such as the conflict in Northern Ireland, applies to intergroup conflict in organisations. It is important to understand these types of conflict and conflict behaviours in order to find a solution to the problem of dysfunctional intergroup conflict. Now that the types of intergroup conflict have been discussed, the sources of intergroup conflict need to be commented on. Management must understand the sources of the intergroup conflict in order to be able to manage it.

2.9 Sources of intergroup conflict

According to Enns and Rotundo (2004),

> (c)onflict between groups in organisations is an undeniable facet of organisational life. With the growth of team-based organisations, it is important to know the effects of conflict between groups on intergroup relations, especially in terms of behaviours between groups. (p. 3.)

This clearly emphasizes that the effects of intergroup conflict must be known. However, before the effects can be known, the source of the conflict must be identified first of all (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Groups are very volatile in their interactions with other groups. This volatility can easily be broken and can escalate into dysfunctional intergroup conflict. For this reason it is very important to understand the sources of intergroup conflict (Roy, 2006).

Forsyth (2005) says that, "although conflict between groups is one of the most complicated phenomena studied by social scientists, the goal of greater understanding and the promise of reduced tension remain enticing" (p. 378).

Furthermore, Forsyth (2005) emphasizes that it is extremely important to concentrate on the sources of intergroup conflict and the ways in which such conflicts can be resolved. Greenberg and Baron (1995) stress that the term *conflict* primarily refers to instances in which units or individuals within an organisation work against, rather than with, each other.

Greenberg and Baron (1995) are of opinion that conflict involves the presence or perception of opposing interests. Yet, this condition in itself is neither necessary nor sufficient for the occurrence of actual conflict. Open confrontations sometimes fail to develop despite the existence of incompatible interest, and

conflict occasionally emerges even when opposing interests are not present. Clearly then, many factors and conditions contribute to the occurrence of conflict. Nelson and Quick (2006) warn that conflict is pervasive in organisations. To manage it effectively, managers should understand the many sources of conflict.

Belak (1998) indicates that one of the most important reasons for intergroup conflict is the nature of the group. Some of the other reasons may be work interdependence, goal variances, differences in perceptions, and the increased demand for specialists (Monteiro, 2003). Individual members of a group often play a role in the initiation of group conflict, and a group can embody various qualities, values, or unique traits which are created, followed, and even defended (Belak, 1998). According to Belak, "(t)hese clans can then distinguish 'us' from 'them'".

From empirical evidence in paragraph 4.9.1, item B4, 53.7% of the respondents indicated that Implementation of new management techniques is a source of conflict; thus emphasising management's role as a source of conflict in an organisation.

2.9.1 General sources of Intergroup conflict

Blake, Sheppard and Mouton (1968) also suggest that the following are sources of intergroup conflict:

- Differences in the likeliness to take on risks

Organisations and specific work groups within the organisation develop normal behaviour with respect to the risks connected to their decisions. It is important to assist your work group and your organisation's risk-taking tendency and thereafter one should compare it with one's own tendency to take risks. If one joins a group that has a tradition of high risk taking and one sees oneself as a careful decision maker, one can anticipate a certain amount of conflict due to this difference (Cragan, Wright & Kasch, 2004).

- Differences in professional awareness status

This entails "conscious raising talk" which is a natural aspect form of all group discussions. Conscious raising talk produces group trust and identity that can be incorporated into conflict with vicissitudes. A trustworthy conscious raising group focuses on a new socio-political identity of a professional identity to unite the self with the group identity (Blake, Sheppard & Mouton, 1968).

- Groupthink

Groupthink involves the total conformity of the group with respect to joining in conflict communication with the goal to better the quality of the group's decision. A group will stand a better chance of avoiding groupthink if it focuses on their own positive work behaviour. In the case of decision-making groups, they must rather focus on their abilities to have a share in the idealistic conflict rather than on the overemphasis of the weak points of other groups.

- Competition:

Competition is probably the most common source of intergroup conflict, as indicated before (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Conflict arises due to competition over limited resources or the challenge to be the best (Brown, 2004; Marx, 1965; Dahrendorf, 1965). In his Robber's cave experiment, Sherif (1966) indicates that competition is a main source of conflict. If this conflict is not managed, it will lead to greater conflict and evolve into a huge problem for the organisation. The Realistic Group Conflict Theory views prejudice as stemming from the realities of intergroup competition for control of limited resources (Anstey, 1999). From empirical evidence in paragraph 4.9.1, 38.9% of respondents indicated that competition between groups is a source of conflict. Moreover, in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.5.1, Departments correlated with item B6, and the following was evident: 75% of respondents of the mining department, 100% of Construction and 82% respondents of the Engineering department indicated that competition is a source of conflict, thus emphasising the regular occurrence of competition between groups and departments.

- Task interdependence:

In task interdependence, the group members are dependent on one another and task interdependence can stimulate intergroup conflict. Some tasks or jobs require interdependent cooperation (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Groups or individuals depend on each other to achieve goals and finish the job. If the work is done efficiently, the entire process of being dependent on others is quite nice, but when the work is facing challenges and running into obstacles, the groups or individuals start blaming each other. This will lead to conflict increasing and groups being in conflict. From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.10.1, item C3, 35.2% of the respondents indicated that they decline cooperation when experiencing intergroup conflict. This means that cooperation can decline when conflict exists, while interdependent functioning will decline.

- Categorization and identity:

The Social Identity Theory is essentially a cognitive-motivational theory of group antagonism. In it:

- People categorise the social world into in-groups and out-groups. Categorisation is a normal psychological process. Perceivers naturally categorise objects from social environment into groups. Among the common social categories are gender, race and age (Sherif, 1966).
- People strive for a positive self-concept and derive a sense of self-esteem from their social identity as members of in-groups (Forsyth, 2005).
- People's self-concept partly depends on their evaluation of their own group relative to others. They therefore engage in behaviours that favour their in-group and/or are unfavourable to an out-group (Brown, 2004).

- Jurisdictional ambiguity:

Jurisdictional ambiguity arises when it is not clear which group is responsible for which activity. We can take an example where two groups are assigned the responsibility of organising a function. If the tasks are not allocated specifically, there can be confusion, which may lead to intergroup conflict

- Competitive reward systems:

If both the groups are working towards the accomplishment of a certain task and one group is rewarded for performance, while the other group is excluded from reward, intergroup conflict may arise.

- Status struggle (Battle for power):

If one group attempts to improve its status and another views this as a threat, then conflict may arise. These groups and their leaders struggle for power and superiority. Dahrendorf (1965) also indicates that the battle for power is a major source of conflict in intergroup encounters. In Chapter 4, paragraph 4.5.1 Departments correlate with item B10. Seventy-one percent of respondents of HR, 67% of Environmental, 100% of Production, 75% of IT, 80% of Geology, 100% of Construction and 100% of respondents of Ventilation indicated that misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict in the mining organisation. Moreover, this empirical evidence highlights the point that battle for power and power abuses are major sources of conflict in organisations.

- Common causes of conflict:

The most commonly occurring sources of conflict can be many and varied, depending on the type of organisation, employees and management. Payne and Cooper (1987) indicate that the following are common causes of intergroup conflict in most organisations:

- scarcity of sources (finance, equipment, facilities etc.)
- different attitudes, values or perceptions

- disagreements about needs, goals, priorities and interests
- poor communication
- poor or inadequate organisational structure
- lack of teamwork
- lack of clarity regarding roles and responsibilities.

Wallace and Wallace (1989) point out three aspects, which can contribute to intergroup conflict in an organisation, namely:

Visible Differences

Prominent similarities or differences can mould relations between groups. Assimilation is more likely to occur where a substantial similarity exists between groups in contact in the organisation. People of different backgrounds and culture may form groups and feel closer to each other than other cultures or backgrounds. In the organisation, one can see this in that the top management form groups and lower class workers form their own groups.

Racist Ideology and Affirmative action

Conflict can arise when different parties have different perceptions about the same topic (Bendeman, 2003). This difference in perceptions might lead to prejudice, discrimination and bias. Some groups may feel they are inherently better than other groups because of the colour of their skin. Thus a group believes the other group is inferior and has inferior ability. Some groups might be of opinion that black groups are naturally inferior to white groups in the organisation. Moreover, Affirmative Action policies can be a source of intergroup conflict in organisations because some groups might feel discriminated against. In the South African context, this plays a major part in the organisation. Non-designated employees feel discriminated against.

In paragraph 4.8.1, item B-3, more than 51.9% of respondents indicated that racial differences are a source of conflict. In paragraph 4.8.1, item B-1, more than

51.9% of the respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict and in paragraph 4.11.3.1, item B-1 correlated with home language, 75% of Afrikaans respondents and 63% of English respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while 38% of African language respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict. This is an indication that Afrikaans and English-speaking people feel that Affirmative action is a major source of conflict.

Potential for exploitation

One group might see the opportunity for exploitation in other groups. This exploitation might take place when top management gives all the work to middle management and exploits them in doing so. This might also happen when one group sees itself as the superior group in the organisation and that it can therefore exploit the inferior group.

2.9.2 Structural sources of intergroup conflict

From the work of Nelson and Quick (2006), it is clear that certain structures in an organisation will create conflict. Nelson and Quick (2006) as well as Greenberg and Baron (1995) identify the following structural sources of intergroup conflict in organisations:

-Specialisation

If jobs are highly specialised, the employees performing the tasks become very professional in what they do. Nelson and Quick mention that sales people and engineers are an example of conflict because of specialisation. The engineers and the sales people all have specialised jobs but are not aware of the other group's tasks which they have to perform. While the sales people make unrealistic delivery dates, which the engineers cannot achieve, the engineers do not understand this marketing id the sales people's livelihood and they must make these promises in order to get the sales and visa versa.

- Resources

According to Marx (1965), Sherif (1966), Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), Wallace and Wallace (1989) and Brown (2004), scarce resources are seen as a major source of conflict and intergroup conflict in an organisation. If different parties share resources, a strong possibility for conflict arises. If the resources become scarce, the conflict will become greater and deescalate. Marx and Dahrendorf indicate this as a main source of conflict.

Bartos and Wehr (2002) explain that there are three main types of resources, which are contested and fought over in an organisation.

- The first type is wealth. Wealth includes money and power. If the group has more money than the other groups, it can expand its operations and acquire better operations and equipment to perform its task. The poorer group will struggle to compete with the wealthy group because it has the wealth.
- Another important part of wealth is power. Dahrendorf (1965) and Deustch and Coleman (2000) indicate in their research that power plays a major role in conflict. The battle for power will lead to dysfunctional intergroup conflict. In an organisation it is important to have power. The group that holds the power holds the ascendancy over the other groups. A powerful group can become too powerful and this will lead to conflict with other groups who seek this ever-growing power.
- Bartos and Wehr (2002) also indicate that the struggle for prestige in the organisation would lead to intergroup conflict. When a group has more prestige than other groups these lesser groups will strive to achieve such success and prestige. This will lead to intergroup conflict. Prestige includes a tough and fearless reputation, respect and esteem. Prestige is linked to power. A group that is highly respected can have great power. These groups with high prestige can have group ideals, norms and ideas that differ from those of other groups. This might also lead to intergroup conflict.

In the empirical evidence in paragraph 4.8.1, 51.9% of respondents indicated that availability of resources is a source of conflict, while 38% of respondents indicated that uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict. Moreover, this empirical evidence supports the above-mentioned literature.

-Goal Differences

It often happens that groups have different goals. When groups have different goals, they might be conflicting with those of the other group. This can occur when groups or teams do not have the knowledge or are not informed of the objectives or goals of the other teams or groups in the organisation. In Chapter 4, paragraph 4.9.1, item B8, 48.1% of the respondents indicated that both the extent and contents of their work are sources of conflict, hence supporting the literature finding that unclear contents of work or unclear goals will lead to conflict.

-Authority relationships

The nature of a traditional boss-employee relationship brings to mind a vision of a hierarchy or of a boss who is superior to the employee. For many employees this is not a relationship, which is comfortable, because another individual has the right to tell them what to do. Some people resent authority more than others, and obviously this creates conflict.

2.9.3 Personal factors as sources of intergroup conflict

Nelson and Quick (2006) identify the following personal factors as sources of intergroup conflict:

-Personalities

When an individual enters the organisation or group, he or she brings with them a certain personality. Personality conflicts are realities in organisations. These

different personalities of the individuals in different groups can lead to personality clashes, which will lead to tension and conflict.

-Values and ethics

Certain personal as well as group values and ethics can lead to intergroup conflict. This can include work ethics, personal ethics, group values, religious ethics as well as cultural ethics and values. When intergroup conflict about values or ethics does arise, heated disagreement is common because of the personal nature of the difference.

-Emotions

The moods of individuals in the group and organisation can be a source of conflict within groups. Problems at home often spill over into the workplace and the related moods can be difficult for other individuals in the organisation to deal with.

-Communication barriers

Barriers in communication within and between groups in the organisation can lead to intergroup conflict. Barriers in communication can lead to the wrong message going through and communication channels being shut down.

2.9.4 Diversity as a source of intergroup conflict

Nowadays, diversity plays an important role in the organisation. Many groups in organisations have diverse members, backgrounds and cultures. Diversity has been shown to play a crucial role in both how groups will define and evaluate their group membership, and how they will 'maintain a positively valued distinctiveness from other groups' (Turner, 1978). From empirical evidence in paragraph 4.9.1, item B-2, 50% of respondents indicated that culture is a source of conflict, emphasising that diversity can be a source of conflict in an organisation.

It is important to view diversity as a source of intergroup conflict, especially in the South African organisational context. In organisations in South Africa, diversity plays a very huge role because of the demographics of the population and the changing face of employment relations and organisations after democracy. In South Africa, many more diverse groups can exist in the organisation and this creates new challenges for management. If management can understand diversity in groups and diversity as a source of intergroup conflict, it may lead to better employment relations (Schultz, et al, 2004).

According to Luthans (1992), research evidence has shown that gender may affect intergroup behaviour. Research has shown that men and woman can have the same skills in dealing with conflict. However, women tend to seek changes in future behaviour, while men tend to press for quicker and easier results. In paragraph 4.11.1.2, seventy-four percent of male respondents indicated that they are willing to participate in a training programme, while 91% of female respondents indicated that they are willing to participate in such a training programme. This correlates with the statement of Luthans, namely that women seek changes in future conflict behaviours.

Turner and Brown (1978) show in an intergroup setting that a group in an organisation which is seen to be different and which is more diverse than the other group may be seen as a threat to some groups. The diverse group might have a status that differs from that of the other group and this difference in lower and higher status might lead to conflict. In Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.5.1, Departments correlated with item B2. All (100%) of the respondents of the Financial, Communication and Seismic separately indicated that Culture is a source of conflict. Also 65% respondents of the HR department indicated identically. This shows that diversity might lead to conflict in an organisation.

Turner and Brown (1978) maintain that the relative status of the groups and perceived alternatives to the interaction situation could explain both groups' reactions either to preserve or to restore positive group distinctiveness. Conflict makes group boundaries more salient and raises both ethical questions of social justice and practical questions of strategy. The group's power and its perceptions of power, legitimacy and stability then become most important for understanding the group's members' attitudes and behaviours (Monteiro, 2003).

Terry and O'Brien (2001) indicate that, in some instances when organisational mergers occur, it can lead to even more intergroup conflict. The merger will lead to employees joining a new group with new members and new leaders. This group can be more diverse than the old group, which includes members of different races and a diverse group culture. High status and lower status groups can be formed.

Cartwright and Cooper (1992) state that this change in the group and its newly found diversity may lead to negative reactions within it. This may lead to hostility and distrust and to these negative intergroup responses probably endangering the success of the merger (Blake & Mouton, 1984).

Terry and O'Brien (2001) indicate that the employees who join the low status group after the merger feel disadvantaged and may instigate a rivalry with the other groups. The distinctiveness of the new group is this most important aspect. The new group with the lower status or higher status will do anything to protect its newly found status, distinctiveness and diversity (Monteiro, 2003).

Roy (2006) states that, in a large organisation, there can be conflict and friction between different groups of machine operators. Recognition of the co-variation between work activity and quality of resources must be taken into consideration. If the one group has better resources, for instance operating tools, this can

create friction and may lead to intergroup conflict between the machine operators.

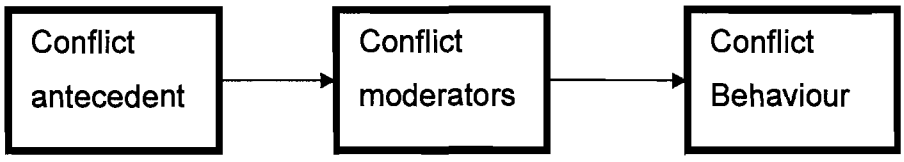
Summarizing the above, it can be stated that there are many sources of intergroup conflict. Some of these are more visible in organisations than other sources. Competition and the battle for scarce resources are frequent sources of intergroup conflict. Marx and Dahrendorf also indicate competition and scarce resources as sources of conflict, while the realistic conflict theory states that competition leads to intergroup conflict. Diversity is a major source of intergroup conflict and the growing trend of diverse organisations in South Africa may lead to more frequent intergroup conflicts.

2.9.5 Antecedents, Conflict Aggravators and moderators for intergroup conflict

2.9.5.1 Antecedents of intergroup conflict

Certain conflict situations produce more conflict than others. Intergroup conflict can escalate in such a manner that it is nearly impossible to manage it. It is important to understand the antecedents of intergroup conflict and conflict moderators when the conflict manifests in dysfunctional intergroup conflict (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Knowing these processes will help the organisation and management in understanding the conflict behaviour which occurs in the organisation because of these processes.

Figure 2.3 Development of conflict



Source: Anstey (1999)

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2005) and Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly, (2000), the following are antecedents of intergroup conflict:

- Conflicting personalities and value systems
- Unclear job restrictions
- Competition for scarce resources
- Intergroup competition
- Miscommunication
- Interdependent tasks
- Organizational difficulty
- Unreasonable deadlines or extreme time pressure
- Collective decision making
- Decision making through compromise
- Unrealistic expectations
- Unresolved or concealed conflicts

Anstey (1999) and Moore (1986) emphasise that the following such as scarce resources, differing goals, drives for autonomy, power/authority imbalances, ambiguity or interdependence may also be seen as antecedents of intergroup conflicts.

According to Koortzen and Wrogemann (2003), common antecedents of intergroup conflict in an organisation seem to be the following:

- A disregard for inner authority and importance placed on external and positional power.
- A subject of power not being recognised until it is conferred from management
- Unclear task boundaries and confused boundaries of delegation and responsibility
- Higher authorities such as management can take inconsistent actions

- A tendency to maintain the confusion, with the workforce reacting by keeping very busy, with a focus on "getting it right"
- A flight into an administration focus
- Keeping boundaries confused on when work is good enough or when performance is up to standard
- Groups can be encouraged to "prove themselves" but then this process is not acknowledged
- Allowing the above areas of confusion to continue by reinforcing this from the leadership groups

Problems with intergroup relations can be rooted back to clarity of goals and processes. It is possible that a junior group in the organisation experiences this lack of clarity in its tasks; thus leading it to trying to stay dependent of other groups. The junior groups who feel dependent of others feel they must relate to other groups in terms of hierarchy. The groups might feel that they must relate to each other in terms of the hierarchy of the groups. However, while this occurs, the group knows they are better skilled and competent than the group with the higher so-called organisational hierarchy. This dependence on groups with higher hierarchy might lead to splits in the group itself and between them and other groups. The normal reaction with this split is intergroup hostilities. Group members who experience this may have feelings of anxiety and stress. The groups might feel anxious to work with groups with a higher hierarchy in the organisation (Koortzen & Wrogemann, 2003).

Homans (1974) is convinced that the main reason for intergroup conflict is injustice. Intergroup conflict mostly occurs because groups influence individual members. This influence occurs in such a way that individuals' behaviour is shaped in a way that it can be seen as acceptable to the group (Havenga, 2004).

2.9.5.2 Conflict Aggravators and moderators

In Figure 2.3 Anstey (1999) indicates that it is important to know the antecedents and moderators of conflict in order to predict conflict behaviour. Anstey indicates that the following are conflict aggravators and moderators in organisations:

- High aspirations
- Perceptions
- History of relations
- Use of strategies
- Constituencies
- Struggling groups
- internal coherence
- acceptable forming and procedures
- shared conflict-limiting norms
- extent of grievance and threat
- strength of social bonds
- cross-cutting group membership
- balance of power
- certainty
- strong social controls
- deterrent capacity

It is important to understand and identify the antecedents, moderators and aggravators of intergroup conflict. This will create a situation whereby management can analyse and evaluate the conflict, and identify the reason or source of the conflict.

2.10. Processes promoting intergroup conflict escalation

According to Pruitt and Rubin (1986) and Kriesberg (1973), there are different processes which can enhance intergroup conflict. It is important to identify these processes in order to establish why the conflict in the organisation escalates into dysfunctional intergroup conflict.

Conflicting parties may accomplish a feeling of gratification from a use of coercive tactics and inspiration through new challenges. A group can also become overly satisfied with its achievements, tactics and challenges and this will lead to moderate gratification opportunities (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 2000). If one group uses extreme coercive tactics, and the group members have approved the tactics, it will lead to a strong counteraction from the opposing group; thus leading too much more intergroup conflict (Kriesberg, 1973).

Pruitt and Rubin (1986) explain that the term *entrapment* describes this occurrence. "It is a special form of escalation in which the parties extend more of their time, energy, money, or other resources in the conflict than seems appropriate or justifiable by external standards." (p. 122.) This will largely promote intergroup conflict.

Stroh (2002) identified the following intergroup processes that occur in groups that can lead to changes in behaviour of these groups:

- Group cohesiveness increases
- Task orientation increases
- Loyalty to the group increases
- Acceptance of autocratic leadership increases
- Distorted perceptions and goals occur
- Negative stereotypes are generated concerning the other group
- Communication between the groups decreases

2.10.1 Intergroup Communication

Communication is the key between groups in reciprocal interdependence, and this has the highest negative consequences for lack of effective communication. Miscommunication can be the death knell of any organization (Belak, 1998; Takaks, 2002).

If there are poor communication networks in the group, it can imply that the receiver of the message interprets it wrongly and this can lead to misunderstandings and this again may lead to conflict. Communication is very important and plays a vital role in the achievement of organisational and group goals. Once intergroup conflict emerges, significant changes occur within the opposing groups (Fielding, 2003).

Management is an important part of communication. Every managerial function and activity involves some form of direct or indirect communication – whether planning and organizing or directing others. Importantly, effective communication is critical for both managerial, group and organizational success. Lack of communication might lead to conflict and increase costs in the organisation. Managers need more than good interpersonal skills to effectively communicate in today's workplace (Gudykunst, 1986).

Good communication does not assure conflict resolution. Indeed, research has shown that in certain cases, communication can actually worsen bargaining outcomes. However, poor communication is very likely to exacerbate conflicts. Good communication, coupled with a genuine desire to resolve a conflict and with quality proposals, makes conflict resolution more likely (Deutsch & Coleman, 2000; Takaks, 2002). Managers and groups should be able to communicate at an interpersonal level as well as an organizational level (Gudykunst, 1986).

2.10.3.2 Conflict and cohesion

The strength of the bonds linking members to one another and to their group is defined as group cohesion (Forsyth, 2005). Internal cohesion often increases in groups engaged in conflict (Larson & Lafasto, 1989). Cohesiveness is a process whereby a sense of "we-ness" emerges to transcend individual differences and motives (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Group cohesion is the attraction of the group, morale or level of motivation by the group members and the coordination of efforts by group members (Shaw, 1971). Cohesion can be seen from an affective perspective; thus members of the group are interpersonally attracted to each other. Cohesion can also be visualized as "attraction to collectivity" in contrast with the individuals who make up that grouping. For example, some people maintain membership in groups that provide status or other impersonal rewards, although they do not particularly like other group members. Thus cohesion shifts away from simple interpersonal liking (Rutzburg, 1999).

Through the group, cohesion and group members remain motivated towards the group and its goals (Hilton, 1971). Members of highly cohesive groups are more energetic in group activities and they are less likely to be absent from meetings and happy when the team succeeds and sad when it fails. The level of attraction to the group creates stronger cohesiveness. The cohesiveness of the group has been supposed to influence a wide range of group activities, but perhaps its most significant influence is on group maintenance (Shaw, 1971; Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 2000).

Increases in cohesiveness create better group performance. This also goes hand to hand with the group's capacity to retain its members (Forsyth, 2005). Cohesiveness contributes to a group's or team's potency and vitality; it also increases the significance of membership for those who belong to the group or team (Cartwright, 1968).

A group's cohesion can fluctuate over time, depending on its longevity and stage of development. Members of a cohesive group stick together. They are reluctant to leave the group. Cohesive members stick together because they enjoy each other's company and because they need to accomplish a common goal (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005).

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), there are two types of group cohesion:

- Socio-emotional cohesiveness - In this type the group or team members derive emotional satisfaction from group participation.
- Instrumental cohesiveness - This develops when members are mutually dependent on one another because they believe they could not achieve the group's goal by acting sedately.

William Sumner, in Brown (2004), suggests that there is a direct and functional link between intergroup conflict and cohesion.

Sumner summarises it as follows:

> The relation of comradeship and peace in the we-group and that of hostility and war towards others-groups are correlative of each other. The exigencies of war with outsiders are what make peace inside, lest internal discord should weaken the we-group for war. (p. 12.)

Group and team cohesion will lead to better relations and performance in the group and team. Thus the one group can perform better than other groups and this may lead to intergroup conflict. A problem with cohesion is that groups become so cohesive and tightly bound that they start seeing other groups as the enemies. This feeling of "we-ness" which is created can manifest in us against them. Through cohesion, the in-group can feel invincible and see other groups as

inferior to them (Rutzberg, 1999). If cohesion in the group increases, it might lead to cooperation between groups decreasing and conflict escalating. Cohesion can have destructive effects on intergroup relations. However, cohesion can create superior performance and maintenance of the team and group and it is important to stimulate cohesion in order to achieve this superior performance (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005; Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 2000).

It is clear that cohesion pays a vital role in the manifestation of intergroup conflict. Cohesion can be seen as negative in certain circumstances. However, cohesion is a much more constructive force for the organisation and the group. If the group channels its cohesion in the right manner and creates positive competition and cooperation, it will stimulate much better intergroup relations and less intergroup conflict (Brown, 2004).

2.10.3.3 Group differentiation and Organisational Identity

Organisational identity has been based on the social identity theory, which states that it is group membership that determines and changes people's attitudes and behaviours towards in-group and out-group members (Turner, 1999). One can define the Social identity theory as follows, according to Wallace and Wallace (1989): It is "(a) theoretical analysis of group processes and intergroup relations that assumes that a group influences its members' self-concepts and self-esteem, particularly when individuals categorize themselves as group members and identify strongly with the group" (p.90). Through identification, members of groups recognize how similar they are to other members of the group (Forsyth, 2005).

Individuals in the group classify themselves as members of the group, which can distinguish them from other groups. The members of the group have different perceptions in the way they see the members of the other group (Enns & Rotundo, 2004). The groups form their own identity coinciding with the identity of

the organisation. The organisation has a specific Organizational identity, but the individual group also creates its own identity, which can be seen and perceived as different from other groups in the organisation's identities (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Because of the interdependence of teams and groups and the need to cooperate with other teams and groups in the organisation, it is imperative to understand that every group has its own identity, which must be accepted by the other groups in order to facilitate sound intergroup relations (Enns & Rotundo, 2004).

Where intergroup conflict occurs, both within group identity and between group boundaries are strengthened and reinforced (Wallace & Wallace, 1989). Some collectivistic groups tolerate conflict, while others strive for harmony. Individual differences are obvious in collectivism. In individuals who are interdependent rather than independent and different members of certain ethnic groups is an example of this (Forsyth, 2005).

The interdependents put the group's goals above their own, while independents put their goals above those of the group. Independents are more likely to engage in conventional behaviours and seek social acceptance. People's readiness to join groups also varies in according with racial, ethnic and gender categories. People of these ethnic groups who are in the minority at times tend to identify themselves with the majority (Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

In some cases, this does not happen like in South Africa. Here the majority strives to identify with the minority. In western cultures, women strive for more connections with other people and in contrast, men strive for independence and autonomy. When certain people join groups and switch from another group, they not only change their allegiance, but also their identity (Forsyth, 2005).

Social identification also affects the group's members' self-worth. Identification blurs the boundary between the individual and the group. If the group succeed,

the person in the group also succeeds. If the group fails, its failure can provoke negative feelings in the group members and negative feelings in the out-group (Cragan, et al, 2004). When the presence of an out-group directly challenges the value of belonging to an in-group (as is the case in intergroup conflict), in-group members experience a threat to the value of their group, prompting them to protect their social identity and defend the value of the group (Mackie, Devos & Smith, 2000). Research demonstrates that when faced with a threat to value, in-group members will engage in more intergroup conflict and in-group favouritism in order to change the intergroup situation and thus maintain their positive social identities (Tyler & Blader, 2001). Research demonstrates that in-group members who feel threatened will engage in more out-group derogation than the members of the group facing no threat (Branscombe & Wann, 1994; Esses, Jackson, & Armstrong, 1998).

To summarize, cohesion plays a major part in the manifestation of intergroup conflict. With cohesion comes leadership and the leadership in the group and the organisation are very important with the forming and manifestation in intergroup conflict. Communication can be a source of intergroup conflict but also be a process in the manifestation of the conflict. It is important to manage open channels of communication between groups in the organisation. It is also important to note that group and organisational identity forms a major part of intergroup conflict. A group or team can create its own identity, which can be unique and different from other groups.

2.11 Factors affecting intergroup relations and stimulating intergroup conflict

For intergroup performance to be successful, certain factors need to occur and coordination needs to take place. Management must be aware of these processes in order to understand the occurrence and manifestation of intergroup conflict (Blake, et al, 1968).

2.11.1 The emergence of group structure, leadership and normative rules in forming intergroup conflict

According to Forsyth (2005) leadership, group structure and normative rules is of vital importance in the creation and forming of intergroup conflict. Moreover, this stresses the importance to discuss and assess the above-mentioned intergroup processes.

2.11.1.1 Leadership

The terms *leadership* and *leader* are connected to each other, but the one indicates a process and the other a person. Leadership is communication, which influences a group positively to move in the direction of the group's goals (Galanes, Adams & Brilhart, 2004).

Kreitner and Kinicki (2005) point out that group leaders need to do the following:

- Leaders must create a relationship of reciprocal influence.
- Leaders create mutual trust between the leader and members.
- The leader must create respect and liking in the group.
- The leader must create a sense of common fate.

According to Larson and Lafasto (1989), a team leader has to avoid compromising the team's efforts with too many personal goals. The leader must also avoid compromising the team's objectives with political issues. It is important for the leader to exhibit personal commitment to the team's goals. The leader must not dilute the team's goals with too many priorities. A leader must also be fair and impartial towards all team members and be willing to confront and resolve issues associated with inadequate performance by team members.

Lastly, the leader must be open to new ideas and information from team members.

The group leader has a huge responsibility to coordinate processes. He/she must try to keep every group member happy and satisfied and at the same time try to maintain harmony. He/she must know how to manage conflict so that it has a positive rather that a negative effect (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). In paragraph 4.9.1, item B-10, 61.1% of the respondents indicated that misuse of power by group leaders is a source of conflict. This emphasises the importance of the necessity of good leadership in intergroup relations.

Blake, et al (1968) explain that it is important for a group to have a prominent leader. This type of leader will help the group deal with intergroup conflict and intergroup relations. A good leader will facilitate coordination and cooperation, as well as good employment relations between groups and management. If the group's leader does not have control over his or her members, intergroup conflict can escalate and intergroup relation might fail.

2.11.1.2 Group structure

It is vital in intergroup relations for a group to have a good structure. Roles, norms, beliefs, values attitude and goals must clearly be identified. This will help group members to understand the group and help them identify with the group. If a group has no structure, it may lead to intergroup relations deteriorating and intergroup conflict escalating. The formation of a clear group structure is vital to the success of intergroup relations, and the success of the group itself (Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993; Esses, Jackson, & Armstrong (1998).

2.11.1.3 Normal rules guiding group behaviour

Rules that specify group behaviour and interactions with group members and out-group members are very important. Groups normally set up these rules so that group members can know how to interact with fellow group members and out-group members. If the individual in the group does not adhere to these rules, the group might pressure him or her into submission. Groups normally set up rules for the interaction with out-groups in order to ensure the safekeeping of their goals, beliefs, values and needs. Too much interaction with the out-group might lead to individuals adopting new beliefs, attitudes, values and norms (Payne & Cooper, 1987).

Group members who violate important norms and rules of the group, and especially outsiders, who offend these ideals and norms in some way, normally receive some type of corrective or defensive response. Relationships between groups often reflect the opinions, ideals, norms and rules they hold of each other (Esses, Jackson, & Armstrong, 1998). When groups share the same interests and their direction seems to be parallel, each group may view the other group in a positive manner. However, if the activities and goals of groups differ, they may view each other in a negative manner (Payne & Cooper, 1987).

2.11.2 Interdependence, task uncertainty, time and goal orientation

Interdependence, task uncertainty and time and goal orientation play an important role in the coordination of intergroup relations (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001; Tjosvold, 1978).

2.11.2.1 Interdependence

According to Brown (2004), when thinking about intergroup conflict in the workplace, it is important to understand a little about group (and individual) relationships. In paragraph 4.10.3, item D-6, 47% of respondents indicated that it

is important for groups and departments to function interdependently, thus concurring with the literature.

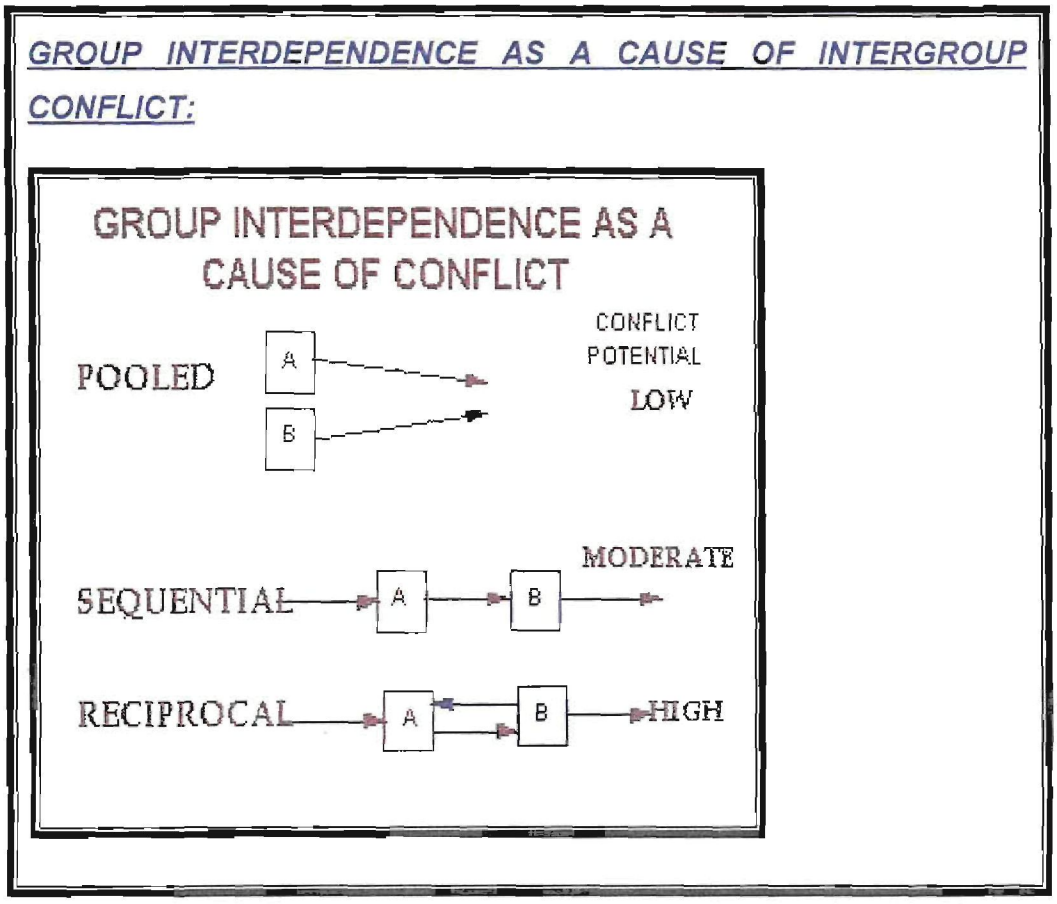
The following types of interdependence occur within and between groups:

- **Pooled interdependence** indicates that groups are largely independent of each other even though they both support organisational goals. The groups function virtually independently but their combined output contributes to the organisation's overall goal (Belak, 1998). In a large organisation, this can be vital where groups have to combine efforts to reach the goal of the organisation (Robbins, 1996).
- **Sequential interdependence** shows that the output of one group becomes input for the other. The one group depends on the other group for output but this dependency is only one way. This can be seen when a manufacturing team is dependent on purchasing but the team who does the purchases does not depend on the manufacturing team (Neal, 2003). With sequential interdependence, the onus is on the group who provides the input. If this group does not perform its job, the other group who is dependent on the input will experience difficulties performing its task. This might lead to lack of performance and finally intergroup conflict (Robbins, 1996).
- **Reciprocal interdependence** indicates that two or more groups depend on each other for input. This is the most complex form of interdependence. The groups exchange inputs and outputs. There is a high level of interdependence in reciprocal interdependence (Takaks, 2002). The groups, which are interdependent, cannot perform their task and be successful without the other group. This scale of dependency translates into greater interaction and increased coordination demands (Roy, 2006). From empirical evidence in paragraph 4.11.4.3, Qualifications correlated with item D6, more than 78% of respondents with postgraduate qualifications indicated that interdependence is important between groups and departments; thus indicating that these respondents

understand the importance of interdependence because of the scope of their qualifications and type of work.

It is evident that interdependence is a process that can affect intergroup conflict. It is also vital to understand the importance of interdependence in intergroup relations (Rutzburg, 1999). From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4. 11. 2. 3, Tenure correlated with item D6, only twenty-five percent of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that interdependence between departments is necessary, while 25% were unsure. This emphasises that not all employees understand the importance of interdependence; thus stimulating the occurrence of dysfunctional intergroup conflict.

Figure 2. 4 The conflict potential of Group interdependence



Source: Rutzberg (1999) and Robbins (1996)

Figure 2.4 portrays the levels of potential conflict every type of interdependence entails. From Figure 2.4 it becomes clear that reciprocal interdependence is the process with the highest possibility of conflict.

2.11.2.2 Task uncertainty

Group tasks can range from routine to nonroutine. These routine tasks have little variation and are easily understood by group members. If there are problems, it can be solved easily. However, on the other extreme are nonroutine tasks. These tasks are unstructured activities which can be very difficult to analyze. The key aspect to solving task uncertainty is to analyze and process as much information as possible. This will lead to better information and the nonroutine tasks can become easier to analyze and perform (Robbins, 1996).

2.11.2.3 Time and goal orientation

Different groups that have to work with each other can have different goals and time frames. This creates difficulties in intergroup cooperation because the group has different perceptions. Certain group's members have different skills, competencies and specialities. When these group and its members have to work with other groups it can be difficult because of this differences. Coordination and interaction between groups can grow increasingly difficult. Certain groups can have a long-term objective and focus, while others have short-term goals and objectives (Robbins, 1996).

It is important to take all the above-mentioned factors into consideration when intergroup relations and conflict occur. These factors such as group norms, group structure, leadership, task uncertainty and interdependence play a major role in intergroup coordination and cooperation. If there is a coordination shortage, intergroup competition may lead to intergroup conflict. Brown (2004) states that coordination is vital to the occurrence of intergroup cooperation.

2.12 Consequences of Intergroup conflict

Enns and Rotundo (2005) state that "Conflict between groups in organisations is an undeniable facet of organisational life. With the growth of team-based organizations, it is important to know the effects or consequences of conflict between groups on intergroup relations, especially in terms of behaviours between groups" (p. 2).

Wallace and Wallace (1989) state that intergroup conflict may lead to violence between groups and rising stress, lack of work performance in conflicting groups, industrial strikes, and degradation of communication in the organisation and finally the termination of relations between conflicting groups and employees of the organisation. Anstey (1999), Blake, et al (1968) and Marx (1965) all contend that competition is a source of conflict in organisations. Many organisations encourage competition but this can manifest in dysfunctional intergroup conflict, which may lead to heightened anxiety, mistrust and hostility, feelings of incompetence and powerlessness in a group (Koortzen & Wrogemann, 2003). Robbins (1996) and Neal (2003) emphasize that when intergroup conflict arises, employees have several choices, which may lead to certain consequences.

Employees may take the following steps:

- leave the company and join other competitor organisations
- work hard to climb corporate ladder and this can lead to employees leaving the company and creating tensions in the organisation
- adapt to a defend and adapt strategy (Neal, 2003)
- defend all their decisions and might adapt to changing organisational circumstances
- disassociation psychologically can also occur when intergroup conflict arises
- may lose interest in their work and working performance might be lowered which in turn leads to lower production standards (Robbins, 1996).

In Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.2, item D3, 64.8% of the respondents indicated that intergroup conflict would affect productivity in a negative manner. This means that most of the respondents see intergroup conflict affecting productivity negatively and supporting the research of Robbins stating that intergroup conflict will lead to a drop in productivity.

Some of these consequences might initially seem positive. However, the positive attitude will change over time and it will lead to barriers between groups, which will prevent communication and cooperation between the groups (Neal, 2003).

In paragraph 4.10.1, item C-5, more than 42.6% of respondents indicated that they consider a job change when experiencing conflict. This is an indication of the devastating consequences dysfunctional conflict can attain. Moreover, in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.2.2, Tenure correlated with item C5, 90% of respondents with 26-30 year tenure said they do not consider a job change, while none indicated yes. In contrast, 54% of respondents with 1-10 years' tenure indicated that they do consider a job change when experiencing intergroup conflict.

Fifty-eight percent of respondents with more than 31 years' tenure also consider a job change when experiencing intergroup conflict. This can lead to severe consequences when the most experienced employees vacate their posts. This is an indication that intergroup conflict can entail very serious consequences for any organisation.

Intergroup conflict has the following positive and negative consequences for group dynamics and the employment relationship as seen by Outreach studies (1998) and Neal (2003):

Table 2.1 Consequences of Intergroup conflict

• *Positive Consequences*	• *Negative Consequences*
Changes within groups- The groups can perceive external threats as very serious, which in turn may lead to group cohesiveness.	**Negative attitudes** - It may lead to hostility between the rival groups, the rival group is considered the enemy, and reasons are found for disliking the group members. Intergroup conflict may be resolved but dislike often lingers between the group members of rival groups.
Rise of autocratic leadership - A strong decisive leader is thought to be the best option in difficult situations such as intergroup conflict.	**Distorted perceptions** - One group overemphasize its own contribution and de-emphasize the other group's importance. This can be the case in conflict between unions and management (union group is greedy; management is inhumane and anti-union).
Goals of the group are to ensure member support, member efforts and fundamental leadership during a predicament - this may lead to the group responding quicker to the tasks and pushes harder to capture the initiative from the conflicting group.	**Decreased communication** - As mentioned earlier by Belak (1998) and Gudykunst (1986) communication can deteriorate. The rival groups may be of opinion that there is no reason to talk to the rival group. The other groups' members are labelled "them", thus heightening the conflict and making resolution difficult.
Improved concentration on assignments- The group will spend much less time nonchalantly and will be much more productive. The main objective will become to defeat the other group, or the "enemy".	**Increased surveillance** - One group tries to gather more information on the other: Who are our allies? What are they up to? What is their next move? What is their weak point? Group members feel this type of information is essential to stay ahead.

Neal (2003) indicates that intergroup conflict might lead to employees just concentrating on material rewards and no longer enjoying work. Another major consequence of intergroup conflict might be strikes, slow downs, sabotage; these processes may help employees to strike back at management but do not solve

the problems. Callahan, Fleenor and Knudson (1986) stress that intergroup conflict can affect groups in certain ways. If the conflict passed and one group is the winner and the other the loser, the following might occur: The winning group will retain its cohesion and may even become more cohesive. Intragroup cooperation might also increase, while work and task goals and achievements might decrease. The winning group can become complacent and feel that the negative stereotype of the losing group is justified.

Sherif (1966) argues that if the group lose the argument and feels that it should have won it, the decisions might have been biased towards it. The losing group tends to splinter up, unresolved conflicts might emerge, fighting breaks out and the group might disband. The losing group's stress level is higher and the group members frequently search for someone to blame. The losing group might also experience low levels of intragroup cooperation. If the losing group realizes the realistic nature of the conflict outcome and learn from mistakes, the group might regroup, become more cohesive, effective and create better intergroup relations with the other groups in the organisation (Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

The realization that intergroup conflict might lead to dire consequences can help management into understanding the problem and creating remedies and solutions for dysfunctional intergroup conflict.

2.13 Conclusion

The realistic conflict theory was discussed in this chapter and it identified conflict between groups and competition for scarce resources as main reasons for conflict. It is also evident that one must strive towards eliminating and reducing intergroup conflict. As indicated, Karl Marx stresses that the only way for change is through conflict and ultimately revolution. On the other hand, Sherif (1966) emphasises that the only way to resolve conflict is through intergroup cooperation. Furthermore, conflict exists between classes or groups and is regulated by the distribution of power in the organisation.

Intergroup conflict was defined as was the different types of intergroup conflict, elements of conflict, dysfunctional, functional intergroup conflict, conflict aggravators, and sources, antecedents of intergroup conflict and processes which have an influence on intergroup conflict.

It is clear that intergroup conflict can be very complex and destructive. However, it can be constructive. Certain types of intergroup conflict occur in the organisation which must be identified in order to understand why the conflict occurs. Intergroup conflict consists of many sources and antecedents which can be hard to identify and difficult to understand, but it is vital to management to understand this in order to deal with the intergroup conflict.

Certain aspects such as leadership, cohesion, communication and interdependence can stimulate and affect intergroup relations, intergroup coordination, intergroup cooperation and intergroup conflict. These processes can stimulate conflict and lead to conflict escalation. Management must identify these processes and handle it in a sensitive and efficient manner.

In the next chapter of this study, intergroup conflict and the correlation with employment relations will be looked into. The ultimate goal of the organisation must be to create functional outcomes for intergroup conflict and resolve dysfunctional intergroup conflict in order to create sound employment relations.

Chapter 3
Employment relations wellness and intergroup conflict

3.1 Introduction

For purposes of this study it is important to note that employees who experience intergroup conflict may not be of the same workgroup or team but can have the same intergroup conflict experience. It is also important to note that employment relations and intergroup relations can be linked together. The primary objective of this chapter is to determine correlations between the experience of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness

It is difficult for an organisation to keep on being competitive in changing economic environments. Aspects such as globalisation, new technology and affirmative action policies can create new challenges. Management must be flexible in its thinking and decision making as well as willing to accept change. Good employment relations can be seen as the new competitive edge in organisation in a world of uncertainty. It is important that there should be a good flow of sound employment relations between the workforce and unions (Acas, 2003).

Hewstone and Brown (1986) indicate that employment relations between groups play a major role in the organisation's functioning. If conflict escalates between groups, the employment relations will deteriorate and so will the intergroup relations. **Hewstone and Brown also indicate that there is a fine line between healthy employment relations and intergroup relations. The occurrence of intergroup conflict might lead to the deterioration of this fine line between**

employment relations and intergroup relations. This statement can be linked with the problem statement of this study, namely:

Dysfunctional intergroup conflict influences the functioning of the organisation in such a manner that it can severely hamper sound employment relations.

The affects of intergroup conflict on employment relations will be evaluated in this chapter. Intergroup conflict manifests in various processes as seen in Chapter 2. The correlation of intergroup conflict, intergroup relations and employment relations wellness is very important in the organisation.

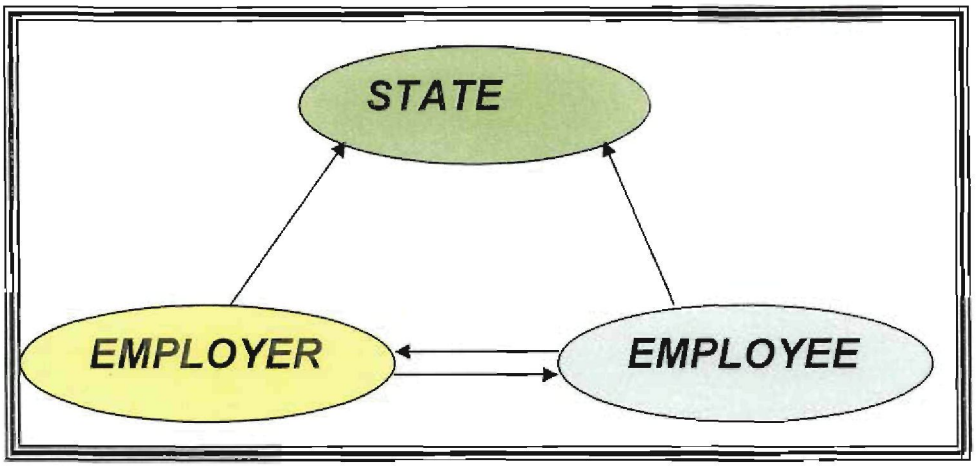
3.2 Defining employment relations wellness

3.2.1 Employment relations

According to Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, Erasmus, and Tsabadi, (2004), employment relations can be defined as follows:

> Employment relations refers to a complex, open system of formal and informal as well as individual and collective relationships and interactions between employers, employees and the state, and the representatives of these primary role-playing parties, together with its related institutions that emanates from, relates to or may impact on the contemporary employment relationship in its organisational and broader social context where the satisfaction of the needs of all members of society (as the other interested parties are a primary concern. (p. 9.)

Figure 3.1 Parties to the employment relationship



Source: Venter (2004)

Thus the employment relationship is rooted in the relationship between the employer, employee and the state. It is important to look at the relationship between departments and management/employers and employees. In intergroup conflict, employees, employers and departments are the main role players to the employment relationship in the organisation. If this relationship is interfered with in a negative way, it may lead to bad employment relations and conflict. It is very important to maintain a healthy relationship between the employee, employer and departments in the organisation in order to prevent a breakdown of communication and conflict (Sherif, 1966; Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Brown, 2004).

3.2.2 What is wellness?

The World Health Organisation describes health as a state of physical, mental and social well-being and not the absence of disease. Wellness focuses on the person and his or her well-being. There is a balance between physical, social, occupational, spiritual and intellectual dimensions. Wellness is a dynamic process of promoting and pursuing ideas, attitudes and behaviours and making

conscious choices towards a culture and way of life that focuses on attaining balance, good health and peace of mind. Conditions in wellness are encouraged by incorporating life-style enhancing processes, policies, environments, attitudes, activities, programmes and incentives in the organisation (Andrew, 1999).

From the above-mentioned information, the following definition can be formulated: **Employment relations wellness can refer to the attempts by management, unions, organisational groups and departments to create a healthy employment relationship. If there is minimal conflict, mutual understanding, synergy, cooperation mutual trust and respect between employees, employers, departments and trade unions the employment relations and intergroup relations will be healthy and the organisation will be in a good working condition.**

Thus it is important to note that employment relations wellness and sound employment relations have the same meaning.

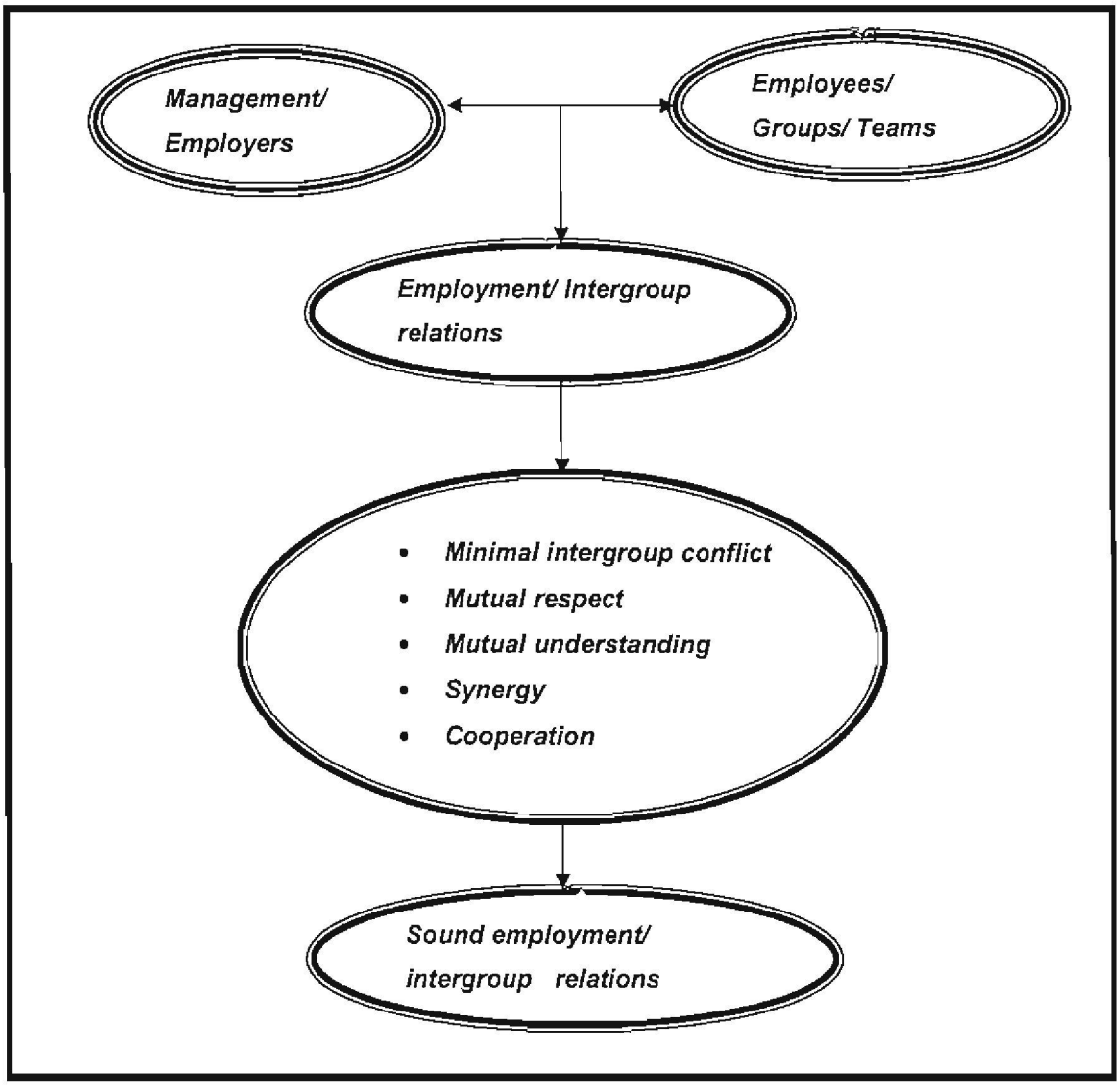
The creation of better relations between groups with the reduction of intergroup conflict will lead to an environment in which employment relations wellness is stimulated. To create employment relations wellness in intergroup relations it is important to look at the following aspects:

- Social psychology in intergroup relations
- Teams effectiveness and work satisfaction in intergroup relations
- Diversity
- Sharing knowledge
- Creating employment relations wellness

The above-mentioned definition is illustrated on Figure 3.2 which was developed by the author. It is important to understand this definition and

figure because this figure depicts the process of employment relations wellness in correlation with intergroup conflict and intergroup relations.

Figure 3.2 Model of sound employment relations



Source: Own Model

3.3 Social psychology in employment relations wellness

Psychological research on intergroup conflict and conflict resolution dates back almost 100 years (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001). Social psychology and intergroup

conflict have been linked together for a number of years, and social psychologists see it as an intellectual responsibly to study intergroup relations (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Validzic, 1998). Allen in Hewstone and Brown (1986) argues that most of the activities in an organisation are expressions of basic conflict between employees and employers. **If intergroup relations are healthy, employment relations between groups and departments in the organisation will be healthy.**

According to Brown (1986) and Brown (2004), the following are conditions for "harmonious" or healthy intergroup relations:

- positive attitudes;
- friendliness;
- a non-existence of bias towards the out-group and in-group;
- cooperation.

Thus cooperation is vital to sound intergroup relations. From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.10.2, eighty-eight percent of the respondents indicated yes to cooperation in order to achieve organisational goals. Furthermore, in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.1.3, Sex correlated with item D7, One hundred percent of female respondents indicated that cooperation is necessary to reach organisational goals, while 82.4% of male respondents answered yes. It is interesting to note that all the female respondents see cooperation as important and a way to achieve organisational goals. These findings highlight the importance of cooperation in striving for "harmonious" intergroup relations

There can be several socio-psychological processes at work which have an influence on intergroup conflict and the employment relationship in the organisation and the industrial context as a whole (Hewstone & Brown, 1986). Brown and Turner (1981) state that the major socio-psychological comparisons and frictions are between employers and employees. Other disputes might arise,

but this fundamental conflict between employees and employers will be the main issue in this socio-psychological battle for group positions and actions to be taken. Social psychologists focus on certain processes in intergroup conflict and intergroup relations in organisations, especially on negotiation and bargaining (Allen, 1983; Hewstone & Cairns, 2001).

Allen (1982) indicates that the workforce and management should avoid the notion that explicit behaviours can be caused by the other side, or the rivals acting alone. It is important to note that certain behaviours between groups and employees and employers occur as a result of the interactions between the different sides. Mutual perceptions of the other party will lead to a habit of interpretation in the organisation that helps pre-determine situations and influences outcomes (Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Niens, Hewstone & Cairns, 2003).

There is vital evidence which means that, in organisations, the conflicting sides' (employer and employee) perceptions are systematically related (Allen, 1982). The beliefs concerning the opposition group, on each side, in certain organisations expose the true nature of the employment relations climate or wellness in that organisation (Allen, 1983; Hewstone, 2002). The relations between groups, employees and employers are dynamic and management plays a pivotal role in these dynamic relations between the major role players in the organisation (Allen, 1982).

Hewstone and Brown (1986) make use of three basic climates of intergroup understanding.

- Firstly, group assimilation occurs when the different sides wrongly define the conflicting group's attitude towards it.
- Secondly, group differentiation occurs when the group stereotypes the other group.

- Lastly, accuracy occurs when the group's view is quite accurate and realistic towards the other conflicting group's views and attitudes. It is also important to note that misinterpretation can lead to varying behavioural outcomes (Niens, Cairns & Hewstone, 2003).

Brown (2004) suggests that different forms of action can be initiated in the organisation through intergroup relations. These actions include strikes by workers or members of groups gripped in conflict, disciplinary procedures and organisational and trade union negotiations. In the employment relationship in certain organisations it is also important to note that the employers or management can be of opinion that the employees are more pro-management or more pro-union than they actually are.

These same principles apply for the employees, where they can be of opinion that employers are more pro-union or more pro-management orientated. In intergroup relations, the employment relationship can mainly be controlled by one side, which means that goodwill between the groups is likely to be possible within a narrow range (Hewstone & Brown, 1986).

Some groups in organisations might be of opinion and of the belief that the other group is closer to its own position than they really are, and this distortion of reality might lead to a breakdown in good employment relations. Certain psychological dimensions of teamwork can arise which can lead to the breakdown or upliftment of employment relations wellness in intergroup conflict (Allen, 1982; Hewstone, 2002; Niens, Cairns, & Hewstone, 2003). Social psychology can play a major role in the pursuit of for employment relations wellness. It is important to look at socio-psychological aspects of the employment relations while working with intergroup conflict. If these factors can be understood and managed, it will lead management in the right direction towards achieving the ultimate goal of minimum intergroup conflict, which can in turn lead to sound employment relations. Furthermore, this will lead to the problem statement of **dysfunctional**

intergroup conflict influencing the working of the organisation in such a manner that it can severely hamper sound employment relations being reversed.

Hewstone and Brown (1986) believe that one of the most important aspects in creating better intergroup relations is that management must not enforce change on groups without prior consultation and must not make certain assumptions which can be inaccurate when it influences intergroup relations. These rash decisions can lead to a breakdown in relations between management and employees and might lead to wildcat strikes.

After discussing the socio-psychological impact on employment relations wellness in an intergroup conflict setting, it is important to discuss how intergroup conflict can influence work satisfaction and team performance.

3.4 Employment relations wellness and work satisfaction

3.4.1 Work satisfaction

Cox (2003) stresses that several studies have focussed on conflict management, but that few have focussed on the effects of conflict on work satisfaction and team performance. Cox looks at interpersonal, intragroup and importantly, intergroup conflict. Intergroup conflict can severely influence work satisfaction and team performance, which can affect the employment relations wellness of the organisation.

Lawrence and Losch (1967) state that intergroup conflict occurs regularly in the organisation and affects work performance and work satisfaction on a regular basis, which can in turn affect employment relations wellness in a negative or positive way. Bliegen (1993) indicates that work satisfaction could strongly be associated with work stress. Work stress can be seen as a major consequence of intergroup conflict. It was found in the study of Gardner (1992) that increased

conflict, including intergroup conflict, could lead to much lower levels of job satisfaction

Cox (2003) indicates that teamwork can lead to conflict, as manifested in a study of a group of nurses in which teamwork led to conflict. Tenure can lead to increasing levels of intergroup conflict; thus the longer at the organisation the higher the perception of conflict between groups. It is also important to look at how intergroup conflict can influence work satisfaction and team performance. The team's or group's performance may be influenced in such a way that it can lead to lower team performance and a breakdown in sound employment relations.

Kreitner and Kinicki (2005) indicate that the following can be done to ensure better group performance and better employment relations wellness:

- Forecasting - Forecasting the goals and objectives of the group and team will lead to better performance.

- Reporting - Reporting the progress and status of the group will lead to much more effective group performance.

- Strategic planning – This will lead a group to plan into the future, and a group can foresee dangers and positives that can lay ahead of it in the performance of its tasks.

- Financial planning and consolidation - A group must have the finances and financial backing to perform, and with financial planning it will lead to better performance and much better group performance.

Cox (2003) indicates that strong links exist between intergroup conflict, team performance and work satisfaction. This link is important in the functioning of sound employment relations.

To summarise, intergroup conflict can become a problem if it influences work satisfaction and group performance negatively. Employees must be satisfied with their working conditions and if this does not occur, the wellness of the employment relations and individuals might deteriorate. For management to understand the individual's and group's behaviour and performance better, it is important for it to note that intergroup relations influence these processes.

3.5 Team effectiveness, organisational performance and employment relations wellness

Team effectiveness and organisational performance is two very important aspects of intergroup relations for the reason that it can be influenced in a negative or positive manner by intergroup conflict (Cox, 2003).

3.5.1 Organisational performance and employment relations wellness

Organisational performance could be influenced by intergroup conflict in a positive or negative way. If a certain level of conflict exists, it can be deemed highly functional conflict, thus generating positive performance. However, if the conflict level is deemed too low, good organisational performance can decrease. This also may lead to the organisation struggling to adapt to change, and innovations might never be created (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Furthermore, if the low level of conflict continues decreasing or the level of conflict becomes too high, it might lead to a drop in performance and the employment relations to fade, and in the end the survival of the organisation might be threatened (Gibson, et al, 2000).

From empirical evidence in paragraph 4.11.5.2, Departments correlated with item C8, Fifty-eight percent of HR, 58% of Mining, 50% of Geology, 57% of

Environmental, 67% of Construction, 50% of Seismic and 100% respondents of the Ventilation departments indicated that productivity decreases due to intergroup conflict; thus indicating that organisational performance and productivity can decrease when intergroup conflict occurs and ultimately affect the employment relations wellness of the organisation in a negative way.

3.5.2 Team effectiveness and employment relations wellness

If communication within the group and communication with the out-groups are of high quality, the team effectiveness will increase. In Chapter 2 communication is classified as a process that can stimulate intergroup conflict, but also reduce it. However, communication between groups, teams, departments and individuals can lead to better intergroup and intragroup relations through stimulating better work team effectiveness (Horwitz, Bravington & Silvis, 2006).

Another important contribution to team effectiveness is clear goals and objectives. Sherif (1966) indicates this in the realistic conflict theory. If the objectives are clear, the teams' effectiveness will increase. This emphasises that groups and work teams must be informed about the objectives and goals they must strive for.

3.6 Stress, burnout and employment relations wellness

Conflict may increase stress, and stress may lead to work-based conflict. Stress occurs regularly because of intergroup relations. This will affect the employment relations and intergroup relations wellness (Tajfel, 1982; Brown, 2004).

3.6.1 The features of Stress

Stress can be seen as an individual's adaptive response to an incentive that bears extreme psychological or physical burdens. The stressor is the stimulus

that causes stress. Stress generally follows a cycle known as the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) (Sparks, Faragher, & Cooper, 2001).

GAS suggests that individuals have a normal level of resistance to stressful events: some individuals can endure a great deal of stress while others cannot handle the same amount of stress and may handle stress quite badly. From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.1.2, Sex correlated with item C4. A significant difference in the development of stress between the sexes is evident. More than 57% of male and 71% of female respondents indicated that they develop stress through intergroup conflict. This is a clear indication that female employees experience much more stress in the workplace resulting from intergroup conflict than male employees or on the other hand, female respondents do not handle stress as well as male employees. Moreover, this empirical evidence supports the evidence in the literature.

When a stressor is at hand, the first stage is to alarm the individual so that he/she becomes concerned about the stress. During the second stage, the individual attempts to resist the effects of the stressor (Skinner & Roche, 2005).

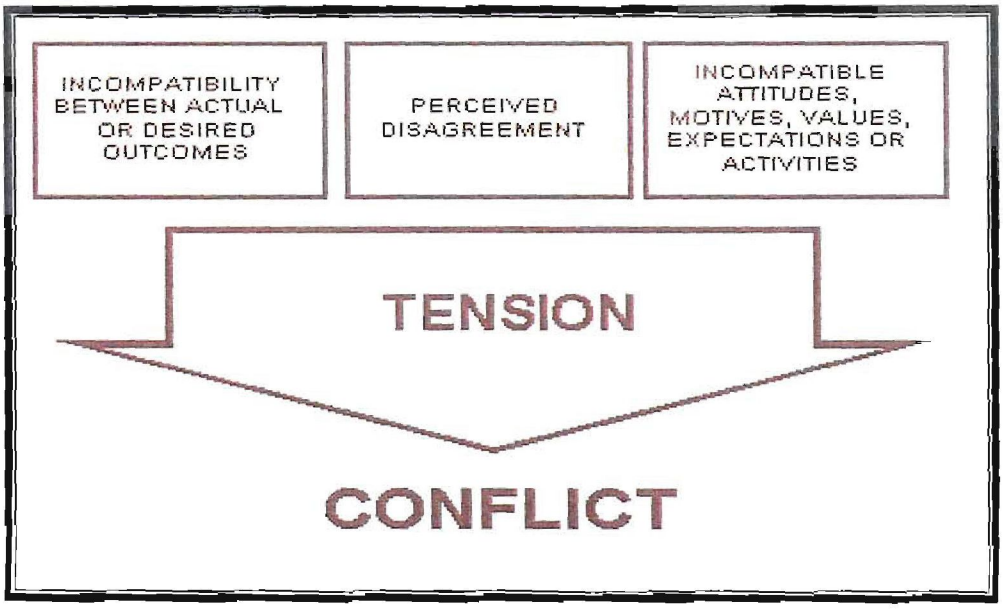
In certain cases and situations the confrontation phase may end the GAS. However, extended contact with a stressor without a solution may bring on exhaustion along with its consequences. Some stress is necessary for best possible performance, but too much stress can have very negative consequences. It is also important to understand that stress can be caused by good as well as bad things (Dollard, Winefield, & Winefield, 200).

Stress plays a major role in employee wellness; thus one can conclude that stress can severely influence sound employment relations (Greenberg & Baron, 1995; Skinner & Roche, 2005).

If the group is under major stress to perform, its task performance might be declining. Research has shown that stress can lead to better task performance, but, according to Greenberg and Baron (1995), new and growing evidence

suggests that stress can negatively affect task performance. If the effects of stress increase in the group, and the group' drive to perform also increases, it may lead to intergroup relations disintegrating, especially in sequential and reciprocal interdependence (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Figure 3.3 Stress can be a cause or consequence of intergroup conflict



Source: Ratzburg (1999). Organisational behaviour.

Figure 3.3 suggests that if stress occurs it will lead to conflict. Thus it is clear from Figure 3.3 that stress and conflict go hand in hand.

3.6.2 Consequences of Stress in the organisation

Positive stress may result in increased energy, enthusiasm, and motivation. Greenberg and Baron (1995) and Shultz, et al (2004) all explain that negative stress may have the following consequences:

- Individual Consequences

Stress can have behavioural, psychological, and medical consequences for individuals. Stress can lead people to engage in harmful behaviours. Stress can adversely affect an individual's mental health and well-being as well as his or her physiological well-being (Skinner & Roche, 2005).

- Organisational Consequences

Individual stress has direct consequences such as performance declining, withdrawal behaviours, absenteeism, turnover and poor attitudes (Spector, 2002).

- Intergroup consequences

According to Luthans (1992), the group and group processes have serous effects on intergroup behaviour such as lack of cohesiveness; it might lead to group members being shut out of the group. If there is a lack of social support in a group and amongst its members, stress can occur. Without social support, group members will suffer from stress. If intergroup conflict occurs, the group members' stress levels might increase drastically. This will lead to much more tension and even greater intergroup conflict (Skinner & Roche, 2005).

3.6.3 Burnout

Burnout is a general feeling of exhaustion that may develop when an individual simultaneously experiences too much pressure and too few sources of satisfaction (Gibson, et al, 2000). Burnout occurs through prolonged periods of stress (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Skinner and Roche, 2005). In paragraph 4.10.1, 30.2% of respondents indicated that they do endure physical health problems resulting from conflict. It is for this reason that intergroup conflict might lead to physical health problems and ultimately physical and mental burnout.

Skinner and Roche (2005) as well as Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) mention that, when members of groups suffer from burnout, the following might step in:

- Emotional exhaustion
- Physical exhaustion
- Mental exhaustion
- Low self-esteem and low drive for personal accomplishments
- Constant fatigue and feelings of frustration and helplessness.

Seltzer and Numerof (1988) state that research has shown that if managers or supervisors show little consideration for employee burnout, it will also lead to management and supervisors showing less concern with employees' welfare and with good employees' relations.

In paragraph 4.10.1, item C-4, 61.1% of respondents indicated that when intergroup conflict exists they experience stress, thus indicating that stress plays a major role in intergroup conflict. Furthermore, in paragraph 4.10.1, item C-5, 42.6% of respondents indicated that they consider a job change when experiencing intergroup conflict.

From this evidence, the assumption can be made that when burnout and stress occurs, employee wellness will drastically decrease. If management is guilty of creating burnout and stress and not showing concern, it will lead to the disintegration of good employment relations between individuals, groups, departments and management. It is also evident that intergroup conflict can affect the organisation in such a way that it can have dire consequences. Escalation of conflict might lead to employees leaving the organisation, and this is a situation that the organisation would want to avoid at all costs. This advocates the importance of understanding and realizing what the consequences of intergroup conflict can be for the organisation.

Intergroup bias will be discussed in the next part of this study. As in the occurrence of stress, bias plays an integral part in intergroup relations and employment relations wellness.

3.7 Intergroup bias in intergroup relations

Intergroup bias can play a major role in employment relations wellness and intergroup conflict. Boundaries between groups and out-group differentiation are typically achieved by means of negative thoughts, feelings and behaviours towards members of an out-group. Conceptually, three interrelated but distinguishable elements operate to create and reinforce boundaries between groups, according to Brown (2004), Blake, et al (1968), Fiske (2002) and Forsyth (2005), namely stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination.

3.7.1 Stereotypes

Stereotypes are beliefs concerning the typically shared characteristics of members of a group or social category. Members of the group are seen to have the same characteristics and behaviour (Napier & Gershenfield, 1989).

It is common for people or employees to seek other people or employees similar to them. The employees or individuals want to feel comfortable with the individuals with whom they form a group or a team. If these individuals feel comfortable in the group, they will start neglecting the out-group and thus create a bridge between themselves and members of the other groups in the organisation they perceive to be different. Biases can differ, ranging from rage to hatred and even violence. **Stereotyping can severely hamper healthy employment relations and will create barriers between employees of different cultures, races, ages and sexes** (Fiske, 2002).

Bias towards another group or out-group is a flawed reaction which can severely hamper group relations (Fiske, 2002). One can also conclude that bias towards others can hamper employment relations wellness. Stereotypes can play an important part in the forming and processes of intergroup conflict as well as creating sound employment relations between groups and management (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Kreitner and Kinicki indicate that groups can include and can be seen as the following stereotypes:

- Racial stereotypes

This stereotype is very typical of any organisation and exits in most organisations. People of different races think of the other person's race as different and wrong (Wallace & Wallace, 1989).

- Sex role stereotypes

Sex role stereotypes exist when men are seen as sexist, while woman are seen as powerless and over sensitive. This type of stereotype commonly occurs in organisations. This way of thinking can severely harm the employment relationship in the organisation through creating bridges between female and male groups and even groups, which includes both sexes. For this to be resolved the personnel of the organisation need an entire paradigm shift.

- Age stereotypes

Age stereotype groups can exist when older people in groups are less satisfied, not as involved with their work, less motivated, not as committed and less productive than their younger co-workers. Younger personnel can see older workers as outdated. This will create stereotyping which can negatively influence the sound employment relations the organisation strives for (Johnson & Johnson, 2000).

-Disability stereotypes

In some cases disabled people are seen to be less competent than abled workers. The general way of thinking is that disabled workers cannot be as productive as abled workers can, and they will interfere with high organisational performance.

3.7.2 Prejudice

Prejudice refers to negative evaluations of groups of their members. This is the affective component of group antagonism and negative feelings about others because of their connection to a social group (Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993).

3.7.3 Discrimination

Discrimination refers to negative overt behaviours towards individuals, based on their group membership. This is the behavioural component of group antagonism and negative behaviours directed against persons because of their membership in a particular group (Brown, 2004). This type of discrimination can lead to intergroup conflict and at the end of the day it will lead to breakdown of sound employment relations.

Bias including stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination is a major problem for any organisation. If the organisation and management wants to create a good employment relationship between them and groups in the organisation, they need to reduce intergroup bias and have a solution to the problem.

3.7.4 Reducing intergroup bias

To create better intergroup relations means reducing intergroup conflict, but it can also indicate reducing bias (Sherif, 1966; Fiske, 2002; Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Hewstone & Cairns, 2001; Brown, 2004). If bias is reduced between

groups in an organisation it will change relations between these groups in a positive manner. These groups might understand each other better and come to a point where they can respect each other better (Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Hewstone & Cairns, 2001), as indicated in Figure 3.2.

Reduction in bias towards the out-group or other groups in the organisation is vital to the organisation, management, the conflicting groups and the individual group members (Fiske, 2002). According to Fiske, this change in attitude can be a challenge, bias towards other groups can be deep rooted, and a full frontal confrontation of the problem might even lead to more biased attitudes and beliefs. It might also lead to more refusals for coherence and can simply negatively affect the employment relations between groups and the management.

Fiske (2002) also indicates that if education of people or employees can succeed it will help in informing them about the other group's beliefs, viewpoints and attitudes. Pettigrew (1998) argues that in order to reduce bias, the following must occur in intergroup contact:

- Conflicting groups must receive equal status within the immediate setting. The employer or management can do this.
- Groups that are biased towards each other must have shared goals.
- Groups must team up in order to reach the shared goals.
- The most important part of reducing intergroup bias lies with management or the employers. If these key role players in the employment relationship support the employees and groups in reducing bias and lead by example it will lead to intergroup friendship which will direct the intergroup relations to a positive relationship (Fiske, 2002; Hewstone & Brown, 1986).

Support of management and employers of the organisation will create a good relationship between groups and this will lead to much better employment relations.

3.7.4.1 Individually based strategies for reducing stereotypes and enhancing sound employment relations

Stereotyping and biased actions can have negative influences in groups and employees (Fiske, 2002; Pettigrew, 1998; 1986; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005) and it can severely affect the employment relations wellness of the organisation (Fiske, 2002; Pettigrew, 1998; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Perspective-taking is a technique which can be implemented in order to reduce bias. Perspective-taking means that the individual in the group takes the perspective of the out-group into consideration and views its situation from the point of view of the out-group.

The individual must focus on similarities, which he or she shares with members of the out-group. An individual can put him/herself in the shoes of the out-group's members and imagine how that person feels when intergroup conflict, stereotyping and certain situations arise. The chance that the success of perspective-taking will increase, rises drastically when the individual has endured the same situation as the out-group members; thus receiving the same discrimination or being labelled as a certain stereotype (Galinsky, 2002).

According to Galinsky (2002), perspective-taking produces many positive interpersonal beliefs, and these beliefs might extend to intergroup opinions and interactions. Perspective-taking might lead to much more positive evaluations of an out-group member, which in turn can lead to the individual generalisations of the out-group as a whole. If the individual takes the perspective of an out-group member, it might lead to a certain cognitive portrayal of the out-group that can extend beyond the individual's own self-representation (Davis, et al, 1996).

As the levels of this extension increases, so can positivism of out-group evaluations. This will lead to reduction in intergroup bias and reduce different intergroup biases such as stereotyping (Galinsky, 1999; Galinsky & Moskowitz, 2000). Perspective-taking can also increase individuation and personalisation which have shown to increase assessments of out-group members (Brewer, 1988; Wilder, 1978; 1986).

Evidence from the study of Batson, et al, (1997) has shown that a perspective of a certain individual can affect the representations of the group as a whole. Furthermore, the group also turns a blind eye to any positive behaviours and genuineness shown by the out-group (Insko & Schopler, 1998; Levine & Campbell, 1972). Perspective-taking eliminates all this distrust and suspiciousness and shifts the way the group judges the out-group (Galinsky, 2002).

Perspective-Taking and Stereotypic Expectancies

This might imply that perspective-taking holds assurance of reducing self-fulfilling prophecies and the continuation of discrimination. In a series of studies done by Galinsky (2001), it was found that perspective-taking increases awareness of situational limitations against the out-group.

Perspective-Taking and Reducing Stereotyping

Fazio, Jackson, Dunton and Williams (1995) find that stereotype accessibility could be a consistent forecaster of discriminatory behaviour and interpersonal distancing. Stereotyping is such a complex occurrence that it is difficult to find a solution and to change individuals' ways of thinking. Galinsky (2002) indicates that stereotype suppression will lead to increased accessibility of the stereotype, thus concluding that suppression of stereotypes can increase stereotyping. It is clear that suppression will not help; only an attitude change might help

stereotyping. Research results have shown that perspective-taking is a successful remedy for stereotyping. Individuals of groups who follow perspective-taking have control over the activation of stereotypes.

Perspective-taking may inhibit stereotyping and should lead to fewer discriminatory behaviours and smoother relations with stereotyped groups, teams and individuals. If a group member attributes more self-defining traits to the out-group, the better the chance is that the group or its members will think of the out-group in a stereotypical fashion (Galinsky, 1999).

Perspective-Taking and the Egocentric Self

Perspective-taking makes the most of egocentric tendencies – the tendency of an individual to see him-/herself in a favourable light – to decrease bias rather than increase it. It is possible that positive feedback and high self-esteem can lead to the perspective-takers to assess the out-group more positively. On the other hand, negative feedback and low self-esteem will lead to the perspective takers to evaluate the out-group more negatively. Only when the perspective-taker's self-concept is positive, will out-group evaluations improve. The most important element of perspective-taking is the self-concept. The self-concept will influence the intergroup evaluation in either a positive or negative manner (Galinsky, 2002).

To summarise all of paragraph 3.7.3, bias and stereotyping can be a major problem for management. However, the individual in the group and organisation can change his/her perspective in order to reduce bias. The group plays a major part in intergroup bias, but the individual also plays a vital role. If the individual encourages change, it might rub off on the group and the entire group's perspective can change, thus reducing bias and stereotyping. The next aspect of this study is diversity. Diversity and bias can be closely related through bias

occurring because of diversity. Moreover, diversity forms an important part of healthy intergroup relations.

3.8 Diversity and employment relations wellness

Diversity is a source of intergroup conflict, but diversity can also play a major role in striving for employment relations wellness. Diversity can create intergroup conflict, but can also create better employment relations, which will lead to sound employment relations (Pelled, 1996).

American management literature, both popular (e.g., Thomas, 1991; Morrison, 1992) and scholarly (e.g. Jackson et al., 1992; Cox, 1993), is loaded with advice which informs managers that they should increase diversity to improve workforce or employee diversity in order to develop work effectiveness. Teams and diversity can increase organisational effectiveness by grouping the various strengths of employees (Moreland, Levine & Wingert, 1996).

According to Pelled (1996), diversity in workgroups will lead to intergroup conflict and have negative outcomes for the work groups and the organisation. However, diversity can have positive outcomes on intergroup relations and employment relations. Cox, Lobel, and McLeod (1991) state that diversity, as a cause of cultural differentiations, would improve innovative problem solving and lead to positive outcomes for work groups.

If a group is racially diverse, it can help its members to understand other racially diverse groups better. Groups can be provided with different kinds of information from which they can benefit. This information includes ways of thinking, culture, leadership styles, communication and decision-making. This can give the group the competitive edge in the organisation. The in-group will understand the other racially diverse groups and departments much better (Maznevski, 1994). This is vital to the performance of groups in the South-African context because of the

increasingly diverse workforce. From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.5.1, Departments correlated with item B2, only 9.1% of the Engineering, 33% of Mining and 0% of both Production and Ventilation departments indicated culture to be a source of conflict. This means that respondents in these departments do not see diversity as a problem and that diversity can be seen as a positive for these specific respondents.

If groups are diverse and they interact with other diverse groups in the organisation, it may lead to the emergence of approaches through conceptual restructuring within the groups (Levine and Resnick, 1993; Jehn, 1997). This might lead to the creation of new techniques, approaches, innovations and knowledge of certain aspects of production. Diverse viewpoints and perspectives can foster new ideas and new knowledge (Damon, 1991; Levine and Resnick, 1993; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). Diverse group members can have different educational backgrounds, training, work experience, and expertise (Stasser, 1992). This can lead to the creation of task-related debates, which in turn can lead to the creation of new marketing campaigns, new responsibilities and innovations and ideas (Jehn, 1999).

If a workgroup is diverse, the pool of resources increases. This includes networks, perspectives, styles, knowledge, and insights that people can bring to bear on complex problems (Jehn, 1999). If the workgroup is diverse, it can lead to the group having a competitive edge over the other groups in the organisation while also creating better employment relations through diversity (Cox, 2003).

Creating diverse groups implies that increasing the numbers of people in traditionally underrepresented groups in organisations will ultimately enhance a work group's effectiveness by removing the barriers coupled with minority status and thereby enabling all people to be maximally productive (Cox, 1993; Larkey, 1996).

Robbins (1996) indicates that groups, which are diverse, can be beneficial for the organisation. According to Robbins, research has indicated that diversity can lead to creativity, improve quality of decisions, and foster change because of diversity and adaptability.

New research has shown that cultural diversity in an intergroup relations setting and work group effectiveness can have beneficial outcomes for the organisation and workgroups because group members share common goals and values (Jehn, 1999).

It is very important for management to understand intergroup conflict and its influence on the healthy employment relationship. For management to manage and resolve conflict, a situation must be created in which conflicting parties recognize each other and their diverse cultures and identities (Roy, 2006). Diversity as a positive can increase through contact and interaction. Thus it is important to discuss contact between group members.

3.9 Contacts between Members of Different Groups

Contact between members of different groups, under suitable conditions, can improve intergroup relations. These suitable conditions can be cooperative behaviours between equal-status group members of the two groups or more groups and conditions where group members get to know each other. Probably the most important role played in this situation is that of management or employers (Pettigrew, 1998).

If the groups, teams or departments do not have the support of the management, this creation of better intergroup relations will not succeed (Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Blake, et al, 1968). Contact between groups can be the cause of hostility, especially when it concerns resources and wealth. Nevertheless, when contact is

made suitable, positive and cooperative, it can be seen as desirable. If intergroup contact is absent, it can decrease the chance of future contact between groups (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001). This absence of contact between groups might lead to more intergroup anxiety and reinforcement of the boundaries between the groups (Hewstone, 1996).

As mentioned earlier, intergroup contact can improve intergroup relations; thus improving employment relations between groups or departments in the organisation. However, intergroup contact can hold some underlying dangers.

If the intergroup conflict is extreme (South-African trade unions versus the state; and Hong Kong industries), it can promote intergroup anxiety (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001; Cheung & Chuah, 2002). Hewstone and Cairns state that if intergroup contact is managed correctly it can have positive outcomes for intergroup relations. Intergroup contact cannot eliminate intergroup conflict, but can be used to create improved intergroup relations. If intergroup relations improve, it will automatically lead to better employment relations in the organisation.

3.9.1 Sharing of knowledge in intergroup relations

The construction of trust and power among diverse groups is presented as an essential antecedent for accomplishing cross-functional shared knowledge. While the organisational environment turns out to be more unstable and time dependent, organisational productivity frequently depends on an in-depth knowledge of technologies, processes and people - both in and cross-diverse functional areas (Badaracco, 1991; Nonaka & Johansson, 1985). The interdependence among working groups becomes particularly crucial in complicated environments (Schrage, 1990; Weick, 1982). Mutual knowledge foundations between working groups present a possible link to organisational productivity. This is true in the case of information system groups and the line groups they support (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996).

Because of this shared knowledge base, groups may be hurled towards understanding and recognition. Groups may increase their ability to work towards a common goal through healthy communication (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996; Tindale & Sheffey, 2002).

Communication in itself is not enough. The sharing of knowledge is distinct from managerial communication (Schrage, 1990). Shared knowledge goes further than the essential informational level. There is a requirement for this deeper form of interaction. A certain method of communication is needed in intergroup relations (Swanson, 1974; Nelson & Cooprider, 1996).

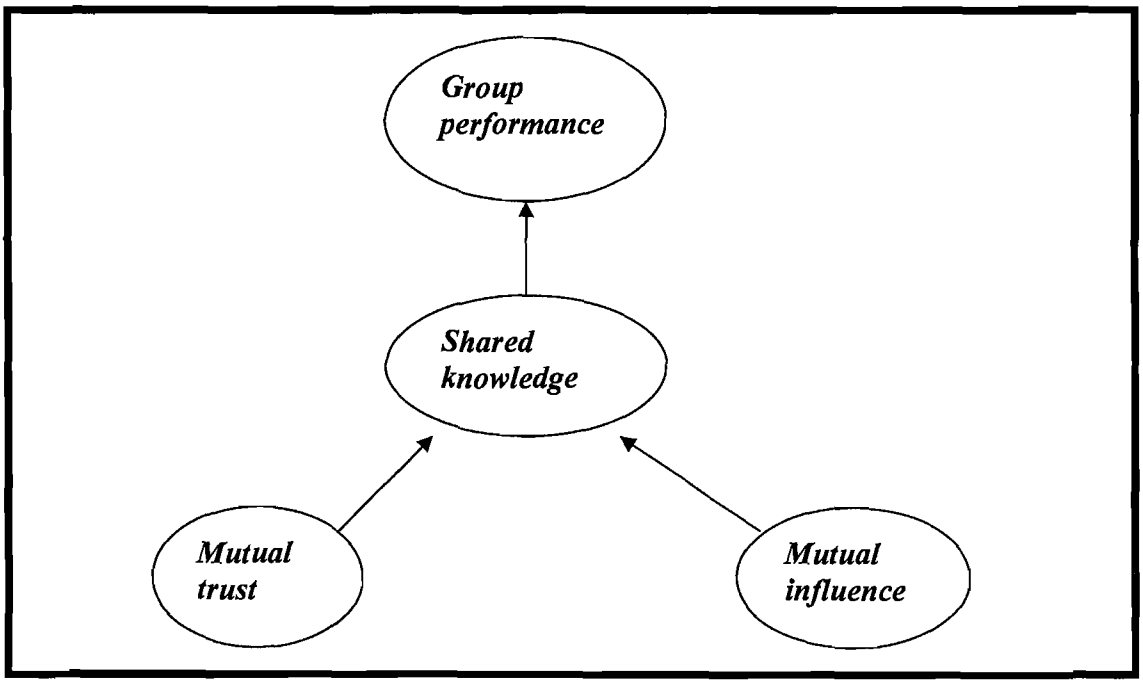
A crucial feature of intergroup relations is the construction of a common organisational intergroup language. Shared knowledge should be expressed in words or symbols that are familiar to the common sphere of knowledge of both groups (Zeleny, 1989). Such a joint language can aid the transfer of knowledge as well as create a positive social empowerment process. Communication is only a means to aid and transfer shared knowledge (Bostrom, 1989). Nelson and Cooprider (1996) define sharing of knowledge as an understanding and appreciation between different groups for the technologies and processes that affect their mutual performance.

Dent (1991) points out that a unique appreciation of shared knowledge exists between groups. This sharing of knowledge differs from group to group. Shared knowledge can be seen as a "miniculture" between groups in the organisation. Bostrom (1989) views shared knowledge between groups as a synergy between groups. **Synergy can be defined as mutual understanding and respect between groups** (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996).

This is a very important aspect of this study. Here the problem statement is the following: **Dysfunctional intergroup conflict influences the functioning of the**

organisation in such a manner that it can severely hamper sound employment relations. In paragraph 3.2, Figure 3.2 demonstrates that mutual respect between groups, managers and departments may lead to sound employment relations. It is important for the organisation to create this synergy between groups, for instance two departments. Synergy between groups will create mutual understanding and respect which may lead to better intergroup relations and ultimately employment relations wellness.

Figure 3.4 Adapted model of shared knowledge in intergroup relations



Source: Nelson and Cooprider (1996)

From Figure 3.4 it can be gathered that, for a group to perform, sharing of knowledge is needed. The only way this can happen is through mutual trust and mutual influence.

A deeper level of knowledge must be shared to achieve mutual understanding. This deeper level of knowledge can be classified as organisational knowledge.

According to Badaracco (1991), organisational knowledge is "knowledge which resides primarily in specialised relationships among individuals and groups and in the particular norms, attitudes, information flows and ways of making decisions that shape their dealings with each other" (p. 81).

Through understanding what motivates members of groups to seek knowledge and decrease discrepancies, it is feasible to recognise the devices that facilitate the sharing of knowledge linking functional groups. External relations of groups contain models similar to the internal patterns of members of the group (Ancona, 1990; Tindale & Sheffey, 2002). As soon as the foundations of knowledge, expectations and realities of each group turn out to be more isolated from those of the other, lack of cooperation and intergroup conflicts start appearing. It then escalates to the "us vs. them" attitude, the in-group will turn against the out-group (Sherif, 1966).

Achievement of organisational goals and mutual productivity develop into a virtually unfeasible undertaking in the face of this organisational intergroup conflict. A lack of shared reality between groups is an essential part in these dysfunctional group dynamics. This lack of shared reality may lead to poor group performance. If shared perception is present, it may lead to better performance (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996; Tindale & Sheffey, 2002).

Trust plays a key role in the relationships between organisational groups. Trust is defined as a collection of expectations shared by all those in an argument or discussion (Zucker, 1986). Trust is a collection of expectations, which implies that tasks will be reliably accomplished (Sitkin & Roth, 1993). Groups work well together in an environment of mutual trust supported by mutual commitment and a permanent long-term relationship (Anderson & Weitz, 1992). This kind of committed, long-term relationship is the basis for conceptualisation of trust (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996)

The realisation of mutual trust leads to shared knowledge. Frequent and repetitive intergroup discussion and intergroup communication develop trust, leading to increased communications and the ultimate goal of sharing of knowledge (Anderson & Narus, 1990). An examination of the connections between marketing research providers and users indicated that trust is a facilitating feature of other relationship procedures such as quality of relations and levels of attachment (Moorman, Zaltman & Deshpande, 1992). Through alleviating concerns for the unexpected and facilitating relations and involvement, trust promotes an environment conducive to the sharing of knowledge (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996).

When groups work together on a repetitive basis in order to obtain mutual goals, the groups may develop a feeling of mutual trust between them (Tindale & Sheffey, 2002). When groups share the same expectations and reduce individual disagreements, it may create equal trust, which will bring groups closer together. In the research of Sherif, empirical evidence shows that competing teams develop trust relationships. Trust relationships may lead to the sharing of knowledge in solving a common problem (Sherif, 1966).

Trust can be enhanced through repeated communication. Trust can be different from shared knowledge. However, trust can also act as a deterrent to shared knowledge. Lewis and Weigert (1985) maintain that the investment of trust between groups in organisations can be viewed as a leap of faith, confidence, commitment and understanding. Trust also leads to understanding between both groups that they will all have performed well (Swanson, 1974). Shared knowledge between groups may also lead to the advancement of greater mutual trust between these groups (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996).

Organisational groups engaged in joint work are often dependent on each other for the achievement of goals. A consequence of this can be the creation of influenced relationships (Anderson & Narus, 1990). Without mutual influence,

mutually interdependent tasks can become impossible to achieve and conflict between groups can be the result (House, 1991). Accomplishments of the group's goals can be limited by the group's ability to influence other groups in the organisation (Kanter, 1983). Nelson and Cooprider (1996) define mutual influence as the ability of groups to affect the key policies and decisions of each other.

These influence procedures result in an enhancement of levels of approval and understanding of each other's work environment and accomplishments through mutual policy-making and decision-making. This may lead to the sharing of knowledge. Once shared knowledge is achieved, it may result in higher levels of mutual influence between groups (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996).

Managers should encourage the sharing of knowledge between groups. This will lead to better communication, work performance and intergroup relations (Nelson & Cooprider, 1996). Management can enhance this process by creating joint training on interdependent tasks, joint planning sessions, strategic rotation of group members and formation of cross-functional teams (Henderson, 1990).

It is clear that synergy and sharing of knowledge can facilitate better intergroup relations; thus ultimately leading to employment relations wellness. However, it is also important to determine the strategies which can create employment relations wellness in intergroup relations.

3.10 Creating employment relations wellness in intergroup relations

It is important for the organisation to manage conflict in order to keep the employment relationship stable. If this conflict escalates, it will hamper the employment relationships in the organisation between the different groups and management. If this relationship deteriorates and conflict escalates, the

organisation will lose the battle against conflict and might find itself in ominous trouble (Hewstone & Brown, 1986).

In Chapter 4, paragraph 4.10.2, item D8, elimination of intergroup conflict was evaluated and 59.3% of respondents indicated that intergroup will never be eliminated in the mining organisation. It is obvious that most of the respondents in the mining organisation accept the fact that intergroup conflict will never be eliminated. Ensuing from this evidence, it becomes evident that it is important to create healthy employment relations in intergroup relations, which might reduce the levels of intergroup conflict. Furthermore, in paragraph 4.10.2, item D2, 69.4% of respondents indicated that they do not see all conflict as negative. This can be seen as a positive because the majority of the respondents did not view all conflict as negative and there is a great opportunity to create healthy employment relations.

According to Gibson, et al (2000), interpersonal conflict can easily be resolved through existing techniques, but it is much more difficult to resolve intergroup conflict. There are numerous techniques to manage intergroup conflict to keep it from becoming damaging and to resolve conflict that is more serious.

Belak (1998) states that "it is not always possible to change a person's behaviour, by focusing on the cause of the conflict and the attitudes of those involved; it will lead to a more permanent resolution. It is also possible to change the structural variables involving the conflicting groups such as changing jobs or rearranging reporting responsibilities" (p. 2).

Takaks (2002) and Belak (1998) emphasize that any collaborative process intended to address and manage intergroup conflict should have objectives to support it. In this major obligation of time and resources, good achievements is the best reward, but to guarantee a conflict resolution approach appropriate for the management of the organisation, it is important to do the following:

- Construct a feeling of confidence in management
- Clearly define the members' positions and powers
- Establish essential rules
- Promote good and effective leadership
- Bring and ensure a mutual and joint approach to the table
- Preserve member continuity
- Acknowledge time and resource limitations
- Focus on cultural differences and power inequalities
- Create responsibility and organisational loyalty
- Construct and generate early measurable results
- Create a link between decision making and implementation
- Encourage high-quality communication and listening skills

Gray and Starke (1994) and Gibson, et al (2000) identify the following ways to resolve intergroup conflict and create employment relations wellness:

- Majority rule

Many disputes, which drag on for a long time, tempt participants to resolve them by a simple vote. The example of committees can be used. When committees discuss a controversial point, there are reasonable arguments on both sides. The point is often settled by a vote. Although voting and majority rule are important in a democratic society and organisation, research has shown that a quick vote on issues usually suppresses thoughtful consideration.

- Compromise

Perhaps the most widely used of all techniques, compromise involves giving each of the parties in the conflict some compromise. The main advantage of compromise is that it allows a solution to major conflicts. In many instances, it is almost impossible to resolve a conflict unless each party sees that the other is giving up something. The motivation to reciprocate may be the only motivation

operating to move the parties towards a solution (Brown, 2004; Payne & Cooper, 1987).

- Consensus

As a conflict resolution technique, consensus requires the conflicting groups to work together to find the resolution to their problem. While this may sound impractical, there are situations where consensus will be appropriate. When an issue (e.g. group survival) is so important that the conflicting groups can easily see that their conflict must be resolved, consensus decision making is useful (Luthans, 1992; Larson & Lafasto, 1989; Anstey, 1999).

- Superordinate goals (Cooperation)

This is one of the most popular techniques in eliminating intergroup conflict and creating sound employment relations (Hewstone & Cairns, 2001). Superordinate goals technique involves developing a common set of goals and objectives that cannot be obtained without the cooperation of the groups involved. In fact, they are unattainable by one group and supersede all other goals of any of the individual groups involved in the conflict (Sherif, 1966). From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.11.5.3, Departments correlated with item D7, which indicates that all of the departments from the lowest; namely IT with 71% to the highest, namely the Geology, Production, Communication, Construction, Seismic and Ventilation departments, all with 100% yes responses accentuates that every department understands the importance of cooperation in intergroup relations and the organisation. This empirical evidence highlights the importance of cooperation in creating employment relation wellness.

Sherif created the idea of a superordinate goal as a way to change intergroup conflict into cooperation (Galinsky, 2002). Sherif (1966) defines superordinate goals are those "that have a compelling appeal for members of each group but that neither group can achieve without participation of the other" (p. 89).

Competition is necessary to achieve desired goals. However, the competition must take place in a positive manner. The competition must not lead to dysfunctional intergroup escalation (Brown, 2004; Galinsky, 2002).

Mutual collaboration is necessary for the successful completion of interdependent tasks in intergroup relations (Galinsky, 2002). In superordinate goals, cooperation is necessary to reduce the rampant conflict which can occur when groups are competing over resources. Through mutual cooperation by groups, the rampant conflict can be reduced or resolved (Sherif, 1966). In paragraph 4.10.2, 88% of the respondents indicated that cooperation is necessary to achieve organisational goals. This empirical evidence emphasises the importance of cooperation in reaching employment and intergroup relation wellness. Lastly, from the work of Sherif it is clear that in order to reduce intergroup conflict, conflicting groups must engage in cooperative rather than competitive tasks. **Sherif believes that contact is not enough; cooperation is needed.**

- Expansion of resources

A major cause of declining employment relations in organisations is limited resources. Whatever one group succeeds in obtaining is gained at the expense of another group. The scarce resource may be a particular position, money, space, personnel, technology and information. Expansion of these resources may be one way of solving such problems. Karl Marx identifies the struggle of classes or groups and the conflict over certain resources. This struggle or conflict over recourses, as seen by Marx, can also clearly be seen in organisations between groups (Gray & Starke, 1994).

- Authoritative command

Using this method, management simply resolves the conflict as it sees fit and communicates its desires to the groups involved. Subordinates usually find abide by a superior's decision, whether or not they agree with it. Thus authoritative

command usually works in the short run. As with avoidance, smoothing and compromise, it does not focus on the cause of the conflict but rather on the results thereof. If the causes remain, conflict will probably reoccur (Gray & Starke, 1994).

- Altering the structural variables

Another way of resolving intergroup conflict and creating healthier employment relations is by altering structural variables. This involves changing the formal structure of the organisation. Structure refers to the fixed relationships among the jobs of the organisation and includes the design of jobs and departments. Altering the structure of the organisation to resolve intergroup conflict involves such things as transferring, exchanging, or rotating members of the groups to having a coordinator, liaise officer, or go-between who keeps groups communicating with one another (Galinsky, 2004).

- Identifying a common enemy

In some respects, identifying a common enemy is the negative of super ordinate goals. Groups in conflict may temporarily resolve their differences and unite to combat a common enemy. The common enemy may be a competitor that has just introduced a product in the market which is clearly superior to the one, the conflicting group's organisation offers (Brown, 2004; Payne & Cooper, 1987; Larson & Lafasto, 1989; Luthans, 1989).

It is clear that there are many ways in which to resolve intergroup conflict in order to create sound employment relations. There are many techniques but not all are successful in dealing with intergroup conflict. Intergroup conflict can lead to competition between groups and this may lead to better performance of groups in the organisation. However, if management wishes to reduce intergroup conflict and create sound employment as well as intergroup relations through the various techniques, coordination is essential for the successful functioning of these techniques.

3.11 Methods for managing sound intergroup relations and creating employment relations wellness

Certain methods are implemented to coordinate the intergroup relations and create better intergroup relations. The methods are listed from lowest cost to highest cost as indicated in Figure 3.5. Robbins (1996) indicates the following method which can be implemented to manage healthy intergroup relations.

Rules and procedures - This is the most simple and cost effective method when dealing with intergroup relations (Luthans, 1992). These rules and procedures can specify how groups interact and how they must interact. It is very easy and cost effective to establish. This process can minimize need for intergroup interaction and information flow between departments. The major drawback of this approach is that it commences easily when intergroup interactions can be anticipated ahead of time. However, under conditions of stress, high uncertainty and frequent organisational change, rules and procedures can fail and intergroup relation can turn into a farce (Robbins, 1996).

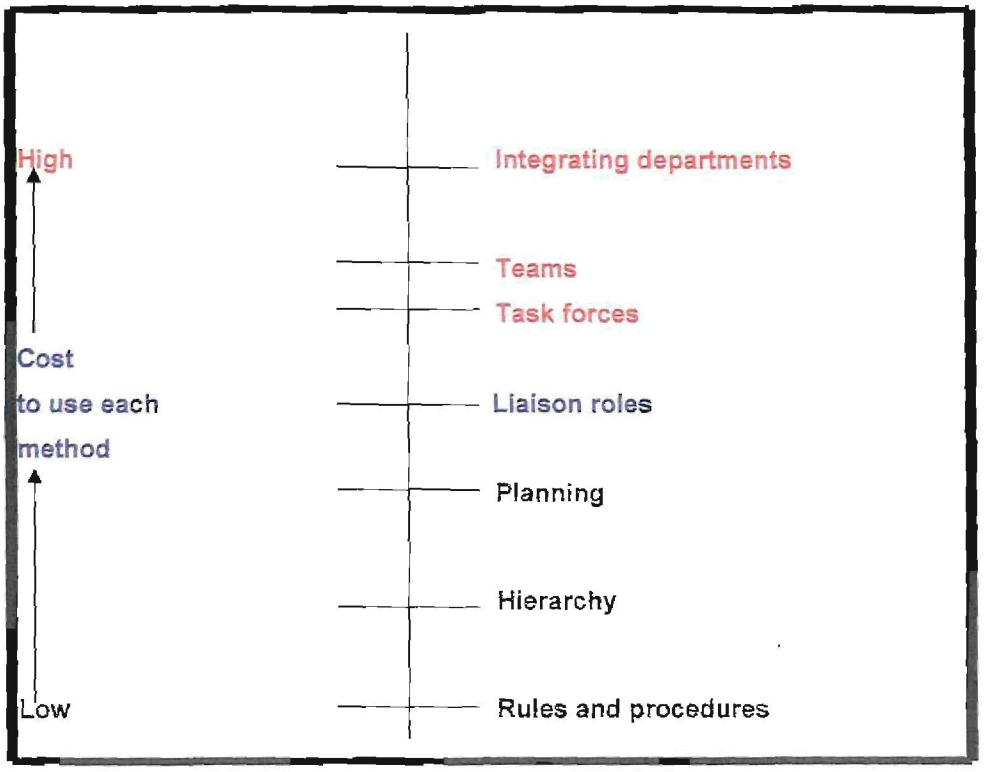
Hierarchy - If management implemented rules in procedures regulating intergroup relations and it failed, a next step must be taken. Organisational hierarchy is the primary method of managing healthy intergroup relations. The basic principle is that coordination can be achieved by referring problems between groups to a common superior higher in the organisation. A limitation in this method might be increasing demands on the superior to deal with intergroup conflict (Blake, et al, 1968; Robbins, 1996).

Planning - Planning can be an important step in creating healthy intergroup and employment relations. In every business, planning is very important and can be the link between failure and success. If every team, group and department in the organisation knows the goals and objectives, it will increase coordination. Thus

planning the goals will inform the group of the out-group's tasks and objectives. Planning can fail when the group does not have clearly defined goals or where the amount of contact between groups is high (Tosi, Mero & Rizzo, 2000).

Liaison roles - According to Robbins (1996), liaison roles are specialised roles designed to enhance communication between two interdependent workgroups, work teams and departments. The organisation can appoint a skilled person who can liaise between the conflicting parties. The individual must be well informed of the parties' goals and objectives and must be a good communicator. The individual must speak the "language" of both groups and understand their problems. This liaising role can largely reduce intergroup conflict and intergroup relations. However, it can be difficult to manage a large amount of information and frequent interaction with large groups or departments (Gudykunst, 1986).

Figure 3.5 Methods for managing intergroup relations



Source: Robbins (1996, p. 530)

Task forces - A task force is a temporary group made up of representatives from various departments in the organisation. The task force only exists for a short while and until the problem they were assembled for, is resolved. (Thompson, 2004; Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005).

Task forces can be helpful when the conflicting groups or interacting groups are more than three. Task forces can be helpful when there are problems with coordination in design, production, legal and engineering departments. If the task force finds a solution, it discontinues and its members go back to their departments and regular duties. These steps are very similar to the next step, namely the formation of a team (Robbins, 1996).

Teams - The creation of new teams can help coordination. Members of departments are taken and brought together to form a new team. Once their task is completed, they go back to their departments and resume their regular tasks. This can happen quickly and very easily. However, the costs of forming these teams are quite significant. They can be useful in crating better coordination and intergroup relations (Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993; Robbins, 1996; Gibson, et al, 2000; Thompson, 2004).

Integrating departments - Organisations might create and establish the integration of departments. Permanent departments must be established with members formally assigned to integrate the groups. This process is very expensive and it is expensive to maintain these integrated departments. However, this is necessary when the organisation has a number of groups or teams with conflicting goals, non-routine struggles and intergroup decisions which can have a major influence on the operation and production of the organisation (Gray & Starke, 1994).

Integrating departments can also be very successful when an organisation faces long-term retrenchments. This is a high cost manner of managing intergroup relations but through its success the employment relations between departments and groups will grow better and stronger (Robbins, 1996).

3.11.1 Creating healthy competition in intergroup relations

Marx, Dahrendorf and Sherif have established that competition can be a cause of conflict. The realistic conflict theory emphasizes that competition leads to intergroup conflict and that coordination and cooperation between groups are necessary to resolve the conflict. However, competition can be healthy when managed correctly. Gray and Starke (1994) explain that competition can be healthy for the organisation and intergroup relations if the following conditions are met:

The competitors are from different organisations. If the competitors are from different organisations, the groups from one organisation may start working together to beat the other organisation's groups. If groups in departments compete against other departments, they might start working together and coordinating their efforts.

Each party to the competition stands a relatively equal chance of winning. If the conditions for competition are constructed, the conditions for competition must foster equal opportunities for the competing teams.

Each party must see winning as a rewarding experience. The competition between the groups must be rewarding for all groups and individuals participating. If the reward is worth the while, the groups will see the competition as a rewarding experience.

Competing parties must not subsequently be required to collaborate. When groups compete in organisations, the likely outcome is that there will be a loser

and a winner. The losing group may lose a desire to cooperate and collaborate with the winning group.

A situation of win-win must be created and a win-lose situation must be avoided. According to Gray and Stake (1994), Callahan, et al (1986) as well as Brown (2004), the following effects might occur within the group when the competition is healthy:

- If the competition is dysfunctional, it will lead to dysfunctional intergroup conflict.
- When the competition is healthy, each group can become more closely knit and structured.
- The group climate changes from informal to task orientated. Each group becomes more organised and good leadership increases.
- Group members' loyalty and conformity increases.
- If competition is to succeed, the rewards for this competition must be evenly balanced throughout the organisation and its groups. The management must not create situations in which groups stop interacting and cooperating with each other in order to win the rewards set up through competition.

To summarise, it is important to manage intergroup relations in such a manner that it can foster sound employment relations. These above-mentioned processes may help management in creating better intergroup relations.

However, it is clear that success depends on time and money. **Positive competition can have positive effects on the group. The biggest concern can be to manage healthy competition between organisational groups or departments**. The better the method of coordination, the more expensive and time consuming it becomes. The management must decide whether they wish to create sound employment relations and intergroup relations or bad and ineffective relations.

Various intergroup conflict handling methods and techniques that can be implemented to create healthy intergroup relations have been discussed. However, some of these strategies are not efficient enough in dealing with intergroup conflict and do not create better employment relations between groups and teams. Thus it is important to look at negotiation and mediation in striving for healthier intergroup and employment relations.

3.12 Negotiation and mediation in employment and intergroup relations wellness

Negotiation and mediation are commonly used in labour disputes but can also be used to resolve intergroup conflict and to create sound employment relations between conflicting groups in the organisation. Negotiation is the process by which two conflicting sides come together to create an agreement. Management can perform the negotiation roles in the organisation through negotiating with subordinates, superiors, vendors and customers (Gibson, et al, 2000; Anstey, 1999).

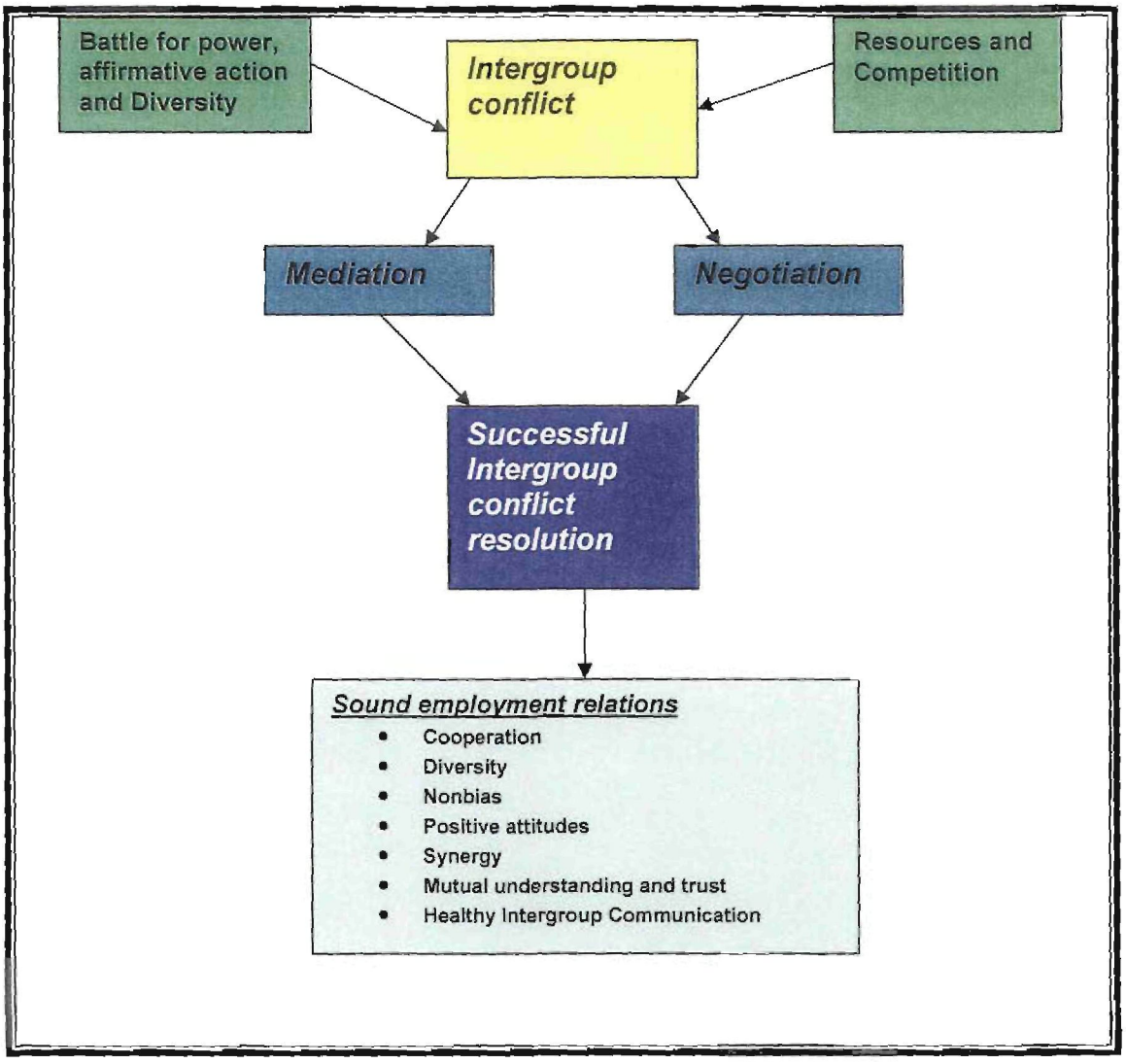
Venter (2004) says that negotiation can be seen as "the coming together of parties in the employment relationship in order to try to resolve their differences and reach a mutually acceptable outcome" (p. 367).

Mediation is the process through which a trained person actively guides the conflicting parties in resolving their conflict but does not render a decision. Mediation involves the active intervention of a neutral third party who assists the parties in achieving a mutually acceptable goal through open facilitation and dialogue. The mediator is more proactive in getting an agreeable outcome to the dispute and just stopping short of actually handing down a final and binding decision. The organisation can consider mediation when the parties do not have

the skills or are unable to or do not desire to speak to one another, or when parties are unable to find a resolution to their dispute (Venter, 2004).

Figure 3.6 describes how intergroup conflict occurs and how, through negotiation and mediation, healthy intergroup relations or employment relations wellness can be created.

Figure 3.6 Creating sound employment and intergroup relations through mediation and negotiation



Source: Own model

Before the process of negotiation occurs, pre-negotiation tasks must occur. It is important for the managers to understand the other side's (conflicting party) values, beliefs and goals. If the manager understands the other side's (conflicting party) beliefs and goals, its decisions and way of thinking can be recognized. If the interests of both parties are in the open, management may know how to deal with both parties in negotiations. It is also important to identify all the possible options for reducing the conflict, as discussed earlier in the chapter. The larger the number of options that can be identified, the stronger the chances of both groups benefiting from the negotiation process (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Hansen (2000) indicates that the following negotiation and mediation principles are vitally important in the process of resolving intergroup conflict and racing towards the goal of good employment relations:

3.12.1 Key principles of negotiation in intergroup relations

Negotiation is a widely used method of reducing intergroup conflict, but managers may less recognise it. Negotiation is essential in resolving intergroup conflicts, but is often misunderstood and badly managed. However, negotiation that is carried out in the right way can be very effective in resolving intergroup conflicts. If negotiation is carried out badly, the process may be called a street fight (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Certain social structures in the organisation can lead to injustices and intergroup conflict in the organisation. This social structure may hamper sound employment relations and might serve as a destructive force in the organisation. It is important to look at deep-seated structural changes in order to facilitate positive change. Negotiation and coercion are corresponding aspects of the process of communication between conflicting groups (Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993). Coercion and negotiation is complementary aspects of the process of communication between conflicting groups. Violence can also be seen as a

destructive manifestation of conflict, it is a part of the process of communication between conflicting groups and should be interpreted as such. It is important to consider this in the process of negotiation. Uncivilized irregularities of power between conflicting groups hinder successful negotiations in the sense that the group with the most power benefits most from the negotiation process (Hansen, 2000).

Furthermore, where there are unpleasant irregularities of power between conflicting groups it is essential to empower the weaker group. Participation in legal structures can offer organisational and legal space for the consolidation of a power base that can serve to empower weaker participants. It is vitally important to keep these procedures bound to the organisation or else the process of negotiation might fail or can cost a huge amount of time and money. Institutions created for handling conflict must be legitimate (Zartman & Touvel, 1985). The institutions, which facilitate the negotiations, must be legal or else the negotiations can be seen as a farce and will be seen as a failure by conflicting parties (Van der Merwe, 2000).

The participants in negotiation structures and processes must be representative of their electorate. If the groups elect certain members to represent them in negotiations those elected must represent them. If this is changed, the conflicting groups might also see the whole process of negotiation as a farce and negotiations will also fail. The weaker groups or teams through participation or membership need not compromise basic principles. If the conflicting groups use forced onto the conflicting groups it must be exerted in a constructive and conditional manner. Force does not mean violence and the groups must understand this if negotiation is to be successful. The conflicting groups can pressure the other into submission without violence erupting. It is important to note that certain goals must be set (Hansen, 2000; Anstey, 1999).

Peace and justice is the main goals of negotiation. Peace and justice are complementary, without peace there cannot be justice. These goals cannot exist without each other (Anstey, 1999). If a negotiation process is peaceful and justice prevails, it will be successful in resolving or reducing intergroup conflict and reaching healthy employment relations. Lastly, in this process of negotiation incremental steps can be reconciled with radical goals (Van der Merwe, 2000).

Hansen (2000) and Van der Merwe (2000) are convinced that if these principles of negotiation are followed, it might lead to a successful, purposeful, peaceful and just negotiation process. Conflicting groups can air their views and grievances in a peaceful and orderly manner. If this occurs, the conflict might be reduced or resolved and this will lead to better and healthier employment relations in the organisation.

3.12.2 Key principles of Mediation in intergroup relations

The conflicting groups in mediation must be afforded the opportunity to change position without losing face. This means that if a group wants to change its opinion on a certain subject it must be given a fair chance without scrutiny from the other conflicting groups. It is very important that private mediation should be supported by public education. In this process of mediation, the mediator must respect the accepted base of elected leaders and acknowledge the conflict between privately held views and public stands (Zartman & Touval, 1985). In this process of mediation, the emphasis must be on the fundamental need of the organisation and conflicting groups rather than on desires or interests. If the emphasis is on the fundamental problems of the conflicting groups, the chances of promoting the resolution of conflict increase (Hansen, 2000).

Probably one of the most important principles of mediation is the fact that the mediator must be neutral. If the mediator is biased towards one group, it will lead to much more conflict and end in total anarchy in the mediation process. The

mediator must be receptive to the opinions and needs of the conflicting parties (Anstey, 1999). The mediator keeps in mind the personal and humane aspects and the process must be sensitive in order to keep the humanness of the conflict and process. The mediator must have credibility with the major conflicting groups or else the mediators view will not be taken seriously (Nel, Swanepoel, Kirsten, Erasmus, & Tsabadi, 2004).

It is important that the mediator should be experienced in the field of conflict accommodation and dispute resolution. Mediators must advocate or propose possible answers to the problem. The mediator must also provide incentives and goals to the conflicting groups in order to work towards solutions to the conflict. Lastly, mediators must be willing and able to take the blame for negotiations that break down and allow parties to take the credit for negotiations that succeed (Hansen, 2000).

3.12.3 Constructive management of intergroup relations

The resolution of conflict should evolve around the problem and not the individuals. Management should schedule the negotiations between conflict groups, taking into consideration good timing and duration of negotiations (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Management must ensure that all the groups understand the circumstances that brought about the conflict (Walton, 1969). Managers must also ensure that open, constructive confrontations take place at the beginning of the negotiations (Gibson, et al, 2000). Conflict should be defined and the essence of the conflict must be established (Johnson & Johnson, 2000). From empirical evidence in Chapter 4, paragraph 4.10.1, Item C10 raised the following question: **Would you be willing to take part in a training programme in order to gain more knowledge on conflict and on handling/managing it?** The majority of the respondents (79.8%) indicated yes. Thus it is important to train the employees in handling intergroup conflict which might lead to better intergroup relations and employment relations wellness.

3.12.4 Intergroup negotiation tactics

Negotiations across conflicting teams can entail some tactics. Managers can use the following tactics when dealing with intergroup conflicts:

Good-guy/bad guy team - One member of the negotiating group advocates positions that are far fetched and out of line. When the good guy member makes suggestions it may sound reasonable and the groups might react accordingly (Thompson, 2004).

The nibble - This approach entails getting an additional concession or benefit after an agreement has been reached (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Joint problem solving - Managers must look at feasible alternatives not yet considered (Callahan, et al, 1986).

Power of competition - Competition can be a major tactic in negotiations. The group might make threatening remarks for example. We will take our products to another company. Managers must stay objective when this occurs and not act too quickly or too hastily (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Splitting the difference - This can be used when the groups have reached a stalemate. However, managers must be careful, because if a group wants to split the difference it may mean that they already have more than they deserve (Gibson, et al, 2000).

Low-balling - Low offers or concessions may be used to lower the group's expectations. Managers must be aware that lowering of offers lowers the group's goals (Thompson, 2004).

Varying situations call for different tactics. Managers should be aware of all the available alternatives and attempt to understand the rationale behind the options.

3.12.5 Applying the BATNA Principle to intergroup relations

Work teams and groups must avoid lose-lose outcomes and strive for mutual agreement between conflicting groups. The following strategy in team negotiations can enhance problem solving and conflict reduction.

3.12.5.1 The BATNA (best alternative to a negotiated agreement) principle

Teams must reach consensus when they are in conflict with other teams. The BATNA (best alternative to a negotiated agreement) principle is mostly applied to intragroup conflicts. However, it can also be applied to resolving intergroup conflicts (Fisher & Ury, 1981).

Knowing the BATNAs of the parties involved in the conflict can enhance the ability to achieve consensus. According to Thompson (2004), the following aspects form part of the BATNA, which can resolve intergroup conflicts and enhance intergroup relations.

Avoid the Fixed-Pie Fallacy

The fixed pie fallacy occurs when groups, teams, departments and individuals who are in conflict assume that the interests of the opposing party are very different. Groups in conflict do not exchange information and do not communicate about their respective interests. This might lead to faulty judgments and perceptions (Thompson, 1991). Management must avoid this in order to ensure healthy negotiations and relations between the conflicting groups.

Build trust and share information

The groups or teams must strive towards mutual trust. If trust is built, it can help in intergroup communication and negotiation. Conflicting parties can achieve this by finding points of similarity. If the group identifies that they have something in common with the other group it may promote negotiation and communication (Nadler, Thompson, & Morris, 1999).

Understand underlying interests

It is important that a team should have some information concerning the other work team's or department's preferences (Pruitt & Lewis, 1975). Conflicting parties neither seek nor provide information that might lead to mutual agreements being reached. Thompson (1991) states that the group can ask the following question: "What are your interests in this situation?" If the groups understand each other's interests and preferences, negotiation will run smoother and relations between the groups might improve.

Share information

Conflicting groups might share information depending on the confidentiality. If the groups work in the same department, it might be advantageous for the parties to share some information. If some information is revealed it might lead to the following: building of trust and it convinces the other group of your group's sincerity and priorities. The sharing of information encourages other parties to incorporate your group's priorities in its proposals, and the result might foster mutual agreements (Tindale & Sheffey, 2002).

Make multiple proposals simultaneously

In negotiations between conflicting work teams, groups and departments, the sharing of information might not be effective. This occurs when high distrust and appalling intergroup relations prevail. If the groups make multiple proposals, there are more options to choose from. If the group or teams believe that they have more choices, they are more apt to cooperate (Tindale & Sheffey, 2002).

Avoid sequential discussion of issues

When teams discuss issues sequentially, their goal is to make quick progress in order to facilitate cooperation on much more difficult issues. However, this will lead to a reduction in joint discussions, decision making and integrative agreements (Weingart, Bennet, & Brett, 1993). Thompson (2004) is of opinion that sequential discussion of issues must be avoided and multiple proposals must be encouraged.

Search for post-settlement settlements

Teams and groups can decide to renegotiate a mutual agreement which has already been agreed upon. It may be counterproductive to search for a post-settlement settlement. However, it might lead to improved and higher quality negotiated agreements (Raiffa, 1982). If better terms are set up, the conflicting parties can be more confident that a genuinely integrative agreement has been reached. If no improvement of the current agreement has been achieved, the groups may be more confident that the current agreement is a win-win outcome.

Invoke norms of justice

Teams and team members in conflict can use objective agreements to effectively state their case in conflict and negotiations. There are many objective arguments which can include the following:

- **Equity** stipulates that benefits should compare to the parties' contributions to the negotiations (Adams, 1965).

- **Equality** (or blind justice) stipulates that all teams or groups forming part of the conflict should suffer or profit equally (Messick, 1993). This can be important when negotiations take place because it states that groups, teams and departments are treated equally. Neither group will benefit more than the other group.

- **Need** (or welfare-based justice) stipulates that all teams or groups forming part of the conflict should benefit in terms of the needs of teams and groups (Deustch, 2000).

The process of negotiation can be difficult, but when applied in the correct manner it may help reduce and resolve intergroup conflicts as well as creating healthy employment and intergroup relations. The most important aspects of intergroup negotiations are the importance to create win-win situations for effected groups and synergy between the conflicting groups.

3.13 Conclusion

It is clear that socio-psychological conflict plays a major role in intergroup relations and that it forms an integral part of intergroup relations (Hewstone & Brown, 1986). Intergroup conflict can affect workgroup performance, work

satisfaction and organisational performance. This all might have an affect on employment relations between groups.

Furthermore, intergroup conflict can have such severe a consequence that the organisation can be put in total turmoil (Wallace & Wallace, 1989; Robbins, 1996; Gibson, et la, 2000). This emphasizes the importance of creating strategies, which can reduce and resolve intergroup conflict and create positive employment relations between the groups in the organisation.

Diversity in groups can be useful for management. Diversity is a source of intergroup conflict but in Chapter 2 diversity is seen as a positive aspect of intergroup relations. Diverse groups may create better intergroup relations, which in turn can enhance sound employment relations. Probably the most important aspect of intergroup relations is that the groups in an organisation must be in synergy with each other. If synergy occurs, the intergroup relations will be strengthened. According to Galinsky (2002), bias plays a major role in intergroup relations and can have a negative effect on good intergroup relations. However, there are different strategies management, groups and individuals can employ in order to resolve bias and create better intergroup and employment relations.

Contact between members of groups and sharing knowledge can help create better intergroup relations. Many strategies of conflict reduction and resolution were discussed. Some strategies can be better than others, depending on the unique situations of the organisations. Anstey (1999), Hansen (2000), Gibson, Ivancevich and Donnelly (2000), Johnson and Johnson (2000) and Robbins (1996) all agree that negotiation can be one of the best strategies of intergroup conflict reduction. Negotiation can be applied in different manners for instance the BATNA principle, and if management understands the process of negotiation, it can be successful in creating better intergroup relations and employment relations wellness. Chapter 4 will consist of the empirical research part of this study. Certain constructs such as diversity, competition and individual group

members with own intergroup experience will be tested. The findings will be evaluated and applied to the literature study of this research study.

Chapter 4

Empirical study and data analyses

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 of this study consists of the introduction, problem statement, research questions and research objectives. Chapters 2 and three deal with the literature part of this study. Various aspects such as the realistic conflict theory, types of intergroup conflict, sources of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness in correlation with intergroup conflict were discussed.

According to Kruger (1999), any interpretation of a study field must be based on observation and analysis. A scientific method is important in explaining and defining the problem. Dahrendorf (1965) stresses that every study must consist of an empirical study in order to explain and clarify the problem statement.

Thus it is important to test whether the findings in the literature correlate with the manifestation of intergroup conflict in the mining industry. The empirical evidence for intergroup conflict in a mining organisation is limited; thus there is a need to do empirical research in mining organisations.

In this chapter, the following will be discussed:

- Objective of the Research
- The Research Group
- The Research Method
- The Measuring Battery
- General Findings

4.2 Objective of the Research

4.2.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study is to identify the problem of intergroup conflict and identify the correlation between intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness.

4.2.2 Specific objectives

4.2.2.1 Theoretical objectives

- Defining and evaluating intergroup conflict through a literature study
- Determining correlations between the experience of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness

4.2.2.2 Empirical objectives

- To determine the employees' experiences of intergroup conflict
- To determine the sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict
- To determine the profile of individuals who experience intergroup conflict at similar levels
- To determine correlations between the experience of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness

4.3 Measuring Instrument

The measuring instrument is a questionnaire that evaluates intergroup conflict (Annexure A). The questionnaire consists of four sections. Section A consists of the biographical information of the respondents.

Section B consists of 10 questions, Section C of 10 questions and Section D of eight questions. Most of these questions were used in previous studies such as those of Cheung and Chuah (2002) and Havenga (2004). The questions also correlate with the objectives of the study.

The responses of the respondents were included on the following 3-point scale:

- 1- Yes
- 2- No
- 3- Unsure

The management of the organisation where the research was done preferred the questionnaire to be on a 3-point scale. Another reason for applying the questionnaire in such a manner is the lack of literacy of some of the employees. It makes the questionnaire easy to understand and quick to respond to.

The following steps were taken in applying the questionnaire:

- The research group was identified through stratified random sampling
- The head of HR of the Mining organisation evaluated the questionnaire and approved it
- 200 Questionnaires were sent out and 108 were received back, thus 54% of questionnaires.

Table 4.1 The Structure of the questionnaire

Questionnaire- subject	Items in questionnaire
Section A Biographical information	A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7
Section B Factors contributing to conflict	B1, B2, B3, B4, B5, B6, B7, B8, B9, B10
Section C Influence of intergroup conflict on employees	C1, C2, C3, C4, C5, C6, C7, C8, C9, C10
Section D Employees' own experience of intergroup conflict	D1, D2, D3, D5, D6, D7, D8

4.4 Statistical analysis

In this study, the SPSS programme (SPSS, 17.0, 2008) was used in order to find true, accurate, reliable and valid research results. The Phi coefficient, Cramer's V coefficient, descriptive statistics, correlations and frequency tables were used to retrieve valid and reliable data and information. The data were processed into percentages and frequency tables. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire

were evaluated by experts and compared with the measurement performed in the work of Havenga (2004).

4.5 Research group and Research method

Stratified random sampling was used to identify the research group. The Head of HR of the mining organisation identified twelve departments in the mining company. The Departments included the following: Human Resources, Mining, Geology, Environmental, Production, Financial, Engineering, Communication, IT, Construction, Seismic and Ventilation. From a possible population of 1000 in the twelve departments, 200 employees were chosen to participate in the research. This number represents 20% of the total population. 108 questionnaires were received back, which represents 54% of the selected research population. This is a relatively good response, taking into consideration the nature of the respondents' work. The HR manager indicated that some of the employees were hesitant to answer the questionnaires because of the nature of the conflict questionnaire, and some employees felt that their reputations and jobs were at stake. Every possible step was taken to ensure confidentiality and this was passed on to the respondents.

However, according to the Statistical Consultation Service of the North-West University, the statistics were meaningful and valid, and reliable conclusions could be drawn.

4.6 Section A: Biographical results of the measuring instrument

4.6.1 Biographical information of the respondents

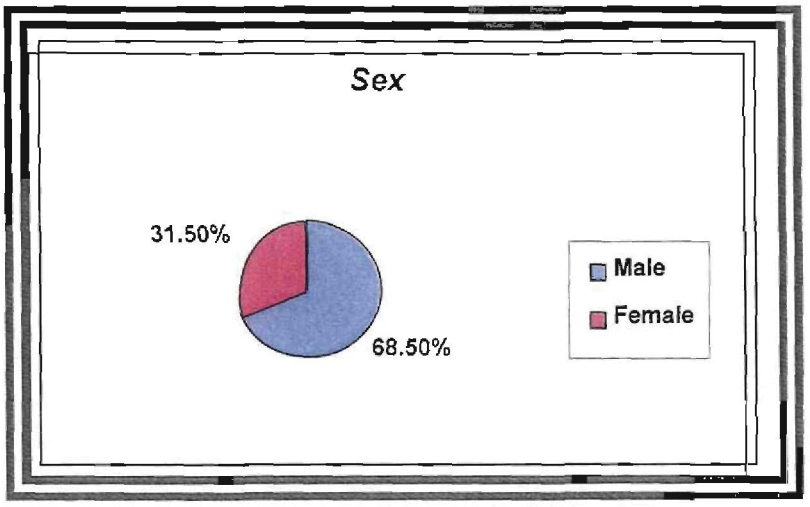
The criteria of the biographical information of the questionnaire include items, category, frequency and percentage as set out in Table 5.2. The criteria of the

respondents include sex (A1), age (A2), home language (A3), qualification (A4), tenure (A5) and departments (A6).

4.6.1.1 Sex, Age and Home language

The 108 respondents consist of 74 (68.5%) male workers and 34 (31.5%) female workers. From the 108 respondents, 0.9% (1) is under the age of 20 and 38.9% are between 21 and 35 years of age. 28.7% are between 36 and 45 years old and 31.5% are between 46 and 60 years of age. The largest group of respondents is between 21 and 35 years of age. Respondents with Afrikaans as home language represent the largest percentage respondents with 32.4%. All the other languages are almost evenly matched. The English-speaking respondents consist of 14.8%, while the other 53% are made up of the African language groups. This is an indication that this organisation's workforce is culturally very diverse.

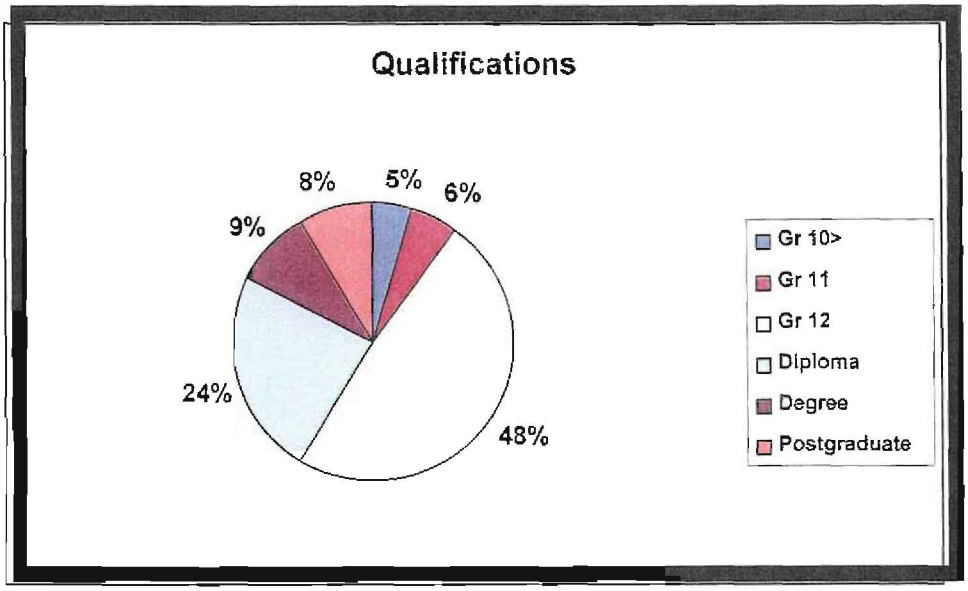
Figure 4.1 Sex of the respondents



4.6.1.2 Qualifications and Tenure

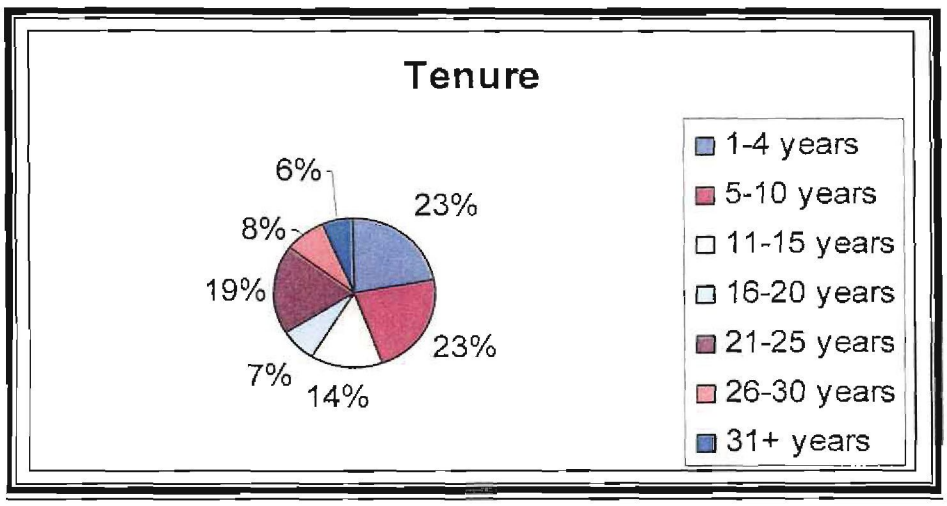
Approximately half (48.1%) of the respondents have grade 12 as their highest qualification. This is by far the largest group of the 108 respondents.

Figure 4.2 Qualifications of respondents



The tenure of the respondents lies between one (1) and more than thirty-one (+31) years of service at the organisation. The Tenure of the respondents can be summarized as follows:

Figure 4.3 Tenure of respondents

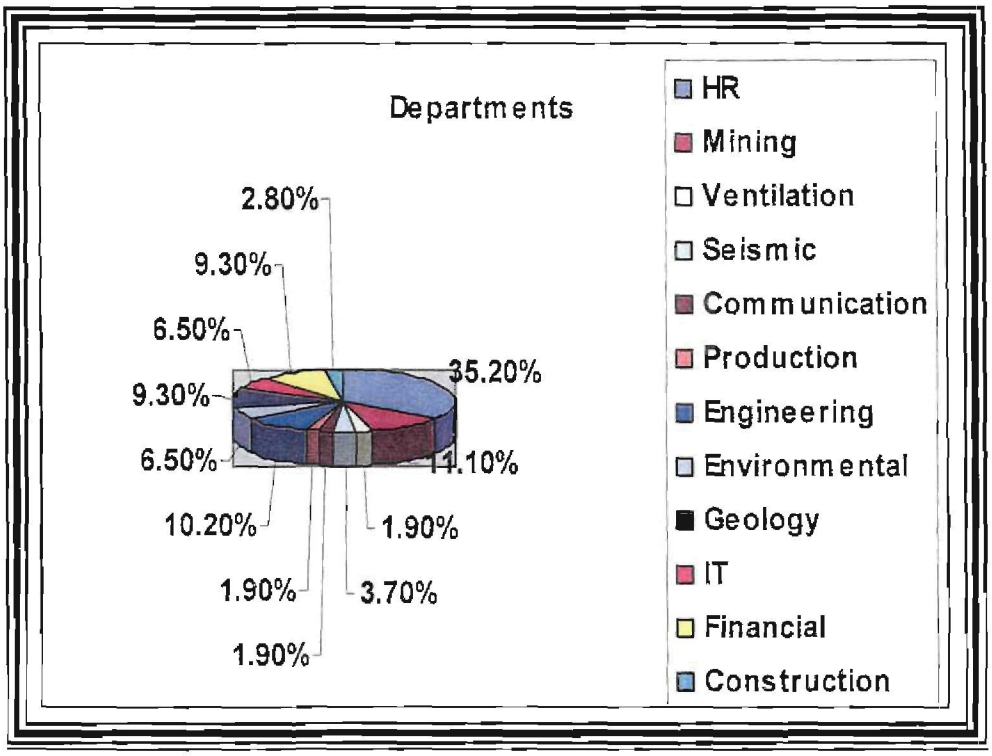


It is interesting to note that a high percentage (41.6%) of the respondents have more than fifteen-year's tenure at the organisation.

4.6.1.3 Departments, workgroups and teams

A mining organisation consists of a large number of departments. This is an advantage when researching intergroup conflict because of the conflict between groups and departments. Twelve departments were included in the research. The respondents forming part of the twelve departments were distributed as follows:

Figure 4.4 Departments forming part of the research



It is also important to determine whether the respondents form part of a workgroup or work team in the organisation. One hundred and seven of the one hundred and eight respondents indicated that they form part of a workgroup or team. Hence there is a high percentage of group activities and intergroup relations in this organisation,

Table 4.2 Biographical information of the respondents

Item	Category	N= 108	Percentage
1. Sex	1.1) Male	74	68.5
	1.2)Female	34	31.5
2. Age	2.1) Younger than 20	1	0.9
	2.2) 21-35	42	38.9
	2.3) 36-45	31	28.7
	2.4) 46-60	34	31.5
3. Qualification	3.1) Gr 10 or lower	5	4.6
	3.2) Gr 11	6	5.6
	3.3) Gr 12	52	48.1
	3.4) Diploma	26	24.1
	3.5) Degree	10	9.3
	3.6) Post-graduate	9	8.3
4. Home language	4.1) English	16	14.8
	4.2) Afrikaans	35	32.4
	4.3) Setswana	16	14.8
	4.4) Sesotho	12	11.1
	4.5) isiXhosa	17	15.7
	4.5) isiZulu	12	11.1
5. Tenure	5.1) 1-4 years	24	22.2
	5.2) 4-10 years	24	22.2
	5.3) 11-15 years	15	13.9
	5.4) 16-20 years	8	7.4
	5.5) 21-25 years	21	19.4
	5.6) 26-30 years	9	8.3
	5.7) +31 years	7	6.5
6. Departments	6.1) Human Resources	38	35.2
	6.2) Mining	12	11.1
	6.3) Geology	10	9.3
	6.4) Environmental	7	6.5
	6.5) Production	2	1.9
	6.6) Financial	10	9.3
	6.7) Engineering	11	10.2
	6.8) Communication	2	1.9
	6.9) Information Technology	7	6.5
	6.10) Construction	3	2.8
	6.11) Seismic	4	3.7
	6.12) Ventilation	2	1.9

4.7 Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire

The use of reliability and validity are common in quantitative research. Since reliability and validity are rooted in positivist perspective, these terms should be redefined for their use in a naturalistic approach. Quantitative research provides a springboard to examine what these two terms mean in the qualitative research paradigm, triangulation as used in quantitative research to test the reliability and validity can also illuminate some ways to test or maximize the validity and reliability of a qualitative study (Joppe, 2000).

4.8.1 Reliability

Reliability relates to the concept of a good quality research when reliability is a concept to evaluate quality in quantitative study with a "purpose of explaining", while the quality concept in qualitative study has the purpose of "generating understanding" (Stenbacka, 2001).

The difference in purposes of evaluating the quality of studies in quantitative and qualitative research is one of the reasons why the concept of reliability is irrelevant in qualitative research. Stenbacka (2001) points out that "the concept of reliability is even misleading in qualitative research. If a qualitative study is discussed with reliability as a criterion, the consequence is rather that the study is no good". To ensure reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial while establishing good quality studies through reliability and validity in qualitative research (Patton, 2002).

The reliability of this questionnaire has been evaluated by an expert in Industrial relations in the Mining Industry and verified as reliable towards studying intergroup conflict in organisations. The conflict questionnaires of Havenga (2004) and Cheung and Chuah (2002) have been used as tools in developing

this intergroup conflict questionnaire. The Phi and Cramer's V coefficients coefficients have been used to establish reliability in this study.

4.8.2 Validity

The concept of validity is described by a wide range of terms in qualitative studies. This concept is not a single, fixed or universal concept, but "rather a contingent construct, inescapably grounded in the processes and intentions of particular research methodologies and projects" (Winter, 2000).

Some qualitative researchers have argued that the term validity is not applicable to qualitative research, but at the same time, they have realised the need for some kind of qualifying check or measure for their research. For example, Creswell and Miller (2000) suggest that the validity is affected by the researcher's perception of validity in the study and his/her choice of paradigm assumption. As a result, many researchers have developed their own concepts of validity and have often generated or adopted what they consider to be more appropriate terms, such as, quality, rigor and trustworthiness.

4.8.3 Face Validity

The Face validity is the extent to which the test is applicable to the objective for which the test is used, based on subjective evaluation. Any technically trained person can evaluate the test and determine whether the items in the test and the content of the items are applicable to the objective the test is used for (Kruger, 1999).

The questionnaire's validity has been verified through various experts in the mining industry. These experts, all forming part of the Industrial relations field, validated this questionnaire.

4.8.4 Construct Validity of questionnaire

According to Patton (2002), the construct validity of a test is the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure.

When evaluating conflict, it is difficult to find a usable criterion that can act as an independent and objective guideline (Havenga, 2004). Construct validity therefore is an alternative method that can be used to come to know more about the inherent attributes that explain the variance of the statements concerning the constructs of the questionnaires. Therefore reliability and validity, if they are to be relevant research concepts, particularly from a qualitative point of view, have to be redefined as we have seen in order to reflect the multiple ways of establishing truth (Patton, 2002).

4.9 Section B: Causes of conflict

Section B of the questionnaire was designed to identify which factors contribute to and create conflict. Competition, diversity, availability of resources, distribution of resources and misuse of power have all been identified as sources of intergroup conflict by means of the literature study. It is important to evaluate whether these sources exist in reality in an organisation. The mining organisation is a very diverse organisation with a diverse workforce. Thus testing these items will identify whether these sources of intergroup conflict are evident in the mining organisation.

The following are the ten constructs that have been tested in the questionnaire:

B-1: Affirmative action programme
B-2: Cultural differences
B-3: Racial differences
B-4: Implementation of new management techniques

B-5: Availability of resources

B-6: Competition between groups and departments

B-7: Implementation of new technology

B-8: Extent and contents of work

B-9: Uneven distribution of scarce resources between departments and groups

B-10: Misuse of power by superiors and group leaders

Table 4.3 The statistical results of factors contributing to conflict in a large mining organisation

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Skewness	Kurtosis	Yes (%)	No (%)	Unsure (%)
B-1	108	1.65	1.00	.685	-.915	51.9	31.5	16.7
B-2	108	1.58	1.50	.649	-.551	50.0	41.7	8.3
B-3	108	1.53	1.00	.595	-.581	51.9	43.5	4.6
B-4	108	1.59	1.00	.779	-.645	53.7	33.3	13.0
B-5	108	1.61	1.00	.723	-.698	51.9	35.2	13.0
B-6	108	1.75	2.00	.366	-.840	38.9	47.2	13.9
B-7	108	1.77	2.00	.236	-.621	34.3	54.6	11.1
B-8	108	1.64	2.00	.616	-.728	48.1	39.8	12.0
B-9	108	1.83	2.00	.288	-1.188	38.0	40.7	21.3
B-10	107	1.50	1.00	1.051	-.226	61.1	25.9	12.1

This table demonstrates that Skewness and kurtosis are within +3.0 to -3.0 and + 7.0 to -7.0. Thus normality exits.

The following were found in Section B:

- **B1:** Affirmative action plays a huge role in the workplace. More than 51.9% of the respondents in the mining organisation indicated that

affirmative action is a source of conflict. Affirmative action can create racial conflict.

- **B2:** In Chapter 2 diversity was discussed as a source of intergroup conflict. Diversity includes cultural differences. Fifty percent of the respondents indicate culture as a source of conflict, while 41.9% do not acknowledge it as being that. This is an indication that there are mixed feelings about cultures. However, cultural differences must be considered to be a problem when half of the respondents see it as a source of conflict.

- **B3:** Wallace and Wallace (1989) state that racist ideologies will lead to intergroup conflict in organisations. More than 51.9% of the respondents answered yes and 43.4% answered no to racial differences as a source of conflict. Only 4.6% were unsure. More than half of the respondents see race as a source of conflict, thus implying that more than half do not work in racial harmony and see race as a problem.

- **B4:** 53.7% of the respondents indicated that the implementation of new management techniques is a source of conflict. Thus management is not implementing the new techniques in the appropriate manner. Management must evaluate existing techniques and look to alternative management techniques.

- **B5:** The availability of resources is very important for any employee and workgroup to function efficiently (Bartos & Wehr, 2002). Keeping this in mind, 51.9% of the respondents indicated that availability of resources is a problem in the organisation. This is an indication that there is a lack of resources in the organisation. Wallace and Wallace (1989) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2005) insist that a lack of resources will lead to intergroup conflict.

- **B6:** Sherif (1966), Levine and Campbell (1972), Hewstone and Brown (1986), Insko and Schopler (1998) and Hewstone and Cairns (2001) indicate that competition is one of the main sources of intergroup conflict. 38.9% of the respondents indicated that competition is a source, while 47.2% indicated that it is not and 13.9% were unsure. Most of the respondents did not see competition between departments or work groups as a source of conflict but 38.9% is a large portion and this proves that competition is a problem in organisations and that management must aim at creating positive rather than negative competition.

- **B7:** In Chapter 2 of this study, Thompson (2004) indicates that implementation of new technology plays a major role in organisations, teamwork and group work. Thus it is important to determine whether new technology plays a role in the organisation and conflict. Only 34.4% of the respondents indicated that the implementation of new technology is a source of conflict, while 54.6% indicated no and 10% were unsure. Thus the majority does not see this as a source of conflict.

- **B8:** 48.1% of the respondents indicated that both the extent and contents of their work are sources of conflict. When goals and work are unclear, it might lead to conflict.

- **B9:** More than 40.7% of the respondents answered no, 38% yes and 21.3% unsure. This item has the highest percentage of unsure answers of all ten items of section B. Respondents were all clearly unsure about the distribution of resources in the organisation. 38% of the respondents indicated that they see this item as a factor contributing to conflict. According to Marx (1965), Sherif (1966), Kreitner and Kinicki (2005), Wallace and Wallace (1989) and Brown (2002), the distribution of resources is a source of conflict. This also applies to this organisation where uneven distribution of resources clearly is a source of conflict.

- **B10:** Misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is the last item in Section B. In Chapter 2 there is an indication that power plays a major role in intergroup conflict and is a major source of intergroup conflict. This is also evident in this organisation. 61.1% of the respondents answered yes, 25.9% no and 13% unsure. This is an indication that superiors are in constant battle for power and that they misuse power. This can pose a serious problem and management must seek to eradicate this misuse of power by certain group leaders and superiors.

4.10 Sections C and D: The influence and experience of intergroup conflict

If an employee experiences intergroup conflict it may influence him/her in the form of stress, anger, alienation and declining cooperation. This might in turn affect the functioning of the group and intergroup relations negatively (Allen, 1982; Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Robbins, 1996; Hewstone & Cairns, 2001; Brown, 2004). Galinsky (2002) indicates various strategies which the individual can implement in order to reduce or resolve intergroup conflict and create better employment relations. Thus it is important to identify what influence intergroup conflict can have on the employees or individual group member.

4.10.1 Section C: The influence of intergroup conflict

Section C consists of ten items. Items C-1 to C-8 directly implicate the influences of intergroup conflict on the individual, while items C-9 to C-10 ask two important questions which directly implicate the management of the mining organisation.

C-1: Not possible to perform

C-2: Become hostile towards colleagues

C-3: Decline cooperation

C-4: Develop stress

C-5: Consider a job change

C-6: Alienate myself from other staff members or group members

C-7: Develop physical health problems

C-8: Productivity decreases

C-9: Are you aware of any policy document or standard procedures that address conflict handling and solution?

C-10: Would you be willing to take part in a training programme in order to gain more knowledge on conflict and on handling/managing it?

Table 4.4 Statistical results on influences of intergroup conflict on employees

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Skewness	Kurtosis	Yes (%)	No (%)	Unsure (%)
C-1	108	1.87	2.00	.157	-.761	29.6	53.7	16.7
C-2	108	1.89	2.00	.018	-.103	23.1	64.8	12.0
C-3	108	1.81	2.00	.275	-.874	35.2	49.1	15.7
C-4	108	1.45	1.00	1.029	.042	61.1	32.4	6.5
C-5	108	1.70	2.00	.461	-.816	42.6	44.4	13.0
C-6	107	1.84	2.00	.162	-.623	29.6	55.6	14.0
C-7	108	1.79	2.00	.107	-.401	30.6	60.2	9.3
C-8	108	1.67	2.00	.507	-.728	44.4	44.4	11.1
C-9	108	1.59	1.00	.756	-.620	52.8	35.2	12.0
C-10	108	1.29	1.00	1.988	2.645	79.6	12.0	8.3

It is evident from this table that Skewness and kurtosis are within +3.0 to -3.0 and + 7.0 to -7.0. Normality therefore prevails.

The following are the statistical findings of Table. 7.2:

C1: More than 29.7% of the respondents answered yes, 53.7% answered no and 16.6% were unsure. This is an indication that more than half of the respondents are still able to perform under the pressures of intergroup conflict, while almost 30% answered yes. This performance with conflict can indicate that conflict occurs in organisation almost daily (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005).

C2: This question tested the employee's hostility towards colleagues. Only 23.1 answered yes and 12% were unsure. The majority, 64.7%, indicated that they do not become hostile towards colleagues.

C3: This item posed a very important question. Cooperation is very important in intergroup relations and if cooperation fails it will lead to full-blown intergroup conflict (Sherif, 1966; Tajfel, 1979; Tajfel & Turner; 1983; Hewstone & Cairns, 2001; Brown, 2004; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005; Nelson & Quick, 2006). 35.2% of the respondents answered yes, while 49.1% answered no. This is an indication that cooperation can decline when conflict exists, while 49.1% of the respondents still cooperate when they experience intergroup conflict. A large percentage, 15.7% of the respondents were unsure about the occurrence of cooperation.

C4: Conflict can be very stressful and might influence the employment relations wellness of the organisation. Stress and intergroup relations go hand in hand (Ratzburg, 1999). 61.1% of the respondents answered yes. This is an indication that stress plays a major role in the individual experience of intergroup conflict. Only 32.4% indicated that they do not experience stress and 6.5% were unsure.

C5: Item 5 consisted of employees considering a job change when experiencing conflict. 42.6% indicated yes, 44.4% no and 13% were unsure. This can be alarming for the organisation and management. It must imply that conflict is so severe at times that 42.2% of the respondents considered a job change. The 13% that were unsure might be in two minds – leave the job or get on with it. When employees want to leave the organisation, a quick solution must be implemented to reduce the conflict and create better employment relations.

C6: The construct applying to this question is alienation. Karl Marx, in Havenga (2004), indicates that alienation is an antecedent of conflict, and clearly can become a problem in the workplace. 29.2% of the respondents indicated that alienation takes place and that they alienate themselves from co-workers and group members. Twelve percent of the respondents were unsure about alienation taking place. These employees might start feeling alienated or are not sure whether they are alienated. However, 55.8% of the respondents answered no, indicating that they do not feel alienated. Thus it can be seen as a positive, indicating that alienation does not play such a huge role in the organisation and group work.

C7: Item 7 can be closely associated with employee wellness. If the employees develop physical health problems it will influence their ability to perform. Most of the respondents (60.2%) indicated that they do not develop physical health problems, which can be seen as positive. However, 30.2% indicated that they do endure physical health problems resulting from conflict. This can be a problem, because from a population of 108 respondents 30.2% developed physical health problems. Conflict can cause stress and the management must introduce remedies to limit stress and create employee wellness.

C8: Item eight included productivity. Productivity is very important for the functioning of an organisation. No organisation can be successful if the organisation, employees and workgroups are not productive. 44.4% respondents answered yes or no respectively and 11.1% unsure. An even percentage of respondents indicated that their own productivity decreases or does not decrease. It is alarming to note that 44.4% of the employees who suffer from conflict will display deteriorating productivity. The organisation can lose a lot of time, money and resources due to this. However, this also shows that 44.4% of the respondents are still productive when experiencing conflict or intergroup conflict.

C9: In this item, the following question was raised: **Are you aware of any policy document or standard procedures that address conflict handling and**

solution? 52.8% of the respondents indicated that they were aware of such a policy, while 35.2% said no and 12% were unsure. This adds up to 47.2% of the respondents that are not aware or partially aware of a conflict handling policy. The management must ensure that all employees are aware of such a policy or procedure in order to deal with conflict appropriately. Management must ensure that employees are educated regarding conflict in the workplace.

C10: Item 10 raised the following question: **Would you be willing to take part in a training programme in order to gain more knowledge on conflict and on handling/managing it?** The majority of the respondents (79.8%) indicated yes. This implies that there are no such training programmes in place in the organisation and that there is a high demand for conflict training programmes.

4.10.2 Section D: The experience of intergroup conflict

Section D evaluates the employees' own experiences of intergroup conflict. The following were the items in Section D:

Table 4.5 Statistical results for the employees' own experience of intergroup conflict

Variable	N	Yes (%)	No (%)	Unsure (%)
D-2	108	24.1	69.4	6.5
D-3	108	64.8	26.9	8.3
D-5	108	43.5	49.1	7.4
D-6	108	47.2	39.8	13.0
D-7	108	88.0	11.1	.9
D-8	108	30.6	59.3	10.2

D-2: Do you see all conflict in the organisation as negative?

D-3: Do you think conflict between groups/ or departments affect productivity in the organisation in a negative manner?

D-5: Do you think conflict can have positive outcomes for the organisation?

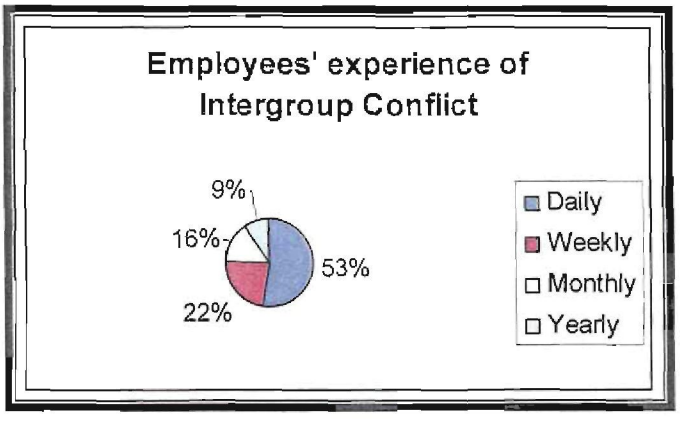
D-6: Do you think it is important that groups and departments function interdependently of each other?

D-7: Do you think cooperation between groups and departments is necessary to achieve organisational goals?

D-8: Do you think conflict between groups or departments can be eliminated in the organisation?

- **D1** tests to what degree (Daily, weekly, monthly or yearly) the employees experience intergroup conflict. Most of the respondents of this organisation (52.3%) experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis, while 22.2% said on a weekly basis, 15.7% on a monthly basis and 9.3% on a yearly basis. The degree of conflict can fluctuate, especially between departments, for reasons of cooperation and negotiations (Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Nelson & Quick, 2001).

Figure 4.5 Employees' experience of intergroup conflict



- **D2:** 69.4% of respondents indicated that they do not see all conflict as negative, while 21.1% indicated yes and 6.5% were unsure. This can be

seen as a positive, because the majority of the respondents did not view all conflict as negative.

- **D3:** In this mining organisation 64.8% of the respondents indicated that intergroup conflict would affect productivity negatively, 26.9% indicated no and 8.3% were unsure. This means that most of the respondents see intergroup conflict affecting productivity negatively.
- **D5:** Item D5 evaluated positive outcomes of intergroup conflict and 43.5% indicated yes, 49.1% no and 7.4% were unsure. This means that 43.5% of the respondents feel that intergroup conflict can have positive outcomes. This is very important because positive conflict outcome will create sound employment and intergroup relations.
- **D6:** Interdependent functioning is one of the most important aspects in intergroup relations and this is evident in the response. More than 47% of the respondents indicated yes, 39.8% no and 13% were unsure. Most of the respondents indicated yes, which stresses the importance of interdependency in intergroup relations.
- **D7:** Cooperation is vital to sound intergroup relations (Sherif, 1966). Eighty-eight percent of the respondents indicated yes to cooperation in order to achieve organisational goals, while only 11.1% indicated no and 0.9% were unsure. This highlights the importance of cooperation in intergroup relations.
- **D8:** In item D8, elimination of intergroup conflict was evaluated and 30.6% of the respondents felt that intergroup conflict can be eliminated, while 59.3% said no and 10.2% were unsure. It is obvious that most of the respondents accept the fact that intergroup conflict will never be eliminated.

4.11 Determining statistical correlations

Table 4.6 Symmetric measures: The PHI coefficient

Item	Phi coefficient					N of valid cases
	Sex	Qualifications	Home Language	Tenure	Departments	
B1	**.236**	.158	**.391**	**.561**	**.621**	108
B2	.064	**.312**	**.320**	**.382**	**.670**	108
B3	.114	.240	.270	**.356**	.458	108
B4	.053	**.316**	.249	.299	.408	108
B5	.138	**.310**	**.379**	**.376**	.365	108
B6	.042	.223	.288	**.403**	**.467**	108
B7	**.171**	.196	.314	.299	.455	108
B8	.056	.287	**.387**	.238	**.492**	108
B9	**.183**	**.322**	**.405**	**.355**	**.470**	108
B10	.069	.292	**.399**	**.363**	**.541**	107
C1	.018	.224	**.403**	.246	.466	108
C2	.096	**.420**	**.368**	**.336**	**.509**	108
C3	.053	.276	**.433**	**.379**	.440	108
C4	**.174**	.201	.262	**.322**	**.487**	108
C5	**.184**	.254	.286	**.374**	.432	108
C6	**.184**	**.358**	.306	.253	.450	107
C7	.096	.190	.293	**.422**	.460	108
C8	.100	.228	.339	**.324**	**.568**	108
C9	**.226**	**.317**	**.406**	.282	.425	108
C10	**.195**	.291	.211	**.460**	**.564**	108
D1	.126	**.390**	.358	**.406**	**.697**	107
D2	.121	**.318**	**.457**	.212	**.478**	108
D3	**.251**	**.356**	.269	.278	.361	108
D5	.044	.271	**.346**	.270	**.523**	108
D6	.082	**.397**	.296	**.354**	.460	108
D7	**.251**	.216	**.371**	**.318**	.417	108
D8	.064	**.327**	**.527**	.277	.404	108

To determine the profile of group members who experience conflict at similar levels, the following correlations were made:

Sex, Tenure, Home language, departments and qualifications were correlated with all the items of the questionnaire. The Phi and Cramer's V coefficients were used in order to find reliable and valid results. Table 4.6 portrays the Phi coefficients for the items in the questionnaire. The following are important when using the Phi Coefficient:

- 0.1 indicates small differences in response
- 0.3 indicates average differences in response
- 0.5 indicates large differences in response

The following findings were **significant:**

4.11.1 Correlation according to Sex (A1):

4.11.1.1 Section B

- **Sex*B1:** The male and female responses with affirmative action as a source of conflict differed significantly. The Phi coefficient is 0.236. 57% of males indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while 41% of females indicated the same. This might be contributed to the fact that affirmative action is mostly applied negatively towards male workers.
- **Sex *B2**: This item yielded no significant differences.
- **Sex *B3, B6, B9, B10:** The Phi for racial differences is 0.114. 59% of female respondents see race as a source of conflict in the organisation, while 49% males see it as a source of conflict. The Phi coefficient for competition between the sexes is 0.042; thus indicating a small difference in male and female responses. Uneven distribution of resources has a Phi of 0.183; thus indicating greater difference between male and female responses. The most interesting figure is that in which 32.4% of females

indicated that they were unsure about the distribution of resources, while only 16% of males were unsure. One can conclude that females are struggling more in an attempt to obtain resources. The most common source of conflict indicated was misuse of powers by superiors and group leaders. The Phi is 0.069, which means that there is a small difference in how males and females see misuse of power.

Table 4.7 Respondent's sex in correlation with affirmative action

	Affirmative Action as a source of conflict			
	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
Males	*42* *56.8%*	*24* *32.4%*	*8* *10.8%*	*74* *100%*
Females	14 41.2%	10 29.4%	10 29.4%	34 100%
Total	*56* *51.9%*	*34* *31.5%*	*18* *16.7%*	*108* *100%*

- **Sex *B4, B5, B6, B7, B8:** These items did not yield any significant differences between the responses of the sexes.

4.11.1.2 Section C:

- **Sex *C1, C2, C3:** The Phi for not able to perform, become hostile towards colleagues and declining cooperation is 0.018, 0.096 and 0.053 respectively. This is an indication that there is almost no difference in the responses of females and males.
- **Sex *C4, C5:** However, there is a significant difference in the development of stress. The Phi is 0.174. 57% of males indicated yes, while 71% of females indicated yes. This is a clear indication that female employees experience much more stress in the workplace resulting from intergroup conflict than male employees.

- **Sex *C9:** The Phi coefficient of Item C-9 is 0.251. This reveals a larger difference in responses. Sixty percent of male respondents are aware of conflict handling policies, while 41% of females were not aware and 21% were unsure of such policies. This clearly shows that females are not up to speed with such policies and as to whether they even exist.

- **Sex *C10:** The Phi for Item C-10 is 0.195. Seventy-four percent of male respondents are willing to take part in a training programme, while 91% of female respondents are willing to participate in such a training programme. This is a substantial difference and is an indication that female employees are keen on learning how to deal with conflict. This might attributed to the findings of this statistical analysis showing that females suffer from stress and consider job changes due to conflict and intergroup conflict.

4.11.1.3 Section D:

- **Sex *D3:** Do you think conflict between groups/ or departments affect productivity in the organisation in a negative manner? There is a more significant difference between male and female responses. The Phi is 0.251. 82.4% of females answered yes and 56.8% of males answered yes. This indicates a significant difference between the two sexes. Females see intergroup conflict as negative and feel that it will affect productivity negatively.
- **Sex *D7:** Do you think cooperation between groups and departments are necessary to achieve organisational goals? The Phi is 0.251. One hundred percent of female respondents answered yes, while 82.4% of males answered yes. It is interesting to note that all the female respondents (34) see cooperation as important and a way to achieve organisational goals. This complies with Sherif (1966) who stresses the importance of cooperation in intergroup relations.

- **Sex *D8:** Do you think conflict between groups or departments can be eliminated in the organisation? The Phi is 0.064. This means that there is only a small difference between male and female responses. 58% of males and 62% of female respondents indicated that intergroup conflict could not be eliminated in the organisation. This also implies that most of the respondents accept the fact that intergroup conflict is part of the organisation.

4.11.2 Correlation according to tenure (A5)

4.11.2.1Section B

- **Tenure*B1:** There is a significant difference in tenure and affirmative action. The Phi is 0.561, which is significantly high. Eighty-seven percent of respondents with 16-20 years, 91% with 21-25 years and 78% with 26-30 years' tenure see affirmative action as a source of conflict, while only 17% with 1-4 years of experience see affirmative action as a source of conflict. It is clear that employees with a longer tenure at the organisation see affirmative action as a bigger threat.
- **Tenure*B5:** The availably of resources and tenure also indicated significant difference. The Phi is 0.376. Seventy-five percent of respondents with 5-10 and 16-20 years' tenure indicated that availability of resources is a source of conflict, while only 37% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that availability of resources is a source of conflict. Furthermore, 48% of respondents with 21-25 years' tenure regarded availability of resources as a source of conflict. From this it is clear that respondents with a shorter tenure have more resources available, while respondents with longer tenures, more than five years, have fewer resources available.
- **Tenure*B6:** Competition between departments and workgroups, which is a main reason for intergroup conflict, has a Phi coefficient of 0.403, which is relatively high. Sixty-three percent of respondents between 16-20 years'

tenure and 57% between 21-25 years' tenure indicated that competition is a source of conflict, while only 11% with 26-30 years' tenure and 25% with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that competition is a source of conflict. This clearly shows that there are significant differences in how respondents with different tenures experience competition. Some may see competition as negative conflict, while others, like the respondents with 26-30 years' tenure see competition as a positive.

- **Tenure*B8:** Extents and contents of work in correlation with tenure have a lower Phi of 0.238. This is an indication that the difference between the different tenure groups is smaller and the experiences are very similar.
- **Tenure*B9:** An interesting occurrence took place in the distribution of resources and tenure. Thirty-seven percent of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated the availability of resources as a source of conflict, while 67% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that there is an uneven distribution of resources. This is very contrasting. Fifty-nine percent of respondents with 5-10 years' tenure indicate that uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict, while 28.6% of 21-25 years, 22.2% of 26-30 years and 28.6% with 31 and more years' tenure indicated that uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict, while 43%, 56% and 57% respectively indicated that uneven distribution is not a source of conflict. This means that the majority of respondents with more than 20 years' tenure do not feel that uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict. There is a huge contrast between respondents with 1-4 years' tenure and respondents with more than 20 years' tenure at the organisation.
- **Tenure*B10:** Misuse of power by superiors and tenure has a Phi of 0.363. The respondents indicated the following: Seventy-one percent of 5-10, 71% of 11-15, 75% of 16-20, 62% of 21-25 and 88% of 31+ indicated that misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict,, while only 42% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated the same.

Thus respondents with longer than 5 years' tenure experience a larger amount of power abuses by superiors.

Table 4.8 Misuse of power in correlation with tenure

	Misuse of power as a source of conflict			
Tenure	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
1-4 years	*10* *41.7%*	*9* *37.5%*	*5* *20.8%*	*24* *100%*
5-10 years	17 71.8%	7 29.2%	0 0%	24 100%
11-15 years	*10* *71.4%*	*2* *14.3%*	*2* *14.3%*	*14* *100%*
16-20 years	6 75%	1 12.5%	1 12.5%	8 100%
21-25 years	*13* *61.9%*	*4* *19%*	*4* *19%*	*21* *100%*
26-30 years	*4* *44.4%*	*4* *44.4%*	*1* *11.1%*	*9* *100%*
31+ years	*6* *85.7%*	*1* *14.3%*	*0* *0%*	*7* *100%*
Total	*66* *61.7%*	*28* *26.2%*	*13* *12.1%*	*107* *100%*

4.11.2.2 Section C

- **Tenure*C3:** The Phi for declining cooperation and tenure is 0.379. Twenty-nine percent of the respondents with 1-4, 20% of 11-15, 25% of 16-20 and 30% of 31+ years' tenure indicated unsure. This is a large number of respondents to be unsure. It is an indication that there is a high level of hesitancy towards cooperation in the organisation.
- **Tenure*C4:** The Phi for developing stress and tenure is 0.322, which indicates a notable difference in response. Fifty-four percent of 1-4 years,

71% of 5-10 years, 67% of 11-15, 76% of 21-25 and 58% of respondents with 31+ years' tenure indicated that they develop stress when they experience intergroup conflict. However, only 38% of 16-20 years' tenure and 33% respondents with 26-30 year tenure indicated that they develop stress through conflict.

- **Tenure*C5:** The most interesting finding in comparing tenure and considering a job change was that 90% of respondents with 26-30 year tenure said they do not consider a job change, while none indicated yes. In contrast, 54% of respondents with 1-10 years' tenure indicated that they do consider a job change when experiencing intergroup conflict. Fifty-eight percent of respondents with more than 31 years' tenure also consider a job change when experiencing intergroup conflict.
- **Tenure*C10:** The Phi for factor C10 is 0.460, which is considerably high. Eighty-six percent of respondents with 5-25 years' tenure indicated that they are willing to go to a conflict handling training programme. This is significantly high. However, only 62.5% of respondents with 1-4 years and 55% with 26-30 years are willing to take part in such a programme.

4.11.2.3 Section D

- **Tenure*D1:** Only 29% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis, while more than 60% of respondents with 5-31+ years' tenure experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis. This is an indication that employees with longer tenure experience higher levels of intergroup conflict than employees with less than five years' tenure.
- **Tenure*D6:** Twenty-five percent of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that interdependence between departments is necessary, while 25% were unsure. Twenty-eight percent of respondents with more that 31 years' tenure indicated that interdependence are necessary, while almost 57% of respondents with 5-30 years' tenure indicated that it is necessary

to work interdependently with other departments. Thus employees with 1-4 years' tenure do not fully understand the importance of working interdependently.

- **Tenure*D7:** The Phi coefficient is 0.318. One hundred percent of the respondents with 26-31+ years' tenure indicated that it is necessary for workgroups and departments to cooperate, while 90% of respondents with 5-25 years' tenure indicated that it is important to cooperate to be productive. Seventy-five percent of the respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that it is important to cooperate with other groups or departments. This is an indication that the longer the tenure at the organisation, the stronger the emphasis that is placed on cooperation.

Table 4.9 Cooperation in correlation with tenure

	Cooperation to achieve organisational goals			
Tenure	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
1-4 years	*18* *75%*	*5* *20.8%*	*1* *4.2%*	*24* *100%*
5-25 years	61 89.7%	7 10.3%	0 0%	68 100%
26-31+ years	*16* *100%*	*0* *0%*	*0* *0%*	*16* *100%*
Total	*95* *88.0%*	*12* *11.1%*	*1* *0.9%*	*108* *100%*

4.11.3 Correlation according to Home language (A4)

4.11.3.1 Section B

- **Home language*B1:** The Phi is 0.391. 75% of Afrikaans respondents and 63% of English respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while 38% of African language respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict. This indicates a large difference

and the respondents with Afrikaans as home language see affirmative action as a matter of great concern in the organisation.

- **Home language*B5**: The Phi for scarcity of resources is 0.379. The interesting aspect of this item is that more than 55% of all the languages indicated that scarcity of resources is a source of conflict, while only 25% of Sesotho-speaking respondents indicated that this is a source of conflict.
- **Home language*B8:** Sixty-seven percent of isiZulu-speaking respondents, 65% of isiXhosa-speaking respondents and 63% of English-speaking respondents indicated that both the extent and contents of their work are sources of conflict. Only 25% Setswana, 31% Sesotho and 42% of Afrikaans-speaking respondents indicated that both the extent and contents of their work are sources of conflict. This indicates a clear difference between the different language groups.
- **Home language*B9:** Uneven distribution of scarce resources between departments and groups and home languages consist of a large number of respondents who are unsure. Forty-seven percent of isiXhosa and 33% of isiZulu respondents were unsure about this item, while only 17% of isiZulu, 24% of isiXhosa and 33% of Setswana respondents indicated yes. However, 44% of English, 46% of Afrikaans and 50% of Sesotho respondents indicated that uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict. This is an indication that there are huge difference in viewpoints regarding distribution of resources among different language groups and great uncertainty about how resources are allocated.
- **Home language*B10**: Fifty percent of English, 75% of Afrikaans, 56% of Sesotho, 82% of Setswana, 53% of isiXhosa and 50% of isiZulu-speaking respondents indicated that misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict in the mining organisation. This shows that a high number of Setswana and Afrikaans-speaking respondents experience misuse of power by superiors and group leaders.

4.11.3.2 Section C

- **Home language*C2:** Forty-four percent of English-speaking respondents become hostile towards colleagues when experiencing intergroup conflict, 26% of Afrikaans-speaking respondents also indicated yes, 25% of the Sesotho-speaking respondents responded yes, while only 13% (5) of (41) of the Setswana, isiZulu and isiXhosa-speaking respondents indicated yes. This is indicative of a huge contrast between the English-speaking and Setswana, isiZulu and isiXhosa-speaking respondents.
- **Home language*C3:** Seventy-five percent of Afrikaans-speaking respondents indicated no to declining cooperation, thus they are willing to cooperate with other groups and departments, while 50% of English-speaking respondents and 59% of isiZulu-speaking respondents declined cooperation when experiencing intergroup conflict. More than 31% of the Sesotho respondents, 25% of the Setswana respondents and 30% of the isiXhosa respondents were unsure about declining cooperation; thus putting themselves in two minds. There is a clear difference in the experience of intergroup conflict of the different home languages in item C3.
- **Home language*C6:** Only 9.1% (1) of the Setswana-speaking respondents indicated that they alienate themselves from other employees, while in contrast, 44% (7 of 16) of English-speaking respondents alienated themselves from other employees when experiencing intergroup conflict. However, 29% Afrikaans and 31% Sesotho respondents also indicated yes. In many of the items such as C6, C2, B8, B9 and B10 the Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents produced the same responses; thus displaying almost the same profile.
- **Home language*C9:** Seventy-five percent (12) English, 55% Afrikaans, 65% isiXhosa and 50% isiZulu-speaking respondents indicated that they are aware of conflict handling policies, while only 38% Sesotho and 33% Setswana-speaking indicated yes and 38% of Sesotho-speaking

respondents were unsure. This is a clear indication that there are vast differences between certain home languages and that not all the respondents and employees in the organisation are aware of these conflict-handling policies.

4.11.3.3 Section D

- **Home language*D2:**Only 18% of English, 17% of Afrikaans and 5.9% of isiXhosa-speaking respondents see all conflict as negative, while 37% Sesotho, 50% Setswana and 33% of isiZulu-speaking see all conflict in the mining organisation as negative.
- **Home language*D5:** More than 56% of English respondents, 54.3% of Afrikaans respondents and 53% of isiXhosa respondents indicated that conflict can have positive outcomes for the organisation, while 63% Sesotho, 58% Setswana and 75% isiZulu-speaking respondents indicated that conflict does not have positive outcomes for the mining organisation. Thus there is a sharp contrast between the different language groups.
- **Home language*D7:** The Phi is 0.371, and 87.5% of the English, 92% of Afrikaans, 88% of Sesotho, 83.3% of Setswana and 100% of isiXhosa respondents indicated that cooperation is necessary to reach organisational goals. However, only 67% of isiZulu respondents indicated yes and 33.3% indicated no. Thus isiZulu respondents acknowledge cooperation, but not in the same way as the other language groups.
- **Home language*D8:** The Phi for these items is 0.527 and Cramer's V is 0.372, which is considerably high. 75% of English and 83% of Afrikaans-speaking respondents indicated that it is impossible to eliminate conflict between groups or departments in the organisation, while in stark contrast, 69% of Sesotho-speaking respondents indicated that it is possible to eliminate intergroup conflict in the mining organisation. More than 51% (21 of 41) of the rest of the languages indicated that it is impossible to eliminate intergroup conflict. It is interesting to note the huge

difference between the Sesotho respondents' responses and those of other respondents.

4.11.4 Correlation according to Qualifications (A3)

4.11.4.1 Section B

- **Qualifications*B1:** More than 80% of respondents with grade 10 or lower indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while 50% of respondents with grade11, grade 12, a diploma, a degree and a postgraduate qualification indicated AA as a source o conflict. It is interesting to note the major difference between the opinions of the respondents with grade 10 or lower and the rest of the qualifications.
- **Qualifications*B2:** Seventy-four percent of respondents with a degree or postgraduate qualification indicated that culture is a source of conflict, while only 45% respondents with a diploma or lower indicated culture as a source of conflict. Thus there is a considerable difference between graduates and postgraduates and the other qualification groups.
- **Qualifications*B4:** All of the respondents (100%) with grade 11 indicated that implementation of new management techniques is a source of conflict, 70% with degrees, 60% with grade 12 or lower, 50% with grade 12 and 42% with diplomas also indicated yes. Thus there is a considerable difference between the different qualifications.
- **Qualifications*B5:** Sixty percent of respondents with tertiary qualifications indicated that availability of resources is a source of conflict, while 46% of respondents with grade 12 or lower indicated that availability of resources is a source of conflict.
- **Qualifications*B9:** Forty-two percent of respondents with tertiary qualifications indicated that uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict, while 38% with grade 12 and 40% with grade 10 or lower indicated the same. No (0%) respondents with grade 11 indicated yes, while 100% indicated no.

4.11.4.2 Section C

- **Qualifications*C2:** Only 17% of respondents with grade 12 or lower indicated yes to hostility towards colleagues, while 66% with diplomas and 90% with degrees indicated no. However, 67% with postgraduate qualifications indicated yes. This is an indication of vast differences in responses.
- **Qualifications*C3:** All the respondents (100%) indicated no to declining cooperation, while 50% of respondents with Grade 11 and grade 12 also indicated no. Forty-two percent of respondents with a tertiary qualification indicated yes to declining cooperation. The respondents with grade 10 or lower see cooperation as very important in the mining organisation.
- **Qualifications*C6:** No (0%) respondents with grade 10 or lower indicated yes to alienation, while 32% with grade 11 and 12 indicated yes. More than 35% of respondents with diplomas, and 45% with postgraduate qualifications indicated yes, while only 10% respondents with degrees indicated yes. Thus the respondents with grade 10 or lower and degrees experience almost no alienation.
- **Qualifications*C10:** Sixty-seven percent of grade 11 and postgraduate qualifications respectively indicated that they are willing to receive conflict training, while 90% with a degree, 81% with a diploma, 83% with grade 12 and 60% with grade 10 or lower indicated yes. It is interesting to note that lower qualified respondents are less willing to attend conflict-training programmes than higher qualified respondents, but the highest qualified respondents are also less willing.

4.11.4.3 Section D

- **Qualifications *D1:** All of the respondents (100%) with grade 12 or lower indicated that they experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis, while 51% of respondents with grade 11 and 12 experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis. More than 42% of respondents with diplomas and 33% of respondents with postgraduate qualifications experience intergroup

conflict on a daily basis. However, 80% of respondents with degrees experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis. This emphasizes the difference in the conflict experience between different qualifications and the correlation between grade 10 or lower respondents and respondents with degrees.

- **Qualifications*D2:** Ninety percent of respondents with postgraduate qualifications, 81% with diplomas, 60% with degrees, 67% with grade 12, 50% with grade 11 and 40% with grade 10 or lower do not see all conflict as negative.
- **Qualifications*D3:** More than 68% of respondents with grade 12 or lower indicated that intergroup conflict can negatively affect productivity, while 60% of respondents with tertiary qualifications indicated yes.
- **Qualifications*D6:** More than 78% of respondents with postgraduate qualifications indicated that interdependence is important between groups and departments, while only 50% of respondents with diplomas indicated yes and 60% of respondents with degrees indicated no. Forty-six percent of respondents with grade 12 and 40% of respondents with grade 10 or lower indicated yes, while only 16% of respondents with grade 11 indicated yes and 50% were unsure. Thus respondents with postgraduate qualifications understand the importance of interdependency in intergroup relations.
- **Qualifications*D8:** The Phi is 0.327 and Cramer's V is 0.231. More than 71% of respondents with tertiary qualifications indicated that they do not feel that conflict can be eliminated, while only 51% of respondents with grade 12 or lower indicated the same. Thus, a huge difference exists between the grade 12 or lower and tertiary qualified respondents.

4.11.5 Correlation according to Departments (A6)

Departments play an important role in intergroup relations in any organisation (Nelson & Quick, 2006; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2005). Thus, it is important to test and evaluate the different departments' views on conflict and intergroup relations.

4.11.5.1Section B

- **Departments*B1:** The Phi for affirmative action is extremely high, namely at 0.621. This high coefficient can be attributed to the difference in opinion of the departments and the large number of different departments which form part of the research group. More than 83% of respondents in the mining department, 80% in the Geology department, 100% in the production department and 100% in the Seismic department indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict. However, only 50% of the respondents in the HR department, 14.3% in the Environmental department, 30% in the financial departments, 45.5% in the financial department and 28.6% of respondents in the IT department indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict. It therefore is obvious that a huge difference in departments can be attributed to the way in which affirmative action is implemented and applied in the various departments.
- **Departments*B2:** The Phi for cultural diversity is 0.670, which is considerably high. Diversity plays a huge role in intergroup relations and this response simply emphasizes the importance of diversity as a source of intergroup conflict, but also as a way to create better intergroup relations. All (100%) of the respondents of the Financial, Communication and Seismic departments separately indicated that Culture is a source of conflict and 65% of the HR department indicated this. However, to the other extreme, only 9.1% of the Engineering, 33% of Mining and 0% of both production and Ventilation indicated culture as a source of conflict.

This means that cultural differences are present but differ to the extreme from department to department

- **Departments*B6:** Competition is a main source of intergroup conflict, and already evident in this organisation is the existence of competition. The Phi for competition is 0.467, which is relatively high. In most of the departments between 30% and 50% of the respondents indicated competition is a source of conflict. However, in the mining departments 75% of the respondents, 100% of Construction and 82% respondents of Engineering indicated that competition is a source of conflict. This is interesting to note and could indicate that the Mining, Construction and Engineering departments experience much more competition between departments than the other departments forming part of this study.
- **Departments*B8:** It is interesting to note that as in items A6*B6, 75% respondents of the mining department indicated yes, in addition, 100% of Construction, 100% of IT and 100% of Ventilation also indicated yes to contents and extents of work as a source of conflict, while only 40% of financial and 43% of environmental and 43% of IT respondents indicated yes. From the above-mentioned data, a similar profile between the mining, construction, and ventilations departments are being formed.
- **Departments*B9:** All (100%) of the respondents of the Production, Construction, Seismic and Ventilation departments indicated that uneven distribution of scarce resources between departments and groups is not a source of conflict, while 21.1% of HR, 30% of Financial, 27.3% of Engineering, 50% of Communication and 43% of IT respondents were unsure. This is a high number of uncertainties in the above-mentioned departments and as mentioned in item B9, a great uncertainty about distribution of resources exists in this organisation.
- **Departments*B10:** The Phi and Cramer's V coefficients are 0.541 and 0.383 respectively. Seventy-one percent of respondents of HR, 67% of Environmental, 100% of Production, 75% of IT, 80% of Geology, 100% of Construction and 100% of respondents of Ventilation indicated that

misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict in the mining organisation. Conversely, only 30% respondents of Financial, 46% of Engineering and 58% respondents of the Mining departments indicated that misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict in the mining organisation. Vast contrasts exist between the different departments. This is a clear indication that the various departments' superiors and group leaders use their powers in diverse ways, some for the good of the departments, while others abuse their powers.

4.11.5.2 Section C

- **Departments*C2:** The Phi is 0.509. Nevertheless, most of the respondents in the various departments feel that hostility towards colleagues did not play a major role as a source of conflict.
- **Departments*C4:** Stress plays a major role in the conflict in this organisation. The Phi coefficient is 0.487, which suggests a visible difference in responses. Table 4.11 demonstrates the differences in stress from experiencing intergroup conflict.
- **Departments*C8:** The Phi is 0.568 and Cramer's V is 0.402. Fifty-eight percent of HR, 58% of Mining, 50% of Geology, 57% of Environmental, 67% of Construction, 50% of Seismic and 100% respondents of the Ventilation departments indicated that productivity decreases due to intergroup conflict. In contrast, 100% respondents of Production, 70% of Financial, 82% of Engineering, 100% of Communication and 72% of IT indicated no. This is extremely contrasting and shows that different departments are productive in the midst of intergroup conflict, while others are not.

Table 4.10 Stress in correlation with Departments

	Developing stress when experiencing intergroup conflict			
DEPARTMENT	Yes	No	Unsure	Total
HR	50% (19)	36.8% (14)	13.2% (5)	100% (38)
Mining	66.7% (8)	33.3% (4)	0% (0)	100% (12)
Geology	80% (8)	20% (2)	0% (0)	100% (10)
Environmental	42.9% (3)	57.1% (4)	0% (0)	100% (7)
Production	0% (0)	100% (2)	0% (0)	100% (2)
Financial	80% (8)	20% (2)	0% (0)	100% (10)
Engineering	54.5% (6)	45.5% (5)	0% (0)	100% (11)
Communication	50% (1)	50% (1)	0% (0)	100% (2)
IT	85.7% (6)	0% (0)	14.3% (1)	100% (7)
Construction	66.7% (2)	0% (0)	33.3% (1)	100% (3)
Seismic	75% (3)	25% (1)	0% (0)	100% (4)
Ventilation	100% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (2)
Total	61.1% (66)	32.4% (35)	6.5% (7)	100% (108)

- **Departments*C10:** The Phi is 0.564. More than 70% of respondents from almost all the departments indicated that they are willing to participate in a conflict-handling training programme. In spite of this, 0% of Production and 43% of IT indicated yes, while 57% of IT were unsure. This stands in great contrast with the responses of the other departments in the organisation.

4.11.5.3 Section D

- **Departments*D1:** Table 4.12 gives account of the correlation between departments and the degree to which respondents experience intergroup conflict. The Phi is 0.697, which is extremely high and gives an indication of highly diverse responses. Its clear that certain departments such as HR, Mining, Financial, Engineering and Communication experience a larger amount of intergroup conflict on a daily basis whereas the IT, Ventilation and Geology do not experience daily conflict. However, IT and

Engineering experience a significant amount of intergroup conflict on a weekly basis. Another interesting point is that 30% of Geology respondents and 75% of Seismic respondents indicated that they experience intergroup conflict only on a yearly basis. This suggests that these two departments do not experience many intergroup interactions.

- **Departments*D5:** The Phi for A6*D5 is 0.523. Ninety percent of respondents of the Geology department, 53% of HR, 100% of Seismic and 100% respondents of the Ventilation department indicated that conflict can have positive outcomes for the organisation. Moreover, 67% of Mining, 72% of Environmental, 73% of Engineering, 100% of communication and 100% of Construction respondents indicated no. Thus advocates that the departments see the outcomes of conflict from different perspective.

Table 4.11 The degree to which departments experience intergroup conflict

	Degree of experiencing intergroup conflict				
DEPARTMENT	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Yearly	Total
HR	57.9% (22)	21.1% (8)	15.8% (6)	5.3% (2)	100% (38)
Mining	66.7% (8)	25% (3)	8.3% (1)	0% (0)	100% (12)
Geology	40% (4)	10% (1)	20% (2)	30% (3)	100% (10)
Environmental	50% (3)	16.7% (1)	16.7% (1)	16.7% (1)	100% (6)
Production	50% (1)	50% (1)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (2)
Financial	60% (6)	0% (0)	30% (3)	10% (1)	100% (10)
Engineering	54.5% (6)	45.5% (5)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (11)
Communication	100% (2)	0% (0)	0% (0)	0% (0)	100% (2)
IT	14.3% (1)	57.1% (4)	28.6% (2)	0% (0)	100% (7)
Construction	33.3% (1)	33.3% (1)	33.3% (1)	0% (0)	100% (3)
Seismic	25% (1)	0% (0)	0% (1)	75% (3)	100% (4)
Ventilation	50% (1)	0% (0)	50% (1)	0% (0)	100% (2)
Total	52.3% (56)	22.4% (24)	15.9% (17)	9.3% (10)	100% (107)

- **Departments*D7:** The Phi is 0.417 and Cramer's V coefficient is 0.290. This indicates a lesser difference in response from departments. The fact

that all the departments (100%), from the lowest, namely IT with 71% to the highest Geology, Production, Communication, Construction, Seismic and Ventilation departments responded yes, accentuates that every department understands the importance of cooperation in intergroup relations and in the organisation.

4.12 Conclusion

The empirical data was evaluated and discussed in this chapter. Intergroup conflict is such a broad field of study that much more intense research on intergroup conflict in a mining organisation can be done.

The most significant findings of this empirical study are the following:

- The 108 respondents consisted of 74 (68.5%) male workers and 34 (31.5%) female workers. Respondents with Afrikaans as home language are the highest percentage respondents with 32.4%. The English-speaking respondents consist of 14.8%, while the other 53% are made up of the African language groups. This is an indication that this organisation's workforce is culturally diverse.
- The Phi coefficients for Departments, tenure, Qualifications and Home language correlated with the items in Sections B, C and D are relatively high, which is an indication of differences in the experience of conflict and intergroup conflict of the respondents.
- The majority of male respondents (56.8%) see affirmative action as a source of conflict and 80% of respondents with grade 10 or lower see AA as a source of conflict. 75% (25) of Afrikaans respondents and 63% (11) of English respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while only 38% (57) of African language respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict. This is indicative of a huge

difference and the Afrikaans respondents see affirmative action as a matter of great concern in the organisation. There is also a considerable difference in the way the departments experience affirmative action. The Phi is 0.621, which is relatively high and may be attributed to the way in which affirmative action is implemented and applied in the various departments.

- Competition between groups, which is a matter of great concern in intergroup relations, is evident in this organisation. 38.9% of respondents see competition as a source of conflict, while in the mining department, 75% (9) of the respondents, 100% (3) of Construction and 82% (9) of the Engineering department respondents indicated that competition is a source of conflict. The Mining, Construction and Engineering departments experience much more competition between departments than the other departments.
- Thirty-seven percent of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that the availability of resources is a source of conflict, while 67% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that there is an uneven distribution of resources as a source of conflict. This is very contrasting.
- Misuse and abuse of power by superiors is the most prominent source of conflict in the organisation. More than 61.1% of the respondents indicated that abuse of power is a source of conflict. Misuse of power by superiors and tenure has a Phi of 0.363. Seventy-one percent of respondents with 5-10 years' tenure, 71% with 11-15, 75% with 16-20, 62% with 21-25 and 88% with 31+ years' tenure indicated that misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict, while only 42% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated the same. Thus respondents with longer than 5 years' tenure experience a larger amount of power abuses by superiors.
- There is a huge difference in the experience of stress arising from intergroup conflict between male and female respondents. The Phi coefficient for stress and sex is 0.174. The Phi for considering a job

change is 0.184. This is quite high because of the existence of only two dependent variables. Female respondents tend to stress much more and stand a better chance of leaving the company than males when experiencing intergroup conflict.

- It is also evident that stress levels differ from department to department, whereas the Geology, Financial and IT departments experiences much stress, the HR department experiences less stress. This can indicate that the intensity of stress differs from department to department in the mining organisation.
- There is also a significant difference to be found in tenure correlated with Item C5. Ninety percent of respondents with 26-30 years' tenure said they do not consider a job change, while none indicated yes. In contrast, 54% of respondents with 1-10 years' tenure indicated that they do consider a job change when experiencing conflict. Fifty-eight percent of respondents with more than 31 years' tenure also consider a job change when experiencing conflict. This is a clear indication that there is a huge difference between the different tenure groups.
- Another significant finding is that 79.8% of the respondents indicated that they are willing to participate in a training programme in order to gain more knowledge on conflict and on handling/managing it; hence emphasizing that there is a demand for such programmes and that there might be a lack of conflict training in the organisation.
- It was found that Cooperation plays a major role in intergroup conflict and intergroup relations. Cooperation between groups or departments is vital to performance in intergroup relations. Eighty-eight percent of responses indicated this. It is also evident that in every department and across all home language groups cooperation between groups and departments is evident. Another significant finding was that the higher the qualification, the more the acknowledgment of cooperation. There is also an indication that the longer the tenure at the organisation, the greater the importance of cooperation.

- It is clear that certain departments such as HR, Mining, Financial, Engineering and Communication experience a larger amount of intergroup conflict on a daily basis, whereas IT, Ventilation and Geology do not experience daily conflict to such extent. However, IT and Engineering experience a significant amount of intergroup conflict on a weekly basis. Another interesting point is that 30% (3) of Geology respondents and 75% (3) of Seismic respondents indicated that they experience intergroup conflict only on a yearly basis. This suggests that these individuals in the departments do not experience many intergroup interactions.
- Ninety percent (9) of respondents of the Geology department, 53% (20) of HR, 100% (2) of Seismic and 100% (2) respondents of the Ventilation department indicated that conflict can have positive outcomes for the organisation. Moreover, 67% (8) of Mining, 72% (5) of Environmental, 73% of Engineering, 100% (2) of Communication and 100% (3) of Construction respondents indicated no. This advocates that the departments see the outcomes of conflict from different perspectives.
- More than 78% of respondents with postgraduate qualifications indicated that interdependence between groups and departments is important, while only 50% of respondents with diplomas indicated yes and 60% of respondents with degrees indicated no. Forty-six percent (24) of respondents with grade 12 and 40% of respondents with grade 10 or lower indicated yes, while only 16% of respondents with grade 11 indicated yes and 50% were unsure. Thus respondents with postgraduate qualifications understand the importance of interdependency in intergroup relations.
- The Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents had almost the same response in various items. In many of the items such as B8, B9, B10, C2 and C6 the Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents produced similar responses, thus displaying almost the same profile. This is an indication that they share a similar conflict experience profile. However, from

empirical evidence it is clear that the different home languages experience intergroup conflict in diverse ways.

- It is also evident that the Seismic, Construction, and Ventilation departments mostly shared a similar intergroup conflict experience.

The above-mentioned empirical findings relate to the finding in the Literature part of this study. Certain findings correlate directly with findings in literature and support the empirical findings.

In Chapter 5 a comprehensive analysis of the significant findings from the literature and empirical studies will be done. Conclusions will be drawn and recommendations made.

Chapter 5
Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Conflict in organisations has changed over the years. However, certain aspects have remained the same. Karl Marx's conflict perspective is still relevant today and can be used to explain and define conflict occurrences. In South Africa, conflict is present in the organisations as well.

According to Brown (2004), intergroup conflict is still a growing problem for many organisations and that a large amount of research can be done to explain and identify intergroup conflict. The mining industry has to deal with a large amount of conflict, including trade union conflict, strikes, lockouts, worker safety, wage disputes, HIV, new technologies, Government Legislation, Globalisation, affirmative action and disputes over Black Economic Empowerment.

Intergroup conflict is a major concern for many mining organisations and managers. Organisations are growing and South Africa is in the midst of a major economical boom. Through this expansion in economic growth, intergroup relations are also changing. Aspects such as diversity, stereotyping, communication, cohesion, cooperation and competition play a major part in intergroup relations.

Intergroup relations and employment relations play an important role in organisations. For this reason, it is important to study and create an understanding of intergroup conflict and intergroup relations in mining organisations. It has been identified that little or no research has been completed on intergroup conflict in mining organisations; hence it has created the opportunity to research intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness.

The following aspects were discussed in this study in order to create an understanding of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness:

- The Manifestation of intergroup conflict
- Discussion of the Realistic Conflict theory
- Employment Relations wellness in correlation with intergroup conflict
- An empirical study on intergroup conflict in a large mining organisation.

5.2 The manifestation of intergroup conflict

In Chapter 2 the various sources were used in order to explain intergroup conflict from a literature point of view. The term *conflict* was clearly defined in Chapter 1. An intergroup conflict model was also developed and implemented in Chapter 2. The Realistic conflict theory was discussed in Chapter 2. Muzafer Sherif conducted several studies in order to explain and identify intergroup conflict. Sherif paved the way for other researchers to elaborate on intergroup relations and understand the field of intergroup relations much better. Researchers such as Tajfel, Turner, Brown, Hewstone, Cairns, Enns, Rotundo and Monteiro also expanded on the work of Sherif in order to explain and define intergroup conflict from a modern day organisational perspective. The main aspect of the realistic conflict theory is that conflict arises from competition for scarce resources and incompatible goals. Difference in goals can lead to severe competition, which manifests in dysfunctional intergroup conflict. However, it is clear that cooperation and interdependence is vital to create healthy intergroup relations and resolve intergroup conflict.

There also is a clear link between the realistic conflict theory and the conflict theories of Marx and Dahrendorf. All of these theories indicate that power and scarcity of resources are major obstacles and create conflict. Power plays a major role in intergroup conflict and it is important to understand the balance of

power and the battle for power between groups in order to understand the manifestation of intergroup conflict.

In Chapter 2, the terms *intergroup conflict, groups, intergroup relations, functional intergroup conflict* and *dysfunctional intergroup conflict* in organisations were defined and explained. The different types of intergroup conflict which occur in organisations were also evaluated in Chapter 2. It is important for an organisation to understand these types of intergroup conflict when dysfunctional intergroup conflict occurs. These various types of intergroup conflict can help an organisation to understand intergroup conflict much better. Different sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict such as diversity, affirmative action, racism, competition, power abuses and competition were discussed. Several of these sources were also included in the questionnaire. It is evident that certain sources such as competition and diversity exist in an organisation and can have dire consequences for the organisation.

It is also clear that certain processes such as interdependence, conflict moderators, leadership, communication, organisational identity and group cohesion play an important part in the manifestation of intergroup conflict. Lastly, in order to manage and understand intergroup conflict better, managements and organisations need to realize the consequences dysfunctional intergroup conflict can hold. Intergroup conflict can have such dire consequences that the productivity and functioning of the organisation can come to a stand still.

5.3 Employment relations wellness in correlation with intergroup conflict

The discussion in Chapter 3 consists of Employment relations wellness in correlation with intergroup conflict. Hewstone and Brown indicate that there is a fine line between healthy employment relations and intergroup relations. The

occurrence of intergroup conflict might lead to the deterioration of this fine line between employment relations and intergroup relations. In Chapter 3 the term *employment relations* was defined and the definition is as follows:

Employment relations wellness can refer to the attempts by management, unions, organisational groups and departments to reach a healthy employment relationship. If there is minimal conflict, mutual understanding, synergy, cooperation, mutual trust and respect between employees, employers, departments and trade unions, the employment relations and intergroup relations will be healthy and the organisation will be in a good working condition.

A model was also developed and drawn up in Chapter 3 to explain the above-mentioned definition. Through the work of Hewstone, Brown, Cairns, Allen and Stephenson, a clear socio-psychological and intergroup conflict link was identified. The main aspect of this is that if intergroup relations are healthy, employment relations between groups and departments in the organisation will be healthy. Certain conditions such as positive attitudes, friendliness, non-existence of bias towards the out-group and in-group, and cooperation will lead to healthy intergroup relations. It was also found that organisational performance, team effectiveness and work satisfaction could influence the healthy intergroup relation. Stress and burnout relating to intergroup conflict were also discussed.

Bias, including stereotypes, discrimination and prejudice also plays a huge role in intergroup relations. However, individuals forming part of a group can implement certain strategies to reduce bias. These strategies include the following: Perspective-taking and Stereotypic Expectancies; Perspective-taking and Reducing Stereotyping; Perspective-taking and the Egocentric Self.

Diversity was also seen from a positive rather than a negative perspective, as indicated in Chapter 2. Organisations should see diversity as opportunities and positives in order to create healthier employment relations. The sharing of

knowledge is also vital to creating employment relations wellness, and for this to occur a phenomenon called synergy must transpire. **Synergy can be defined as mutual understanding and respect between groups in organisations.**

In the final part of Chapter 3 the creation and managing of healthy employment and intergroup relations were discussed. Various aspects such as The BATNA principle, superordinate goals, cooperation and the integration of teams might create employment relations wellness in intergroup relations.

5.4 Empirical study

The Questionnaire was created through existing questionnaires and in accordance with the findings in the literature study. The questions in the questionnaire were formulated in accordance with the research objectives.

5.5 Literature and Empirical findings

The most significant literature and empirical findings are the following:

- The manifestation of intergroup conflict was discussed in Chapter 2. Through an intergroup conflict model the entire process of intergroup conflict was discussed. In Chapter 3 the correlation of employment relations and intergroup conflict were evaluated. From these chapters the objectives of the empirical study were identified.
- **The Phi coefficients for Departments, Tenure, Qualifications and Home language correlated with the items in Sections B, C and D are relatively high, which is an indication of differences in the experience of conflict and intergroup conflict of the respondents.**
- In Chapter 2, the Realistic Intergroup Conflict theory was discussed. The main finding was that Competition for resources creates intergroup conflict

and through cooperation intergroup harmony can exist. In Chapter 2 it is also shown that Marx and Dahrendorf's conflict theories have certain links to the Realistic conflict theory. Competition between groups, which is a matter of great concern in intergroup relations, is evident in this organisation. 38.9% of all respondents see competition as a source of conflict, while in the mining department, 75% of respondents, 100% of Construction and 82% of Engineering department's respondents indicated that competition is a source of conflict. The Mining, Construction and Engineering departments experience much more competition between departments than the other departments. Brown (2004) indicates that competition is a source of intergroup conflict and might lead to the break up of healthy intergroup relations.

- In paragraph 2.3 it was found that power plays a major role in intergroup relations and can severely influence the occurrence of intergroup conflict. Misuse an abuse of power by superiors is the largest source of conflict in the organisation. More than 61.1% of the respondents indicated that abuse of power is a source of conflict. Misuse of power by superiors and tenure has a Phi of 0.363. Seventy-one percent of respondents with 5-10 years' tenure, 71% with 11-15, 75% with 16-20, 62% with 21-25 and 88% with 31+ years' tenure indicated that misuse of power by superiors and group leaders is a source of conflict, while only 42% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated the same. Hence respondents with longer than 5 years' tenure experience a larger amount of power abuses by superiors.
- Intergroup relations, intergroup conflict and groups were clearly defined. From the discussion in paragraph 2.6, the following definition was formulated: **Intergroup conflict occurs between groups or teams in organisations. These groups compete for survival and power and when this survival and power is threatened, the groups engage in conflict with other groups in order to ensure they retain their status and wealth.**

- In Chapter 2, paragraph 2.7, dysfunctional and functional intergroup conflict were discussed. It is important for an organisation to distinguish between these two types of conflict in order to achieve positive outcomes for the organisation. Ninety percent of respondents of the Geology department, 53% of HR, 100% of Seismic and 100% respondents of the Ventilation department indicated that conflict can have positive outcomes for the organisation. Moreover, 67% of Mining, 72% of Environmental, 73% of Engineering, 100% of Communication and 100% of Construction respondents indicated no. This advocates that the departments see the outcomes of conflict from different perspectives.
- In Chapter 2, the types of intergroup conflict were discussed and it was found that four types of intergroup conflict exist, namely objective, subjective, implicit and explicit intergroup conflicts. These intergroup conflicts consist of certain psychological dimensions and it is important for an organisation to understand this.
- It was also found that there are various sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict such as competition, scarce resources, diversity and racism. These sources and antecedents occur in many organisations, and organisations must identify these reasons for intergroup conflict in order to understand and solve intergroup conflict. Thirty-seven percent of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that the availability of resources is a source of conflict, while 67% of respondents with 1-4 years' tenure indicated that an uneven distribution of resources is a source of conflict. This is very contrasting. Furthermore, the majority of male respondents (56.8%) see affirmative action as a source of conflict and 80% of respondents with grade 10 or lower see AA as a source of conflict. 75% of Afrikaans respondents and 63% of English respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while only 38% of African language respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict. This indicates a huge difference and the Afrikaans respondents see affirmative action as a matter of great concern in the organisation.

There is also a considerable difference in the way the departments experience affirmative action. The Phi is 0.621, which is relatively high and may be attributed to the way in which affirmative action is implemented and applied in the various departments. Wallace and Wallace (1989) also indicate that affirmative action and racism is a major source of intergroup conflict.

- In Chapter 2, paragraph 2.10.3.2, Brown (2004) indicates that William Sumner suggests that there is a direct and functional link between intergroup conflict and cohesion.
- Certain processes such as group interdependence, communication, cohesion and leadership play an important part in the process of the manifestation of intergroup conflict (Brown, 2004; Hewstone & Brown, 1986; Lumsden & Lumsden, 1993; Larson & Lafasto, 1989). More than 78% of respondents with postgraduate qualifications indicated that interdependence between groups and departments is important, while only 50% of respondents with diplomas indicated yes and 60% of respondents with degrees indicated no. Forty-six percent of respondents with grade 12 and 40% of respondents with grade 10 or lower indicated yes, while only 16% of respondents with grade 11 indicated yes and 50% were unsure. Hence respondents with postgraduate qualifications understand the importance of interdependency in intergroup relations.
- In Chapter 3, it was indicated that a fine line exists between healthy employment relations and intergroup relations. The occurrence of intergroup conflict might lead to the deterioration of this fine line between employment relations and intergroup relations. If intergroup relations are healthy, employment relations between groups and departments in the organisation will be healthy. This stresses that there is a clear correlation between intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness.
- From Chapter 3, the following was found: Employment relations wellness can refer to the attempts by management, unions, organisational groups and departments of reaching a healthy employment relationship. If there is

minimal conflict, mutual understanding, synergy, cooperation mutual trust and respect between employees, employers, departments and trade unions the employment relations and intergroup relations will be healthy and the organisation will be in a good working condition. It was found that Cooperation plays a major role in intergroup conflict and intergroup relations. Cooperation between groups or departments is vital to performance in intergroup relations. Eighty-eight percent of responses indicated this. It is also evident that in every department and across all home language groups, cooperation between groups and departments is evident. Another significant finding was that the higher the qualification, the stronger the acknowledgment of cooperation. There is also an indication that the longer the tenure at the organisation, the greater the importance of cooperation.

- From the evidence shown in Chapter 3, paragraph 3.6, the assumption can be made that when burnout and stress occurs, employee wellness will decrease drastically. If management is guilty of creating burnout and stress and not showing concern, it will lead to the disintegration of good employment relations between individuals, groups, departments and management. It is also evident that stress levels differ from department to department: while the Geology, Financial and IT departments experience a huge amount of stress, the HR department experiences less stress. This can indicate that the intensity of stress differs from department to department. There is also a significant difference to be found in tenure correlated with item C5. Ninety percent of respondents with 26-30 years' tenure said they do not consider a job change, while none indicated yes. In contrast, 54% of respondents with 1-10 years' tenure indicated that they do consider a job change when experiencing conflict. Fifty-eight percent of respondents with more than 31 years' tenure also consider a job change when experiencing conflict. This is a clear indication that there is a huge difference between the different tenure groups.

- Furthermore, there is a vast difference in the experience of stress in intergroup conflict interactions between male and female respondents. The Phi coefficient for stress and sex is 0.174. The Phi for considering a job change is 0.184. This is quite high because of the existence of only two dependent variables. Female respondents tend to stress much more and stand a better chance of leaving the company then males when experiencing intergroup conflict.
- In Chapter 3, it was also shown that individuals could apply certain individualistic strategies in order to reduce and resolve intergroup bias.
- In Chapter 3, it was found that synergy plays an important part in intergroup relations and that synergy must exist in order to create employment relations wellness.
- Chapter 3 also indicates that negotiation, integration of teams and departments as well as superordinate goals can create healthy intergroup and employment relations.
- The BATNA (best alternative to a negotiated agreement) principle can also be implemented to create healthy intergroup relations.
- Another significant finding is that 79.8% of the respondents indicated that they are willing to participate in a training programme in order to gain more knowledge on conflict and on handling/managing it, consequently emphasizing that there is a demand for such programmes and that there might be a lack of conflict training in the organisation.
- It is clear that certain departments such as HR, Mining, Financial, Engineering and Communication experience a larger amount of intergroup conflict on a daily basis, whereas the IT, Ventilation and Geology departments do not experience daily conflict to such extent. However, IT and Engineering experience a significant amount of intergroup conflict on a weekly basis. Another interesting point is that 30% of Geology respondents and 75% of Seismic respondents indicated that they experience intergroup conflict only on a yearly basis. This suggests

that these individuals in the departments do not experience many intergroup interactions.

- The Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents had almost the same response in various items. In many of the items such as B8, B9, B10, C2 and C6, the Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents produced similar responses, thus displaying almost the same profile. This is an indication that they share a similar conflict experience profile. However, from empirical evidence it is clear that the different home languages experience intergroup conflict in diverse ways.
- It is also evident that the Seismic, Construction, and Ventilation departments share mostly a similar intergroup conflict experience.
- **In Chapter 1, the assumption was made that intergroup conflict exists in this mining organisation. The empirical findings that 99% of respondents experience intergroup conflict and 52.3% of respondents experiences intergroup conflict on a daily basis validated this assumption.**

Keeping these findings in mind, the following research questions can be answered:

- **What is intergroup conflict and how does it manifest in the workplace?**

  Intergroup group conflict and intergroup relations was discussed extensively in Chapter 2. The following definition was formulated to best describe intergroup conflict and the processes thereof: **Intergroup conflict occurs between groups or teams in organisations. These groups compete for survival and power and when this survival and power is threatened, the groups engage in conflict with other groups in order to ensure they retain their status and wealth.**

- **How do employees experience intergroup conflict?**

  It was found that most of the respondents, namely more than 99% of respondents, experience intergroup conflict in the mining organisation, 52.3% experience intergroup conflict on a daily basis, while 22.2% of respondents experience intergroup conflict on a weekly basis. Moreover, 64.8% of respondents indicated that intergroup conflict can affect productivity negatively, and 59.2% of respondents indicated that intergroup conflict would never be eliminated. However, 69.4% of the respondents indicated that not all conflict can be seen as negative. Hence most of the employees of the mining organisation experience high levels of intergroup conflict on a regular basis, which can influence productivity negatively, but the employees also feel that if conflict is facilitated correctly not all is lost.

  There were no visible differences between the experiences of intergroup conflict between the sexes. However, female respondents tend to stress much more and stand a better chance of leaving the company than males when experiencing intergroup conflict. Furthermore, a larger difference exits between the different tenures and departments. The Phi for items D1 correlated with B6 is 0.607, which gives an indication of larger differences in intergroup conflict experience. It can be said that employees with different tenures, home languages, and qualifications, and working to different departments, experience intergroup conflict at different levels.

- **What are the sources and antecedents of intergroup conflict?**

  In the literature, it was found that competition for scarce resources, racist ideologies, intergroup bias, communication barriers, diversity and misuse of power are some of the most common sources of intergroup conflict. In

the empirical part of this study it was found that affirmative action programmes, cultural differences, racial differences, implementation of new management techniques, availability of resources, competition between groups and departments, implementation of new technology, the extent and contents of work, uneven distribution of scarce resources between departments and groups and misuse of power by superiors and group leaders are all sources of conflict in the mining organisation. However, factors, which especially contribute to intergroup conflict such as competition, racial and cultural differences (diversity), availably, and distribution of resources and misuse of power are clearly evident in this mining organisation. These findings support those found in the literature part of the study.

- **What is the profile of individuals like who experience intergroup conflict at similar levels?**

The female and male respondents mostly share a similar intergroup experience, except for the experience of stress as indicated before. The Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents had almost the same response in various items. In many of the items such as B8, B9, B10, C2 and C6, the Afrikaans and Sesotho-speaking respondents produced similar responses, thus displaying almost the same profile. This is an indication that they share a similar conflict experience profile. It was found the Mining, Construction and Engineering departments experience much more competition between departments than the others. Therefore competition differs, depending on which department the employee works in. It is also evident that the Afrikaans employees and English employees view affirmative action as a factor contributing to conflict. 75% (25) of Afrikaans respondents and 63% (11) of English respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of conflict, while only 38% (57) of African language respondents indicated that affirmative action is a source of

conflict. Furthermore, it is evident that the Seismic, Construction, and Ventilation departments' employees mostly share a similar intergroup conflict experience.

- **Is there a correlation between the experience of intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness?**

  From the findings in Chapter 3 of the literature study it can be said that a strong correlation exists between intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness. It was also found that healthy employment relations are necessary to ensure healthy intergroup relations. Stress and burnout play an important part in intergroup relations and intergroup conflict. This is evident in the mining organisation where 61.1% of the respondents indicated that they feel stressed out when experiencing intergroup conflict. Furthermore, 42.2% of employees consider a job change and 30.2% of respondents experience physical health problems when experiencing intergroup conflict. This empirical evidence supports the literature evidence found in Chapter 3. It was also found in Chapter 3, paragraph 3.8 that diversity in the workplace plays an important part in striving for healthy employment and intergroup relations. However, 50% of employees indicated that culture is a source of conflict, and 51.9% indicated that racial difference is a source of conflict.

  In Chapter 3, paragraph 3.11 it was found that cooperation is vital to creating healthy intergroup relations. This is supported by the empirical study according to which 88% of the employees of the mining organisation indicated that cooperation is necessary to achieve organisational goals. It was also found that the longer an employees' tenures at the mining organisation the stronger their appreciation for cooperation.

Table 5.1 The correlations between Chapter 2 and Chapter 3

Chapter 2	Chapter 3
Competition as a source of intergroup conflict	Competition to create healthy intergroup relations
Diversity as a source of intergroup conflict	Using Diversity to create employment relations wellness
Withholding of information as a source of intergroup conflict	Sharing of knowledge to create employment relations wellness
Resources as a source of intergroup conflict	Expansion of resources to create healthy intergroup relations
Sherif indicating the only way to reduce intergroup conflict is through cooperation	Enhancing cooperation in order to create employment relations wellness
Declining cooperation (group Interdependence) as a source of intergroup conflict	Cooperation (group interdependence) is applied in order to create employment relations wellness

Table 5.1 gives an indication of some aspects that correlate between Chapters 2 and 3; thus indicating that there is a strong correlation between intergroup conflict, intergroup relations and employment relations wellness.

5.6 Recommendations

From the research findings, the following recommendations can be made:

- There is a great need for conflict training programmes and conflict handling workshops. The employees need to be informed on how to deal with and solve conflict. This should occur through all the job levels in the organisation. A better understanding of and tolerance for intergroup conflict must be created. Identifying the sources of conflict, stereotyping, resources and cooperation need to be focused on.

- There is also a need for stress management workshops. The employees must also receive assistance through these programmes in dealing and coping with work stress and burnout. Management must also ensure that those employees learn how to resolve conflicts such as intergroup conflict.
- Management must promote firmer cooperation between departments, work teams and individuals in order to ensure productivity
- The Organisation must ensure that power abuses by superiors and managers be eliminated, because this creates enormous tension between employees and superiors.
- The organisation must also create well-defined group goals and objectives. The employees and different departments must understand their respective goals and how to achieve it.
- Management must also ensure that every individual, group and department understands that they must take responsibility for their actions in the organisation.
- Intergroup communication is important. There must be open channels, and it is important for management to create better communication between staff and departments. To facilitate better communication, management can arrange communication skills workshops for the staff to attend.
- It is also important to create a diverse workforce which can be productive and work in harmony. Management must create an environment in which race and culture is not a problem.
- Lastly, it is important for the organisation to create an environment in which synergy and sharing of knowledge is visible.

5.7 Limitations of the study

There are always limitations when testing conflict in an organisation. The most important limitations in this study are the following:

- The mining industry is a huge industry and it is difficult to test the entire industry. Intergroup conflict can differ in other mining organisations and plants; hence it is important not to generalize the findings in this study with other mining organisations.
- Intergroup conflict and intergroup relations is such a big study field that not all the aspects and processes of intergroup conflict and intergroup relations were accommodated in thus study.
- Not all the departments in the organisation participated in this study and this limited the scope of the research.
- Time is very important for the organisation and some of the employees saw the questionnaire as time consuming and a waste of time.
- It was difficult to create a more comprehensive questionnaire because of the time the questionnaire consumes and the literacy of the respondents.
- There is also a need for a more comprehensive intergroup-based questionnaire.

Although there are limitations in this study, all the objectives of this study were reached and the research questions answered.

5.8 Further research

There is always a need for further research, and through this study it was found that the following aspects can be researched:

- A more comprehensive study of intergroup conflict can be undertaken in all the mining organisation's plants, which includes all the departments and clearly specifies the workgroup or works team the employee' forms part of.

- Similar studies can be done in other private sector organisations and then be compared with the empirical findings in the mining organisation.
- Further research can be done on aspects such as types of intergroup conflict. These types of intergroup conflict can be tested in different organisations to determine how they manifest.
- Research that is more comprehensive can be done to come to understand intergroup conflict in correlation with employment relations wellness.
- There is also a need for more effective intergroup conflict resolution methods, and research can be focused on the creation of such a method.

5.9 Contribution of this study

The most significant contribution of this study is that new knowledge of intergroup conflict and intergroup relations was discovered. Moreover, this study emphasized the importance of intergroup conflict and the creation of healthy intergroup and employment relations in an organisation.

This study also stresses that intergroup conflict can never be taken for granted and discarded in an organisation. "Adapt or die" is the key too intergroup relations.

Addendum A

CONFIDENTIAL

OBJECTIVE

To gather data on conflict and intergroup conflict, to identify the problem of intergroup conflict and to identify the correlation between intergroup conflict and employment relations wellness.

ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS

The questionnaire can be completed in your own time and should not take longer than 15 minutes to complete. Answer the questions objectively and honestly without the assistance of anyone else.

CONFIDENTIALITY

All the information supplied will be treated as private and confidential and will under **no circumstances** place your work or position in danger. The information is only for the perusal of the researcher.

VERTROULIK

DOEL

Om data te verkry oor intergroep konflik, die probleem van intergroep konflik te identifiseer en die korrelasie tussen intergroep en "employment relations wellness" te identifiseer.

BEANTWOORDING VAN VRAE

Die vraeboog kan in u eie tyd ingevul word en behoort nie langer as 20 minute te neem om te voltooi nie. U moet die vrae sonder die hulp van ander persone en objektief en eerlik beantwoord.

KONFIDENSIALITEIT

Alle inligting wat verstrek word, word as vertroulik en konfidensieel hanteer en sal **onder geen omstandighede** u werk en posisie in die gedrang bring nie. Die inligting is alleen ter insae van die navorser.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION AND PATIENCE!

D.H. De Jager, Researcher. Tel: 0836578974

AFDELING A: BIOGRAFIESE BESONDERHEDE /

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Geslag / *Sex*

1	Manlik/*Male*	
2	Vroulik/*Female*	

2. Ouderdom / *Age*

1	Jonger as /*Younger than* 20	
2	21-35	
3	36-45	
4	46-60	
5	61 +	

3. Hoogste kwalifikasie behaal / *Highest qualification achieved.*

1	St 8 of /*or* laer/*lower*	
2	St. 9	
3	St. 10	
4	Diploma	
5	Graad/*Degree*	
6	Nagraads/*Post-Graduate*	

4. Wat is u huistaal? / *Your home language ?*

1	Engels/ *English*	
2	Afrikaans	
3	Setswana	
4	Sesotho	
5	isiXhosa	
6	isiZulu	

5. Hoeveel jaar werk u al by die Maatskappy? /
For how many years have you been working for the Company?

1	1-4	
2	5-10	
3	11-15	
4	16-20	
5	21-25	
6	26-30	
7	31 +	

6. In watter departement is u werksaam? / *In which department do you work?*

_____

—

7. Vorm u deel van 'n werkgroep of 'n span in die organisasie?/ *Do you form part of a workgroup or a team in the organisation?*

_____

AFDELING B/ *SECTION B*:

Dui asseblief vervolgens aan, op 'n skaal van 1 tot 3, watter van die volgende tot konflik in die Maatskappy bydra/ *Please indicate, on a scale of 1 to 3, which of the following contribute to conflict in the company.*

	Yes	No	Unsure
1. Regstellende-aksie-program / *Affirmative action programme*	1.	2.	3.
2. Kultuurverskille / *Cultural differences*	1.	2.	3.
3. Rasseverskille / *Racial differences*	1.	2.	3.
4. Toepassing van nuwe bestuurstegnieke / *Implementation of new management techniques*	1.	2.	3.
5. Beskikbaarheid van hulpbronne (toerusting, finansies, ens.) *Availability of resources (equipment, finances, etc.)*	1.	2.	3.
6. Kompetisie tussen groepe en departemente/ *Competition between groups and departments*	1.	2.	3.
7. Toepassing van nuwe tegnologie (meganisasie, outomatisering en rekenarisering) *Implementation of new technology (mechanisation, automatisation and computerising)*	1.	2.	3.
8. Omvang en inhoud van werk / *Extent and contents of work*	1.	2.	3.
9. Oneweredige verspreiding van skaars hulpbronne tussen afdelings en groepe/ *Uneven distribution of scarce resources between departments and groups*	1.	2.	3.
10. Magsmisbruik deur meerderes (seniors) / *Misuse of power by superiors and group leaders*	1.	2.	3.

AFDELING C/ *SECTION C*:

Indien u konflik tussen werkgroepe of departemente in u organisasie ervaar, watter invloed het dit op u? Dui aan op 'n skaal van 1 tot 3 / *If you experience conflict between workgroups or departments in your organisation, what influence does it have on you? Please indicate on a scale of 1 to 3.*

	Yes	No	Unsure
1. Nie in staat om te presteer nie / *Not possible to perform*	1.	2.	3.
2. Raak vyandig teenoor kollegas / *Become hostile towards colleagues*	1.	2.	3.
3. Weier samewerking / *Decline cooperation*	1.	2.	3.
4. Ontwikkel stres / *Develop stress*	1.	2.	3.
5. Oorweeg verandering van werk / *Consider a job change*	1.	2.	3.
6. Vervreem my van ander personeel of groeplede / *Alienate myself from other staff members or group members*	1.	2.	3.
7. Ontwikkel fisiese gesondheidsprobleme / *Develop physical health problems*	1.	2.	3.
8. Produktiwiteit verlaag/ *Productivity decreases*	1.	2.	3.
9. Is u bewus van enige beleidsdokument of standaard prosedure wat konflikhantering en -oplossing onder die loep neem?/ *Are you aware of any policy document or standard procedure that addresses conflict handling and solution?*	1.	2.	3.
10. Sou u bereid wees om 'n opleidingsprogram te ondergaan om meer te wete te kom oor konflik en die hantering en bestuur daarvan? / *Would you be willing to participate in a training programme in order to gain more knowledge on conflict and on handling/managing it?*	1.	2.	3.

AFDELING D/SECTION D

Merk asseblief die toepaslike kolom. / Please mark the appropriate column.

1. In watter mate sou u sê ervaar u konflik tussen groepe of departemente in u organisasie / To what degree, *do you experience conflict between groups or departments within your organisation?*

Daagliks/ *Daily*	Weekliks/ Weekly	Maandeliks/ *Monthly*	Jaarliks/ *Yearly*

	Yes	No	Unsure
2. Sien u alle konflik in die organisasie as negatief? / *Do you see all conflict in the organisation as negative?*	1.	2.	3.
3. Dink u dat konflik tussen groepe/of departemente produksie in die organisasie negatief beinvloed? *Do you think conflict between groups/ or departments affect productivity in the organisation in a negative manner?*	1.	2.	3.
4. Dink u dat konflik tussen groepe/of departemente produksie in die organisasie positief kan beinvloed? *Do you think conflict between groups/or departments affect productivity in the organisation in a positive manner?*	1.	2.	3.
5. Dink u dat konflik positiewe uitkomste kan hê vir die organisasie? *Do you think conflict can have positive outcomes for the organisation?*	1.	2.	3.
6. Dink u dit is belangrik vir groepe en departemente om interafhanlik van mekaar te funksioneer? *Do you think it is important for groups and departments to function interdependently of each other?*	1.	2.	3.
7. Dink u dat samewerking tussen groepe en departemente nodig is om die organisasie se doelwitte te bereik? *Do you think cooperation between groups and departments are necessary to achieve organisational goals?*	1.	2.	3.
8. Dink u dat konflik tussen groepe en departemente heeltemal geëlimineer kan word in die organisasie? *Do you think conflict between groups or departments can be eliminated in the organisation?*	1.	2.	3.

AFDELING E/ *SECTION E*

Dit sal waardeer word indien u nog enige wenke, notas, kommentaar en/of aanbevelings aan die hand sal doen met betrekking tot u werksituasie, asook u eie mening oor konflik tussen groepe en hoe om dit op te los.

It will be appreciated if you would render suggestions, notes, comments and/or recommendations regarding your working environment, as well your own opinion on conflict between groups and on solving this conflict.

Dankie vir u samewerking. / *Thank you for your cooperation.*

References

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (Eds.). (1990). *Social identity theory: Constructive and critical advances*. Hemel Hempstead, England: Harvester Wheatsheaf.

Acas (National). (2003). Good employment relations are the new competitive edge. London: Government News Network. Retrieved March 13, from http://www. GNN. co.za

Adams, S. (1965). "Inequity in Social Exchange." In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in expirimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York: Academic Press.

Adelfer, C. P. (1977). *"Group and Intergroup Relations".* In J. R. Hackman & J. L. Suttle (Eds.), Improving life at work (pp. 227-296). Palisades, CA: Goodyear.

Alderfer, C. P. (1986). An intergroup perspective on group dynamics. In J. Lorsch (Ed.), Handbook *of organizational behavior.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Allen, P. T. (1982). Size of workforce, morale and abseentism. *British Journal of Industrial Relations, 20,* 83-100.

Allen, P. T. (1983). Understanding in Industry: Who gets it right? *Employee Relations, 5,* 13-16.

Allen, P. T. (1984). The class imagery of traditional proletarians. *British Journal of Sociology, 35, 93-111.*

Ancona, D. G. (1990). Outward bound: Strategies for team survival in an organization. *Academy of Management Journal, 33,* 334-365.

Anderson, J. C., & Narus, J. A. (1990). A model of distributor firm and Manufacturer firm partnerships. *Journal of Marketing, 54,* 42-59.

Anderson, E., & Weitz, B. (1992). The use of pledges to build and sustain commitment in distribution channels. *Journal of Marketing Research, 29,* 18-35.

Anstey, M. (1999). *Managing change: Negotiating conflict.* 2nd Ed. Cape Town: Juta.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14,* 20-39.

Badaracco, J. (1991). *The knowledge link: How firms compete through strategic Alliances.* Boston: Harvard Business School press.

Barresi, J. D. (1996). Group selection and 'the pious gene. ' *Behavioural and Brain Sciences, 19,* 777-778, 786-787.

Bartos, O. J., & Wehr, P. (2002). *Using conflict theory.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Batson, C. D., Polycarpou, M. P., Harmon-Jones, E., & Imhoff, H. J. (1997). Empathy and attitudes: Can feeling for a member of a stigmatized group improve feelings towards the group? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72,* 105–118.

Belak, T. (1998). *Intergroup conflict in the workplace.* Retrieved March 7, 2007, from http://www.Mediate.com

Bendeman, H. (2003). Understanding conflict in labour dispute resolution. *South African Journal of Labour Relations,* 81-102.

Billig, M. (1976). *Social psychology and intergroup relations.* London: Academic Press.

Blake, R. R. & Mouton, J. S. (1984). *Solving costly organizational conflicts.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Blake, R. R., Sheppard, H. A., & Mouton, J. S. (1968). *Managing intergroup conflict in industry.* 3rd Ed. Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing.

Bliegen, M. A. (1993*). Nurses' job satisfaction: A meta-analyses of related variables. Nursing Research, 42,* 36-41.

Bostrom, R. P. (1989). "Successful application of communication techniques to improve the systems development process". *Information and Management, 16,* 279-295.

Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1994). Collective self-esteem consequences of group derogation when a valued social identity is on trial. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 24,* 641-657.

Brown, I. D. (1986). *Managing conflict of organisational interfaces.* Reading, Addison-Wesley publishing.

Brown, R. (1978). Divided we fall: An analysis of relations between sections of a factory force. In H. Tajfel (ed), *Differentiation between social groups,* London: Academic press.

Brown, R. (1984). The role of similarity in intergroup relations. In H. Tajfel (Ed.), *The social dimension: European developments in social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 603-623). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, R. (2004). *Group processes.* 2nd Ed. Oxford: Blackwell.

Brown, R., Condor, S., Mathews, A., Wade, G., & Williams, J. (1986). Explaining intergroup differentiation in an industrial organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 59,* 126-137.

Brown, R., & Turner, J. C. (1981). Interpersonal and intergroup behavior. In J. C. Turner, & H. Giles (Eds.), *Intergroup behaviour* (pp. 33-65). Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.

Brewer, M. B. (1979). The role of ethnocentrism in intergroup conflict. In W. O. Austin, & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 71-84). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Brewer, M. B. (1988). A dual process model of impression formation. In: T. K. Srull & R. S. Wyer (Eds), *A dual process model of impression formation. Advances in social cognition* (Vol. 1, pp. 1–36). Hillsdale, NJ, USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Brewer, M. B. (1997). The social psychology of intergroup relations: Can research inform practice? *Journal of Social Issues, 53,* 197-211.

Brewer, M. B., & Campbell, D. T. (1976). *Ethnocentrism and intergroup attitudes: East African evidence.* New York: Halstead Press.

Brewer, M. B., & Brown, R. J. (1998). Intergroup relations. In D. T. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & O. Lindzey (Eds.), *The handbook of social psychology* (4th ed., pp. 554-594). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cairns, E., & Darby, J. (1988). The conflict in Northern Ireland. *American Psychologist, 53,* 754-760.

Cairns, E. & Hewstone, M. (2002). The impact of peacemaking in Northern Ireland on intergroup behaviour. In G. Salomon, & B. Nevo (Eds.), *The nature and study of peace education* (pp. 217-28). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Callahan, R. E., Fleenor, C. P., & Knudson, H. R. (1986*). Understanding organizational behavior.* USA: Merril publishing Co.

Cartwright, D. (1968). *Group Dynamics.* 3rd ed. New York: Harper & Row.

Cartwright, S. & Cooper, C. L. (1992). *Mergers and acquisitions: The human factor.* Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Cheung, C. C., & Chuah, K. B. (2002). Intergroup conflict management framework for Hong Kong's manufacturing Industry. *Engineering Management Journal, 12 (3),* pp. 26-33.

Clark, S. (1998). International competition and the treatment of minorities: Seventeenth-century cases and general propositions. *American Journal of Sociology, 103,* 1267-1308.

Cox, T. H., Jr. (1993*). Cultural diversity in organizations: Theory, research, and practice.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Cox, K. B. (2003). The effects of intrapersonal, intragroup and intergroup conflict on team performance effectiveness and work satisfaction. *Nursing Administration Quarterly, 27,* 153-163.

Cox, T. H., Jr., S. A. Lobel, and P. L. McLeod. (1991). "Effects of ethnic group cultural differences on cooperative and competitive behavior on a group task." *Academy of Management Journal, 34*, 827-847.

Cragan, J. F., Wright, D. W. & Kasch, C. R. (2004). *Communication in small groups: Theory, process, skills.* 6th Ed. Canada: Thomson Wordsworth

Cresswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). *Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. Theory into Practice, 39,* 124-131.

Crisp, R. J., Hewstone, M., & Cairns, E. (2001). Multiple identities in Northern Ireland: Hierarchical ordering in the representation of group membership. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 40*, 501-514.

Dahrendorf, R. (1959). Towards a theory of social conflict. *Journal of conflict resolution, 2,* 170-183, June.

Dahrendorf, R. (1965). *Class and conflict in industrial society*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Damon, W. (1991). "Problems of direction in socially shared cognition." In L.B. Resnick, J.M. Levine, & S. D. Teasley (eds.), *Perspectives on socially-shared cognition, pp.* 384-397. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Davis, M. H., Conklin, L., Smith, A., & Luce, C. (1996). Effect of perspective taking on the cognitive representation of persons: A merging of self and other. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 70,* 713–726.

Dent, J. F. (1991). "Accounting and Organizational Cultures: A Field study of the Emergence of New Organizational Reality". *Accounting, Organizations and, Society, 16,* 705-732.

Deutsch, M. (1973). *The resolution of conflict: Constructive and destructive processes.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Deutsch, M., & Coleman, P. T. (2000). "Interpersonal and Intergroup Processes" in *The Handbook of Conflict Resolution: Theory and Practice.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, (pp. 21-209).

Dollard, M. F., Winefield, A. H., & Winefield, H. R. (2003). *Occupational stress in the service professions.* London: Taylor & Francis.

Dovidio, J. F. (2001). A social psychology of national and international group relations. *Administrative Science Quarterly June*, 2001.

Dovidio, J. F., Gaertner, S. L., & Validzic, A. (1998). Intergroup bias: Status, differentiation, and a common in-group identity. *Journal of Personality arid Social Psychology, 75,* 109-120.

Enns, J., & Rotundo, M. (2004). *Intergroup conflict and group targets of organizational citizenship behaviour.* Joseph L. Rotman School of Management: University of Toronto

Esses, V. M., Jackson, L. M., & Armstrong, T. L. (1998). Intergroup competition and attitudes towards immigrants and immigration: An instrumental model of group conflict. *Journal of Social Issues, 54,* 699-724.

Fazio, R. H., Jackson, J. R., Dunton, B. C., & Williams, C. J. (1995). Variability in automatic activation as an unobtrusive measure of racial attitudes: A bona fide pipeline? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69,* 1013–1027.

Fielding, M. (2003). *Effective communication in organizations.* Cape Town: Juta

Filley, A. C. (1975). *Interpersonal conflict resolution.* Illinois: Scott Foresman

Fisher, J. A. (2000). *Management.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Fisher, R., & Ury, W. (1981). *Getting to yes: Negotiating agreement without giving In.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Fiske, S. T. (2002). What we know now about intergroup bias, the problem of the century. *American Pschycological Society, 11, 123-128.*

Forsyth, R. D. (2005). *Group dynamics.* 5th ED. London: Thompson.

Gaines, S. O., & Reed, E. S. (1995). Prejudice: From Allport to DuBois. *American Psychologist, 50,* 96-103.

Galanes, G. J., Adams, K., & Brillhart, J. K. (2004). *Effective group discussion: Theory and practice.* 11 TH Ed. New York: McGraw Hill.

Galinsky, A. D. (1999). *Perspective-taking: debiasing social thought.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Princeton University.

Galinsky, A. D. (2001). *The perspective-taker's take on contemporary discrimination.* Manuscript in preparation.

Galinsky, A.D. (2002). Creating and reducing intergroup conflict: The role of perspective-taking in affecting out-group evaluations. *Towards Phenomenology of Groups and Group Membership, 4,* 85–113.

Galinsky, A. D., & Moskowitz, G. B. (2000). Perspective-taking: Decreasing stereotype expression, stereotype accessibility, and in-group favouritism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 78,* 708–724.

Gardner, D. L. (1992). Conflict and retention of new graduate nurses. *Western Journal of Nursing Research, 14,* 76-85.

Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Donnelly, J. H. (2000*). Organizations: Behaviour, structure, processes.* 10th Ed. USA: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.

Gottlieb, M. R. (2003). *Managing group process.* Westport, CT: Praeger.

Greenberg, J., & Baron, R. A. (1995). *Bahavoiur in organizations.* London: Prentice Hall.

Gray, J. L., & Starke, F. A. (1994). *Organisational behaviour.* Third Ed. London; Merril publishing Co.

Gudykunst, W. B. (1986). *Intergroup communication.* London: Edward Arnold publishers.

Gurr, T. R. (1970). *Why men rebel.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Hansen, G. (2000). *Preparing the table: A retrospective on the centre for intergroup studies, 1968.* Cape Town, South Africa

Harrington, B., & Fine, G. A. (2000). Opening the black box: Small groups. *Review of Sociology, 27,* 387- 413.

Havenga, W. (2002). *Konflikdinamika binne 'n plaaslike bestuursomgewing.* Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Dissertation- M.A.)

Havenga, W. (2004). *Comparative analysis of conflict dynamics within private and public sector organisations.* Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Thesis- PhD).

Henderson, J. C. (1990). Plugging into strategic partnership: The critical IS connection. *Sloan Management Review, 31, 3.*

Hepworth, J. T., & West, S. G. (1988). Lynchings and the economy: A time-series reanalysis of Hovland and Sears (1940). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 55,* 364-379.

Hewstone, M. (1996). Contact and categorization: Social psychological interventions to change intergroup relations. In C. N. Macrae, C. Stangor, & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *Stereotypes and stereotyping* (pp. 323-368). New York: Guilford Press.

Hewstone, M. (2003). Intergroup contact: Panacea for prejudice? *The Psychologist, 16*, 352-355.

Hewstone, M., & Brown, R. D. (1986). *Contact and conflict in intergroup encounters.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Hewstone, M., & Cairns, E. (2001). Social psychology and intergroup conflict. In D. Chirot & M. E. P., Seligman (Eds.), *Ethnopolitical warfare: Causes, consequences, and possible solutions* (pp. 319-342). Washington, D.C: American Psychological Association.

Hilton, B. L. (1971). *Groups and organisations.* Wadsworth: California.

Himes, J. S. (1980). *Conflict and conflict management.* Athens: University of Georgia Press.

Hogg, M. A., & Abrams, D. (1988). *Social identifications: A social psychology of intergroup relations and group processes.* London: Routledge.

Homans, G. C. (1974). *The nature of social science.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.

Horwitz, F. M., Bravington, S., & Silvis, U. (2006). *The* promise of virtual teams: identifying key factors in effectiveness and failure. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 30,* 472-494.

House, R. J. (1991). The distribution and Exercise of Power in Complex Organisations: A Meso theory. *Leadership Quarterly, 2,* 23-58.

Insko, C. A., & Schopler, J. (1998). Differential distrust of groups and individuals. In: C. Sedikides, J. Schopler & C. A. Insko (Eds), *Intergroup cognition and intergroup behaviour* (pp. 75–108). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Jackson, S. E., & Associates. (1992). *Diversity in the workplace: Human resources initiatives.* New York: Guilford Press.

Jehn, K. A. (1997). A qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 42,* 530-557.

Jehn, K. A. (1999). Why differences make a difference: A field study of diversity, conflict, and performance in workgroups. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* December 1999.

Jetten, J., Spears, R., & Manstead, A. S. R. (1996). Intergroup norms and intergroup discrimination: Distinctive self-categorization and social identity effects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 71,* 1222-1233.

Jetten, J., Spears, R., & Manstead, A. S. R. (1998). Defining dimensions of distinctiveness: Group variability makes a difference to differentiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74,* 1481-1492.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. (1989). *Cooperation and competition: Theory and research.* Edina, MN: Interaction book company.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, F. P. (2000). *Joining together: Group theory and group skills.* 7th Ed. USA: Allyn & Bacon.

Joppe, M. (2000). *The Research Process.* Retrieved February 25, 1998, from http://www.ryerson.ca/~mjoppe/rp.htm

Jordaan, D. (1993). *Konflik en geweld as determinante van arbeidsonrus by 'n Voedselvervaardigingsonderneming.* Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Thesis- PhD).

Kanter, R. M. (1983). *The change masters.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

Keane, F. (1995). *Season of blood:* A *Rwandan journey.* London: Penguin Books.

King, L. (1981). Three cheers for conflict. *Personnel Journal, January- February, 13-22.*

Koortzen, P., & Wrogemann, P. (2003). Intergroup dynamics in a business consulting organisation. *South African Journal of Labour Relations: Spring/Summer 2003*

Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (2005). *Organizational behaviour.* Sixth Ed. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Kriesberg, L. (1973). *The Sociology of social confclits.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Kruger, M. M. (1999). *Die belewing van kommunikasie binne 'n plaaslike owerheid.* Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO.

Kruger, S. J., Smit, E. & Le Roux, W. L. P. (2000). *Basiese sielkunde vir menslikehulpbron-praktisyns.* Cape Town: Creda Communications.

Larkey, L. K. (1996). Towards a theory of communicative interactions in culturally diverse workgroups. *Academy of Management Review, 21*, 463-491.

Larson, E. C., & Lafasto, F. M. J. (1989). *Teamwork.* Tenth Ed. Sage: London.

Lawrence, P. R., & Lorsch, J. W. (1967). *Organization and environment.* Homewood: Irwin Dorsey.

LeVine, R. A., & Campbell, D. T. (1972). *Ethnocentrism: Theories of conflict, ethnic attitudes and group behavior.* New York: Wiley.

Levine, John M., & L. B. Resnick. (1993). "Social foundations of cognitions." *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*, 585-612.

Lewis, J. D., & Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a Social reality. *Social forces, 63,* 967-985.

Linville, P. W. (1998). The heterogeneity of homogeneity. In J. Cooper, & J. Darley (Eds.), *Attribution processes arid social interaction: The legacy of Edward E. Jones (*pp. 423-462). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Lopreato, J., & Hazelrigg, L. E. (1972). *Class, conflcit and mobility.* San Francisco: Chandler Publishing.

Lumsden, G. & Lumsden, D. (1993). *Communication in-groups and teams.* Wadsworth: California.

Luthans, F. (1992). *Organizational behaviour.* Sixth Ed. USA: McGraw-Hill.

Mackie, D. M., Devos, T., & Smith, E. R. (2000). Intergroup emotions: Explaining offensive action tendencies in an intergroup context. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 79,* 602-616.

Mael, F. A., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 13,* 134-147.

Marx, K. (1965). *The class struggle. Theories of society: Foundations of modern sociological theory.* New York: Free Press.

Marx, K. (1971). Preface to *A Contribution to the Critique of Political Economy,* Tr. S. W. Ryanzanskaya, edited by M. Dobb. London: Lawrence & Whishart.

Maznevski, M. L. (1994). Understanding our differences: Performance in decision-making groups with diverse members. *Human Relations, 47,* 531-552.

Messick, D. (1993). Equality as a Decision Heuristic. In B. A Mellers & J. Baron (Eds), *Psychological perspectives on justice.* (pp. 11-31). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Monteiro, M. B. (2003). Dealing with intergroup conflicts in organizations: A challenge to the right of diversity. *European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology, 5,* 79-88.

Moore, C. W. (1986). *The mediation process: Practical strategies for resolving conflict.* San Francisco: Jossey bass.

Moorman, C., Zaltman. G., & Deshpande, R. (1992). Relationships between Providers and Users of Market Research: The dynamics of trust within and between organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research, 29,* 314-328.

Moreland, R. L., Levine, J. M., & Wingert, M. L. (1996). Creating the ideal group: Composition effects at work. In E. H. Witte & J. H. Davis (Eds), *Understanding group behaviour, 2, Small group processes and interpersonal relations.* (pp. 11–35).

Morrison, A. M. (1992). *The new leaders: Guidelines on leadership diversity in America.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Murphy, A. (1994). The enemy within. *INC, 3, 58-69.*

Myers, D. (1997). Racial rioting in the 1960s: An event history analyses of local conditions. *American Sociological Review, 62,* 94-112.

Nadler, J., Thompson, L., & Morris, M. (1999). "*Schmooze or lose: The efforts of Rapport and Gender in E-mail Negotiations.*" Paper presented at the academy of Management Annual conference, Chicago IL.

Napier, R. W.,& Gershenfield, M.K. (1989). *Groups.* Fourth Ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Neal, J.D. (2003). Conflict Management. *J. D. Neal and Associate.* Retrieved March 7, 2007, from *www.4thstreettraining.com.*

Nel, P.S., Swanepoel, B.J., Kirsten, M., Erasmus, B.J. & Tsabadi. M.J. (2004). *Employment Relations in South Africa.* 5th ED. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Nelson, K.M., & Cooprider. J.G. (1996). The Contribution of Shared Knowledge to IS Group Performance. *MIS Quarterly, 20,* 409-432.

Nelson, D.L., & Quick, J.C. (2006). *Organizational Behaviour: Foundations, Realities and Challenges.* USA: South- Western Publishing.

Niens, U., Cairns., E. & Hewstone, M. (2003). Contact and conflict in Northern Ireland. In O. Hargie, & D. Dickson (Eds.), *Researching the Troubles: Social science perspectives on the Northern Ireland conflict* (pp. 123-140). Edinburgh: Mainstream Publishing.

Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge-creating company.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Nonaka, I., & Johansson, J. K. (1985). Japanese management: What about the hard skills. *Academy of Management review, 10,* 181-191.

Oakes, P. J., Haslam, A., & Turner, J. C. (1994). *Stereotyping and social reality.* Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Outreach Studies. (1998*). Conflict management.* Texas Tech University Division of Outreach and Extended Studies, *August* 31, 1998.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). Qualitative evaluation and research methods. 3rd Ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Payne, R., & Cooper, G. L. (1987). *Groups at work.* New York: John Willey & Sons.

Pelled, L. H. (1996). Demographic diversity, conflict and work group outcomes: An intervening process theory. *Organization Science, 7, 615- 631.*

Pettigrew, T. F. (1979). The ultimate attribution error: Extending Allport's cognitive analysis of prejudice. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 5,* 461-476.

Pettigrew, T. F. (1998). Intergroup contact theory. *Annual Review of Psychology, 49*, 65-85.

Pondy, L. R. (1969). Reflections on organizational conflict. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 13,* 125-261.

Prapavessis, H., & Carron, A. V. (1997). Sacrifice, cohesion, and conformity to norms in sport teams. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 1,* 231-240.

Pruitt, D.G., & Lewis, S. A. (1975). Development of Integrative Solutions in Bilateral Negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28,* 472-483.

Pruitt, D. G., & Rubin, J. Z. (1986). *Social conflict: Escalation, stalemate and settlement.* New York: Random House.

Prunier, O. (1995). *The Rwanda crisis* (1959-1994): *History of a genocide.* London: Hurst.

Rahim, M. A. (1986). *Managing conflict on organisations.* New York: Praeger.

Raiffa, H. (1982). *The art and science of negotiation.* Cambridge, MA: Belknap.

Robbins, S. P. (1996). *Organisational behaviour.* Seventh Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Roy, D. (2006). Cooperation and conflict in the factory: Some observations and questions regarding conceptualization of intergroup relations within bureaucratic social structures. *Qualitive Sociology, 29,* 6-9.

Rudman, L. A., & Fairchild, K. (2004). Reactions to counter stereotypic behavior: The role of backlash in cultural stereotype maintenance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 87,* 157-176.

Rutzburg, W. H. (1999). *Organisational behavior.* Retrieved 16 July, 2007 from www.geocities.com/Athens/Forum/1650/htmlintergroupconflict.html.

Schaufeli, W. B., & Enzmann, D. (1998). *The burnout companion to study and practice: A critical analysis.* London: Taylor

Schrage, M. (1990). *Shared minds: The new technologies of collaboration.* New York: Random House.

Schultz, H., Bagraim, J., Potgieter, T., Viedge, C., & Werner, A. (2003). *Organisational behaviour.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Seltzer, J., & Numerof, R. E. (1988). Supervisory leadership and subordinate burnout. *Academy of Management Journal, 31,* 439-446.

Shaw, M. E. (1971). *Group dynamics.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sherif, M. (1966). *Intergroup conflict and cooperation.* Boston: Houghton Miflin

Sitkin, S., & Roth, N. L. (1993). Exploring the Limited effectiveness of Legalistic remedies for Trust/Distrust. *Organization Science, 4,* 467-492.

Skinner, N., & Roche, A. (2005). *Stress and Burnout: A prevention handbook for the alcohol and other drugs workforce.* National Centre for Education and Training on Addiction, Flinders University, Adelaide, Australia.

Skinner, N., & Roche, A. M. (2005). *Identifying and preventing burnout in AOD managers and supervisors. Literature review and stakeholder consultation.* National Centre for Education and Training on Addiction (NCETA), Flinders University, Adelaide, Australia.

Sparks, K., Faragher, B., & Cooper, C. L. (2001). Well-being and occupational health in the 21st century workplace. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 74,* 489-509.

Spector, P. E. (2000). A control theory of the job stress process. In C. L. Cooper (Ed.), *Theories of organizational stress.* New York: Oxford University Press.

SPSS 17.0 (2008). SPSS statistical programme. Chigago, Illionios.

Stasser, G. (1992). Information salience and the discovery of hidden profiles by decision-making groups: A 'thought experiment. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 52*, 156-181.

Stenbacka, C. (2001). Qualitative research requires quality concepts of its own. *Management Decision, 39,* 551-555

Streufert, S., & Streufert, S. C. (1986). The development of international conflict. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *Psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 134-152). Chicago: Nelson-Hall

Stroh, L. K. (2002). *Organizational behaviour: A management challenge.* Fort Worth: Dryden Press.

Swanepoel, B. J., Erasmus, B. J. Van Wyk, M., & Scenk. H. (2005). *South African human resource management.* Third Ed. Cape Town: Juta.

Swanson, E. B. (1974). Management information systems: Appreciation and involvement. *Management Science, 21,* 178-188.

Tajfel, H. (Ed.). (1978). *Differentiation between social groups.* London: Academic Press.

Tajfel, H. (1979). Individuals and groups in social psychology. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 18, 183-190.

Tajfel, H. (1981). Social stereotypes and social groups. In J. C. Turner & H. Giles (Eds.), *Intergroup behaviour* (pp. 144-167). Oxford, England: Basil Blackwell.

Tajfel, H. (Ed.). (1982). *Social identity and intergroup relations*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H., Billig, M. G., Bundy, R. P., & Flament, C. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 2,* 149-178.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin, & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Takas, K. (2002). *Social networks and Intergroup conflict*. Gronigen: University of Groningen.

Taylor, D. M., & Moghaddam, F. M. (1994). *Theories of intergroup relations: International social psychological perspectives.* New York: Praeger.

Terry, D. J. & O'Brien, A. T. (2001). Status, legitimacy and in-group bias in the context of an organizational merger. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 4,* 271–89.

Thomas, D.A. (1998). Cultural diversity at work: The Effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Journal of Social Issues, Winter 1998.*

Thomas, D. A. (2001). Cultural diversity at work: The effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly, June, 2001.*

Thompson, L. (1991). Information exchange in negotiation. *Journal of*

Experimental Social Psychology, 27, 161-179.

Thompson, L. L. (2004). *Making the team.* Second Ed. New Jersey: Pearson.

Thomas, R. R., Jr. (1991). *Beyond race and gender.* New York: American Management Association.

Tindale, R. S., & Sheffey, S. (2002). Shared information, cognitive load, and group Memory. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations, 5,* 5-18.

Tyler, T. R., & Blader, S. L. (2001). Identity and cooperative behaviour in-groups. *Group processes and Intergroup relations, 4,* 207-226.

Toscano, R. (1998). *"The Face of the Other: Ethics and Intergroup Conflict," The Handbook of Interethnic Coexistence.* New York: Continuum Publishing. pp. 63-81

Tosi, H. L., Mero, N. P., & Rizzo, J. R. (2000). *Managing organizational behavior.* 4th Ed. Oxford: Blackwell.

Tsjovold, D. (1978). Control strategies and own group evaluation of intergroup conflict. *The Journal of Psychology, 100,* 305-314.

Turner, J. C. (1978). 'Social comparison, similarity and in-group favouritism'. In H. Tajfel (ed.), *Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations.* New York, NY: Academic Press, (pp. 235-50.)

Turner, J. C. (1999). Some current issues in research on social identity and

self-categorization theories. In N. Ellemers, R. Spears, & B. Doosje (Eds.), *Social identity: Context, commitment, content* (pp. 6-34). Oxford: Blackwell.

Turner, J. C. & Brown, R. (1978). 'Social status, cognitive alternatives and intergroup relations'. In H. Tajfel (ed.), *Differentiation between social groups: studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations*. New York, NY: Academic Press, (pp. 201-34).

Vaes, J., Paladino, M. P., Castelli, L., Leyens, J., & Giovanazzi, A. (2003). On the behavioral consequences of infrahumanization: The implicit role of uniquely human emotions in intergroup relations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85,* 1016-1034.

Vago, S. (1996). *Social change*. 4th Ed. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Van der Merwe, H. W. (2000). *Peacemaking in South Africa: A life in conflict resolution*. Cape Town: Tafelberg.

Van der Vliet, E. (1985). Escalative intervention in small group conflicts. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Winter 1985, pp. 19-36.*

Venter, R. (2004). *Labour relations in South Africa.* 2nd Ed. Oxford: Cape Town.

Visagie, J. C., & Linde, H. M. (2006). *Sosiale patologie en die onderneming as sisteem sosiale verandering en sosiale teorieë.* Noordwes-Universiteit, Potchefstroomkampus: Studiegids Bsop 151.

Wallace, R. C., & Wallace, W. D. (1989). *Sociology*. 2nd Ed. Boston:

Allyn and Bacon.

Wallace, R. A. & Wolf, A. (1995). *Contemporary sociological theory.* Englewood Cliffs, N.Y: Prentice- Hall.

Walton, R. (1969). *Interpersonal peacemaking.* Reading Mass. Addison-wesley.

Weick, K. E. (1982). Management of organizational change among loosely coupled elements. In *Change in organizations*, P.S. Goodman & Associates (Eds.) Jossey bass: San Francisco.

Weingart, L. R., Bennet., & Brett, J. F. (1993). The impact of Considertaion of Issues and Motivational Orientation on Group Negotiation Process and Outcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 78,* 504-517.

Wilder, D. A. (1978). Reduction of intergroup discrimination through individuation of the out-group. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36,* 1361–1374.

Wilder, D. A. (1986). Social categorization: Implications for creation and reduction of intergroup bias. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 19, pp. 293–355). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Winter, G. (2000). A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research. *The Qualitative Report, 4.* Retrieved February 25, 1998, from http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR4-3/winter.html

Yalom, I. D. (1985). *The theory and practice of group psychotherapy.* Third Ed. New York: Basic Books.

Zartman, I.W., & Touval, S. (1985). International mediation: Conflict Resolution and power politics. *Journal of Social issues, 41(2),* 27-46.

Zeleny, M. (1989). Knowledge as a new form of Capital: Part 1. Division and Reintegration of knowledge. *Human Systems Management, 8,* 45-58.

Zucker, L. (1986). Production of Trust: Institutional Sources of Economic Structure, 1840-1920. In *Research in Organizational Behaviour, 8,* 53-111.